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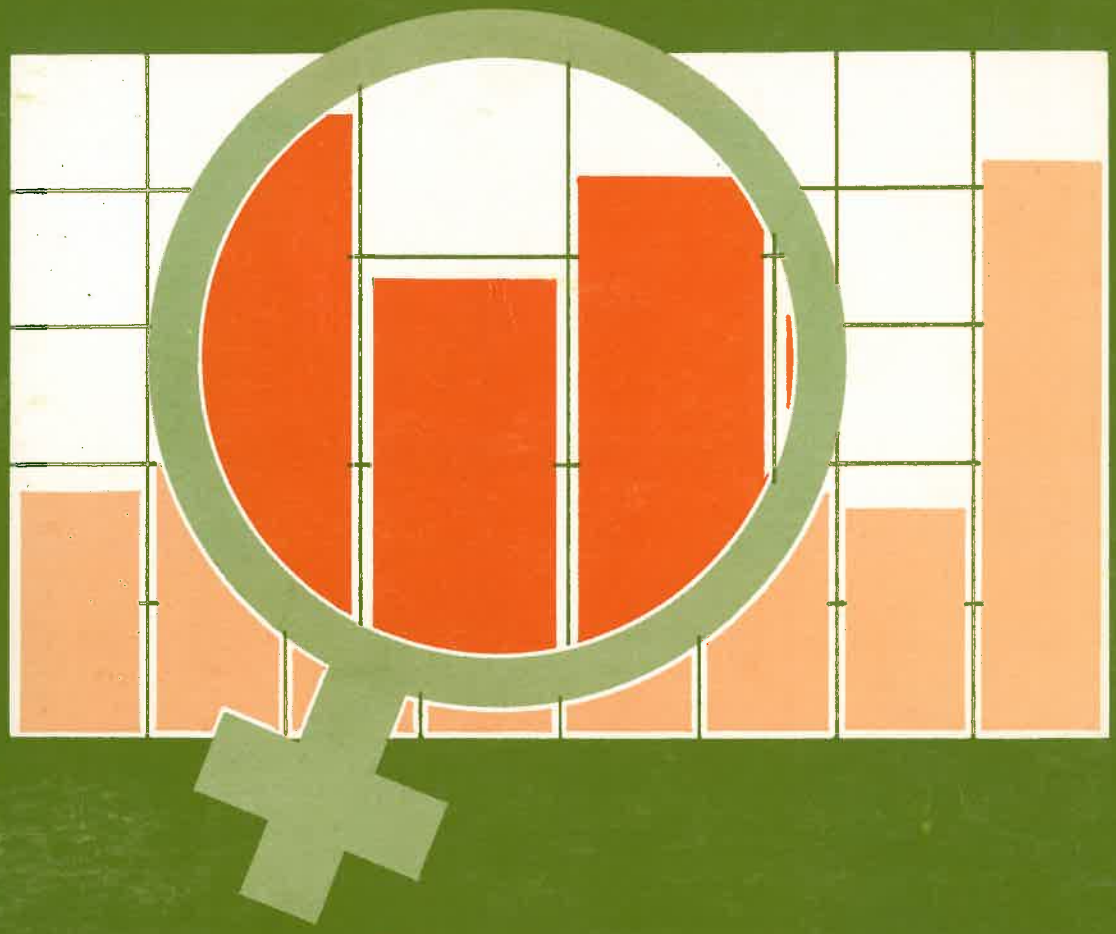
STATISTICS ON



WOMEN

WOMEN'S LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

MEASUREMENT OF LABOUR INPUTS & VALUATION OF THEIR OUTPUT

STATISTIC REQUIRED FOR IMPLEMENTING THE FORWARD LOOKING STRATEGIES

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Compilation of Papers Presented During the Second INSTRAW/ECE Meeting on Statistics of Women Geneva, Switzerland 13-16 November, 1989

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Economic Commission for Europe

United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women

STATISTICS ON WOMEN

Improved Measurement of Women's Labour Force Participation

Measurement of Labour Inputs and Valuation of their Outputs

Statistics Required for Implementing the Forward-looking Strategies

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FOREWORD

The need for statistics and indicators on women was first expressed at the international level in the World Plan of Action adopted by the World Conference of the International Women's Year which was followed-up by the recommendations contained in the Programme of Action for the Second Half of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace and the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women. The Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies states that "timely and reliable statistics on the situation of women have an important role to play in the elimination of stereotypes and the movement towards full equality..."[1/] Pursuant to these recommendations and in the process of identifying specific ways and means of implementing these strategies, INSTRAW, since its inception, has developed concrete programmes on statistics to address issues considered critical to the compilation of adequate and reliable information on women and for developing methodologies of measuring women's contribution to development. These programmes consist of interlocking components of research, training and information dissemination so designed to assist efforts at national and international levels in the development of an analytical and conceptual framework for the collection, analysis and dissemination of information related to women and development. In carrying out activities under these programmes, a close collaboration with the regional commissions and other United Nations bodies such as the Statistical Office of the United Nations Secretariat has been maintained. These collaborative efforts have enabled the Institute to successfully undertake its research activities, meetings and training workshops on statistics and indicators on women conducted at international, regional, subregional and national levels in an efficient and effective manner and resulting in an on-going dialogue between users and producers of statistics and indicators on women and development.

It is within this mode of operation that INSTRAW undertakes work with the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE). The major collaborative work between the two organizations began in March 1985, when INSTRAW and the Conference of European Statisticians, a principal subsidiary body of the ECE, jointly convened the first meeting of ECE countries on Statistics and Indicators on the Role and Situation of Women, a programme approved by the Conference of European Statisticians at its Thirty-First Plenary session in 1983.

Although the focus of the discussions during the first joint ECE/INSTRAW meeting revolved around issues based on experiences of countries in the ECE region, the meeting touched upon items of global concern such as issues on data sources, the adequacy of existing classification schemes for statistics on women and the conceptual and methodological problems in

1/ United Nations, The Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women, paragraph 58, April 1986.

statistics on women. It was during this meeting that the importance of work being undertaken on the development of concepts and methods capable of reflecting and measuring the multi-dimensional character of women's activities (e.g. unpaid family work and other types of unpaid work) was stressed. In addition, other issues concerned with giving greater economic and social recognition to the labour of women were also emphasized during the discussion, such as work done by them in household production and in the informal sector, and the importance of imputing the monetary value of housework. Drawing from the results of the discussions, the meeting identified a number of specific topics that required further work in the next few years for INSTRAW, the Conference of European Statisticians and other bodies and agencies of the United Nations system. A Second Joint INSTRAW/ECE meeting was therefore proposed which was to focus on the subjects in which sufficient progress had been made.

The period between 1985 and 1989 marked some notable developments, many of which were directed to improving statistics on women in development. However, the problems of making the contribution of women more visible in economic statistics are still far from resolved. In May 1987, ECE convened an informal meeting to review the progress made on improving statistics and indicators on the activities of women and the difficulties and problems encountered in their implementation. Although the meeting underlines that there had been steady progress towards documenting the activities of women much had still to be done. Thus in November 1989, the second INSTRAW/ECE meeting on Statistics of Women was held focussing on three important issues: 1) Improved measurement of women's labour force participation. 2) Measurement of labour inputs and valuation of their outputs and; 3) Statistics required for the implementation of the Forward-looking Strategies.

Significant contributions of research on statistics on women were highlighted in the papers prepared and presented by the country representatives and the international agencies involved in this effort. The papers in the present volume are the outcome of these endeavours. Apart from country experiences on compiling statistics and indicators, the papers contain approaches to valuation of household work, in relation to national accounts, the work of women as home carers, the issues involved in time-use studies and others. The papers review many of the conceptual and methodological issues which have long been of interest to specialists as well as users of statistics. The papers undoubtedly could stimulate further work for a wider audience of different regions and statistical backgrounds in articulating methodologies for an adequate measurement of women's work.

Apart from providing an avenue for circulating the results of ongoing research and recommendations of the meeting of statisticians in the ECE region, it is our opinion that this publication could be a useful reference document for national statistical offices and research institutions as well as for training. This present volume brings together significant work done in some problem areas of statistics related to women and therefore is a rich source of information on the new and emerging concepts for the valuation of women's work.

It is our sincere hope that this volume would be of valuable assistance to all interested in making women's work and contribution to society adequately recognized.

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CHAPTER I

IMPROVED MEASUREMENT OF WOMEN'S LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

UNDERESTIMATION OF WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN THE LABOUR FORCE OR NEW FORMS OF INEQUALITY BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN IN THE LABOUR MARKET?*

by

Olivier Marchand

Over the past 30 or 40 years there has been a gradual change in the treatment given by statisticians in France to women's participation in the labour force [1].**/ Nowadays the place and role of women in society depend more on their place in the labour force than on their role in the family: a fact which clearly cuts across the picture reflected by the statisticians' analyses. In this paper we shall consider the measuring instruments employed and the latest studies of women's economic activity, and see what light they throw on the changes under way and the evolution of society's view of itself.

The idea underlying our analysis is that nowadays the problem is no longer one of disputing women's chance to work outside the home. The development of women's economic activity is accepted as "irreversible", [2] and there is far less debate than in the past over its scale. This does not mean, however, that comparisons between men and women and the putting-down of women that used to follow are no longer relevant. Quite simply the issue has shifted away from the ratio of activity to inactivity. The putting-down process has moved into employment, through the division into employed and unemployed and through the characteristics of unemployment and, more particularly, of employment: precariousness, working conditions, wages, under-employment and so on.

