ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMISSION
FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

UNITED NATIONS
DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

INTEGRATING
UNPAID WORK
INTO NATIONAL POLICIES

UNITED NATIONS

Integrating unpaid work into national policies

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UNITED NATIONS
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PROMOTING GENDER EQUALITY IN THE ASIAN AND PACIFIC REGION
COMPONENT 1: INTEGRATING UNPAID WORK INTO NATIONAL POLICIES
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Foreword

This Guidebook is an attempt to bring together the various aspects of the work involved in improving the situation of unpaid workers, especially women. It begins with an appreciation of the methodologies used in data collection and analysis of time use as experienced in many countries, both developing and developed. The Guidebook offers some techniques in the valuation of unpaid work, which remains a fertile area for further refinement. It also explores some possible areas for policy development using data on unpaid work. As data and statistics on unpaid work become useful to the extent that they are used in policy formulation, so is advocacy for policy action a key strategy for promoting gender equality.

Much work and resources have gone into the preparation of this Guidebook. This effort must result in more countries including time-use data in national statistical systems, the valuing unpaid work appropriately, taking policy actions including programmes and services addressing the concerns of unpaid workers, and allocating resources for such actions.

It is hoped that this Guidebook will contribute to the improvement of the situation of unpaid workers, whether women, men or children.

Andrew Flatt
Chief, Statistics Division
ESCAP

About this guidebook

What is the purpose of this Guidebook?

This Guidebook offers a toolbox that is intended to help improve the collection, analysis and utilization of data and statistics on unpaid work to ensure more relevant policy-making and programming. The approach emphasizes the need to understand how economic activities, time use and valuation of unpaid work are likely to affect development programmes that are responsive to people's needs and situations, particularly those of women.

The Guidebook draws heavily from country experiences. These show the utilization of time-use data as a tool for measuring and estimating the economic value of unpaid work, and the inclusion of the results in policy formulation. It is designed to draw on the collective expertise of statisticians and technical staff involved in policy and planning as well as advocates of gender-friendly policies in engaging in a participatory process of change.

The overall purpose is to help build capacities in the collection, analysis and use of statistics on unpaid work in order to facilitate the achievement of sustainable, equitable and efficient development through gender-sensitive policies and strategies.

The Guidebook thus provides methodologies, materials and tools for producing and utilizing time-use data and gender-based information. It introduces the rationale and methodology of recognizing and measuring unpaid work as part of the full range of work undertaken by women and men.

Specifically, the Guidebook aims to assist statisticians, policy analysts and development advocates, and collaboratively, enable them to:

- Plan and conduct a time-use survey either as an independent study or as part of a multi-purpose survey;
- Apply approaches in the measurement and valuation of unpaid work;
- Analyse the status of unpaid workers in the broader context of human rights and development;
- Generate policy options using time-use survey data and related statistics and information; and
- Use data and statistics as tools for advocacy for policy action that addresses unpaid work.

For whom is this Guidebook intended?

This Guidebook is directed toward statisticians, policy analysts and development advocates. Together, they can create an impact in highlighting the contribution of women's work to the economic and social development of families, communities and society as a whole. Statisticians will find the Guidebook informative and useful in appreciating that data generation is part of a process that ultimately should result in policy and public action. On the other hand, policy analysts will find the Guidebook useful in understanding that a sound database is the key to informed decisions for public action. Working with statisticians and policy analysts, development advocates play a key role in helping convert data and statistics into actionable messages, and ensuring that these messages reach those who have the power to act on them. Statisticians and policy analysts themselves are essentially development advocates.

The Guidebook has been designed to enable these groups to use or adapt the materials on their own or in team-training to help maximize their individual contributions. The Guidebook also provides useful resource material for ongoing training in the application of statistics in development planning, and could easily serve as a learning tool in self-directed training.

How is the Guidebook organized?

The Guidebook introduces the context of the issues and concerns related to unpaid work. It further outlines the main steps from the collection and valuation of time-use data to policy formulation and advocacy as contained in the five modules. The sixth module presents selected country experiences that attempt to illustrate the process of choosing and promoting policy action based on time-use and other related data. Each module is designed to stand alone; however, together, the modules address the needed connectedness among the three groups of intended users.

Module 1 stresses the importance of time-use data in analysing unpaid work performed by women and men in society. Based on 19 country experiences, this module shows that time-use surveys, whether undertaken independently or as part of a multi-purpose survey, are capable of collecting data on unpaid work. There are reasonably well-developed concepts, methods and tools that could help guide the undertaking of such surveys at the national level.

Module 2 defines unpaid work in the context of household production. It examines various approaches in the valuation of unpaid work outside the System of National Accounts (SNA) activities. The module raises the significance of information on unpaid work as inputs to gender-friendly policy decisions and action. National accounts compilers and other interested users will find this module especially helpful in understanding or measuring the monetary value of unpaid work in household domestic and personal services for self-consumption.

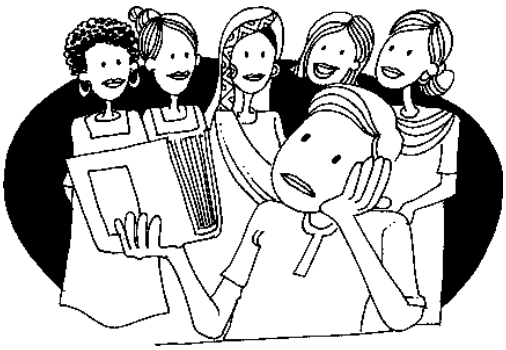
Module 3 provides the context in which unpaid work is being shared by women and men, by analysing the prevailing situation in the country including an understanding of the antecedents and consequences of unpaid work. The situation analysis covers the existing policy environment in a country as a basis for any further policy intervention to bring about gender equality in sharing unpaid work.

Module 4 discusses and presents policy components designed to lead to the integration of unpaid work in national policies. Ideas for possible policy action are also proposed. These policy considerations are intended to promote gender equality in bringing about women's economic empowerment.

Module 5 places advocacy work within the overall social mobilization and communication framework for integrating the issues of unpaid work into national policies. These efforts begin as early as the planning stage of the time-use survey or a multi-purpose survey integrating time-use data collection. The module outlines the steps in policy advocacy work. It is designed to help ensure that key actors fully understand the significance of increasing the visibility of unpaid work and, consequently, are able to take appropriate policy action.

Module 6 presents country experiences on how time-use data have been collected, analysed, measured and valued, and how they have provided information for policy action and advocacy. The experiences of the Republic of Korea, India and Mongolia convey useful lessons in overcoming issues that emerge in the process of time-use data collection. More importantly, the country case studies point to the use of data and statistics for policy decisions that would positively affect women and men engaged in unpaid work.

How can this Guidebook help in promoting women's economic empowerment?



Materials from country experiences in the Asia-Pacific region are used to highlight concepts, principles and lessons learnt in exploring time-use data to highlight disparities in the day-to-day work that women and men do. Hard data and statistics will make the unpaid work of women and men more visible so that these workers will not remain marginalized by policy actions that exclude them. The Guidebook offers a roadmap in formulating and enacting policy action designed to improve the situation of unpaid workers, especially women. Such informed policy action can make a difference in the lives of women and men who have the existing potential to increase their contribution to national productivity. It is hoped that statisticians, policy and planning staff and development advocates will join together in promoting public action that will not only help recognize the contribution of unpaid workers but also enable them to articulate their needs and initiate self-development.

Acknowledgements

This Guidebook drew its contents initially from the experiences of three countries in the Asia-Pacific region during the pilot stage of the methodological inquiry for measuring and valuing unpaid work. India, the Philippines and the Republic of Korea took the lead in looking into time-use studies that measured unpaid work. Their investigations moved forward from the pilot stage, spilling over to other countries such as Mongolia and Nepal. They, in turn, initiated their own studies, focusing on the use of data thus produced for policy change.

The major source of materials for the Guidebook came from the resource persons' presentations and exchanges of country experiences at regional workshops on integrating paid and unpaid work into national policies. The first workshop was held in September 2000 followed by the second one in March 2001, both at Bangkok. The team of contributors reflects the spirit of the Guidebook, seeking to bring together a group of collaborators in generating, measuring and analysing time-use and other data, statistics and information for gender-sensitive policy and programme intervention.

The members of the Regional Resource Group on Paid and Unpaid Work (RRG), which was organized to support training and provide technical advice on field methodologies, provided guidance and much needed inputs in the preparation of this document. They offered valuable insights and views that helped shape the Guidebook.

Chaired by the Director of the ESCAP Statistics Division, the RRG comprises the heads of the national statistical offices of Cambodia, India, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Nepal, the Philippines, Republic of Korea, Thailand and Viet Nam.

Further support is given to the RRG by the senior staff of ESCAP, agencies including the International Labour Organization (ILO), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United Nations Development Fund for Women, United Nations Population Fund Country Technical Services Teams for East and South-East Asia, together with the Social Development Division, ESCAP.

The RRG also benefits from the membership of the UN Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific (SIAP), a regional training institution of ESCAP based in Japan.

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Finally, this Guidebook represents the contributions of the authors listed below with their major affiliation at the time of drafting the Guidebook. Their multidisciplinary orientation provided a holistic approach to the collection, analysis and utilization of data and statistics on unpaid work for policy formulation.

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INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Women contribute to development not only through remunerated work but also through a great deal of unremunerated work. Women's contribution to development is seriously underestimated, and thus its social recognition is limited. The full visibility of the type, extent and distribution of this unremunerated work will also contribute to a better sharing of responsibilities.

The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, United Nations, 1996.

The Beijing Platform for Action from the 1995 Fourth World Conference of Women has been a major driving force in recognizing social and economic disparities arising from gender roles. More importantly, this action agenda called on governments, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), civil society groups and all those who could and should participate in translating national commitments into tangible programmes for achieving gender equality. The social and cultural constructs of gender are manifested in the differential nature of participation of women and men in the labour market (United Nations, 2000; Floro, 1999). In general, women have to combine market work with family responsibilities. Consequently, they are often found in occupations that are different from those of men, usually in the less formal types of work and lower in status. Although the wage differential has narrowed, women receive less pay than men even in the same occupational category. Also, women proportionately spend more time in unpaid work than men.

The High-level Intergovernmental Meeting that took place in October 1999 reviewed progress in the regional implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action. This Meeting reiterated an earlier recommendation related to the recording, measurement and valuation of unremunerated work. To further intensify national efforts in implementing the Beijing Platform, the Meeting sought affirmative action for governments and other actors to undertake:

> **"GENDER ANALYSIS OF MEN'S AND WOMEN'S PAID AND UNPAID ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, INCLUDING THROUGH PERIODIC TIME-USE SURVEYS, SHOULD BE CARRIED OUT TO ACHIEVE BETTER HARMONIZATION OF FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES. THE VALUE OF UNPAID WORK SHOULD BE REFLECTED IN OFFICIAL ACCOUNTS."**
>
> **ESCAP, 2000**

Determining the extent of time use as a valuable economic resource becomes a critical step in examining the contribution of women and men to development. The challenge is how to measure, valuate and analyse unpaid work. A central issue is assisting policy makers to gain a better understanding of their implications for

improving the social and economic well-being of women and men as well as the political status of women. All these efforts require a systematic process leading to effective policy decisions that could be implemented within the socio-economic framework of a country. Informed policy options that would have an impact on the situation of women and men must recognize their contributions at home and in the community whether paid or unpaid. A more vigorous implementation of global and national commitments would further help to ensure the promotion and protection of the human rights of women, men and children.

International commitment to gender and development

A rights perspective to gender equality

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights. At the core of the human rights framework are the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and its two Optional Protocols covered by the International Bill of Rights (United Nations, 1998). The international human rights framework is founded on the principles of universality, indivisibility, interdependence, inalienability and accountability. This coherent body of principles is intended to uphold the rights of men and women, girls and boys, without discrimination, at all times. The principles offer a framework for needs assessment and analysis leading to a holistic approach to policy, programme decisions and resource allocation.

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. The international obligation to "respect, protect and fulfill" human rights has committed governments to pursuing equality in access to opportunities and the enjoyment of the benefits of development between women and men, girls and boys. The provisions of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) elaborates on the Bill of Rights in relation to girls and women (United Nations, 1998). Adopted in 1979 by the United Nations General Assembly and entered into force in 1981, and currently having 165 States Parties, CEDAW sets up an agenda for national action to end all forms of discrimination in the social, economic, political and civil domains. To guarantee women's full human rights, CEDAW includes elimination of discrimination in both public and private life as well as within the family. CEDAW promotes women's equal participation in decision-making and access to, and control of, resources and power.

Convention on the Rights of the Child. This Convention, which is the most widely ratified human rights instrument, sets the international standard on how society should treat its children, both girls and boys (United Nations, 1990). A basic principle is nondiscrimination in all

decisions affecting their situation. The Convention is aimed at protecting the rights of children, girls and boys, as participating and full members of society, whose views should be accorded respect and consideration in decision-making, as any adult's opinion. Affirming gender equality early on in the life cycle would have an impact on the perception of the roles of women and men in the social, cultural and economic spheres.

Fourth World Conference on Women, 1995. A further impetus to the commitment to increase women's social, economic and political participation is the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women and through the Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA) agreed thereat. BPFA called for the recognition and visibility of women's work, particularly in the unremunerated sector. This international plea was reinforced by the 1995 Human Development Report, which focused attention on women's contribution to the economic and social development of their own family, community and society. It was argued that two thirds of the work done by women is unpaid and left out of national statistics. Therefore, as equal players in resource generation in the continuing struggle against poverty, women's and men's work must be equally recognized. Policies that would help advance their entitlements as well as their roles and responsibilities would enhance further their centrality as participants of development. Support for recognizing the contribution of women must come first from within the immediate household and community settings. Moreover, understanding and action must come from all fronts that will help identify the different needs of households and communities, and how these affect women, men and children as well, in order to rationalize policy decisions. In this regard, there has to be a systematic approach to programme action including resource allocation, public awareness and advocacy.

Promoting gender equality in the Asia-Pacific region

Asia-Pacific Gender Equality Network. The greater challenge of national implementation has followed the ratification of CEDAW and agreement to BPFA. In response, the United Nations Office for Project Services (UNOPS) supported by UNDP helped to initiate the Asia-Pacific Gender Equality Network (APGEN). This project seeks to promote gender equality by developing policies and programmes that ensure equal opportunities and access to resources for women and men. Moreover, it aims to move forward their equal participation in economic and political decision-making. It builds on the achievements already made by the women's movement and initiatives of governments in the region (ESCAP, 2000).

In addition, the APGEN project aims to contribute to a holistic approach in promoting gender equality in the Asia-Pacific region. Its four components are designed to address inequalities through women's economic and political empowerment. These components are: integrating unpaid work into national policies; using science and technology for women's economic empowerment; promoting women's participation in political decision-making; and facilitating CEDAW implementation. Each component serves to strengthen the others.

The project component on integrating unpaid work into national policies involves the development of approaches for collecting, analysing and interpreting statistics on unpaid work done by women and men from time-use and related surveys on labour force, income and expenditure, and living conditions. The valuation of unpaid work is a key analytical tool. The project supports national-level advocacy for policies and public action that recognize the contribution of unpaid work to the economic and social well-being of the people, particularly the poor.

As part of the capacity-building element of the project, the Statistics Division of ESCAP initiated regional workshops to help produce this Guidebook, which is designed to mainstream statistical information on women's work in decision-making. The workshops brought together the experts' thinking and country experiences in the collection, measurement and analysis of time-use data and their implications for policy action and advocacy work.

The nature of women's and men's work

The World's Women 2000 noted that globally more and more women were joining the paid labour force, accounting for a third of the total labour market. While women's participation in paid work increased in many regions owing to policies facilitating entrepreneurship, men's participation in paid work declined. Women in Asia, like their counterparts in other regions, have stayed in paid work throughout their lives including their childbearing years. This suggests that women have to juggle time between family responsibilities and market work. More than 50 per cent of the world's women are in paid employment in all regions. However, there is a higher proportion of men than women employees except in East Asia. The market unemployment rate for women is higher than for men.

A growing informal sector worldwide has been accompanied by an increase in self-employment among women over men. Micro and small-scale enterprises are the channels for women who are self-employed. For women, self-employment carries with it job insecurity and a lack of social protection.

In addition, an increasing number of women worldwide are engaged in home-based market work. In response

TOWARDS A DEFINITION OF WORK

Work "refers to the participation of individuals in productive activities for which they either receive remuneration (in cash or in kind) for their participation or are unpaid because they are contributors to a family business enterprise. It also includes subsistence production of goods for their own households and non-economic activities such as domestic work, family and elder care, construction or repair of owner-occupied buildings, and volunteer work for which individuals receive no remuneration."

The World's Women 2000, United Nations, 2000, p. 109

to the need for the protection of women and men working in such a setting, ILO adopted the Convention on Home Work, setting standards for minimum pay and working conditions.

The World's Women 2000 further stated that most women and men divided their time between paid and unpaid work – either caring for their families or producing subsistence goods. However, while women spend as much time as men on paid work, they spend twice as much or even more time than men on unpaid work. The Report compared the time-use of women and men on unpaid work as follows:

- Women's total time worked generally exceeded men's.
- More than half of women's total work time was unpaid work time.
- Women spent more time than men on unpaid work and much less time on paid work.
- Small children in households increased unpaid work time for women and paid work time for men.
- Women spent more than twice as much time as men on childcare.
- At older ages, women spent more time working than men due to the greater amount of time they spent on unpaid work.

While women and men are engaged in paid work, their working conditions and opportunities may not be equal. Unpaid work of women and men represents a very large contribution to economic activity but has yet to be reflected appropriately in the SNA. In particular, the caring nature of women's unpaid work constitutes a vital contribution to societal development. It deserves to be valued accordingly.

Defining unpaid work

The quotation in the box indicates the inadequate and misleading state of affairs in the preparation and use of statistics on work. All work is productive work. All work is economic work. Work occurs within the general production boundary. It is slowly becoming clear that it is inappropriate to describe only work that falls inside the limited scope of the SNA production boundary as economic work. Accordingly, all people who perform work, paid or unpaid, are economically active. It is, and always has been, quite misleading to regard people who perform only unpaid household work outside the

The System of National Accounts: Work and production boundaries

- **Work that falls within the SNA production boundary is considered economic in labour force statistics and the person engaged only in such activities is recorded as economically active.**
- **Work that falls outside the SNA production boundary is considered non-economic in labour force statistics, and the person engaged only in such activities is not recorded as economically active.**

The World's Women 2000, United Nations, p. 134

SNA production boundary as economically inactive. Similarly, it is inappropriate to regard activities such as "domestic work, family and elder care, construction or repair of owner-occupied buildings and volunteer work" as non-economic activities. These activities, although outside the restrictive SNA production boundary, are within the wider boundary of "production" within the concept of a total economic system. Accordingly they are economic activities. The label of "non-economic" is misleading and simply incorrect.

The concern for developing a more comprehensive knowledge of all forms of work springs from limitations of measuring economic activities and estimating the value of production within the "production boundary set by the System of National Accounts." Ironmonger (2000) has emphasized that employment statistics cover less than half of all valuable work done in the total economic system. Because of this, the national accounts and the official statistics of work are vastly incomplete. Regular statistical measurement has not attempted to capture much of subsistence work and production or all household work and production. The unpaid economic activities performed by women and men while contributing to the maintenance of day-to-day living or even to the production of goods and services, are excluded from current national accounts estimates. The value of such unpaid work is no different from the work and value included within the production boundary of the SNA.

A broad definition of unpaid work starts with distinguishing between two work categories-work covered in the SNA production boundary and work covered in the general production boundary but outside the SNA boundary.

Within the SNA production boundary, unpaid work includes unpaid activities such as:

- **Work done in a family enterprise or agricultural holding on an unpaid basis**

  This would include activities undertaken that contribute to the family's production of goods and services intended for use and consumption by others and which is not considered in the final value of the goods or services thus produced.

- **Primary production of goods primarily for own-household consumption including subsistence farming**

  These activities would include, for example: preparing the soil, sowing, planting, and harvesting crops; gathering fruit, wild fruit, medicinal and other plants; tending, feeding or hunting animals mainly to obtain meat, milk, hair, skin or other products in or around a household compound;

"…the unpaid work of women and men adds value to the commodities purchased from the market or obtained from subsistence agriculture, fishing or hunting. In most countries, this household work and this household value added is of the same magnitude as the work and value included within the production boundary of the SNA."

Duncan Ironmonger 2000, "An overview of time-use surveys", in proceedings of the International Seminar on Time-Use Studies, 7-10 December 1999, Ahmedabad, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India, New Delhi, p. 12

gathering firewood and fetching water; breeding or catching fish and cultivating or gathering other forms of aquatic life; and storing and carrying out some basic processing of products.

- **Production of services for income and other production of goods that are not related to formal employment**

  This typically includes income-generating services and production of non-primary goods for sale or for a household's own consumption. Examples include: work done on a contractual basis on residential premises, as a pieceworker or outworker and assisting a family member or relative with such work; building shelters and making simple tools, clothes and utensils for household use; own-account construction and major repairs such as re-plastering walls or repairing roofs etc.; and providing services such as hair dressing, sewing or mending of clothes for payment in cash or in-kind.

Within the general production boundary but outside the SNA, unpaid work includes the following groups of activities:

- **Meal preparation, laundry and clothes care, household maintenance, management and shopping for own household**

  These activities refer to the production of meals and services such as laundry and cleaning, general management of the household and shopping, performed by members of the household for their own household. This group covers domestic and related activities, including shopping and household maintenance, carried out for own consumption within households.

- **Care of children, the sick, elderly and disabled for own household**

  This covers individual services pertaining to the physical care of children and care provided to other members of the household who are sick, disabled or elderly, excluding those provided by paid domestic service workers.

- Volunteer community services and help to other households or people, which are provided on a 'voluntary basis' either directly or indirectly through volunteer-based organizations and groups.

In efforts aimed at improving the measurement of unpaid work, both categories of unpaid work should be taken into account. The first category is theoretically included in gross domestic product (GDP) measurements based on the SNA. The major measurement issue, however, is that of under-coverage or under-reporting. For household production accounts and valuation of unpaid work, the second category of activities raises great interest. While these activities contribute to economic production and even directly in terms of developing, nurturing and protecting human resources, these do not even get reported much less valued in the SNA. Country experiences, though, have shown the feasibility of measuring and valuing unpaid work, both inside and outside the SNA boundaries.

Gender equality: A framework for analysing unpaid work

The human rights of women, men and children (boys and girls) are founded on the basic principle of equality. International human rights instruments such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) seek to dismantle discrimination by virtue of a person's sex, in the enjoyment of development opportunities including access to services and benefits.

Throughout history, society has typically allocated different roles to men and women. In hunter-gatherer societies, typically the gathering was done by women and the hunting by men. This gender division of labour persists even today in modern societies. In countries where women have participated to a large extent in the industrial, commercial and public sectors of the formal economy, women still spend more time in unpaid work than they do in paid work. On the other hand, men are engaged more in paid work and receive more of the monetary income than women do. In fact, not only do men still do more of the paid work, in most countries they are paid higher rates per hour than women for the same job.

Thus, paid and unpaid work can be viewed both from the nature of the activities undertaken as well as from the sharing or balancing of time allocation between women and men. Society's perception of what are appropriate roles for men and women can influence the actual disparities in paid and unpaid work. In turn, these differences have an impact on the lives of men and women. Women and men engaged in unpaid work may have fewer chances than their paid counterparts to develop to their full potential. But women, because they are found to spend proportionately more time than men in unpaid work, are likely to have the greater disadvantage.

Undoubtedly, the social, cultural, economic, political and environmental spheres influence the type and amount of time spent on paid and unpaid work by women and men. The nature of work that women and men do, paid or unpaid, in turn creates an impact on their social, cultural, economic, political and environmental circumstances. For example, the health and nutritional status of a woman is an important determinant of her capacity to engage in particular types of work. In turn, the nature of the work and the amount of time spent on that work can influence a woman's health and nutritional status as well as her opportunities for self-development.

Time-use: Measuring and valuing unpaid work

"MEASURES OF TIME USE ARE REALLY MEASURES OF THE USE OF HUMAN CAPITAL. 'WORK' IS REALLY USE OF HUMAN CAPITAL TO PRODUCE VALUABLE OUTPUTS. ECONOMIC STUDIES OF WORK SHOULD COVER ALL PAID WORK AND ALL UNPAID WORK"

Ironmonger, 2000

Time-use data provide detailed information on how individuals spend their time, on a daily or weekly basis. They reveal the details of an individual's life with a combination of specificity and comprehensiveness not achieved in any other type of social survey.

Hirway (2000) and Ironmonger (2000) cited the key contributions of time-use data in fostering a better understanding of the economy and society.

Time-use data collection and analysis help improve the estimation of economic production and income

A more complete measurement and assignment of the full value of economic production can provide a better indication of how much a country produces not only for the market but also for the sustenance of society. The value of goods and services produced for self-consumption within the household has been defined as gross household product (GHP) (Eisner, 1989 and Ironmonger, 1996). GHP can make up a sizeable 50 to 60 per cent addition to GDP, the usual measure of economic production. The failure to make estimates of GHP means that GDP provides a gross underestimate of the total economic production of a society.

Time-use data can complement other economic and social indicators by providing a complete account of the uses of time by all sections of the community in urban and rural areas, by men, women and children. The dimensions and social impact of paid and unpaid work and leisure are made visible through time-use data. Changes in time-use patterns, including the intensity and length of work, reveal national and regional changes in the quality of life of women, children, men and households.

Time-use data collection and analysis help recognize the unpaid work of women

Current labour force statistics do not attempt to capture all paid and unpaid work that is spent in the production of economic goods and services. Time-use data can provide a more complete and better measurement of all labour inputs, both within the household and in the market. Women very often are doing unpaid work in the informal sector or in subsistence production activities. This work has remained unrecorded in official statistics of work and employment. The invisibility of women's labour input has contributed to their apparent lower status in many societies. Time-use data can pinpoint the unpaid work and amount of time women and men spend on both work and leisure activities, offering a key source of data to improve the analysis of gender issues.

Time-use data are crucial inputs to policy interventions addressing development issues including gender equality

Time-use data can help both in policy-making and in monitoring the economy and society by providing insights into how social and economic systems operate. Second, they measure and explain the impact of policies on households and people by revealing the day-to-day patterns in the life of women and men, and how work is shared. Shifts in the market and household economies, changes in roles and responsibilities, and policy decisions have important repercussions in the way time is put to use by women and men. The effects of such changes, whether positive or negative, will have an impact on household activities with attendant consequences on household members.

Hirway (2000) suggested that shifts in employment patterns, for example, had a significant impact on both the supply of unpaid care services and/or the total time spent on work by women. There is substantial evidence to show that the cost of child care has a significant effect on women's [paid] labour force participation. This has important implications for minimum wage legislation and employment policies. By helping to present a bigger and more comprehensive picture of the economy as well as how households operate and are maintained, time-use data become invaluable inputs for policy, programme and service interventions for improving the situation of women, men and children.

From small-scale to comprehensive surveys

There is now a build-up from small-scale exploratory studies to preparations for nationwide surveys. Comprehensive time-use surveys have been conducted in some countries. But where a comprehensive survey has not been possible, some countries have collected time-use data as part of a multi-purpose survey. With a clear recognition of their value, countries can choose a practical approach to collecting time-use data. However, the methodological issues involved include the need for developing quantitative methods for measurement and valuation of unremunerated work. Of prime concern is improving the data collection process itself, both in content and coverage of traditional unremunerated work, and ensuring the inclusion of women's participation in difficult-to-measure sectors of the labour market.

Transforming statistics on unpaid work for policy and public action

Statisticians occupy a critical role in the public policy-making process. On one hand, the information requirements for rational decision-making hinge very much on the basic data inputs. On the other hand, a better appreciation of the policy-making process will assist statisticians to become proactive in producing needed data for the public good.

A fertile area for generating time-use data arises from the demands of recent developments and policy-making such as:

- High priority for the alleviation of human poverty and the promotion of social integration;
- The process of globalization demanding interdependence of States and national economies;
- The realization of human rights including public action on hidden events such as gender inequality, family violence, abuse of children, women and other vulnerable groups, trafficking of persons, and violation of social regulations and standards; and
- The strengthening of public and private corporate governance.

These areas offer opportunities for formulating policies or integrating policy issues on unpaid work. A comprehensive analysis of the situation is an important requisite in policy formulation. The generation of data on unpaid work should go beyond its economic dimensions to include a better understanding of its impact on gender equality. It should also cover the social, cultural, legal and other aspects. These include measures and classification of conditions of work, the distribution of work among members of households, the social and legal status of unpaid workers, types of institutional and social arrangements in which work is done, and identification of links with formally recognized, legitimate and remunerated work to guide policy-making.

Good statistics are necessary but not sufficient for public policy-making. In promoting the application of time-use data and statistics for informed decisions, statisticians must necessarily anticipate the demands of policy-making. Statisticians and policy analysts should present time-use data in ways that show the differential activities and time expenditures between household members, the conditions affecting these activities, and the economic and social consequences.

Statistical data become meaningful to the extent that they are converted into usable and actionable information for policy decisions. A prerequisite is to ensure that the data produced are sound. The keys to transforming data and statistics on unpaid work into gender-sensitive policies and public action are:

- Recognition of the contribution of women's and men's work to the national economy;
- Acceptance and use of a definition of "unpaid work";
- The collection, analysis and interpretation of time-use data;

- The measurement and valuation of unpaid work; and
- Assessment and analysis of conditions affecting women's and men's work.

These keys provide the basic elements that will help initiate the process of converting data and statistics into information for policy decisions.

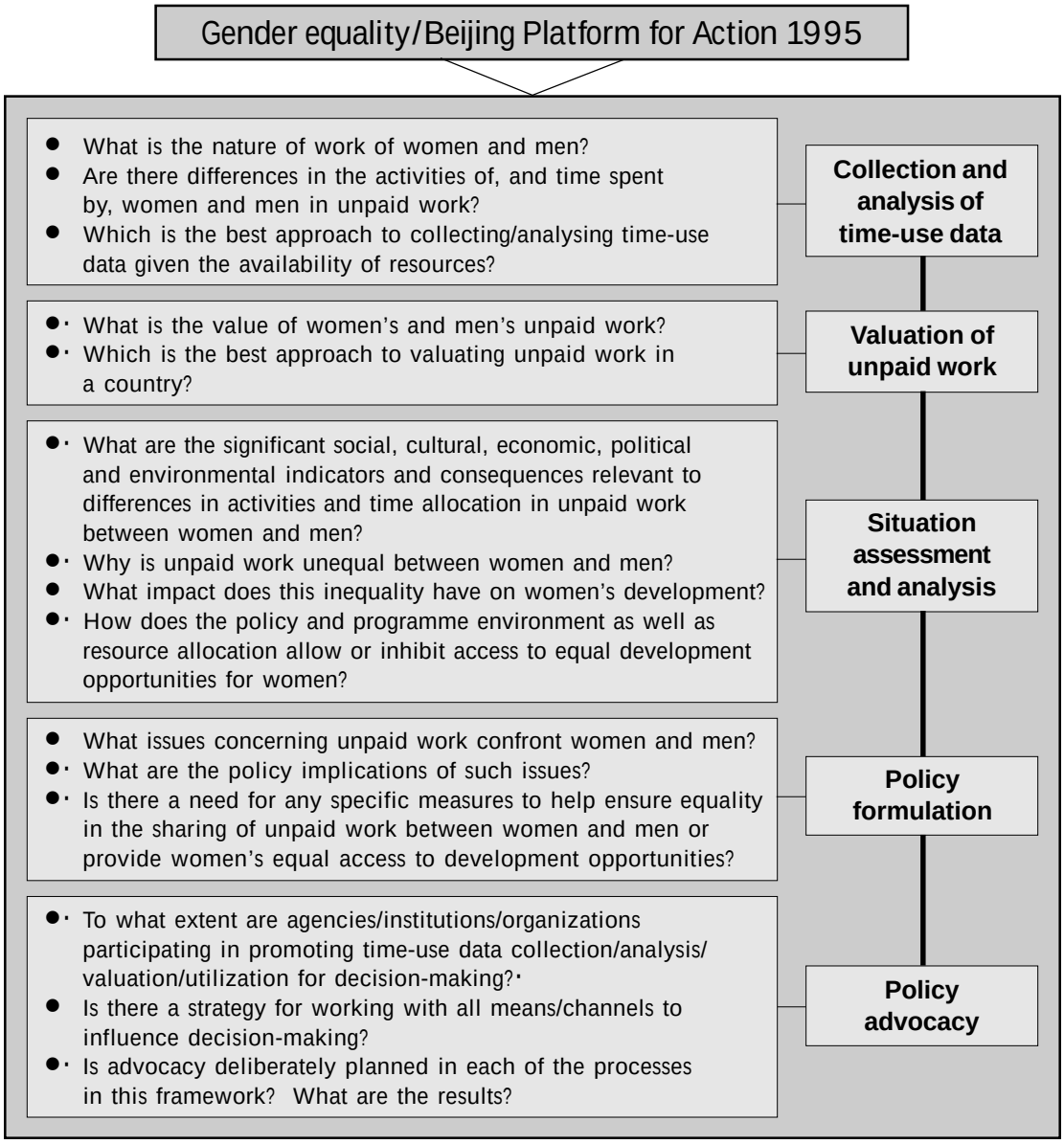
A framework for integrating unpaid work into national policies

This Guidebook proposes a framework (see figure), that will form a basis for integrating the issues and concerns of unpaid work into national policies. It is founded on the principle of gender equality and the commitments in the Beijing Platform for Action. The framework consists of five interrelated processes designed to lead to informed decision-making:

- **Collection and analysis of time-use data.** This involves the analysis of the nature of work of women and men, whether paid or unpaid, in terms of the specific activities undertaken, frequency and time allocation. The available resources would influence the choice of the appropriate approach to collect data.
- **Valuation of time-use data.** The valuation of time-use becomes an important component in recognizing the economic contribution of unpaid work. Various approaches are also available in valuing unpaid work.
- **Situation assessment and analysis.** An assessment and analysis of the situation that gives rise to any imbalance in the sharing of work between women and men examine the determinants of unpaid work and how the differences, if any, have an impact on women and men. The situation analysis also offers opportunities for action by identifying the causes of any inequality in time allocation of unpaid work.
- **Policy formulation.** The analysis of time-use data, as well as the social, cultural, economic, institutional and legislative environment in which paid and unpaid work takes place, provides the rationale for any needed policy intervention. Of particular concern is women's unpaid work, which constitutes a major contribution to the economy.
- **Advocacy for policy action.** The utilization of time-use data and statistics for policy action increases as decision makers are made to understand the urgency of confronting the issue. The policy-making process has to be understood in order to make the needed and timely advocacy intervention. In addition, advocacy for policy action begins early on during the planning of time-use data collection.

This framework is intended to guide the process of transforming time-use and related data into policy decisions towards equal visibility, empowerment and full participation of women in all spheres of public and private life. Country experiences over time will enrich this initial framework.

Framework for integrating unpaid work into national policies



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module one

COLLECTING TIME-USE DATA

module 1

COLLECTING TIME-USE DATA

Part I. Concepts and practices

Overview

- The collection of time-use data has been motivated essentially by "an interest in the conditions of human progress and a curiosity about social change" (Bittman, 1999), initially as small-scale case studies but increasingly as large-scale national statistical surveys.
- In developed countries, several national statistical offices began to undertake time-use surveys in the 1960s. Many more began these surveys in the 1970s. At least one official national time-use survey has been conducted in Australia, Canada, Japan and New Zealand as well as in virtually most Eastern and Western European countries.
- Until recently, time-use surveys were not undertaken by national statistical offices in developing countries. Time-use studies in those countries were mainly case studies of a single or a few localities undertaken by academic researchers. The limited scope and methods of those studies were attributed to difficulties in measuring time-use in a population not accustomed to being regulated by "clock time" nor experienced with filling in a questionnaire. Recent time-use surveys undertaken by more than 20 developing countries, however, show that national time-use data may be successfully collected in countries with an established statistical infrastructure.

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- The interest in national data collection on time-use has grown in recent years – largely due to a recognition of the importance of time-use data for improving the measurement and valuation of unpaid work and increasing the visibility of women's work both at home and in the labour market (United Nations, 1996). The preparation of international guidelines on time-use data collection is in progress, which will help facilitate work in many countries.

- As countries gain experience, international recommendations for data collection may be formulated. In October 2000, an expert group on methods for conducting time-use surveys was convened by the United Nations Statistics Division to initiate work in that area. A Guide to Producing Statistics on Time-use is currently being prepared, and an International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics has been drafted and is being tested as part of the work.

Purposes of the Module

- To introduce concepts in time-use research.
- To enable understanding of the importance of time-use statistics in the measurement of unpaid work.
- To guide the selection of methods and approaches for collecting time-use data in independent surveys or as part of another survey.

What are time-use statistics?

Time-use statistics are quantitative summaries of how women and men "spend" or allocate their time over a specified period. Time-use statistics would ideally represent time allocation patterns of activities engaged in during a whole year. These summaries are generated from data collected from a sample of individuals – typically for only a 24-hour period but they may also cover all seven days of the week.

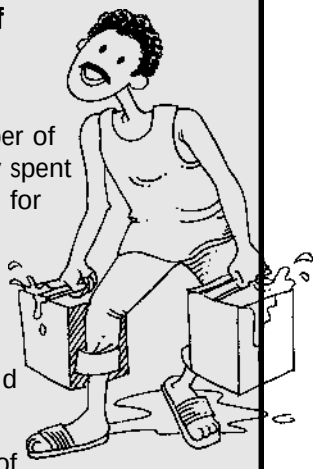
Time-use statistics pertain to a reference population (e.g., persons 10 years old and over; persons 15 to 65 years old) and are usually disaggregated by sex, age groups, rural/urban, and by other subgroups of interest to those analysing the statistics.

Time-use statistics are generated from data on:

- What individuals in the reference population do or the activities they engage in;
- How much time is spent doing each of those activities; and
- The context in which each activity takes place.

Eating, travelling (walking, driving or riding a motor vehicle and others), unpaid childcare (e.g., supervising, feeding), working in a formal sector job (whether as an employee or employer, in the public or private sector), doing unpaid economic work (e.g., fetching water, collecting firewood), driving a vehicle, waiting for a ride, smoking and "doing nothing" are examples of activities on which a person may spend time during the course of a day.

Examples of time-use statistics



- Average number of hours in a day spent fetching water for home use
- Total number of hours in a week spent working in paid employment
- Total number of hours in a weekday working in unpaid domestic work
- Average number of hours in a weekend spent on watching television
- Total number of hours in a day spent on childcare

Basic statistics on time-use are in the form of estimates of time spent on activities in an "average day" or an "average week". To arrive at that average or representative day or week, time-use data need to be comprehensive. Such data should cover not only the whole range of possible activities but also account for differences between weekends and weekdays, effects of special holidays, and variations in activities across seasons in a year and across areas or regions in a country.

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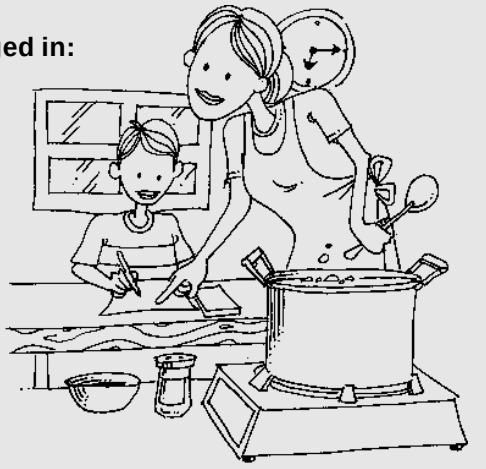
Time-use concepts

What individuals do or activities engaged in:



- **Single, main or primary** activity over an interval of time
- **Secondary or simultaneous** activity, or engaging in two or more activities

  Example:
  A woman preparing meals while supervising her child's homework.

How much time is spent on an activity

- **Episode** refers to one occurrence of an activity
- **Number of episodes or the frequency of occurrence of an activity**

  Examples:
  Number of episodes of cooking during a day
  Average duration per episode of cooking
  Average number of episodes of cooking in a week per woman.
- **Duration** refers to length of time of one episode of an activity measured in terms of minutes or hours.

Context in which the activity takes place

Contextual information typically obtained about an activity includes:

- Where the activity occurred or the location of an activity
- Other people present when the activity occurred ("with whom")
- Person(s) for whom the activity was done ("for whom")
- Any remuneration received for doing the activity (paid or unpaid)
- Purpose of the activity
- Temporal location (time of day, week, month or year an activity is undertaken)
- Activity sequence or relationship of an activity to any activity that precedes and follows.

How are time-use data collected ?

Relating objectives, design and resources

Data on time use are collected on a national scale through a household survey. The basic elements of design of a time-use survey involve the following components:

- Type of survey instrument – how activities are to be recorded. Generally a time diary or a stylized analogue;
- Mode of data collection – whether by interview, self-reporting or observation; and
- Type of household survey – whether as an independent or "stand-alone" survey or as a component or module of a multi-purpose survey.

Different combinations of these component options translate into a wide variety of methods. Table 1.1 summarizes the approaches adopted and methodologies employed by 19 countries in collecting time-use data from 1997 to 2000.

Arriving at an appropriate design for producing statistics on time use requires a balance of objectives and resources. This task could be a complex process. Money, people and their time, and infrastructure comprise resources. In practice, most survey designs are fitted within known cost constraints, that is, the amount of money allocated for the survey is fixed and all activities related to the survey must cost less than or equal to that fixed amount. More often than not, setting the ceiling for the survey is not based on survey design options and issues. The budget is often set on other priorities, with funding and political concerns as the main considerations.

Recent experience of both developing and developed countries shows this situation holds for time-use surveys. For example, while some political backing has been given to time-use surveys in response to the Beijing Platform for Action, it has generally been in the form of funding for a single ad hoc survey. In some

Checklist for evaluating available resources for a time-use survey

- ✔ Cost of utilizing existing staff including any increase in workload
- ✔ Cost of utilizing existing infrastructure and facilities for data collection, programming, analysis and reporting
- ✔ Additional costs including wages for interviewers and data encoders in addition to regular workforce, and travel costs for training and supervision
- ✔ Provision of incentives to respondents
- ✔ Fees of consultants

Table 1.1. Design components of recent time-use surveys by selected countries

Country	Survey	Type of survey	Survey instrument	Mode of data collection
Australia	Time-Use Survey, 1997	Independent	Full diary; open interval	Self-reporting; two diary days
Benin	Time-Use Survey, 1998	Module of survey on labour, income and social indicators	Simplified diary; 62 activities; 15-minute intervals	Face-to-face recall interview; one diary day
Canada	General Social Survey Cycle 12-Time-Use Survey, 1998	Independent	Full diary; open	Computer-assisted telephone recall interview; one diary day
Dominican Republic	National Time-Use Survey, 1995	Independent	Full diary; 15-minute intervals	Face-to-face recall interview and observation; one diary day
Finland	Time-Use Survey, 1999/2000	Independent	Full diary; 10-minute intervals	Computer-assisted face-to-face recall interview; two diary days
Guatemala	Guatemala 2000 National Survey of Living Conditions	Module of survey on living conditions	Simplified diary; 22 activities	Face-to-face recall interview; one diary day
India	Time-Use Survey, 1998	Independent	Full diary; 60 minute intervals	Face-to-face recall interview; three diary days
Lao People's Democratic Republic	Expenditure and Consumption Survey: Time-Use Module, 1998	Module of expenditure and consumption survey	Simplified diary; 21 activities; 30-minute time intervals	Face-to-face recall interview; one diary day
Mexico	Survey on Time-Use, 1998	Independent	Full diary; open interval	Face-to-face recall interview; one diary day
Mongolia	Time-Use Survey, 2000	Independent	Full diary; 10-minute intervals	Self-reporting and face-to-face recall interview; two to three diary days
Morocco	National Survey on Women's Time Budget, 1997/1998	Independent	Full diary; open interval	Face-to-face recall interview; one diary day

Table 1.1. *(continued)*

Country	Survey	Type of survey	Survey instrument	Mode of data collection
Nepal	Labour Force Survey, 1998/2000	Module of labour force survey	Stylized questions for selected activites within labour force questionnaire	Face-to-face recall interview; total hours spent on activities in last seven days
New Zealand	Time-Use Survey, 1998-1999	Independent	Full diary; 5-minute intervals	Self-reporting; two diary days
Nicaragua	Living Standards Measurements Study Survey, 1998	Module of LSMS	Simplified diary; 22 activities	Face-to-face recall interview; one diary day
Oman	Overall Monitoring of Annual National Indicators Survey, 1999	Module of house-hold expenditure and income survey	Simplified diary; 23 actiivities; 15-minute intervals	Face-to-face recall interview and self-reporting; one diary day
Palestine	Time-Use Survey, 1999-2000	Independent	Full diary; 30-minute intervals	Self-reporting; one diary day
Republic of Korea	Time-Use Survey, 1999	Independent	Full diary; 10-minute intervals	Self-reporting; two diary days
South Africa	Time-Use Survey, 2000	Independent	Full diary; 30-minute intervals	Face-to-face recall interview; one diary day
Sweden	Swedish Time-Use 2000	Independent	Full diary; 10-minute intervals	Self-reporting; two diary days

developing countries, an international or bilateral aid or development agency can fund a time-use survey conducted as an ad hoc activity. Institutionalization into the national statistical system is not usually a primary consideration. Possibly due to this view, many developing countries undertaking their first time-use survey have opted to implement an independent survey to obtain a comprehensive database for analysis in order to increase its usability over a long period of time.

Mounting a time-use survey, especially for the first time, will have an effect on the operations of the regular surveys of the statistical office. For regular staff, even with the addition of new interviewers or data encoders, the increased workload will mean having to prioritize time and attention, and a possible loss in quality of existing statistics.

High response rates may be viewed as a measure of efficient use of resources. Achieving high response rates is one of the most difficult issues in the design of time-use surveys. Some of the solutions, such as the provision of incentives to respondents or more follow-up visits by enumerators, are relatively costly. On the other hand, cost-effective solutions such as using a “light” diary (or precoding of activities) as opposed to a full diary (or aftercoding of activities) or computer-assisted telephone interviews as opposed to a face-to-face interview, may limit scope and coverage.

Integrating time-use surveys into the regular programme of household surveys of a country is an efficient approach to developing a framework for a sound, continuing database and time series for time-use data. Since start-up costs are usually large, partly due to the need for engaging consultancy services for new types of surveys, unrelated ad hoc surveys tend to be costly. Irregular operations make it difficult to accumulate and absorb the knowledge and experience necessary to achieve efficient and reliable survey results. They also limit the opportunity to develop an adequate technical and field staff well trained in time-use methods.

Basic components of time-use surveys

1. Survey instruments

The types of survey instruments used to obtain data on activities and their duration over a specified period of time may be classified into two general groups: 24-hour time diaries and stylized analogues of these diaries.

Time diary

The basic objective of a time diary is to enable respondents to report all activities undertaken over a prescribed period of time including the beginning and ending time for each activity, a description of the activity and the contextual information required for analysis.

