

**APEC Human Resource Development Working Group
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**A Framework Paper
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Introduction

Women are major economic actors in the Asia-Pacific region, in both paid and unpaid capacities. They work as salaried workers, farmers, self-employed workers, family and community workers, and owners and managers of enterprises. Labour force participation data demonstrates that women now comprise between 32 and 46 per cent of the labour force in Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) forum economies.ⁱⁱ These figures do not include the enormous numbers of women and men whose labour is unpaid and therefore not factored in national labour force statistics. Such unpaid labour includes unpaid household work and childcare; civic and voluntary work. In developing economies, it also includes unrecorded activities such as subsistence production, wood gathering and water carrying.

In most countries, about as much time is spent on unpaid activities as on paid activities. While both men and women perform unpaid work, the time allocated to unpaid work is a key human resource consideration for women, for in almost all countries, it is women who perform the bulk of unpaid work. The implications for policymakers and practitioners are far-reaching: Target populations, particularly women, may not be able to take advantage of training or business development programs, unless those programs are designed to take into account their time constraints. This usually entails measures that will reduce existing time constraints in order to free up time for new activities. A key tool to reveal time constraints and identify niches around which interventions might be effectively designed is the time-use survey.

This paper addresses the overlapping themes of unpaid work performed in the household, and the uncounted work in the informal sector, all the while recognizing the important distinctions between the two. Most national statistics fail to capture work in the informal sector, which is particularly important as a source of income for women. For many women, especially those with low levels of education and skills, it may be the only option for employment and income generation. Informal sector employment may also offer women with family responsibilities some flexibility that accommodates those roles since the work may be performed at or near the home. In developing economies in particular, the boundary between “work” and “household responsibilities” is often blurred, as, for example, when production of goods for the market takes place in the home. This distinction is also becoming less clear in developed economies, as sub-contracting to home-based workers has become more prevalent in some sectors.

Both kinds of work, however, take place outside the formal market, and thus are largely un-counted in labour force and national income accounts. The result is a lack of attention by policymakers as to how policy might support or jeopardize the productivity of these sectors. Of concern as well is the incomplete picture of the economy which emerges when the unpaid sector is excluded from policy. In the area of trade policy, for example, a more complete understanding of where, when and how women produce for the international market, directly and indirectly, would assist in formulating a more complete understanding of the benefits of trade liberalization for women and men, and identifying priority points for intervention.ⁱⁱⁱ

An Inclusive Human Resource Development Strategy

New economic theory has illustrated the important linkages between economic growth, paid and unpaid work, and formal and informal sector employment, presenting new models that recognize and integrate all human resources. This paper considers the “labour market” as one that includes all human resources, paid and unpaid, formal and informal, in and out of the home. This approach brings into focus the characteristics and needs of human resources that may be deployed in a variety of productive activities, paid and unpaid. It enables planners to recognize and account for the reality of most workers who move in and out of the paid labour market for a variety of reasons: retrenchments or firings; education and training; or family responsibilities. Even if everyone of working age were gainfully employed, that is, engaged in paid work in the formal labour market, unpaid work would still remain to be done: the market cannot provide a commercial substitute for all unpaid activities, nor is such a development desirable. Thus, a better understanding of the linkages between paid and unpaid work and how economic and social policy impact on allocation of time between activity in the two spheres has increasing relevance for economic and human resource planners.

Understanding and sharing good practices that seek to integrate paid and unpaid work in human resource policy has taken on particular relevance for the APEC Human Resource Development Working Group (HRD WG) as it considers a range of responses to the social and human resource impacts of the financial crisis in Asia. Research has shown that the informal sector expands during periods of contraction in the market economy. Understanding the complexities of that sector is critical to effective policy responses.

The “paid/unpaid work” project provided a timely contribution to discussions by APEC Human Resource Ministers, who held their third meeting in July 1999 on issues related to labour market adjustment, social safety nets, and the workplace of the future. Insights from the APEC region on linkages between paid and unpaid work contributed to understanding of key economic sectors where women predominate, and the policy supports, including social safety needs, that enhance women’s ability to take advantage of opportunities in the economy.

About the Project and the APEC Human Resources Development Working Group

This paper has been prepared as a “framework paper” for the APEC Human Resources Development Working Group project, *Linkages between Paid and Unpaid Work in Formulating Human Resource Policy*. The project is an activity of the Network for Economic Development Management, a sub-group of the HRD WG. This network addresses policy questions relating to economic and structural change and linkages to labour and employment issues, and has a strong interest in gender issues.

The “paid/unpaid work” project offers a new perspective for APEC on issues affecting women’s full participation in the labour market: time, and the sometimes conflicting demands of unpaid, family responsibilities, with paid, employment responsibilities. While there has been an increasing focus in APEC on issues relating to women’s participation in the paid, or market economy in recent years,^{iv} attention has only recently turned to the policy implications of women’s unpaid economic activities.^v In October 1998, APEC Ministers responsible for women in the economy noted that “women’s unpaid work constitutes a major contribution to the economy,” and called on governments to make efforts to “recognize the economic contributions of women’s unpaid work” and the constraints created by those responsibilities. They further emphasized that the “performance of unwaged work falls disproportionately on women,” and stated that “... HRD strategies can ease work-family tensions”.^{vi}

The project builds on outputs from earlier projects undertaken in NEDM that examined gender issues in the labour market.^{vii} Experts from Australia, Canada, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand, Chinese Taipei, and the United States met three times in 1998-1999 to discuss issues relating to paid and unpaid work from the perspective of their respective economies. Nine member economy papers were prepared setting out major trends and issues in integrating paid and unpaid work. The concluding conference, held in Hong Kong, China, on May 8, 1999, presented major findings and conclusions and developed recommendations to the APEC HRD WG.

Structure of the Paper

The paper begins with a brief overview of some key concepts embraced in the discussion of unpaid work. Early in its discussions, the “paid/unpaid work project team” recognized that concepts related to both paid and unpaid work and the informal sector will have different meanings when applied to different domestic contexts. Each economy paper clarifies the definitions used in the respective economy. A brief history of progress in developing methodologies to integrate unpaid work in national accounts is attached as Appendix A. The appendix also offers a definition of “voluntary” activity, an important component of unpaid work.

Section two assesses the economic significance of unpaid work and the relationship between paid and unpaid work and economic development. These linkages are central to an understanding of the human resource development responses that could support women’s roles in the economy and ultimately more successful economic recovery and growth strategies.

A short summary of recent initiatives by governments in the APEC region to measure and assess the impact of the unpaid work performed in their economies is presented in section three.

Section four provides a brief overview of the informal sector’s contribution to the economy and the significance of the sector for women’s livelihoods. The financial crisis has had a devastating impact on women’s employment in the affected economies, through retrenchments, loss of inputs to informal and household production, and increasing domestic work to compensate for loss of public services or prohibitively costly goods produced in the market. The impact of the financial crisis on formal and informal employment varies considerably from economy to economy. Appendix B outlines progress in international efforts to develop statistics to capture the reality of the informal sector.

Information on time use contributes to a better understanding of how conflicting demands on time affect take-up by workers, particularly women, of training and employment opportunities. Section five focuses more specifically on applying knowledge of the “time crunch” to human resource development policy, with a discussion of implications for governments and employers.

Finally, conclusions and recommendations for the APEC Human Resources Development Working Group are found in section six.