I. THE QUESTIONS ASKED IN THE EMPLOYMENT SURVEY WITH REGARD TO WOMEN'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

The annual employment survey carried out by INSEE is the main tool for keeping track of the working population, employment and unemployment between censuses. In the interests of rapid analysis, the questionnaire and the sequence for processing the survey are kept unchanged between two censuses. The census dates, on the other hand, provide an opportunity to take into account any new phenomena, and the expectations of the survey's users, by adapting or extending the questionnaire. For the recent past a

*/ Report submitted by the National Institute of Statistics and Economic Surveys of France (INSEE)

**/ The numbers in brackets refer to the bibliography.

1975-1981 round and a 1982-1989 round are available. These separate rounds include an initial and essential question, the so-called filter question, which is also asked during the census and which concerns the main occupation of each person questioned on the date of the survey. It is followed by more specific questions concerning the main occupational activity and the search for employment, which make it possible to build up a second concept of activity, that of the ILO, currently used in the publications containing the survey results. Without going into the precise definitions and the divergences between activity for the purposes of the census and activity in the ILO sense (see table 1 in [3]), we shall concern ourselves here with the changes made in 1982 or between 1982 and 1989, and then with those planned for the future round of employment surveys due to begin in 1990, in an endeavour to show how the focus of concern regarding women's economic activity has shifted in the course of the past 15 years.

The innovations of the 1982 questionnaire

In 1975 for the first time, the employment survey was really able to measure the working population, employment and unemployment in accordance with ILO thinking. From this standpoint the current round has made fewer innovations than the previous one. However, new questions concerning precarious employment were introduced in 1982 together with supplementary questions affording a clearer identification of occupations in terms of the new nomenclature of jobs and professions.

A further major innovation was to scrap self-classification: until then, at the beginning of the interview, everyone questioned in the employment survey had been required to classify him or herself, without any prompting by the enumerator, in one of three main categories - gainfully employed, unemployed or inactive - so that orders of magnitude close to those of the census could be calculated. As the interview went on, the enumerator went into the respondent's situation in more detail. However, this method had proved disappointing. On the one hand, enumerators reported difficulties in meeting that obligation; on the other, the results of the comparison between the employment survey and the 1975 population census carried out by juxtaposing data on the same individuals showed that, even with the procedure followed, it was idle to expect the employment survey to produce information strictly comparable with that obtained from the censuses [4].

Since 1982 the question leading to an initial classification of the respondents has accordingly been asked by the enumerator, and the list of categories adopted for that purpose has been slightly modified. In particular, among the unemployed, those describing themselves as registered with the National Employment Agency (ANPE) have been placed in a separate category. As with the new question concerning occupational classification, which is based on the grids most often used in collective agreements, the purpose of the approach was to question respondents on the basis of their institutional, official status in order to arrive at results that would be more reliable and easier to interpret.

Supplementary inquiries held since 1982

Supplementary inquiries of three kinds have been held since 1982:

- The first has made use of the opportunities offered by the survey itself to determine, by means of an open question, the nature of the training followed by all the respondents, who were classified as "trainees". This question, originally intended only for wage-earners in the private sector, was extended as from 1985 to State and local government officers and has made it possible to distinguish more clearly, among those engaged in training jobs, the individuals closer to the economically active sphere (e.g.: those employed in work of use to the community (TUC) or undergoing initiation into occupational life (SIVP)] from those closer to the economically inactive sphere). Annual adaptation of the questionnaire has thus made it possible to keep a close eye on the rapid evolution of new forms of economic activity, in particular among young people.

- The surveys supplementary to the main survey, carried out in March 1985 and 1986, were also designed to find out more about certain situations on the borderline between economic inactivity and activity. The 1985 survey covered the age group 50-65, who frequently benefit from early retirement schemes, while the 1986 survey covered the under 25s.

- Lastly, a survey entitled "Following up the unemployed", which was carried out on a sample of 9,000 individuals unemployed in August 1986, who were interviewed on four occasions (in November 1986, May and November 1987 and May 1988), should throw more light on the paths followed by the unemployed and any time they spent on the inactive list.

Changes planned for the future round of surveys beginning in 1990

The questionnaire for the forthcoming employment survey in January 1990 has now been finalized. It is based on the questionnaire prepared for the pilot survey of September 1988 and takes into account the requests made by SOEC. As to the measurement of economic activity, there are a number of new questions concerning the calendar of activity during each of the 12 months of the previous year, under-employment and secondary activities. However, the question concerning the respondent's current occupation is virtually identical with the question asked in the previous round of surveys and, indeed, the same as that asked in the 1990 census.

This confirms that it is no longer the measurement of the activity ratio which is regarded as a problem, but rather the characteristics of the economic activity pursued (regularity, weekly duration, any additional activities, and so on).

There are, all in all, a number of initial lessons to be drawn from this review of the changes made in the questionnaire since 1982. The boundaries of the main categories that make up the description of the labour market are designed to reflect the "official" demarcation, so as to be of more general use, while the option of gathering a maximum of specific data and then making a controlled classification is pursued further than in the past [5].

At the same time, however, the populations on the borderlines of these categories are described in far greater detail (trainees, apprentices, wage-earning students and so on). The distinction between economic activity within the meaning of the census and economic activity as defined for the survey (or by ILO), which was a key factor in analysing the previous rounds of surveys, is henceforth of minor importance and takes, as it were, second place to the study of new trends in the labour market: the diversification of employment situations accompanied by far fuller recognition of women's economic activity. In practice the gap between those described as economically active for the purposes of the population census and those so described by the ILO seems increasingly narrow when set against such phenomena as the "thickening" of boundary lines, the development of grey areas, between employment and training, between employment and unemployment, and between unemployment and economic inactivity [6]. Notwithstanding the development of these intermediate situations, the measurement of economic activity is improving as the information gathered increases in scope and detail, and as certain categories such as unemployment are better "recognized" than in the past.

II. RECENT TRENDS IN PATTERNS OF WOMEN'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

An analysis of recent studies of women's economic activity is instructive from two points of view: firstly because it establishes a number of variations in the evolution of patterns of such activity; secondly because it shows that the concerns of statisticians have moved away from those which guided their work during the 1970s.

More gradual feminization of the working population

Overall, the growth of the working population in France has slowed down somewhat in recent years [7]. The feminization of the working population which has been in progress for nearly 30 years seems to have slowed down slightly over the past four or five years in conjunction with the slower growth of female activity ratios (figure 1). It is too early to tell whether this is merely a passing phenomenon or the beginning of a more lasting change, although at least in the medium term there seems to be no likelihood of a turn around taking place in the evolution of women's economic activity. The causes of the profound upheaval which has taken place over the past 20 years seem to be too deep-rooted for a reversal to occur. In France it has virtually become the norm for women to work, in most cases as wage earners, whether they are actually in a job or actively seeking one. The expansion of occupational work among women is always marked by an increase in the number of wage earners and by growing integration in the working population, which is encouraged by the spread of part-time work [8].

In reality the gap between forecast and fact is due far more to a marked fall in the number of active young people than to a slower-than-forecast rise in the activity ratios for women at intermediate ages (figure 2). Nevertheless, this latter factor alone accounts for an annual growth of almost 90,000 in the working population between 1985 and 1989, as against the more than 120,000 forecast. In contrast, trends among young people have been far more adverse than expected: the fall in the activity ratio among young women has grown steeper, especially in the 20-24 year age group, and between 1985 and 1989 was reflected in an annual decline of 40,000 in the number of young women in the working population. Although less present in the working population, young women are more often receiving some form of instruction, whether in the form of initial training 1/ or through schemes designed to facilitate their placement in employment. The difficulties encountered by young people in finding their first job, and even more in finding stable employment, merely reinforce the tendency among them to extend their initial studies beyong the age of compulsory school attendance. However, this is merely a postponement, and does not call into question the idea of large-scale participation by adult women in economic activity.

Among women between 55 years of age and 60, which is the normal retirement age, the recent pick-up in activity ratios has occurred earlier than forecast. Many factors are involved: the tendency to lead a shorter working life; early retirement schemes far less attractive than at the beginning of the decade; generation effects, and so on. Again, it is fairly difficult to account for the trends observed among the over 60s in recent years.

This traditional analysis of the evolution of women's economic activity will none the less benefit from closer examination of the grey areas: job-training situations; the boundaries of employment; the fringes of unemployment; and forms of under-employment.

The development of intermediate situations

A multiplicity of intermediate situations has arisen between training and employment, in particular as a result of measures designed to help young people to find jobs. Young people, and girls in particular, experience special difficulties at the start of their working life which have led the authorities to concentrate on developing measures based on the principle of alternating training with employment: practical traineeships in firms; training that provides guidance, skills or placement; TUCs; SIVPs; training in preparation for employment; apprenticeships, and so on. The move from school to a stable job no longer takes place automatically, if it ever did. Young people take longer and longer to find their place in the working population because the jobs open to them have diminished sharply over the years, while training has diversified and continues far beyond the traditional forms of initial schooling. This "bursting-out" of the categories presents the statistician with a challenge, involving not only knowledge, but also methods of enumeration and classification [9].