A diary may be a full-time diary and a "light" or simplified time diary.

In the basic format of the full-time diary:

(a) The respondent reports each activity undertaken successively from the time of waking including the time that one activity began and ended throughout the 24 hours of the day;

(b) The interval of time within which an activity is reported may be fixed; that is, the 24 hours in a day are subdivided into intervals of 10- or 15-30- or 60-minute intervals. Alternatively, the interval of time is left open and the respondent reports the beginning and ending times of each activity.

Of the 13 countries that used full-time diaries (table 1.1), Australia, Canada, Mexico and Morocco used open-time intervals.

With the "light" time diary:

(a) Respondents report the time at which each activity in an exhaustive list occurs, i.e., the 24 hours of the day are accounted for in terms of a pre-identified comprehensive list of activity categories;

(b) The exhaustive list of activity categories may consist of a small number of broadly-described activity groups such as paid employment, education, personal needs, domestic work, maintenance and leisure;

(c) Alternatively, the exhaustive list may contain a longer list of more detailed activity tasks such as meal preparation, cooking, washing dishes; laundry, ironing, cleaning, sewing; shopping; and paid work including travel.

In the country surveys (table 1.1), Benin, Guatemala, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Nicaragua and Oman used simplified time diaries. While most of these activity lists had 21-23 categories, Benin used a list of 62 activities.

In designing the time diary, decisions must be made on specific interrelated elements including:

- Whether the diary will use an open-time interval or a fixed interval of time within which to report activities;
- Whether data on single or multiple activities per time interval will be collected and, if multiple, whether only one column or two columns will be used and whether simultaneously-done activities will be prioritized as primary and secondary;
- Which context variables will be included in the description of the activity and how the diary format will reflect these variables; and
- The mode of data collection.

Examples of time diaries are shown in Annex II. The diaries used in the surveys of India, Mongolia and South Africa are full-time diaries while the diary is a light-time diary.

Stylized analogues of time diaries

In the stylized version of diaries, respondents are asked to recall the amount of time they allocate, or have allocated, to specified activities over a specified period such as a day, week or year. It is different from a diary because the respondent does not report the specific time of the day that the activity is performed – rather, the respondent reports the total time spent on the activity.

Stylized questions are typically of the form:

"Yesterday (or last week), how much time did you spend on activity x?"

or

"How many hours per day (or per week) do you usually spend on activity x?"

In using questions such as these, the stylized analogue of a diary:

- Collects information on the frequency and duration of time spent on a pre-specified set of activities;
- Asks respondents whether or not they participated in each activity in the previous day or on the day before that or in the past week;
- Follows up respondents who answer "yes" to the above query on how many hours they have spent on that activity during that day or the past week; and
- Lists activities that may be exhaustive or selective.

Nepal used stylized questions for collecting data on time use. The questions were part of the labour force survey and referred to only a selected set of activities covering unpaid domestic work. Annex II includes the questionnaire on time use integrated into the Nepal labour force survey.

2. Mode of data collection

Time-use data can be collected by participant observation, by self-reporting, or by interview. All these modes have their advantages and disadvantages relative to the reliability of data obtained, the effect on response rate and the cost. These need to be assessed and evaluated relative to the objectives and resources of the survey. To maximize the response rate and increase reliability, the various methodologies have been used in combination in a survey such as in the Dominican Republic, Mongolia and Oman.

Participant observation

In this method, the time use of the respondent is observed and recorded by the survey enumerator. Observation can be on a continuous basis or on a random spot basis. For continuous observation, the enumerator observes the respondent throughout the recording

period. In random spot observations, the enumerator observes the respondent only at randomly chosen points in time during the recording period.

Self-reporting

The respondents may report their own time use by recording activities done in a time diary designed for the purpose. One way of doing this is by asking the respondent to record the activity as or just after it occurs; this is referred to as the "tomorrow", "current", or "left-behind" diary approach.

Another way of doing this is by asking the respondent to recall and record activities performed over a specified recall period – usually the previous day or over the past week; this is referred to as the "yesterday" or retrospective diary approach.

Although not as common, a third approach is the "experience sampling method" (ESM) or "beeper" studies approach in which

Activities of Women and Children in Nepal

An example of improved statistical measurement

The 1998-1999 Nepal Labour Force Survey collected data on the period of time spent in a survey reference week on both SNA and non-SNA economic activities. It therefore provides an example of an improved method of measuring the total economic activities of women and children. The approach has been recommended to other Asian countries and might serve as a "best practice" for collecting statistics on this topic.

Introduction

The total economic activity of men, women and children is usually under-reported in statistical surveys. In Pakistan, unadjusted results of the 1994-1995 Labour Force Survey showed a labour force participation rate of 12.7 per cent for women aged 15 years or more as compared with 82.3 per cent for men of the same age group. (*ILO*, *1998*). In the case of Pakistan, this under-reporting may be partly attributable to cultural and operational reasons, but it also reflects a more general phenomenon that interviewers and respondents do not understand the concept of "work" or "economic activity".

In particular, it is often unclear to interviewers and respondents which work and economic activities are included within the SNA production boundary of the market economy, and which fall outside that boundary but within the general production boundary of the non-market economy.

Under the System of National Accounts 1993, the boundary for the production of goods and services was amended. As a result, some economic activities that had previously been treated as outside the narrow SNA boundary were included as SNA economic activities. These include "water carrying" and "wood collection" (activities which are traditionally undertaken by women and children in less developed countries), as well as the processing of primary products solely for own final consumption (milling of grain, basket weaving, home tailoring etc), all of which are traditionally undertaken by women.

Nepal Labour Force Survey

In 1997, ILO implemented a UNDP-funded project to assist the Nepal Central Bureau of Statistics in designing and implementing a large-scale, household-based Labour Force Survey. Data collection for this survey started in mid-May 1998 and ended in early May 1999. The sample of over 14,000 households covered both urban and rural areas of Nepal. The first results were published in 1999.

respondents are prompted by a beeper to record specified objective information, and possibly subjective information as well, on what they were doing at the time the beeper sounded. Beeper signals are sent at random times during the recording period for a day or a week.

Interview

Time-use surveys often use the interview as the mode of data collection. The personal or face-to-face interview is most commonly used. The computer-aided telephone interview is an option that is increasingly being used in household surveys on a variety of topics but so far has been applied to the collection of time-use data only in Canada.

The interview method may be used with both forms of retrospective time diaries or their stylized analogues.

The main aim of the survey was to measure employment, unemployment and under-employment in Nepal's market economy. However, the survey designers were concerned that interviewers and respondents might incorrectly consider market economy work to comprise only those activities that produce an income (in cash or kind), and would not appreciate that market economy work included many unpaid activities which were part of normal household duties in Nepal. Consequently, special attention was given to designing the questionnaire to minimize the under-reporting of those activities. Special attention was also given to enforcing those points during interviewer training.

Labour force surveys in many countries measure current market economic activity with simple questions such as whether the respondent "did any work for pay, profit or family gain during the past week?". This simple approach is likely to result in under-reporting because the respondent does not understand the concept of market economy work. Other countries have tried to improve this understanding by providing a prompt list of market economy activities to guide interviewers and respondents. If any of these market economy activities have been undertaken in the reference period, then the person is considered to have worked in the market economy in that period.

In Nepal, it was decided to take this approach a little further and to ask about the number of hours spent separately on each SNA economic activity as shown in Annex II. It was a minor extension to then add a similar question on the time spent on selected non-SNA economic activities (Annex II). For simultaneous activities, interviewers were instructed to avoid duplication when recording hours. Priority was given (a) to SNA economic activities over non-SNA economic activities such as planting rice while caring for children, and (b) to the first-mentioned activity in each list such as cooking food while also child-minding.[1]

[1] In the Pakistan Labour Force Survey, the question on "work" had a prompt which reminds respondents that "work" included (a) the production and processing of primary products, (b) the production of other goods and services for the market and the corresponding production for own consumption, and (c) own account construction. This is similar to the traditional approach mentioned above. However, the Pakistan questionnaire also had a separate module addressed only to women who were classified as inactive and engaged in housekeeping. These women were asked detailed questions on the time spent in the reference week on various types of SNA and non-SNA economic activities. Consequently, Pakistan was able to adjust the crude labour market participation rates mentioned in the opening paragraph to obtain an improved female labour force participation rate of just over 50 per cent. This approach is similar to that recommended in this article but does not go far enough. It is recommended tha all respondents should be asked these detailed questions. In other words, the detailed questions should be part of the main questionnaire and not given in a separate module.

1

During interviewer training for the Nepal Labour Force Survey, special attention was given to the gender perspective in measuring market work by highlighting those SNA economic activities that might have been overlooked or under-reported. The training went further than this and also highlighted gender issues generally. This was not done as a separate "gender item" but it was an integral part of the training, particularly during the sessions dealing with paid and unpaid activities, home-based work etc. As a result, the field staff were perhaps better prepared for, and more sensitized to, gender issues related to "work" and "economic activity".

With this approach, the Nepal Labour Force Survey provides detailed and more reliable information on the extent to which men, women and children are engaged in the various SNA and non-SNA economic activities. It is possible to cross-classify the responses according to demographic and economic characteristics (such as age, education level, geographic location, whether employed in the market economy, unemployed or inactive in the market economy and, if employed, occupation, industry, status in employment etc). It therefore provides answers to questions such as:

- To what relative extent are men, women and children engaged in housekeeping duties, care of the sick and elderly etc?
- Do rural women spend more time on average in these activities than do urban women?
- To what lesser extent is the time spent by market employed people on housekeeping duties, care of the sick and elderly etc., than those who are unemployed or inactive in the market?
- How much time do children attending school (as opposed to those not at school) spend in SNA and non-SNA economic activities of differing types?

Progressive reviews of the Nepal Survey suggest that the approach has been successful. In particular, it is believed that the concept of SNA economic activity is more accurately measured and that useful and interesting data on selected non-SNA economic activities have also been obtained, which are not available in labour force surveys using traditional simple methods. Consequently, other countries are being encouraged to include similar questions in their labour force surveys.

Types of survey

Most of the household surveys designed to collect data on time use may be classified into two basic types – independent or "stand-alone" time-use surveys and multi-purpose or multi-subject household surveys with a time-use component or module.

1. Independent time-use survey

This is a household survey concerned with the single subject of time use. In this type, the survey scope and coverage, questionnaires, sample design and selection, training plans, field operational procedures and data processing systems are configured for this one purpose. Being able to plan for, design and implement a single-subject survey is important for a subject as complex as time use. Thus, countries conducting a time-use survey for the first time have usually opted for an independent survey.

Of the 13 countries listed in table 1.1 that implemented independent surveys, seven conducted the survey for the first time. Those countries were: the Dominican Republic, India, Mongolia, Morocco, Palestine, Republic of Korea and South Africa.

2. Time-use component in a multi-purpose survey

Two approaches to collect data on time use through a component in a multi-purpose household survey are a modular approach, where the time-use component is a separate module, and an integrated approach, where the time-use component is included along with all other components in a single module.

The common form of the modular approach involving a time-use component is one where:

- There is a core module such as a labour force survey or an income and expenditure survey, and one or more additional or "rider" modules. A time-use module is included as a rider module.
- The core module primarily guides the requirements including population coverage, sample design and selection of households, and major aspects of survey operations such as operational schedules, listing procedures and enumerator workload.
- Usually, the enumerator first completes the data collection on the core topic before introducing the time-use or other modules.
- The time-use module would cover a separate set of survey instruments, in the form of a time diary or a stylized analogue, plus a background questionnaire.
- The time-use component is fielded at the same time as the core survey and employs the same set of interviewers.

Some degree of flexibility in terms of selection of respondents for the time-use module and scheduling of call-backs is possible. To the extent of that flexibility, the modular approach can almost be considered an independent survey. The surveys of Benin, Guatemala, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Nicaragua and Oman used the modular approach.

In the integrated approach:

- A single questionnaire is used to cover all topics, and specific items on time use are incorporated in the questionnaire.
- Typically, the questions are in the form of stylized questions on time use.

As mentioned above, Nepal included stylized questions on time use in unpaid domestic work in their 1999 Labour Force Survey.

1

Classification of activities for time-use statistics

The nomenclature and classification of activities form an important part of the planning, collection and analysis of time-use data. A statistical classification provides "a set of discrete values which can be assigned to specific variables which are to be measured in a statistical survey, … which will be used as basis for the production of statistics". Classification systems attempt to reflect meaningful distinctions between specific activities for the purpose of tabulation and also try to prioritize those distinctions to provide a conceptual basis for the analytical framework (Horrigan, et al., 1999).

Time-use data are about people's activities. A detailed, comprehensive and systematic listing of activities needs to be available as a basis for assessing completeness of coverage of activities. This listing is used as a guide in the design of survey instruments and selection of methods. It is also the interviewer's guide for eliciting from the respondent the level of detail required by the survey objectives. It serves as the basis for developing coding rules and indexes.

Existing activity classifications are hierarchical in nature. Their structures are determined by the number of detailed description of activities and the number of broad groups and subgroups into which activities are categorized as well as the bases for categorizing these activities. Codes, usually numerical, are assigned at a one-digit level to major groups, two-digit level to the first level of subgroups within a major group. The most detailed description of activities have the highest-digit level codes. The one- or two-digit levels are typically used as analytical and tabulation categories in surveys that use the full-time diary.

In simplified time diaries, pre-listed activities comprise the activity classification for the survey. The pre-listed activities are typically also the analytical and tabulation categories, although a smaller set of broader groups of activities can be used for purposes of tabulation and analysis. Consistent with the prevailing analytical themes of time use studies when these were constructed (e.g., leisure or domestic work), the activity classifications focused on detailed lists of unpaid work and leisure activities – housework, care-giving, socialization, recreation, learning and mass media. The activity classification developed in 1965 by the Multinational Comparative Time-Budget Research Project, with its full 99-activity code, or summary 37-activity code, sets the initial standard for most of the national classifications of developed countries.

In recent years, new activity classifications, both in developed and developing countries, have addressed the expanded use of time-use data to assess national labour inputs into the production of all goods and types of services, and in the compilation of household satellite accounts consistent with the system of national accounts. Listings of activities have included greater detail for SNA economic activities. These have also considered means for differentiating activities relative to the production boundary of the SNA such as non-market work from other non-market activities, providing care for others and self-care, and intra-household transfers from inter-household transfers.

In addition, analyses that measure changes in time use and provide cross-national comparisons require an activity classification that is closely linked with the activity classifications used in other time-use studies within a country, among similar groups of countries and

globally. The Eurostat harmonized time-use project developed a time-use classification that is intended to serve as a standard for the region. A United Nations International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics is being developed as a standard classification at the global level. A unique component of this classification, detailed in Annex III and discussed later in this document, is a comprehensive categorization of activities associated with household production of goods for own final use and informal sector activities. As such, the classification provides analysts with a means of classifying activities as productive or non-productive, and within productive activities as paid or unpaid.

What are the basic survey specifications for measuring time spent on unpaid work ?

To influence policy-making in areas of gender equality and women's economic empowerment, nationally representative data on time use can be analysed and used by:

- Describing differences in time-use allocation for all activities and specifically unpaid work by sex, area, age groups and labour force status; and
- Constructing satellite accounts on household production that incorporate the valuation of unpaid work.

Some of the data requirements for these survey objectives are:

- Data on all activities and their duration over a 24-hour period to describe time-use patterns of the population and subgroups of the population;
- Data to measure and value unpaid domestic and volunteer work, and develop household production accounts to augment standard national accounts;
- Data to analyse policy implications of development planning issues for ongoing programmes or to assess current policies; and
- Data to improve estimates of standard labour market statistics including time spent on informal sector activities and unpaid activities within the SNA production boundary.

Translating these data requirements into time-use survey specifications requires decisions on survey content, population coverage, time coverage, activity classification, sample design and selection, and field operation procedures. Relevant issues are discussed below. Illustrations of country practices are provided in Annex I, which describes specifications of selected time-use surveys in developing countries.

1

Survey content

In determining the scope of a time-use survey, the following issues need to be considered:

1. Level of detail in which activities will be recorded and coded, and groupings for analysis and tabulation

The level of detail at which descriptions of activities are to be recorded is determined by the analytical objectives of the survey, as well as concerns about coding and respondent burden, among others. This is also related to the selection of the survey instrument. Activities may be recorded in as much detail as a full-time diary allows or may be delimited by the pre-listed activities in a simplified-time diary.

Depending on the level of detail decided on, an appropriate activity list or classification will need to be developed for coding purposes. This detailed list would then need to be condensed to provide suitable analytical and tabulation categories. (See discussion under classifications.)

2. Recording of simultaneous activities

Recording simultaneous activities is important in identifying specific types of activities – usually those that are often done as "background" or "pervasive" activities. For example, care-giving activities are often done in parallel with other activities such as housework, but respondents often will report the care-giving activity as a secondary activity. Much of time spent in childcare may not appear in survey estimates when only primary activities are covered.

The ability to collect data on simultaneous activities depends on the survey method (e.g., it is difficult to do so through a telephone interview) and the design of the survey instrument (e.g., the length of the time interval used in the survey instrument needs to be considered). A decision also needs to be made as to whether the activities are to be prioritized into primary, secondary and others and, if so, whether the prioritization is to be done by the respondent or by the analyst.

3. Inclusion of contextual information – where, with whom, for whom, whether paid or unpaid, and level of detail

The inclusion of context variables to further describe an activity is closely related to the analytical objectives of the data collection. To be able to distinguish paid and unpaid activities, for example, a context variable would be needed. A "for whom" context variable is useful to identify volunteer work, unpaid work within the household, and unpaid work outside of the household.

4. Inclusion of background variables

Survey instruments include both household and individual questionnaires. These are used to collect background information on respondents that are considered basic to the analytical plan of the time-use survey. A minimum list of variables would include sex, age, marital status and work situation of the individual and the household composition (United Nations, 2000). Depending on the analytical objectives, additional variables may have to be included. For example, information on household durables is needed to explain time-use patterns of activities that are related to their presence or absence in the household. Whether to collect information about wage rates and/or household income or expenditure or simply indicators of wealth and circumstances also depends on the objectives of the survey (United Nations, 2000).

5. Recording of information on temporal location and/or activity sequence

Information on temporal location of an activity, or the time of day, week, month or year an activity is undertaken, is useful in understanding the time constraints within which time allocation decisions are made. The activity sequence or the relationship of an activity to the activity that precedes and follows it, provides information on how individuals organize their day. Both require data on the beginning and ending times of activities and a chronological reporting of activities, and would thus preclude the use of stylized questions or stylized activity lists.

Population coverage

In addition to the standard issues on population coverage that are addressed in household surveys such as institutional population, population in special situations, *de jure* versus *de facto* approaches (United Nations, 1984), deciding on the reference population for the time-use survey includes consideration of the following:

1. Geographic coverage

Will the analysis require comparison of urban and rural lifestyles or differences in the time allocation patterns among regions within the country? For example, for purposes of developing satellite accounts, national-level data without the geographical disaggregation may suffice. Users may be interested in making regional comparisons that will generally require a larger sample size and hence increased costs compared to the need only for national data.

2. Age limits

Studies on paid and unpaid work invariably need information on children's activities, both as doers of work activities and as recipients of unpaid work. Therefore, should the survey cover children, given the possible difficulty in collecting time-use information from them? A related question is: should the survey exclude those older than the maximum working age limit?

3. Individuals or households

Do the analytical objectives require data from individuals only or couples or families within households? From a conceptual standpoint, one argument for collecting time-use information from multiple persons in a household is to provide a basis for understanding intra-household resource and time allocation. For example, with data only on individuals, it is possible to determine the effects of marriage or an additional child on an individual's personal use of time. However, it will not be possible to determine their effects on the household, as an economic unit (Bittman, 2000).

4. Coverage of time

The duration and frequency of time spent on an activity may vary depending on the time of day, the day of the week or the season of the year. Personal care activities such as eating and sleeping, and housework such as preparing meals typically happen every day. Some activities such as house repair or buying a refrigerator occur much less frequently. Some people have regular working hours or are in school from Monday to Friday, have week-ends off or take summer vacation during the same months each year. Many informal sector workers do not have regularity in working hours. Planting and harvesting of crops are seasonal as are home-based crafts for which raw materials are seasonal. Other activities such as worship are often organized on a weekly basis and predominantly occur on a particular day.

Based on survey objectives, decisions will have to be made on the following:

- Unit of time to be observed – Should this be time intervals of minutes or hours within a day or a time interval defined in terms of a whole week?
- Days of the week – Should all days of the week be covered? If so, should this be done for each day or is it sufficient to distinguish between weekdays and weekends only?
- Season – Should time-use data collected take into account seasonal variations in activities?

Survey method

In terms of coverage, the data on time-use of individuals may be either:

- Exhaustive, where all activities that a person engages in during the course of a specified continuum or block of time (e.g., 12-hour period, 24-hour day, 7-day week) is recorded; or
- Selective, where time spent is recorded for only a selected activity or sets of activities within a specified period.

Given the analytical objectives, the corresponding requirements of content, population, period or time coverage, and the available resources, how should the time-use survey be designed?

Deciding on the method for data collection involves decisions on what type of survey, in combination with what mode of data collection and survey instruments would best fit the survey conditions. As described above, there are different ways in which these three components may be combined. Two factors that need to be considered in deciding which combination will work best are the literacy level of the survey population and measuring time "without a clock".

Literacy levels in the population influence the choice of mode of data collection and survey instruments. For example, if the literacy rate of the survey population is low, a recall interview would be a better option than a "leave-behind" self-completed diary. If the literacy rates vary among population subgroups (e.g., ethnic groups) or areas, it is possible to have a combination of self-reporting for the literate respondents and recall interview or even participant observation for the non-literate respondents.

Some societies may not relate their activities to "clock time" or to hours as they appear on a clock face. For example, the sense of time may be related to fluctuations of nature, religion, geographic conditions, productive activities and tradition. In order to collect time-use data in such societies, survey designers need to give special attention to translating the local perception of time into a standard 24-hour timetable.

The survey design must take into account and reflect the mores and traditions of the group to be surveyed. In this case, it is necessary to understand how the community defines the hours of the day and how they calculate the amount of time it takes them to perform an activity (Harvey and Taylor, 2000).

Sampling design and selection

For time-use surveys, there are three types of sampling units: the household, household members and time (hours, days and seasons). Generally, considerations for sampling households do not differ from those of typical household surveys. Considerations in sampling household members and design of the time sample are, however, unique features of time-use surveys.

An important sample design decision is whether or not to include all household members belonging to the reference population. The decision as to whether there is a need to include more than one household member in the sample depends on the analytical objectives. If the analytical objective calls for more than one household member, how many? One option is to include all household members. If the sampling of household members is decided on, how should they be selected?

Should the survey cover every day of the year, all seasons of the year? If so, how should the sample be designed? One basic option is to conduct the survey on a periodic or continuous basis over the entire year and to spread the total sample of households over each survey period. If resources are not available to do this, are there alternatives that can be explored in combination with a single period survey? Another option is to conduct a single period survey and acknowledge the analytical limitations of such an approach.

If the unit of time is the day rather than the week, two decisions that will need to be made are: How many diary days should be sampled per household member? Are all days of the week to be represented in the sample? If so, will this be an equal or non-equal representation? How will the diary days per household member be selected to achieve the desired representation? One technique is to ensure that there is an equal representation of days of the week.

To illustrate some of the issues that may arise: if, as in the most recent Australian survey, 7,000 people have each completed a two-day diary, this provides a final, effective sample of 14,000 diary-days. With equal representation of days of the week this translates into a sample of 2,000 Sundays, 2,000 Mondays, 2,000 Tuesdays, 2,000 Wednesdays, 2,000 Thursdays, 2,000 Fridays, and 2,000 Saturdays. If an activity that typically occurs on a particular day of the week – such as paid work on Sunday – is of analytical interest, the effective sample is 2,000 diary days.

As might be needed by the analysis, breaking down the data by industry or broad occupational groupings for each sex or ethnicity, or educational attainment grouping of those working on Sunday, rapidly runs up against the limits imposed by small cell size. Survey designers should consider the minimum number of a particular day of the week that will produce tolerable standard errors given specific analytical objectives (Bittman, 2000).

Field operations

For a specific survey method, that is, the combination of type of survey, survey instrument and mode of data collection, field procedures will have to be designed appropriately. The key decisions to be made with respect to field operational procedures are:

1. Sequence of questionnaires

Time diaries or stylized analogues and a “background” questionnaire generally comprise the survey instruments for time-use surveys. The content of such a questionnaire is often as critical to the interpretation and analysis of time use as the diary itself. The survey procedure should define the sequence in which these instruments are to be administered to the respondent, particularly for surveys using the interview method.

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The field procedures may become more complicated if the time-use survey is a module of a larger survey, where there are additional questionnaires to coordinate and sequence.

2. Assigning diary days

What procedure should be used in allocating diary days to respondents? Should enumerators select the days? Or, should respondents do this? Or, should these be predetermined at the sample selection stage, assigning designated diary days to each household or respondent?

Ideally, diary days should be randomly selected and designated days assigned to respondents. Experience shows however, that this is generally not achievable but may be approximated. At a minimum, operational procedures should ensure that the selection of diary days is not left to the discretion of either the interviewer or respondent.

3. Quality control techniques

Quality control techniques aim to minimize non-sampling errors. Of particular concern in time-use surveys is minimizing non-response. One way in which this has been addressed is to provide some form of incentive to respondents. This has been possible mostly in first-time surveys where resources are available for the purpose. Some statistical offices, however, are concerned that such a practice may have a negative effect on the response rate for other regular surveys in programmes that do not provide incentives.

Depending on the survey method adopted, concerns arise about interviewer and respondent effects on response quality. What techniques specific to collecting data on time use should interviewers/ enumerators learn and use to minimize such effects?

How do data recorded in individual diaries become useful summaries in statistical tables ?

While data collection may be completed within the time schedule of a survey operation, data processing and analysis may become a bottleneck in generating the results. Time-use data have been described as “unwieldy” to analyse because of their multidimensional character. These include time data for individuals and households in terms of type of activities, frequency, duration, location, intensity, sequence and others, and which can be aggregated by activity, households, individuals by sex or age, and others (Asia Society, 1978). In addition, these are typically correlated with household as well as individual characteristics. Transforming thousands of individual diaries into useful summaries and statistical tables needs to be carefully mapped out. The main issues to consider are described below.

Tabulation plan

Developing the tabulation plan serves to:

- Confirm that the survey content specifications meet the analytical requirements;
- Ensure that the level of detail of the cross-classification variables in statistical tables required for the analyses are specified correctly; and
- Guide the determination of sample size required for the survey and provide reliable estimates for the basic cross-tabulation cells defining the domains of analysis of the survey.

The tabulation plan should specify the main cross-classification variables. For most survey objectives, sex is a standard cross-classification variable. In addition, a decision will need to be made on the following:

- Should these variables include rural/urban?
- What age groupings are relevant?
- What level of activity groupings are needed?

Another main issue has to do with the analysis of simultaneous activities.

If simultaneous activities are covered in the survey:

- How should time spent on simultaneous activities be counted?
- How will the data on simultaneous activities be presented in a table?

Key time-use indices

Most of the analyses of time-use data can be based on six types of time-use indices. These indices are defined in terms of their numerators and denominators shown in table 1.2. These measures are essentially means or proportions. In interpreting the indices, it is important to make the distinction between two divisors or totals. The first type of divisor is the (estimated) total number of persons in the survey population. The second type of divisor is the (estimated) total number of persons in the survey population who engaged in the activity during the course of the day (doers or participants). The total number in the population remains constant while the total number of participants changes depending on the activity. Measures 11 and 14 are thus interpreted differently – 11 refers to mean duration of activity per person in the population while 14 refers

Table 1.2. Six time-use indices

Denominator of index	Numerator of index		
	Total duration of activity	**Total number of episodes of activity**	**Total number of persons doing activity**
Total number of persons (population)	(11) Duration / All persons	(12) Episodes / All persons	(13) Doers / All persons
Total number of persons doing activity (doers/participants)	(14) Duration / Doers	(15) Episodes / Doers	
Total number of episodes of activity	(16) Duration / Episodes		

to mean duration of activity per participant/doer. Similarly, measures 12 and 15 refer to mean occurrences per person and per doer, respectively. The proportion of participants to total population (13) is also referred to as the participation rate for the activity.

The indices could be used in relation to primary activities, secondary activities and combinations of simultaneous activities. In addition, "activity" may be defined in terms of the one-, two-digit or more detailed levels of the classification used, or as broader groups of activities as may be appropriate to the analysis.

The indices can refer to different temporal units such as an "average" day in a week, an "average" week in a year, an "average" weekday, an "average" weekend; averages may also pertain to a week, season/quarter or a year depending on the time, sample and estimation objectives of the survey.

Table 1.3 shows how these time-use measures may appear in an analysis table. In this table, the survey population are persons 15 years old and over. For "paid work and related activities" for females, 11 equals 2.8 hours per day while 14 equals 7.7 hours per day.

Basic tabulation plan for analysing time-use data

1. Specifications for analysis and classification variables

In addition to the type of time-use index, basic tables for analysis are specified in terms of (a) analysis variables and (b) classification variables.

The type of activity is the key analysis variable in all tabulations. One decision that needs to be made in relation to the type of activity is the level of aggregation or disaggregation to be used. In this regard, it is suggested that initially the most detailed level of classification be used in coding the activities. Broader aggregations may be needed for analysis, which can be derived by grouping the appropriate detailed activities. The Aas' framework, for example, has been traditionally used in general analyses of time-use patterns as well as analyses that focus on free time. The tabulation categories of the proposed United Nations International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics, on the other hand, is useful for analyses involving paid and

Table 1.3. Average time spent on various activities for the population 15 years old and over and participants showing participation rate by sex, Canada, 1998

Activity group	Population 15+			Participants			Participation rate		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
	Hours per day			Hours per day			(Per cent)		
Total work	7.8	7.8	7.8	8.0	8.0	7.9	98	97	99
Paid work and related activities	3.6	4.5	2.8	8.3	8.8	7.7	44	51	36
Unpaid work	3.6	2.7	4.4	3.9	3.2	4.6	91	87	96
Parsonal Care	10.4	10.2	10.6	10.4	10.2	10.6	100	100	100
Free time	5.8	6.0	5.6	5.9	6.1	5.7	97	97.0	97

Source: Table 1 in "Overview of the Time Use of Canadians in 1998." Statistics Canada, catalogue no. 12F0080XIE.

unpaid work. Final published tables may have to be in terms of less detailed activity descriptions either due to logistics or due to considerations of precision of estimates.

Activity may be defined in terms of primary, secondary or simultaneous activities. Most standard statistical reports on time use present tables on time spent in each activity category, regardless of whether the activity is primary or secondary. Separate tables for primary and secondary activities may also be prepared. The preparation of working tables integrating primary and simultaneous activities is suggested and discussed later in this section.

Context variables (location of activity, "with whom", "for whom", paid/unpaid) are also typically analysed in combination with duration and activity – for example, time spent together by parents and children or by spouses, time spent in the house or time spent on unpaid household work.

Classification variables are used to define the domains of study. These variables may be at the person level or at the household/family level. Relevant variables are expected to differ substantially with regard to the use of time and also with policy relevance. The Expert Group Meeting on Methods for Conducting Time-Use Surveys recommends the following minimum list of classification variables at the person level: age, sex, marital status and work situation (employment status, class of worker).

Sex and age are two essential classification variables in analysing time-use data; thus, sex by age groupings should comprise basic domains of study. While there is no international standard classification for age groups, data on age are most commonly tabulated and published in five-year age groups (0-4, 5-9, 10-14 etc.). These five-year groupings are considered appropriate for indicators known to exhibit patterns associated with life-cycle variations. Other groupings are useful depending on the analysis, and can be derived from the basic groups.

For some types of analysis (e.g., studies on intra-household allocation), household-related variables such as the presence of children, family type (or household composition) and household income are important. Information on household durables is needed for explaining time-use patterns of activities that are related to their presence or absence in the household.

2. Table specifications

In this discussion it is useful to distinguish three types of tables: working tables, simultaneous activity tables and thematic tables.

Working tables

Working tables constitute the core tabulations. They report the duration or proportion of time spent in each category of a comprehensive list of activities. Duration can be expressed in terms of total time or average time. It is suggested that at a minimum, these tables use the sex-age cross-classification as the basic domain of study. Measures based on the total population are interpreted differently from those based on participants/doers; thus, tables referring to the survey population and participants/doers should be prepared separately.

Figure 1.1 illustrates the format of a core working table with activity as the analysis variable. A series of tabulations with this format can be generated for various classification variables, both person and household, including demographic and employment characteristics. Working tables using other analysis variables (e.g., context variables: location, with whom, for what purpose) can have a similar format, but where categories of the context or other analysis variables replace the activity list.

It is noted that such a format suggests that time use for activities done alone are to be tabulated separately from all simultaneously-done activities. The advantage of this type of table is that all hours in a week, weekday or weekend are accounted for, and time spent in multiple activities is not counted in multiple categories. Typical basic tabulations on time use, however, do not tabulate simultaneously-done activities in this manner. The statistical tables are so designed that time spent in sole activities and simultaneous activities are added up and accounted for in each activity category. For this approach to be valid for analytical purposes, it is essential that the total time spent in all activities equals a 24-hour day. The issue then is how to divide up the time between simultaneously-done activities?

Simultaneous activity tables

A simultaneous activity table would have a detailed breakdown of time spent doing simultaneous activities. This table would show which activities are typically done together. Figure 1.2 is a format for a cross-tabulation of primary and secondary activities. At a minimum, the table can show the most often occurring pair of activities. A series of tabulations with this format can be produced using sex, age and other classification variables.

Thematic tables

Thematic tables would focus on specific activities of interest such as SNA work, unpaid housework, childcare, travelling, waiting time and others. For example, a thematic table on childcare (see figure 1.3) sums up time spent in childcare activities by adding time spent on childcare as a sole activity and time spent on childcare in combination with any other activities. Since thematic tables would count all time spent on an activity even when other activities are done simultaneously, multiple thematic tables cannot be added together to compute total time, as some time will be double counted.

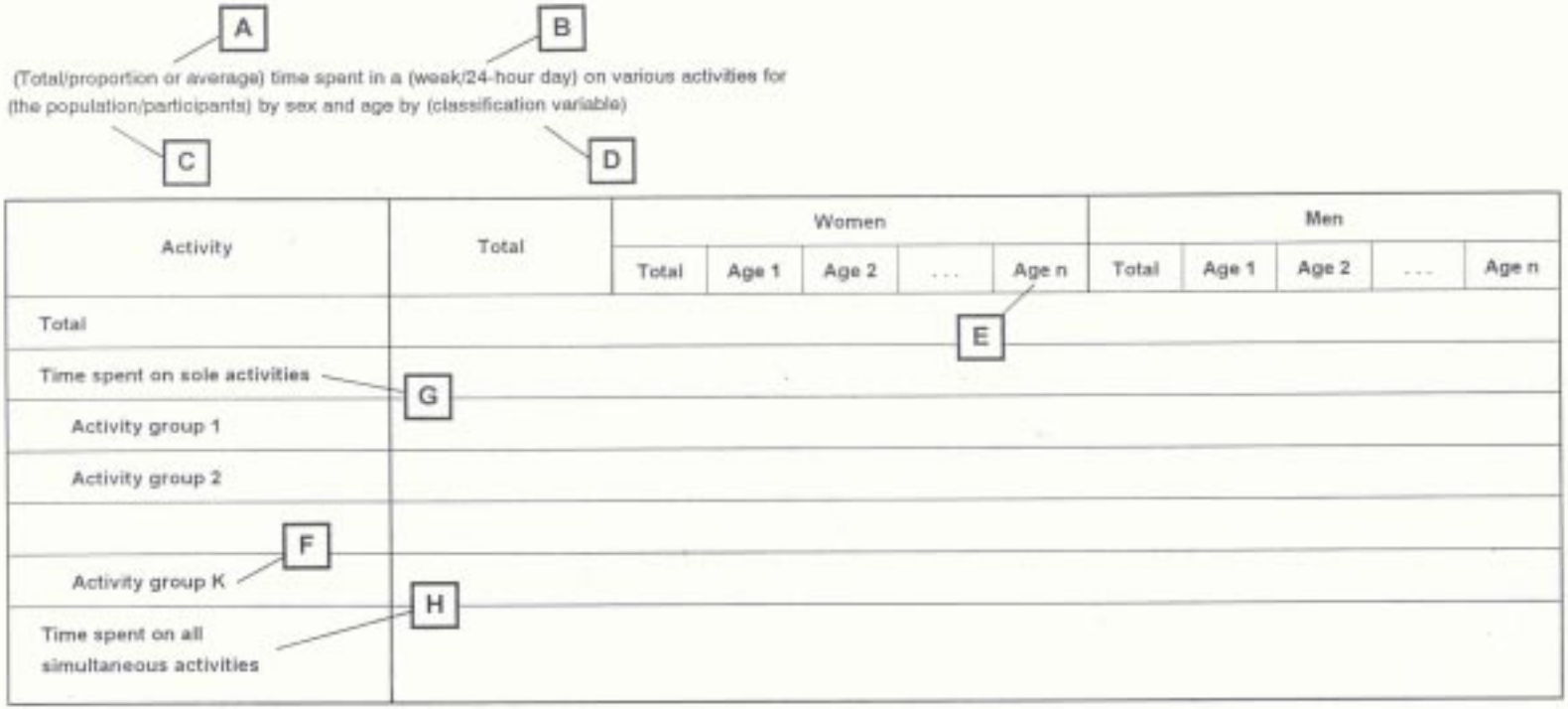
The number of tables on time-use data can become quite voluminous. A decision has to be made on the basic tabulations that should be produced and disseminated first. A production schedule may be helpful in prioritizing outputs to ensure timeliness of the release of results.

Data processing

The data processing cycle involves many interdependent activities. The major ones are: coding, data capture, quality assurance and editing, and validation. The inputs into the processing cycle are the survey forms (household and personal questionnaires) and time-use dairies. The basic outputs are the data files and basic tabulations. These, in turn, provide an input into the dissemination phase of the survey.

While data collection constitutes the most critical phase from the standpoint of accuracy, the ability to obtain survey

Figure 1.1. Illustration of basic working table



A. Time-use measure or index.
B. Temporal unit. Some other types of temporal units are specific days of the week (e.g., Sunday, Friday), weekday, weekend.
C. The table should specify whether the time use is measured for the survey population or only for participants/doers.
D. Classification variables include other demographic variables, employment characteristics and household or family-related variables.
E. Age groupings should exhaust the entire age range covered by the survey population.
F. The listing of activities should exhaust all activity categories.
G. Sole activities are activities where the person did not report doing something else at the same time. Duration of all activities reported as having been done simultaneously are not included in the activity list that follows.
H. Time spent in all simultaneous activities covers time allocated to all simultaneous activities regardless of the combination of activities.

Figure 1.2. Format of simultaneous activities table

(Total/proportion or average) time spent in a (week/24-hour day) on simultaneous activities by primary and secondary activity by classification variable.

Primary activity	No simultaneous activity	Primary activity						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TOTAL								
1-								
2-								
3-								
4-								
5-								
6-								
7-								
8-								
9-								

Figure 1.3. Format of thematic table

(Total/proportion or average) time spent in a (week/24-hour day) on caring for children as the sole activity and simultaneous with other activities by sex and classification variable.

Hours spent	Total	Women	Men
TOTAL			
Time spent (caring for children)			
As sole activity			
Simultaneous with other activities			
Activity 1			
Activity 2			
Activity J			

results within a reasonable time period rests even more on the efficiency of the data processing system. The development of an efficient data processing system for a new and non-standard survey can be a relatively complex task needing coordinated efforts of survey statisticians, subject-matter analysts and users, and information technology staff. It may even be more complicated for time use than other surveys because of the unique processing issues related to time diaries.

Strategic directions for the processing phase need to be established early on during planning. A key factor in expediting data processing is the early completion of tabulation plans. When this is done, planning can proceed with the preparation of instructions for necessary clerical and other manual operations including: receipt and control of survey forms; manual editing and coding; specifications for data capture; computer-assisted coding and editing; imputation procedures; and specifications for statistical table formats.

The principal aspects of planning for data processing include the areas discussed below.

1. Editing

There is a consensus among time-use experts that primary activities must add up to 1,440 minutes per day and the consistent arithmetic for week and year should follow. This increases the accuracy and completeness of reporting very significantly, because it provides a check as to whether the estimates of the duration of each activity are accurate or whether some activities have been omitted.

In general, standard editing specifications and quality indicators for evaluating diary data need to be specified. The issues to be addressed in relation to this and related editing are:

- What editing is to be done manually and to what extent should manual editing be done?
- At what stage of the survey should editing be done – at the interview stage? For self-completed diaries, should this be when the diaries are collected?

2. Coding

Coding can be one of the most time-consuming tasks in time-use surveys. Data processing experts need to work with subject matter analysts in formulating coding rules and constructing coding indices, and fit these into the processing procedures and system.

Coding rules are especially needed when processing the information on time-use activities in diaries to deal with situations that are common causes of confusion and ambiguity such as overriding and pervasive activities (Users' Guide, 1992).

The coding of diaries may be performed either in the field by interviewers or at a central site by coders. The optimal choice will depend on having appropriate coding tools and procedures. The development of a coding index for activities and contextual information included in the time-use diary is one such tool. This has to be provided for in the survey timetable.

3. Preparation of outputs

Defining data entry and computer editing specifications are standard processes for any survey, which have to be considered as early as the planning stage.

Especially critical for time-use surveys are defining file structures from time diaries and identifying derived variables that can

facilitate the production of tables and the presentation of results. Implementing the estimation procedure for the survey – including weighting and non-response adjustments – and generating the tables prescribed in the tabulation plan require the preparation and review of computer programmes and table formats.

A decision has to be made on which data entry and editing software to use in developing the computer programs for these. Unlike some specialized household surveys that have benefited from statistical packages, there is no standard package for time-use diaries. In addition, survey planners need to decide on developing a database and the data dissemination products.

Dissemination strategy

If time-use data are to be used to inform policy makers, it will need to be packaged and made available in forms understandable by as wide an audience as possible, yet targeted and focused enough to serve as advocacy tools. Specific interest groups or individuals and organizations need to be identified and included in the consultative process early on in planning in order to determine the types of products needed as well as the modes of dissemination.

Time-use statistics may eventually be used for purposes other than the original basis for planning and designing the survey that produced them. For example, additional analytical issues may emerge after the initial results have been studied. The tabulation plan for the survey will not necessarily meet the requirements for them. Decisions to be made at the planning stage in relation to identifying a procedure for accommodating specialized or emerging data needs, include whether or not to release microdata and, if so decided, in what form. If not, what kind of system will enable the statistical office and key partners of the survey to respond to special data requests at a time when needed?

In summary, country experiences have shown that time-use surveys can be planned and organized either as an independent study or as part of a multi-purpose survey. In both cases, the design elements remain the same. Resources including the basic statistical infrastructure are a prime consideration. The global attention to the importance of time-use data in improving the situation, particularly of the unremunerated sector, has led to efforts to refine the tools for analysis. Furthermore, an international standard for activity classification has been developed. These initiatives are helping to increase the contribution of usable data and statistics for policy decision-making. As countries begin to share the lessons learned in collecting and analysing data, time-use surveys will become established parts of national statistical systems. A key aspect of analysing time-use data is the valuation of time spent on unpaid productive activities that usually have not been counted as an economic resource.

1

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COLLECTING TIME-USE DATA

Part II. Activity classification for time-use statistics on unpaid work: Proposed United Nations Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics

Purpose and nature of the classification: General remarks

The proposed International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics (ICATUS) is intended to be a standard classification of activities that takes into account all activities that the general population typically spends time on over the 24 hours of a day. Its main purpose is to provide a set of activity categories that can be utilized in producing statistics on time use that are meaningful in relation to the broad range of objectives of national time-use studies as well as cross-national and cross-temporal comparative studies on time use.

ICATUS is intended to serve as a standard for activity classifications for time-use statistics applicable both to developing and developed countries. It builds on existing national and regional classifications, and considers the experiences of both developed and developing countries in constructing and applying activity classifications for collecting and analysing time-use data.

A main consideration in the development of ICATUS is to enable statisticians and researchers to delineate more precisely the boundaries of SNA and non-SNA economic activities as well as productive and non-productive activities, and to measure all forms of work including

unremunerated work. Certain types of unremunerated work such as subsistence agriculture as well as paid and unpaid work for small-scale family enterprises are included in the SNA and should not be considered as unpaid housework. ICATUS is closely related to the main existing classifications of time-use activities. It separates into a range of categories the SNA work activities of households, specifically the production of goods either for income or for own final use, and the production of services for income. This permits a clear delineation of activities that are important in developing countries within a classification that covers the circumstances of developed and developing countries.

The proposed ICATUS is designed to be consistent with existing standard classifications in labour and economic statistics. The underlying objective is the integration of time-use statistics and official social and economic statistics. The set of activity categories for productive activities are defined in relation to concepts of employment, economic activity and occupation. ICATUS utilizes definitions and categories used in the SNA and the standard economic classifications – International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE), International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC) and International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO).

ICATUS seeks to provide data that can be linked to official statistics emanating from the SNA and labour statistics frameworks. This is especially critical where time-use data are used in household production estimates in satellite accounts that extend the measurement of GDP to include non-SNA production. Furthermore, by giving relatively more weight to productive activities, it allows for an analytical framework that can generate indicators of welfare and quality of life with both economic and social dimensions.

The detail required in the classification of data by type of daily human activity differs from country to country. Differences in the historical, cultural, economic and geographic circumstances result in differences in the degree of elaboration in which various countries may find it necessary or feasible to classify data on time use. The level of detail required for purposes of international comparison is generally less than what is needed for national analysis.

Concepts and definitions

Production, productive activities and work

Daily activities can be categorized into those that are productive and those that are not productive; that is, personal activities. Productive activities are associated with the concept of “work”. In relation to the objectives of time-use data collection and activity classifications, it is important to define what constitutes production, productive activities and work activities and to differentiate these from personal activities.

Production boundaries

1. General production boundary

An activity is said to be productive or to fall within the "general production boundary" if its performance can be delegated to another person and yields the same desired results; activities that fit this description are said to satisfy the "third person criterion". Production, in this context, is an activity carried out under the control and responsibility of an institutional unit[1] that uses input of labour, capital, and goods and services to produce output of goods and services. There must be an institutional unit that assumes responsibility for the process and owns any goods produced as outputs or is entitled to be paid, or otherwise compensated, for the services provided (SNA[2], 1993: para. 6.15).

In the SNA framework, productive activities are a smaller set or subset of the general productive activities. The distinction is made between two main types of production:

(a) Within the SNA production boundary; and

(b) Outside the SNA production boundary but within the general production boundary, or non-SNA production.