1. Definitions: What do we mean by “Unpaid Work”ⁱⁱⁱ

“Unpaid work” is “non-market” work; activities that are undertaken outside the formal labour market and that are not reflected in national employment and income statistics. These activities include housework; care of children, the sick and the elderly, voluntary community work; work in political or community organizations; subsistence agriculture; fuel and water collection; participating in a family business, building the family house, or maintenance work^{ix}. Unpaid work encompasses “non-SNA” activities, that is, activities that are not included in the production boundary defined in the United Nations System of National Accounts (SNA).^x

One definition of unpaid work is the “third person criterion”. This means activities, which could be purchased in the marketplace, such as purchased childcare, meals, housecleaning and laundry services, etc. Analysts have noted that there is no inherent reason why some activities are remunerated and some are not: the same activity may be paid or unpaid, depending on the social or economic context. Explanations vary with the perspective of the analyst: technological innovation, changes in productivity and prices have an impact; others point to sex stereotyping and undervaluing of what is often considered “women’s work.”^{xi}

Since unpaid activities are statistically invisible, they are rarely integrated into the policymaking process. While the type and amount of work that is unpaid varies in different regions and at different stages of economic development, studies show that almost as much time is spent on unpaid work as on paid work. A study of 14 industrialized countries concluded that, with few exceptions, unpaid work (excluding voluntary work) consumed as much labour, in terms of time, as did paid work performed in the labour market.^{xii} A further study^{xiii} undertaken for the 1995 UNDP *Human Development Report* found that, taking both, paid and unpaid work into account, women worked longer hours than men in almost all of the 31 countries surveyed.^{xiv}

There are other expressions used to describe unpaid work. Unpaid work is sometimes referred to as work in the “social economy” or the “care economy”, as opposed to work undertaken in the “money economy”. “Work” is often classified as “productive” or “reproductive.” “Productive” work refers to activities that are undertaken to produce and process goods and services for the market. These tasks may be carried out at a workplace or at home, and may take place in the formal or the informal sector. Child-rearing and other activities carried out in caring for household members and the community are referred to as “reproductive” work.

2. The Economic Significance of Unpaid Work

2.1 Unpaid Work and Labour Market Participation

Some analysts have addressed the constraints that unpaid work or family responsibilities put on the ability of women to participate fully in the formal, paid labour market. This way of thinking about the linkages between paid and unpaid work seeks to understand how policy measures can enhance women’s ability to participate in the paid economy and to invest in human resource development. Responses include support measures such as childcare and elder care that would see household or caring responsibilities shared by the individual and the public sector. Other policies address the gendered nature of the division of labour in households, seeking ways to redistribute household work more equally between men and women. Public sector policy can also enhance the value to households of women’s participation in the paid labour market through measures to ensure that women’s paid work is valued equally to that of men’s. These measures include provision of equal social security benefits (pensions, for example), and employment equity legislation. Family-friendly employment practices, provisions for parental leave, and social security benefits for part-time workers are other examples of possible measures. Some analysts suggest that such innovations may be “too expensive”, however, a cost-benefit calculation that includes the loss to the economy of women’s non-participation would likely produce a different result^{xv}.

2.2 The Economic Significance of Unpaid Work

An understanding of the significance of unpaid work is critical to a complete understanding of the functioning of the economy. Since the gross domestic product (GDP) does not include non-monetary production, it records shifts in productive activity from the household and non-market sectors to the market economy as economic growth, even though total production may remain unchanged. Paid child-care, hired domestic help and restaurant food preparation all add to the GDP, while the economic values of parenting, unpaid housework, home food preparation and all forms of volunteer work remain invisible in economic accounts. Productivity gains may result in greater output or increased leisure, but the GDP only measures the first, thereby masking longer working hours. Both omissions have implications for the changing role of women in the economy, who have entered the paid workforce without a corresponding decline in their hours of unpaid work.

Unpaid work can be transferred to and from the market: market goods and services, either publicly or privately delivered, can replace unpaid work, if there is enough income to meet the cost. Thus, a “false” picture of the economy is developed. A more comprehensive description of the economy would incorporate inputs from the formal sector (production activity, market transactions); the informal sector (volunteer activity, the underground economy); the household sector (household production, caring, leisure), and reproductive activity (conception and birth, education and value imprinting).^{xvi}

Statistics Canada explains that its efforts to measure and value households’ unpaid work are aimed at obtaining “a better understanding of the market and non-market sectors of the economy through a more comprehensive system of national accounts.”^{xvii} The agency’s “extended measures of GDP”, which include the value of households’ unpaid work, reveal more moderate economic growth since the early 1960s than that indicated by real GDP alone, by as much as 0.6 percent to 0.8 percent less per year.^{xviii} Various calculations suggest that if the unpaid, non-market sector were included, national GDP would increase from between 11 to 35 percent (UNDP, 1991). Other estimates are much higher. Estimates for the United States, depending on methodology used, vary from 42 percent up to 75 percent of GDP, with one estimate coming in at 312.7 percent.^{xix} A 1996 estimate of the value of unpaid work in Japan ranged from 23 to 25 percent, depending on the valuation method used.^{xx} If unpaid work had been included in figures for 1997, the GDP of the Philippines would have increased by 37 to 38 percent.^{xxi} International time use expert Duncan Ironmonger has proposed a system of household national accounts (a Gross Household Product) that places the value of household production in excess of the value of the two largest market industries in Australia.^{xxii} These contributions to the economy, if integrated into national accounts, would drastically alter the picture of most of our economies that GDP figures now present.

Unpaid labour is a resource that can be depleted, with potentially negative impacts on the macro-economy. These include the cost to those who provide the unpaid work, in terms of loss of education, health, and well-being. Second, unpaid work may compete with paid work: meeting greater demands for unpaid work may jeopardize ability to supply more paid work. This may be one explanation for poor supply response to some adjustment programs. Economist Diane Elson^{xxiii} argues that a hidden factor in many episodes of stabilization and structural adjustment is the intensification and extension of unpaid labour. Unpaid labour may assist in absorbing the shocks of adjustment: for example, unpaid labour may be substituted for paid labour in the production of food and clothing, which are produced in the home instead of purchased from the market. Voluntary labour may be mobilized in community self-help schemes when public expenditures are cut.

Research undertaken in several economies, including Australia and Canada, has attempted to assess the implications of measures in national budgets for household time budgets. Cutbacks in social services, for example, may have the effect of increasing time spent on care work; reductions in subsidies for food stuffs may result in women, who are usually responsible for provisioning food, spending more time looking for cheaper substitutes.

2.3 The Voluntary Sector

There are human resource and training issues affecting the voluntary sector, and an understanding of time use sheds important insights into the challenges facing the sector, as well as some possible policy responses. One consideration is the impact on social institutions when total demands on work time, paid and unpaid, become so great that there is no time left for volunteer or civic activities. A Canadian study on the value of volunteer time found that individuals under financial or time stress may first cut back on voluntary commitments. The study found that while the number of people volunteering in Canada had increased in the period 1987 to 1997, the average volunteer was contributing 25 percent fewer hours than a decade earlier. The value of this loss in services to the sick, elderly, disabled, children and other vulnerable groups was set at C\$1.83 billion a year. This loss of voluntary services has compounded the effect of government budget cuts in public services to produce “a substantial erosion of the social safety net for those most at risk.”^{xxiv}

3. Accounting for Unpaid Work: Initiatives in the APEC Region

Unlike market activity and transactions, for which fairly reliable and lengthy statistical data and long standing policy applications have been developed, non-market activity has received comparatively little attention.^{xxv} In the follow-up to the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women, there has been growing interest by governments and multilateral organizations in advancing methodologies that will enable the SNA to accommodate a broader range of policy concerns. The National Statistical Office of Korea, for example, has sponsored two seminars for Asian region economies on human resource accounts, in partnership with the UNDP. Unresolved technical questions remain, however, the key question is how the effectiveness of human resource policy interventions can be enhanced when those interventions take account of the realities of workers’ time constraints.