The same problem arises in another type of intermediate situation which also affects young people in particular: that of precarious jobs, "odd jobs", forms of casual activity located on the boundary between employment and inactivity or unemployment. In this case the problem of classification is not that the intermediate situation falls simultaneously into more than one category but that it is temporary, short-lived and in an intermediate position between two stable states. The difficulties of classification, for men and women alike, have shifted from the traditional problem of unemployment, which is now well "recognized", to that of instability in designations, and in actual status, for the borderline categories. 2/

Since the definitions used in the employment survey correspond to ILO norms, employment is given priority over other types of status. In addition a broad interpretation has been placed on the concept of economic activity: anyone who has worked during the reference week, if only for an hour, is considered to be gainfully employed. In particular, most traineeships such as TUCs or SIVPs are counted as employment. Consequently loopholes for the underestimation of economic activity, and of women's activity in particular, are to be sought mainly among situations on the borderline between inactivity and unemployment. Two main categories then emerge: situations that combine training and job-seeking, and phenomena of discouragement, particularly among older women.

The unemployed undergoing training or the unemployed who have lost heart

The number of unemployed persons likely to follow some form of training has greatly increased in recent years with the development of measures for the reintegration of job-seekers, such as those for the benefit of the long-term unemployed. In most instances, the traineeships of various kinds open to the unemployed are regarded as interrupting the period of unemployment. However, a job-seeker may very well continue to seek employment while following his training, and be prepared to take up immediately any offer made to him. Systematically excluding such people from the working population by classifying them as undergoing training may consequently lead to underestimation of the working population. At the end of 1988 some 30,000 women, most of them between 25 and 50 years of age, were following some form of traineeship for the long-term unemployed.

Phenomena of discouragement may also reduce the figures for unemployment, and hence for economic activity. According to the employment survey, the number of women describing themselves as registered with the National Employment Agency but no longer really looking for employment increased from 40,000 to 100,000 between March 1986 and March 1989. Many of them were women over 50 with little chance left of finding a job. However, it is by no means certain that during a period of prolonged recovery this "reserve army" will not return, at least in part, to the labour market. Should they, then, be included in the "potential" working population?

The growth of female under-employment associated with the growth of part-time work

If the criterion adopted is the number of hours worked rather than the number of individuals working, the development of under-activity, often among women, can be discerned in the form of "forced" part-time working and other forms of under-employment. Thus the number of women working part-time increased from 1,650,000 in 1982 to nearly 2,200,000 in 1989, but there is no real way to distinguish forced from optional part-time working [10].

An attempt was nevertheless made, in an analysis of the survey, to simulate the application of the ILO criteria in respect of under-employment [11]. The number of under-employed women, who are far more numerous than under-employed men on account of their position in the part-time labour force, seems to have increased from slightly more than 100,000 in 1982 to 250,000 in 1989. The phenomenon is still quite limited, but more than doubled in size between 1982 and 1986, after which it fell off slightly (figure 3). It occurs mainly among young women who have just been appointed or accepted for training, in particular in the civil service and voluntary associations. After age 25, under-employment remains quite widespread among child-care personnel and domestic employees. Except perhaps for a number of young women, this situation is a temporary rather than a permanent one: it either replaces unemployment or precedes a "real" job.

Transformations taking place and stakes involved in women's economic activity today

The question of women's participation in the labour force may thus be said to have gradually shifted its ground over the past 20 years. From a situation in which women's right to pursue an occupation was far from recognized, they came to be viewed as an auxiliary labour force. Women's participation in economic activity, as a general practice is now taken for granted [12]. The issue now is whether it is possible for women to be less exposed to the risk of unemployment and, when they are in work, to avoid being penalized in comparison with men [13]. However, the problem of women being kept down in the labour market remains: poor wages and working conditions; phenomena of over-qualification coupled with unequal access to employment and careers; precariousness; segregation in employment, and sex-based career profiles frequently characterize women's employment [14, 15, 16, 17, 18].

The issue, then, is no longer one of improving the methods of measuring women's activity; such methods now appear to be sufficiently tried and tested, for they are based on concepts of employment and unemployment that have "set" and thus more or less stabilized. The problem is rather to learn more about the various situations of employment, unemployment or inactivity, in order to identify new forms of inequality between men and women in the labour market and to follow their evolution. The problem is also to link the economic and social factors that help to shape women's participation in the labour force: historical context, family and fiscal policies, trade union practices, firms' strategies and so on. This was attempted, for example, in a recent comparative study of women's economic activity in France and the United Kingdom [19].

NOTES

1/ The Ministry of Education is now pursuing the extremely ambitious objective of ensuring that by the year 2000, 80% of the young people of a given generation reach the baccalaureate level. At the present time the proportion seems to be about 45%.

2/ For some time now the existence of other situations, such as those of family helpers, has hampered statisticians in classifying some categories of manpower. Such situations have been deliberately passed over because they have lost much of their importance in recent decades. Moreover the issue of domestic activities is covered by another agenda item.

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Figure 1: Rate of feminization of the working population