2. SNA production boundary

Activities within the "SNA production boundary" comprise production of goods or services supplied or intended to be supplied to units other than their producers, own-account production of all goods retained by their producers (including all production and processing of primary products, whether for the market, for barter or for own consumption), own-account production of housing services by owner-occupiers and of domestic and personal services produced by paid domestic staff (SNA[2], 1993: para 6.18). SNA production excludes all household activities that produce domestic or personal services for own final consumption within the same household except for services produced by employing paid domestic staff. Non-SNA production, on the other hand, consists of general production activities that generate domestic and personal services produced and consumed within the same household except those produced by paid domestic staff (SNA[2], 1993: paras. 6.17, 6.20). This includes cleaning, servicing and repairs; preparation and serving of meals; care, training and instruction of children; care of the sick, infirm and elderly; transportation of the members of the household or their goods; as well as unpaid volunteer services to other households, the community (except organized major construction such as of roads, dams and wells), neighbourhood associations and other informal associations.[3]

The concept of work

Work has numerous interpretations and meanings depending on the context. In a general sense, work has been defined as "any conscious, purposeful activity which

[1] An institutional unit is "an economic entity that is capable, in its own right, of owning assets, incurring liabilities and engaging in economic activities and in transactions with other entities." (SNA 1993, para 4.2).

[2] Commission of the European Communities, International Monetary Fund, Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, United Nations and World Bank, 1993, System of National Accounts 1993, United Nations publication, Sales No. E.94.XVII.4.

[3] Note that unpaid volunteer work in institutions producing goods and services with employed workers and community-organized major construction such as of roads, dams, wells etc., are, however, SNA activities.

with satisfaction serves the material and spiritual needs of the individual and community" (Anderson, 1961). In ICATUS, a person performing any kind of productive activity – whether within the SNA production boundary or not – is said to be "working" or spending time on "work" activities. ICATUS, however, differentiates between work in relation to SNA production (SNA work) and work in relation to non-SNA production (non-SNA work).

Persons are said to be engaged in "SNA work" if and only if "they contribute or are available to contribute to the production of goods and services falling within the SNA production boundary" (ILO, 1990: p. 14). Production activities that are non-SNA, on the other hand, are referred to as "non-SNA work". As described, these consist of the set of activities that are, in relation to national accounts and labour force estimation, the "unvalued" and "invisible" unpaid domestic and volunteer work and are the object of measurement and valuation in satellite accounts on household production, the national accounts of the household economy.

Non-productive or personal activities

For purposes of classifying activities, ICATUS uses the dichotomy of productive and non-productive activities. The basic idea, drawn from the "third party" criterion is that an activity is considered productive if it can be delegated to someone else or if it yields an output that is capable of being exchanged (Eurostat, 1999: p. 22); otherwise, it is considered non-productive.

Activities performed for personal maintenance and care such as eating, drinking, sleeping, exercising etc. are non-productive or personal activities. These cannot be delegated to a person other than the one benefiting from them. Similarly, activities associated with socializing, entertainment, sports participation, hobbies and games, and use of mass media are considered to be non-productive activities.

Education or learning activities include time spent in full-time and part-time classes, special lectures, laboratories, examinations, homework, leisure and special interest classes, travel related to education and all other forms of active study. Education, skills acquisition and related activities are considered personal activities from the perspective of the student/pupil for whom this is a consumption activity, because it is not possible to delegate studying to someone else.[4]

In general, the third-person criterion when applied yields the desired delineation between productive and personal activities. However, the following main issues and exceptions apply:

- Although it is also true that personal services done for oneself such as washing oneself, dressing, putting on make-up and shaving can be provided by a third party, these are treated as non-productive activities. It has been argued that these are generally not bought from the market or that they conform to normal adult behaviour and so are generally not delegated to others (Eurostat, 1999: p. 22). On the other hand, bathing a child or dressing a disabled person are considered productive activities.

[4] Educational activities are sometimes treated as productive activities because they lead to an accumulation of knowledge or skills and represent part of time invested in human capital, and thus have economic consequences. (Harvey and Olomi, 1997: pp 8-9)

- Shopping for and availing of services is generally considered productive. Exceptions are receiving medical and personal care services (e.g., receiving a haircut), which are considered to be non-productive activities as they cannot be delegated to a person other than the one benefiting from them.

- Some activities that are productive are sometimes perceived as personal because of the attachment of emotional or subjective values to the activity. For example, baking a cake is productive regardless of the purpose for doing so, but baking a birthday cake for one's child may be perceived as a personal activity rather than a productive activity because of the symbolic (love) personal value attached to it. Both cases are, however, productive activities according to the third-person criterion (Eurostat, 1999: p. 22).

- An activity can be perceived as work by one individual but as leisure by another based on whether the person "likes" or enjoys doing the activity; fishing and hunting are examples of such activities. Whether the person doing the activity likes it or not, or derives utility from it or not, is irrelevant from the economic point of view.

In addition, travelling is classified according to the purpose of the trip. Travel in relation to performing a productive activity is productive while travel in relation to personal activities is considered personal.

Principles used for constructing the classification

The underlying principles that guided the construction of the proposed ICATUS are that: (a) it must be flexible enough to be applicable to the identified analytical objectives of time-use studies as well as potential uses for data on time use; (b) it must have a balanced and comprehensive coverage of all groups of activities that reflects the structure of distribution of time over activities in the general population (e.g., productive and personal; formal employment and informal employment); (c) it must be detailed enough to cover activities of important subpopulations (e.g., women, children, the elderly), yet not too detailed so that it becomes operationally unwieldy (e.g., overburden respondents, difficulty in coding); and (d) it does not deviate significantly from classification schemes of historical data sets, and national and regional listings that have undergone cycles of testing, use and review.

ICATUS groups activities into three hierarchical levels. Specific criteria used in defining the various categories of activities are described below.

1

Main categories

The first criterion for differentiating between activities concerns the relationship they bear to the production boundary of the SNA. On this basis, three types of activities are defined:

- Activities performed in relation to production within the SNA production boundary; that is, "SNA work" activities;
- Activities performed in relation to production activities within the general production boundary but outside the SNA production boundary, or "non-SNA work" activities; and
- Activities that are not considered as production activities, or personal activities.

These three types of activities are allocated to main categories based on several criteria.

1. "SNA work" activities

SNA work activities are first categorized based on the institutional unit in which production takes place. All work activities in relation to a person's employment in corporations/quasi-corporations, non-profit institutions and government are combined into one main category representing all types of "formal sector" work; that is:

P1. Formal employment or work in "formal enterprises" consisting of the provision of labour inputs to the production of goods and services that are typically associated with working for pay or profit. This categorization is applied even though the pay or profit may not actually be realized in a given reference period, regardless of occupation, status in employment, contractual arrangements, economic activity etc. in corporations, quasi-corporations, cooperatives, commercial farms and non-profit institutions.

Work activities in relation to household production[5] are delineated on the basis of the character of the goods and services produced by the activities undertaken, as described below.

P2. The production of goods by households for income or for own final use (either for consumption or gross capital formation) or for both, including employment in the informal sector.[6]

Primary production of goods

- The production of agricultural products and their subsequent storage; gathering of berries or other uncultivated crops; forestry; wood-cutting and the collection of firewood; and hunting and fishing; and
- The production of other primary products such as salt, mining and quarrying, cutting peat, and the collection and supply of water.

[5] Use of the term "household production" is as defined in SNA1993 and refers to production activities engaged in by members of household unincorporated market enterprises and household unincorporated enterprises producing for own final use. Informal sector enterprises are part of household unincorporated market enterprises. Household members engaged in production for own final use "work" in household enterprises.

[6] The informal sector, as defined in the resolution of the 15th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, January 1993, concerning statistics of employment in the informal sector, is "regarded as a group of production units, which, according to the definitions and classifications provided in the United Nations System of National Accounts (Rev. 4), form part of the household sector as household enterprises or, equivalently, unincorporated enterprises owned by households. … The informal sector is defined irrespective of the kind of workplace where the productive activities are carried out, the extent of fixed capital assets used, the duration of the operation of the enterprise (perennial, seasonal or casual), and its operation as a main or secondary activity of the owner."

Non-primary production of goods

- Processing of agricultural products; production of grain by threshing; production of flour by milling; tobacco preparing and curing; curing of skins and production of leather; production and preservation of meat and fish products; preservation of fruit by drying, bottling, etc.; production of dairy products such as butter or cheese; production of beer, wine or spirits; production of baskets or mats;
- Weaving cloth; dressmaking and tailoring; production of footwear; production of pottery, utensils or durables; making furniture or furnishings; crafts-making; making bricks, tiles, hollow blocks.

P3. Providing services for income, including employment in the informal sector including:

- Food vending and trading;
- Repairing, installing and maintaining durable goods;
- Providing business, professional, social and personal care services;
- Transporting goods and passengers; and
- Providing paid domestic services (includes employment in households as domestic help, that is, gardener, chauffeur, utility person, maid).

P4. Paid construction activities and construction for own capital formation including:

- Construction of own house;
- Major home improvements and repairs;
- Community-organized construction and major repairs of roads, buildings, dams and bridges.

The resulting main categories for SNA work activities are:

A. Work for corporations/quasi-corporations, non-profit institutions, and government;

B. Work for household unincorporated enterprises in primary production activities (activities undertaken in relation to agriculture, forestry, hunting, fishing, mining and quarrying);

C. Work for household unincorporated enterprises in non-primary production activities (activities undertaken in the manufacturing of goods);

D. Work for household unincorporated enterprises in construction activities (activities undertaken in construction work); and

E. Work for household unincorporated enterprises providing services for income (activities undertaken in relation to providing services for income).

2. "Non-SNA" work activities

Non-SNA work activities are delineated in terms of whether they are carried out for household members, members of other households or the community. This differentiation identifies volunteer work activities that fall under non-SNA production separately.[7] Non-SNA work done for one's own household is part of household production in the general sense. Some examples are:

[7] "Volunteer work" is generally used to refer to unpaid work activities and can be SNA or non-SNA production as well as market or non-market. All volunteer work producing goods (including community-organized major construction such as of roads, dams, wells etc.) are SNA production. Unpaid volunteer work in non-household institutions producing services with employed workers are SNA production activities. Unpaid volunteer services to other households, the community (except organized major construction such as of roads, dams and wells), neighbourhood associations and other informal associations, are non-SNA production activities.

P5. Providing unpaid services for own final use.

Domestic services for own final use within household

- Cleaning, decoration and maintenance of the dwelling occupied by the household, including small repairs;
- Cleaning, servicing and repair of household durables or other goods, including vehicles used for household purposes;
- Preparation and serving of meals; and
- Transportation of members of the household or their goods.

Unpaid care-giving services to household members

- Care, training and instruction of children; and
- Care of sick, infirm or old people.

P6. Providing unpaid domestic services, care-giving services and volunteer services to other households, the community and non-profit institutions serving households including:

- Informal help to neighbours and relatives;
- "Informal/unorganized" volunteer and community work through neighbourhood and informal community associations; and
- "Formal/organized" volunteer and community work through the Red Cross, welfare organizations, professional organizations, churches, clubs and other non-profit institutions serving households (NPISH).

"Volunteer work" is the one category of work that can be either SNA or non-SNA. All volunteer work producing goods (including community-organized major construction such as of roads, dams, wells etc.) is classified as SNA work. Unpaid volunteer work in non-household institutions producing services with employed workers are also SNA work activities. On the other hand, unpaid volunteer services to other households, the community (except organized major construction as noted above), neighbourhood associations and other informal associations are non-SNA work activities.

The resulting categories for non-SNA work are:

F. Work providing unpaid domestic services for own final use within the household;

G. Work providing unpaid care-giving services to household members; and

H. Work providing community services and help to other households.

3. Personal activities

Personal activities are distinguished according to (a) the nature of the activity (e.g., learning, socializing, meeting physiological needs) and (b) the participation of others (e.g., watching sports versus participating in sports; attending a stage play versus acting or participating, as a hobby, in a stage play). Applying these criteria results in the following categories of activities:

I. Learning;

J. Socializing and community participation;

K. Attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports events/ venues;

L. Engaging in hobbies, games and other pastime activities;

M. Indoor and outdoor sports participation;

N. Use of mass media; and

O. Personal care and maintenance.

Divisions and groups

Activities within the broad categories are further distinguished by allocating activities to divisions. In defining specific groups under the divisions, the basic criterion is that of universality or frequency and regularity of occurrence; that is, if there are specific types of activities that are known to be typical for or prevalent in most countries then these are listed at the most detailed level. In some divisions, no specific groups have been defined because it is recognized that there would be too much country variation when listed at that level of detail.

Another consideration in forming separate divisions or groups is the importance of the particular set of activities in relation to the objectives of time-use surveys – in the case of this classification, a more comprehensive measurement of work. Thus, divisions pertaining to SNA work activities in households highlight those economic activities that are typically undertaken as part of own-household production and those associated with the informal sector.

Structure and coding system of the classification

The proposed ICATUS has been developed to a detailed four-digit coding scheme following a hierarchy. The first level consists of 15 main categories and, as indicated in the previous section, are given alphabetic labels by letters A to O. The second level consists of the divisions within categories; these are assigned three-digit codes. The third level consists of the groups within divisions; these are assigned four-digit codes. Higher levels provide more detailed activities. Each category consists of eight or more divisions of which there are 204 in all. Thirty-five of the divisions are further divided into a total of 211 groups.

In the coding scheme, the first three digits of the four-digit codes correspond to the division code. The use of the three-digit codes at the first level (division level) of the classification is necessary in order to achieve the delineation of activities that is necessary to the purposes of the classification. The three-digit codes are grouped into clusters of 50 or 100 (e.g., 001-099, 100-149 etc).

Activities at the division level are comprised of (a) core activities pertaining to the category and (b) non-core or related activities. Travelling is uniformly treated as a "related activity" at the division level within a category. Some categories include divisions comprised of additional "other related" activities.

A "not elsewhere classified (n.e.c.)" division is included in all main categories for specific activities that clearly fall within the category but do not correspond to any of the pre-defined divisions of activities. In addition, each main category and division includes a "not fully defined (n.f.d)" code. These are for activities that have been described vaguely or in too general a sense so that there is

not enough information to be able to classify them into any of the divisions.

The structure of the classification up to the division level is summarized below. The detailed classification is included as annex III.

Categories A to E

For the categories covering SNA work activities (A to E), core activities are defined as the activities undertaken as part of performing one's job or as part of "working time". Related activities are those that are conceptually related within the labour force statistics framework (looking for work, training and studies at work).

Categories corresponding to SNA work activities (categories A to E) are uniformly structured as follows:

- Core activities, consisting of work activities;
- Related activities, consisting of activities related to looking for work/setting up a business; and
- Travel.

Work in "formal" sector enterprises (category A) are further delineated based on whether the work is done as part of the main job or other jobs. To be consistent with the labour statistics framework, the definition of working hours, work activities of apprentices, interns and related positions and activities carried out during short breaks at work are also classified in this category. Other activities that occur in the workplace in formal sector enterprises outside of the usual working time comprise another division in this category. The desired result is for category A to represent a complete coverage of activities that occur in the workplace.

Category A also includes activities pertaining to "short breaks and interruptions from work" as part of working time and activities pertaining to "other breaks". However, such activities are not separately identified for work done in household enterprises. It is assumed that working time arrangements in household unincorporated enterprises are generally less structured or more flexible compared to those in the formal sector. Thus, activities associated with such breaks from work are classified in the corresponding divisions and not within the category.

Categories F to H

Categories corresponding to non-SNA work (categories F to H) have the following uniform structure:

- Core activities, consisting of work activities;
- Related activities (for category H only); and
- Travel.

Working time activities comprise the core activities for each of these categories. In addition, category H (providing community services and help to other households) allocates one division for non-core or related activities.

Categories I to O

Categories corresponding to personal or non-productive activities have the following uniform structure:

- Core activities, consisting of activities specific to the category;
- Related activities (for category I only); and
- Travel.

Core activities comprise all divisions in these categories except for category I (learning), which allocates one division or non-core or related activities.

Application of the classification

Adapting the classification to country situations

General remarks

The proposed ICATUS has been developed for use in planning and implementing data collection on time use as well as in the processing and analysis of the resulting data.

The character and definition of categories of ICATUS can serve as a guide to countries developing an activity classification for the first time, or to those revising an existing one. A number of countries have utilized ICATUS in this way.

The proposed ICATUS does not supersede national classifications, but provides a framework for the international comparison of national statistics. Where national classifications differ from the international classification, this comparability may be achieved by regrouping figures obtained under national classifications, provided all the elements required for such a rearrangement are obtainable from the national statistics.

In order to attain international comparability, it is suggested to all countries that, as far as individual requirements permit, they adopt the same general principles and definitions in their activity classification schemes as set out in this chapter. As a result, it should be feasible to rearrange national classifications to fit the requirements of the international standard by combining entire categories of the national classifications. This is, however, not always feasible because certain categories at the most detailed level may not be distinguished in the classifications of some countries.

While aiming for international comparability, the main feature of ICATUS is its usefulness in developing a framework for a comprehensive measurement of work. The data obtained through this classification will be useful in the (a) assessment of national labour inputs into production of goods and services, (b) compilation of household satellite accounts and (c) analysis of time use within the framework of the SNA. This system is especially useful for developing countries that may lack labour force or expenditure surveys and may need to use a single national survey to address many different research and policy issues.

The proposed ICATUS does not intend to fully break open the “black box” of time spent in paid employment (particularly in the formal sector), although it does provide more detailed specifications of economic work activities based in the household. Thus, it can be applied only on a very limited basis for the purpose of generating statistics on working time and working time arrangements.

The detail required for an activity classification for time use such as the present one may differ from country to country. In many cases, the focus may be on a subset of the divisions covered by this classification. Given the differences in the scope of activities and interests, this classification serves as a framework from which varying levels of detail may be derived.

1 Use of the proposed ICATUS in establishing related national classifications

Most of the currently used activity classification systems have evolved from the original structure developed for the Multinational Time-Use Project of the 1960s. These include both national classifications and the regional Eurostat activity classification. It is very likely that countries having years of experience with their own time-use coding schemes, as well as fully developed national statistical survey programmes to address specific research needs, will continue to use these systems. Since the proposed ICATUS maintains consistency with these schemes, they share many similarities. It is hoped that these countries review their classifications and suitably revise them to strive for even more harmonization with ICATUS.

On the other hand, for countries that lack the infrastructure required to develop and maintain their own activity classification or who are venturing for the first time into the conduct of a national survey on time use, it is suggested that ICATUS be adopted mainly with minimal modifications as may be found suitable.

To make possible the conversion of a national activity classification to the proposed ICATUS, the categories at the most detailed level of classification in the national scheme should coincide with, or be subdivisions or combinations of, the individual groups of ICATUS. In other words, each most detailed category of the national classification should not, in general, cover portions of two or more divisions. Where the categories represent combinations of two or more entire groups, they should in general be part of the same division, as appropriate.

1. Retaining categories

An important phase in the process of further developing the proposed ICATUS is the accumulation and evaluation of country experiences in constructing activity classifications in general and in adapting ICATUS in particular. Comparability at the main category levels is ideal in order to evaluate these results. It is also recommended that the three-digit divisions be retained to the extent possible.

2. Expansion or contraction

Since there may be few countries in the world in which all categories of the proposed ICATUS are equally important, it may be expanded or contracted, depending on the social, cultural and economic situation of each country.

Some countries will find that ICATUS is much more elaborate or has much more detail than the objectives of the survey. For example, the detailed categories for shopping activities may not be relevant either for the survey purpose or for actual situations in the country; respondents may either not specify the goods and services being purchased or purchase them at the same time as other ‘general goods’. A related observation is that some activities that are considered important in ICATUS may not be important or even applicable to a country. For example, laws may prohibit or heavily restrict manufacture, selling or drinking of alcoholic beverages; thus, corresponding activities will not be common or relevant in those countries.

ICATUS may be contracted by combining the groups of selected divisions into fewer or less detailed groups or by entirely telescoping groups into divisions. It may be desirable or necessary to raise categories at the most detailed level of

classification of national schemes which, in certain instances, combine groups of ICATUS. This may be because the types of activity segregated by selected groups of ICATUS are not important enough in a given country.

On the other hand, for some types of activities considered important to specific country situations ICATUS categories may be too aggregated. In such cases, countries can expand the groups of activities under the three-digit divisions to incorporate these activities. In doing so, it is suggested that to the extent possible the three-digit levels of ICATUS be maintained, although countries may add new groups, or even five-digit codes or classes within groups, as may be needed. A related case is where an activity listed in ICATUS at the four-digit level is considered important enough in a country to be elevated to the three-digit level. For example, a specific type of craft-making may be much more common than others listed at the four-digit level under ICATUS code 104.

In order to preserve comparability with ICATUS, the more detailed classes should be delineated so that they may be aggregated to divisions or main categories without changing the existing relationships.

There may be certain activities that very few people engage in or that are relatively unimportant to the analytical framework representing the objectives of the data collection and which do not fall under any other defined group. The creation of a n.e.c. group provides for capturing these activities without creating a separate subcategory. This solution can reduce the costs of developing and implementing the classification without any significant impact on its utility. Another reason for defining n.e.c. groups is that at the design stage, not all activities may have been taken into account or new activities may appear after the classification has been adapted.

It should be noted that n.e.c. groups, when injudiciously applied at the coding stage, may result in loss of information on the nature of specific activities and in practical applications of the classification. They may be abused as “dump groups” for inadequately described activities. For inadequately defined activities, the use of an n.f.d. group is recommended.

3. Need for contextual information

Some dimensions of the context in which activities are carried out are built into the classification. The need for supplementary questions in the data collection instrument to capture the additional information should be considered. The types of information needed are detailed below:

- Categories of work activities delineated in relation to the institutional type of the producer unit, that is, whether household enterprises or non-household enterprises. Thus, there is a need for information on the institutional unit where production takes place.
- Categories of work activities defined in terms of type of economic activities as defined in industrial classifications for economic activities. Thus, there is a need to obtain this information in order to be able to classify the activity.
- Category A activities are generally paid except possibly for “unpaid” contributing family workers and apprentices. To determine whether work is paid or unpaid, additional information will need to be collected.

- Category B activities may be paid or unpaid but "paid domestic services" is defined as a specific division.
- Unpaid domestic work and care-giving activities are categorized separately depending on "for whom" the activity is done – whether it is for own household members (categories F and G) or for others (category H). A contextual variable on "for whom" may be needed to be able to accurately classify the activity.
- Activities generally associated with unpaid volunteer work are placed in category H. The divisions are delineated in relation to whether the volunteer work is informal help to other households or with a formal entity. A "for whom" context variable may be needed to make the distinction.
- Travel and waiting are classified according to the main purpose or the activity for which they are needed, e.g., whether it is in relation to work, attending a sports event or carrying out household maintenance activities. Thus, information on the purpose for travelling or waiting is needed.
- Computer technology is given some prominence with separate divisions (723, 831-833) defined. This is another implicit use of contextual information (technology used) in defining divisions and groups.

4. Treatment of simultaneous and "pairs" of activities

The ICATUS list of activities describes single activities. However, two or more activities may be performed in parallel or simultaneously. Further, some pairs of activities may be intrinsically linked and for all practical purposes comprise a single activity. In applying the classification, countries will have to determine how these activities are to be recorded and coded.

When activities occur simultaneously, countries have a choice as to whether they will record only one (the main or primary activity) or whether they will record both. A basic consideration is the survey objective. If both activities are equally important in relation to the survey objectives, then information on both activities should be recorded and the survey instrument designed accordingly. Childcare is the classic example of an activity that commonly occurs simultaneously with another and is treated as a secondary activity. Interest in the activity is often the reason why surveys are designed to capture simultaneous activities.

If it is not important to be able to separately code both activities in the pair, such as eating from drinking, then rules would have to specify which activity will be coded. The rule may specify that the less disaggregated level into which both activities may fall be used for coding, if applicable, or a prioritization rule will need to be specified. The draft classification includes "passive" childcare as a division to ensure that these activities are not automatically paired with any other activity; it can also be considered a primary activity in case simultaneous activities are recorded and a prioritization is made.

Some "pairs" of activities that are generally not practical to record separately are: (a) eating and drinking; (b) talking/ conversing in relation to work, attending meetings, or at social events; and (c) watching video or listening to the radio strictly in relation to studying. Countries may consider including these types of pairs of activities in the classifications or define priority rules for dealing with them.

Waiting for transport and the consequent travel are a pair of activities that can be treated in two ways – again, depending on the objective of the survey. Specific objectives related to provision of public services, for example, would find a separate analysis of waiting time and travel time useful. Waiting time that goes with availing of other types of services such as public health services or other government services can be treated similarly.

Another special "pair" of activities concerns lunch breaks at work. ICATUS suggests that lunch breaks are to be classified under category A (and would thus be reflected under "work") if only primary activities are recorded. However, if the survey records simultaneous activities then "lunch break at work" is to be treated as a secondary activity, and the specific activities undertaken during the break (e.g., eating, shopping, business meeting) are to be recorded as the main activity.

Prioritization of activities can be done at the recording or data collection stage or at the coding stage, depending on the design of the survey. When done at the data collection stage, interviewers and respondents (especially in the case of "leave-behind" diary method) both need to know the prioritization rules. This is especially critical when the survey collects information only on one (primary) activity or when the survey collects information on simultaneous activities where a primary activity and a secondary activity need to be specified. In survey designs where simultaneous activities are not delineated as primary or secondary at the recording stage, this would need to be done at the coding stage.

Implications to data collection

For countries conducting their first time-use survey, a compromise may need to be made between the degree of comprehensiveness and the ease in the use of the classification. To be able to use the classification at the most detailed level there would be a need to obtain additional information in the form of a contextual variable or through probing questions.

For some countries, especially those where labour force statistics are still being developed and experience in collecting data on the informal sector may be limited, it may be difficult to distinguish the different types of SNA work for coding purposes even at the category level. For example, respondents may be unable to tell whether or not they are engaged in the formal sector. It may be better to ask for information on an individual's place of work and use this as the basis for coding, rather than leave the decision to either the investigator or the respondent.

On the other hand, countries requiring more detailed specification of the activities may adapt this classification for their purposes by adding groups or defining classes under groups using five-digit codes. Countries should note, however, that because of the complexities of collecting and analysing time-use data, too much detail may result in over-burdening respondents, lengthening time spent in data collection and complicating the coding process.

Countries may also need to provide operational definitions for some of the concepts used in the classification. Important examples are household unincorporated enterprises, and, community and non-profit institutions including NPISH.

Applications to tabulation and analysis

The 15 main categories of the classification are intended to serve as general tabulation categories for type of activity. These categories are meaningful for most analyses that look at patterns in the allocation of time by type of activities in terms of sex, age groups and geographical location. Further disaggregation at the three- or four-digit levels provide sufficient detail for analyses focusing on specific types of activities within these main categories.

In the other direction, it may be desirable to use less detailed classifications according to kind of activities for some types of analyses. By providing three levels of classification, main categories, divisions and groups, the proposed ICATUS furnishes a framework for comparable classifications of data at different levels of detail. The 15 main categories can be meaningfully aggregated in relation to analyses such as those focused on indicators of free time, SNA and non-SNA work, and paid and unpaid work.

Tabulation categories based on the Ås framework

For example, the four-fold typology of time developed by Dagfinn Ås (1978), based on the ideas of V.D. Patrushev, are used in analysing and reporting the results of many time-use studies. This framework identifies all time as (a) necessary time serving basic physiological needs, (b) explicitly contracted time related to gainful employment and school attendance, (c) committed time to which one is

Figure 1.4. Tabulation categories using the Ås framework

Types of time	ICATUS main categories
Necessary time	O Personal care and maintenance
Contracted time	**Work for**
	A Corporations, quasi-corporations, government, NPIs
	Work for household unincorporated enterprises in:
	B Primary production activities
	C Non-primary production activities
	D Construction activities
	E Providing services for incom
	I Learning
Committed time	**Work**
	F Providing unpaid domestic services for own final use within a household
	G Providing unpaid care-giving services to household members
	H Providing community services and help to other households
Free time	J Socializing and community participation
	K Attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports events/venues
	L Engaging in hobbies, games and other pastime activities
	M Indoor and outdoor sports participation
	N Use of mass media

obligated, but for which a substitute service could be purchased, or (d) free time that remains when the other three types have been accounted for. Figure 1.4 illustrates how the main categories of ICATUS can be further aggregated using this framework.

Tabulation categories based on the SNA framework

Analyses that focus on issues related to paid and unpaid work and valuation of unpaid work, have used tabulation categories that show aggregates of SNA work activities, non-SNA work activities and non-productive activities. As discussed above in this section, the ICATUS main categories provide a structure that is consistent with the SNA framework and thus facilitates tabulation in this respect. A basic tabulation plan that reflects this is shown in figure 1.5. It should be noted, however, that for SNA work categories (categories A to E) some of the activities are not generally considered as productive time. These include time allocated to travel or waiting that is not directly related to the productive activity, looking for work, and long breaks. For purposes of general time allocation analysis, the distinction need not be made; however, for purposes of valuation in satellite household accounts, countries may choose to subtract such time from estimates of productive time.

Analysing household production

The structure of ICATUS categorizes SNA work activities engaged in by individuals into two major groups in relation to the institutional unit that produces the output – activities

Figure 1.5. Tabulation categories using the SNA framework

Types of activity	ICATUS main categories
SNA work	**Work for**
	A Corporations, quasi-corporations, government, NPIs
	Work for household unincorporated enterprises in:
	B Primary production activities
	C Non-primary production activities
	D Construction activities
	E Providing services for income
Non-SNA work	**Work**
	F Providing unpaid domestic services for own final use within a household
	G Providing unpaid care-giving services to household members
	H Providing community services and help to other households
Non-productive	I Learning
	J Socializing and community participation
	K Attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports events/venues
	L Engaging in hobbies, games and other pastime activities
	M Indoor and outdoor sports participation
	N Use of mass media
	O Personal care and maintenance

performed by individuals as household members that provide an input into household production and activities performed by individuals that provide an input into the production of units belonging to sectors other than the household sector. Thus, the basic tabulation categories based on the SNA framework shown in figure 1.5 can be further expanded for analysing aspects of household production such as differentiating between SNA and non-SNA production, or market and non-market production. For this application, there would be a need to assess the activities in main categories B to E at the three-digit level and combine them into the appropriate categories. Depending on the analysis required, additional information about the activities may be needed such as for determining whether production is market or non-market. Relevant concepts are discussed below.

1. Households as producers

Household production may be described as inclusive of those activities that are "carried on, by and for the members, which activities might be replaced by market goods, or paid services, if circumstances such as income, market conditions, and personal inclinations permit the service being delegated to someone outside the household group" (Reid, 1934, cited in Quizon, 1978). Activities performed by household members for household production are classified in ICATUS into the two broad categories of SNA production or work and non-SNA production or work.

2. SNA household production

In the SNA, household production "takes place within enterprises that are directly owned and controlled by members of households, either individually or in partnership with others" (SNA, 1993: para. 4.139). An important distinction is that when "members of households work as employees for corporations, quasi-corporations or government, the production to which they contribute takes place outside the household sector" (SNA, 1993: para. 4.139). The concept of the household as a producer refers to production by "household unincorporated enterprises". Such production can either be market production or non-market production.

Household unincorporated market enterprises produce goods or services for sale or barter on the market. "They can be engaged in virtually any kind of productive activity – agriculture, mining, manufacturing, construction, retail distribution or the production of other kinds of services. They can range from single persons working as street traders or shoe cleaners with virtually no capital or premises of their own to large manufacturing, construction or service enterprises with many employees" (SNA, 1993: para 4.144). They also include unincorporated partnerships engaged in producing goods or services. Some of the outputs of these market producers may be retained for consumption by members of the household to which the owner of the enterprise belongs. "Informal sector enterprises" are part of household unincorporated market enterprises.

When household members are engaged in the production of goods and services for own final use they are said to do it for household unincorporated enterprises producing for own final use. Such enterprises are engaged in non-market production and may consist of (SNA, 1993: para 4.148-4.149):

(a) Subsistence farmers or others engaged in the production of agricultural goods for their own final consumption;

(b) Households engaged in the construction of their own dwellings or other structures for their own use, or on structural improvements or extensions to existing dwellings or structures;

(c) Households engaged in the production of other goods for their own consumption such as cloth, clothing, furniture, other household goods and foodstuffs (other than meals for immediate consumption);

(d) Households producing domestic services for their own consumption by employing paid staff;

(e) Households producing housing services for their own consumption;

(f) Households producing goods on a volunteer (unpaid) basis;

(g) Households producing services on a volunteer (unpaid) basis in non-household units such as NPIs, schools, hospitals that produce services with employed workers; and

(h) Groups of households that engage in the communal construction of buildings, roads, bridges etc. for their own individual or community use, for which services are not paid.

Enterprises producing goods may sell any output that is surplus to their own requirements. However, if they regularly sell most of their output they should be treated as market producers.

3. Non-SNA household production

Non-SNA household production activities relate to two types of activities:

(a) Production of domestic services for own final use by household members without pay (see, for example, categories F and G); and

(b) Production of unpaid services by household members for other households or institutional units (see, for example, category H).

4. Market and non-market production

Production results in outputs of goods and services. An output can be classified as market or non-market. In the SNA framework, market output is "output that is sold at prices that are economically significant or otherwise disposed of on the market, or intended for sale or disposal on the market."[8] Non-market output consists of output produced for own final use by household unincorporated enterprises (including subsistence production), goods produced for own gross fixed capital formation by enterprises, and "goods and individual or collective services produced by NPISHs or a government that are supplied free, or at prices that are not economically significant, to other institutional units or the community as a whole". (SNA, 1993: para 6.49).

In relation to the type of output, producers can be classified as market or non-market producers; correspondingly, production can be either market or non-market. In terms of institutional units, market producers are financial and non-financial corporations, quasi-corporations and unincorporated household enterprises. Non-market producers, on the other hand, are general government. Households producing for own final use or for own fixed capital formation are also non-market producers. While NPISHs and NPIs that are mainly government financed are non-market producers, other types of NPIs may be market or non-market producers depending on their purpose.

[8] Prices are said to be economically significant when they have a significant influence on the amounts that producers are willing to supply and on the amounts that purchasers wish to buy (SNA, 1993: para 6.45).

In the estimation of GDP, the SNA accounts for all market production and the non-market production of the government sector and non-profit institutions producing goods and services with employed workers. All other non-market production is not valued in the SNA.

Analysing paid and unpaid work

The distinction between paid and unpaid work is important in many of the important analytical uses of time-use data discussed in Part I of this Module. This distinction is basic to the characteristics of SNA work and non-SNA work activities and is thus both explicitly (e.g., paid domestic services) and implicitly made in the categories of ICATUS.

An individual is said to be engaged in a paid work activity if the individual receives compensation or remuneration, in cash or in kind, for the work done. Labour input into activities within the SNA production boundary has corresponding compensation, regardless of whether the worker is actually paid or not. Labour input that is actually paid is valued and recorded in the SNA as compensation. Compensation may be in the form of wages and salaries, commission from sales, payments by piece-rate, bonuses or in-kind payment such as food, housing or training.

Unpaid work activities can be one of five types:

(a) Work performed by an unpaid family worker;[9]

(b) Unpaid work performed in the production of goods by households for own final use including subsistence production;

(c) Unpaid volunteer services for NPIs producing goods and services with employed workers;

(d) Unpaid work performed in the production of services by households for own final use; and

(e) Unpaid volunteer services for NPISHs.

It is important to note that the first three types of unpaid work activities are SNA production activities. Further, the first two types of activities are theoretically included in the estimation of economic production although, in practice, they may be underestimated due to lack of data. The value of unpaid volunteer services for NPIs is, however, not included in estimation of economic production.

Figure 1.6 summarizes the relationship between producers and work that is relevant to the conceptual framework of ICATUS discussed in this section. Work activities are performed by institutional units and the resulting outputs may be market or non-market. All market outputs are a result of SNA productive activities; however, there are work activities within the SNA production boundary that result to non-market outputs. Non-SNA work results to non-market production. The value of all paid work (all paid work is SNA work) as well as unpaid SNA work is included in estimates of economic production. Households account for all unpaid SNA work and their value is imputed as part of the mixed income of the household. All non-SNA work is not included in the estimation of economic production. In addition, some volunteer work is included in the SNA production boundary but is not valued in economic production.

[9] In the 1993 ICSE, unpaid family workers were referred to as contributing family workers. They engaged in SNA production activities for a household unincorporated enterprise owned by a household member but did not receive compensation.

Figure 1.6. Relationship between producers and work

	Market		Non-market				
			Household		NPI		Government
Production/ Institutional Unit	Corporation, quasi-corporation	Household unincorporated enterprise	Own account, goods	Own account, services	With employed worker	NPISH	General government, national and subnational
Work	SNA	SNA	SNA	Non-SNA	SNA	Non-SNA	SNA
Paid	Employment with compensation	Compensation as employee; mixed income*			Employment with compensation; volunteer with allowance		Employment with compensation; elective position
Unpaid (in GDP)		Incorporated in mixed income* of household	Incorporated in mixed income* of household				
Unpaid (not in GDP)				Equivalent to value of services	Free volunteer services	Free volunteer services	

Source: Arboleda, H. 2001.

* Mixed income is the surplus or deficit accruing from production by unincorporated enterprises owned by households; it implicitly contains an element of remuneration for work done by the owner, or other members of the household, that cannot be separately identified from the return to the owner as entrepreneur, but it excludes the operating surplus coming from owner-occupied dwellings (SNA, 1993: para 7.8).

1

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module two

TIME-USE DATA AND VALUATION OF UNPAID WORK

Measuring the value of unpaid work

TIME-USE DATA AND VALUATION OF UNPAID WORK

Measuring the value of unpaid work

Overview

- There is now a growing recognition of the importance of production of domestic and personal services by household members for their own final consumption, outside of the production services supplied for others, or of goods for the market.

- While unpaid work in activities within the SNA production boundary has monetary value, the worker is not compensated for his or her labour input. Outside the SNA production boundary, unpaid work is not valued at all. The imputed value of unpaid work of household members for domestic and personal services provided for own household consumption should be valued and preferably recorded in a satellite account of the SNA.

- Therefore, the valuation of unpaid work, both within and outside the explicit boundaries of the SNA, will provide a more holistic picture of the economic contribution of household members. This will also improve the analysis of growth in GDP by identifying the increase due to the shift of household production of domestic and personal services from non-SNA to SNA production boundary.

2

- Information on the extent and value of unpaid work would be most useful to policy makers in their continuing quest for reducing gender disparities since women bear the greater burden of unpaid work. Policy decisions related to gender-friendly programme and resource priorities are better informed with data and statistics such as results of time-use studies.

- A key step is clarifying the concept of household production as well as determining the economic value of unpaid activities.

Purposes of the Module

- To define unpaid work in household production and volunteer work in the context of the 1993 SNA.

- To examine various approaches in imputing value to unpaid work outside of SNA production boundary.

- To determine the treatment of unpaid work in Household Satellite Accounts.

What is unpaid work in household production?

2

While the 1993 SNA defined production boundaries for activities to be included in the estimation of GDP, it recognized the broader definition of production, referred to as the general definition of production. Production is undertaken by institutional units, which assume the responsibility for the process. The institutional units under the SNA are classified as: (a) financial or non-financial corporations and quasi-corporations[1]; (b) general government; (c) non-profit institutions serving households (NPISH); and (d) households including household unincorporated enterprises.

The general definition excludes natural processes such as unmanaged growth of natural biota and basic human activities that are impossible for one person to engage another person to perform instead. It includes household production of services for the members of the household.

Margaret G. Reid, the pioneer in integrating unpaid household production into the mainstream of economics, defined household production as:

"Unpaid activities which are carried on, by and for the members, which activities might be replaced by market goods, or paid services, if circumstances such as income, market conditions, and personal inclinations permit the service being delegated to someone outside the household group".[2]

General definition of production

Economic production may be defined as an activity carried out under the control and responsibility of an institutional unit that uses input of labour, capital, and goods and services to produce output of goods and services. There must be an institutional unit that assumes responsibility for the process and owns any goods produced as outputs or is entitled to be paid, or otherwise compensated, for the services provided.

Source: SNA 1993: para 6.15.

[1] Quasi-corporations are producers that are registered as a partnership, cooperative, branches of corporations or single proprietorship that operate like a corporation; that is, they keep complete book of accounts.

[2] Reid 1934, quoted by Yun-Ae Yi, 1996.

Production boundary within the System of National Accounts

- Production of all individual or collective goods or services that are supplied to units other than their producers, or intended to be supplied, including the production of goods or services used up in the process of producing such goods and services;
- Own-account production of all goods that are retained by their producers for their own final consumption or gross capital formation;
- Own-account production of housing services by own-occupiers and of domestic and personal services produced by employing paid domestic staff.

Source: SNA 1993: para 6.18.

The general definition was narrowed down in the production boundary for the compilation of GDP in the national accounts. The scope of the 1993 SNA excluded the production of household services for own consumption but included production of goods by households for their own final use, either as consumption or capital formation; housing services of owner-occupied dwelling units and paid household services for own consumption of households.

The household production of domestic and personal services for own use, which are considered out of the scope in national accounts, include:

- Cleaning, decorating and maintenance of a dwelling;
- Cleaning, servicing and repair of household durables, including vehicles used for household purposes;
- Preparation and serving of meals;
- Care, training and instruction of children;
- Care of sick, infirm or old people; and
- Transportation of members of the households or their goods.

These were excluded in the 1993 SNA production boundary for the following reasons:[3]

- Limited impact on the rest of the economy;
- Inadequate price systems to value these services;
- Differences in the economic significance for analytical or policy purposes;
- Inclusion of large non-monetary flows of this kind together with monetary flows can obscure what is happening on markets and reduce the analytical usefulness of the SNA; and
- Inclusion of production of personal and domestic services by household members for their own final consumption would imply that such persons were self-employed, thus making unemployment impossible by definition.

[3] See SNA 1993, para 1.21 and 1.22.

What is unpaid work in activities within SNA production boundary?

Within the SNA activities, unpaid work is:

- Work as a trainee or apprentice without any compensation* in a corporation, quasi-corporation and general government and other similar institutions.
- Work in primary production activities of household-operated enterprises.
  - unpaid workers in household production of crops, livestock, fish, forestry products for own consumption or for sale.
- Work in the production of goods for sale and own consumption and services for sale in household-operated enterprises.
  - unpaid family worker in household unincorporated enterprise producing goods for sale or own consumption and services for sale.

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* While apprentices and trainees are not paid or compensated for the equivalent value of their labour input, they get skills training in return for the labour input they provide. In some countries, a trainee or apprentice is given an allowance less than the minimum wage. Since this is not treated as compensation, the trainee is considered to be an unpaid worker.

What is the framework for analysis of unpaid work ?

2

Households as source of labour

As an institutional sector, a major role of households in the economy is to provide labour for production outside and within the household. Following the general production boundary, the labour input of a household could be grouped according to figure 2.1.

Within the SNA production boundary all labour input of household members in production is valued.

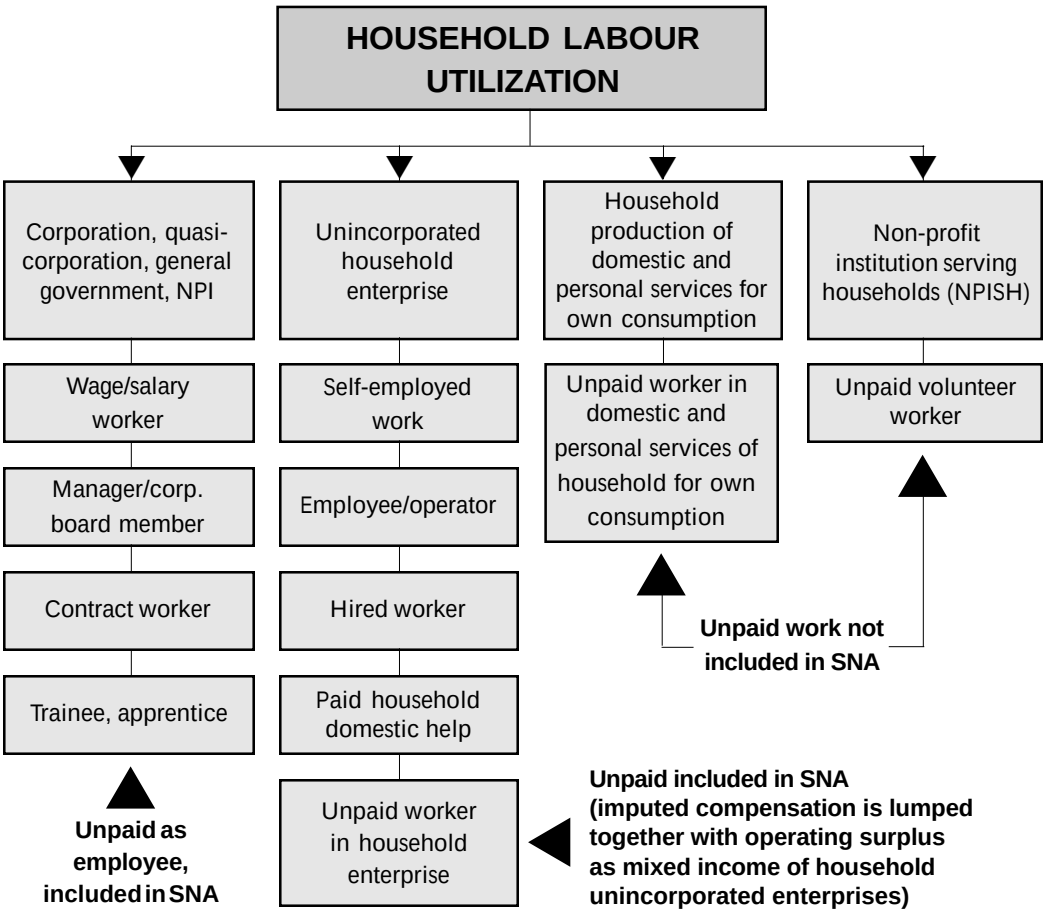
- Compensation for the labour input of an employee, contract worker or manager in corporations, quasi-corporations, general government or non-profit institutions is provided in the form of wages and salaries, and other benefits or contract payments.
- In informal household-operated enterprise, the labour input of unpaid household members is valued, although the members do not receive any compensation equivalent to the labour input.
- In 1993 SNA, the equivalent value of unpaid family labour is lumped together with the residual of the cost of production. This residual, after costs are deducted, is referred to as mixed income.[4]

Outside of the SNA, within the general production boundary, the labour input in production is not valued at all.

- Household members provide labour for domestic and personal services for own consumption and perform volunteer work in non-profit institutions. The SNA does not include these activities within the production boundary and, consequently, the labour input is not given any monetary value.
- The unpaid volunteer work of household members in non-profit institutions (NPIs) is to be taken as a household providing labour to other institutions. Since NPI does not compensate a volunteer worker, the value of such work is not taken into account. This undervalues both the output of NPI and the contribution of household members to production within the SNA production boundary.

[4] Mixed income includes the imputed compensation of unpaid household members including the operator and the operating surplus of household production.