Efforts to account for unpaid work vary greatly across the APEC region. The less developed member economies in transition, such as Vietnam, are rebuilding their statistical databases. Other economies have progressed with pilot studies. Korea has piloted human resource accounting, and Japan has tried to impute the value of women’s unpaid work. Other developed economies have introduced national time-use surveys in various forms.^{xxvi}

Indonesia has undertaken initial pilot studies on non-SNA activities with time-use surveys: a 1980 survey in rural Pekalongan, Central Java. More recently, with UNICEF support, the Central Bureau of Statistics undertook a small-scale study in Pandeglang, West Java in 1997. The **Philippines** has undertaken several special surveys to illustrate the kind of work that is needed to expand the coverage of economic activities: the 1995 Urban Informal Sector Survey in the National Capital Region; the 1995 Survey on Working Children, and the 1993 Survey of Homeworkers.^{xxvii}

The **Japanese** Bureau of the Management and Coordination Agency conducted a Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities. The survey concluded that the hours of unpaid work equal about 50 percent the number of hours of paid labour. Using three methods of evaluation, the survey assessed the value of unpaid work at between 67-99 trillion yen in 1991, or 14.6 to 21.6 percent of the GDP. The assessed value of unpaid work for women stood at nearly 70 percent of the average market wage. More recently, a Public Opinion Survey on a Gender Equal Society (1997), by the Office for Gender Equality in the Prime Minister’s Office, queried respondents on time use by married and single women and men, and on attitudes to housework.^{xxviii}

Following a review of early surveys, which were based on European models, **Korea** prepared a revised survey. Measuring women’s unpaid work is considered to be vital for the improvement of women’s status and the establishment of a gender sensitive development policy. Time-use surveys were previously carried out by the Seoul Development Institute and the Korea Broadcasting System. The National Statistics Office was to conduct a nationwide time-use survey in 1998. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry formed an Advisory Committee on Policies for Female Agricultural Workers in 1998 to re-evaluate the contributions of women in their agricultural activities and work at home in order to establish a secure base for agricultural productivity by women and to promote the quality of life in rural areas.^{xxix}

In the Asia-Pacific region, the **Regional Bureau for Asia and the Pacific of the United Nations Development Programme**, in association with the UNDP’s Human Development Report Office and Gender in Development Program, UNIFEM, and the United Nations Statistical Division, has sponsored two workshops in Seoul, Korea, (May 1997 and December 1998), to refine methodological issues.

In 1997, the **Australian Bureau of Statistics** (ABS) conducted its second time-use survey as part of a continuing program of surveys conducted every five years. The ABS also published a study on work and family responsibilities in 1994.^{xxx} **Statistics New Zealand** conducted its first national survey on household time use in 1998. **Canada** collects information on unpaid work through the biennial General Social Survey (GSS) and the national census. The 1996 census was the first to include a detailed question on unpaid work, and there are plans to include questions in the 2001 census. Several studies have been done on the amount and value of unpaid household work in order to gauge production not measured in the System of National Accounts (SNA). They have been used as well to develop Statistics Canada's Total Work Accounts System (TWAS), which forms the basis of the Economic Gender Equality Indicators released by the Canadian Federal-Territorial Ministers Responsible for the Status of Women. Although the **United States** does not regularly collect data on unpaid work, some data is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) and the Census Bureau on unpaid family workers. In 1997, the BLS conducted two pilot time-use surveys, and is presently examining the mechanisms for full-scale time-use surveys. In addition, the United States collects data through regular household expenditure surveys.

4. The Informal Sector

Once thought to be a labour market characteristic of developing economies that would disappear as those economies matured, employment in the informal sector has actually risen rapidly in all regions of the world in the past two decades. In Latin America, the share of the informal sector in the non-agricultural workforce averages 50 percent and in different parts of Asia, 40 to 60 percent.

The sector is particularly important to women. Globally, women represent just under 25 percent of the non-agricultural self-employed. Studies show that the majority of economically active women in developing countries, except in the Latin American region, are in the informal sector, and that a larger share of economically active women than men, in all age groups, are to be found in this sector. The size of the informal sector as a percentage of the non-agricultural workforce globally has actually expanded since the early 1980s in most developing economies, except among the rapidly growing economies of East and Southeast Asia up to the crisis period. Even in those countries, however, World Bank estimates suggested that 43 percent of women workers in South Korea were employed in the informal sector, and 79 percent of women in Indonesia.^{xxxii} Among other APEC member economies, the informal sector in Chile expanded from 51.6 percent in 1990 to 56.1 percent in 1995; in Peru from 51.8 per cent to 53.9 percent, and in Mexico from 55.5 percent to 59.4 percent.

It has been difficult for statisticians to develop a definitive set of categories to capture the informal sector, because informal economic activities vary in every economy. A survey of statistical resources on informal sector activity in APEC economies revealed enormous gaps in data for many countries, lack of sex-disaggregated data, and data that described only one segment of the informal sector.^{xxxiii} Data does not exist for major economies such as China and Russia. The International Labour Organization has played a leading role in developing working definitions to standardize data collection efforts (see Appendix B). Initiatives to develop gender-sensitive statistics on the informal sector are currently underway in the Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO) network of international and national statistical organizations, researchers and users. Table 3 illustrates the magnitude of own-account and family workers as a share of non-agricultural labour force and total informal sector employment for selected APEC economies.

Informal sector activities share common features: ease of entry; small scale activity; self-employment, with a high proportion of family workers and apprentices; little capital and equipment; labour intensive technologies; low skills; low level of organization with no access to organized markets or to formal credit, education and training, or services and amenities; cheap provision of goods and services or provision of goods and services otherwise unavailable; low productivity and low incomes according to some analysts, or, according to others, incomes that are higher than in the public sector, especially during the crisis periods and in the context of structural adjustment policies.^{xxxiii} Jobs in the informal sector also feature high levels of insecurity and lack social protection.

Informal sector activities are often legal, but they rarely comply with official and administrative regulations. They are not registered and do not pay taxes, partly because governments are unable to enforce regulations. Informal sector activities are often tolerated in a kind of recognition that the laws are inadequate, and are often a means for economies to cope with population growth, rural-urban migrations, economic crises, poverty, and indebtedness. Some analysts have attributed the growth of the informal sector not so much to low levels of development or weak adjustment to the modern economy, but as an adjustment to the inadequacy of regulations in force. The more

difficult the economic context, the more extended the informal sector. In a more dynamic economy, the micro-enterprise sector tends to expand, attempting to become part of the formal sector.^{xxxiv}

The informal sector is not homogeneous, and embraces a wide range of activities:^{xxxv}

1. Informal sector employment:
 - Own-account workers,
 - Self-employed,
 - Micro-enterprise operators (employers)
 - Micro-enterprise wage employees,
 - Unpaid family workers
2. “Atypical types of employment”
 - home-based workers – independent
dependent (sub-contractees)
 - temporary workers
 - casual workers
3. Wage workers in export industries (especially in export processing zones, or EPZs)
4. International migrant workers

The sector is a dynamic one. Research has demonstrated that the micro-enterprise segment of the informal economy tends to grow as the economy expands. A recent study^{xxxvi} of own-account and family workers as a share of non-agriculture labour showed a downward trend in family enterprises during the period of rapid economic growth in Southeast Asia, from more than one-third to nearly one-quarter of the non-agricultural labour force from the 1980s to the end of the 1990s. On the other hand, the own-account/family enterprises segment tends to expand when economies slow down or suffer downturns. The casual and sub-contract segment of the informal economy presents a mixed picture: informal labour contracts and sub-contracting are associated with low growth and economic downturns as well as with recent global trade and investment patterns.^{xxxvii}

The member economy papers from Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand prepared for this project describe the movement from unpaid family worker to employee experienced in Southeast Asian economies through the processes of urbanization and industrialization. However, in the wake of the financial crisis, there has been an upsurge in the category of unpaid family worker.^{xxxviii}

While jobs in the informal sector are low quality, they are part of the job creation and income generation process. Some components of the informal sector expand when the economic cycle is in decline, allowing people to earn a living rather than staying openly unemployed. In the absence of comprehensive employment insurance or other safety nets, few can afford the luxury of being openly unemployed for very long.