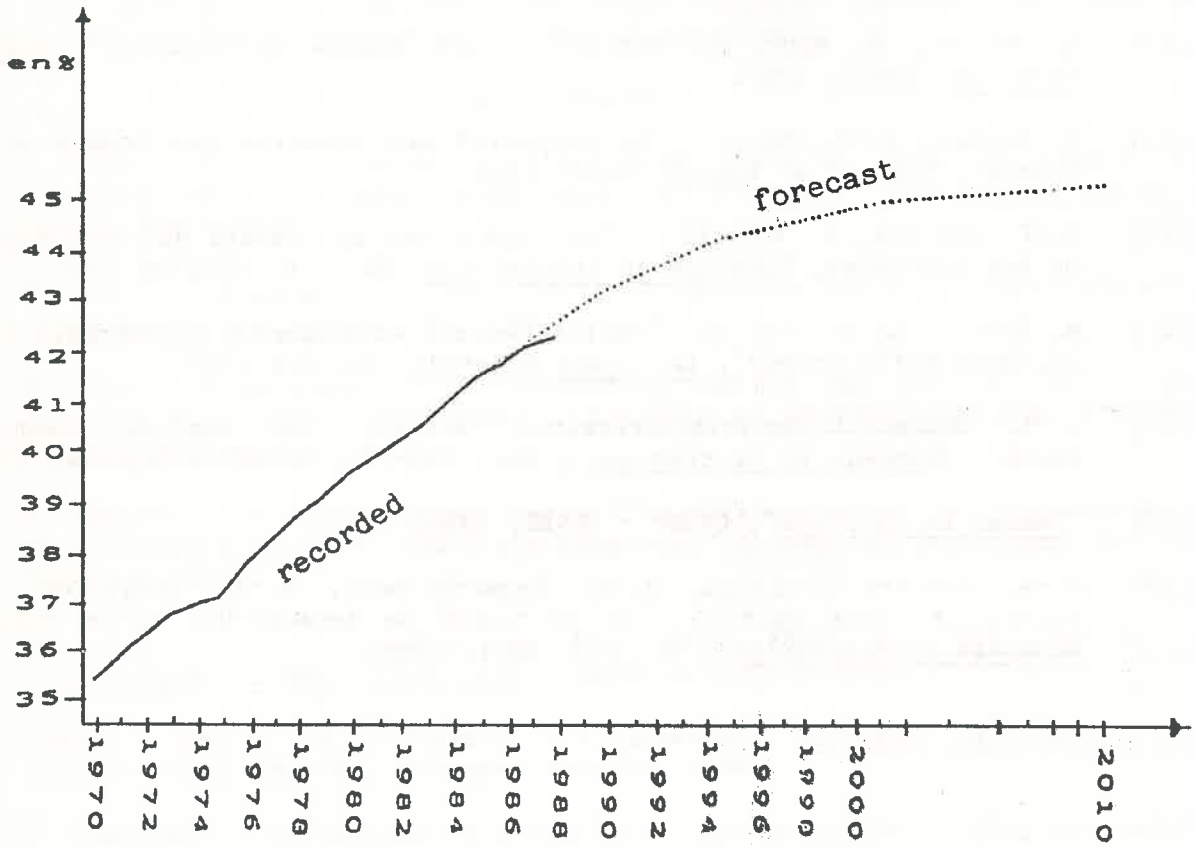


Figure 2: Women's activity ratios, by age group

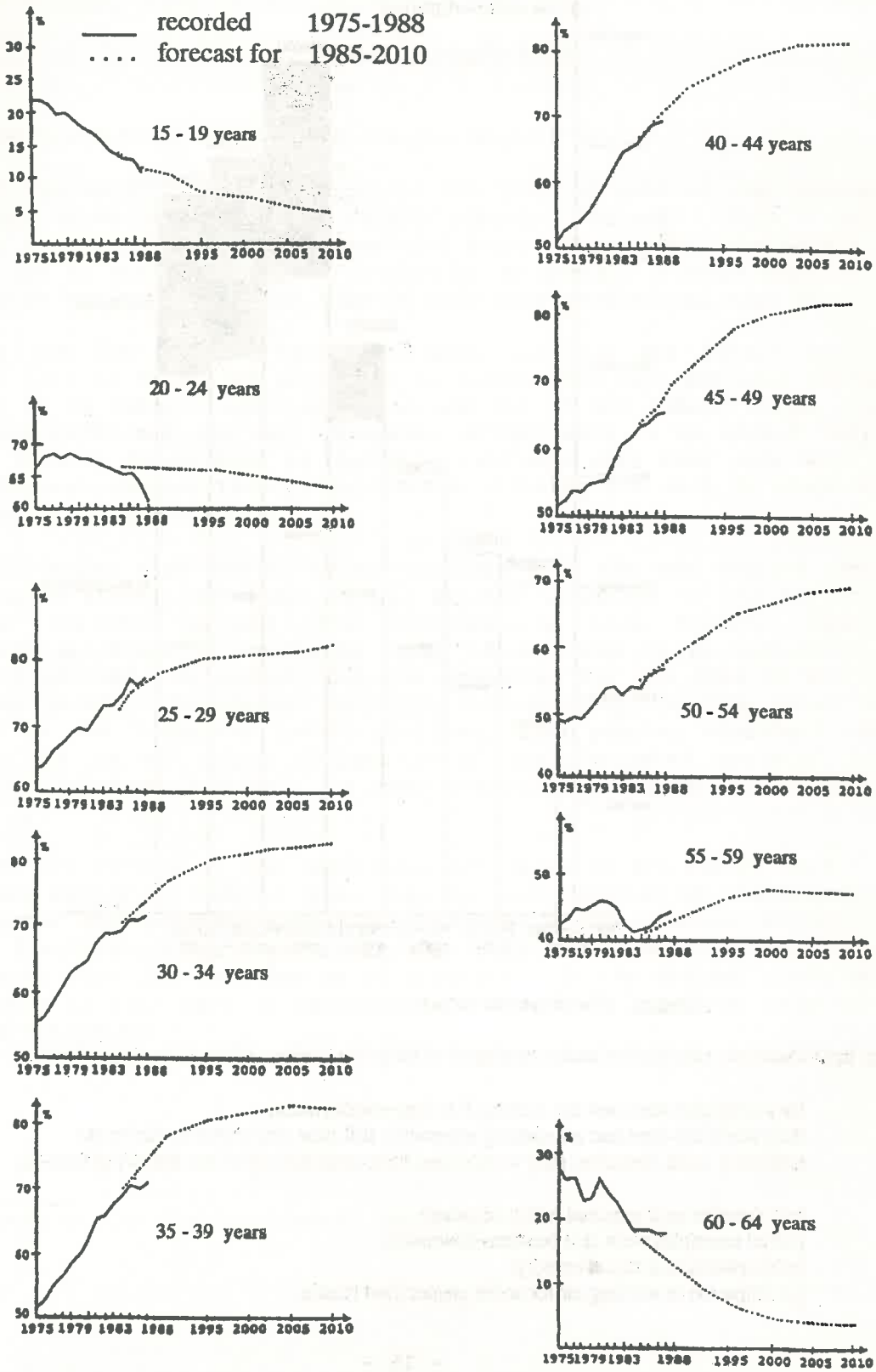
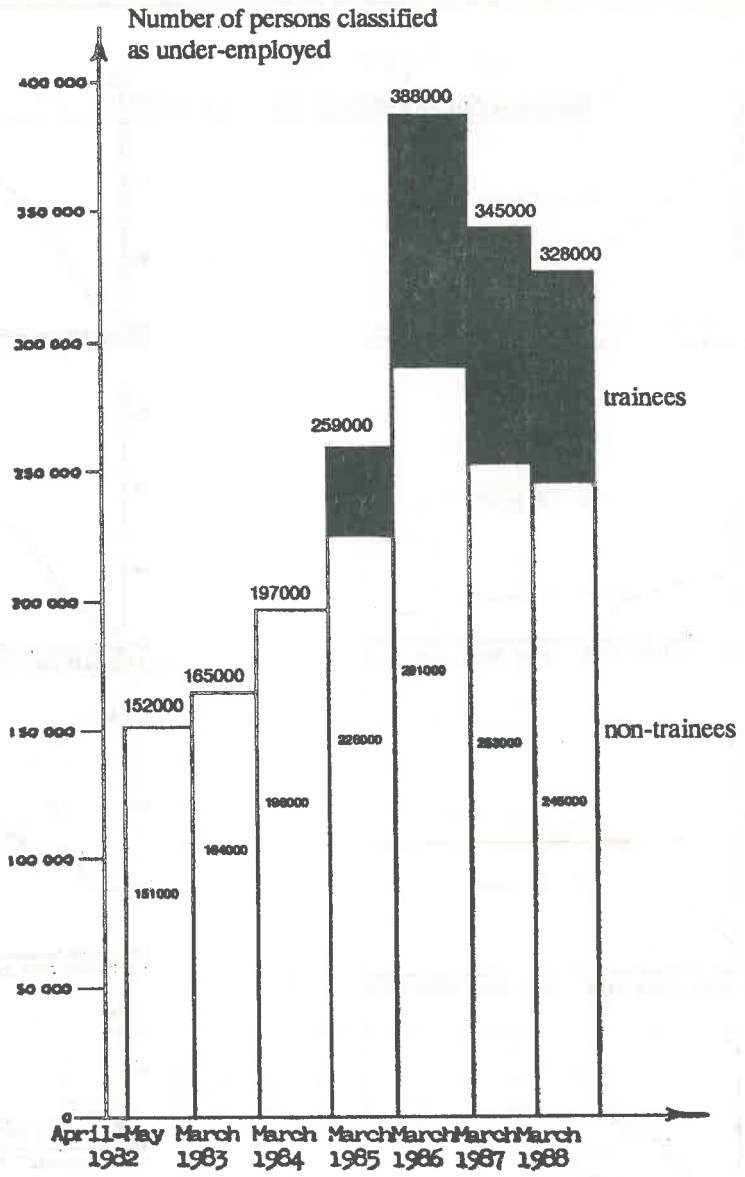


Figure 3: Evolution of under-employment since 1982 *



Source: Employment survey.

* Note: Individuals are classified as under-employed if they satisfy either of the following criteria:

- they work part-time and are seeking full-time employment;
- they work full-time and are seeking alternative full-time employment; during the reference week, however, they worked less than usual for one of the following reasons:

- bad weather or a seasonal lull in activicty;
- partial unemployment or a business downturn;
- participation in a casual activity;
- participation in training, or for some unspecified reason.

WORK AND ACTIVITIES: HOW TO MEASURE THEM*

by

Grazia Arangio-Ruiz

A) The Traditional Society and the New Society

In the more Traditional Society the life of most of the population was organized according to a very rigid pattern: School - Work - Retirement. Working time was forty hours a week for forty years. Work was mainly hard and manual and it was aimed at the production of goods. A large part of existing statistics was started at the time of this more traditional type of society.

In the New Society (partly already existing and partly still in the future) life is organized according to a more flexible pattern: school lasts longer, it is rather common to go in and out of the labour force, changes in functions performed are very frequent, manual work is no longer very common, weekly working hours tend to decrease, workers must keep pace with dramatic technological changes through continuous training and work is aimed mainly at the production of services.

Statistics also had to change to cope with the new society and so some years ago statisticians began to pay greater attention to the service sector, as most employed persons work precisely in this sector. This greater attention permitted a remarkable range of services to be identified that do not pass through the market, but are essential for the life of the community of human beings: voluntary services, housekeeping, looking after dependent members of the household (small children, aged people, disabled), etc. The new society is no longer defined as a "work oriented society" but as an "activity oriented society": a more comprehensive term for a more complex world.

The discovering of the importance and value of non market work - which is performed mainly by women - gave rise to much thinking on the balance between remunerated and unremunerated contributions to the economy and/or community life. Statisticians are now confronted with the task of measuring these two components with the same degree of accuracy. In the present study we want to contribute to this task by approaching the problem from the point of view of women's activities.

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* Report by the Italian Central Institute of Statistics (INSTAT)

B) The Market

In Italy the main statistical source of information on employment, unemployment and all other topics relating to the labour market is the current labour force survey which ISTAT has carried out quarterly since the early sixties. We can use it for a wide range of purposes, including the study of differences in the work behaviour of men and women. We begin the analysis of the working age population in the widest sense, that is people aged 14 to 70 years (Table 1). A very remarkable imbalance is immediately obvious: among men, 71.6 per cent are working or looking for a job (in other words, more than two-thirds of them are present in the labour market). Among women, this percentage is 40.0: less than one-half of the total. Thus, two very simple statistics are sufficient to see that men's labour force participation is much higher than women's participation.

Another approach is used in Table 2, again to analyse the same phenomenon. Women are 36.5 per cent of total labour force and 33.7 per cent of employed persons, but they are 68.6 of persons not in labour force aged 14 to 70 years and 53.1 per cent of total population. Shall we repeat that men's labour force participation is higher than women's participation?

The labour force survey does not give any "quality" information on work done, in the sense of an evaluation of the results (first of all productivity), but it gives us a lot of information in quantitative terms.

Our comments so far have related to participation, i.e. how many persons of either sex stay in the labour market. Now we want to analyse the big aggregate of employed persons in order to study "how much" they work in terms of time. (We keep hoping, of course, to sooner or later have some data as well on the output produced by the work performed.)

Three tables, tables 3 to 5, deal with hours worked. Three different approaches to the same matter using the same unit of measure are given: hours worked in the reference week. It is work underlining that reference week is always a "full working" week, that is a week without exceptional holidays, (Thanksgiving Day, etc.).

We see, first of all, that average hours worked in the reference week are 4.5 for men and 36.7 for women (Table 3). The bulk of employed persons of both sexes work 36 to 40 hours weekly. The percentages are as follows: 60.1 per cent for men and 57.0 for women. We do not consider this difference as particularly remarkable. The real gap is to be seen for the remaining persons. Among men, we find a high proportion (32.1 per cent) of persons working "very much": more than 40 hours and a low proportion (7.8 per cent) of persons working "not so much": less that 36 hours. As to women, the opposite situation is found: a lower proportion is working more than 40 hours: 17.6 per cent versus a higher proportion who worked less than 36 hours: 25.4 per cent (Table 4).