Figure 2.1. Labour utilization of household members



As shown in figure 2.1, the labour input provided by households to corporations and quasi-corporations as a trainee or apprentice as well as in household-operated activities as unpaid family workers is unpaid work within the SNA production boundary. Thus, the unpaid work within the SNA production boundary is not given an equivalent compensation for the labour input. On the other hand, unpaid work in the production of household and domestic services for own consumption and volunteer work in non-profit institutions is not counted as output in GDP.

The characteristics of unpaid labour within the SNA and outside but within the general definition of production are shown in table 2.1.

How is information on unpaid work collected?

Information on work and workers is generated through establishment or household surveys. They can also be derived from the records of labour registration offices.

Statistics generated from establishment surveys include persons who work as

Table 2.1. Unpaid work and characteristics

Unpaid work	Type of worker	Feature
Unpaid work within SNA	1. Unpaid trainee/apprentice 2. Unpaid family worker in household unincorporated enterprise	1. Output of goods for sale or own consumption 2. Output of services for sale 3. Output is valued and counted in SNA 4. Worker is not given compensation equivalent to the value of labour input
Unpaid work outside SNA, within the general definition of production	1. Household member producing household and personal services for own consumption 2. Volunteer worker in non-profit institutions serving households	1. Output of services for own consumption/not for sale 2. Output is not valued and not counted in SNA 3. Worker is not given compensation equivalent to the value of labour input

employer, employee, unpaid household member and others, in corporations, quasi-corporations, general government, non-profit institutions and household-unincorporated enterprises.

Household surveys on the other hand, provide information on the supply as well as demand of labour. They provide information on members of the households who work as paid and unpaid in production within the production boundary of the SNA. This includes work in subsistence production.

Labour registration records provide information on the supply and demand of labour. They contain lists of vacancies provided by employers and persons looking for work. They also provide information on those registered as looking for work and have been employed, and vacancies that have been filled.

The scope of statistics generated from establishment surveys and labour registration is limited only to those employed in formal and registered units. They do not capture those who are self-employed or those working in household unincorporated units that are not covered in establishment surveys. Household surveys cover all activities of household members who work in activities within the production boundary of the SNA. They provide information on labour and employment by class of worker, industry or economic activity engaged in by the worker, by sex, age, educational background and other characteristics of all persons engaged in production activities within the production boundary of the SNA. In many labour force surveys, the unit of time spent at work during a reference period and the wage rates or compensation received are also

measured. The surveys also collect other information on those who are working as well as those who are not working but available and are looking for work.

2

Household surveys on labour and employment collect information on workers by class of worker. Apprentices and trainees, unpaid household workers, self-employed workers, and employers are identified separately. Such surveys however, do not capture work outside the SNA production boundary. Moreover, the surveys generally do not capture work done by household members in small-scale production of goods such as backyard production of crops and animals for own consumption, carpentry for own use, or making clothing for family members. While these activities are within the production boundary of the SNA, respondents do not often consider these activities as work and workers do not consider themselves engaged in production activities.

The time-use survey is more comprehensive in measuring all work of household members. It collects information on all activities of household members including those activities which are not within the SNA production boundary but within the general definition of production. In addition, the survey collects information on non-economic activities of members. What is generally missed out in household labour and employment surveys in respect of household subsistence production is captured in a time-use survey.

Unpaid work within the SNA production boundary

The unpaid work of household members in producing goods for the market and own consumption, and of services for the market, is valued and incorporated in the value of the output. Although the household member is not given compensation, the equivalent value of the labour input is integrated into the mixed income that accrues collectively to the household. Hence, the value of unpaid work in these activities is counted in the compilation of GDP of the country.

While unpaid work in household production activities in unincorporated enterprise is included in the estimate of national accounts, these activities are often under-reported in household surveys. This results in underestimation of the contribution of unpaid work in the economy. The time-use survey has reduced this under-reporting with the detailed information on daily activities of working age members of a household.

Since labour input in household unincorporated activities producing goods and services primarily for the market or goods for own consumption, are counted in the compilation of GDP, there is no attempt to have separate estimates for the value of unpaid work provided by household members.

How to impute the monetary value of unpaid work outside the SNA production boundary

There are two types of unpaid work outside the SNA production boundary but within the general definition of production boundary:

- The production of domestic and personal services for own consumption; and
- volunteer work with a non-profit institution serving households (NPISH).

The imputed value of unpaid work for these activities will depend on the assumption of valuation regarding the unit of work and the wage rates for the unit of work.

The general formula for computing the imputed value of unpaid work of an individual is the product of the volume of unpaid work and the wage rate. The volume of unpaid work could be in terms of the unit of output or unit of time spent in producing the output. Similarly, the wage rate (price for a unit of work) could be in terms of the wage paid by output or by time spent. The measurement would depend upon the prevailing practices in the economy of a country.

Valuation of unpaid work outside of SNA production boundary

Value of unpaid work = volume of work done x wage rate

The volume of work may either be in terms of the unit of output or unit of time spent.

The wage rate may either be in terms of unit of output or time spent.

The above formula could be applied by using the output approach where the volume of work done is measured by the output of the work. This approach would be applicable in economies where paid household and domestic production are paid based on the units of output such as the number of clothes washed, dishes cooked, area of floor polished or cars washed.

Computation by output approach

INDIVIDUAL:
Value of unpaid work = number of units of output x wage per unit of output

AGGREGATE:
Value of unpaid work = average number of units of output produced x average wage per unit of output x number of persons involved

Similarly, the same approach could be used using time spent as the basis of the volume of work done. This approach is applicable for household and personal services for which persons are paid by the time spent. Depending upon the country practice of payment for these activities, they could include taking care of children and the elderly, transporting household members, teaching children, cleaning and other similar activities. This approach would also be applicable for volunteer work in non-profit institutions.

Computation by input approach

INDIVIDUAL:
Value of unpaid work = time spent x wage per unit of time spent

AGGREGATE:
Value of unpaid work = average time spent per person x average wage rate per unit of time x number of persons involved

Output approach

The direct valuation of unpaid work by the output approach would need data on the output of the unpaid work such as the number of meals prepared, items of clothing washed and ironed, area of house cleaned, children taught, number of elderly given care etc. The wage rate per unit of output, such as the labour charge for each meal prepared, charge per item of clothing washed and ironed, number of children tutored, payment for each elderly person given care and others. In countries where contract work is common, data on contract wage per unit of output might be available for work paid on a contract basis.

The value of wage for every unit of output is the contract value of labour in the market. The value of output as priced in the market could also be used. Where contract work is practiced in the economy, the value of contract work should exclude all the input used in producing the output.

Two approaches could be adopted in applying the output approach in valuation. One is by direct approach and the other through the indirect approach:

- The value of unpaid work is the value of payment to the contract worker per piece of output, excluding all production costs such as raw materials, electricity and others.
- The value of unpaid work is the residual of the market value of output when all the non-labour costs are deducted.

For example:

The value of the unpaid work done by a household member who has washed and ironed 20 pieces of dresses, can be computed using the two approaches shown in table 2.2.

In the second approach the estimated value of unpaid work would tend to be higher as it would implicitly include the operating surplus of the producer for the market. Various modifications could be adopted, depending on the available data, in applying this approach to measure the aggregate value of unpaid work. The data input for this method could be derived as supplemental information from the household in time-use surveys. Questions could be included in the survey on the number of pieces of clothes and linen washed, area cleaned, the number of cars washed etc. Similarly, information on the price of output per piece and wages per piece could also be derived as part of the survey or separately from other sources.

Table 2.2. Valuation of unpaid work by output approach

Output approach valuation	Price in market	Materials, supplies and other cost	Imputed value of unpaid work
Labour per piece	$ 0.20 per piece	Provided by owner	$ 20*0.20 = $ 4.00
Dresses per piece	$ 0.50 per piece	$ 5.00 for all non-labour costs (borne by contract worker or by owner)	$ 20*0.50-$ 5.00 = $10.00-$ 5.00 = $ 5.00

Input approach

The input approach based on time spent is the common approach in the valuation of unpaid work for household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption. There are two general approaches used in the imputation in this approach: *opportunity cost* and *market replacement cost*. The former is based on the potential wage rate that the person would be earning in the market. The latter is based on the market compensation of the worker engaged in the same type of activity in household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption. The latter is further differentiated between a worker who is a specialist in the type of activity or a worker who is a generalist and who performs all the activities falling under domestic and personal services for household own consumption.

Opportunity cost

The opportunity cost uses the forgone wage of the person involved in performing the activity as a result of opting not to offer services in the market. The most common wage used in this method is the potential wage of the person based on some occupational, educational, age or other relevant characteristics, and the reservation wage that corresponds to the wage rate for which the person becomes indifferent between paid and unpaid work (Sousa-Poza, 1999).

The valuation will change depending upon who is engaged in the unpaid work. The value of unpaid work is equal to the compensation of worker if employed in the paid labour market. This approach assumes that the worker has a job opportunity in the paid labour market and that compensation is based on the worker's qualification or possible paid employment instead of the type of work done.

Market replacement cost

Two types of wage rates – specialist and generalist – have been commonly used in the valuation of unpaid work of domestic and personal services, using the market replacement cost. The estimation may be disaggregated by various types of specialization of activities, male/female, geographic areas, types of assumed producers or other characteristics as desired for analysis.

- Replacement (specialist) valuation is based on the compensation of the worker in the specific activity or the market wage of a specialist engaged in the same activity. The value of unpaid work for a specific activity is equal to the compensation or wage rate multiplied by the time spent on the activity.

  This approach assumes the following: (a) the quality of work or productivity of the person engaged in the unpaid work is the same as that of the specialist; (b) the particular specialist is available in the market; and (c) the household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption has the same capital intensity as that in the market.

- Replacement (generalist) approach is based on the wage of the domestic paid worker. The value of unpaid work is equal to the wage rate multiplied by the time spent. In some countries, where domestic help is paid on a daily basis, the volume of work would be on a per day basis and the wage rate would be the daily wage. For those where the unit

of time is in hours, the value of unpaid work is equal to the number of hours spent multiplied by the wage per hour.

This approach assumes that there are available workers in the market and the work is similar to that of a domestic worker.

Table 2.3 shows the estimated value of unpaid work, using the three different input cost valuation approaches.

On the aggregate level, variations would be used to generate average time spent per activity, number of person engaged in the activity, and the wage per unit of time. The average time spent for the activity could be derived from the time-use survey, while the number of persons engaged in the activity could be estimated for the whole population based on the survey. The wage per unit of time would depend upon the employment and wages survey or could be generated as an additional item in the time-use survey.

Table 2.3. Estimates of imputed value of unpaid work with different assumed wage rates

Item	Opportunity cost	Specialist	Generalist
Wage rate/unit time ($/hour)	7	2	1
Time spent (number of hours)	2	2	2
Estimated value of unpaid work ($)	14	4	2

Valuation of unpaid work : The case of the Republic of Korea

The valuation in the study for the Republic of Korea (Kim Tae-Hong, 2001) applied the input approach using the results of the 1999 Time-Use Survey, as well as the 1999 population estimates, the 1999 Economically Active Population Survey, and the 1999 Survey of Basic Wage Structure. The general formula used was:

Value of unpaid work = Σ T*W*P

Where T = average time spent for the type of work, activity or job
W = average wage rate per unit of time for work, activity or job
P = estimated population engaged in the work, activity or job.

The summation was based on type of work, activity or job, age, sex, educational attainment or occupation or a combination of these characteristics. Different assumptions were used in the monetary valuation of unpaid work in household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption.

OCA = opportunity cost approach based on the wage foregone in the market, based on sex, age group and educational level of the person undertaking the unpaid work. The foregone wage was based on the average compensation taken from the wage survey. Under this approach, several variations were used:

OCA1 = time spent and wage were disaggregated according to age only;

Table 2.4. Comparison of cost-based valuation approaches for unpaid work

Approach	Formula for estimation	Basic data requirement	Limitations	Implications
Output	Value = contract value in units of output or value of output less non-labour inputs	Market value of contract work based on output, itemized production cost	Applicable only where contract work is practiced, detailed production cost available	Can over-estimate unpaid work
Input				
Opportunity cost	Value = time spent x wage rate for jobs with person's qualification	Time use, educational attainment of worker, wage/ salary rate for position	Is not consistent with market valuation Subject to opportunities in market	Can over-estimate unpaid work
Replacement (specialist) cost	Value = time spent on specific work x wage rate of specialist	Time use, type of work, wage rate of worker in market	Does not measure real productivity of unpaid work due to capital intensity of production	Data on consumer durable and multitask activities needed
Replacement (generalist) cost	Value = time spent for aggregate unpaid work x wage rate of domestic worker	Time use, wage rate of domestic worker	Underestimates tasks needing special skills	Determine activities done by domestic worker Difficult to apply in areas where generalist household workers are not available

OCA2 = time spent and wage were disaggregated according to age and education level

OCA3 = female wage rate for work done by females were based on the male wage rate

MCA1 = specialist approach based on the activity associated with the job by occupational classification and the corresponding wage rate of the particular job classification.

MCA2 = generalist approach based on the wage rate of a housekeeper, or housework or food service worker under the Republic of Korea Standard Job Classification.

The result using the above methods is shown in table 2.5.

Valuation of volunteer work in NPISH

NPISH has two types of workers, the paid worker and the volunteer. In the compilation of national accounts, the value of output of non-profit institutions is estimated by adding the value of material and other intermediate inputs, compensation of paid employees, consumption of fixed capital and taxes net of subsidies on production. The output does not include operating surplus. With this convention, the value of output of volunteer workers and, consequently, the value of their labour input are not included in the value of the output.

Table 2.5. Estimated value of unpaid work in household domestic and personal services for own consumption

Type of valuation	Value of total unpaid work, by sex (trillion Won)		Total value of unpaid work	Ratio to GDP (per cent)
	Male	Female		
Opportunity cost				
OC1	38	148	187	38.7
OC2	36	140	177	36.7
OC2	38	218	256	53.1
Market replacement				
MCA-1 (specialist)	33	120	153	31.8
MCA-2 (generalist)	24	120	144	29.9

Source: Kim Tae-Hong, 2001.

Note: *Total may not equal to sum due to rounding off.*

Value of volunteer work

INDIVIDUAL:
Value of volunteer work = amount of time spent *wage per unit of time spent.

AGGREGATE:
Value of volunteer work = average time spent per person* average wage rate per unit of time* number of persons involved.

As non-profit institutions generally have paid employees, the valuation of unpaid volunteer work could be computed based on the average wage rate per unit of time for these workers.

Although data on volunteer work could be generated from a time-use survey, the appropriate data for this purpose should be taken from the non-profit institution's records or from a special survey on NPISH undertaken for the purpose.

At the aggregate level, the imputation could be based on the average time spent in volunteer work by type of volunteer work, the average compensation per unit of time by type of volunteer work and the number of volunteer workers by type of volunteer work.

Problems and issues in valuation

Some problems that might arise in the process of valuation are:

- **Lack of wage data on occupation for valuation**

  The valuation of unpaid work activities assumes a known wage rate for similar services rendered. Only then would unpaid work be priced according to compensation in paid employment.

- **Appropriateness of valuation method**

  The various approaches assume conditions under which a method could be applied. For example, data are needed on the activities or occupation of the unpaid worker that will match with the occupation in the market including the compensation rate.

- **Acceptability of valuation by national concerned practitioners**

  A key step in institutionalizing the valuation of unpaid work and its consequent consideration in GDP, is the recognition and acceptance of its significance in charting the actual growth of a country's economy.

Care in the choice of the appropriate valuation approach in a country will help in resolving these issues, given an understanding of the importance of unpaid work to the further development of human capital resources.

How will the Household Satellite Account reflect unpaid work ?

2

Household Satellite Account

To understand the role of the household, and to measure unpaid household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption and volunteer work of household members, SNA 1993 recommended the compilation of satellite accounts as an extension of the SNA central framework for specific type of analysis.

- The Household Satellite Account is an extension of the Household Integrated Economic Accounts.[5]

  It integrates into the account the value of household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption and the imputed income from unpaid work of household members as volunteers in NPI together with their commensurate income and consumption.

- The satellite accounts will provide a useful tool in linking economic flows with home economics and human resource development. In the compilation of a household satellite account, SNA 1993 remains as the central framework with the following additional considerations:

  - Taking consumer durables as economic assets such as family cars, refrigerators, washing machines, stoves and others, with imputed value of consumption of fixed capital;
  - The inclusion of production of domestic and personal services for own consumption as part of production activity;
  - Recording the equivalent imputed value of domestic and personal services as part of household final consumption expenditures and the imputed income as part of household income;
  - The inclusion of volunteer work for formal and informal NPIs as employment with corresponding imputed income; the imputed value of services derived from the volunteer work to be included as part of the output and final consumption of the NPI;
  - Disaggregation by type of household depending upon the focus of analysis; and,
  - Disaggregation by other household variables, assets and transactions for analysis and policy-making.

[5] The Household Integrated Economic Accounts comprises a set of balanced accounts of households and household unincorporated enterprises on production, generation, distribution and use of income, financial transactions, other capital flows, and stock of assets and liabilities or balance sheet. It is compiled side by side with the integrated economic accounts of corporate and quasi-financial and non-financial corporations, general government and NPISH.

The Household Satellite Account is one of the satellite accounts of the System of National Accounts. Two types of satellite accounts have been developed within the SNA central framework. One type involves an expansion of the coverage of the accounts to include assets or activities that are not included in the SNA framework. The other type works within the SNA framework, focusing on selected components of the SNA to highlight a specific concern for analysis.

Satellite accounts on the environment and households may be classified under the first group where environment satellite accounts include all natural assets including those that are not economic. Household Satellite Accounts will include production activities that are outside the SNA production boundary. Tourism, health and education satellite accounts are classified under the second group by putting together all activities related to the sector in greater detail to reflect analytical concerns in the sector.

The Household Satellite Accounts extend the SNA production boundary to include household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption and household volunteer work in private non-profit institutions.

Household production of domestic and personal services

In extending the production boundary of the SNA to include household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption, all households will be considered producers. The households that produce goods and services for the market are considered market producers while the households producing goods and services exclusively for own consumption are considered as non-market producers. As a market producer, the household gets operating surplus from production. As a non-market producer, the value of output excludes operating surplus.

Institutional producers

The production of market and non-market output is associated with the producing institutional unit and how the output is disposed of. Table 2.6 shows the institutional units that are market and non-market producers as defined in the 1993 SNA. The unpaid work of household members outside the production boundary of SNA is found under these market orientations.

- Market producers are financial and non-financial corporations, quasi-corporations and unincorporated household enterprises whose outputs are intended for the market, and whose products are valued at prices that are economically significant.[6]

- Non-market producers also produce goods and services but the products are valued at prices that are not economically significant. The value of the non-market output in general does not include operating surplus/ profit. The institutions classified as non-market producers are general government, private non-profit institutions and household subsistence producers.

[6] A price is not economically significant when it has little or no influence on how much the producer is prepared to supply, and is expected to have only marginal influence on the quantities demanded. It is thus a price that is not quantitatively significant from the point of view of supply or demand (SNA 1993, para 6.50).

Table 2.6. Market and non-market producer by type of institution, by type of work

Type of work	Institutional producers						
	Market		Non-market				
		Household	Household		Non-profit institution		Government
	Corporation, quasi-corporation	Household unincorporated enterprise producing goods and services for the market	Household subsistence producer of goods	Household producers of domestic and personal services for own consumption	Non-profit producing goods and services with employed worker	Informal Non-Profit Institution (community and neighbourhood association	General government at national and subnational levels
	SNA	SNA	SNA	Non-SNA	SNA	Non-SNA	SNA
Paid	Employment with compensation/ membership in corporate board	Compensation as employee			Employment with compensation		Employment and elective position
Unpaid (counted in output)	Worker as apprentice or trainee	Incorporated in mixed income of household	Imputed compensation of household members				
Unpaid (not counted)				No value	Free volunteer service, no volue	Free volunteer service, no value	

Estimation of value of output

Table 2.7 shows the components of the value of market and non-market products. The output of goods and services could be valued using the price in the market or based on the cost of production.

- The market value of goods and services is computed by the value of the disposition of the goods and is equivalent to the value of sales plus change in inventory plus the value of goods or services used for own consumption.
- Alternatively, it could also be computed as the value when the quantity is multiplied by the unit price of the product in the market. When all costs such as raw materials, salaries and wages etc. are deducted from the value of output, the residual is referred to as surplus.
- For household market producers with unpaid household workers, the residual includes the value of labour input by unpaid worker. To distinguish this from pure operating surplus, the 1993 SNA refers to this as mixed income.

Table 2.7. Components of value of output of market and non-market products in SNA 1993

Production item	Market product	Non-market product
(1) Value of output	= Sale + change in inventory + own consumption = volume x unit price = (2) + (3) + (4) + (5) + (6)	= (2) + (3) + (4) + (5) estimated as sum of production cost
(2) Intermediate input	Value of produced goods and services used in producing the good or service	Value of produced goods and services used in producing the good or service
(3) Compensation of employees	Wages in cash and in kind of paid labour	Wages in cash and in kind of paid labour
(4) Consumption of fixed capital	Imputed value service of capital goods used in producing the output of a good or service	Imputed value of service of capital goods used in producing the output of a good or service
(5) Taxes net of subsidies	Taxes paid on the goods used as intermediate input/capital and other taxes net subsidies on production	Taxes paid on the goods used as intermediate input/capital and other taxes net subsidies on production
(6) Operating surplus/mixed income	Residual = (1) – (2) – (3) – (4) – (5)	No operating surplus
(7) Gross value added	Gross value added = (1) – (2) or = (3) + (4) + (5) + (6)	Gross value added = (1) – (2) or = (3) + (4) + (5)

- Mixed income includes the imputed value of unpaid work of household members and the operating surplus of household production.

- Market output valuation is used to estimate the output of household production of goods and services principally for the market.

- Non-market output valuation is used to estimate the household output of domestic and personal services for own consumption.

- In table 2.7, the gross value added (7) is the contribution of the production activity to GDP in the economy.

In the estimation of output of household domestic and personal services for own consumption, the following components are included:

- Intermediate inputs: consist of all goods and services purchased by a household for producing domestic and personal services such as laundry detergent, cleaning materials, water for washing and others.

- Consumption of fixed capital: the imputed consumption of fixed capital of consumer durables such as refrigerators, washing machines, cars used exclusively for household use, cooking stoves, flat irons, and others.

- Taxes net of subsidies: consist of road or car tax and taxes on equipment, if any. Land or residential tax would be included in the imputed value of owner-occupied dwellings.

- Compensation: the imputed value of unpaid work.

The national accounts framework maintains the identity of transaction. One of these is on the supply and demand of goods and services. This identity equates the value of the supply of goods and services to the demand of such goods and services.

Supply versus demand of goods and services

Supply of goods and services = Demand of goods and services

Production + imports = Intermediate consumption + final consumption + capital formation + export

When this identity is applied to household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption, the identity would be:

Imputed value of domestic and personal services produced by a household for own consumption	=	Value of imputed consumption expenditure of the household for these services

Following the supply and demand equation, if the production of household own-account services were to be imputed, the same value of the household services should be recorded in consumption expenditure on the demand side. To maintain the existing practice in national accounts compilation, the value of output of domestic and personal services for own consumption would be equal to the value of final consumption of those services.

Value of volunteer work

In addition to household unpaid work in domestic and personal services for own consumption, volunteer work of household members to production of non-profit institutions is a labour input. Although the valuation of a non-market product is applied to the output of a non-profit institution, only the actual compensation of paid work and allowances given to a volunteer would be included in the value of the output. Hence, the value of labour input by a volunteer is not counted in the value of output of goods and services of NPISH.

From this estimate the value of final consumption expenditure of the producing non-profit institutions is:

Value of NPISH consumption expenditure = Value of output of goods and services minus sale of goods and services

If the value of unpaid work is included in the estimation, the value of output of NPISH will increase by the imputed compensation of volunteers while the final consumption expenditure of NPI will increase by the same amount.

The value of household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption and the value of output of NPISH, including the imputed compensation of volunteers, will be recorded in the set of accounts as suggested in 1993 SNA. The set of accounts include:

- The account of goods and services (Supply and Use Table) for the whole economy; and
- The integrated economic accounts compiled for the whole economy and for each of the institutional sectors.

1. For whole economy only

- Accounts of Goods and Services or Supply and Use Table show the supply of all goods and services from

Value of output of NPISH	=	Value of intermediate input (value of purchases used in production)
	+	Compensation of paid employees
	+	Imputed compensation of volunteers
	+	Taxes paid by the household on the goods and services (sales tax, VAT)
	+	Imputed consumption of fixed capital

production of resident enterprises or institutions and imports. This table is for the whole economy and is classified by economic activity, products and type of demand.

2

2. For whole economy and each institutional sector

(integrated economic accounts of institutional sectors)

- Production account – shows the market or non-market output, intermediate input and value added from production of the different institutions.
- Income generation account – shows the distribution of income from value added into compensation, taxes net of subsidies, consumption of fixed capital and operating surplus (for market producers).
- Allocation of income account – shows the primary income of the institutional sector received from production and the flows of property income.
- Secondary distribution of income account – shows the net of primary income and the flows of current transfer received and paid.
- Use of income – shows the net income that comes from primary and net current transfer and the use of this income for final consumption.
- Capital account – shows the saving realized from income during the period and the use of this and other capital transfers received for accumulation of non-financial assets and net lending or borrowing.
- Financial account – shows the net addition or reduction of financial assets and liabilities of the institutional sector emanating from flows of goods and services, income and financial instruments.
- Other value volume change account – shows the addition or reduction of assets and liabilities of the institutional sector due to non-economic events such as discovery of new economic assets, uncompensated seizure of goods, and losses of assets due to natural calamities and other extraordinary events such as fire or war.
- Revaluation account – shows the change in the value of assets due to holding gain as a result of ordinary inflation or relative price changes for the assets.
- Balance sheet – shows the stock position of economic assets and liabilities as well as the net worth of the institutional sector at the beginning or end of the reference period.

For households, general government and NPISH, the set of accounts include two accounts that show the transfer from government and NPISH individual expenditure to households as social transfer in kind.[7]

- Redistribution of income account – shows the receipt of social transfer in kind by households from general government and NPISH.
- Use of adjusted disposable income – shows the actual final consumption of a household, which includes the value of social transfer in kind from government and NPISH.

[7] Social transfer in kind is the value of final consumption expenditure of government and NPISH on goods and services, which benefit individual person and household. These include net expenditure of government on educational services, health and social welfare services, sports and recreation, and housing.

The increase in the actual final consumption of households from what government and NPISH spend on behalf of households will increase the level of actual consumption of the household by the goods and services that are paid for by government or NPISH. This will provide a better indication of the actual measure of welfare of the households.

The integrated economic accounts of the whole economy and institutional sectors are balanced and linked up with the residual or balancing item of each account carried over to the next account.

Table 2.8 is presented in matrix or table form for the whole economy. The value of output of household production of domestic and personal services and NPISH output including unpaid volunteer work will be counted as the increase in the supply of goods from production and as part of final consumption expenditure of household and NPISH. Table 2.8 shows the summary of the supply and use table.

From table 2.8, the value of volunteer work (X3.1) and value of household production of domestic and personal

Table 2.8. Accounts of goods and services (for whole economy)

Supply of goods and services		Use of goods and services	
Transaction	**Value**	**Transaction**	**Value**
• Output of market economic activity including households unincorporated activities	X1	• Intermediate consumption of which FISIM[8]	Y1 Y1.1
• Output of non-market activity of government	X2	• Final expenditure of general government	Y2
• Output of non-market activity of NPISH	X3	• Final consumption expenditure of NPISH	Y3
of which volunteer unpaid output	X3.1	of which value of volunteer unpaid work	Y3.1
• Output of non-market activity of household	X4	• Final consumption expenditure of households	Y4
of which household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption by unpaid household members	X4.1	of which domestic and personal services produced by unpaid household member for own consumption	Y4.1
		• Gross fixed capital formation	Y5
• Imports of goods and services	X5	of which household durables	Y5.1
		• Change in inventory of goods	Y6
• Import taxes net of subsidies	X6	• Export of goods and services	Y7
Total value of supply of goods and services	ΣX	Total use of goods and services	ΣY

[8] FISIM is financial intermediation indirectly measured and equal to the bank service charges incorporated in the computation of interest rate on deposits and loans extended from deposits.

services for own consumption (X4.1) will be the additional value of supply of goods from unpaid volunteer work in NPISH and the output of household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption.

On the use side, the intermediate input will increase by the value of what households purchased as intermediate consumption in the production of domestic and personal services for own consumption. In addition, household consumption expenditure will increase the value of gifts received in kind.

The supply of goods and services from production will be estimated as the sum of all the goods less the imports while the use of goods and services will be the sum of all the use less imports of goods and services. GDP will then be computed as the sum of all the value of production from the use side less the value of intermediate consumption including FISIM from the use side of the accounts, thus:

GDP (production) = The sum of all the supply of goods and services less imports of goods and services less the value of intermediate consumption including FISIM

GDP (production) = Σ X - X5 - Y1

From the use of goods and services, GDP will be computed by summing up all the uses except intermediate consumption, thus

GDP (expenditure) = (final consumption expenditure of general government, NPISH and households) + (gross fixed capital formation + change in inventory) + (export less imports of goods and services),

GDP = (Y2 + Y3 + Y4) + (Y5 + Y6) + (Y7 - X5)

where

Y2 + Y3 + Y4	=	C or final consumption expenditure
Y5 + Y6	=	I or gross domestic capital formation
Y7 - X5	=	net exports

The estimates of GDP from the satellite use and supply table from production will increase from the conventional GDP estimate by the following:

- The value of volunteer work in NPISH.
- The value of unpaid work of household members in the production of domestic and personal services for own consumption.
- The imputed consumption of fixed capital from the use of consumer durables of the household used for production of domestic and personal services for own consumption.
- Taxes on the use of consumer durables for production of domestic and personal services for own consumption.

The same level will be reflected in the estimate of GDP by expenditure but there will be a corresponding change in the structure of the component of expenditure.

- Household consumption expenditure will change with:

  (a) A decrease by the value of goods and services of intermediate consumption used in the production of domestic and personal services for own consumption;

(b) A decrease by the value of purchase of consumer durables, which is recorded as an increase in fixed capital formation; and

(c) An increase by the estimated total value of output of household production of domestic and personal services by unpaid household members.

- Fixed capital formation will increase by the purchase of consumer durables (same value as the decrease in household consumption expenditure in (b) above).

Integrated economic accounts of households and household unincorporated enterprises

The extension of the integrated economic accounts of households and household unincorporated enterprises will reflect the imputed income of households from unpaid work, household production of domestic and household services for own consumption, and for volunteer work in non-profit institutions serving households. It will also show the use of the imputed income for household consumption. Similarly, consumption of fixed capital will be recorded for the use of consumer durables in production. The purchase of consumer durables will then be recorded as capital formation. Due to a lack of data to illustrate the compilation of the integrated economic accounts within the Household Satellite Accounts, only the table format and the transaction entries are shown.

The integrated economic accounts of a household and unincorporated household enterprise within the framework of the 1993 SNA are shown in tables 2.9 to 2.22:

Table 2.9. Production Account

Use	Resource
Intermediate consumption Gross value added	Gross output • Market goods and services • Non-market goods • Non-market domestic and personal services for own consumption produced by unpaid household members • Own-account construction of dwelling and other structure and major repair
Total	**Total**

Table 2.10. Generation of Income Accounts

Use	Resource
• Compensation to paid worker in household operated activities • Imputed value of unpaid work in production of domestic and personal services for own consumption • Taxes net of subsidies on production for the market and non-market goods • Taxes net of subsidies (if there are any) for consumer durables • Consumption of fixed assets used in the production of goods and services for the market, including owner-occupied dwelling • Consumption of fixed capital for consumer durables used for production of domestic and personal services for own consumption • Net operating surplus from single proprietorship enterprise production for the market • Net mixed income from market and own consumption of household unincorporated enterprise	• Gross value added
Total	**Total**

Table 2.11. Allocation of Income Account

Use	Resource
• Property income paid (a) Rent of land (b) Interest on loans and advances • Balance of primary income	• Compensation in cash or in kind received by household members from employment • Imputed value of unpaid work in production of domestic and personal services for own consumption • Imputed value of volunteer work in NPISH • Consumption of fixed assets used in production of goods and services for the market, including owner-occupied dwelling • Consumption of fixed capital for consumer durables used for production of domestic and personal services for own consumption • Net operating surplus from single proprietorship enterprise production for the market • Net mixed income from market and own consumption of household unincorporated enterprise • Property income received (a) Rent of land (b) Interest income (c) Dividends (d) Withdrawal from profit of partnerships
Total	**Total**

Table 2.12. Secondary Distribution of Income Account

Use	Resource
• Household taxes on income and wealth • Current transfer (a) Social contribution (b) Insurance contribution (c) Pension contribution (d) Fines and contributions (e) Other current transfers • Gross disposable income	• Balance of primary income • Current transfer received (a) Social benefit (b) Social security (c) Insurance claim (d) Pension (e) Other current transfers
Total	**Total**

Table 2.13. Use of Income Account

Use	Resource
• Household final consumption expenditure (a) Purchases of goods and services for final consumption (b) Consumption of goods from own production (c) Domestic and personal services by unpaid household members for own consumption (d) Other final consumption expenditure • Gross saving	• Gross disposable income • Net equity from pension fund
Total	**Total**

Table 2.14. Redistribution of Income Accounts

Use	Resource
• Adjusted disposable income	• Gross disposable income • Net equity from pension fund • Social transfer in kind from general government • Social transfer in kind from NPISH of which value of volunteer work
Total	**Total**

Table 2.15. Use of Adjusted Disposable Income Accounts

Use	Resource
• Household actual final consumption of which (a) Consumption of domestic and personal services produced by unpaid household member (b) Value of volunteer work in NPISH • Gross saving	• Adjusted disposable income
Total	**Total**

Table 2.16. Capital Account

Change in assets	Change in liabilities and net worth
• Gross domestic capital formation (a) Fixed capital formation for market household enterprise (b) Construction of dwelling (c) Own account construction and major repair (d) Consumer durable for production of domestic and personal services by unpaid household worker for own consumption (e) Change in inventory • Less consumption of fixed capital • Net lending (borrowing)	• Net saving (a) Gross saving (b) Less consumption of fixed capital • Net capital transfer in cash or kind (a) Capital transfer received (b) Less capital transfer paid
Total	**Total**

Table 2.17. Financial Account

Change in assets	Change in liabilities and net worth
• Net acquisition of financial assets (a) Acquisition of financial assets (b) Less reduction of financial assets	• Net lending (borrowing) • Net incurrence of financial liabilities (a) Addition to financial liabilities (b) Less redemption of financial liabilities
Total	**Total**

Table 2.18. Other Volume Change Account

Change in assets	Change in liabilities and net worth
• Net increase/decrease in volume of financial and non-financial assets due to other volume change (a) Addition in volume due to new discovery and seizure (b) Less reduction of volume due to calamities and other extraordinary events	• Net increase/decrease in volume of financial liabilities • Net addition to net worth due to change in volume
Total	**Total**

Table 2.19. Revaluation Account

Assets	Liabilities and addition to net worth
• Net increase in volume of assets due to other volume change (a) Addition in volume due to new discovery and seizure (b) Less reduction of volume due to calamities and other extraordinary events • Net increase in price of assets (a) Holding gain (b) Less holding loss	• Net increase in volume of financial liabilities • Net increase in price of financial liabilities due to price changes (a) Increase in price of financial liabilities due to price change (b) Decrease in value of financial liabilities due to price change • Net addition to net worth due to value change of assets
Total change in value of assets	**Total change in liabilities and change in net worth**

Table 2.20. Opening Balance Sheet (beginning of reference period)

Assets	Liabilities and net worth
• Non-financial assets (a) Land (b) Residential building (c) Other building and structure (d) Machinery and equipment (e) Consumer durables (f) Other non-financial assets (g) Inventory of goods • Financial assets (a) Currency and deposits (b) Securities (c) Corporate equity (d) Credit receivable (e) Other financial assets	• Financial liabilities (a) Loans (b) Credit payable (d) Other financial liabilities • Net worth
Total change in value of assets	**Total change in liabilities and change in net worth**

Table 2.21. Change in Balance Sheet (during reference period)

Change in assets	Change in liabilities and net worth
• Addition to non-financial assets due to transaction (a) Net domestic capital formation (b) Change in inventory • Net acquisition of financial assets • Other value change (a) Other volume change in non-financial and financial assets (b) Price change in non-financial and financial assets	• Net incurrence of financial liabilities • Other value change of financial liabilities (a) Loans (b) Credit payable (c) Other financial liabilities • Net worth (a) Due to net saving (b) Due to net capital transfer (c) Due to other volume change due to price change
Total change in value of assets	**Total change in liabilities and change in net worth**

Table 2.22. Closing Balance Sheet (end of reference period)

Assets	Liabilities and net worth
• Non-financial assets (a) Land (b) Residential building (c) Other building and structure (d) Machinery and equipment (e) Consumer durable (f) Other non-financial assets (g) Inventory of goods • Financial assets (a) Currency and deposit (b) Securities (c) Corporate equity (d) Credit receivable (e) Other financial assets	• Financial liabilities (a) Loans (b) Credit payable (c) Other financial liabilities • Net worth
Total change in value of assets	**Total change in liabilities and change in net worth**

The output of household production of domestic and personal services for own consumption by unpaid household members will be recorded only in the set of accounts until the Use of Income Account (table 2.13). The purchase of consumer durables, which is recorded as part of household consumption expenditures, will be an addition in the capital formation and will be recorded in the Capital Account (table 2.16).

Household production of domestic and personal services will not have corresponding financial transactions. As such, this activity will not result in any change in Financial Account (table 2.17).

In summary, the valuation of unpaid work will provide a better picture of the market and non-market sectors of the economy. Together with national account statistics, the increase in output due to the shift from

non-market household services to market services could be filtered out of the registered growth in GDP. Information on unpaid work in household own-account services provides important input into human development through caring and maintenance of the human resources. Because this is not valued and excluded in the compilation of national accounts, policy makers tend to subsume this in other policies deemed more in terms of economic impact than positive changes in the quality of human resources. Moreover, in valuing unpaid work in household own-account services, household members can also make better assessment of cost and benefits of getting paid employment. Approaches to the valuation of unpaid work have been presented to help guide the selection of the most appropriate to the country. Both paid and unpaid work must also be viewed in the broader context of the country situation. Additional information could be gleaned on the impact of unpaid work on the different transactions of the households and the implication of this for the whole economy.

Glossary

COICOP (Classification of Individual Consumption of Product) – a United Nations-developed international standard for classification of household consumption expenditure.

Consumer durable – household appliance and equipment with a life of more than one year and of significant value such as refrigerators, cars, motorcycles, cooking stove, oven etc; in the SNA, expenditure on these appliances and equipment are recorded as final consumption expenditure if they are not used for income generation or other types of production; in Household Satellite Account, purchases of consumer durables used for production of domestic and personal services are recorded as capital formation.

Gross domestic product – the value of goods and services produced by resident producers less the value of goods and services from other producers used in production. Alternatively, it is the sum of the goods and services that go into the final consumption of household, government and non-profit institutions serving households, capital formation and export net of imports. GDP is also equivalent to all the incomes derived from production of goods and services by resident institutions.

Gross value added – the residual when the cost of goods and services from other producers is deducted from the value of output of the industry. This is equivalent to the sum of compensation, taxes net of subsidies in production, consumption of fixed capital used in production and the operating surplus of the producer.

Individual expenditure of government and NPISH – This refers to the final consumption expenditure of general government for which the good or service accrues to the individual person or household such as education, health services, housing, social services, sports, and goods distributed during natural calamities.

Integrated Economic Accounts – The set of linked accounts showing the transactions of goods and services, income, financial instruments and other accumulation entries by the different resident institutional sectors and the whole economy.

Mixed Income – Income from the production of a household unincorporated enterprise that includes operating surplus and compensation of operator and unpaid household worker.

NPISH – Non-profit institutions serving households, where the purpose of the institutions is to provide services to households at prices that are generally lower than the market prices.

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module three

SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

The context of paid and unpaid work

module 3

SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

The context of paid and unpaid work

Overview

- The rationale for incorporating information on paid and unpaid work in formulating macro level and gender-related policy recognizes the fact that there is division of labour between women and men in relation to their reproductive, productive and community management roles. These gender differentials are seated in the social, cultural, economic and political environment and may change over time. It also recognizes that policies may have a varying impact on women and men on the one hand, and among different groups on the other.

- An assessment and analysis of the country context of unpaid work increases understanding of issues affecting the realization of the economic rights of women and men. It identifies the use of time of women and men in the broader institutional, administrative and legislative environment of the country. The situation analysis offers a holistic understanding of the many interlinkages of issues affecting women, men and children.

- Together with time-use data, the situation analysis leads to opportunities for policy formulation, helps make appropriate choices for public action and establishes development priorities for women and men. Strategic choices are suggested by the consolidated data and information for ameliorating the situation of unpaid workers that will enable them to enjoy equally the benefits of development.

- Policies associated with paid work include those on education and training, employment opportunities, wages, working conditions and industrial peace. In addition, unpaid work is an area of concern in policies related to social protection, access to social services, and the broader development opportunities.

- The situation analysis is an important advocacy tool in highlighting the issues affecting unpaid workers. It can create a critical mass of support for needed interventions especially at the national level.

3

Purposes of the Module

- To describe how the situation analysis relates to policy-making.

- To show how to use the situation analysis in raising issues related to unpaid work.

- To show how to use information on paid and unpaid work in drawing out issues affecting women and men.

Gender equality: A framework for assessment and analysis

3

A gender-based approach to formulating policies on unpaid work requires a situation analysis that will allow development workers to team up in making strategic choices. The interlinkages between factors that either stimulate or inhibit development demand the wide participation of various stakeholders including civil society.

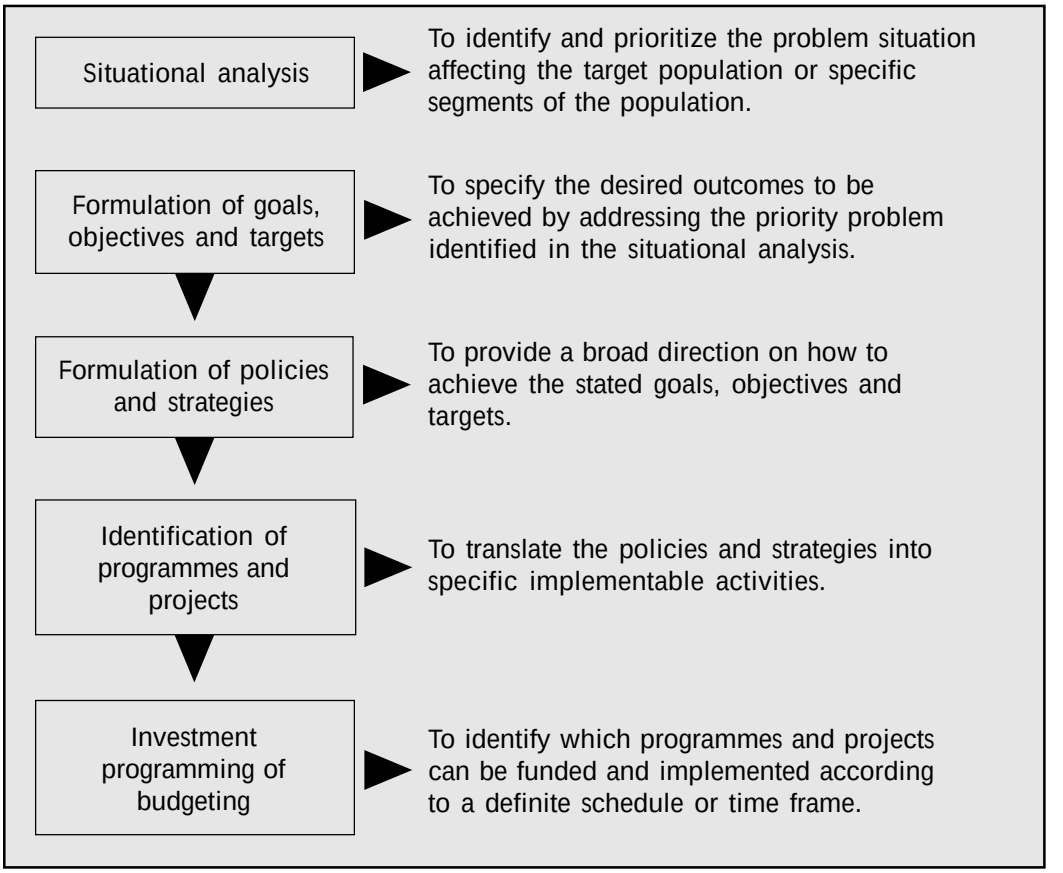
While time-use data are able to identify unequal allocation of unpaid work between women and men if any, it is imperative to determine the causes and consequences of such differences. In so doing, the analysis assists in measuring the degree to which the social, cultural, economic and political rights of women and men are respected and protected. Moreover, it will help find out the extent of their access to development opportunities and resources as well as the extent to which women in particular are able to participate in decision-making relevant to their roles. All these are in line with determining the level of national commitment to international standards. A framework that could be used for the situation assessment and analysis is presented in the Introduction on page 10.

How is the situation analysis linked to policy-making

Figure 3.1. shows how the situation analysis is linked to the policy-making process. The situation analysis triggers the process of formulating a plan. As the initial step in an iterative process, the situation analysis can have implications for a new policy leading to programmes, projects and resource allocation or in reviewing the implementation of a policy with the aim of making adjustments, if necessary.

The changes envisioned by a plan, including the selection and choice of alternatives, depend to a large measure on the situation analysis. The allocation of usually scarce resources on programmes and services is likewise influenced. The situation analysis therefore is a critical step in policy and programme decision-making, implementation and funding allocation.

Figure 3.1. Steps in plan formulation



In the context of unpaid work, the problem assessment examines differences in time-use of women and men – i.e., who are affected and where they are. The analysis seeks to understand the causes of the differential use of time and any obstacles to the recognition of the economic contribution of unpaid work. Key aspects include an analysis of gender relations at the family, community and national levels as well as environmental factors that may affect women's and men's social, political and economic vulnerabilities.

Most importantly, time-use data supported by a situational analysis should be able to lead to a strategy for policy, programme and service interventions as well as resource allocation that address the causes and issues raised.

What are the considerations in the situational analysis of unpaid work?

3

The results of time-use studies provide a starting point for an assessment of the issues and problems that need to be addressed. The causal analysis of problems related to time-use allocation deals with the social, cultural, economic, political and environmental context of availability and equal access to development opportunities. The analysis will also include the consequences of unpaid work for women and men.

The situation assessment and analysis will cover the following areas:

- The level of commitment to the Beijing Platform for Action 1995 and relevant international commitments;
- The national policy and administrative framework including resource allocation;
- Social, cultural, economic and political status of women and men including trends.

The assessment begins with a scanning of existing data, baselines and other sources of needed information. An important consideration is the use of reliable sources of data, statistics and information.