The rapid globalization of production and marketing activities by transnational corporations from many countries has been accompanied by substantial informalization and subcontracting of work arrangements that are beyond state regulation (this phenomenon is sometimes called “flexibilization”). Gender is an important variable in this process. Women’s involvement in the informal sector has increased as they are faced with economic recession, reduced job opportunities in the formal sector, and an increased need for additional family income. The relationship between formal sector and informal sector employment is particularly visible in industries producing goods for export. Industry sector studies on the garments and electronics sectors have shed new light on the relationships between industrial, formal sector work, and informal and household work.^{xxxix}

4.1 Impact of the Financial Crisis on the Informal Sector

The significance of the informal sector is poorly reflected in official statistics, thus it is not surprising that measures to support the sector are not well integrated in national human resource and economic policies. Neither has the impact of the financial crisis on informal sector workers and producers been well reflected in mainstream social impact frameworks, although it is evident that the informal sector has expanded in 1997-98 in APEC economies affected by the crisis, absorbing large numbers of those laid off from formal sector employment. The informal sector has also been affected through invisible layoffs resulting in unemployment shifts to self-employment, casual work and migration to urban or rural areas or overseas. Appendix C presents a summary of economic, social and welfare impacts of the financial crisis on formal sector workers, informal sector workers and informal sector producers, and illustrates the linkages between formal and informal sector employment effects. The economy papers prepared for the *Linkages Between Paid and Unpaid Work* project provide additional insights. They describe the shift from formal sector work to informal sector activities in Indonesia and Thailand, with marked gender differences in mobility patterns between women and men in Indonesia. In Malaysia, there has been an increase in informal activities such as hawking, petty-trading and food-stalls, although only Kuala Lumpur has a database that tracks entrants to this sector by sex. There is no gender policy to guide local authorities in licensing policy and practice. They point to the critical need to integrate a gender sensitive understanding of the labour market, one that includes paid and unpaid work in both the formal and informal sectors in the design of social safety nets and recovery strategies.

The invisibility of the informal sector is not confined to the realm of statistics. One analysis of mainstream news service coverage of the financial crisis, economic rescue packages, and news reports from non-governmental organizations found few references to the economic impact on women information^{xi}. One organization, ENGENDER, is proposing a news service that would focus on women's livelihoods in the crisis to address this dearth of information.

5. Linking Unpaid Work to Human Resource Policies

A major objective for APEC's Human Resource Development Working Group is increasing productivity in wage employment. Family responsibilities are a major factor affecting women's attachment to the labour force, as well as the use of non-standard work arrangements by those who have jobs.^{xii} Growing evidence of the economic significance of unpaid work underscores the need to integrate knowledge about unpaid activities into human resource development policy and activities.

The need to address growing child and elder care concerns of workers has also gained increased importance on corporate and government agendas in recent years, a reflection of the growing participation rates by women in the labour market. The changing demographics of the workforce, combined with an aging population, is one impetus for employers to adopt policies that will ease the conflicts of work and family responsibilities: an aging workforce means that increasingly, workers will have to juggle both child and elder care with their paid work responsibilities. The high cost of replacing experienced workers, women and men, who leave the workforce because of family responsibilities is another. A recent American study estimated the cost of replacing an employee at more than US\$100,000.^{xiii}

The failure of policymakers to account for reproductive work also results in certain key factors being excluded from policymaking, with resulting negative implications for productivity and human resource development. For example, more women than men take time away from paid work for childbearing and -rearing, and caring for the sick or elderly. These workers become ineligible for workplace-based training, thus, in addition to workplace-based programs, training and re-skilling programs must also be accessible through both formal and non-formal delivery mechanisms.

5.1 Strategies for Governments

5.1.1 Linkages between Unpaid Work and Women's Economic Security

Recognition by governments of the value of unpaid work could enhance women's economic security in several ways: tax credits for individuals who care for a disabled person in the home and child tax credits for stay-at-home parents to look after children are one form of recognition. The introduction of reimbursable tax credits to recognize the work of unpaid caregivers could be a mechanism that would enable them to contribute to pension plans and access other government programs, including job training and social security benefits. Governments could encourage the banking sector to recognize unpaid work as collateral for loans, thereby providing an important bridge for unpaid workers to move into micro- and small-businesses.

A wide range of policies intersect with and have an impact on unpaid work. Time-use data is useful for revealing linkages between the government's budget and household time budgets. The gender sensitive budget, or women's budget, is one analytic tool. In this exercise, the national budget is disaggregated and the effect of expenditure and revenue policies on women and men, girls and boys, is analyzed. The process tends to reveal that the national budget is anything but gender neutral: cutbacks in social services, for example, may increase the need for unpaid work. The distribution of unpaid work within households can further be affected by public sector policies, such as unequal employment or pension benefits, which may serve to reinforce traditional "choices" by women to remain outside the labour market. Australia pioneered work on gender sensitive budgets in the 1980s and 1990s, and two states (Tasmania and Northern Territory) continue to undertake women's budget exercises. The alternative budget exercise in Canada offers a similar analysis.^{xliii}

5.1.2 Linkages Between Unpaid Work and Labour Market Participation

Gender biases in tax systems, social security and welfare policies can have the effect of discouraging women from entering the labour market. A key step for governments is to make clear the assumptions and principles about families that shape economic and social policy. Understanding how policy can reinforce gender disadvantage or promote equal access to the productive economy is vital to successful human resource strategies. A framework for analysis examined by the *Linkages Between Paid and Unpaid Work* project team was that of sociologist Margrit Eichler, who posits three models of the family which influence policy and which have different gender impacts:

- The **patriarchal model**, where the household is treated as a unit, the father/husband is seen as responsible for the economic well-being of the family and the mother/wife is responsible for the household and care of family members, particularly children. With this model, the wife/mother is viewed as the economic dependent of her husband and her unpaid work is viewed as economically valueless. If either spouse ceases to perform his or her function, the state is likely to take over the job no longer performed by the absent spouse (for example, social welfare policies for single mothers that are only available so long as the mother does not live with a man).
- The **individual responsibility model**, where both husband and wife are seen as responsible for their own support as well as that of the other; both are responsible for the household and personal care of family members. Society may give support to families, but is not responsible for the economic well-being of the family or the care of family members when either husband or wife is present. In this model, the economic value of unpaid work is more visible. One implication of this model is that when one spouse is absent, the state will tend not to take over the role of the absent spouse. This leaves the remaining spouse taking on the family care and paid work responsibilities of two persons.
- A **social responsibility model**, where every adult is considered responsible for his or her own economic support would mean that all economic policies should attempt to attract women and men equally into the labour force. Some policies, however, would be required to overcome the barriers that some groups of women encounter when trying to enter or re-enter labour markets. In addition, labour markets would have to be restructured to become more flexible. This could mean, for example, reducing the distinctions between full- and part-time work, and introducing education leaves on a large-scale basis. Socially useful work in the household, such as caring for dependent children and the elderly, would need to be recognized as work and treated as such.^{xliiv}

Policy responses should include measures that promote a broader recognition and understanding of work and employment, including harmonizing work and family responsibilities for both women and men.^{xlv} Ideally, these responses would support a social responsibility model. Some good practices identified by the project team are:

- tracking projects in **Canada** supported by Human Resources Development Canada aimed at understanding the hidden costs of structural adjustment in households and communities;
- training programs for self-employment and micro-enterprise development in **Indonesia**;
- extension of unemployment insurance protection in **Korea** to workplaces employing fewer than five workers, including temporary and part-time workers;
- gender equality training for public sector employees in **Korea**;
- extension of social security protection to the self-employed, farmers, fishers, household workers, overseas workers and household managers in the **Philippines**;
- broad-based gender planning in **Thailand** under the Prospective Policies and Planning for Development of Women (1992-2011) launched by the National Commission on Women's Affairs;
- government recognition of and encouragement for model private sector policies and programs in the **United States**.