When analysing differences between normal and actual hours worked a similar pattern is found, but the gaps are much smaller. Also, in this case, the majority of both sexes behaves "normally", but the difference between men and women is just a little more than one point: 86.6 as against 85.3.

TABLE 1

Population aged 14 to 70 years by sex and labour force status

	Men	Women
	Percentages	
Labour force	71.6	40.0
Not in labour force	28.4	60.0
Total	100.0	100.0
	21,129	21,818

Source: Istat. Labour force survey - annual average - 1988

TABLE 2

Women as a percentage of selected population groups

- Labour force	36.5
- Employed	33.7
- Not in labour force aged 14 to 70 years	68.6
- Total population	51.3

Source: Istat. Labour force survey - annual average - 1988

TABLE 3

Average hours worked in the reference week, by sex of workers

Men	41.5
Women	36.7

TABLE 4

Employed persons by hours worked in the reference week and sex
(Absolute data in thousands)

Number of hours	Men	Women
	Percentages	
1 to 35	7.8	25.4
36 to 40	60.1	57.0
41 and over	32.1	17.6
Total	100.0	100.0
	13,456	6,608

TABLE 5

Employed persons by differences between usual and actual hours worked
Percentages (Absolute data in thousands)

Employed persons who worked	Men	Women
- more than usual hours	5.2	3.2
- usual hours	86.6	85.3
- less than usual hours	8.2	11.4
Total	100.0	100.0
	13,990	7,113

Note: For multi-job holders, hours relating to all jobs are included.
Sources: Istat. Labour force survey - annual average - 1988

Persons working more hours than usual are 5.2 per cent among men and 3.2 per cent among women. Persons working less hours than usual are 8.2 among men and 11.4 among women (Table 5).

It is also worth analysing the reasons why employed persons worked less hours than usual: some reasons reported are relevant for our study. The proportion for men is higher than that of women in the case of "illness, accidents, disability": 18.6 per cent as against 14.5 per cent recorded for women. Shall we say that in the large group of employed persons women have better health than men?

Let us consider, on the other hand, "personal or family reasons, including maternity". We are here within the natural and peculiar role of women in the family and in the society, and the data are consistent with it: 7.0 per cent for men as against 21.5 for women.

Part-time work is less common in Italy than in other western countries but, like in other countries, it is more common among women: 10.9 per cent of employed women have a part-time job compared to 3.3 per cent of employed men. The differences is 7.6 points (Table 7).

A much bigger difference is seen when considering within the group of part-time workers the subgroup who chose this kind of job voluntarily. Respondents working part-time who declared that they do not want a full-time job are 18.8 per cent among men as against 40.7 among women. The difference is 21.9 points (Table 8).

A general summary of what we have said so far is given in Table 9. Two groups of employed persons were established according to their "Labour Intensity". The presence of women is much higher in the low intensity subgroups. It is not difficult to find reasons for the differences cited: employed women must make the best of two worlds (their working life and their family life, that is, their market, remunerated activities and their non-market, unremunerated activities). That is why we can no longer speak of labour force participation according to the traditional pattern. For a really complete and satisfactory approach non-market activities must be considered as well.

TABLE 6

Employed persons working less than usual hours, by reason and sex
Percentages (Absolute data in thousands)

	Men	Women
Illness, accidents, disability	18.6	14.5
Personal or family reasons, maternity	7.0	21.5
Other reasons	74.4	64.0
Total	100.0	100.0
	1,144	814

TABLE 7

Employed persons by full-time/part-time employment and sex
Percentages (Absolute data in thousands)

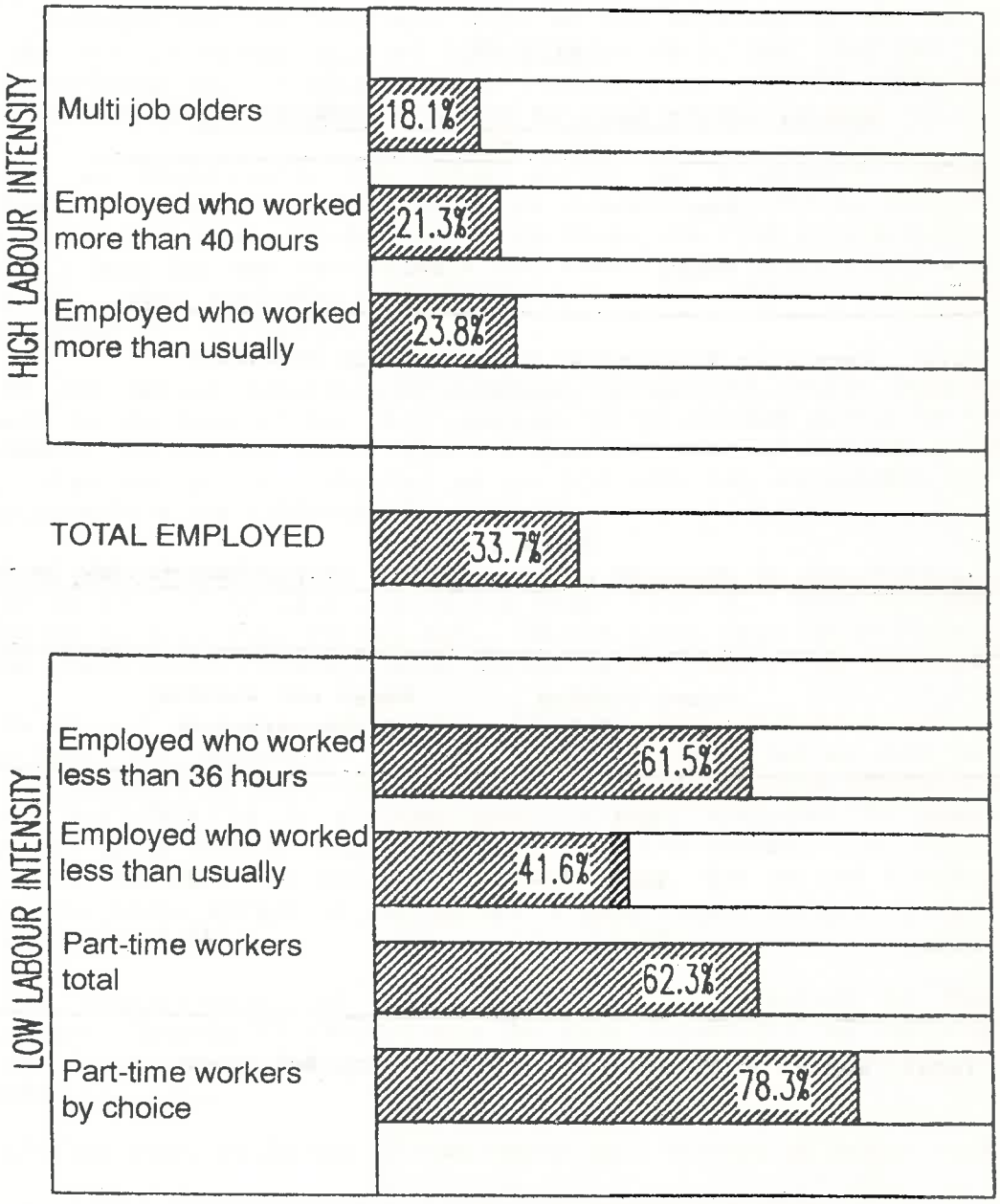
	Men	Women
Persons employed		
- full-time	96.7	89.1
- part-time	3.3	10.9
Total	100.0	100.0
	13,990	7,113

TABLE 8

Persons working part-time by reason and sex
Percentages (Absolute data in thousands)

Reasons	Men	Women
- it was impossible to find a full-time job	44.6	32.1
- do not want a full-time job	18.8	40.7
- others	36.6	27.2
Total	100.0	100.0
	469	778

Table 9 - Women as percent of some employed persons' group



Source: Istat - Labour Force Survey - Annual average - 1988

TABLE 10

Average weekly hours of domestic work, by sex

Men	5.5
Women	36.3

Source: Istat, Survey on Households' Structure and Behaviour

TABLE 11

Average weekly hours of domestic work in married couple households, by sex

	Women working in the market	Women not working in the market
Men	6.3	6.1
Women	31.7	51.5
Difference	25.4	45.4

Source: Istat, Survey on Households' Structure and Behaviour

C) The non-market

Data on non-market work are rather meagre at the moment as it is not easy to collect them and they lack a background of long tradition and methodology. The main source of information is time use surveys. ISTAT is carrying out at present its first survey of this kind and the results will be available next year. Nevertheless, we have some data we can make use of for our analysis. They are not as homogeneous as labour force data, but they can help us in better studying our problem and in finding some overall guidelines for a better measure of activities.

Let us begin with the ISTAT survey on Households' Structure and Behaviour. It gives us information on domestic activities measured on the basis of average hours devoted weekly to them. We find here a very remarkable gap: 5.5 hour for men versus 36.3 for women. The difference is 30.8 hours (Table 10). When analysing work in the market the difference in average hours worked weekly was 4.8 (Table 3).

We can better observe the subgroup of married couple households; the approach is the same (Table 11). Average hours devoted weekly by the husband to domestic activities range from 6.3 when the wife is working in the market to 6.1 when she is not. Whether or not the wife has an outside job does not appear to make a big difference!