A situational analysis identifies the issues and problems that need to be addressed. It seeks to answer several questions:

- What is the problem?
- Why is there a problem?
  - What are the probable causes of the problem?
  - How serious is the problem?
- Who are affected by the problem?
  - How many are they?
  - Where are they located?
  - What are their characteristics?
- What has been done to solve the problem?

The information needed to answer these questions are both quantitative and qualitative.

Progressive implementation of international commitments

What steps has the government taken to promote gender quality?

The national commitment to promote gender equality is reflected in the steps that a government has taken to implement international standards such CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA). The Country Report and, if available, the Concluding Observations of the United Nations Committee on CEDAW and the national review of the implementation of BPFA are key documents that enshrine the national commitment to gender equality. A review of the relevant national implementation plan or programme of action will help assess concrete initiatives taken towards ensuring that women have equal access to development programmes and services.

National policy and administrative framework

The description of the policy and administrative framework includes the following elements:

- Legislative framework;
- Policy-making structure and process;
- Administrative framework.

3

Legislative framework

What are the national priorities?

The legislative framework of the country provides key information on national priorities towards realizing gender equality. As the fundamental law of the land, the National Constitution expresses the country's statutes for respecting and protecting the rights of every citizen – men and women, children (boys and girls) – in whatever circumstance, without discrimination and in good or bad times. The law of the land is critical in determining to what extent this is translated into practical measures. It provides a guide in determining legislative gaps if any, as well as in the periodic review of implementation.

Consider the following specific areas of concern of national legislations in analysing the extent to which they have promoted equal opportunities for women and men, girls and boys to develop as economically productive individuals.

- **Human rights laws**
  - Any constitutional or statutory bill of rights
  - National human rights institutions
- **Employment**
  - Health and safety issues
  - National labour law
  - Minimum ages for work
  - Discrimination in employment
  - Maternity/paternity leave
  - Legislation governing the informal economy
- **Family life**
  - Family code
  - The position of women
  - The position, protection and participation of children
  - Marriage and divorce laws
  - Social security and welfare systems
  - Registration of births and deaths
  - Citizenship
  - Inheritance laws
- **Education**
  - Provision of free education to what age
  - Provision for minorities

Policy-making structure and process

How do national issues get into the policy agenda?

Of special interest in promoting public action relevant to unpaid work is information on the structure and process involved in policy-making. It is vital to be familiar with the set-up of the decision-making body and the procedures followed in converting national issues into the policy agenda. These may vary from country to country. Once defined, the information will assist in identifying strategic points of intervention to help ensure that the issues and concerns of unpaid work are integrated into the national commitment for action.

Administrative framework

How responsive is the administrative machinery to development gender concerns?

The administrative set-up in the country relates to regulations and systems for

monitoring compliance with international standards. The information on the existence of relevant bodies at various levels that monitor international commitments will be useful in determining access to protection of entitlements of women and men including children. For example, a women's commission or any similar body would have the function of helping ensure that women are given the opportunity to realize their rights. The capacity of the administrative machinery to implement the programme response to a policy option including budgetary allocation must be examined likewise.

National context of paid and unpaid work

What are the general characteristics of the population?

The profile of the target population defines the context – the social, cultural, economic, political and geographic environment within which the population lives. At the same time, it includes a profile of the population in terms of the areas of concern that are the targets of policy as shown in table 3.1. This is done through the use of quantitative social and economic indicators hand in hand with the descriptive analysis of the cultural and legal setting. The disaggregation of data by sex helps identify disparities between women and men.

Data and statistics that will help throw light on factors that could inhibit the development of women and men to their full potential include:

- Life expectancy
- Mortality and morbidity
- Health and nutritional status
- Distribution and provision of health care
- Access to health services.

Table 3.1. Sample information for a population profile

Context	Type of information
Socio-demographic	Population composition and distribution Households and family formation Health and health services Learning and educational services Housing conditions Peace and order status
Economic activity	National accounts Labour force participation Wages Household income and expenditure patterns Poverty incidence Time use
Socio-cultural	Predominant social structure Gender roles/relations in the household Time use Decision-making patterns in the household
Political	Political structure Political participation Relevant laws, statutes, policies
Socio-demographic dimension	

Differences in literacy rates between women and men, boys' and girls' school enrolment, attendance and drop-out rates together with seasonal and regional variations will identify problems constraining access to professional and vocational education opportunities.

Socio-demographic dimension

What are the characteristics of the population groups?

This would include the distribution of the population by age, sex, place of residence (rural/urban), family composition, health status, educational profile and other social characteristics of various groups. This would also include the lines along which people are organized in society.

Socio-cultural dimension

How do customary ways explain the way people act in day-to-day living?

Traditional practices that may discriminate against girls and women can help explain not only the unequal treatment and sharing of work between women and men or girls and boys but also the quality of family life. Understanding the cultural circumstances that seemingly influence disparities between women and men would include collecting information on:

- Child-rearing practices
- The role and status of women within the family, household and community
- The age of marriage for women and men or girls and boys
- The locus of authority and decision-making within the family, household and community
- The participation of girls and women in decision-making within the family, household and community

Economic dimension

How are families and households population grouped according to income?

The economic profile would cover information on:

- Sources of employment
- Employment, unemployment and underemployment figures
- Participation of women in the workforce
- Information on the informal sector
- Types of work assigned to women
- Access to credit and means of production

Some of the questions often asked in analysing household income and expenditure from a gender perspective are found in table 3.2.

Time-use data

How do population groups spend time in economic and non-economic activities?

As an independent study by itself or as part of household budget surveys, time-use data collection is increasingly being considered for measuring the production activities of households, which otherwise are not captured in household income and expenditure surveys. These data are also capable of providing information on the productive activities of members of the household. They reveal the pattern of task sharing among members.

Time series and cross-sectional data should complement each other. Time series studies show the extent and direction of change over time. On the other hand, cross-sectional data or those describing various groups within the

Table 3.2. Sample questions on household income and expenditure from a gender perspective

Question	Indicator
• Who is the head of the household/family? • What is the sex of the household/family head?	• Proportion of female-headed households
• What is the occupation of household/ family head?	• Distribution of households by occupation of household head • Income distribution by occupation of household head
• What is the composition of the household?	• Dependency rate of household • Age-sex distribution of household members
• Who are the earning members of the household? • How much income do they earn?	• Household labour participation rate by sex • Economic dependency rate • Income distribution by sex • Average earnings by sex
• What are the sources of income?	• Income distribution by type of income
• Is the household engaged in production activity (household enterprise)?	• Proportion of households engaged in household operated activity • Distribution of household enterprises by economic activity
• Who is the operator? • Who is the unpaid household/family worker?	• Proportion of women operators of household enterprises • Distribution of operators by industry • Proportion of own-account workers by sex • Proportion of children unpaid workers
• Who manage(s) the finances/household?	• Participation of women and men in household decision-making
• What is the expenditure of households by type of expenditure? (Does the household engage a domestic helper; what is the compensation rate?)	• Distribution of household expenditures • Proportion of households with domestic help by occupation of wife
• How many households are poor; how many of them are headed by women?	• Proportion of poor population/households • Proportion of poor households headed by women • Proportion of women in poor households

population show possible disparities among groups. The data on individuals should be disaggregated to compare different population groups based on sex, age, urban-rural locations, ethnicity and other socio-economic characteristics. Such data would be able to show inequalities if any, in opportunities, allocation of resources, access, and use of available services and facilities. The use of disaggregated information is premised on the fact that development affects different groups of people in different ways even within a family, household, community or country as a whole.

National Planning Standards

How does the actual situation compare with nationally recommended standards?

Another set of information that would be useful in the analysis is the set of norms or standards against which the indicators on the actual situation are to be compared. These may be based on national planning standards or international commitments. Where standards have not been set, comparisons may be made on past data, data for similar localities, national average or international averages.

Analysing social outcomes

The response to the factors influencing the unequal sharing of unpaid work between women and men must also be guided by an analysis of needed resources. Figure 3.2 presents a framework for analysing social outcomes. Some questions that might help guide the analysis of each of the elements in this framework are given below.

1. Outcome – resources

- What resources are needed to improve the outcomes?
- What resources are being provided?
- Are the allocated resources enough?

2. Resources – services and facilities

- Are services and facilities produced efficiently?
- Are the right kind of services and facilities produced from the available resources?

3. Services and facilities – access and utilization of services and facilities

- Are the services and facilities located where they are needed?
- Do people know that the services and facilities are available?
- Are the services and facilities available to everyone who needs them?
- Are the services and facilities available when needed?
- Are the services and facilities affordable?
- Do people actually use the services and facililties?

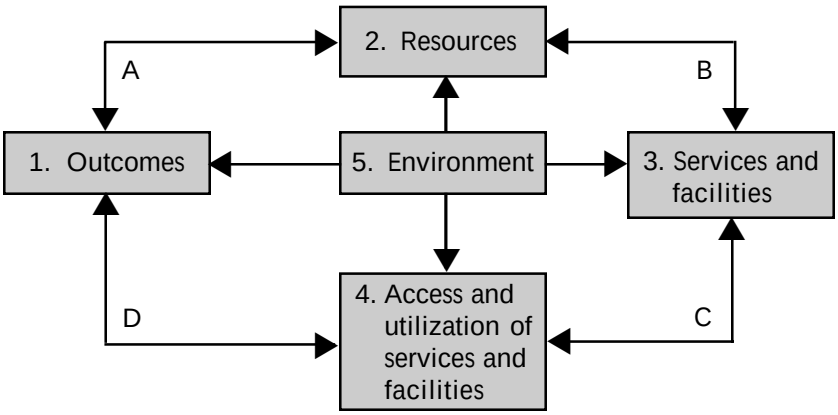
4. Access and utilization of services and facilities – outcomes

- Do the services and facilities have an impact on the target population?
- Is the impact positive or negative?

5. Environment

- What are the demographic, economic, social, political and cultural conditions?
- How do the conditions affect the availability of resources, provision of services and facilities, access to and use of these resources, services and facilities, and the corresponding outcomes?

Figure 3.2. Framework for analysing social outcomes



What are the sources of statistical data and information ?

3

There are many existing sources of data and information that could be used in the situation analysis. It is important to note the source when using statistical information. The national statistical services of the Asia-Pacific region have varying degrees of capability to provide the necessary information. If the data needs cannot be met by secondary data, there may be a need to conduct other forms of data-gathering, such as focused group discussions and rapid appraisals.

Surveys and censuses

Information on the economic and social situation are collected by governments to inform their policy, programme and budget decisions. Surveys and censuses are undertaken periodically on a regular basis by the government. The national statistical office is a primary source of published data.

Administrative records

Information on the use of services, facilities and resources are available from the respective administrative records of concerned agencies. For example, the health agency would have its own information system on health status and use of health-care services. School enrolment statistics and other relevant data are found in the Ministry of Education or related departments. Even the departments of local government would have a relevant set of data.

Civil society groups

Non-governmental organizations also have important data and information that may be used qualitatively inasmuch as these might refer only to a small segment of the population or a specific geographic area. Academic and research institutions similarly would be able to offer data and information.

International organizations

International organizations also collect data for use in planning and programming their development assistance in the country. Published annual global status reports on specific indicators or segments of the population are also vital sources of information.

Situating unpaid work in the national context

Nepal Labour Force Survey

Time use has to be located within the broader context of the situation in which the pattern is obtained. It is crucial to understand the factors that influence first the type and frequency of activities engaged in and, second, the amount of time spent on each one. The concept of time as a resource that every person has and can be in control of, increases the need to situate time use, especially in the lives of those who do not have access to programmes, services and other resources.

The results of the Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/1999 illustrates the value of assessing and analysing the situation of paid and unpaid workers using time-use data collected by the survey. By gathering information on factors that would explain the time-use pattern of women and men, a strategic response becomes identifiable in terms of policy, programme, services and resource allocation.

3

Situational analysis of paid and unpaid work in Nepal

Using stylised questions, information on time spent on economic activities and selected non-economic activities were gathered in the Nepal Labour Force Survey. The production activity in the survey is based on the definition of work within the production boundary of SNA 1993. A question was asked on non-economic activities that are not traditionally considered in labour force surveys such as fetching water, collecting firewood and other work activities.

The Statistical Report released by the Nepal Central Bureau of Statistics and National Accounts are the sources of the data and information presented in this section for illustrative purposes. Readers are referred to the Report for additional information and details of all tables cited as these appear therein.

Institutional and legislative framework of the country

The country's policy framework is important in defining national priorities. This would include the key provisions of the Constitution relevant to survival, development and protection, particularly of girls and women.

Social, cultural and economic context of unpaid work

1. Population

The population of Nepal at the time of the survey was estimated at 19.104 million (table 3.3), with 41.2 per cent aged 0-14 years, 6.9 per cent elderly and the remainder, aged 15 to 59 years. Age dependency ratio was 93.1 per cent.

The data show that the dependency ratio was highest in the rural areas particularly on males. The urban dependency ratio was lower. In both cases, the dependency ratio for males was higher than that for females.

Table 3.3. Distribution of the population of private households by age, sex and locality

	Nepal			Urban			Rural		
	Total	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**
Population ('000)	19 104	9 385	9 718	2 249	1 136	1 113	16 855	8 250	86 060
Total (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Children (0-14) (%)	41.3	42.9	39.6	36.5	37.6	35.3	41.8	43.7	40.2
Adults (15-59) (%)	51.8	50.1	57.3	60.4	56.5	58.3	51.2	49.1	53.1
Elderly (60 and over) (%)	6.9	7.0	6.7	3.1	5.9	6.4	7.0	7.2	6.7
Age dependency ratio (%)	93.1	99.6	74.5	65.6	77.0	71.5	95.3	103.7	88.3

2. Education

The educational attainment of the population in general was low (tables 3.4 and 3.5). Among the population 15 years old and over (adults and elderly), 60 per cent of the population had never attended school. The proportion was higher among women and in rural areas. Only about 3 per cent of the population aged 15 years and over had at least secondary education.

Because of non-school attendance, the literacy rate was low particularly among women. The literacy rate for men was 62.3 per cent while that of women was 28.2 per cent. The literacy rate was lower in rural areas than in urban areas.

3. Cultural practices

This section should look at traditional practices in the area of child-rearing, age of marriage, decision-making within the family and community as these might relate to school attendance and labour participation. Role perception as well as gender relations at home are looked into in order to identify possible sources of disparity between men and women.

4. Health and nutrition

The health and nutritional status of the population indicates the potential for participation in development opportunities. Women's health, including access to services, is the key to their role at home and in the community.

3

Time-use pattern in economic and non-economic activities

1. Activity rate

The survey found that for the population aged 15 years and over, 85.8 per cent had been employed for at least one hour during the previous seven days or had a job if temporarily out of work, or had been available for work if work could be found. This ratio was higher for men (90.2 per cent) than women (81.9 per cent) and lower in urban (73.3 per cent) than rural areas (87.7 per cent) (table 3.6).

Table 3.4. Population aged 15 years and over by sex, locality and highest education grade completed

(Unit: '000)

Grade/ level completed	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	11 232	5 361	5 871	1 429	709	720	9 803	4 652	5 151
Never attended	6 771	2 344	4 427	517	156	362	6 253	2 188	4 065
Pre-school, etc.	20	13	7	3	2	1	17	12	6
Class 1	50	33	16	5	3	2	45	30	14
Class 2	215	137	78	25	13	12	190	124	66
Class 3	375	239	136	39	22	17	336	218	119
Class 4	428	298	130	57	33	24	372	266	106
Class 5	578	377	201	76	46	30	502	331	171
Class 6	332	219	113	47	26	20	285	192	93
Class 7	418	267	151	69	39	30	349	228	121
Class 8	442	285	156	85	48	37	356	237	119
Class 9	603	417	186	129	74	54	475	343	132
Class 10	558	399	159	165	100	65	393	300	94
Intermediate 11	74	48	26	31	20	12	43	28	15
Intermediate 12	213	164	49	99	66	33	115	98	16
Degree	129	106	23	80	61	19	49	45	4
Others	22	12	10	2	1	1	20	11	9
Not stated	3	3	1	0	0	0	3	3	1

Source: Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/1999.

Table 3.5. Population aged 15 years and over currently attending school by sex, age group and level completed

(Unit: '000)

Class/ level	Total						Male						Female					
	Total	Age Group					Total	Age Group					Total	Age Group				
		5-	10-	15-	20-	25+		5-	10-	15-	20-	25+		5-	10-	15-	20-	25+
Total	4 424	1 653	1 800	810	134	26	2 591	919	1 056	504	93	19	1 833	735	744	305	42	7
Pre-school, etc.	842	776	65	1	0	0	464	429	35	0	0	0	378	347	30	0	0	0
1	658	491	164	2	1	0	371	277	91	1	1	0	287	213	73	1	0	0
2	518	244	264	10	1	0	287	130	151	5	1	0	231	113	113	4	0	0
3	486	102	358	26	0	0	284	61	209	15	0	0	202	41	149	11	0	0
4	413	32	336	45	0	1	252	17	204	30	0	1	162	14	132	15	0	0
5	352	6	272	71	2	1	206	3	160	40	2	1	146	3	112	31	0	0
6	276	0	177	97	2	0	165	0	105	59	1	0	111	0	72	38	1	0
7	237	0	110	125	2	0	145	0	69	75	2	0	92	0	41	51	1	0
8	213	0	43	163	7	0	135	0	26	103	5	0	79	0	16	60	3	0
9	203	0	10	167	24	2	132	0	5	109	16	1	71	0	5	58	8	1
10	100	0	0	68	30	2	68	0	0	46	20	2	32	0	0	22	10	0
11	40	0	0	19	19	2	23	0	0	10	12	1	17	0	0	9	7	1
12	61	0	0	13	40	9	45	0	0	8	30	7	17	0	0	5	10	2
Degree	14	0	0	0	5	9	11	0	0	0	4	7	3	0	0	0	1	2
Others	8	3	3	1	0	0	4	1	2	0	0	0	4	2	1	1	0	0

Source: Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/1999.

The reasons for not being active in the labour force were attending school, household duties, old, sick, disabled and others. In urban areas, male inactivity was due mostly to school attendance (58.2 per cent) while the females (53.3 per cent) cited household duties.

In the rural areas, males were not active in the labour force because of school attendance or because they were either too old or sick. The inactivity of women was due to household duties, old age or illness. For women within the age group of 15-59 years, the proportion who attributed household duties as the reason for inactivity ranged from 44.8 per cent to 71.4 per cent. The highest proportion belonged to the age group 30-44.

There were about as many employed men as women (table 3.6). The number of persons employed in the rural areas was higher among women than men. More women than men were engaged in agriculture.

For both men and women, the highest number of employed persons was in agriculture. More than half of those who did not attend school were engaged in subsistence agriculture.

In general, women spent less time per week (about 36.3 hours) in a main job than men (42.6 hours) (tables 3.10 and 3.11). Women also received lower pay than men.

2. Unpaid work

More women were engaged in non-economic activities than men. The survey showed that 76.8 per cent of women carried out household own-account activities while 37.2 per cent of the male population were engaged in the same activities.

Women also spent more time in non-economic activities than men. Table 3.11 shows the average number of hours spent by employed, unemployed and inactive females and males on non-economic activities.

Table 3.6. Population aged 5 years and over by sex, age, locality and current economic activity status

(Unit: '000)

Age group	Nepal			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Currently active	Currently inactive	Total	Currently active	Currently inactive	Total	Currently active	Currently inactive
Total	16 093	11 628	4 465	1 969	1 151	818	14 124	10 477	3 647
5-9	2 437	510	1 927	261	19	242	2 175	491	1 684
10-14	2 423	1 476	947	278	84	195	2 145	1 393	752
15-19	1 916	1 486	431	242	130	112	1 675	1 356	319
20-24	1 540	1 332	207	220	161	58	1 320	1 171	149
25-29	1 376	1 254	122	190	154	36	1 186	1 101	86
30-34	1 103	1 029	75	161	135	25	943	893	50
35-39	1 083	1 024	59	145	126	19	938	898	40
40-44	960	908	52	116	100	15	845	807	37
45-49	784	734	50	92	77	14	692	656	36
50-54	660	602	58	73	56	17	587	546	42
55-59	495	443	52	54	42	12	441	401	40
60-64	499	396	103	48	32	16	450	364	86
65+	816	435	381	90	35	55	726	400	326
Male	7 841	5 748	2 093	991	644	347	6 850	5 104	1 746
5-9	1 233	226	1 007	137	9	128	1 095	217	879
10-14	1 247	688	559	145	40	105	1 103	648	455
15-19	927	715	212	121	67	53	806	647	159
20-24	681	622	59	105	88	17	576	534	42
25-29	627	606	21	89	85	5	538	522	16
30-34	514	501	12	78	76	2	436	426	10
35-39	509	498	12	73	72	2	436	426	10
40-44	463	454	9	61	59	2	403	395	7
45-49	383	372	11	47	46	2	335	326	9
50-54	327	314	12	35	32	3	292	282	9
55-59	270	255	14	32	28	4	238	227	11
60-64	246	221	25	24	20	4	222	201	21
65+	415	275	140	44	23	21	371	252	119
Female	8 251	5 880	2 371	978	507	471	7 273	5 373	1 900
5-9	1 204	285	920	124	10	114	1 080	274	806
10-14	1 176	788	387	134	44	90	1 042	745	298
15-19	990	771	218	121	63	58	869	708	160
20-24	858	710	149	114	73	41	744	637	107
25-29	749	648	101	100	69	31	649	579	70
30-34	590	527	63	83	60	23	507	467	40
35-39	574	526	48	72	54	18	502	472	30
40-44	497	454	43	55	41	13	442	412	30
45-49	401	362	39	44	32	13	357	331	26
50-54	334	287	46	38	24	14	295	263	32
55-59	225	188	38	22	14	9	203	174	29
60-64	252	175	77	24	12	12	228	163	65
65+	401	160	242	46	12	35	355	148	207

Source: Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/1999.

Table 3.7. Usual labour force participation rates of the population aged 5 years and over by sex, age and locality

(Unit: per cent)

Age group	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Both	Male	Female	Both	Male	Female	Both	Male	Female
All	63.1	63.4	62.7	52.3	59.6	44.9	64.9	64.0	65.1
5-9	7.5	6.0	9.1	2.2	1.8	2.6	8.2	6.5	9.9
10-14	32.6	25.9	39.8	15.3	14.0	16.8	34.9	27.4	42.8
15-19	62.8	58.1	67.2	40.5	42.1	38.9	66.1	60.5	71.2
20-24	84.8	89.4	81.1	70.1	79.9	61.0	87.3	91.2	84.2
25-29	90.8	96.8	85.8	78.3	94.8	63.6	92.8	97.2	89.2
30-34	92.9	97.8	88.5	82.9	97.1	69.5	94.6	98.0	91.6
35-39	93.4	97.4	89.9	84.9	97.4	72.2	94.7	97.4	92.4
40-44	94.0	98.1	90.2	85.9	96.9	73.7	95.1	98.3	92.2
45-49	92.6	96.7	88.8	82.9	97.0	66.1	94.0	96.6	91.6
50-54	89.4	94.3	84.5	74.4	90.9	59.4	91.2	94.7	87.8
55-59	87.1	93.2	79.7	73.3	86.1	55.3	88.8	94.2	82.4
60-64	74.4	84.7	64.2	59.8	75.8	44.2	75.9	85.7	66.4
65+	43.9	55.5	31.9	30.7	43.9	18.2	45.5	56.8	33.7

Source: Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/1999.

Policy implications

Education appears to be a major determinant of the pattern of time use between males and females. The low literacy rate among women (28.2 per cent) compared with men (62.3 per cent) reflects the greater number of females aged 15 years and over who have never attended school. Inversely, there are more males than females who are economically inactive as they are kept in school. In comparison, a high proportion of females are inactive because of household duties.

Any policy intervention should consider not only the critical role of education in improving the situation of girls and women but also look into the contribution of factors such as role perception with its attendant traditional practices. How can non-economic activities, which are mostly in the home enivironment, be shared equally with men in the light of prevailing traditional thought?

With a higher proportion of women than men engaged in agriculture, a policy issue is the extent to which women's health is protected given the physiological stress of manual labour and their reproductive functions.

An important aspect of a country's situation is following up on trends over time. Can the next labour force survey follow up on this first-ever collection of time-use data? Are there any policy implications for institutionalizing such an important aspect of the statistical system in Nepal?

In summary, the purpose of the situational analysis is to present the national social, cultural, economic, political and environmental context in which paid and unpaid work by women and men takes place. The causes of disparities in the allocation and sharing of unpaid work between women and men, based on time-use data, are analysed in terms of access to services, facilities

Table 3.8. Population aged 5 years and over by sex, age, locality and usual economic activity status

(Unit: '000)

Age group	Nepal			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Usually active	Usually inactive	Total	Usually active	Usually inactive	Total	Usually active	Usually inactive
Total	16 093	10 149	5 943	1 969	1 030	939	14 124	9 120	5 004
5-9	2 437	183	2 254	261	6	256	2 175	178	1 998
10-14	2 423	791	1 632	278	43	236	2 145	748	1 397
15-19	1 916	1 204	712	242	98	144	1 675	1 106	568
20-24	1 540	1 306	234	220	154	66	1 320	1 152	168
25-29	1 376	1 250	126	190	149	41	1 186	1 101	85
30-34	1 103	1 025	79	161	133	27	943	892	51
35-39	1 083	1 012	71	145	123	22	938	889	49
40-44	960	903	58	116	99	16	845	803	41
45-49	784	726	58	92	75	16	692	651	41
50-54	660	590	70	73	54	19	587	536	51
55-59	495	431	64	54	40	14	441	391	50
60-64	499	371	128	48	29	19	450	342	108
65 & over	816	358	458	90	28	62	726	331	395
Male	7 841	4 973	2 868	991	591	400	6 850	4 383	2 468
5-9	1 233	73	1 159	137	2	135	1 095	71	1 024
10-14	1 247	323	925	145	20	124	1 103	303	800
15-19	927	539	388	121	51	70	806	488	318
20-24	681	609	72	105	84	21	576	525	51
25-29	627	607	20	89	85	5	538	523	15
30-34	514	502	11	78	76	2	436	427	9
35-39	509	496	13	73	71	2	436	425	11
40-44	463	455	9	61	59	2	403	396	7
45-49	383	370	13	47	46	1	335	324	11
50-54	327	308	19	35	32	3	292	276	15
55-59	270	251	18	32	27	4	238	224	14
60-64	246	209	38	24	18	6	222	191	32
65 & over	415	230	185	44	19	24	371	211	160
Female	8 251	5 176	3 075	978	439	539	7 273	4 737	2 536
5-9	1 204	110	1 095	124	3	121	1 080	107	974
10-14	1 176	468	708	134	22	111	1 042	446	597
15-19	990	665	324	121	47	74	869	618	250
20-24	858	696	162	114	70	45	744	627	117
25-29	749	642	106	100	64	36	649	579	70
30-34	590	522	68	83	58	25	507	465	42
35-39	574	516	58	72	52	20	502	464	38
40-44	497	448	49	55	40	14	442	408	35
45-49	401	356	45	44	29	15	357	327	30
50-54	334	282	52	38	23	16	295	259	36
55-59	225	180	46	22	12	10	203	167	36
60-64	252	162	90	24	11	14	228	151	77
65 & over	401	128	273	46	8	38	355	120	235

Source: Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/1999.

Table 3.9. Total hours spent carrying out various economic activities in the previous seven days by sex, age and activity: rural

	Job wage	Own business	Agricul-ture	Milling	Handi-crafts	Construc-tion	Fetching water	Collec-ting firewood	Other work activity	All activities
Age group										Hours in thousands
Total	58 136	34 398	277 541	9 065	3 845	4 480	9 444	15 311	3 729	415 951
5-9	119	60	8 573	48	9	–	333	341	24	9 506
10-14	2 073	1 054	28 999	530	215	112	1 198	1 571	343	36 096
15-19	7 097	2 846	33 353	1 216	464	480	1 377	2 564	404	49 800
20-24	8 547	4 227	31 970	1 308	430	652	1 238	2 115	493	50 979
25-29	9 864	4 907	28 952	1 193	485	644	1 075	1 959	391	49 469
30-44	19 888	12 183	75 006	2 826	1 172	1 452	2 435	4 207	1 024	120 193
45-59	8 767	6 542	49 228	1 551	531	703	1 257	1 922	766	71 268
60+	1 782	2 580	21 460	392	539	438	532	634	284	28 641
Male	44 718	24 306	125 246	1 307	1 519	3 454	1 899	4 723	1 631	208 803
5-9	66	40	3 765	4	8	–	108	100	6	4 096
10-14	1 274	526	13 028	80	27	60	354	434	121	15 905
15-19	4 922	1 925	14 031	155	96	228	283	801	160	22 600
20-24	6 459	3 132	12 646	125	89	474	196	670	208	23 998
25-29	7 932	3 614	11 628	187	137	449	136	581	124	24 788
30-44	15 639	8 474	32 389	423	446	1 224	469	1 166	424	60 654
45-59	7 004	4 636	24 667	267	288	618	212	689	444	38 826
60+	1 422	1 959	13 092	66	428	401	141	282	145	17 935
Female	13 418	10 093	152 295	7 758	2 326	1 026	7 545	10 588	2 098	207 148
5-9	54	20	4 807	44	1	–	225	240	18	5 409
10-14	799	528	15 971	450	189	52	843	1 137	222	20 192
15-19	2 175	921	19 321	1 061	368	252	1 094	1 763	244	27 200
20-24	2 087	1 095	19 325	1 183	341	178	1 042	1 445	285	26 981
25-29	1 932	1 293	17 324	1 006	348	194	939	1 378	267	24 681
30-44	4 249	3 709	42 618	2 403	726	228	1 966	3 040	600	59 538
45-59	1 763	1 906	24 562	1 284	243	84	1 045	1 233	322	32 442
60+	360	622	8 367	326	111	37	391	352	140	10 706
Age group										Average hours across whole rural population
Total	4.1	2.4	19.7	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.1	0.3	29.5
5-9	0.1	0.0	3.9	0.0	0.0	–	0.2	0.2	0.0	4.4
10-14	1.0	0.5	13.5	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.7	0.2	16.8
15-19	4.2	1.7	19.9	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.8	1.5	0.2	29.7
20-24	6.5	3.2	24.2	1.0	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.6	0.4	38.6
25-29	8.3	4.1	24.4	1.0	0.4	0.5	0.9	1.7	0.3	41.7
30-44	7.3	4.5	27.5	1.0	0.4	0.5	0.9	1.5	0.4	44.1
45-59	5.1	3.8	28.6	0.9	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.1	0.4	41.4
60+	1.5	2.2	18.2	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.2	24.3
Male	6.5	3.5	18.3	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.2	30.5
5-9	0.1	0.0	3.4	0.0	0.0	–	0.1	0.1	0.0	3.7
10-14	1.2	0.5	11.8	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.1	14.4
15-19	6.1	2.4	17.4	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.4	1.0	0.2	28.0
20-24	11.2	5.4	22.0	0.2	0.2	0.8	0.3	1.2	0.4	41.7
25-29	14.8	6.7	21.6	0.3	0.3	0.8	0.3	1.1	0.2	46.1
30-44	12.3	6.6	25.4	0.3	0.3	1.0	0.4	0.9	0.3	47.6
45-59	8.1	5.4	28.5	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.2	0.8	0.5	44.9
60+	2.4	3.3	22.1	0.1	0.7	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.2	30.2
Female	1.8	1.4	20.9	1.1	0.3	0.1	1.0	1.5	0.3	28.5
5-9	0.0	0.0	4.5	0.0	0.0	–	0.2	0.2	0.0	5.0
10-14	0.8	0.5	15.3	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.8	1.1	0.2	19.4
15-19	2.5	1.1	22.2	1.2	0.4	0.3	1.3	2.0	0.3	31.3
20-24	2.8	1.5	26.0	1.6	0.5	0.2	1.4	1.9	0.4	36.3
25-29	3.0	2.0	26.7	1.6	0.5	0.3	1.4	2.1	0.4	38.0
30-44	2.9	2.6	29.4	1.7	0.5	0.2	1.4	2.1	0.4	41.0
45-59	2.1	2.2	28.7	1.5	0.3	0.1	1.2	1.4	0.4	37.9
60+	0.6	1.1	14.4	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.6	0.2	18.4

Source: Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/1999.

Table 3.10. Paid employees' average number of working hours and average monthly earnings and rate per hour in rupees

	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Total	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**
Average time/week	39.4	42.6	36.3	42.2	46.9	35.6	39.1	42.0	36.3
Average earnings	2 143	2 389	1 368	2 155	2 363	1 397	855	947	648
Earnings per hour	54.4	56.1	37.7	51.1	50.4	39.2	21.9	22.5	17.9

Table 3.11. Number of hours per week spent on non-economic activities

Status	**Male**	**Female**
Employed	4.7	23.1
Unemployed	4.1	30.2
Inactive	3.4	23.5

and resources. Unequal sharing of paid and unpaid work can be caused by and lead to unequal access to development opportunities. The value of the situation analysis lies in its contribution to indicate the possible areas for policy, programme and budgetary intervention.

module four

POLICY IMPLICATIONS OF UNPAID WORK

Public action for gender and development

module 4

POLICY IMPLICATIONS OF UNPAID WORK

Public action for gender and development

Overview

- Current issues on promoting gender equality relate to promoting equal development opportunities for men and women, enabling them to contribute to their own development as well as to the development of the nation. The extent to which society treats its citizens, women, men and children, is largely determined by policies that safeguard and promote their well-being. Such policy should be able to promote the development of both men and women including those engaged in paid and unpaid work. The unpaid unremunerated work by women and men while generating goods and services has not been economically accounted for. National policies, while intended to take care of the well-being of productive human resources, tend to address only the paid component of work and may ignore the unpaid sector.
- The emerging recognition of unpaid work, especially of women, has now caught serious global, regional and national attention for public action to promote women's economic empowerment. Time-use studies, whether undertaken independently or as part of a multi-purpose survey, can identify population groups in need of economic and social support measures. The measurement and valuation of women's unpaid work can highlight the unequal distribution of unpaid work between men and women, thus paving the way to policy action rooted in gender equality.
- An analysis of the prevailing environment including the existing policy framework in the country provides the context in which work is being shared by women and men. A situation analysis helps identify points of any further policy intervention to help bring about gender equality in sharing paid and unpaid work. Moreover, the analysis will be able to define the status of women and men in relation to the country's social and economic development goals and targets.

4

- It is important to recognize, and integrate into the national policy agenda, issues on unpaid work that falls within the production boundary of the United Nations System of National Accounts and unpaid work that falls outside the SNA production boundary but within the general production boundary. In both cases, work performed either to produce marketable outputs or remunerable services are not included in national income data. In both cases, women's access to economic opportunities is diminished, being tied up in the unremunerated activities.
- Policies become a means of correcting inequalities so that unpaid work is shared equally by men and women as much as possible. In so doing, those performing unpaid work, whether women or men, are not put to any disadvantage insofar as their well-being and their access to development opportunities are concerned.
- The integration of the issues and concerns in paid and unpaid work in national policies can take several forms:
  (a) Integration into statistics;
  (b) Integration into labour market and employment policies;
  (c) Integration into policies of social welfare and social protection; and
  (d) Integration into macro policies.
- Policies, however, need to be formulated in the overall context of the country as revealed by other data and statistics from established sources such as the national labour force profile. In this sense, time-use data can serve as an eye-opener to policy makers.

Purposes of the Module

- To explain the meaning and implication of the integration of issues on unpaid work into the national policy agenda.
- To show how data on unpaid work can be integrated into national statistical systems.
- To identify policy options to promote gender equality in terms of sharing unpaid work in different sectors.

Why is unpaid work excluded from national policies ?

Most countries today formulate their respective national policies using the database that covers only paid remunerated activities. This database represents one part of the total economy, leaving out all the unpaid activities that contribute to the welfare of society but on which people, particularly women, spend a considerable amount of time. It was not until SNA 1993 recommended the setting up of satellite accounts that unpaid work was reflected in the household economic account. At the same time, the collection and analysis of time-use data have reinforced the economic contribution of unpaid workers, especially women.

These studies have highlighted the need for public action that will make their role more visible in the national economy. These studies also address issues that would further enhance the contribution of unpaid workers to the caring and nurturing of productive human resources. Although national policies have an impact on society as a whole, the concerns of unpaid and paid workers may not be fully reflected due to a lack of needed data and statistics. National policies are therefore likely to be inadequate for taking care of the needs and interests of society as a whole. This is not right and must be changed.

What are the policy implications of unpaid work ?

Unpaid work has several disadvantages. To start with, unpaid workers do not receive any direct returns and are thus accorded a low status. Second, these activities usually bear low productivity and employ low-level skills, which again make them inferior to paid work. Third, unpaid work is usually boring, repetitive and tedious. Finally, unpaid work is a “dead-end” occupation with low access or no access at all to upward mobility in work status. In comparison, paid work gets direct returns, is valued in the market, and usually employs those with higher skills, thus resulting in higher productivity. Paid workers have a greater scope for upward mobility. There is a clear hierarchy of paid and unpaid work, with paid workers enjoying higher status at home as well as in the labour market. Unpaid workers thus have lower access to development opportunities.

It is important, therefore, to minimize unpaid work and/or for it to be shared equally by members of society as in the case of paid work. This will help ensure equal access of all to paid work as well as to available time for self-development or leisure. The integration of paid and unpaid work for gender equality would mean that these activities could be shared equally by men and women, and that those performing unpaid work are not adversely affected in terms of well-being or access to opportunities.

Elements of a good public policy

Policy is essentially a statement of a principle or a set of principles that govern an action. It is important pre-requisite of an action as it explicitly presents the goals and principles that direct the cause of an action.

- **A good public policy should reflect both political and enforcement will**. It must be consistent with the national constitution. It must be clear in its objectives, concise in its enabling provisions and enforceable. It must be easy to interpret and provide for an enforcement mechanism such as funding and institutions to carry out the required action. The policy should preferably be the product of a participatory process by considering the interests of all stakeholders and engaging their collaboration. The effects of public policies should be monitored for which regularly collected statistics are imperative.
- **Policies ought to be responsive to the needs of the target groups**. The issues arise from, among others, external shocks or domestic events with negative impact. The former are mostly economic in character and include sudden increases in the prices of imports, e.g., adverse terms of trade and outflow of volatile foreign capital due to lack of confidence and speculative attacks on the value of the domestic currency.
- **Public issues of domestic origin are more varied**. They include political upheavals, armed conflicts, natural disasters, economic mismanagement resulting from poor governance such as corruption and incompetence, and popular demands e.g., adjustments in minimum wages and increased social protection of workers engaged in informal services. These issues have an impact on households through, among other things, domestic prices, employment and public expenditures on basic services. The Asian financial crisis of the 1990s was largely of country origin and compounded by extreme capital mobility.
- **Many economic issues, e.g., recession, inflation and unemployment are, by nature, better addressed by policies of national application**. Thus, fiscal, financial and exchange rate policies do not normally require complementary action at subnational level. Economic and social agents have little choice but to adjust and adapt. Policies directly promoting human well-being demand complementary action at all administrative and household levels.
- **Policy instruments are more diverse than policies and have varying efficiency coefficients**. Economic policies work through the market mechanism where changes in relative prices are made to influence resource allocation by firms, households, individuals and other economic agents. Social policy instruments are usually standards and norms such as minimum wages, social security benefits and working conditions as prescribed by law or budget allocations.

Broad policy components of unequal distribution of unpaid work

- Integrating unpaid work into statistical systems.
- Integrating unpaid work into the labour market and employment policies.
- Protecting the well-being and quality of life of unpaid workers, especially women.
- Ensuring "care" as well as gender equality in macro policies.
- Integrating unpaid work in monitoring and evaluation on a concurrent basis.

Integrating unpaid work into the statistical systems

1. Under-reporting of unpaid work in statistical systems

Existing statistics in most countries foster and perpetuate gender inequality. The global movement for women's equality has identified statistics as a major area of work, as the prevailing statistical systems in most countries neither count women's unpaid SNA work adequately nor measure women's unpaid non-SNA work. Underestimation of women's SNA work and exclusion of women's domestic work from statistics under-reports women as workers as well as their contribution to national income. This ultimately results in low priority as well as low allocation of resources to women's development in national policies.

By underestimating the contribution of women in the economy and society, national statistics have implicitly perpetuated gender inequalities. Although paid childcare, hired domestic help and the provision of restaurant food are included in national accounts, the same services provided free by housewives are excluded from the accounts. In addition, all forms of voluntary work are excluded from national accounts. The exclusion of domestic work or reproductive functions of women from statistical systems thus provides only a partial picture of the society, as the well-being generated by reproductive services is not reflected in national statistical systems.

In developing societies where agriculture dominates the economy, women may be engaged in subsistence type of activities as the primary mode of production. This is the case in many developing economies in Asia and the Pacific. Nepal is a case in point, where much of what is generated in subsistence farming is not reflected in GDP. It is claimed that 67 per cent of the household income is generated from household enterprises in Nepal. It is not clear, however, how much of this gets into the national accounts. According to the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) Manual on National Account Statistics in Nepal (1993), much of the post-harvest or later food processing undertaken within households, mostly by women, is left out.

The non-recognition of subsistence activities where women predominate, have unfavourable consequences for women. They appear to be contributing less to the economy. Women may work long hours without any benefits accruing

to them. Women are effectively deprived of time and opportunities to develop themselves and build their own human capital. Finally, when women enter the paid workforce, their burden is multiplied because society expects them to carry out housework and childcare even as they perform paid work.

2. Policy implications for national statistical systems

Time-use data have facilitated counting paid and unpaid work of men and women. This has been shown by studies in developed countries as well as pilot studies conducted in a number of Asian countries (India, the Republic of Korea, Mongolia and Nepal). Data were collected through full time-use surveys. Time-use questions have also been included in the regular household surveys such as the Nepal Labour Force Survey that was undertaken with technical assistance from ILO.

Many countries in Asia and the Pacific do not have time-use data. One policy that could be adopted by governments is to introduce time-use studies or questions as part of their normal official data collection efforts in census operations or labour force surveys. Reworking the official statistical systems is needed in order to arrive at an alternative measure of domestic product that can be logically compared across nations regardless of the extent of market orientation.

Integrating unpaid work into national statistics therefore means that the measurement of unpaid work is factored into the national data collection system. This implies:

(a) Using standardized concepts and definitions;

(b) Adopting the revised United Nations trial activity classification to local situations;

(c) Compiling satellite accounts of unpaid work; and

(d) Conducting time-use surveys or including time-use questions in household surveys on a regular basis.

The type and frequency of time-use surveys can be decided by a country based on available funding and the perceived need and use for the data.

Beijing Platform for Action

The Platform for Action adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in September 1995 called for developing "suitable statistical means to recognize and make visible the full extent of the work of women and all their contributions to the national economy including their contribution in the unremunerated and domestic sectors…" and stressed the need "to develop a more comprehensive knowledge of work and employment through efforts to measure and better understand the type, extent and distribution of unremunerated work, particularly in caring for dependents …."

United Nations Beijing Declaration, Platform for Action, 1995

Department of Statistics led time-use survey in India

The Government of India, through the Department of Statistics, set up a technical committee to undertake a pilot time-use survey. The objectives of the committee were to:

- Advise the Government on designing, planning and related matters leading to conducting a time-use survey;
- Suggest appropriate definitions and concepts, a schedule of inquiry and a suitable reference period for the purpose of data collection through a survey;
- Suggest an appropriate methodology for building up the annual estimates of time disposition based on the survey data;
- Advise on any other matter referred to the technical committee by the Department of Statistics in respect of the time-use survey.

Integrating unpaid work into the labour market and employment policies

1. Women workers in the labour market

Time-use studies in developed and developing countries show that women enter the labour market with a huge burden of unpaid domestic work and domestic responsibilities. This has several implications for their status in the labour market.

- Women cannot devote as much time and energy to paid work as men can do.
- Since their priority usually is towards their domestic responsibilities, women tend to consider labour market work as secondary.
- Women develop lower human capital than men as their domestic responsibilities leave less time and energy for market work.
- Since domestic responsibilities tend to constrain their on-the-job skills formation, physical mobility and capability to take up additional responsibilities, women workers enjoy relatively lower status in the labour market in terms of skills and productivity of work, wages and salary earned, employment status, occupational diversification and upward mobility.

Women frequently withdraw from the labour market to take care of children, and then re-enter after a few years when their children are grown. This break in the service goes against their status and job promotion in the labour market. Frequently, they find it difficult to re-enter the labour market.

Women are usually denied equal access to employment opportunities or to upward mobility in the labour market, which implies unequal access of men and women to development opportunities.

2. Steps to promote a level playing field for men and women workers

In order to enable women to access equal opportunities in the labour market, the following strategies are suggested.

- Compensating women workers for their absence from work for child-bearing and child-rearing by providing:

Household food production in Nepal

Nepal is a typical example of where subsistence is the primary mode of production and, therefore, much of what is generated in this sector does not get reflected in GDP. More than 67 per cent of household level income is generated from household enterprises. It is not clear how much of this is recorded in national accounts.

Also, food processing within a Nepalese household contributes about 15 per cent to rural household income. This has to be estimated and included in national accounts. Similarly, the new SNA recommends that water-carrying should be valued and its product included in the SNA. Without the measurement of time spent on these activities, it will not be possible to generate estimates of these products and services.

According to the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) Manual on National Account Statistics in Nepal (1993), much of the post-harvest or later food processing undertaken within the household, mostly by women, is left out. According to CBS, only food processing in the cottage and organized industries is included.

Similarly, production estimates for the livestock and minor crops leave out products generated for household consumption on a small scale.

This type of underestimation of household production has implications for the evaluation of development. In modernization, many of the activities undertaken within the household are externalized and marketed, and products or services have been included in GDP. This is not a real increase in GDP and reflects only an illusion of development. This increase appears only because previously, these products or services were left out of the GDP accounts. An increased GDP figure would indicate an improvement in living standards, while in reality living standards may actually have deteriorated as a result of the marketing of activities and products. This is because "marketization" also involves costs in terms of transportation, increased requirements for nutrition and other related aspects.

Source: Meena Acharya, 1999, "Time budget studies for measurement of human welfare", in *Integrating Paid and Unpaid Work into National Policies*: Selected Papers, UNDP-RBAP, Bangkok, pp. 91-92.

(a) Maternity leave and maternity benefits to ensure paid leave and allowances that meet the cost of childbirth;

(b) Paternity leave during childbirth to enable fathers to contribute to baby care and care of the mother;

(c) Special nursing breaks as well as extra leave, if needed, to women workers until the child is two years old; and

(d) Financial assistance and allowances to take care of medical expenses of the mother and child.

- Enabling women workers to take care of domestic responsibilities along with their job, i.e., to balance domestic work and labour market work, by providing:

  (a) Flexible working time to enable women to attend to work during convenient hours;

(b) A compressed work week to reduce the burden of labour market work; and

(b) Job sharing and part-time work to enable women workers to work for shorter periods.

- Reducing the domestic burden of women workers by creating alternative facilities such as:

  (a) Setting up a crèche for infants at the unit or local level and setting up childcare facilities for older children with the cost contributed by employers, workers and the government; and

  (b) Increasing efficiency in women's domestic work with appropriate technological and other interventions.