Steps for governments to consider include:

- Reform of the tax system and social security policies to eliminate the concept of the sole breadwinner in a two-adult family. Examples of policies that have disincentive effects on women's employment and men's ability to play a greater role in family care include joint income testing for social security benefits and dependent spouse allowances. When such benefits are determined based on the joint rather than separate income of spouses, a couple may find that it is not worthwhile for the wife to work (as women's wages are frequently lower than men's), or that the husband may not qualify as a dependent spouse;
- Reform of the tax system and social security policies should also aim to facilitate flexibility in the way people divide their time between education and training, paid employment, family responsibilities, volunteer activity and other socially useful forms of work;
- Maternity, paternity and childcare leave regulations; ensuring through legislation, incentives and/or encouragement, opportunities for women and men to take job-protected parental leave and to have parental benefits;
- Provision of family-friendly workplaces and social support structures and networks to serve the needs of families and workers;
- Provision of quality, affordable child-care services;
- Provision of care for the elderly, including community-based support programs;
- Financial social support services. Government can encourage enterprises to provide social services through offering tax rebates; employees can make reasonable contributions to facilities that directly benefit them; local community organizations can work with public employment service offices to provide some support services. Government can set ground rules; encourage initiatives from various institutions and facilitate conditions under which they operate;
- Arrangements to make it possible for workers to leave employment temporarily without adversely affecting training opportunities or sacrificing career development prospects. Measures include parental leave and reinsertion training so employees can update skills on re-entry in the labour market. This is particularly relevant for women who seek to re-enter the paid workforce after a period of absence for child or elder care;
- Arrangements for providing workers with more flexibility in planning their work day, to allow workers to remain in employment and maintain their work-related benefits while assuming responsibility for family care. This flexibility can take many forms: intermediate part-time work with the option to return to full-time hours, flextime, job sharing, and the ability to "capitalize" over the working week.

5.2 Private Sector Strategies

There is growing recognition by companies of the value-added of adopting policies and programs that are “family-friendly,” that is policies that make it easier for employees, particularly women, to balance work and family responsibilities.^{xlvi} Until fairly recently employees were expected to adjust their unpaid work responsibilities to the demands of their paid work, but increasingly, changes are occurring in organizations.^{xlvii}

Competitiveness and productivity are other considerations. There is growing evidence that “family-friendly policies” have a positive impact on productivity where indicators of productivity include recruitment, retention, morale, absenteeism, and tardiness^{xlviii}. An Australian study has developed a methodology for calculating the costs and benefits of family-friendly workplace policies.^{xlix}

While many companies have adopted such measures as parental leave, flexible hours, and job sharing, there is some ambivalence among observers about the actual impact of these measures. An increasing number of organizations offer family-friendly measures such as flextime or reduced hours, but low take-up rates by employees suggest the need for an understanding of the barriers. An overarching corporate culture that rewards long hours at the office, for example, can be a strong disincentive to workers’ applying for flextime to accommodate family needs.

Some suggest that focusing attention on the needs of working mothers has reinforced the view that it is only mothers who experience work-family conflicts, and that men do not. This notion is at variance with the reality that men increasingly share responsibility for child and elder care, and also experience scheduling constraints. Some companies are introducing “father-friendly” workplaces that recognize and provide flexibility for male workers. Issues to be addressed include rewarding workers for what they get done, rather than the number of hours they stay at the office; accommodating tele-work arrangements by assessing employees who work off-site by their ability to work independently, yet communicate with their work team to achieve goals; evaluating managers on their degree of support of work-family balance for employees.¹

Some experts have interpreted parental leave or parental part-time regulations as a way of inducing mothers to reduce their labour supply in times of slack labour demand. This has the effect of reinforcing traditional role models of the male breadwinner and female unpaid household worker, and throws highly skilled women backward in their career progression. Criteria for gender-neutral take-up of leave arrangements should include a well-developed infrastructure for both child care and maintaining employability during the career interruptions. Family leave allowances should be structured like unemployment benefits, that is, as an income replacement subject to taxes and social security contributions. A further criterion would be flexible take-up of entitlements to family time-off.^{li}

Telecommuting, or tele-work, is an alternative office arrangement that substitutes computing and telecommunications for the “commute” to the traditional office. Telecommuting can assist both women and men better balance work and family, when it is viewed not merely as a means of relocating work but is integrated with modern management strategies aimed at a less hierarchical organization. However, telecommuting cannot be a substitute for childcare or elder care. There are also concerns that telecommuting for women may in fact result in an increase in both their productive and reproductive workload, as “it is often men, as highly skilled professionals, who benefit from tele-homeworking, as the gender division of labour spares them the burden of domestic labour”.^{lii} Others have noted the tendency for the workday to creep beyond the eight-hour day: studies have shown that those with computers at home work an average of 2.5 hours per day more than those without home computers.^{liii}

5.3 Other Strategies for Governments, Employers, and Workers

- Retirements and retrenchments/redistributing work.

Are there ways of easing the abrupt transition to retirement that could provide both social and economic benefits? Can companies and governments recognize the value of volunteer activities and develop policies that would encourage and support it? These could include phased transitions to retirement for employees who could contribute skills and experience to the unpaid sector, while still retaining some regular income from paid work; company support for volunteer activity as part of employee early retirement packages; and tax credits for hours of volunteer work.

There is a need for better understanding of gender differences in volunteer activities. Canadian time-use survey data suggest that upon retirement, men and women allocate their time differently, with men, particularly retired

professional men, less likely to volunteer time, compared to women with similar occupational and educational backgrounds. Private and public sector employers could collaborate with civic organizations that need volunteer support to find ways of supporting increased participation in the volunteer sector.

Information on time use by different cohorts at different ages is also important for policymakers with respect to management of job-family tensions in senior years, and issues of late-life training and education for displaced workers.^{liv}

- Collective Agreements

Gender differences in time use can be integrated into collective agreements, for example, one collective labour agreement reduced working hours for occupations with at least 40 hours per week to 38 hours. More vacation days were preferred in male dominated occupations and reduced working weeks for women.^{lv} Another study found high demand among women workers for improved influence over scheduling and work demands to correspond with the needs of the family.^{lvi}

The Canadian Labour Congress has published a guide for unions considering bargaining for family-friendly workplaces. Issues include flexible working hours, job-sharing, job protection and consideration for expectant and nursing mothers and for those with family responsibilities.^{lvii}

6. Conclusions and Recommendations for the APEC Human Resources Development Working Group

This framework paper has highlighted many the key issues embraced in the discussion on linkages between paid and unpaid work. While questions about statistical methodologies to establish the size and impact of the unpaid sector persist, a survey of the literature and reports from organizations engaged in addressing technical questions suggests that consensus is emerging and methodologies are being refined. Several member economies are moving forward with time-use surveys and are piloting initiatives to attach a monetary value to the unpaid work performed in their economies. International organizations and associations are supporting work on improving data.

Accurate and complete data on unpaid work are important policy tools, however, the APEC HRD inquiry into unpaid work was interested primarily in the linkages with human resource policy. An understanding of the role that unpaid work plays in the individual lives of workers, particularly women, and in the overall functioning of the economy, is critical to the formulation of effective and sustainable human resource policy. This paper has attempted to outline some of the key areas for APEC HRD. These include:

- the contribution to be made by time -use data to identify barriers to employment, training and re-skilling, including time constraints, affecting target populations which policy interventions might be designed to reduce or eliminate;
- time-use data can reveal the implications of changing working conditions, such as increasing reliance on sub-contracting or other forms of “flexibilization”, on target populations and households that other survey tools may miss;
- the importance of integrating the informal sector in human resources strategies. The financial crisis has demonstrated vividly the important role this sector plays in sustaining livelihoods, and the importance of extending social safety nets and labour protection to include workers outside the formalwork force.
- the need for a more complete understanding of the economy in which the labour market operates. The economic model informing human resource policy should incorporate inputs from the formal sector, informal sector, household sector and reproductive activity. This model recognizes that unpaid labour is a finite resource, and can be depleted;
- the important role played by the voluntary sector in maintaining society and the need for a better understanding of how policy can support or constrain that sector.

The paper attempts to identify key issues and suggest steps that go beyond interventions aimed at assisting women in their existing roles in society, for those existing roles may tend to conflict with broader policy objectives for full participation in gainful formal sector employment. Rather, the paper and the project team have sought to address underlying issues related to the allocation of paid and unpaid work between women and men, recognizing that it is not realistic to assume that women can add extra paid work and training time to an already overstretched time budget.