The big difference is shown by data relating to the wife: the hours devoted by her to domestic activities range from 31.7 when she has a job in the market to 51.5 when she has not. In the first case the difference between men and women is 25.4 hours a week, in the second case it is 45.4 hours!

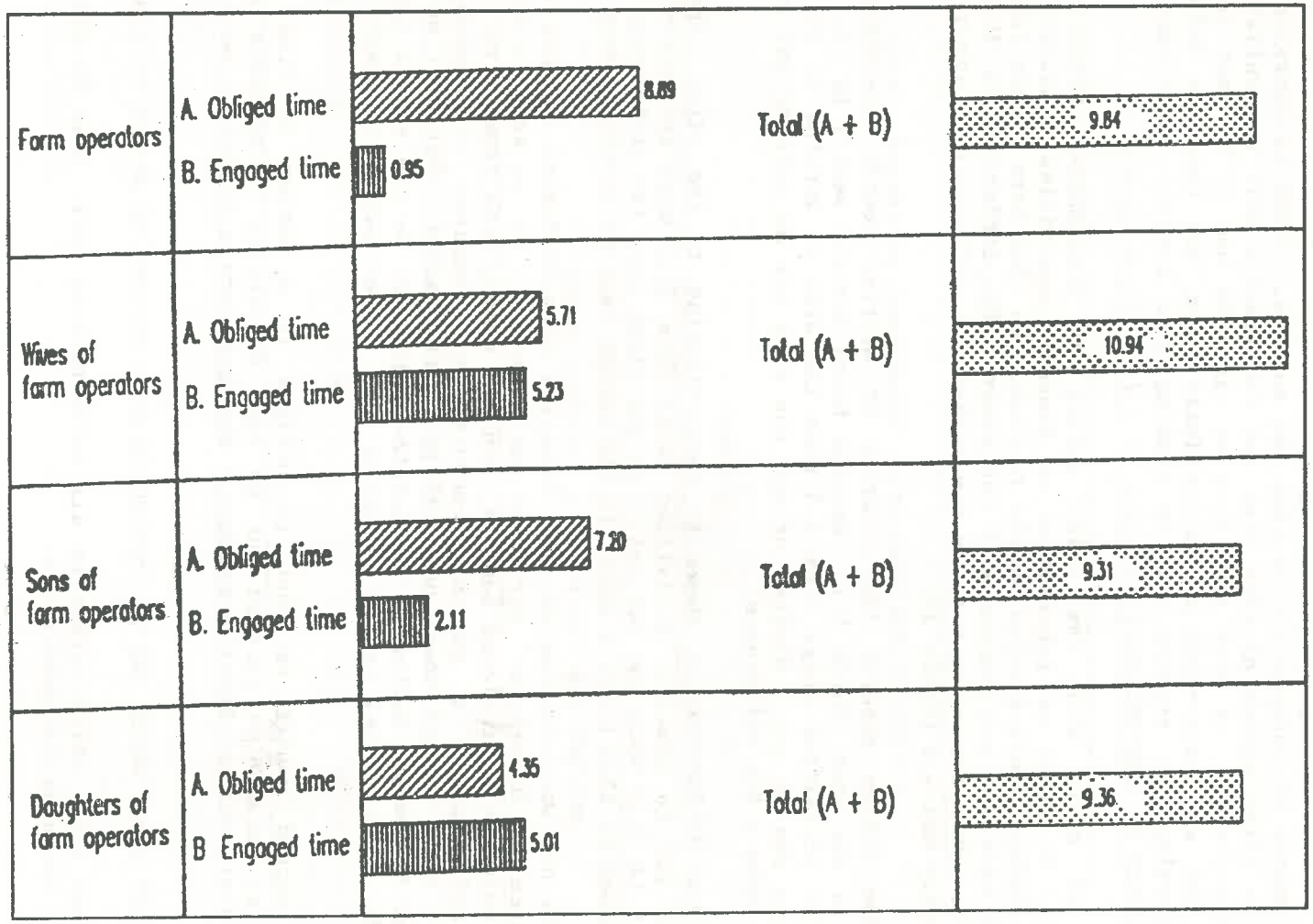
We do not want to sum up data from two very different surveys such as Labour Force and Households' Structure and Behaviour, but we want to underline that the majority of employed persons, men and women, work from 36 to 40 hours a week and that is a shorter schedule when compared to domestic work (activity) of a married woman not working in the market. Nor will we make a summing up for women having a job outside home, but we can stress that they add to the hours worked in the market a much bigger burden of domestic work than men.

The second source we want to utilize is a survey of Time Use in Agricultural Households carried out by Rome University La Sapienza and the National Institute of Rural Sociology. We find here a different wording, as follows:

- obliged time, which can be considered as a synonym of market working time

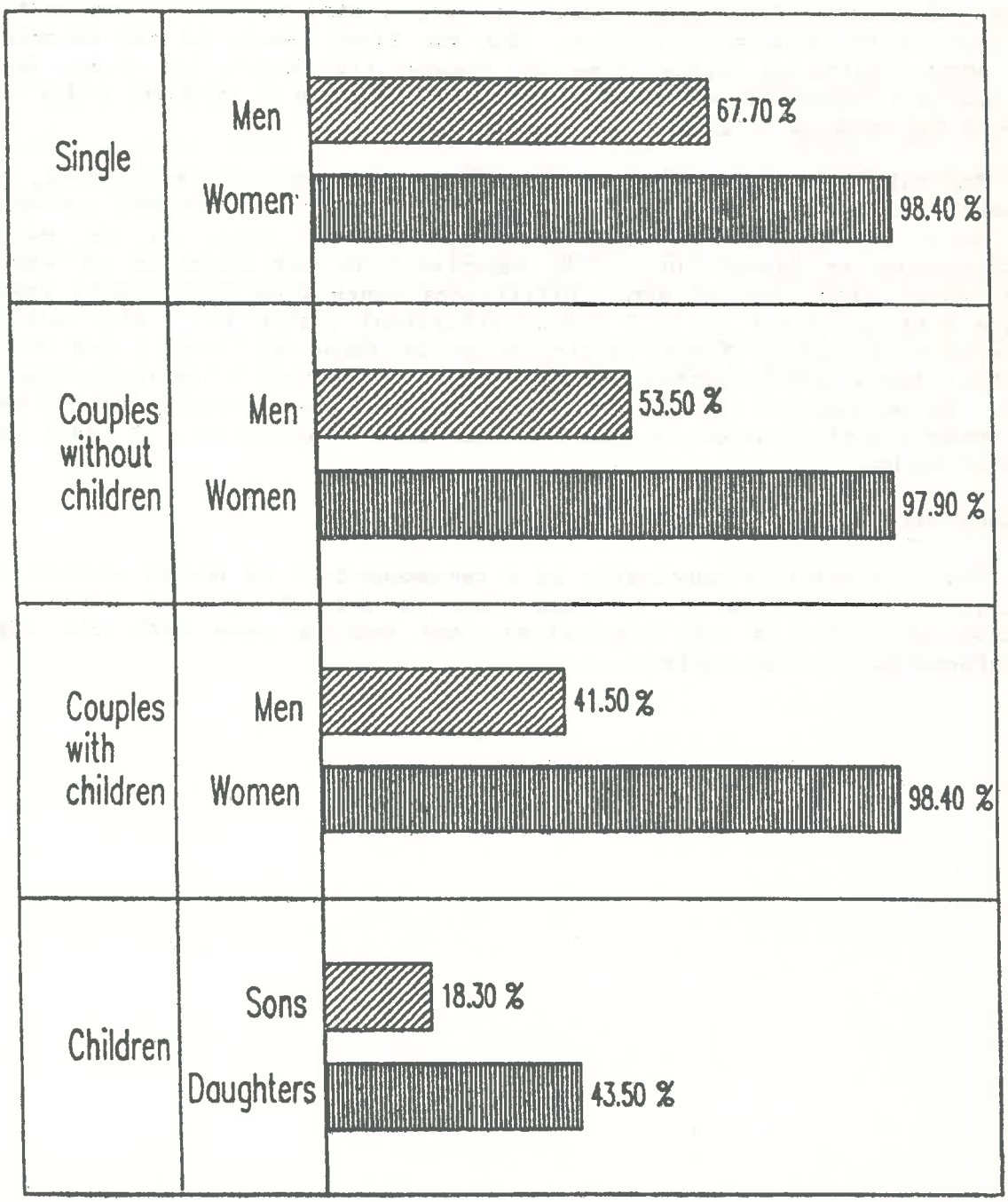
- engaged time, which refers to all unremunerated work, that is non-market work, but also includes study.

Table 12 - Time use in week days by a household with head of household operating a farm - Daily hours



Source: Survey on Time Use in Agricultural Households, Rome University "La Sapienza" and Institute of Rural Sociology

Table 13 - Participation to domestic activities by sex and household typology - Turin



Source: Survey on Time Use in the City of Turin, University of Turin

The men of the household, the farm operators and their sons, show a very similar use of time, with a great prevalence of obliged time (left part of Table 12). The women of the household, the wives and the daughters, also show a similar pattern: obliged time and engaged time absorb almost the same number of hours. This means that the role linked to sex is stronger than position in the household and age. But the final result of our exercise is that when summing up obliged time and engaged time hours, the person bearing the heaviest burden of work is the wife: 10.94 hours of activity a day versus 9.84 of the husband (right part of Table 12).