- Providing financial incentives to women workers for taking care of children and dependents through:

  (a) Childcare and dependent care tax credit, to be given to workers whenever feasible;

  (b) Equal pay or equal remuneration legislation to help ensure that women do not get lower salaries or lower benefits due to their responsibility for taking care of children and dependents; and

  (c) Social security and assistance for women workers who are taking care of children and dependents.

- Providing financial incentives to employers or companies that follow family friendly policies and take steps to promote gender equality within their units.

- Promoting human resource development of girls before and after they enter the labour market, to enable them to get higher productivity jobs and upward mobility, by implementing:

  (a) Affirmative action or action lending positive discrimination towards women that can promote girls' skills formation in non-traditional skills at the school and university levels. Such action may include a subsidy for tuition fees, a special quota for girls in non-traditional skills training, special allowances for books and equipment, and other incentives.

  (b) Positive discrimination towards women workers in the labour market through organized special skills training, and management development and professional programmes.

Women in the informal sector

- Special action is needed to promote women workers in self-employment and other informal sector activities. As these women suffer from several disadvantages due to their gender, there is a need to promote their employment and incomes through special action/policies such as:

  (a) Strengthening infrastructure support by improving their access to credit and finance, markets, raw materials, facilities and others.

  (b) Improving their access to skill formation and skill upgrading, management training, and other professional training by organizing special programmes for them.

  (c) Improving access of women workers to information about the labour market situation and prospects. Special cells can be set up for women in the government.

  (d) Special support can be provided to NGOs who are organizing women workers from the informal sector for their development and empowerment.

Paid and unpaid work in Bangladesh

Women spend more time in unpaid work than men. Non-market production, both subsistence production and housework, is a major sector in the Bangladesh economy. It contributes 23 per cent to the revised GDP, second only to the agriculture sector, which contributes 33 per cent.

General

- Non-market work increases conventional GDP estimates by 29 per cent.
- Under the present UNSNA production boundary definition, 95 per cent of non-market production in Bangladesh is excluded.
- Opportunity cost is 64 per cent of the formal wage rate; the informal wage rate is 80 per cent of the formal wage rate. This indicates self-exploitation of the rural labour force and perceived non-value of non-market work.

Gender-related production

- Conventional GDP estimates capture 98 per cent of men's production but only 47 per cent of women's production.
- Women's contribution to national income using conventional estimates is 25 per cent while men's contribution is 75 per cent.
- If non-market work is included in national income estimates, the contribution by women increases from 25 per cent to 41 per cent.
- Women's contribution is 25 per cent to market work and 97 per cent to non-market work.
- Under the proposed recommendations of the revised SNA, 38 per cent of men's non-market work and 4 per cent of women's non-market work will be accounted for in GDP estimates.

Time allocation

- Of the total time spent on work in rural areas, women contribute 53 per cent.
- Of the total time spent on market work, women contribute 25 per cent.
- Of the total time spent on non-market work, women contribute 89 per cent.
- Men have 12 per cent more leisure time than women.

Wage rates

- Female/male wage ratio is 0.50 in the informal sector, 0.60 in the non-agriculture sector, 0.66 in the agriculture sector. This indicates an undervaluation of women's skills in all sectors of the economy.
- There is only a marginal difference between the wage rate of women and that of children, indicating that women's skills are valued on a par with that of children.

Source: Shamin Hamid, 1999, "Non-market work and national income: the case of Bangladesh", Integrating Paid and Unpaid Work into National Policies: Selected Papers, UNDP-RBAP, Bangkok, Thailand, pp. 91-92.

Time-use survey in India: Inference for employment policies

One major objective of the time-use survey in India was to correctly estimate the workforce in the country. The major findings of the survey had important implications for labour and employment policies in India.

- One major contribution of the time-use survey, with regard to labour and employment policy, is that it clearly shows that both men's and women's participation in SNA activities is much more than what is brought about by the Census and NSSO data. This increase is much larger in the case of women.
- Although a large number of women work in SNA activities, the number of hours they put in is much less. This seems to be due to the large burden of extended SNA activities they carry on their shoulders as well as the limited scope that they have in the formal labour market. An important implication of this is that women cannot operate on an equal footing with men in the labour market as they have a larger burden of work at home. Women can be encouraged to participate for longer hours if their extended SNA work is reduced by better sharing of this work between men and women.
- Further, the present focus on designing and implementing employment programmes for women's empowerment, without any arrangement for work sharing in extended SNA activities, will only increase their burden. Such programmes are not likely to be successful. It is necessary that the government focuses on reducing the burden of extended SNA activities of women by (a) ensuring adequate supplies of fuel, fodder and water at the doorstep, (b) setting up babycare and childcare centres and (c) by directing policies to reduce patriarchy in the country.
- The results also show that women spend a great amount of time in collecting not only fuel, fodder and water, but also leaves, bamboo, forest produce, fruit, vegetables and other food. With the increasing degradation of the environment in the country they seem to be travelling long distances, which has implications also for their health and safety. Men also spend considerable time on these gathering and collection activities. This has important implications for protecting and regenerating the environment in the country, not only to reduce drudgery but also to protect and promote the livelihood of people. Such environment-related works are highly labour intensive and thus are capable of generating massive employment for people in the country.
- There appears to be a significant incidence of underemployment in rural as well as urban areas. The incidence is relatively higher in rural areas as reflected in the very large leisure time among rural inhabitants. Employment policy and programmes should take note of this fact.
- The involvement of children in SNA activities is much more than that presented by the Census and the NSSO data. The study shows that more than 33 per cent of children in the age group 6-14 years do not appear to be going to school. More details of the nature of the problem of child labour will be known after analysing data on the time-use pattern of child labour.
- Finally, the study has shown that it is possible to make the invisible work of the poor, particularly of women, visible through a well-designed time-use survey. The time-use survey technique has the potential for generating useful statistics on the workforce in the country. Going beyond the conventional statistics to the area of unpaid activities of people helps in the design of better employment policies as well as better empowering programmes for women.
- The time-use survey is a useful statistical survey tool for correctly estimating the workforce and its contribution to the economy.

Source: Indira Hirway, 1999, "Estimating workforce using time-use study results and its implications for employment policy in India", paper presented at the International Seminar on Time-Use Studies, Ahmedabad, 7-10 December 1999.

Female employment expands but mainly in the informal sector

In the 1960s, the export-oriented policies of Asian countries/areas (for example, the Republic of Korea, Hong Kong, China; and Taiwan province of China) have created many new employment opportunities for young women. A number of heavily-indebted Asian nations were pressured to adopt export-oriented strategies by international development lending agencies as part of the stabilization and structural adjustment measures, while others did so voluntarily in the face of mounting external imbalances.

Although, overall, export-led development has been generally associated with expanding employment opportunities for women, these are not always in the formal wage sector. In a number of countries, the expansion of female employment has occurred in manufacturing in the informal rather than the formal sector. In Pakistan, women's representation among regular industrial employees is very low and the measured urban female labour force participation rate has shown only a negligible increase. However, micro-studies of urban areas point to an increasing influx of women workers in the urban informal sector, where they are employed as temporary, casual or contract labour. Many are also in home-based piece-rate employment, particularly in countries such as Bangladesh and Pakistan where cultural systems restrict women's mobility.

Source: Lorraine Corner, 1996, "Women, Men and Economics, the Gender-Differentiated Impact of Macroeconomics," UNIFEM Asia-Pacific Regional Office, New York, pp. 57-59.

Protecting women's well-being and quality of life

Since women carry the major burden of unpaid work, in both SNA and non-SNA, it is desirable that this burden be reduced in order to improve their well-being and quality of life. In this connection, the following measures are suggested:

- The improvement of technology in women's work to reduce the tediousness of their domestic work. In the context of India as in other countries, it has been observed that women, and also men to some extent, spend long hours in collecting fuel, fodder and water, which is time-consuming as well as tiring. It is necessary to take appropriate actions to reduce this burden on women. In the case of India, for example, one may suggest village-level reforestation programmes and the promotion of local rainwater harvesting schemes.
- Crèche and childcare centres. The promotion of crèche and childcare centres can also reduce the burden of women's work while also improving children's health and development. The universalization of such centres can go a long way in improving leisure time or in increasing the availability of personal time of women.
- Subsidized social services. Women's domestic work can also be reduced by: (a) the private sector providing some services such as food processing or care of the sick; (b) the government

providing free or subsidized services; and/or (c) NGOs organizing such services at subsidized rates. This burden can also be reduced at home when men share the work. A government may decide to promote any of these measures.

- Social security for unpaid workers. Women engaged in domestic services are not considered to be "workers" and are therefore not entitled to any pension or social security support, which are both designed for "workers". However, if one recognizes the contribution of women's domestic services to the well-being of society, it will be recognized that providing some social security to women would be appropriate. The Republic of Korea, for example, is planning to provide pensions to women as social security in old age.

Ensuring care as well as gender equality

There is an ongoing debate in the literature about the maintenance of care activities in today's highly competitive society. Care activities, such as childcare, care of elderly or disabled family members, and domestic services are performed by women as a part of their domestic responsibilities. Such activities are extremely important for the healthy growth of children and the well-being of families. Care is at the centre of a family as it keeps it together by binding the members with love.

These care activities, however, are a major component of unpaid domestic work of women. By spending considerable time on unpaid care activities, women are accorded a lower status at home and outside, which ultimately results in their poor access to developmental opportunities. The critical question therefore is: how to maintain care in the family while at the same time allowing equal sharing of work? How do we ensure that women are able to enjoy equal access to opportunities for their development in the globalized world without families suffering from loss of care and love?

This is a difficult question and, so far, it has perhaps not been answered adequately by any society. Theoretically, one can say that care can be provided by women's unpaid work, men's unpaid work, private market services, voluntary work and public services.

Under a welfare State, public services play a major role in providing care. However, the welfare State is now on the decline, with markets gradually taking over. Care activities or unpaid domestic services need to be distributed among women and men, the private sector, the voluntary sector and government. This should put women in an advantaged position in society but at the same time, assure care of children and the family in some critical activities. It is also important that women are adequately compensated for undertaking care activities. There are no firm rules about this. Each society has to work out its own rules. It is emphasized, however, that care is important and that it should not be neglected. Otherwise, the erosion of family and community solidarity may impose enormous costs on society.

These are some steps that may help ensure adequate family care and equal sharing of work. Each society has to consider what is best for its women without sacrificing the value of their contribution, particularly with regard to nurturing the younger members of society.

Support for men's childcare responsibilities in Western Europe

Although several countries in Western Europe have encouraged gender-neutral family-oriented work policies, in 1995, only 5 per cent of the male workforce in the European Union worked part time, and only 5 per cent of fathers took paternity leave. Men often cite their work environment as a constraint when explaining their reluctance to make full use of parental and paternity leave rights or to work part-time to care for a child. Private sector employers in particular are seen as unsupportive of such arrangements. Traditionally, it has been women who have had to move into part-time labour or take a career break after the birth of a child. The European Union Commissioner for Employment and Social Affairs Padraig Flynn has stated that "even where there are policy instruments aimed at breaking down the gender imbalance in caring.... the assumption that caring is the responsibility of women persists."

Time-use

Austria: Men spend an average of 70 per cent of their time in paid labour, 30 per cent in unpaid labour; women spend an average of 30 per cent of their time in paid labour, 70 per cent in unpaid labour. Women make up 98 per cent of part-time employees.

Denmark: About 65 per cent of men in the labour force work 30-39 hours a week, 30 per cent work longer and 5 per cent less hours. Sixty-nine per cent of women work 30-39 hours, 11 per cent work more and 20 per cent work less hours. In 1987 men spent 10 hours a week in unpaid work, women 21 hours; in 1997 men spent 13 hours in unpaid work, and women 18 hours.

Germany: A third of women work less than 35 hours a week, while only 2-3 per cent of men do so.

Italy: Married women with children spend 7.5 hours each day in care work, while men spend 1.5 hours.

Netherlands: Women spend twice as much time in unpaid work at home as men (women 32 hours, men 16 hours). But women who work more than 30 hours a week spend only 18 hours in unpaid housework, compared with 19 hours for their husbands.

Spain: Women spend seven times as many hours doing domestic work as men.

Paternal and parental leave

Denmark: Fathers are allowed a two-week paternal leave for the birth or adoption of a child. They can also use the last 10 weeks of maternity leave (10 per cent of fathers do this). And there is a four-week extension for fathers only.

Finland: Fathers may take 6-18 days of paternal leave, while 158 days of parental leave can be shared after maternity leave ends (parental leave is used by only 3 per cent of fathers). One parent can take unpaid leave until the child is three. Parents are also allowed 2-4 days a year to care for a sick child.

Italy: During the child's first year, a six-month parental leave can be taken after maternity leave ends (at 30 per cent pay).

Norway: Employees may take parental leave for 42 weeks (at 100 per cent pay) or 52 weeks (at 80 per cent pay). Fathers must use at least four weeks of the parental leave, otherwise that period is lost. Parents may also combine their leave with part-time work. Employees are allowed 10-15 days each year to care for a sick child, single parents 20-30 days.

Sweden: Employees are allowed 10 days of paternal leave for the birth or adoption of a child, 450 days of paternal leave (at 80 per cent pay). One parent, usually the father, has an absolute right to one month (at 85 per cent pay). Parents have the right to a 25 per cent reduction in their work hours until a child is eight. Childcare is a legal right.

Source: United Nations Human Development Report, 1999.

Integrating unpaid work in macro policies

The micro and sectoral policies proposed above may help in integrating issues on unpaid work to promote gender equality. It must be recognized, however, that unless the macro development process is engendered, it is difficult to achieve gender equality in a society. It is important to integrate the concerns of unpaid work in overall macro policies to ensure that women are not disadvantaged in accessing the benefits of development.

To start with, even in a market-friendly environment, the State has to play an important role in providing basic services such as primary education and elementary health as well as basic facilities such as water supply, roads, communications and others. Economic viability may be an important consideration at the macro level, but the State will have to see that these basic services are within the reach of the vulnerable population groups. The State will have to take affirmative action to promote health and education as well as improve their access to these and other social services. Women should thus be able to improve their bargaining power in the economy.

The unequal distribution of paid and unpaid work among men and women reflects a societal bias, essentially gender, against women. This bias is also manifested in the economy and its development process. It is therefore necessary to promote a development process that is engendered.

The development process should be environmentally sustainable, as environmental degradation and depletion tend to hurt women and the poor the most. Environmentally-friendly development ensures that women spend less time on strenuous activities such as collecting fuel, fodder and water. It will also help ensure that their economic activities, which are mostly environment-related in developing countries, progress well and that consequently their employment and income levels improve.

The development process should focus on human resource development of men and women so as to improve access of women to employment and assets. A positive focus on women's health and education would help in reducing fertility rates, and give them free time or personal time.

The process of globalization should be so sequenced and planned that women are able to take advantage of the new opportunities unleashed by market forces. This would call for not only higher levels of human capital among women, but also the proper space and sequencing of globalization.

The following list details macroeconomic concerns where policy could be enhanced by recognizing the total economic activities including unpaid work:

- Macroeconomic stability, cycle and household labour.
- Assessing stabilization, adjustment and restructuring package.
- Determining the extent to which unpaid work picks up the slack in times of economic recession.
- Buffer effects – that is, intensification of unpaid work to adjust to an economic crisis, time input effects of budget cuts; and privatization of social services.
- National budgets.
- Growth, inequity, human development.
- Savings and investment.

More accurate analysis of time use

A more accurate analysis of time use will:

- Provide for better planning at national, regional and local levels.
- Identify target groups for policies and programmes.
- Provice for more focused agricultural research and human resource policies.
- Identify sectoral problems and intersectoral relationships, justify budgets and assess the distribution of benefits of project and programmes.

- Trade strategies.
- Social policy packages.
- Contribution/resource gap.
- Policy transparency, accountability and greater voice of civil society.

The above approach should be reflected in government resource allocation. It should also translate into terms of supportive policies in legal areas such as property rights of women and the setting up of appropriate institutions among others. The pro-gender bias should be explicit in all major sectoral policies and programmes of a government.

Monitoring and evaluation on concurrent basis

Attempts to integrate unpaid work into policies need to be monitored on a concurrent basis. Such monitoring would help ensure the direction and pace of progress towards integration. It would be necessary to develop indicators for the purpose.

Any assessment of economic policy reform requires a more comprehensive evaluation not only of output or levels of incomes, but also resulting changes in the work burden and intensity of work. The removal of food price subsidies, for example, is usually analysed in terms of shifts in money income and consumption levels, which serve as indicators of the impact on living standards. However, changes in household income and consumption do not adequately convey the other important changes that also may have resulted from such a policy. Longer hours of household work, reduction in sleeping hours or increased time spent on multiple and simultaneous activities have implications for the well-being of men and, more particularly, women. The absence of data, though, on increased unpaid work, overlapping tasks and their impact on health is likely to give a false impression of the effectiveness of the policy reforms. Existing welfare indicators do not take into account the serious consequences of prolonged periods of work intensity and long working hours, particularly for women who maintain their families alone and for those who are likely to be both "time-poor" and "cash-poor".

It will therefore be necessary to develop new indicators to monitor progress in time allocation. Some of the indicators could be:

- Total time spent by men and women on SNA and non-SNA activities per week;
- The share of unpaid work in the total work performed by men and women (per week);
- Time spent on multiple activities (per week) indicating time stress of men and women;

- Personal time (per week) enjoyed by men and women; and

- Time spent by children on SNA activities.

Therefore, governments and institutions need to develop mechanisms that will monitor the impact of policies and programmes on unpaid work. A specific recommendation to the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation forum's Human Resources Development Working Group was the development of a national system to monitor the impact of economic policies and restructuring packages on unpaid work. This type of impact assessment would make visible the often hidden dimensions of economic policy and would provide an accurate assessment of resource use and allocation.

In summary, time-use data, whether from stand-alone studies or part of another survey, can open and initiate discussion on the usually invisible contribution of unpaid work to the national economy. Women have been shown to bear the brunt of day-to-day services that are time consuming and tedious but have not been given due economic value. A balance must be reached between the important family caretaker role of women and their entitlement to self-development as a vital human resource in nation building. The integration of issues on unpaid work into the public policy process arises from the analysis of time-use data and the situation explaining similarities and differences, if any, in the way time is spent by women and men. This section proposes policy areas into which unpaid work concerns affecting women in particular could be integrated. An important aspect of promoting policy action on unpaid work is examining the process that will increase public understanding of the issues and concerns, and mobilizing those persons who have the power to transform time-use data into an agenda for women and men whose unpaid work has not been counted.

module five

ADVOCACY FOR POLICY ON UNPAID WORK

Winning the support of policy makers and stakeholders

module 5

ADVOCACY FOR POLICY ON UNPAID WORK

Winning the support of policy makers and stakeholders

Overview

- There is now a positive and conducive global policy environment recognizing the contribution of unpaid work to the economy and the well-being of society. This international commitment has to translate into national action that will begin to make the statistically invisible unremunerated work of men and women emerge in the System of National Accounts.

- The statistical invisibility of unpaid work prevents the employment of strategies that would provide access to equal development opportunities for women and men in the unremunerated sector as well as for those in the paid sector. Scarce resources for needed interventions, in most cases, could be easily diverted owing to the inability to identify priorities benefiting women whose work is mostly unpaid, as well as men.

- Well-informed decisions are based on high-quality data and information. Words need the support of numbers to influence development. The movement to improve the statistical knowledge base on women's and men's unpaid work will reap dividends in policy-making and in rationalizing resources for development.

- Understanding advocacy adds value to data generation and utilization. The production of statistics becomes meaningful to the extent that they reach identified users at the time they are needed. Advocacy for data utilization in policy-making aims to promote the use of hard information on women's and men's unpaid work in a usable format for decision-making. It also aims to plan, organize, monitor and evaluate timely usage of statistics for various purposes by users of data and information in expanding the support base for needed policy.

- New competency requirements for data generators include not only understanding the policy-making process, but also identifying those who can assist in planning the presentation, dissemination and use of data and information among various groups.

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Purposes of the Module

- To introduce concepts and principles in mobilizing policy action for unpaid work.

- To identify the advocacy aspects in promoting policies on unpaid work.

- To sharpen the skills of statisticians, planners and policy-making staff in communicating policy recommendations to decision-makers and other stakeholders.

What is communication and social mobilization in the context of unpaid work ?

Communication

Communication is a process of exchanging ideas, information and attitudes. The process builds on a two-way interaction or dialogue until mutual understanding is reached. In the context of unpaid work, the goal of communication is to influence the attitudes and behaviour of all those who need to understand the contribution of the unremunerated sector to the national economy. It should lead to policy action that will help create equal development opportunities for unpaid and paid workers, both women and men.

Communication in the context of unpaid work aims to: (a) create public awareness of the issues affecting both women and men; (b) influence policy decisions on unpaid work; and (c) generate societal support for placing unpaid work in the national agenda and mobilize resources for policy implementation, monitoring and review.

Many theories have been suggested in explaining how people come to accept new ideas and adopt new behaviour. There has been a move from blaming the individual in slow or non-acceptance of innovations to include a broader context in which behaviour change occurs. Experience in HIV/AIDS prevention programmes demonstrates the interplay of government policy, socio-economic status, culture, gender relations and spirituality. Also, the trend has been to look more consciously than before at the actor or subject of communication not as passive recipients of messages but as equal partners in the process, able to express views and contribute their thinking.

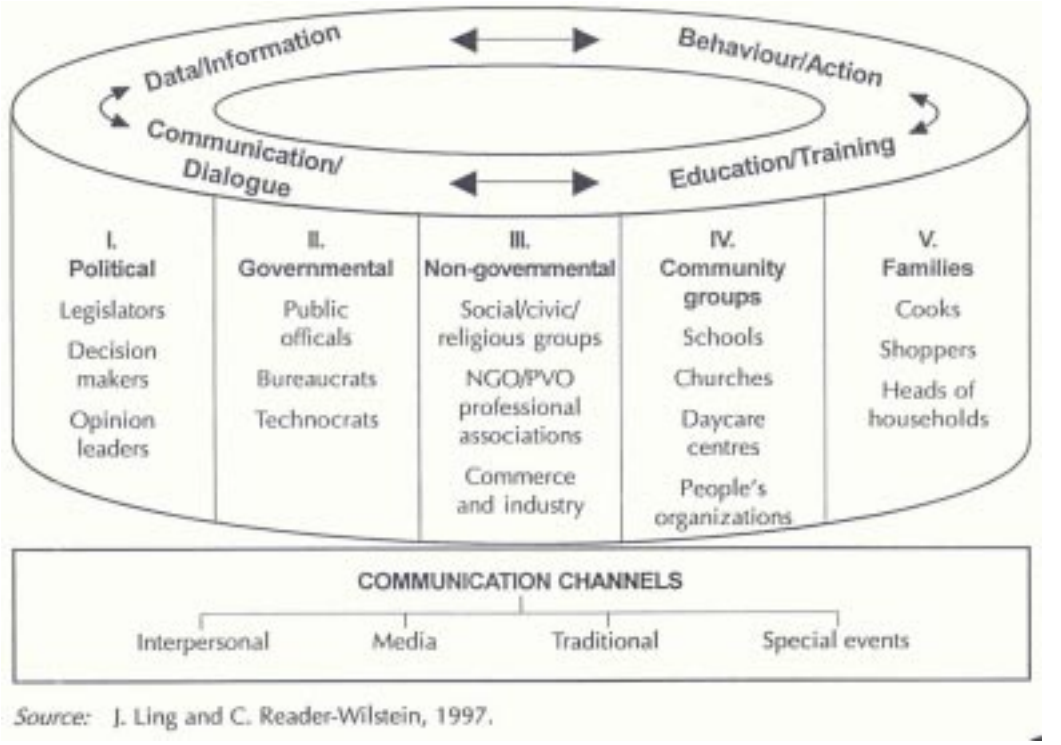
It is this idea of partnership, finding out what interests the partners, encouraging them to see value in the new idea or practice and respecting their ideas to shape a programme, that underlie the mobilization process for social change. Partners are then able to recognize what stake they hold in the new idea or programme and will lend support in their own way.

Social mobilization

Social mobilization has been defined as a process of bringing together all feasible intersectoral social partners and allies to examine needs and raise awareness of, and act collectively to reach, a common goal. It involves engaging all relevant segments and sectors of society in identifying, raising and managing human and material resources in order to increase and strengthen their participation in realizing an agreed goal.

Figure 5.1 identifies five segments of society as key stakeholders in development programmes. Sustainable behaviour change pivots very much on the concerted action of all groups, with each one contributing to achieve a critical mass for a common goal.

Figure 5.1 Social groups in partnership



Source: J. Ling and C. Reader-Wilstein, 1997.

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Who are the key actors and stakeholders in development programmes ?

Political: policy makers

The mobilization of this group aims to build consensus and create a knowledgeable and supportive environment for decision-making. Communication will help set the agenda for policy action, programme and service delivery and, critically, budgetary allocation (table 5.1).

Bureaucratic/technocratic

Government workers and technical experts make up this group. Policy makers rely on technocrats and service professionals to provide the rationale for decisions and for planning and implementing programmes. Informed decisions need to be backed up by hard data.

Professional, civil and social

This group includes national non-government groups, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and special interest groups. They represent organized support, an important element for common action. Their presence in the community makes NGOs a vital link between government

Table 5.1. Basic elements of social mobilization

Inputs	Process	Outcomes	Impact
National partners **I. Political** • Policy/legislative action • Agenda setting • Resource commitment **II. Bureaucratic and technocratic** • Policy/programme development • Resource allocation • Implementation **III. Professional, civic and social** • Policy/programme advocate • Implementation **IV. Community-based organizations** • Programme advocated • Implementation • Needs articulated **V. Families and individuals** • Programme advocate • Implementation • Needs articulated Support from international development agencies	Information collection/analysis Advocacy Marketing Media outreach Technical assistance Training Communication/ education Community organization Involvement Behavioural action	Partnership results **I. Political level** • Policy established • National resources committed • Agenda promoted **II. Bureaucratic and technocratic levels** • Policy established • National resources committed • Programmes promoted **III. Professional/civic/ social levels** • Programmes advocated • Programmes implemented • Programmes maintained **IV. Community level** • Programmes advocate • Programmes accepted • Programmes implemented • Programmes maintained **V. Family and individual level** • Programmes advocated • Programmes accepted • Programmes implemented • Programmes maintained	Increased choice Enhanced skills and capacities Improved information flow and meaningful interaction between societal levels Improved individual and community ability to manage efforts to improve their own situation Improved development status

Source: J. Ling and C. Reader – Wilstein, 1997.

services and the community they serve. Maintaining this interaction allows and strengthens the NGO-government organization-community collaboration, which is the key to seeking support for policy, action and resources.

Community-based organizations

These organizations cover local groups such as schools, churches and grassroots organizations. The arena for action remains at the community level. Understanding issues and the community's role in problem solving makes communication highly relevant at this level particularly as national goals are converted into local action.

Families and individuals

They make up the important subjects of policy decisions and action. Household members ultimately decide to adopt or reject a new idea or practice. Their participation is crucial in gathering data and statistics for policy decisions as well as in ensuring that the policies are acted upon. Appropriate communication will help families make informed choices and provide the channel for articulating their needs.

The basic elements of social mobilization combine to produce the agreed and intended impact as presented in table 5.1, which illustrates: (a) who the national partners may be (inputs); (b) how partners work together (process); (c) what partners are trying to accomplish (outcomes); and (d) what partners hope will be the effect on development (impact). Social mobilization is founded on partnerships, participation and popular commitment at various levels. Advocacy, media work, training, communication and education, and community involvement are strategies for mobilizing participation, partnerships and commitment, all of which use the process, tools and techniques of communication to influence behaviour.

As a broad societal approach, social mobilization maximizes the impact of communication efforts. It combines the various elements in a synchronized and simultaneous manner to result in policy action, plans, programme implementation and resource allocation. This dimension allows a mix of convergent strategies or processes hastening the achievement of a goal faster than otherwise possible if only one or two strategies were employed.

What are the processes and strategies for mobilizing action ?

A thorough situation analysis provides a starting point in determining opportunities for mobilizing action. The "strategy mix" will depend on the situation analysis. Information has to be obtained on the characteristics, interests and ideas on the issue of those who need to be mobilized, could be mobilized and should be mobilized. The analysis will also help select the best approach or means to communicate with them. Underlying these processes is behaviour development and change resulting in a specific outcome. Monitoring and evaluation are essential components of each process or element of social mobilization.

Advocacy

This is the deliberate and strategic use of information to gain the support of decision makers and influence their behaviour in a specified way. It is the act of persuading, convincing and pleading for a cause. The process involves organizing information to influence the choices to be considered in making a decision. Advocacy promotes better understanding of the issues among those who have the power to change the environment within which "changes in the behaviour of people about their own lives" take place.

Marketing

Social mobilization uses the techniques of marketing in focusing on the specific, or segments of, actors whose understanding, perception and attitudes are the key to the expected behavioural outcome. A thorough knowledge of the various actors helps define the specific message as well as the most effective strategy and mix of communication channels to interact with them at different stages of behaviour change.

Media outreach

The media provide powerful tools to reach the greatest number of people in the shortest time possible. They have a critical role in generating public support and in agenda setting, especially for advocacy purposes. The media can generate public awareness by initiating discussion and debate on pertinent issues in support of the other elements in mobilizing action.

Training

An integral part of social mobilization is training and capacity-building in social mobilization work. Working collectively towards a common goal requires building and sustaining partnerships and networks. Social mobilization work demands competencies from various actors for meaningful participation in the entire process. To increase understanding and improve skills, training is an essential component of the broader institutional capacity-building for sustained social mobilization work.

Communication/education

This element involves: (a) identifying the users who need to, should be and can be mobilized; (b) analysing their information needs and expected behavioural outcomes; (c) designing messages; (d) selecting the appropriate communication channel that would allow interaction and feedback; (e) producing information materials; (f) disseminating or releasing; and (g) monitoring and evaluation. Understanding the issues involved in unpaid work requires "believable" information that can come from reliable sources.

Community organizing/ participation

The main subjects of social mobilization are the families and households that constitute the community. The arena for action on any issue is the community itself where, ultimately, decisions are made. Mobilizing community action involves giving people the opportunity to make their own decisions on issues or problems that they are or should be concerned with. Enduring community action depends on the extent to which people have been able to identify their own problems and are able to decide on the best way to overcome them.

Participation has implications in helping the community strengthen its capability for decision-making. Capacity-building would include: (a) agenda setting; (b) maintaining a dialogue with the families and households as well as political decision makers; (c) using information for decision-making; (d) selecting alternatives; (e) identifying implementing steps; and (f) monitoring and managing selected action.

Why advocate for counting unpaid work

The invisibility of unpaid work in the System of National Accounts gives it a low priority in terms of programmes, services and resource allocation benefiting unpaid workers. International commitments to improve the situation of those working in the unpaid sector, especially women, have to be translated into national policies for implementation. Policies are a mechanism that allow the State to introduce change and reverse the trend.

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In the context of unpaid work, advocacy is the deliberate and strategic use of information to influence policy makers to select options that will promote equal development opportunities for women and men in the unpaid sector as is the case with their counterparts in the paid sector. As a strategy for communicating with and mobilizing political and social leaders, advocacy involves a process of gathering, organizing and formulating information into arguments to bring about political and social leadership acceptance and commitment for action and resources.

Advocacy aims to influence the decision-making process by initiating and maintaining a dialogue with those who can act on the issue of unpaid work. It begins with arguments to deepen a decision-maker's understanding of the problem and facilitate a change in perception. Such arguments are based on evidence culled from data and statistics and presented in a form that allows choices for action. In the process, groupings, networks and coalitions come together to provide support to influence decision-making. All means and channels

Advocacy is winning the support of key constituencies in order to influence policies and spending, and bring about social change.

Why advocate for counting unpaid work?

- Unpaid work makes an important contribution to the national economy, and yet remains unrecognized.
- Women's and men's unpaid work has remained invisible but when valued, will reflect a more realistic estimate of total economic production.
- The invisibility of women and men in unpaid work excludes them from development opportunities enjoyed by those in the paid sector.
- Gender disparities exist in the formal sector but even more so in the informal sector where women carry the greater burden of unpaid work than men.
- Policy, programmes, services and resource allocation for unpaid work can reverse gender disparities and create an impact on a country's development.
- The rights of women and men, without discrimination, must be realized.

of communication, including the media, assist not only in influencing the decision makers but also in helping to create a cadre of issue-oriented advocates.

An essential first step in advocacy is to communicate to policy makers a clear concise message regarding the following points.

- **Unpaid work counts.** This idea describes the value of unremunerated work and its contribution to the economy. It highlights the invisibility of unpaid work and counters the view that those outside the formal work setting do not make any economic contribution at all.
- **Women carry the burden of unpaid work.** Women spend long hours in unpaid work. The trend in some countries in the Asia-Pacific region shows women work an average of _____ unpaid hours annually with a total value of US$ _____ compared with _____ hours for men. Policy makers will have to pay attention to the issue of redressing women's double burden of doing both paid and unpaid work in the global effort to address gender equality.
- **Programmes and services for unpaid workers are good investments.** Each country has a mandate to promote equally the well-being and economic productivity of its most important resources – men and women alike. Investments in programmes and services for unpaid workers will return in terms of greater productivity and improved quality of life for the greater majority who are, more often than not, excluded from enjoying the benefits of development. The SNA will reflect the value of unpaid work as investment in nurturing human capital and thus provide a more realistic estimate of the total values of all economic production.

5

From statistics to key messages

Unpaid work counts.

- Unpaid activities essential to day-to-day living include.....
- Women do.....hours of unpaid work every week valued at US$.....
- Men do.....hours of unpaid work every week valued at US$.....

Women carry the burden of unpaid work.

- Women spend.....hours of unpaid work and.....hours of paid work every week.
- Men spend.....hours of unpaid work and.....hours of paid work every week.

Programmes and services for unpaid workers are good investments.

- US$.....will provide basic education to girls, an investment for a woman's preparation for life.
- US$.....will pay for.....
- US$.....will pay for.....

What does advocacy mean in policy-making

Advocacy becomes effective to the extent of timing the appropriate intervention with each stage in the policy-making process. Understanding how advocacy works is just as necessary as having full knowledge of the policy-making process and vice versa. While policy-making bodies vary from country to country, depending on the political system, the process nevertheless will remain similar. Each step in the process is matched with the necessary advocacy intervention. This will help ensure that the needed course of action in dealing with the issue of unpaid work is arrived at and articulated as a national goal. Table 5.2 presents the policy-making process and the proposed advocacy intervention.

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Table 5.2. Proposed advocacy intervention in the policy-making process

Phase	Characteristics	Key advocacy messages	Activities/events
Agenda setting	Parliament/Congress. Relevant Ministers place issue of unpaid work in the public agenda; advocacy to legitimize issue.	• Unpaid workers are economically productive members of society. • Unpaid workers contribute millions of dollars to the economy but never counted. • More women than men do unpaid work. • Unpaid workers do not have social protection. • Unpaid workers should have social security entitlements as paid workers.	• Awareness-raising: – Media launch of report on TUS, valuation of unpaid work and situation analysis – Press conferences with political leaders and key officials – Media dialogue on social protection of unpaid workers, among politicians, trade and industry workers, civil society organizations (CSOs) and women

Continued

Table 5.2. *(continued)*

Phase	Characteristics	Key advocacy messages	Activities/events
Policy formulation	Parliament/Congress. Relevant Ministers formulate alternative policies to deal with the problem. Bill/Act of Parliament or Congress is filed. Advocacy to seek Support for passage of policy/legislation; seek support for resource allocation.	• Programmes/services for unpaid workers are socially and politically good investments. • Ignoring unpaid workers has consequences for the economy. • Improved situation of unpaid workers rebounds to support a healthy economy.	• Motivation of policy-makers as advocates of legislative agenda for unpaid workers: – Prepare/use fact sheets/info/ briefing kits for policy makers; – Prepare talking points/presentation materials. • Building/nurturing cadre of civil society advocates to support "unpaid worker-friendly" politicians: – CSO-organized public fora; – Media dialogue of CSO with politicians; – CSO participation in public hearings; – Continue awareness-raising activities.
Policy adoption	A policy alternative is adopted with the support of a legislative majority, consensus among relevant ministries. Advocacy seeks support programme. Implementation and assurance of resource allocation for programmes/services.	• Key features of the policy. • Social protection for unpaid workers will benefit men and women without discrimination. • Programmes and services addressing unpaid workers will have long lasting impact on the well-being of men and women.	• Primer on the policy. • Press conferences on the features of the policy and how this will benefit unpaid workers. • Dialogue with ministries on implementation plans. • CSO-organized forums on role of community groups in implementation.

Continued

Table 5.2. *(continued)*

Phase	Characteristics	Key advocacy messages	Activities/events
Policy implementation	A policy adopted by the legislative body is carried out by the responsible executive and administrative units. Advocacy seeks to motivate implementors and encourage CSOs to monitor implementation.	• Key features of the policy. • Unpaid workers stand to benefit from the policy. • Partnership between relevant ministries/ administrative units and community groups is vital to successful implementation. • Investments in programmes and services for well-being of unpaid workers produce returns in terms of improved day-to-day living situation of unpaid men and women workers.	• Primer on programmes and services covered by the policy. • Fact sheets on returns to investment in resource allocation for programmes/services. • Dialogue on progress of policy implementation. • Testimonials of participating unpaid workers on programme benefits.
Policy assessment	Policy audit and monitoring of accountabilities determine extent of realizing objectives and compliance with statutory requirements of the policy.	• Results of policy review.	• Fact sheets on policy assessment findings. • Press conferences on strengths/weaknesses of the policy, if any. • Dialogue on amendments, changes, modifications, if necessary.

Characteristics of an effective advocate

- Ability to prepare and plan: knows exactly the "wants" to achieve; prepared for arguments with supporting documents, counter arguments, and prepared with alternative decision options.
- Knowledgeable about subject matter being advocated.
- Knowledgeable about environment and situation.
- Knowledgeable about the leaders and decision-makers.
- Personal skills: ability to express thoughts clearly, persuade, and win respect and confidence.
- Personal traits: patience, self-control, amiable personality.

What are the steps for effective advocacy ?

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An advocacy strategy is a combination of methods and approaches, messages and tools by which the planner seeks to achieve the communication objectives (table 5.3).

Define the situation

- What are the specific facts about men's and women's work?
- What do statistics tell about "unpaid work"?
- What facts will:
  - Assess the situation of women?
  - Highlight disparities between men and women in social indicators?
  - Show the economic contribution of women's unpaid work?
  - Show that improving women's access to basic services makes economic sense?
  - Note the benefits of women's programmes and services vis-à-vis resource allocation?
  - Demonstrate the consequences of inaction?
  - Make women's unpaid work relevant to policy makers, implementors, NGOs, families and communities?

The most persuasive facts are those that are backed by data and statistics converted into information that policy makers can relate to.

Identify the audiences

- Who are you "talking" to (tabe 5.4)?
  - Primary audience: policy makers;
  - Secondary audience: bureaucrats; civil society organizations such as NGOs, community organizations including women's organizations, and civic, religious and professional groups; the media; academe and institutions; private business corporations; and international organizations and donors.

Table 5.3. Differences between scientific and advocacy communication

Science	Advocacy
Detailed explanations are useful.	Simplification is preferable.
Extensive qualifications can be necessary for scholarly credibility.	Identified issues from research and studies can make the message powerful.
Technical language can add greater clarity and precision.	Simple language improves understanding of issues.
Several points can be made in a single research paper.	A core with supporting messages is essential.
Be objective and unbiased.	Present a passionate compelling argument based on fact.
Build your case gradually before presenting conclusions.	State your conclusions first, then support them.
Supporting evidence is vital.	Choose key facts and figures on which the audience can focus.
Well-prepared and well-thought out research and presentations add credibility.	Quick, but accurate, preparations and action are often necessary to take advantage of opportunities.
The support of experts in the research area is relevant.	The fact that a famous celebrity supports your cause may be of great benefit.
Many in the field believe that scientific truth is objective.	Many in the field believe that political truth is subjective.

Source: Adapted from *TB Advocacy – A Practical Guide*, World Health Organization, 1998.

Policy makers make up the primary audience. But there are also others who would need to know about the situation of women and men engaged in unpaid work. They could support and reinforce the call for policy action. They will be the secondary audiences. Researching the audience is an important part of being able to develop messages and information materials that are relevant to their concern and which will have a better chance of being listened to. Information to be gathered includes age, sex, specific interests and responsibilities, level of knowledge about the subject and support for past public issues.

Package the message

In communicating with policy makers:

- Keep the written message simple; for advocacy, well-crafted facts are more effective than too much technical information.
- Use a summary of implications in powerful language that creates a sense of urgency and human interest stories.
- Share something new concerning what is not known about women's work.
- Keep the visual message interesting; images have a more immediate impact than too many words.
- Tailor your message to the audience by getting more information about their specific interests, level of knowledge on the subject matter, and the best way to communicate.

Some printed formats for use with policy makers and stakeholders

- Policy briefs: one to two pages of key issues and policy options.
- Briefing paper: A one- or two-page summary of implications and key facts supporting findings. Give enough information policy makers/advocates can use to address meetings or leads for follow-up action.
- Survey/study note: A three- to five-page expanded summary of implications and key supporting findings for bureaucrats.
- Talking points: A one- to three-page list of implications and key supporting findings for leaders and practitioners to address civil society groups.

Table 5.4. Aiming advocacy messages at different audiences

Audience	Potential concerns	Possible messages
Decision makers/politicians • President/Prime Minister • Congress/Parliament • Ministers of Health, Education, Labour, Finance • Local government units	• Budgetary implications • Public opinion • Opportunity to show leadership and take credit for success • The liabilities of inaction	• Unless unpaid workers become visible, their contribution to economic production remains unaccounted for. • Unpaid women and men workers while economically productive do not have equal opportunities as paid workers. • Improving the situation of unpaid workers, especially women, will help nurture a more productive human capital.
Donors • Multilateral agencies (e.g., United Nations, World Bank, Asian Development Bank) • Bilateral agencies (e.g., SIDA, CIDA, USAID, DFID) • Foundations • Private business corporations	• Potential benefits of funding assistance • Project impact – results and cost effectiveness • Sustainability of projects	• Increasing access of unpaid workers especially women, to health, education and basic services will promote equal development opportunities as with men and as with women in the paid sector. • Improved data and statistical base of unpaid workers provide a rational basis for policy, programmes, services and resource allocation.

Continued

Table 5.4. *(continued)*

Audience	Potential concerns	Possible messages
Journalists • Economic/labour analysts/reporters • Gender/women's issues reporters • Editors • Columnists/feature writers • Foreign print and broadcast media correspondents • Editorial cartoonists • News value and timeliness	• Potential debate/ • Controversy • Has the story been told before? Exclusivity • Visuals/facts to back up arguments/spokespeople	• Key messages will depend on the media outlet, column or programme. • Time-use data and statistics could be used in news stories/programmes. A day in the life of an unpaid man/woman worker in various countries/ locations is a source of feature stories.
NGOs, national and international • Women's/men's organizations • Development organizations • Human rights organizations	• Donor and institutional support • Impact of gender issues on women, children, men • Common agenda • Potential role/ responsibilities	• Unpaid workers, especially women, carry the double burden of domestic work and family care. • Policy action can open opportunities for self-development of unpaid workers.
Programme Implementors • Public and private sector development/human rights/ gender issues workers • Research and academic institutions	• Programme/service/ funding support • Implications to current roles and responsibilities	• The collection and analysis of time-use data can highlight gender disparities in work settings. • Time-use data provide information for policy options.
General Public • Public opinion can have a strong influence on governments	• Understanding/recognition/ acceptance of gender issues underlying paid/unpaid work; Government, NGO and international support for issues	• Every home has at least one unpaid worker who contributes significantly to the household income.

Work with the media and the new information technology

News and information travel fastest through the media. Events at the national or global levels are easily brought to the attention of the public by broadcast and print media as well as the new information technology including mobile telephones. As a channel for news and information, the media sets the stage for a political dialogue and interaction with the public. The new information technology has not only made issues visible and placed them on the "screen" of decision makers, it has also become more interactive than the traditional one-way media. In normal and crisis situations, the media and the new information technology have proven their vital role in mobilizing public support and setting the political agenda.

Advocacy work is very much facilitated when technical workers who produce data and statistics team up with the media and other information personnel. Knowing the local, national and international media is a first step. Preparing information material, including figures and facts to highlight key points, comes next. Media personnel can use leads on significant findings or issues identified to raise questions and decide how to treat the story. A human interest angle is easily offered by the story of a woman whose unpaid work is given a monetary value in a country and compared with her counterpart in other countries.

Advocacy demands sustained media support that has to be nurtured jointly by the technical staff who are responsible for producing the needed information and the media who will be responsible for putting it in a form that will arouse the interest of decision makers.

Build networks and mobilize advocates

In generating wider support for a policy, it is crucial to identify partners who can help advocate to policy makers. Lobby groups and special interest groups are potential allies who can help to articulate the message about a policy benefiting unpaid workers. The more groups there are who join the cause for programmes, services and funding support to improve the day-to-day living situation of unpaid workers, the more difficult it is for policy makers to ignore the plea.

Meaningful partnerships emerge when collaborating groups are able to understand the situation of unpaid workers and agree to support advocacy for the needed action. A clear presentation of the findings (for example, from time-use surveys) will help right from the beginning.

Build on the advocacy initiative for unpaid workers and gender equality

Advocacy for integrating unpaid work into the national policy agenda begins as early as planning the collection of time-use data. It proceeds as results are reported back. The situation analysis becomes an important advocacy tool as it will indicate directions for policy options. The role of advocacy in the policy-making process has been dealt with in this module. Initiatives in promoting gender equality in the country offer another avenue to integrating advocacy for equal development opportunities for unpaid workers.

Steps to build support from policy-makers

- Be familiar with the national and local policy-making process in the country including the budgetary allocation calendar.
- Identify the relevant law-making committee/sub-committee/task group and its members at different levels, including the appropriations committee.
- Identify one policy maker or a group of influential policy makers who can be urged to espouse a policy option benefiting unpaid workers, making sure that the appropriations committee is represented.
- Use different communication channels to reach important policy makers. A policy maker's staff, friends and associates are key channels as are the media and lobby/advocacy groups.
- Make sure the social, economic and political relevance of messages on unpaid work is clear. Show the value of unpaid work by men and women and its contribution to the economy. Show how much it will cost to invest in programmes and services that will increase their efficiency and free their time for paid work.
- Articulate clearly the gender disparities and exclusion of women unpaid workers from their entitlements as persons.
- Articulate clearly the returns in terms of economic efficiency of men and women unpaid workers to the investment for policy implementation.
- Allude to the potential political benefits of showing leadership on an issue and the potential political consequences of failing to take action.
- Work with the staff of the sponsoring policy maker(s) in developing a policy option, including implementing rules and guidelines to hasten future implementation.
- Recognize the bureaucratic, budgetary and administrative constraints that exist in governments.
- Beware of the influence of conflicting special interests on the issue.
- Maintain communication with policy makers and lobby/advocacy support groups including the media and partner organizations.