A key role for governments is create the enabling environment for women and men to participate fully in the economy and have equal access to the benefits of growth, including gainful employment and opportunities for education, training and lifelong learning. An analytical framework developed by sociologist Margrit Eichler contributes to revealing whether policy tends to support traditional, subordinate roles for women or contributes to a more equal division of labour between women and men in total work, paid and unpaid. The gender sensitive budget is another tool that assists in uncovering how apparently gender neutral policy measures may have unequal impacts on women and men and unintentionally constrain the effectiveness of initiatives in other policy areas, such as human resource policy, aimed at promoting women's economic equality.

The papers prepared by experts from the nine participating APEC member economies in the "Paid and Unpaid Work Project" identify good practices adopted by their public and private sectors that recognize and integrate paid and unpaid work, and suggest additional steps that could be taken by APEC, by governments and other organizations. The evaluation criteria for "good practices" suggested by the project team are:

- does the practice or policy recognize the role of the family/household? Does it recognize and take into account the interface between paid and unpaid work?
- what is the actual take-up rate by the target population?

6.1 Recommendations:

- A key recommendation for the APEC Human Resources Development Working Group is that it broaden its agenda for human resource development to include all human resources, paid and unpaid, formal and informal, in and out of the home. This vision of the "labour force" recognizes that increasingly, workers move in and out of the paid, formal labour market. Changes in the paid, formal economy have profound impacts on the unpaid and informal sectors, sectors which engage a significant proportion of workers, particularly women.
- The interplay between paid and unpaid work needs to be better understood and integrated into policy. Research is needed on understanding barriers to full participation in the paid workforce, including the impacts of government policies and fiscal measures. The gender sensitive budget exercise is one analytical tool being developed to reveal unintended biases in national budgets that serve to restrict women's participation in the labour market. The HRD WG might consider, or recommend to some other appropriate APEC forum, piloting a gender analysis of two or more APEC member economies' budgets.
- With respect to the human resource implications of the financial crisis, the HRD WG should consider examining the responses of those economies that have had the most success in responding to the crisis to see what policies were put in place that supported the informal sector. What policy responses will support workers in both the formal and informal sectors to take advantage of opportunities that emerge in periods of economic reconstruction?
- The APEC HRD Labour Market Information Database should include data on workers in the informal sector. In view of the complexities involved in developing comprehensive informal sector statistics, the HRD WG's Labour Market Information Group might consider ways to develop collaborative linkages with organizations which are attempting to improve informal sector data, for example, Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO).
- The APEC Human Resource Development Working Group should consider ways to develop broader partnerships with research and policy networks whose work on paid and unpaid work and the informal sector could contribute to APEC goals for human resource development. This could be done by reinforcing and expanding networks developed through the implementation of the *Linkages Between Paid and Unpaid Work* project in subsequent APEC HRD projects, and through linkages to related work other APEC fora.
- The APEC Business Management Network's Chief Human Resources Officers Network (CHRO) should consider holding a seminar to discuss family-friendly workplace practices in Asia-Pacific economies. This discussion could include an assessment of which family-friendly practices have been most successful, that is, have experienced the greatest take-up by workers, and an evaluation of why others have not.

Appendix A

Accounting for Unpaid Work: A Brief Overview

Following is a brief outline of issues and progress in addressing the underestimation of women's work in labour force statistics and national income accounts since the 1970s. This section draws largely from overviews by Lourdes Beneria, "Accounting for Women's Work: The Progress of Two Decades," in *World Development* Vol. 20, No. 11, pp. 1547-1560, 1992, and Lucita S. Lazo, "Counting Paid and Unpaid Work: The State of the Art in the Asia-Pacific Region," Centre for the Informal Sector, Philippines Social Science Centre, Philippines, 1999.

- In the 1970s economist Ester Boserup brought attention to the underestimation of, and exclusion of women's subsistence activities in agriculture in national income accounting. It was observed that production for own consumption was larger in developing agricultural countries. However, even in high income countries, as labour becomes more expensive, self-help activities increase, usually resulting in an increase in the hours spent on unpaid household work. The importance of recognizing this trend is the cyclical shifts of production between the household and the market, whereby the shift to the household is likely to be underestimated.
- The 1980s and 1990s revealed a need for systematic information about domestic production and subsistence activities as the intensification of women's work as a result of structural adjustment policies implemented in many countries was discussed.
- In 1982, the 13th International Conference on Labour Statisticians introduced a new definition of "economically active population" to include subsistence production in national accounts. Remaining was the need for more countries to recognize activities such as gathering fuel or water, processing crops, etc., to be considered "economic activities."
- The 1985 United Nations World Conference on Women in Nairobi produced a report, *Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women*, strongly recommending efforts to measure the contribution of women's paid and unpaid work to "all aspects and sectors of development." This led to support by international organizations, non-government organizations, and governments to systematically include statistics on women's work in national accounts, particularly in labour force and production statistics.
- Since 1986, considerable progress has been made on reviewing national accounts and statistics on women's work, including revisions in the International Standard Classification of Occupations.
- In 1989 the United Nations World Survey on the Role of Women in Development recognized the need to value non-monetary production in monetary terms prevailing in the market. The UN Expert Group on Measurement of Women's Income and their Participation and Production in the Informal Sector recommended the use of "satellite accounts" to record economic processes of unpaid production of goods and services in households, to complement statistics compiled under the System of National Accounts (SNA). However, there was little agreement on the inclusion of services and volunteer work. The practical implementation is the responsibility of individual member states.
- The early 1990s saw debate around the definition of "total labour force" by UN branches, researchers and women's communities, in order to go beyond subsistence activities to include domestic work and related activities.

- In 1993 the SNA was revised to include all production of goods in households, yet it excluded personal and domestic services within households.
- The *Platform for Action*, adopted at the World Conference on Women in Beijing, September 1995, once again emphasized the need to devise statistical means to make women's work visible and their contributions to national economies, "including their contribution in the unremunerated and domestic sectors, and examine the relationship of women's unremunerated work to the incidence of and their vulnerability to poverty (70 b)."
- Practical difficulties have been identified at national and international levels for collecting data. These include a lack of awareness of the problem and possible solutions; resistance due to beliefs in the adequacy of current systems; technical problems, such as generating data on a large scale; and cost considerations, particularly for low-income countries.
- A major development in methodology for counting paid and unpaid work in 1997 was the UN Trial International Classification for Time Use Activities. The work provides the basis for coding data from time-use surveys and provides categories for assessing national labour inputs into the production of all goods and types of services, in the compilation of household satellite accounts, and in examining trends.

The Voluntary Sector

Voluntary work can be offered either through a formal non-profit organization or independently of any group by people helping on their own. These are "formal" and "informal" volunteers, respectively. The designation "voluntary" work is used here to refer both to work and services performed willingly and without pay through volunteer organizations, and also to informal unpaid help and care rendered to those outside one's own household and to adults, such as elderly relatives, within the household.

Voluntary work refers to three types of assistance:

- help provided directly to others, as in answering a help line or caring for elderly or disabled persons,
- working for the environment or wildlife, and
- providing benefit to society at large or to the local community

Non-profit organizations include groups committed to health care, education and youth development, social services, religious activity, sport and recreation, environmental protection, law and justice, employment opportunities, art and culture, and general public benefit.

"Work of civic value" is defined as non-investment activity undertaken by an individual that, by its nature, is thought to yield more public, community and social benefits than private or family benefits. Such activities are thought to be essential to the promotion of peace, order and good government; effective and just local communities; more publicly sensitive schools, hospitals, businesses and other institutions; and civic minded and environmentally sensitive citizens (Statistics Canada). It is included with voluntary work into one category (See, for example, GPI Atlantic. "Economic Value of Civic and Voluntary Work: Part 1." Genuine Progress Index, Nova Scotia, Canada. <http://www.gpiatlantic.org>).

Appendix B

The Informal Sector

This section is adapted from Jacques Charmes, "Informal Sector, Poverty and Gender: A Review of Empirical Evidence." October 1998. Paper submitted for the World Development Report 2000 and presented at a WIEGO Workshop, April 14, 1999, Ottawa, Canada.