The third survey we are going to examine was carried out in Turin, a big industrial city in the North of Italy. It is a Time Use survey, but we want its help to measure participation in domestic work as we measured participation in labour force. As expected, the participation of women is much higher than that of men. Differences range from 56.9 points (married couple with children) to 25.2 points (children) (Table 13). When analysing difference in labour force participation we found an overall gap of 31.6 points. Men's participation was 71.6 per cent; women's participation, was 40.0. So we can say that men's participation is always higher in the market and women's participation is always higher in the non-market, at least in the city of Turin.

CONCLUSIONS

The only possible conclusion is a recommendation to better analyse human activities by bringing up to date what is obsolete in our concepts and definitions (i.e. in our statistics), and keeping pace with the ongoing transformations in our society.

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WOMEN AT WORK IN EUROPE: THE POTENTIAL AND PITFALLS OF USING PUBLISHED STATISTICS*

International comparisons on employment-related topics have long been a prime concern of bodies such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the European Community (EC), and statistics are regularly compiled and published in OECD Labour Force Statistics and by the Statistical Office of the European Community (SOEC) to enable such comparisons to be drawn. While the value of this comparative data is irrefutable, there are none the less a number of difficulties in making such comparisons which are important to recognize. This article is concerned with exploring the possibilities and problems of making international comparisons based on some of these statistics. It does this within the context of women's employment patterns. Three kinds of problem may be immediately identified:

(a) Conceptual difficulties

These derive from the fact that countries have different historical and ideological backgrounds which affect the meaning of concepts concerned with employment. For example, in some countries "unpaid family workers" are included as part of the labour force while in others they are not included in labour force statistics.

(b) Substantive differences

Differing social and economic arrangements cause variations which affect comparative employment statistics. Age of entering and leaving the labour market, and whether or not conscription exists are factors specific to an individual country but which affect standardized statistics based upon an age range of, for example, 15-64.

(c) Measurement difficulties

These are present in all social research, but may affect countries differently. For example, it is acknowledged that official surveys have difficulty in measuring employment that is undeclared or "off the cards". If the extent of such employment varies beween countries, then this measurement error will vary in strength between countries.

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*/ The information in this paper comes from research carried out by Angela Dale (City University) and Judith Glover (University of Surrey). This paper is submitted by the Department of Employment of the United Kingdom. The views expressed are those of the authors and are not necessarily in accord with United Kingdom Government policy.

Statistical sources

A priority of the EC has been to produce comparable statistics on employment and unemployment at the Community level, and to this end the Statistical Office of the European Community (SOEC) organized the first Community labour force survey of the six original member States in 1960. From 1973 to 1981 biennial surveys were carried out and then, in 1983, the design of the survey was revised with the aim of increasing comparability between member States. In furtherance of this aim a definition of the "labour force" was adopted which followed a recommendation from the Conference of Labour Statisticians in October 1982. The effect of this is that the Community Labour Force Surveys are comparable over time from 1983 onwards, but the changes in definition preceding the 1983 survey makes comparisons between 1983 and earlier years unreliable.

The sampling procedures used in the member States are not uniform but are determined independently by each State. However, the Council regulates the sample size which, for the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy and the United Kingdom is set at between 60,000 and 100,000 households; 30-50,000 households for Belgium, Greece, the Netherlands and Ireland, 30-40,000 households in Denmark and 10,000 households in Luxembourg. Details of the sample design for each member country at the time are contained in the Eurostat publication Labour Force Sample Survey: Methods and Definitions, 1985. (Spain and Portugal did not join the Community until 1986 and will be included in later editions.)

Each member State is required to send to the Statistical Office of the European Community a data tape containing the agreed information for each Labour Force Survey. These "harmonized" surveys are then used to produce a series of publications on employment and unemployment.

The OECD also publishes an annual volume of Labour Force Statistics which contains an historical time series of statistics on the population and the labour force for the 24 member countries. However, the introduction to the report points out that "The standardized presentation of the tables does not imply that the series for the various countries are comparable. Important differences exist between countries in the matter of general concepts, classification and the methods used for obtaining data." (OECD's Labour Force Statistics, 1985.)

In this article comparative data on employment patterns are drawn from both statistics published by OECD and also from the EC Labour Force Survey. For both OECD and EC data the nature of these differencs will be discussed as the data are presented.

Labour force participation rates

From table 1, showing civilian labour force participation rates for 1985 for EC member States, it is clear that, as expected, there are considerable

differences in the overall level of labour market participation between men 2/ and women, but also substantial differences between women's rates for different countries. Within this context, a recent feature of the labour markets of most Western European countries has seen a rise in levels of women's labour force participation while levels for men have remained stable or fallen.

Table 1: Male and female civilian labour-force participation rates, 1985 (per cent)

	Male	Female
Italy	76	41
Greece	78	42
Ireland	84	37
Luxembourg	84	43
Belgium	73	50
France	73	55
Germany, Federal Republic of	77	50
United Kingdom	87	60
Netherlands	76	41
Denmark	86	74
Spain	76	34
Portugal	85	57

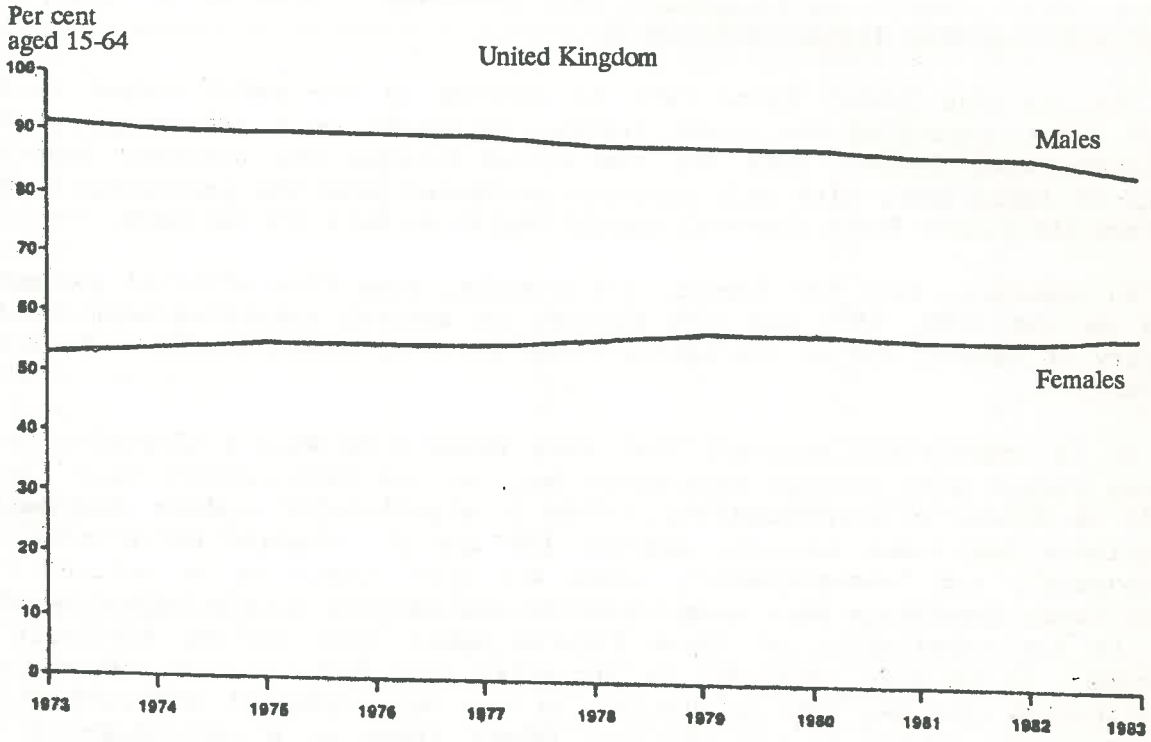
Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics, 1987.

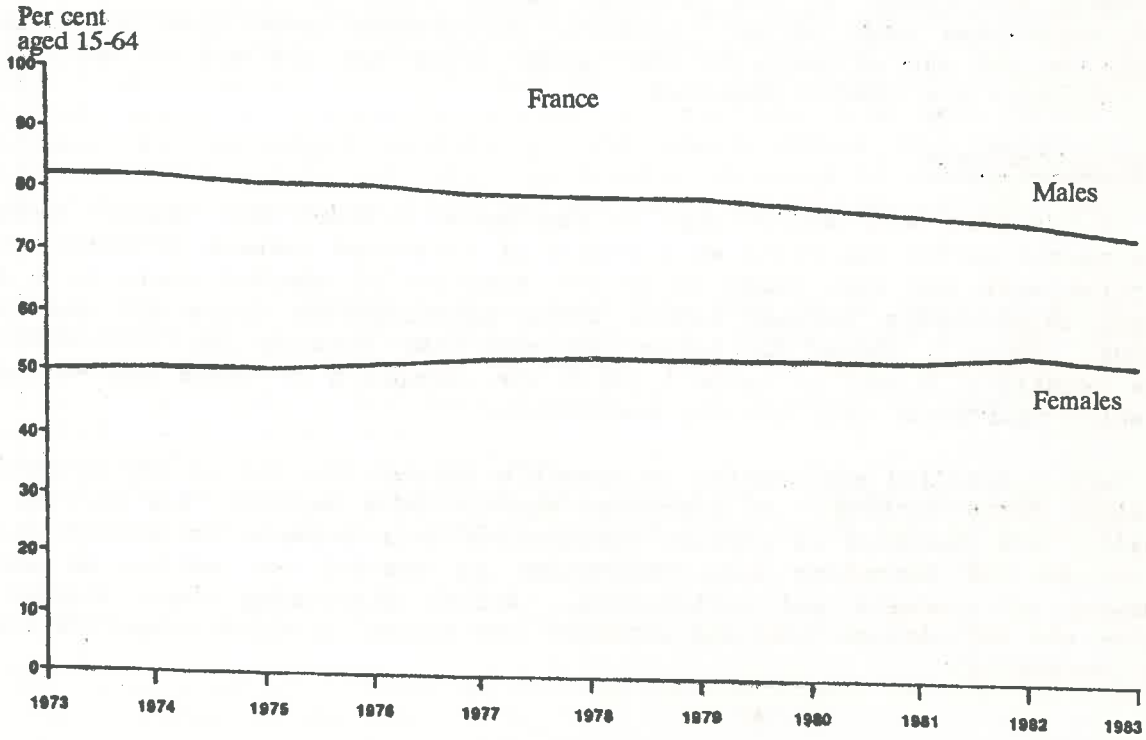
For illustration, figure 1 presents time series data for the United Kingdom and France from 1973 to 1983. OECD data, rather than SOEC data have been used in these figures because the former are available as a standardized time series over a longer time period and, additionally, contain data on the newer EC members, Spain and Portugal.