5

How can one tell if advocacy is working ?

At the policy/political level, three key indicators have been proposed:

- **Formulated policy/legislative action**
  - Comprehensive development policy: well-defined socio-economic-cultural goals for women and men in unpaid work among State priorities;
  - Integrated health, education, social welfare and economic policy with intersectoral and people participation.
- **Public agenda setting**
  - Use of and access to appropriate media, modern and traditional, for specific audiences;

- Support of opinion leaders via various channels;
- Media events organized and held regularly (that is, press conferences, proactive forums and events);
- Integration of issues into speeches, intersectoral and international meetings, public relations and publications.

- **Resource commitment**
  - Approved budgetary items for identified programmes in the national development plan;
  - Inclusion of relevant programmes/ services and resource allocation in the national investment plan;
  - Continuous monitoring of budgetary allocation and expenditure for identified programmes.

It is important to monitor the advocacy plan in terms of: (a) those being reached; (b) the level of understanding of the issues for which policy action is sought; (c) the action taken by the various stakeholders; (d) the individuals and groups who have committed to support the action; and (e) the subsequent policy, programmes, services and resources allocated as a result of the advocacy. The advocacy plan must therefore have a built-in monitoring scheme that will signal the progress of the advocacy activities as well as the expected output or outcome of each one.

In summary, advocacy for integrating the issues on unpaid work into the policy agenda initially involves identifying the decision makers who can transform time-use data and statistics into public action benefiting workers, both men and women. Identifying the policy issues that emanate from time-use data reinforced by a situation analysis helps pinpoint the needed public action. Advocates should seize the policy-making process as a resource in promoting the concerns and visibility of unpaid work. Advocacy that is purposive should result in programmes, services and resource allocation that will allow unpaid women workers in particular access to development opportunities. It is important to note that advocacy is part of a holistic framework for mobilizing action and resources for unpaid workers, both men and women.

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module six

COUNTRY EXPERIENCES:

Some practical cases

COUNTRY EXPERIENCES: Some practical cases

Part I. From statistics to national policies on unpaid work : The case of the Republic of Korea

Introduction

The experience of the Republic of Korea provides an excellent example of how to meet the challenge of bringing reality to the concepts and methodologies presented in this Guidebook. The Government has taken bold steps in recognizing the economic contribution of unpaid work particularly of women. It has taken a leadership role in demonstrating how the results and findings of a time-use survey translate into national policies and programmes benefiting unpaid workers. The experience highlights issues that surfaced in a process that began with collecting time-use data, followed by valuating unpaid work and a committed effort to generating policy action.

The experience of the Republic of Korea presents: (a) a practical application of a survey methodology and tools in gathering time-use data; (b) three approaches to measuring the economic value of unpaid work; (c) a situational analysis to determine factors that influence unpaid work; and (d) ways of working with policy-makers given policy options arising from data, statistics and information. All were undertaken in the spirit of integrating the issues and concerns of unpaid work into national policies.

National time-use survey

Although there has been some interest in including unpaid work in the SNA of the Republic of Korea, until recently, there were few incentives for allocating resources to measuring the economic value of unpaid work. However, initiatives that were started by Eurostat and the Fourth United Nations World Conference on Women in Beijing in the use of time-use surveys as a method of valuing unremunerated work, have provided renewed interest in measuring unpaid work in the Republic of Korea.

The National Statistical Office (NSO) took the lead in carrying out the National Time-Use Survey in September 1999. But prior to the survey, NSO carried out three pilot surveys in 1998. These pilot surveys made use of three types of questionnaires:

(a) the household questionnaire;

(b) the individual questionnaire; and

(c) the time diary.

The time diary was especially important, primarily because it gave specific information and references on the type and amount of activities that the country's women and men engaged in. Moreover, the time diary provided researchers with a "round-the-clock" account of their activities.

An open-design survey questionnaire was used since it was deemed more capable of generating quality data. Also, under an open-design scheme, respondents were free to list activities that may not have been included in the 125 categorized activities pre-selected by the researchers.[1] Respondents provided very specific details about their activities, which may not have been possible if the questionnaire had been a close-ended design. The drawback, however, was that sorting and classifying the results of the open-design method became very laborious and time-consuming.

Purpose

The main objective of the National Time-Use Survey was to gain descriptive and empirical evidence of time spent by households and individuals in the Republic of Korea on productive and other activities such as travel, personal care and leisure. The survey was also aimed at looking specifically into the time spent by the country's women and men in unpaid work activities.

Respondents

A total of 17,000 households and 46,109 individuals aged 10 years and above from 850 enumerated districts were randomly selected to form the survey sample. Female respondents accounted for 51.5 per cent of the sample, while male respondents accounted for 48.5 per cent. The survey covered three levels: the household, the individual and the diary day.

[1] Prior to the pilot surveys, researchers identified, categorized and coded 125 types of activities. Those activities were seen as the main and most common activities engaged in by women and men in the Republic of Korea.

Methodology

In carrying out the survey, trained interviewers visited their assigned respondents to conduct face-to-face household and individual interviews, after which the time diaries were distributed to the randomly selected household respondents. The following day, the trained interviewers went back to their assigned respondents to review and collect the individual time diaries. This was also the time when the respondents were given their token gifts for participating in the survey.[2]

The responses to the survey questionnaire were then sorted out and coded by the trained interviewers, then collated and summarized.

Results

Activities of women and men in the Republic of Korea

As shown in figure 6.1, economic activity is divided into two types: SNA or non-SNA activity. Activities classified as falling under the SNA are productive activities for the market and are productive activities for own use. Non-SNA activities are productive activities in the household sector (e.g., house maintenance, family care and volunteer activities).

On the average, women and men in the Republic of Korea spend shorter productive working hours compared to women and men in other countries. This is basically due to two factors: (a) there is a difference in how productive activity is defined; and (b) people in the Republic of Korea spend an enormous amount of their time learning or studying between the ages of 10 and 25 years. Boys and girls spend an average of 8 hours and 30 minutes a day in educational activities, peaking upon reaching high school. This pattern in time use among boys and girls in the Republic of Korea is attributed largely to the educational system of the country, which determines who is eligible to enter college as well as the ratio of students who can move on to the higher grade levels.

Colleges in the Republic of Korea select students based on scholastic achievement. Most students around the age of 17 years devote more time to studying in order to be able to get better grades. Only after high school do many begin to enter the labour market.

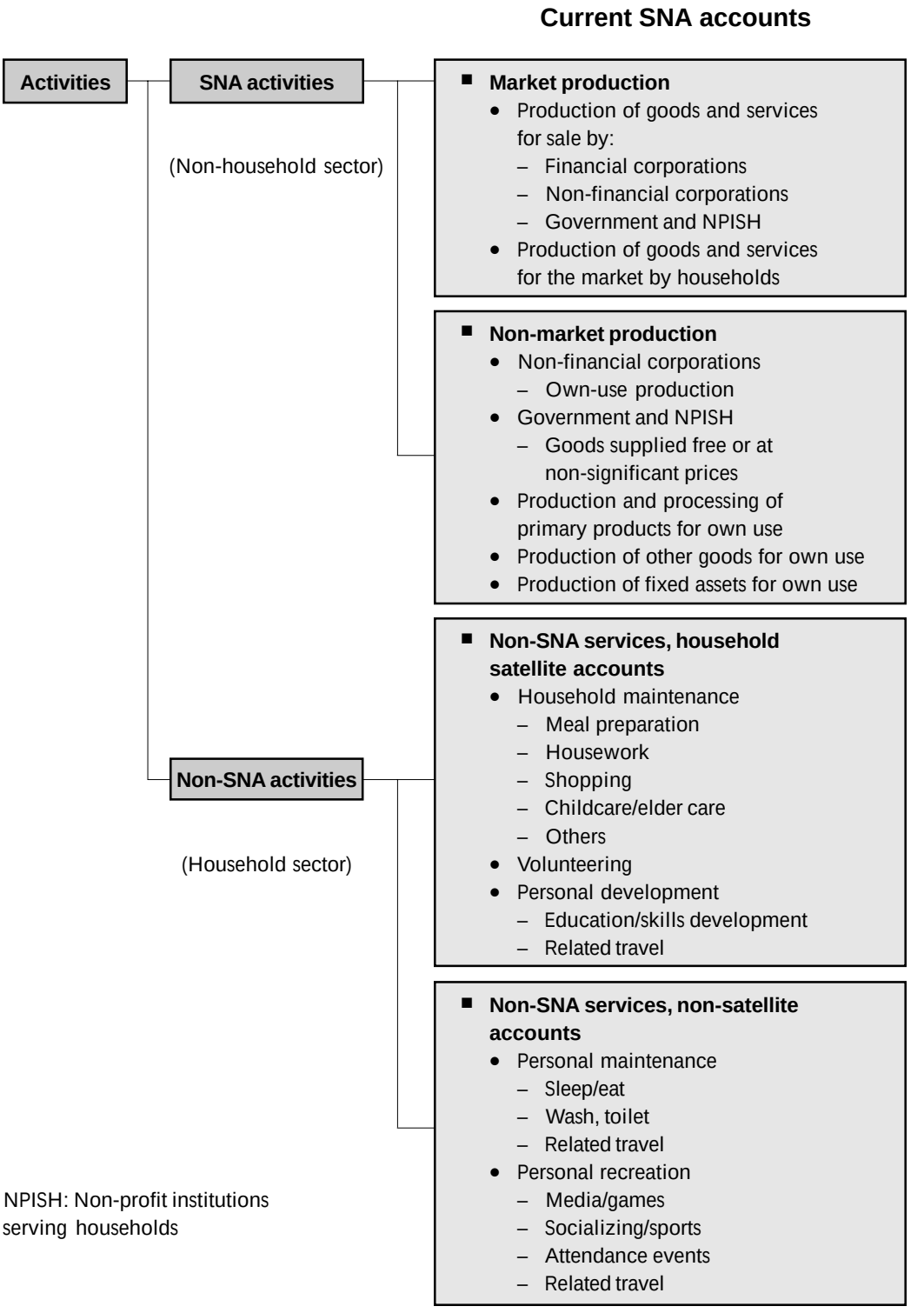
People in the Republic of Korea perform mostly SNA-type activities. SNA activities account for 64.1 per cent of productive work, while non-SNA activities account for 35.9 per cent. Compared to people from other countries, they spend a larger percentage of their time on SNA activities (table 6.1.).

Table 6.1. Ratio of SNA and non-SNA of economic activity by sex

	Males			Females		
	SNA	Non-SNA	Total	SNA	Non-SNA	Total
Republic of Korea	86.4	13.6	100.0	44.8	55.2	100.0
Means of 13 advanced States	66.0	34.0	100.0	34.0	66.0	100.0
Means of 9 under-advanced States	76.0	24.0	100.0	34.0	66.0	100.0

[2] Gift prices ranged between W2,000 (US$2) to W10,000 (US$10). Token gifts were given as incentives to the respondents.

Figure 6.1. Classification of activities based on SNA



NPISH: Non-profit institutions serving households

Differences in activities between women and men

Women spend more time on productive work than men in the Republic of Korea. However, most of the productive work done by women is classified as unpaid work. The survey results show that 86.4 per cent of the work carried out by men comprises SNA activities. Work carried out by women, meanwhile, comprises mostly non-SNA activities. Table 6.2 shows that men are involved mostly in activities that produce goods and services for the market, while women are mostly involved in activities involving housework (e.g., house maintenance, family care and volunteer work).

Differences in activities and time spent on unpaid work between women and men

People in the Republic of Korea aged 10 years and above spend an average of 6 hours and 27 minutes a day on productive activities. The women, though, spend as much as 1.5 times more than the time spent by men on productive activities. Men spend a total of 5 hours and 59 minutes daily in performing productive activities while women spend nearly 7 hours daily in productive activities.

However, most of the productive activities of women are unpaid work. Men spend very little time on unpaid work: only 49 minutes daily. Women, on the other hand, spend nearly as much as 4 hours daily performing unpaid work. Further, unlike men, who are estimated to spend very short hours on unpaid work throughout their lives, women will spend an average of 4 to 6 hours daily on unpaid work from the age of 30.

The average time spent on unpaid work is 2 hours and 19 minutes daily, with food preparation, family care, house and clothes cleaning as their primary unpaid activities (table 6.3). The men concentrate mostly on house maintenance activities such as housework-related travel and house repairs, while the women give more time to prepare meals, clean clothes and the home, and take care of the family.

Details of unpaid work done by women

Further analysis of the survey results revealed that significant changes occurred in women's activities and time allocation when they reached their 20s, which was most often the time they married. From then on, the productive activity of women shifted mainly into unpaid work.

Table 6.2. Ratio of productive activity by sex

	Males		Females		Total	
	Time (hrs.; mins.)	Ratio (%)	Time (hrs.; mins.)	Ratio (%)	Time (hrs.; mins.)	Ratio (%)
Non-SNA	0:49	13.6	3:48	55.2	2:20	36.1
SNA	5:10	86.4	3:06	44.8	4:07	63.9
Total productive activity	5:59	100.0	6:54	100.0	6:27	100.0

Table 6.3. Present conditions and ratio of time in non-SNA per day by gender

	Males		Females		Total	Means	
	Time (hrs.; mins.)	Ratio (%)	Time (hrs.; mins.)	Ratio (%)	Gender ratio (%)	Time (hrs.; mins.)	Activity ratio (%)
Housework							
Food preparation	0:04.6	(5.1)	1:25.5	(94.9)	(100.0)	0:45.3	(37.4)
Clothes care	0:01.1	(4.3)	0:23.9	(95.7)	(100.0)	0:12.6	(10.5)
Cleaning/arrangement	0:06.8	(17.2)	0:32.6	(82.8)	(100.0)	0:19.8	(14.3)
House upkeep	0:04.6	(58.7)	0:03.3	(41.3)	(100.0)	0:03.9	(1.4)
Purchasing goods	0:03.0	(18.1)	0:13.5	(81.9)	(100.0)	0:08.3	(5.9)
Household management	0:00.8	(27.5)	0:02.1	(72.5)	(100.0)	0:01.5	(0.9)
Other household activity	0:00.1	(40.1)	0:00.2	(59.9)	(100.0)	0:00.1	(0.1)
Related travel	0:13.5	(52.6)	0:12.1	(47.4)	(100.0)	0:12.8	(5.3)
Family care							
Family care	0:08.2	(16.7)	0:40.6	(83.3)	(100.0)	0:24.5	(17.7)
Related travel	0:03.4	(24.4)	0:10.6	(75.6)	(100.0)	0:07.1	(4.6)
Voluntary services							
Voluntary services	0:01.6	(38.8)	0:02.5	(61.2)	(100.0)	0:02.1	(1.1)
Related travel	0:01.3	(39.7)	0:01.9	(60.3)	(100.0)	0:01.6	(0.8)
Total unpaid work	0:48.9	(17.6)	3:49.0	(82.4)	(100.0)	2:19.5	(100.0)

The unpaid work of women comprised three major activities: meal preparation, cleaning and clothes preparation, and family care. Women, in general, spend an average of one hour and 26 minutes a day on meal preparation. But women who are in their 30s, and are mostly married, spend as much as two to three hours a day on meal preparation until their 50s. Full-time wives, meanwhile, spend a little more time on meal preparation, cleaning and clothes preparation. The amount of time spent on these activities increases as women marry and have children.

However, the same time-use trend did not apply to family care activities, mostly childcare. Women aged 25 to 35 years spend an average of two hours a day taking care of their pre-school children until they reach their 50s by which time the children are mostly in school. Women in their 60s again experience longer working hours in attending to pre-school children, who are mostly their grandchildren.

Valuing unpaid work

Methods for valuing unpaid work

The two methods of estimating the monetary value of unpaid work are the input and the output approaches. The details of these methods are dealt with extensively in Module 2. The estimates for the Republic of Korea used the input approach where the value of unpaid work is obtained by multiplying an appropriate wage rate by the number of hours spent on unpaid labour. The value is arrived at either by using an

"opportunity cost approach" (OCA) or a "market cost approach" (MCA).

OCA is based on the assumption that a reasonable economic subject will perform unpaid work until the marginal value of unpaid work is equal to the market wage. The average market wage rate is used as the value in measuring the hourly rate of unpaid work.

MCA, meanwhile, is based on the wage a paid worker will receive if hired to do the work. There are two types of MCA: the specialist method or the MCA-1 (i.e., the cost of work if a specialist were to be hired) and the generalist method or MCA-2 (i.e., the cost of work if a general housekeeper were to be hired). MCA-1 assigns different hourly rates for different types of work, while MCA-2 designates a fixed rate for the whole activity.

Value of unpaid work: OCA, MCA-1 and MCA-2

Although the values generated by these methods differ, the general value of unpaid work ranges between W 145 trillion and W 257 trillion, or roughly 30 to 53 per cent of GDP in the Republic of Korea. The OCA-3 method generated the highest value for unpaid work at W 257 trillion (or 53 per cent of total GDP of W 483 trillion in 1999; table 6.4). The MCA-1 method, meanwhile, estimated the

Table 6.4. Comparison of total economic value of unpaid work and GDP in 1999 (OCA method)

(Unit: in million Won)

	OCA-1	OCA-2	OCA-3
Total economic value of unpaid work (C = A + B)	187,020,000	177,573,100	256,819,000
Economic value of unpaid work per head	3.99 annually (0.33 monthly)	3.79 annually (0.32 monthly)	5.48 annually (0.46 monthly)
Total economic value of women's unpaid work (A)	148,629,200	140,985,600	218,446,200
Economic value of unpaid work per woman	6.40 annually (0.53 monthly)	6.07 annually (0.51 monthly)	9.40 annually (0.78 monthly)
Total economic value of men's unpaid work (B)	38,372,800	36,587,600	38,372,800
Economic value of unpaid work per man	1.62 annually (0.13 monthly)	1.55 annually (0.13 monthly)	1.62 annually (0.13 monthly)
Share of women's unpaid work (A/C x 100) (%)			
Relative rate for GDP (economic value of unpaid work/GDP x 100) (%)	38.7	36.7	53.1
Relative rate for wage income (economic value of unpaid work/ employee's pay x 100) (%)	89.6	85.1	123.1

Note: 1) GDP in 1999 was W483,778 billion.
2) Economic value per head is estimated using total population, not population performing unpaid work.
3) The source of the population figure was the Future Population Estimate of the National Statistical Office, 1996.

Table 6.5. Comparison of total economic value of unpaid work and GDP in 1999 (MCA-1 and MCA-2 methods)

(Unit: in million Won)

	MCA-1	MCA-2
Total economic value of unpaid work (C = A + B)	153,822,600	144,831,700
Economic value of unpaid work performed by women and men in the Republic of Korea	3.28 annually (0.27 monthly)	3.09 annually (0.26 monthly)
Total economic value of women's unpaid work (A)	120,571,800	120,500,000
Economic value of unpaid work performed by a female	5.18 annually (0.43 monthly)	5.17 annually (0.43 monthly)
Total economic value of men's unpaid work (B)	33,250,800	24,781,700
Economic value of unpaid work performed by a male	1.41 annually (0.12 monthly)	1.05 annually (0.09 monthly)
Female contribution for total economic value of unpaid work (A/C x 100) (%)	78.4	82.9
Relative rate for GDP (economic value of unpaid work/GDP x 100) (%)	31.8	29.9
Relative rate for wage income (economic value of unpaid work/employee's pay x 100)(%)	73.7	69.4

economic value of unpaid work at W 154 trillion (39 per cent of GDP; table 6.5). According to the MCA-2 method, this value was estimated at W 145 trillion (approximately 30 per cent of GDP; table 6.5).

The three methods show that unpaid work done by women accounts for between 78 and 85 per cent of the total economic value of unpaid work, or approximately W 120 trillion to W 218 trillion. The economic value of women's activity in meal preparation, cleaning and child care amounts to W 42 trillion, W 15 trillion and W 12.4 trillion, respectively.

Value of unpaid full-time housework

Married women and full-time housewives spend a large amount of time on housework activities. Although these activities often are neither socially acknowledged nor remunerated, it is possible to arrive at specific figures measuring the economic value of housework.

Based on estimates extracted from the three valuation methods, housework performed by full-time housewives amounts to between W 61 trillion and W 109 trillion. This is 13 to 23 per cent of the GDP of the Republic of Korea. (See table 6.6 for a summary of OCA estimates and table 6.7 for a summary of MCA estimates.)

Situation assessment and analysis

Further analysis of the survey results revealed three significant factors that affected the type of activities and time allocation: (a) the country's educational system; (b) the shift in women's role after marriage; and (c) the low economic value

Table 6.6. Comparison of total economic values of housework performed by full-time housewives and GDP

	Economic value of housework performed by full-time housewives (in million Won)	Economic value of housework performed by full-time housewife (in million Won)	Relative rate for GDP (%)	Relative rate for wage income (%)
OCA-1	68,766,400	12.31 annually (1.03 monthly)	14.2	34.0
OCA-2	70,931,600	13.37 annually (1.06 monthly)	14.9	34.7
OCA-3	72,312,500	12.49 annually (1.08 monthly)	14.7	34.0
OCA-4	109,207,100	19.56 annually (1.65 monthly)	22.9	53.1
OCA-5	66,356,300	11.88 annually (0.99 monthly)	13.7	31.8
OCA-6	61,867,400	11.08 annually (0.92 monthly)	12.8	29.7

Table 6.7. Comparison of total economic value of housework performed by full-time housewives and GDP (MCA-1)

(Unit: in million Won)

	Full-time housewives	Age (20s)	Age (30s)	Age (40s)	Age (50s and over)
Total economic value of housework	64,905,500	13,633,100	23,667,300	12,376,000	15,220,300
Economic value of housework performed by a full-time housewife	11.62 annually (0.97 monthly)	13.85 annually (1.15 monthly)	13.23 annually (1.10 monthly)	10.29 annually (0.86 monthly)	9.27 annually (0.77 monthly)
Relative rate (%) for GDP	13.4	2.8	4.9	2.5	3.1
Relative rate (%) for wage income	31.1	6.5	11.3	5.8	7.3

assigned by the Government and the market to unpaid work done by women.

The educational system has a substantial impact on the amount of time spent by girls and boys in productive activities. Because of the time spent on studying, children between the ages of 10 years to 18 years in the Republic of Korea spend little time on paid and unpaid work. However, after high school, the types of activity and time allocation differ by sex. Compared to the women, a larger percentage of male high school graduates are able to enter college. This shows that more men than women are able to continue their studies after high school,

while those who are not able to enter college eventually join the labour market.[3]

The second factor, marriage, reduces the amount of time spent by women on paid work activities. Women are virtually removed from the paid labour market, and instead become more involved in housework activities. This period marks the start when women take on more unpaid work.

The third factor is the very low economic value assigned to unpaid work by the Government and the private sector. This stems mainly from the inability of the Government and the private sector to place a premium on unpaid work. As a result, women are unfairly compensated. Married women and full-time housewives, for example, who are re-entering the labour market are given lower wages precisely because their unpaid work experience is undervalued. Full-time housewives also are undercompensated when they lose their ability to work as a result of an accident, or when they apply for property allocation pursuant to a divorce.

Because of a lack of any reliable standard for evaluating the economic value of housework performed by full-time housewives, property allocation in the case of divorce and insurance claims in the case of damages or death are, for the most part, conducted unfairly for housewives.

As shown in tables 6.8 and 6.9, the impact of the three factors results in the creation and maintaining of an environment that not only tolerates but also perpetuates a climate that is unfair, if not hostile, to women in the Republic

Table 6.8. Wage level per hour by sex and education

	Male		Female	
	Average wage per hour (Won)	**No. of workers**	**Average wage per hour (Won)**	**No. of workers**
High school graduates and below	6,781	2,279,694	4,612	1,172,145
College graduates and above	10,389	1,549,266	6,950	468,491
Average total	8,241	3,828,960	5,279	1,640,636

Table 6.9. Unpaid work hours and population by sex and education

	Male		Female	
	Average unpaid work hours (Won)	**Population**	**Average unpaid work hours (Won)**	**Population**
High school graduates and below	51.31	13,375,871	229.20	15,820,772
College graduates and above	45.59	3,954,716	242.64	2,613,727
Average total	50.16	17,330,587	230.91	18,434,499

[3] Education plays an important role in determining the type of work and the level of compensation received by people in the Republic of Korea. College graduates earn more than high school graduates.

of Korea. The impact is mainly felt in the following three forms:

- Women performing mostly unpaid domestic chores despite their educational and professional backgrounds;
- Low economic value given to unpaid work; and
- Unfair treatment of women, specifically full-time housewives, involving compensation for damage or death and property allocation pursuant to a divorce.

But before there can be change, it is important to continually improve the design of time-use data-gathering tools and the methods of estimating the value of unpaid work. Moreover, a key concern is the application of existing tools and methods in providing continuous and up-to-date estimates of unpaid work and its value, not only on an annual basis but also monthly and quarterly as with paid work.

Policy issues and implications

1. The economic value of unpaid work is substantial and needs to be reflected in the national and economic accounts of the Republic of Korea.

The analysis of time-use data has proved that the economic value of unpaid work is substantial. Because of this, it has been deemed imperative that these be reflected in the satellite national accounts of household production in the Republic of Korea. A more complete picture of the country's economic environment will thus enable the Government and the private sector to develop more responsive policies and programmes.

2. Women account for a substantial portion of unpaid work in the Republic of Korea and represent a huge economic resource.

Any policy or programme improvements resulting from the incorporation of unpaid work in the country's economic accounts would inevitably have an impact on issues concerning gender equality and women resource development. Further, this would contribute to greater awareness and appreciation of women's role in society.

3. An economic rating on the monetary value of unpaid work needs to be applied.

In particular, the value of full-time housework must have an economic rating. This is especially important when addressing critical areas such as insurance and social security, taxation, and property division in cases of marital divorce. The Government can use a socially agreed-upon "household labour value method" for calculating a monthly monetary wage per hour for household labour and officially post it. Once the rating is posted, the public sector can use it, and the Government, in particular the Ministry of Gender Equality, can use it to make recommendations to the private sector.

4. Accident compensation is an area for realizing equitability between paid and unpaid workers.

Accident compensation for full-time housewives, for example, should be equitable with that of working women who also perform housework. However, if the wage standard of full-time housewives increases, and if a working woman is injured and whose wage standard is lower

than the wage standard of housewives, the working woman may want to conceal the fact of her employment to receive the higher rate of compensation, creating a moral hazard.

5. The valuation of unpaid work increases compensation costs.

If the income standard of housewives is upgraded as a result of re-evaluating the value of household work, the compensation amount will increase. However, such an increase will act as a cause for increase in insurance cost, which will in turn lead to a (consumer) price hike.

6. Increasing men's participation in housework needs to be better understood.

Although it is essential that men increase their participation in housework, it is not clear how exactly this will be implemented or translated into clear policies or programmes. Moreover, it is uncertain how this will affect the productivity of men in paid work. Although it is likely to reduce men's involvement and possibly also their productivity in paid work, it is likely to greatly increase women's involvement and productivity in paid work.

Policy advocacy

At the time of this writing, the results and findings of the survey are being presented in various forums to elicit feedback and support from various sectors of society, particularly the Government. Although policy reforms have not yet taken place, a number of policy recommendations have been suggested and have met favourable response from the Government.

The advocacy involved in integrating the value of unpaid work into the country's economic accounts has reached the highest post in the country. In February 2000, President Kim Dae-jung ordered the Presidential Commission on Women's Affairs to seek measures to include the value of unpaid housework in the country's national accounts.

The advocacy for finding such measures began as early as 1998 with the promotion of time-use data collection, analysis, valuation and utilization for decision-making. This was undertaken through the concerted efforts of the Presidential Commission on Women's Affairs. In February 2001, the Commission became the Ministry of Gender Equality. The Korean Women's Development Institute, meanwhile, played a big role in providing research and technical support in the use of time-use data.

It is hoped that, as a result of the creation of the Ministry of Gender Equality, issues on gender and women may now be mainstreamed, particularly within the Cabinet and its clusters. Also, because of an expansion in staff and logistics, the task involved in mainstreaming, monitoring, and coordinating women's issues in the different government line agencies is expected to greatly improve.

Currently, the Ministry of Gender Equality is pushing for three major policy reforms:

- Insurance for full-time housewives;
- Family-friendly polices in the areas of family support, childcare, after-school care and others; and
- Equality of compensation at work and sharing of conjugal assets in cases of marital divorce.

Lessons learnt from methodological issues

If policies and programmes are to be informed by reliable data and statistics, extreme care has to be exercised in ensuring that the methodologies and tools for data gathering, processing and analysis meet set standards. While the Time-Use Survey produced a good response rate and good quality data, the researchers noted three major improvements needed to be made in future surveys.

First, although the time-use survey employed an open-design format, researchers pointed out the need to further specify and reclassify some activities, especially those related to family care and volunteer activities. Also, some activities needed to be classified more specifically as either SNA activity or non-SNA activity, as was the case with volunteer activities.

Second, the survey should be carried out during all four seasons of the calendar of the Republic of Korea in order to nullify variables associated with seasonal influences on time-use patterns and lifestyle.

Third, there was a need to make experience and information gained from the time-use survey more comparable to other countries' survey experience and information, with the aim of not only improving the methodology involved in carrying out time-use survey, but also in furthering the understanding and appreciation of cross-cultural experiences.

In summary, the results and analysis of the National Time-Use Survey of the Republic of Korea provide many interesting lessons and facts. First, a better picture is presented of the type of activities and time allocation of women and men in the Republic of Korea. Second, it provides a way for unpaid work to be given a monetary valuation. Third, it provides substantial information on how unpaid work may be integrated into the country's economic accounts and national policies and programmes. Although the work involved in integrating unpaid work into national policies is challenging, the momentum has been started. It is only a matter of time before the initiative finally meets its primary objectives. However, its success still hinges on the concerted and committed efforts of the various key stakeholders, particularly the Government, the private sector and civil society. The upgrading of the status of the Commission on Women's Affairs to the Ministry of Gender Equality augurs well for women and men doing unpaid work in the Republic of Korea.

COUNTRY EXPERIENCES: Some practical cases

Part II. Women's participation in India: Chasing a mirage

Introduction

The Indian rural and urban landscape is crowded with images of women engaged in various economic activities. However, national surveys and censuses have repeatedly failed to capture this reality, resulting in the near invisibility of women in official data related to work participation and the production process.

The National Sample Survey Organization conducts its quinquennial surveys on employment and collects data on women's economic activities. These surveys, however, have not been able to adequately quantify and value household production. Other conventional data tools such as population censuses, labour surveys or enterprise surveys have similarly failed to capture unpaid non-market activities that contribute significantly to human welfare.

That this is not an Indian phenomenon is reflected in international concern over the need to capture the contribution of unpaid work in national statistics. The strong gender aspect of unpaid work and its impact on development and welfare policies are reflected in General Recommendation No. 16, of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) 1991, which enjoins different countries to:

- Report on the legal and social situation of unpaid women working in family enterprises; and
- Collect data on women who work without payment, social security and social benefits in enterprises owned by family members, and to take necessary steps to guarantee payment.

The Fourth World Conference on Women at Beijing in September 1995 urged the recognition and visibility of the work of women, particularly in the unremunerated sector.

Conventional economic statistics view the market as the core of economic activity. These statistics also define participation in the labour force as well as the inclusion of production into national income accounts in relation to the market. However, in order to arrive at a reasonably accurate picture of total market production, efforts have been made to develop appropriate concepts and methods of measuring economic activity.

In India, the 1993 SNA was grouped into five economic sectors: non-financial corporations, financial corporations, general government, households and non-profit institutions serving households. The household sector is further classified as either "household market enterprises" or as "household non-market enterprises". The value of household non-market enterprises is estimated from the price of similar goods and services in the market. Examples of such enterprises are poultry, weaving, kitchen gardens and construction of houses for own use. The 1993 SNA recommended the compilation of satellite accounts for the household sector. The time-use survey was the tool identified for the purpose.

6

National time-use survey

Among developing countries, India is perhaps the first to carry out a national time-use survey. Historically, several small-scale time-use surveys have been undertaken. These include:

- A time allocation study in 1982 in some villages of Rajasthan and West Bengal (Jain and Chand, 1982[4]);
- A time allocation study in 1996 by the Directorate of Economics and Statistics, State of Tamil Nadu;
- A time-use study by National Council of Applied Economic Research (NCAER) in a few villages; and
- A study of time use by children (Ramesh Kanbargi).

While these studies made some valid observations, they had methodological gaps. Moreover, due to the small sample sizes, the results could not be used either to correct labour force data or national income statistics nor to formulate macro economic and social policies.

[4] Jain Devaki & Malini Chand, 1982. "Report on a Time Allocation Study – its Methodological Implications", Technical seminar on 'Women's Work and Employment', 9-11 April, Institute of Social Studies Trust, New Delhi.

Thus, the impetus for conducting a national time-use survey in India in 1998 arose from the need to generate more reliable estimates, both on workforce and national income, as required by the 1993 SNA. Additionally, the Department of Women and Child Development, NGOs and academicians perceived a strong need to quantify unpaid work as an important step towards ensuring consideration of unpaid workers in formulation of policies on development and welfare. To a great extent, these views were influenced by CEDAW and the Beijing pronouncements in 1995.

A technical committee was formed to:

- Advise the Government on designing, planning and related matters leading to a time-use survey;
- Suggest appropriate definitions and concepts, a schedule of inquiry and a suitable reference period for the purpose of data collection; and
- Suggest an appropriate methodology for building up the annual estimates of time disposition based on the survey data.

The Department of Statistics was given the task of designing and carrying out the survey.

Objectives and methodology

The national time-use survey was aimed at:

- Developing a conceptual framework and a suitable methodology for time-use surveys, and for the estimation of the labour force and value of unpaid work in a satellite account;
- Inferring policy implications from the data on (a) the distribution of paid and unpaid work among men and women in rural and urban areas, (b) the nature of unpaid work of women, and (c) the sharing of household work between women and men;
- Analysing the time-use patterns of individuals in understanding the nature of their work and in drawing inferences for employment and welfare programmes;
- Analysing the time use of children and women and draw inferences for welfare and social policies;
- Providing comprehensive information on the time spent on marketed and non-marketed economic activities covered under the 1993 SNA, non-marketed non-SNA activities covered under the general production boundary, and on personal care and related activities that cannot be delegated to others; and
- Using the data to generate more reliable estimates on the workforce and national income as per the 1993 SNA, and in computing the value of unpaid work through a separate satellite account.

In 1997, to help evolve a suitable design, pilot test surveys were carried out in six selected States (Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat, Orissa, Tamil Nadu and Meghalaya). The national survey was conducted over a one-year period, from July 1998 to June 1999, to take into consideration seasonal variations in activity patterns. The sampling method adopted a three-stage stratified design: district, villages/urban blocks and household levels. Proper stratification of the districts and substratification of villages were carried out to ensure representation of all types of households. After much debate on the methodological

requirements, the interview method over the diary method or observation, was adopted for collecting data from 18,591 survey households. A new activity classification was developed for the purpose.

Survey findings

The main survey findings are detailed below.

- Across the country, men perform longer hours on SNA activities than women. However, rural women and men perform longer hours on SNA activities per week than their urban counterparts.

Table 6.10 shows that rural men spend 42.31 hours on SNA activities while rural women spend 22.53 hours per week; in other words, men tend to spend almost twice as many hours on SNA activities compared with women. Urban men spend 41.06 hours while urban women spend 9.16 hours on SNA activities; thus, for every hour spent by urban women on SNA activities, urban men spend 4.5 hours.

The data on extended SNA activities reveal a dramatic reversal of the pattern between men and women, both rural and urban. Women, rural and urban, spend much more time on extended SNA activities per week than men in both locations.

Table 6.10 further shows that rural women spend 33.95 hours compared with urban women who devote 36.44 hours to such activities, which include unpaid work in household enterprises. On the other hand, rural men spend 3.74 hours and urban men spend 3.44 hours on extended SNA activities per week.

The findings suggest that Indian women, rural and urban, although performing fewer hours on SNA activities, perform a substantially greater number of hours in extended SNA activities, including unpaid household work.

- The share of women in the total work, both paid and unpaid, comes to 55 per cent of total work hours performed by all persons, which is comparable with the estimate of 53 per cent in the 1995 UNDP Human Development Report.

Women spend 50.52 per cent of their time in unpaid work compared with men who spend 33 per cent of their time engaged in unpaid work. This observation highlights the strong patriarchal tradition in Indian society. When it comes to housework, care of children, and care of the sick and the elderly, women across all divides spend twice as much time on such activities as men.

Table 6.10. Weekly average time spent on SNA, extended SNA and non-SNA activities by sex and place of residence

(Unit: hour)

States	Activities	Rural			Urban			Total		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Combined States	SNA	42.31	22.53	32.72	41.06	9.16	25.77	41.96	18.72	30.75
	Extended SNA	3.74	33.95	18.40	3.44	36.44	19.26	3.65	34.63	18.69
	Non-SNA	121.98	111.50	116.89	123.47	122.44	123.03	122.42	114.58	118.62
	Total	168.03	167.98	168.01	167.97	168.04	168.06	168.03	167.93	168.06
	Total persons	22 285	21 130	43 415	10 305	9 549	19 854	32 590	30 679	63 269

Source: Central Statistical Organisation of India, April 2000.

Figure 6.2. Percentage of time spent on unpaid SNA activities out of the total time spent on SNA activities

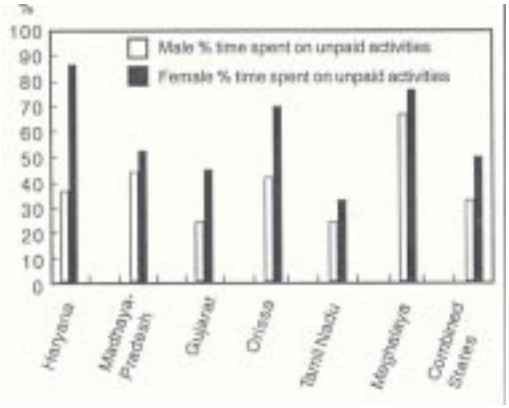
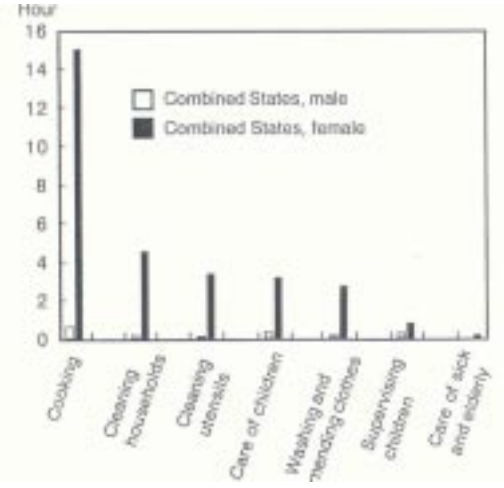


Figure 6.2 compares the percentage of time spent on unpaid SNA activities out of the total time spent on SNA activities by men and women in the six pilot survey States.

- Women spend much more time on housework, care of children, the sick and the elderly, than men who spend almost negligible time on such activities.

Figure 6.3. Weekly average time spent on some activities by sex



Source: Central Statistical Organisation of India, April 2000.

The pilot time-use survey also focused on a strong feature of traditionally patriarchal Indian society where women do most of the housework. Figure 6.3 presents the weekly average time spent on some activities by men and women. It shows that cooking takes up the most time followed by cleaning, care of children and washing clothes, in that order.

Policy issues and action initiatives

The national time-use survey raised five critical issues related to data requirements for policy formulation and programme planning. These issues are:

- The total economic production (GDP) of the country is grossly underestimated because it does not include goods and services produced for self-consumption, largely produced by women.
- The division of the total labour force in a household into paid and unpaid workers generates a hierarchy that reflects the lower status of women, both in the household and in the labour market.
- Capturing statistics related to unpaid work would enable realistic planning for employment and skills training.
- These statistics also enable the realistic mapping of labour-intensive and recurring activities mostly done by women and the identification of needed corrective strategies such as water supply schemes, ensuring availability of fodder and fuel, and the setting up of childcare facilities.
- The patterns of child labour can also be identified and corrective action initiated.

The Department of Women and Child Development catalyzed the discussion of policy imperatives arising from the pilot study. It also became apparent to both the Department of Statistics and Department of Women and Child Development that the mainstreaming of issues could be achieved if work participation, both paid and unpaid, was captured much more accurately in the national statistical system.

Data on work participation are much needed in aid of legislation in devolving power to women and ensuring a specific focus on women's needs. In recent years, there have been legislative moves towards women's reservations in Panchayati Raj institutions as well as reservations for women in Parliament and State Legislatures. Further, reliable statistics are needed for identifying crucial issues related to policy and programme formulation. It is therefore imperative to attempt to improve the quality of data gathered by the national census.

A major initiative that evolved from the pilot time-use survey is sensitizing the 2001 Decennial Census to gender issues and the need for accurate data on work participation, particularly that of women.

The Decennial Census of Population is unarguably the single most influential and trusted database among Indian policy makers and planners. Its findings shape and direct policy and the social sector programmes of the Government as well as the sectoral budgetary allocation. Census data are utilized by academicians, NGOs and lending agencies for planning and action. It was in this perspective that several initiatives were adopted to mainstream gender issues in the 2001 Decennial Census.

6

Gender sensitization of the national census: A strategy for policy intervention on unpaid work

In 1994, the Government of India, in consultation with the United Nations, set up the United Nations Inter-Agency Working Group on Gender and Development to coordinate the United Nations system follow-up response to the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. A major outcome of the national time-use survey was the realization of the need to include a gender perspective in the 2001 Decennial Census. The gender sensitization of the 2001 Census is part of the action plan to meet the objectives of the Beijing Platform for Action. The census aimed at generating sex-disaggregated data and information for development planning bearing directly on Indian women.

Several initiatives were taken up but three key areas were identified for pushing advocacy for gender-friendly policies, specifically counting unpaid work, particularly of women. These three areas represented a multi-pronged approach to integrating gender issues into the 2001 Census.

The three key areas covered:

- Laying down the conceptual basis for data collection and analysis, which ordered the processes and methodology for data collection and analysis.

  A critical aspect of the census is the development of the survey tools and instruments. The pre-testing of the questionnaire as well as the community "dry-run" of the census elicited areas for refining the methodology. At the same time, it helped ensure the collection of accurate data as well as cooperation from respondents.

- The preparation of the study households that were to participate in the census, together with the larger community's support for the survey, were equally as vital as the technical preparation of enumerators.

- The training and media strategy component of the census, which linked the enumerators and the households to the common purpose of getting an accurate profile of paid and unpaid work in the country.

National Core Group recommends engendering 2001 Census

As a result of the national time-use survey, the National Core Group for Census 2001[5] identified the following five specific areas for integrating gender concerns into the national statistics:

- Consideration of issues on defining women's work to cover non-market production on farms, in households and in animal husbandry, disaggregating population groups 0-4 and 5-9 by sex, gender differentials in landholdings, women marginal workers and identifying categories of non-workers;

- The expansion of existing classifications to cover various categories of female non-workers and separate data tabulations on single working women and female-headed households;

- The use of probing questions for identifying and counting "working" women as well as removing male bias in language used in instructional manuals on data collection;

- The training of enumerators, district and state officials and master trainers in gender senzitisation in cooperation with training institutions and relevant government agencies; and

- The implementation of a media strategy focusing on the definition of "work" and the issue of enumeration and under-enumeration of women in censuses.

The National Core Group met several times to discuss the issues and recommendations for the Decennial Census. These were further considered and agreed upon in a broad-based meeting on "Engendering the 2001 Census" attended by eminent academicians, experts and representatives from

[5] In October 1997, the Department of Women and Child Development of the Ministry of Human Resource Development organized the National Core Group in order to consider various matters related to gender sensitization of the 2001 Census. The National Core Group consisted of representatives from the Department of Women and Child Development, the Planning Commission, UNIFEM, UNFPA and the School of Social Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University. The National Core Group noted that while the 1991 National Census has taken earlier initiatives, it also presented an opportunity for broadening and expanding its scope as well as sharpening its focus on gender issues in the 2001 Decennial Census.

various government departments. Subsequently, the National Core Group forwarded the recommendations to the Registrar-General of India to incorporate in planning for 2001 Census.

Review of the framework and processes of 2001 Census

The recommendations of the National Core Group, with the concurrence of the academicians and NGOs concerned, provoked serious attention to the existing framework and processes of the national census. It was recognized that at a time when contemporary development and restructuring initiatives at the national and regional levels had a substantial focus on women, the role of an exercise such as the census in policy and action formulation became crucial.

An initial step undertaken by the Inter-Agency Working Group was to arrive at a clear definition of "worker". It was clarified that any person who had done any kind of economic activity during the year, whether paid or unpaid, was to be considered a worker. Economic activities included all activities except those done for own consumption or own-household activities. However, agriculture and animal husbandry, even if done for own consumption, were to be classified as economic activities.

Workers were further classified as main and marginal workers. Main workers were those who had worked for at least six months during the one-year reference period. Eight hours of work daily were not required for a person to be classified as a main worker. Even one hour of work per day was to be considered sufficient. Marginal workers were described as those who had worked for between one day to six months during the reference period.

Development of the census questionnaire

Although the 1991 Census attempted to collect data on women's work participation, there was also a need to sharpen data collection in the 2001 Census. Thus, the Registrar-General of India, the Department of Women and Child Development, and UNIFEM commissioned the Centre for Advocacy and Research to review the census information-netting process, especially with regard to women's work participation, and to conduct field pre-tests of the draft questionnaire for the 2001 Census.

The study examined the draft questionnaire and assessed the performance of the enumerators during data collection. It also observed the enumerator-respondent interaction as part of the pre-test.

Specifically, the study analysed the process of administering the questionnaire and external factors, if any, that might have influenced the respondent and the enumerator as well as the communication between them. The pre-testing was conducted in 10 rural and suburban villages in the States of Bihar, Delhi, Haryana, Punjab and Uttar Pradesh. These States were selected from among those where the statistics on sex ratio, women's literacy and work participation had been consistently poor.

The pre-tests identified specific areas for improving the questionnaire in facilitating

appropriate response to the items on economic activity and they also encouraged female members of the households to respond. It was observed that although the enumerator probed and verified responses, there was a tendency to register women as non-workers, thus excluding their work contribution even when they were the main workers such as in agriculture or animal husbandry. Community support for the enumerator was found to contribute to the ease and accuracy of data collection.

A small introduction regarding the purpose of the exercise appeared to ensure more enthusiastic and serious attention from the respondents. It was also observed that male respondents tended to hesitate in asking female members of the household to respond to the enumerator and, when a female did come forward, accord her as much space and importance as would normally be given to a male. Difficulty was encountered in classifying single-women households and those headed by widows. Widows tended to be sensitive to the interview process.

In general, the respondents were very keen to seize the opportunity offered to them by the Government to participate in the time-use survey. Many groups of respondents, especially the more economically vulnerable ones, saw the benefit of the process – that they could be enumerated into the government records and thus would be considered in any future development programmes. It also helped that respondents gave the Government and the census process a high credibility rating. This was further made possible by the familiarity with and credibility of the enumerators, who were local teachers or field workers.