The main features of informal sector economic units are: small scale of the activity; self-employment, with a high proportion of family workers and apprentices; little capital and equipment; labour intensive technologies; low skills; low level of organization with no access to organized markets, to formal credit, to education and training or services and amenities; cheap provision of goods and services or provision of goods and services otherwise unavailable; low productivity and low incomes according to some analysts, or, on the contrary, incomes that are notably higher than the public sector, especially during the recent period and in the context of structural adjustment policies, for other observers.

Although these activities are legal, they rarely comply with official and administrative requirements. More specifically, as they often go unregistered, they do not pay relevant taxes, not only or not mostly out of a desire or willingness to escape and to remain concealed, but more likely because of the inability of governments to enforce often inadequate regulations. They have become a means for many countries to cope with population growth, rural-urban migrations, economic crises, poverty and indebtedness. In addition, many formal wage-earners are engaged in informal businesses held as additional jobs in order to compensate declining wages and purchasing power.

Definitions

In 1993 the International Conference of Labour Statisticians agreed on a definition of the informal sector for statistical purposes. The category "unpaid family worker" was changed to "contributing family worker" and the group "own-account" workers was expanded to include people working in a family enterprise with the same degree of commitment as the head of the enterprise. These people, usually women, were formerly considered "unpaid family workers" (*World Development Indicators*. Washington DC: World Bank, 1998, p.57).

The statistical definition distinguishes two main segments of the informal sector:

- 1) "family enterprise" (own-account informal enterprise) without permanent employees;
- 2) "micro-enterprise" (informal employers) without permanent employees.

"Informal own-account enterprises" are enterprises in the household sector owned and operated by own-account workers, which may employ contributing family workers and employees on an occasional basis but do not employ employees on a continual basis. Informal sector enterprises engage in the production of goods or services with the primary objective of generating employment and income to the persons concerned "and typically operate at a low level of organization with little division between labour and capital as factors of production and on a small scale" (*The World's Women 1970-95: Trends and Statistics*. New York: UN, 1995, p. 116).

Units engaged exclusively in non-market production, that is subsistence units, and in agricultural activities generally, although included within production in the national accounts, are not included in this definition of the informal sector. The age limit of the population recorded as working in the informal sector merits special attention because of the extent of child labour. The ILO recommendation is to collect information on the work of children irrespective of age.

Class of Workers

(ILO definitions as outlined in *1998 World Development Indicators*)

Employers operate, alone or with one or more partners, their own economic enterprise, or engage independently in a profession or trade, and hire one or more employees on a continuous basis. The definition of a “continual basis” is determined by national circumstances. Partners may or may not be members of the same family or household.

Own-account workers operate, alone or with one or more partners, their own economic enterprise, or engage independently in a profession or trade, and hire no employees on a continuous basis. As with employers, partners may or may not be members of the same family or household.

Employees are people who work for a public or private employer and receive remuneration in the form of wages, salaries, commissions, tips, piece rates, or in-kind payments.

Unpaid Family Workers¹ work without pay in an economic enterprise operated by a related person living in the same household and cannot be regarded as a partner because their commitment in terms of working time or other factors is not at a level comparable to that of the head of the enterprise. In countries where it is customary for young people to work without pay in an enterprise operated by a related person, the requirement of living in the same household is often eliminated.

Employed Persons² usually refers to 15 years of age and older.

Self-employed. Thailand counts both own-account workers and unpaid family workers, as does Chinese Taipei. The U.S. counts unincorporated self-employed, but incorporated self-employed are counted as employees (wage and salary workers).

1. The Philippines states unpaid workers are persons working without regular pay for at least 1/3 of the working time normal to the establishment. The United States further defines as “without pay for 15 hours/week. Canada includes child-oriented work, providing help to relatives and friends, performing housework, and voluntary community work as unpaid work, and it is included in the definition of work of economic value in the Total Works Account System. Australia equates total unpaid work with unpaid housework and volunteer and community work. Total unpaid work is not included in the main production boundary of the National Accounts (SNA), but is recorded in the “satellite” accounts. Malaysia terms housewives “outside the labour force.”

²The United States uses data on individuals 16 years of age and older.

Appendix C

The Asian Crisis and the Informal Sector Impact-Response Framework *

Economic Impacts

	Formal Sector Workers	Informal Sector Workers	Informal Sector Producers
Employment Effects	Layoffs (visible) resulting in unemployment shifts to: self-employment sub-contract work part-time work migration (urban, rural, overseas)	layoffs (invisible) resulting in: -unemployment shifts to- self-employment casual work migration (urban, rural, overseas)	loss of livelihood shifts to sub-contract work shifts between sectors (e.g. to agriculture) intensification of work migration (urban, rural, overseas)
Production Effects			scarcity of raw materials drop in market demand loss of marketing outlets competition + crowding drop in volume of production
Income Effects	Drop in real wages	drop in real wages	drop in volume/value of sales
Price Effects	Rise in cost of living	rise in cost of living	rise in cost of living rise in input prices drop in output prices
Public Spending Effects	Lack of public services Rise in cost of public services	lack of public services rise in cost of public services	lack of public services rise in cost of public services

The Asian Crisis and the Informal Sector Impact-Response Framework *

Social and Welfare Effects

Health

Decline in health services
Decline in reproductive/contraceptive services
Rise in health care costs
Rise in costs of contraception
Rise in malnutrition
Rise in incidence of certain diseases (e.g. HIV/AIDS)

Education

Decline in education services
Decline in school enrollment
Rise in school drop-outs
Rise in absenteeism

Social

Rise in drug or alcohol addiction
Rise in violence: domestic + workplace
Rise in child labour
Rise in prostitution

Psychological

Rise in stress
Rise in mental health problems, notably depression
Rise in suicide rate

Security

Rise in crime
Rise in civil unrest
Rise in human rights violations

Demographic

Rise in fertility

* Based on the Framework presented by Lucita Lazo, HomeNet, Patamaba, Philippines, to the WIEGO Seminar on the Informal Sector, Ottawa, April 14, 1999. The text in bold represents the types impacts that were not included in the social impact frameworks of the World Bank, UNDP, or the ILO.

Endnotes

ⁱ I would like to acknowledge and express appreciation for the research and writing contributions of Julia Bracken, Graduate Student, School of Public Administration, Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada.

ⁱⁱ Table 2 provides figures on Female Labour Force Participation in APEC Economies.

ⁱⁱⁱ For a broader discussion of gender impacts of globalization and trade liberalization see Marzia Fontana, Susan Joekes and Rachel Masika. January 1998. "Global Trade Expansion and Liberalization: Gender Issues and Impacts", a study prepared for the Department for International Development, UK. BRIDGE (Briefings on Development and Gender), Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, UK. <http://www.ids.ac.uk/bridge>; Ehnes, Ulrike, ed., Gender in Trade Union Work: Experiences and Challenges. Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung, Bonn, 1998.

^{iv} Recognition of gender considerations in APEC is a fairly recent development, however, the "enabling language" has always been included in APEC documents. The 1991 *Seoul Declaration* by APEC Ministers states that a main objective of APEC is "sustaining the growth and development of the region for the common good of its people". There are other APEC documents that address APEC's "people agenda", but explicit attention to women's concerns moved onto the main APEC agenda in November 1996, when APEC Leaders emphasized the need "to jointly undertake economic and technical cooperation activities that will promote the full participation of men and women in the benefits of economic growth". In 1997, APEC Leaders noted that "APEC should take specific steps to reinforce the important role of women in economic development". APEC Ministers responsible for women's concerns related to economics and trade met first time October 15-16, 1998, to discuss women in economic development in APEC. Based on the Ministers' recommendations, APEC has set up an Ad Hoc Task Force on the Integration of Women in APEC which is developing a formal Framework for the Integration of Women and APEC Guidelines for Gender Analysis for approval by APEC Ministers in September 1999.