Training and media strategy

In the context of the recommendations of the National Core Group and the results of the study carried out by the Centre for Advocacy and Research, the Registrar-General of India decided to promote the gender sensitization of 2001 Census. The strategy involved:

- Increasing the awareness and understanding of data enumerators and supervisors of gender issues, especially in the pre-identified critical areas of the country;
- The production and promotion of videos and computerized training modules on data collection; and
- Awareness-raising among the general public concerning women's work in order to generate response to the census.

The following steps were adopted to improve the capture of work participation statistics:

- The training manual for enumerators was recast in greater detail and included special sketches to illustrate paid and unpaid work of women.
- Additional questions were added to elicit details of work participation by women and children.
- All enumerators (totalling 100,000 in the State of Gujarat alone) were given special training, using a special module that describes women's work including several common economic activities carried out by women. The data collectors were also trained in administering and recording questionnaires related to such activities of women. Training was aided by multimedia computer presentations.

- Attractive print and electronic media campaigns were launched regarding women's economic activities and which appealed for correct reporting during the census.

Lessons learnt

The final report of the 2001 Census is under preparation but the provisional data from the State of Gujarat are shown in table 6.11. As observed, despite the timely effort and the multi-pronged strategy for gender sensitization of the census, the increase in work participation rates by women has been a relatively minor at 2 per cent in Gujarat.

While this result requires further study, perhaps part of the problem lies first in the social context in which it is the family elder, nearly always male, who interacts with the enumerator. This precludes direct questioning of the women themselves.

Second, there appears to be a mindset among both the respondents and the enumerators towards discounting the contribution of women. The experience of 2001 Census highlights the need for sustained efforts required in removing such bias that has traditionally existed at all levels of society.

Conclusion

The Indian experience points to the important role played by realistic and reliable data, particularly in the formulation of policy intervention for target groups. In this case, the repeated failure of past statistical tools to capture the extent of Indian women's participation in work has led not only to the perpetuation of unequal and unjust gender relations, but has limited the capacity of the State, the private sector, and civil society to intervene on behalf of women.

The time-use survey itself provides new ways of approaching data collection and analysis, specifically on national economic activities and work data. The extent and high level of decision-making should be noted in allowing the time-use survey design and methodology to be integrated into the national data collection system. The findings and analysis of the national time-use data have triggered a policy that now ensures counting women's work as part of the national data set. Consequently, with such data, policies, programmes and resource allocation will address the well-being and development of Indian women. "Sensitizing" national data to gender issues is geared towards promoting gender equality.

Table 6.11. Percentage distribution of female workers in Gujarat

(Unit: per cent)

Category	All-India 1991 census	Gujarat 1991 census	Gujarat 2001 census (provisional)
Main female workers	15.93	13.73	14.54
Marginal female workers	6.32	12.23	13.53
Female total workers	22.25	25.96	28.07

COUNTRY EXPERIENCES: Some practical cases

Part III. Time-use data unlock gender-friendly policies: The case of Mongolia

Introduction

The efforts toward integrating women's participation is often hindered by the inadequacies of tools and statistics for gathering formal and official employment and economic data. As a result, employment and economic policies fail to provide the necessary social and economic incentives that are due to women. This, in turn, tends to tolerate and perpetuate a system that breeds gender inequality. Relevant and precise information on the role of women within the economic and domestic spheres of society are vital in formulating well-reasoned and significant national policies.

In Mongolia, insufficient data are available on the extent of women's participation in the labour market and the economy. This problem is compounded by the inability of current data gathering and statistical tools to measure the economic value of unpaid household work wherein most women are engaged. It is against this backdrop that the pilot time-use survey was carried out in Mongolia.

The pilot time-use survey in Mongolia not only provided new ways to evaluate and analyse work, particularly unpaid work, it also provided a process through which greater gender sensitivity could be incorporated into data collection and policy formulation. The time-use survey puts the issue of gender and gender relations at the centre of national policies.

Pilot time-use survey

Objectives

The general objective was to provide empirical and quantitative evidence of the economic contribution of unpaid work and to integrate this into Mongolia's SNA. The time-use survey focused on three specific objectives:

- Determination of inequalities in paid and unpaid work;
- The acquisition of data on women's participation in labour and employment, both in the formal and informal sectors of the economy; and
- The exploration of the possibilities of using time-use data in determining the extent of children's work participation, part-time employment and the size of the informal sector.

Ultimately, it was hoped, a greater understanding and appreciation of unpaid work and time allocation of women and men would lead to more realistic policies that would alleviate poverty and promote gender equality in Mongolia.

Respondents

The time-use survey was carried out in April and May 2000, covering a sample size of 1,086 households with 2,753 individual respondents. The survey covered both urban and rural areas, and included respondents aged 12 years and older.

Methodology

Data were collected through individual interviews and the use of time diaries.

Results

1. Key findings

The results of the time-use survey can be summarized into three key findings:

- The labour participation and employment rates are higher than those revealed by official statistics;
- Close to 37 per cent of children in the age group of 12-15 years and over are engaged in work classified under GDP activities; and
- Diversity exists in time-use between urban and rural areas.

Given the inadequacies of current national statistics and measurements, it is assumed by many that current labour and employment figures underrepresent the current situation. The time-use survey not only confirms that assumption, but it provides a picture of the extent of inadequacy.

The time-use survey also confirms that many of Mongolia's children are involved in economic activities, mainly in the informal and livestock sectors. But the value-added information is the extent of children's involvement in economic activities in terms of time allocation.

Finally, the time-use survey surfaces the diversity between urban and rural economic activities, specifically with regards to work and personal care time allocation.

2. Differences in activities and time-use between women and men

The survey reveals that men spend more time on SNA activities than on non-SNA activities. This is in contrast to women who spend more time on non-SNA activities (table 6.12).

Urban women and men spend more time on personal activities, which may be attributed to the housing and lifestyle in urban areas. Urban women and men do not have to engage in procuring fuel and water for their homes, which is not the case for most rural inhabitants. As a result, rural women and men spend more time on SNA and non-SNA activities than their urban counterparts. Rural women also spend the greater proportion of their time on unpaid activities (table 6.13).

Table 6.12. Average number of hours spent on GDP and unpaid work (per weekday)

Activity	Urban		Rural	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
GDP	3.05	2.12	7.47	4.43
Unpaid	2.80	4.87	2.28	6.27
Personal	18.15	17.02	14.25	13.38

Table 6.13. Average number of hours spent on paid and unpaid work (per weekday)

Activity	Urban		Rural	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Paid	3.43	2.37	7.48	4.58
Unpaid	2.78	5.10	2.35	6.37
Personal	17.73	16.53	14.16	13.05

3. Gender inequality and feminization of poverty

Despite macroeconomic improvements in recent periods, poverty in Mongolia remains pervasive and problematic. Nearly 36 per cent of the population live below the poverty line.

Majority of the female-headed households are often poor. This is considered alarming, especially since their number has increased by 44 per cent from 1993 to 1998.

Poverty incidence has also increased among the employed population, mostly in sectors where the female labour force is predominant (e.g., the service sector, education and health). Compounding the problem is the lack of employment opportunities for women. In 1999, the official statistics showed that male unemployment was recorded at 3.9 per cent, while female unemployment was recorded at a higher 5.3 per cent.

It is noted, however, that the official statistics do not show employment generated in the unpaid and informal sectors of the economy, in which most women are employed. Thus, it may be possible that despite their "official" unemployed status, women have been engaged in economic activities, but that their work has not been properly remunerated nor officially recognized.

It may then be argued that gender inequality in Mongolia is not limited to the unequal distribution of employment opportunities, but is most felt in the way that women's work is valued and remunerated. The impact of such inequalities is the feminization of poverty in Mongolia.

Policy formulation

A workshop organized by Mongolia's Ministry of Social Welfare and Labour together with the National Statistics Office provided the venue for eliciting and discussing the policy implications of the time-use survey findings. The workshop was attended by some of Mongolia's law makers, government officials, international NGOs and bilateral agencies, and housewives.

Basically, the workshop participants identified five major policy issues:

- Time-use data analysis;
- Labour and employment statistics;
- Workers in the informal sector;
- Workers in unpaid work not included in the list of GDP activities; and
- Child work and education.

1. Time-use survey as a tool for policy analysis

The participants observed that the time-use survey was a very useful and appropriate tool for policy analysis given its ability to empirically measure gender sensitive realities, such as the unpaid work of women. However, it was also noted that the survey had failed to maximize its potentials, mainly by failing to come out with more detailed tables and analysis. Also, they pointed out that the survey had failed to account for seasonal variations.

Based on these observations, the participants recommended the following:

- Add more tables for more in-depth analysis;
- Conduct the survey for four seasons in fiscal year 2002/03;
- Conduct the survey every three to five years thereafter;
- Expand user participation; and
- Maximize donor support for the survey.

2. Labour and employment statistics

The time-use survey validated the assumption that official labour and employment measurements were inadequate, not only because they failed to capture vital information on the labour market, but also because they used concepts and statistics that were not consistent with international standards. In contrast, time-use data provide better information on work activities and the labour force.

To improve Mongolia's labour and employment measurements and statistics, the participants recommended that:

- The Ministry of Social Welfare and Labour review and set the definition of labour and employment;
- Review the current measurement approach;
- Adapt international standards and use the time-use survey as a supplement to current approaches; and
- The National Statistics Office regularly collect labour and employment data, based on new standards.

3. Workers in the informal sector

The time-use survey showed that most women and children were engaged in informal sector work, mainly as unpaid family labour. As a result, they were not covered by any formal social security schemes and were thereby more susceptible to work hazards and risks.

Also, the issue of working children who were prevented from exercising their right to education, needed to be looked into.

Using the findings of the time-use survey, the participants also identified taxes and economic transition as the main causes of informal sector stagnation and increased poverty in the informal sector. Taxation had reduced the capacity of informal sector enterprises to expand, thereby limiting not only their income-earning capacity but also their ability to provide better wages, improved work environment and social security for their employees. Meanwhile, Mongolia's transition from a command to a market economy, and from a socialist to a democratic government, had resulted in disturbances in the economy, which, in turn, had left large numbers of Mongolia's population economically vulnerable.

To resolve the observed problems, the following policy and programme reforms were deemed necessary:

- Skills development of secondary school graduates;
- Better data on the informal sector;
- Provision of data and information to local governments;
- Provision of incentives/support to companies that create new jobs;
- Offering incentives to livestock herders to employ paid workers; and
- Social protection for workers in the informal and livestock sectors.

4. Workers in unpaid work not included in the list of GDP activities

Women spend more time than men on unpaid work in non-economic market production (GDP) activities. This is attributed mainly to the lack of employment opportunities for women, and partly to the double burden experienced by women. The fact that men feel threatened by financially independent women is compounding the problem.

In response to these problems, the workshop participants recommended the following policy reforms:

- Improve the methodology of integrating the household economy in national accounting;
- Introduce programmes easing the domestic burden, especially among women;
- Improve the social protection scheme by improving existing social protection laws;
- Develop occupational skills among women;
- Promote through the mass media positive advocacy on the role of women and men; and
- Promote a campaign on learning up-to-date information technology among women.

5. Child work and education

The time-use survey revealed that as a result of the high employment rate among children, particularly boys, in the informal and livestock sector, the enrolment rate among males in secondary and tertiary education was lower than among females. The dropout rate among boys in elementary education was also higher. These findings show that children, particularly young males, enter the labour force at a very early age. However, because their employment status is largely informal, these children receive very little remuneration and social protection.

The recommendations for measures to help resolve these alarming developments included:

- Changing the attitude of parents towards child education;
- Encouraging the private sector to run and manage preschools;
- Lifting the quota for moving from junior to senior high school; and
- Encouraging more male teachers to teach.

Policy advocacy

Four main government agencies were given the task of following up the recommendations made by the workshop: (a) the National Statistics Office, to help ensure the implementation of recommendations on statistics; (b) the Ministry of Social Welfare and Labour, to help ensure the implementation of recommendations on labour concepts and measurement, social protection, informal sector and child labour; (c) the Ministry of Finance, to work out the financing of future programmes; and (d) the Ministry of Education, to implement policies related to education.

NGOs, meanwhile, were given the task of advocating for the implementation of the identified policy recommendations. To provide funding support to such initiatives, international and bilateral organizations are to be tapped.

Conclusion

The pilot time-use survey has paved the way for developing and updating future time-use surveys in Mongolia. Moreover, this pilot survey experience further demonstrates the feasibility and suitability of time-use studies as a tool in gender sensitizing the national employment and economic accounts.

Through the further application of time-use data, Mongolia's employment and economic accounts will provide a realistic and adequate picture of the country's socio-economic scenario. Thus, it will be possible to formulate and implement more significant and responsive policies for women, men and children.

time-use web sites

TIME-USE WEB SITES

United Nations Statistics Division – Time-Use Surveys
Time-use surveys. Improving measurement of paid and unpaid work. Facilitates and promotes the conduct of time-use surveys in developing...
http://unstats.un.org/unsd/methods/timeuse/

Workshop on Integrating Paid and Unpaid Work in National Systems
Bangkok, 24-27 September 2001
http://www.unescap.org/stat/meet/wipuw/wipuw.htm

International Seminar on Time-Use Studies
Ahmedabad, 7-10 December 1999
www.unescap.org/sta/meet/timeuse/timeuse.htm

Content-IATUR
Time-use surveys. Time-use date and literature. Time-related research initiatives. Time-related organizations newsletter...
www.stmarys.ca/partners/iatur/iatur.htm – 7 k – Cached – Similar pages

American Time-Use Survey home page
...Respondents' interpretations of work-related summary questions"., Stewart, Jay. "Contact Strategies in Time-Use of Surveys". ... International data on time use: ...
www.bls.gov.tus/home.htm – 22 k – Cached – Similar pages

The UK 2000 Time-Use Survey
...Births, marriages and deaths registration census 2001 social surveys ...The UK 2000 Time-Use Survey. "What we do ... with whom": Key findings: How do we use our time; ...www.statistics.gov.uk/timeuse/default.asp – 19 k – Cached – Similar pages

Statistics Finland – culture, media and time use
... and conducts two large interview surveys, Time-Use Survey and Leisure Survey. The purpose is provide up-to-date information for social debate and for use of...
www.bls.fi/tk/el/kva_en.html – 5 k – Cached – Similar pages

American Time-Use Survey frequently asked questions
... Trained coders will use software that displays all of a respondent's daily activities as recorded by the interviewer ... Questions about other time-use surveys. ...
www.bls.gov/tus/atusfaqs.htm – 18 k – Cached – Similar pages

IATUR – Time-Use Studies
Time-use surveys. Canada. Nil, Time-use surveys, Australia. Australian Bureau of Statistics, Germany, Statistiches Bundesamt Deutschland, ...
www.stmarys.ca/partners/iatur/tuspp.htm – 8 k – Cached – Similar pages
[More results from www.stmarys.ca]

Key Findings of the UK 2000 Time-Use Survey

... UK 2000 time-use survey. Key findings. ... How do we use our time. The main activities carried out by people in the UK are sleeping, working in their main job and ... www.statistics.gov.uk/themes/social_finances/TimeUse Survey/key_findings.asp – 20 k – 24 Aug 2002 – Cached – Similar pages

Statistics New Zealand

http://www.stats/govt.nz/domino/external/web/Prod_Serv.nsf/htmldocs/Time-Use

Qb: Surveys: Time-Use Survey: 2000

Time-use survey: 2000. Years available: overview 2000. ... You need Acrobat Reader to view. Large surveys are sectioned for speed.
qb.soc.surrey.ac.uk/surveys/tus/tus2000.htm

ANNEXES

ANNEX I. DESIGN SPECIFICATIONS OF DATA COLLECTION ON TIME-USE IN SELECTED DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, 1995-2000

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Benin National Institute of Statistics and Economic Analysis *Source:* "Méthodologie et résultats" Enquête Emploi du Temps au Bénin, 1998.	**Title of survey**	1998 Time-Use Survey
	Reference period	March - April 1998
	Survey design and objectives	Module of semestral household survey on labour, income and social indicators in urban areas; independent survey on time use and education in rural areas: ▪ To obtain information on gender differences in time-use
	Method of data collection	Recall interview
	Survey instrument	
	Description	Simplified time diary with 62 activities pre-listed as rows and time-line in 15-minute increments starting with 4 a.m. as column
	Recording of simultaneous activities	Each pre-listed activity that occurs in a given 15-minute interval is recorded by placing an "x" in the appropriate cell. Simultaneous activities are indicated by encircling the "x".
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	None
	Activity classification	Sixty-two activities pre-listed in survey instrument
	Time sample	Single period covered; each respondent provides diary data for one day; respondent diary days are distributed so that each day of the week is uniformly represented
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	National; urban-rural Persons aged 6-65 years
	Sampling procedure and sample size	All eligible persons in sample households were covered: 5,834 persons from 1,787 households in urban areas; and 6,770 persons from 1,419 households in rural areas

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Dominican Republic National Statistical Office and INSTRAW *Source:* Unpublished documents INSTRAW	**Title of survey**	1995 National Time-Use Survey
	Reference period	June – December 1995
	Survey design and objectives	Independent survey: ■ To evaluate the magnitude of unpaid work ■ To analyse the participation of women and men in unpaid work ■ To identify the variables that are related to unpaid work
	Method of data collection	Combination recall interview and observation
	Survey instrument	
	Description	Main instrument for recording activities is 5 a.m. to 5 a.m. time diary; activity recording is per 15-minute intervals; post-coding Household questionnaire lists household members and obtains information on whether children work and who is the principal decision maker
	Recording of simultaneous activities	Secondary activity is recorded
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	Where; for what purpose; paid/unpaid for both principal and secondary activities
	Activity classification	A total of 117 activity codes
	Time sample	Seasonal variation in agriculture was captured by using crops as stratification variable in selecting households and by spacing interviews over seven months; each respondent provided diary data for one day; respondent diary days are distributed so that each day of the week is represented in the survey
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	National; urban-rural Persons aged 10 years and over
	Sampling procedure and sample size	All eligible household members in 1,500 sample households were covered;
	Response rate	Overall response rate of 84.4 per cent (79.7 per cent in urban areas and 88.6 per cent in rural areas)

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Republic of Korea National Statistical Office *Source:* "Country report", paper prepared by A. Schon for the Expert Group Meeting on Methods for Conducting Time-Use Surveys (United Nations, October 2000)	**Title of survey**	1999 Time-Use Survey
	Reference period	2-14 September 1999
	Survey design and objectives	Independent survey: ■ To estimate what people do, how they spend their time, what does everyday life look like, how much time is spent on gainful employment, unpaid work, leisure activities, personal activities, and how do population groups and countries differ in these respects ■ To provide basic data and new information about the volume and pattern of the unpaid women's household work ■ To deduce policy implications from the result of the time-use survey such as sharing of household work by men and women for gender equity, and spreading of paid and unpaid work in rural area
	Method of data collection	Combination of self-completed diary and interview for background questionnaires
	Survey instrument	
	Description	Main instrument for recording activities was a full time diary starting from 0 a.m. to 24:00 p.m.; 10-minute fixed time intervals Household and individual questionnaires
	Recording of simultaneous activities	Secondary activity was recorded
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	Location; with whom (for eating activity only); for whom (for family care activity only); paid/unpaid (for work in family business, work on family farm, work on family farm and garden not for sale)
	Activity classification	Nine major groups (1-digit); 40 2-digit groups
	Time sample	Covered a single period; all days of the week were covered by assigning two diary days to each respondent; in designating diary days, weekend days were covered twice as often than weekdays
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	National; household population Persons aged 10 years or over
	Sampling procedure and sample size	All eligible respondents in 17,000 sample households were selected, i.e., a total of 46,109 sample respondents
	Response rate	A total of 94.7 per cent of sample respondents

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Lao People's Democratic Republic National Institute of Statistics and Economic Analysis *Source:* "The 'light' time diary approach", paper prepared by K. Rydenstam for the Expert Group Meeting on Methods for Conducting Time-Use Surveys (United Nations, October 2000)	**Title of survey**	Expenditure and Consumption Survey: Time-Use Module
	Reference period	1997-1998
	Survey design and objectives	Module of household income and expenditure survey: ■ To measure productivity in farming, mainly rice cultivation ■ To measure labour input work in small-scale businesses and the informal sector
	Survey instrument	
	Description	Simplified time diary with 21 activities pre-listed as rows and time-line in 30-minute increments starting at 4 a.m. as columns; additional information was recorded for the economic activities and for travel
	Recording of simultaneous activities	No recording of simultaneous activities
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	
	Activity classification	Twenty-one activities listed in survey instrument
	Time sample	Covered the entire year; each respondent provided diary data for one day; each day of the week was to be uniformly represented; enumerator selected the diary day
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	National; household population Persons aged 10 years or over
	Sampling procedure and sample size	A total of 8,882 eligible respondents from one randomly selected person per sample household
	Response rate	Non-response rate was negligible

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Guatemala Guatemala Statistical Office *Source:* Prepared by D. Steele, LSMS Office, World Bank	**Title of survey**	Living Standards Measurement Study Survey Guatemala 2000 National Survey of Living Conditions
	Reference period	2000
	Survey design and objectives	The survey was designed to provide policy relevant data on living conditions in Guatemala for use by the Government in designing a poverty alleviation strategy. A module on time use was included to explore more fully issues of labour behaviour, how households make decisions on regarding tradeoffs, and how government policies can be developed regarding development of employment programmes, infrastructure needs etc.
	Method of data collection	Interviews with all household members aged 7 years and older
	Survey instrument	
	Description	The Guatemala household questionnaire is a multi-topic questionnaire which includes modules on housing, social capital, languages spoken, health, education, migration, economic activity, fertility, time use, household enterprises, household expenditures, agricultural activities and credit/savings. The time-use module includes 22 specific activities, a question on "other" activities, and requires that the total time amount to 24 hours. In addition, in several of the other modules information has been collected on how long it takes to travel to services (school, health facilities) and how long people have to wait for services
	Recording of simultaneous activities	Yes
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	The module itself does not include questions about the context in which the time is spent; however, information from the other modules could be used with some of the activities to provide contextual information
	Activity classification	Information was collected on: employment activities (paid work, unpaid work, making clothes for family members, taking care of animals, repairs to house, commuting time); education (class time); housework (cleaning, cooking, washing, taking out trash, collecting water, collecting fuel, taking care of children, purchases); paying for services; other (personal care, leisure, community service, eating, sleeping); and other. In addition, respondents were asked which activities were done at the same time
	Time sample	Information was collected about the day prior to the interview
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	The sample for the survey is nationally representative and is representative at the urban/rural level. The sample is also representative of the five main ethnic groups in the country
	Sampling procedure and sample size	The time-use module was administered in 25 per cent of the interviewed households and included all household members aged 7 years and over

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
India Central Statistical Organization *Source:* "Conducting the time-use survey – Indian experience", paper prepared by R. Pandey and I. Hirway for the Expert Group Meeting on Conducting Time-Use Surveys (United Nations, October 2000)	Title of survey Reference period Survey design and objectives	1998 Time-Use Survey July 1998 – June 1999 Independent survey: ■ To develop a conceptual framework and a suitable methodology for designing and conducting time-use studies in India on a regular basis. Also, to evolve a methodology to estimate labour force/work force in the country and to estimate the value of unpaid work in the economy in a satellite account ■ To infer policy/programme implications from the analysis of the data on (a) distribution of paid and unpaid work among men and women in rural and urban areas, (b) the nature of unpaid work of women including the drudgery of their work and (c) sharing of household work by men and women for gender equity ■ To analyse the time-use pattern of the individuals to understand the nature of their work so as to draw inference for employment and welfare programmes for them ■ To analyse the data of the time-use pattern of a specific section of the population, such as children and women, to draw inferences for welfare policies for them ■ To collect and analyse the time-use pattern of people in selected States in India in order to gain comprehensive information about the time spent by people on marketed and non-marketed economic activities covered under the 1993 SNA, non marketed non-SNA activities covered under the general production boundary, and on personal care and related activities that cannot be delegated to others ■ To use the data in generating more reliable estimates on the workforce and national income as per 1993 SNA, and in computing the value of unpaid work through a separate satellite account

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
India *(continued)*	**Method of data collection**	Recall interview
	Survey instrument	
	Description	Main instrument for recording activities is a 4 a.m. to 4 a.m. time diary for a normal day, a weekly variant day and an abnormal day (where applicable); activity recording is per one-hour intervals; actual time use in minutes is recorded; pre-coding household questionnaire lists household members and obtains detailed information on work and whether member participates in decision-making
	Recording of simultaneous activities	All activities that occur within a one-hour interval are recorded; multiple activity indicator identifies simultaneous activities
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	Location (whether within or outside the household); whether paid and mode of payment
	Activity classification	Nine major groups; 16 2-digit sub-groups; 176 activities
	Time sample	Covers whole year on a periodic (quarterly) basis; each respondent provides diary data for three types of days in a week – normal, abnormal and "weekly-variant"
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	National as represented by six States selected on the basis of geographical dispersion (region) and likely differentiation in work patterns such as in rural-urban areas, tribal-industrial areas Persons aged 6 years and over
	Sampling procedure and sample size	All eligible household members in 18,591 sample households were covered
	Response rate	A total of 99.8 per cent household response rate

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Mexico National Institute of Statistics, Geography and Informatics (INEGI) *Source:* "Country report", paper prepared by P. Mendez for the Expert Group Meeting on Methods for Conducting Time-Use Surveys (United Nations, October 2000)	**Title of survey**	1998 National Survey on Time Use
	Reference period	1998
	Survey design and objectives	Independent rider to National Income and Expenditures Survey (NIES) to detail: ▪ The different activities that people perform during the day ▪ The period of time that household members dedicate to different activities during the day
	Method of data collection	Recall interview
	Survey instrument	
	Description	Open diary; total time spent on each reported activity is recorded
	Recording of simultaneous activities	Parallel activity and total time spent recorded
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	Location; with whom
	Activity classification	Fourteen major groups; 68 subgroups
	Time sample	Single period covered
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	National; household population Persons aged 8 years and over
	Sampling procedure and sample size	All eligible respondents of the 12,000 sample households of NIES
	Response rate	Non-response index was low

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Mongolia National Statistical Office *Source:* "Country report on Time-Use Survey 2000", paper prepared by Y. Noov for the Expert Group Meeting on Methods for Conducting Time-Use Surveys (United Nations, October 2000)	**Title of survey**	Time-Use Survey 2000
	Reference period	June 2000
	Survey design and objectives	Independent survey to collect data on: ▪ Gender inequality and women's unpaid work ▪ Employment and informal sector in order to come up with a realistic assessment of employment
	Method of data collection	Combination of recall interview and self-completed diary
	Survey instrument	
	Description	Main instrument for recording activities is a 24-hour full-time diary divided into 10-minute intervals; Household and individual questionnaire to obtain information on education, marital status and employment
	Recording of simultaneous activities	
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	
	Activity classification	Adaptation of United Nations trial classification; extension to 3-digits
	Time sample	Single period covered: 2/3 of respondents were assigned two diary days and 1/3 of respondents were assigned three diary days; all days of the week were covered uniformly
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	National; urban-rural; household population Persons aged 12 years and over
	Sampling procedure and sample size	A total of 2,753 eligible respondents from 1,086 randomly selected households; all eligible respondents in sample household were selected
	Response rate	A total of 82.1 per cent of respondents

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Morocco Statistics Directorate *Sources:* "Condition socio-économique de la femme au Maroc", Enquête nationale sur le budget temps des femmes 1997/98. Rapport de Synthèse – Volume 1 "Les emplois du temps de la femme au Maroc", Enquête nationale sur le budget temps des femmes 1997/98. Rapport de Synthèse – Volume 2	Title of survey	1997/98 National Survey on Women's Time Budget
	Reference period	16 June 1997 to 15 June 1998
	Survey design and objectives	Independent survey ■ To examine how women participate in economic life through an in-depth analysis of the different aspects of women's work ■ To examine how socio-cultural norms and practices constrain total participation of women in economic life ■ To quantify and describe in detail the different tasks undertaken by women in order to better understand their nature and conditions ■ To determine which factors influence women's contribution to development and, inversely, the effect of that contribution on demographic, economic and socio-cultural factors
	Method of data collection	Recall interview and observation; repeated visits per day
	Survey instrument	
	Description	A 24-hour open diary with start and end times of main activity recorded; total time spent in hours and minutes recorded Household, individual and community background questionnaires
	Recording of simultaneous activities	Parallel activity is recorded
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	Location; for whom/purpose
	Activity classification	A 4-digit classification: nine major groups, 36 2-digit groups
	Time sample	Covers whole year to account for seasonal variations in women's economic activity; designated days were assigned so that each day of the week is uniformly allocated to total number of sample diaries
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	National; rural-urban; household population Female household members aged 15-70 years
	Sampling procedure and sample size	A total of 2,776 female household members were randomly selected from 4,467 sample households

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Nicaragua National Statistical Office *Source:* Prepared by D. Steele, LSMS Office, World Bank	**Title of survey**	Nicaragua 1998 Living Standards Measurement Study Survey
	Reference period	1998
	Survey design and objectives	The survey was designed to provide policy relevant data on living conditions in Nicaragua for use by the Government in designing a poverty alleviation strategy. A module on time use was included to explore more fully issues of labour behaviour, how households make decisions on regarding tradeoffs, and how government policies can be developed regarding development of employment programmes, infrastructure needs etc.
	Method of data collection	Interviews with all household members aged 6 and over
	Survey instrument	
	Description	The Nicaragua household questionnaire is a multi-topic questionnaire that includes modules on housing, health, education, economic activity, fertility, time use, household enterprises, household expenditures, agricultural activities and credit/savings. The time-use module includes 22 specific activities, a question on "other" activities, and requires that the total time amount to 24 hours. In addition, in several of the other modules there is information collected on how long it takes to travel to services (school, health facilities) and how long people have to wait for services.
	Recording of simultaneous activities	Yes
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	The module itself does not include questions about the context in which the time is spent; however, information from the other modules could be used with some of the activities to provide contextual information
	Activity classification	Information was collected on: employment activities (agricultural, household enterprise, wage work, unpaid work, looking for work); education (class time, homework); housework (cooking, washing, working in the garden, collecting water, collecting fuel, purchases, care of children, care of the sick); personal activities (eating, sleeping, personal care, leisure, seeking health care); social activities (weddings, funerals, family visits, community service)
	Time sample	Information collected about the day prior to the interview
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	The sample for the LSMS survey is nationally representative and is also representative at the urban/rural level
	Sampling procedure and sample size	The time-use module was administered in 50 per cent of the interviewed households to all household members aged 6 or over

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Occupied Palestinian Territory Central Bureau of Statistics *Source:* "Time-use survey: A Palestinian Example", paper prepared by S. Al-Asi for the Expert Group Meeting on Methods for Conducting Time-Use Surveys (United Nations, October 2000)	**Title of survey**	Time-Use Survey, 1999-2000
	Reference period	8 May 1999 – 7 May 2000
	Survey design and objectives	Independent survey: ■ To provide statistical data on the time spent by people and types of activities they engage in, as relevant to policy and decision-making, including statistics on time spent on paid and unpaid work, time spent by the unemployed searching for jobs, leisure pursuits, caring for children and the elderly, and information on the hidden economy
	Method of data collection	Self-completed 24-hour diary
	Survey instrument	
	Description	Main instrument for recording activities was a time diary from 24:00 p.m. to 24:00 p.m.; activity recording was per 30-minute intervals during the night and 15-minute intervals during the day; post-coding. Household questionnaire included questions on who gives and receives care within the household; an individual questionnaire included questions on participation in leisure and culture-related activities.
	Recording of simultaneous activities	Only the main activity was recorded
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	Paid/unpaid; with whom; where – location and transport
	Activity classification	United Nations trial classification: 10 major groups; 80 2-digit groups
	Time sample	Covers whole year on a continuous basis: each respondent provides diary data for one day; respondent diary days are distributed so that total survey data covers one whole year; total daily sample of 11 households
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	All persons aged 10 years and over
	Sampling procedure and sample size	From 4,018 sample households, one eligible male and one female member were randomly selected for the survey for a total of 8,038 respondents

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
Oman Statistical Office *Source:* "The Overall Monitoring of Annual National Indicators, 1999", technical report, Statistics, Sweden	**Title of survey**	Overall Monitoring of Annual National Indicators Survey 1999
	Reference period	May 1999 – April 2000
	Survey design and objectives	Module of Household Expenditure and Income Survey (HEIS): ■ To measure the individual's use of time for social and economic analysis, e.g., productivity, informal sector size, women's economic activities
	Method of data collection	Self-completed diary for literate persons; recall interview for non-literate persons
	Survey instrument	
	Description	Simplified time diary with 23 activities pre-listed as rows and time-line in 15-minute increments starting with 4 a.m. as column
	Recording of simultaneous activities	None
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	None
	Activity classification	A total of 23 activities listed in the survey instrument
	Time sample	Covers whole year on a periodic (monthly) basis: each respondent provides diary data for one day randomly selected during the third week of data collection for the HEIS
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	National; urban and rural; household population Persons aged 15 years and over
	Sampling procedure and sample size	All eligible persons in 50 per cent of the 4,148 sample households of the HEIS
	Response rate	A total of 95 per cent response rate

ANNEX I. *(continued)*

Country/agency	Feature	Survey plans/implementation
South Africa Statistics South Africa Source: "Time-Use Survey 2000", paper prepared by Y. Mpetsheni and O. Budlunder for the Expert Group Meeting on Methods for Conducting Time-Use Surveys (United Nations, October 2000)	**Title of survey**	Time-Use Survey 2000
	Reference period	February – October 2000
	Survey design and objectives	Independent survey: ■ To measure and analyse time spent from day-to-day by different individuals ■ To provide new information on the division of both paid and unpaid labour between women and men and other groupings ■ To incorporate unpaid work in satellite accounts ■ To gain more insight on the reproductive and leisure activities of household members ■ To gain more understanding of productive activities such as subsistence work, casual work and work in the informal sector
	Method of data collection	Recall interview
	Survey instrument	
	Description	Main instrument for recording activities is 4 a.m. to 4 a.m. time diary; activity recording is per 30-minute intervals; up to three activities per 30-minute interval are recorded, post-coding. Household questionnaire asks who is the main person responsible for doing housework; individual questionnaire obtains information on number of children, detailed information on work, and asks respondent to classify business as formal/informal
	Recording of simultaneous activities	Simultaneous activities are recorded; no prioritization of activities into primary, secondary or tertiary
	Context variables (for what purpose, for whom, with whom, where, paid/unpaid etc.)	Location, purpose of travel
	Activity classification	Adaptation of United Nations trial classification: 10 major groups; some changes in 2-digit level of group 1; 3-digit level extensions for specific country situations
	Time sample	Covers whole year on a periodic (trimester) basis; design calls for all days of the week to be uniformly represented by allocating interview days to enumerators accordingly; each respondent provides diary data for one day
	Sample selection	
	Reference population	National, urban-rural, settlement types (urban formal, urban informal, rural commercial farms, rural other/ tribal areas); Persons aged 10 years and over
	Sampling procedure and sample size	Two eligible household members randomly selected for each sample household; planned total sample size is 10,800 dwelling units; all households in a sample dwelling unit are selected
	Response rate	A total of 84 per cent in first tranche

ANNEX II. STYLIZED QUESTIONNAIRE ON TIME-USE IN SNA WORK ACTIVITIES IN THE NEPAL LABOUR FORCE SURVEY

Current activities: Now I would like to ask some questions about activities done in the past seven days.
Some of these activities are considered to be work, and some of them are important home-related activities.

Q.16: During the past seven days, did [Name] do any of the following Work activities? [Interviewer: If "Yes", record hours actually spent doing the activity during the past seven days. If "No", write '–'.]										
ID Code	Wage job	Any business operated by [Name]	Agriculture	Milling and other food processing	Handicrafts	Construction and major repairs	Fetching water	Collecting firewood	Other work activities	Total hours
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	T
1.										
2.										
3.										
4.										
5.										
6.										
7.										
8.										
9.										
10.										
11.										
12.										
13.										
14.										

A. Working for wage or salary, or payment in kind (e.g., food, clothing)
B. Retail shop, street or market trader, other trading activity, transporting produce to market for sale, operating taxi service etc., other business activity
C. Weeding, planting, harvesting, keeping birds/pests away from crops, carrying crops to/from storage, herding, looking after animals, poultry etc.
D. Milling rice, any other processing of food (except cooking for home use only)
E. Tailoring, dress making, weaving, making handicrafts etc.
F. Construction and major repair of houses, farm buildings, fences, boats, construction work done through volunteer labour (road, bridge, building etc.)
G. Fetching water
H. Collecting firewood
I. Any other home-based activity (please specify)

ANNEX II. *(continued)*

Current activities: Q.17. During the past seven days, did (Name) do any of the following activities without pay for your household?
[Interviewer: Mention each activity in turn from left to right. If "Yes", record hours actually spent doing the activity during the past seven days. If "No", write '–'.]

ID Code	Cooking/serving food for household	Cleaning utensils/house	Minor household repairs	Shopping for household	Caring for the old/sick/infirm	Child-minding	Other volunteer and community services	Total hours
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	T
1.								
2.								
3.								
4.								
5.								
6.								
7.								
8.								
9.								
10.								
11.								
12.								
13.								
14.								
15.								

F. Feeding, childcare, taking to school etc.
G. Services done through volunteer only

ANNEX III.

STRUCTURE OF THE UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF ACTIVITIES FOR TIME-USE STATISTICS (ICATUS)

A. Work for corporations/ quasi-corporations, non-profit institutions and government (formal sector work)

Core activities: working time in "formal sector" employment

001 Working time in main job
002 Working time in other jobs
003 Working time as apprentice, intern and related positions
006 Short breaks and interruptions from work
008 Training and studies in relation to work in the "formal sector"
011 Idle time before/after work
012 Lunch break from work

Related activities: looking for work/setting up business

021 Looking for work in the "formal sector"
022 Looking for/setting up business in the "formal sector"

Travel related to work in the "formal sector"

031 Travel related to work in the "formal sector"

B. Work for household in primary production activities

Core activities: working time in primary production activities

051 Growing of crops and trees; kitchen gardening
052 Farming of animals; production of animal products; animal husbandry services
053 Hunting, trapping and production of animal skins
054 Gathering of wild products, wood-cutting and gathering firewood and other forestry activities
055 Fishing and fish/aquatic farming
056 Mining and quarrying
057 Collecting water
058 Training and studies in relation to work in primary production activities of households
061 Purchasing/acquiring inputs/supplies used for primary production activities of households
062 Selling/disposing of outputs of primary production activities of households

Related activities: looking for work/setting up business

071 Looking for work in primary production activities in household enterprise
072 Looking for/setting up business in primary production activities in household enterprise

Travel related to primary production activities

081 Travel related to primary production activities of households

C. Work for household in non-primary production activities

Core activities: working time in non-primary production activities

101 Processing of food products
102 Making of other food products and beverages
103 Making textiles, wearing apparel, leather and associated products
104 Craft-making using all types of materials
105 Tobacco preparing and curing

106 Making bricks, concrete slabs, hollow blocks, tiles etc.
107 Making herbal and medicinal preparations
108 Training and studies in relation to work in non-primary production activities of households
111 Purchasing/acquiring inputs/supplies used for non-primary production activities for households
112 Selling/disposing of outputs of non-primary production activities of households

Related activities: looking for work/setting up business

121 Looking for work in non-primary production activities in household enterprise
122 Looking for/setting up business in non-primary production activities in household enterprise

Travel related to non-primary production activities

131 Travel related to non-primary production of household

D. Work for household in construction activities

Core activities: working time in construction activities

151 Construction and repair for own capital formation
152 Construction and repair of buildings, roads, dams and other structures
153 Community-organized construction and major repairs of roads, buildings, bridges, dams etc.
158 Training and studies in relation to work in construction activities in household enterprise
161 Purchasing/acquiring of inputs/supplies for construction activities for household production

Related activities: looking for work/setting up business

171 Looking for work in construction activities in household enterprise
172 Looking for/setting up business in construction activities as household enterprise

Travel related to construction activities

181 Travel related to construction activities of households

E. Work for household providing services for income

Core activities: working time in providing services for income

Food vending and trading

201 Preparing and selling food and beverage preparations
202 Petty trading; door-to-door vending; street vending, hawking

Providing repair, installation and maintenance services

211 Fitting, installing, tool setting, maintaining and repairing tools and machinery
212 Repair of vehicles
213 Repair of personal goods
214 Repair of household goods

Providing business and professional services

221 Renting out rooms, sleeping space and associated work
222 Lending and collecting money; foreign exchange
223 Typing, word processing, programming, encoding
224 Accounting, bookkeeping, legal and related services
225 Tutoring
226 Provision of medical and dental services
227 Provision of nursing/therapy services

Providing personal care services

231 Provision of personal care services
232 Provision of non-professional health care

Transporting goods and passengers

241 Transporting goods
242 Transporting passengers

Paid domestic services

251 Providing paid domestic services

Meetings/training and studies

261 Training and studies related to work in service activities

Related activities: looking for work/setting up business

271 Looking for work in service activities in household enterprise

Travel related to providing services for income

281 Travel related to providing services for income

F. Providing unpaid domestic services for own final use within household

Core activities: working time in providing unpaid domestic services

301 Food management
302 Cleaning and upkeep of dwelling and surroundings
303 Do-it-yourself decoration, maintenance and small repairs
304 Care of textiles and footwear
305 Household management
306 Pet care
311 Shopping for/purchasing of goods and related activities
312 Shopping for/availing of services and related activities

Travel related to provision of unpaid domestic services

331 Travel related to provision of unpaid domestic services

G. Providing unpaid care-giving services to household members

Core activities: working time providing unpaid care-giving services to household members

Childcare

351 Caring for children-physical care
352 Teaching, training, helping children
353 Accompanying children to places
354 Minding children (passive care)

Adult care

361 Caring for adults: physical care
362 Caring for adults: emotional support
363 Accompanying adults to places

Travel related to unpaid care-giving services to household members

381 Travel related to unpaid care-giving services to household members

H. Providing community services and help to other households

Core activities: working time providing community services and help to other households

Unpaid help to other households

401 Household maintenance and management as help to other households
402 Shopping for/purchasing of goods and services as help to other households
403 Construction, renovation and repairs of dwellings and other structures as help to other households
404 Repairs of consumer and household goods as help to other households

405 Unpaid help in business/farm and employment as help to other households
406 Childcare as help to other households
407 Adult care as help to other households
408 Transportation assistance to other households

Community-organized services

411 Community-organized work: cooking for collective celebrations, etc.
412 Work on road/building repair, clearing and preparing community land, cleaning (streets, markets etc.)
413 Organizing and working on community-based assistance to villages, other sub-locations
414 Organizing and working on community-based assistance to families and individuals

Organized unpaid volunteer services

421 Volunteer work for organizations (not directly for individuals)
422 Volunteer work through organizations (extended directly to individuals)

Related activities: attendance in meetings

431 Attendance in meetings

Related activities: other community services

441 Involvement in civic and related responsibilities

Travel related to community services and help to other households

481 Travel related to community services and help to other households

I. Learning

Core activities: time spent in learning activities

General education

501 School/university attendance
502 Breaks/waiting at place of general education
503 Self-study for distance education course work (video, audio, online)

Homework, course review, research and activities related to general education

511 Homework, course review, research related to general education

Additional study, non-formal education and courses during free time

521 Additional study, non-formal education and courses during free time

Career/professional development training and studies

531 Career/professional development training and studies

Related activities: other activities done in relation to learning activities

571 Other activities done in relation to learning activities

Travel related to learning activities

581 Travel related to learning

J. Socializing and community participation

Core activities: time spent in socializing and community participation

Socializing and communication

601 Talking, conversing
602 Socializing activities
603 Reading and writing mail
604 Unsocial/anti-social/negative social activities

Participating in community cultural/ social events

621 Participating in community celebrations of cultural/historical events
622 Participating in community rites/events (non-religious) of weddings, funerals, births and similar rites-of-passage

623 Participating in community social functions (music, dance etc.)

Travel related to socializing and community participation

631 Travel related to socializing and community participation

K. Attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports events/venues

Core activities: time spent attending cultural, entertainment and sports events

651 Visit museum, art gallery, historical/ cultural park, heritage site
652 Attendance at movies/cinema
653 Attendance at theatre, opera, ballet, concerts
659 Attendance at other specified mass cultural events
661 Attendance/visit to zoo, animal park, botanic garden, amusement centre, fairs, festivals, circuses, animal shows, plant shows
671 Attendance at professional sports events
672 Attendance at amateur sports events

Travel related to attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports events/venues

681 Travel related to attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports events/venues

L. Hobbies, games and other pastime activities

Core activities: time spent in visual, literary and performing arts (as hobby) and related courses

701 Visual arts
702 Literary arts
703 Performing arts (dance, music, theatre)

Technical hobbies and related courses

711 Technical hobbies and related courses

Playing games and other pastimes and related courses)

721 Solo games
722 Card games, board games
723 Computer games (including arcade and video games)
724 Social/group games
728 Gambling

Travel related to hobbies, games and other pastimes

731 Travel related to hobbies, games and other pastimes

M. Indoor and outdoor sports participation and related courses

Core activities: time spent participating in sports and outdoor activities

751 Walking and hiking; jogging and running
752 Biking, skating, skateboarding
753 Aerobics, yoga, weight-training and other fitness programmes
754 Ball games, individual sports
755 Ball games, team sports
756 Water sports
757 Winter/ice/snow sports
758 Contact sports
761 Camping
762 Horseback-riding
763 Pleasure drives; sightseeing

Travel related to indoor and outdoor sports participation and related courses

781 Travel related to indoor and outdoor sports participation and related courses

N. Mass media

Core activities: time spent using mass media

Reading

801 Reading books
802 Reading periodicals
809 Reading other specified materials

Watching/listening to television and video

811 Watching/listening to television
812 Watching/listening to video programmes

Listening to radio and audio devices

821 Listening to radio programmes
822 Listening to other audio media

Using computer technology

831 Using computer technology for reading
832 Using computer technology for video/audio
833 Surfing the internet, downloading, uploading

Related activities: visiting library

841 Visiting library

Travel related to use of mass media

O. Personal care and maintenance

Core activities: time spent in personal care and maintenance

Sleep and related activities

901 Night sleep/essential sleep
902 Incidental sleep/naps
903 Sleeplessness

Eating and drinking

911 Eating meals/snack
912 Drinking other than with meal or snack

Personal hygiene and care

921 Personal hygiene and care
922 Health/medical care to oneself

Receiving personal and health/medical care from others

931 Receiving personal care from others
932 Receiving health/medical care from others

Religious activities

941 Private prayer, meditation and other informal spiritual activities
942 Participating in religious activities (formal practice of religion)

Activities associated with resting, relaxing

951 Doing nothing, resting, relaxing
952 Smoking
953 Reflecting/meditating, thinking, planning

Travel related to personal care and maintenance activities

981 Travel related to personal care and maintenance activities

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