Other working groups in APEC have discussed the "gender dimension" of their agenda. The Industrial Science and Technology Working Group set up an Ad Hoc Committee on Gender following a decision by APEC Ministers at a 1996 Conference on Regional Science and Technology Coordination "to recognize gender as a cross-cutting concern with implications for other APEC fora". APEC SME Ministers have twice (in 1997 and 1998) welcomed recommendations from the Women Leaders' Network on the specific needs of women entrepreneurs. APEC Transport Ministers have called on the Transportation Working Group to "identify training and development initiatives to ensure that women and youth are well-prepared for career opportunities in the transportation sector."

^v Two projects of the APEC Human Resource Development Working Group (HRDWG) have called for human resource planners and policy makers to address the interface between paid and unpaid work (*Gender Equity in Education and Training: Meeting the Needs of APEC Economies in Transition*, 1994; *The Role and Status of the HRD of Women in Social and Economic Development*, 1996). More recently, the Industrial Science and Technology Working Group (ISTWG) has discussed questions relating to recruitment and retention of highly skilled women in key sectors, notably science and technology. A 1998 ISTWG Experts' Meeting on Gender and S&T drew attention to the need for sex-disaggregated data on time spent on household chores and parenting. At its March 1998 meeting, the ISTWG Ad Hoc Group on Gender and S&T expressed interest in "best practices in the workplace" that enhance retention of women scientists, including "family-friendly policies" such as flexible workplace policies on elder and child care.

^{vi} APEC Ministerial Meeting on Women October 15-16, 1998. *Joint Ministerial Statement*. At <http://www.apecsec.org.sg>.

^{vii} *Gender Equity in Education and Training, Meeting the Needs of APEC Economies in Transition* (1994); *The Role and Status of Women's HRD in Social and Economic Development* (1997); *Gender and Lifelong Learning* (1998).

^{viii} This section draws from Chapter IV, *Women in the World of Work: Application of a Gender Perspective*, Working Draft, 10 June, 1998, prepared by the ILO, for the UN 1999 World Survey on the Role of Women in Development.

^{ix} Ibid, p. 3.

^x Human activities may be grouped into three categories:

- (a) personal activities (non-economic, like listening to music);
- (b) productive non-market activities (mostly for own consumption); and
- (c) productive market-oriented activities.

A personal activity is an activity that no one else can do for another person; it is defined by the “third person” criterion, which states that an activity is deemed to be productive if it may be delegated to person other than the one benefiting from it (for example, listening to music). The boundary between (b) and (c) is roughly the “production boundary” defined in the United Nations System of National Accounts (SNA). Luisella Goldschmidt-Clermont, Elisabetta Pagnossin-Aligisakis. 1995. “Measures of Unrecorded Economic Activities in Fourteen Countries”. UNDP.

^{xi} Joke Swiebel, Unpaid Work and Policy-Making: Towards a Broader Perspective of Work and Employment”, DESA Discussion Paper No. 4. United Nations, February 1999.

^{xii} Luisella Goldschmidt Clermont and Elisabetta Pagnossin Aligisakis. p. 5.

^{xiii} For a working definition of “unpaid work” and “informal sector”, please see Appendix 1 and 2.

^{xiv} To illustrate the differences in time use for paid and unpaid work by women and men, Table 2 presents the results of time use surveys for five APEC member economies.

^{xv} Diane Elson. 1993. “Unpaid Labour, Macroeconomic Adjustment and Macroeconomic Strategies”. Gender Analysis and Development Economic Programme Working Paper No. 3. University of Manchester, UK.

^{xvi} See Duncan Ironmonger, 1996. “Priorities for Research on Nonmarket Work”, *Feminist Economics* 2 (3), pp. 149-152; Mike McCracken, “Gender and the National Accounts: Notes for a presentation to the National Accounts Advisory Group”, April 29, 1998, mimeo, and Isabella Bakker, “Linkages Between Paid and Unpaid Work in Human Resource Policy: Canada”, paper prepared for the APEC HRD NEDM project, “Linkages Between Paid and Unpaid Work in Formulating Human Resource Policy”, May 8, 1999. <http://www.apecsec.org.sg>.

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Table 1. FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN APEC ECONOMIES

Women's share of adult labour force (age 15 and above)

APEC member	Year 1970	Year 1980	Year 1990	Year 1996
Australia	26.9	37.6	41.5	46
Brunei Darussalam	30.2	23.8	29.5	
Canada	26.5	40.1	44.7	45
Chile	13.9	26.1	31	32
People's Republic of China	44.3	43	45	45
Chinese Taipei	35.45	39.25	44.5	45.76
Hong Kong, China	29.5	35.4	37.9	37
Indonesia	22.7	33	39.9	40
Japan	39.1	37.7	40.6	41
Republic of Korea	23.1	36.6	40.4	41
Malaysia	21.5	33.7	35.3	37
Mexico	10.1	27.8	23.5	31
New Zealand	22.9	34.2	43.4	44
Papua New Guinea	45	48.9	41	42
Peru	22	24	27	29
Republic of the Philippines	24.5	38	37	37
Russian Federation	51	49	48	49
Singapore	18.6	34.5	39.8	38
Thailand	46.7	48.1	46.6	46
United States	28.8	42.1	44.9	46
Vietnam	48	48	50	49

Sources: UNDP. 1997. *Human Development Report 1997*. New York.

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Chinese Taipei figures from the *Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of China 1998*, Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics.

Table 2. Indicators on Time Use

Work (hours per week) of women and men

APEC Member	Year	Total		Paid		Unpaid		H/hold chores		Child Care	
		w	m	w	m	w	m	w	m	w	m
Australia	87	49.9	50.9	16.9	35.5	33	15.3	27.2	13.8	5.8	1.6
	92	48.7	48.9	14.7	31.4	34	17.5	28.2	15.9	5.7	1.6
Canada	86	46.4	56.4	17.5	32.9	28.9	13.5	24.6	12.1	4.3	1.4
	92	47.6	47.1	18.7	31.5	28.9	15.6	24.7	13.9	4.2	1.8
US	86	56.4	59.5	24.5	41.3	31.9	18.1	29.9	17.4	2	0.8
Japan	86	45.5	43.1	21.2	41.8	24.3	1.3	21.1	1.1	3.2	0.2
	91	46.6	43.6	19.5	40.8	27.1	2.8	24.5	2.5	2.6	0.4
Korea	87	41.5	37.1	22.5	34.8	19	2.3	18	2.2	1.1	0.1
	90	39	37.5	21.4	35.4	17.6	2.1	17.2	2	0.5	0.1

Source: United Nations. 1995. *The World's Women 1970-95: Trends and Statistics*. New York (Table 8A), p. 132.

Table 3. Informal Sector: Own-account and family workers as a share of non-agricultural labour force and total informal sector employment (percent)

APEC Member	Years 70	Years 80	Years 90	Years 93-97	Total Informal Sector	
Hong Kong	14.3	13.7	11.7	10.3		
Indonesia	50.2	58.3		49.9		
Korea	35	39.4		30.2		
Malaysia		32		17.9		
Philippines	38.2			33.1		
Singapore	28.7	19.1		13.2		
Thailand	43.6	43.5		32.8		
South East Asia	35	34.3		26.8		
			Year 90	Year 95	90	95
Chile			23.6	23.9	49.9	51.2
Peru			35.3	35.9	51.8	53.9
Mexico			30.4	32.3	55.5	59.4

Source: Jacques Charmes, October 1998. "Informal Sector, Poverty and Gender: A Review of Empirical Evidence". Paper submitted for the World Development Report 2000 and presented at the WIEGO Workshop, Ottawa, Canada, April 14, 1999. (Note: Table - elaborated by the author on the basis of national labour force surveys and population censuses. Regional figure is nonweighted arithmetical means.)

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- International Association of Time -Use Researchers.
[Http://www.stmarys.ca/partners/iatur](http://www.stmarys.ca/partners/iatur)
- WIEGO (Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing). WIEGO is a worldwide coalition of institutions and individuals concerned with improving statistics, research, programmes, and policies in support of women in the informal sector of the economy. [Http://www.wiego.org](http://www.wiego.org)