If the OECD maxim is adhered to - that these figures represent an approximation only - they can provide a useful backdrop to more detailed exploration of international differences. It is evident from table 1 that while men's participation rates are relatively constant, varying between 73%

2/ There is also a certain amount of variation in male rates of civilian labour force participation, with the United Kingdom having highest levels. By examining total labour force participation rates (which include all members of the Armed Forces) for ages 15-64 it is possible to check whether this high level for the United Kingdom may be explained by the fact that it has no policy of conscription. Figures drawn from the OECD's Labour Force Statistics (1987) show that the United Kingdom still has the highest level of total labour force participation for men, although there is a slight narrowing of the gap between the United Kingdom and the other European Community countries.

Figure 1 Labour force participation: males and females, 1973-83





Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics

and 87%, women's rates are not only lower but also show greater variation, between 34% and 74%. Figure 1 illustrates the way in which men's labour force participation has fallen over time in France and the United Kingdom while women's participation has increased. This is a feature of almost all countries listed in Table 1.

The civilian labour force rate is defined as the total number in the labour force excluding the armed forces, expressed as a percentage of the population aged 15-64. Data for the United Kingdom are obtained from the Census of Employment, with self-employed estimates from the population census and from the Labour Force Surveys; unpaid family workers are excluded.

By contrast, data for France, for example, come from official estimates based on the 1968, 1975 and 1982 Census, on special inquiries made by the Ministry of Labour, and on the Labour Force Surveys; unpaid family workers are included.

It is immediately apparent that data drawn from such a multiplicity of sources cannot give precise statistics but, as the OECD reports make clear, should be viewed as approximations. This is a particular problem when making comparisons for women because, despite the use of standard definitions for "employment", and "unemployment", women are more likely to be omitted from labour force statistics when unemployed and the variety of statistical sources used in the compilation of these figures makes this problem difficult to overcome. It is also important to recognize that the civilian labour force participation rate has been calculated, in line with standard OECD methods, by expressing the number in the civilian labour force as a percentage of the total population aged 15-64. Clearly, differences over time and between nations in the age of entering the labour force and the age of retirement, will influence the results obtained.

Female part-timers

It has been well established in the United Kingdom that women's labour force participation has risen as a result of increased numbers of women taking part-time work and this leads on to the question of whether there is a more general relationship between labour force participation rates and part-time working. Table 2 shows the extent of part-time working for 1979-1985 for those countries listed in table 1 (with the exception of Spain and Portugal, for which equivalent data are not available).

Such a detailed exploration is possible through the use of the harmonized EC Labour Force Surveys. As discussed above, these surveys, now carried out annually, are designed to provide comparative data between the member States of the EC and therefore data collection is carried out within an agreed framework of concepts and definitions. Before discussing these figures we outline the definitions used and consider the extent to which countries are in fact comparable.

Table 2: Women in part-time* employment as a percentage of all women in employment
(per cent)

	1979	1981	1983	1984	1985
Italy	11	10	9	10	10
Greece	-	7	12	9	10
Ireland	13	-	16	14	16
Luxembourg	18	-	18	15	16
Belgium	17	16	20	20	21
France	17	17	20	21	22
Germany, Federal Republic of	28	29	30	29	30
United Kingdom	39	40	42	44	45
Netherlands	32	49	50	-	52
Denmark	46	47	45	37	44

Source: Labour Force Sample Surveys, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1984 and 1985 (Eurostat: 1981, 1983, 1985a, 1988, 1987).

European Labour Force Survey definitions

The European Labour Force Survey uses a standard definition of people in employment which includes those who did any work (one hour or more) for pay or profit during the survey reference week, those who had a job or business from which they were absent in the reference week, and those who were classified as unpaid family workers. (Despite this standard definition, the concept of "unpaid family workers" is not used in the United Kingdom.) Conscripts on compulsory military or community service are excluded from this definition of employment but volunteer members of the Armed Forces are included. The distinction between full and part-time working is based on the self-definition supplied by the respondent with the exception of the Netherlands, which is discussed below.

It is usual for definitions of part-time work to be based on either the number of hours worked, with a fixed number of working hours per week defining the boundary between full and part-time work, or self-assessment by the respondent; only France, the Federal Republic of Germany and Spain have legal definitions of part-time work.

Although apparently providing an "objective" criterion, the use of a definition based on a fixed number of working hours gives rise to a number of

*/ Part-time working is based on self-definition except for the Netherlands, which is discussed in the text.

difficulties. For example, as the working week contracts over time, the boundaries between full and part-time work need to be changed accordingly; also, usual hours of work vary from occupation to occupation, from industry to industry and from country to country. There may, moreover, be discrepancies between the number of hours usually worked, and those worked during the reference week.

With the exception of the Netherlands, SOEC tabulations use the spontaneous distinction between full and part-time working given by the respondent. While this goes some way towards overcoming the problem of comparisons between countries, there are difficulties.

Firstly, in the Netherlands, only pre-determined definitions are available, and these have the added problem of changing over time. In 1979 the criterion used was "less than 40 work-hours a week and less than would be usual in a given job". In 1981 this changed to simply "less than 40 hours a week", a change which is likely to have been at least one factor explaining the considerable increase in part-time working between 1979 and 1981 (as apparent from table 2).

In the 1983 survey there was a further change to "35 hours or less for family workers and the self-employed, and contractual hours of less than 31 hours a week for employees, or between 31 and 34 hours if this is fewer than normal for the job". This means there will be variation in the incidence of part-time working between 1979 and 1983 due solely to the definition change. However, the 1983 definition is similar in concept to that of 1979 (that is it precludes full-time workers) and, as 1983 figures show no drop in part-time working by comparison with 1981, it may be concluded that there has, in fact, been a real and substantial increase in part-time working in the Netherlands, over the period 1979-1983, an increase that is not simply due to changes in the precision applied to the definition.

Part-time - definition danger

In the United Kingdom, only employees were categorized as full-time or part-time by the LFS until 1983. In 1979 and 1981 the self-employed were categorized by SOEC as full-time for tabulation purposes and this means that the percentage of part-timers is lower for these two time points than for later years. Data from the Department of Employment Historical Series, based upon employees only and defining part-time work as not more than 30 hours a week, gives part-time figures of 41% for 1979, 42% for 1981 and 44% for 1983; this compares with 39%, 40% and 41% respectively using SOEC figures. Using self-definition, the Women and Employment Survey found that 44% of women worked part-time in 1980. For 1984, Census of Employment figures relating to employees are 42%, lower than the SOEC figures in table 2.

Even among those countries for which a self-definition of part-time working is available (all those shown in table 2, except the Netherlands), there are, none the less, national differences which will affect the way in which respondents apply this self-definition. For example, in Denmark a job

is commonly defined as part-time if it has working hours lower than normal for that particular type of job, while in France a part-time job is usually one which occupies fewer than 30 hours a week. These differences are likely to colour a spontaneous response.

Compare with caution

Comparisons over time and between countries need, therefore, to be made with caution; for example, the reported figure of 37% for Denmark in 1984 is more likely to be due to a change in reporting or definitions than in a real fluctuation in the percentage of employed women working part-time between 1983 and 1985. None the less, it is possible to draw some general conclusions about the nature of part-time work, its growth over time, and its relative importance in different countries. Table 2 shows evidence of some increase in levels of female part-time working from 1979 to 1985 in Belgium, France, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. However, in 1985, only the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Denmark had more than 40% of employed women in part-time work.

It is also evident from tables 1 and 2 that while the United Kingdom and Denmark have high levels of both labour force participation and part-time working among women, the Netherlands has low rates of labour market participation but high rates of part-time working among women.

On the other hand, France, which has a high rate of labour force participation, has a relatively low rate of part-time working. This leads to the conclusion that, for women high levels of labour force participation are not necessarily related to high levels of part-time working. Although attention has been drawn to the way in which differences in definition make it difficult to compare figures within a few percentage points, the magnitude of the differences found means that broadly based distinctions of this kind between countries can be made with some confidence.

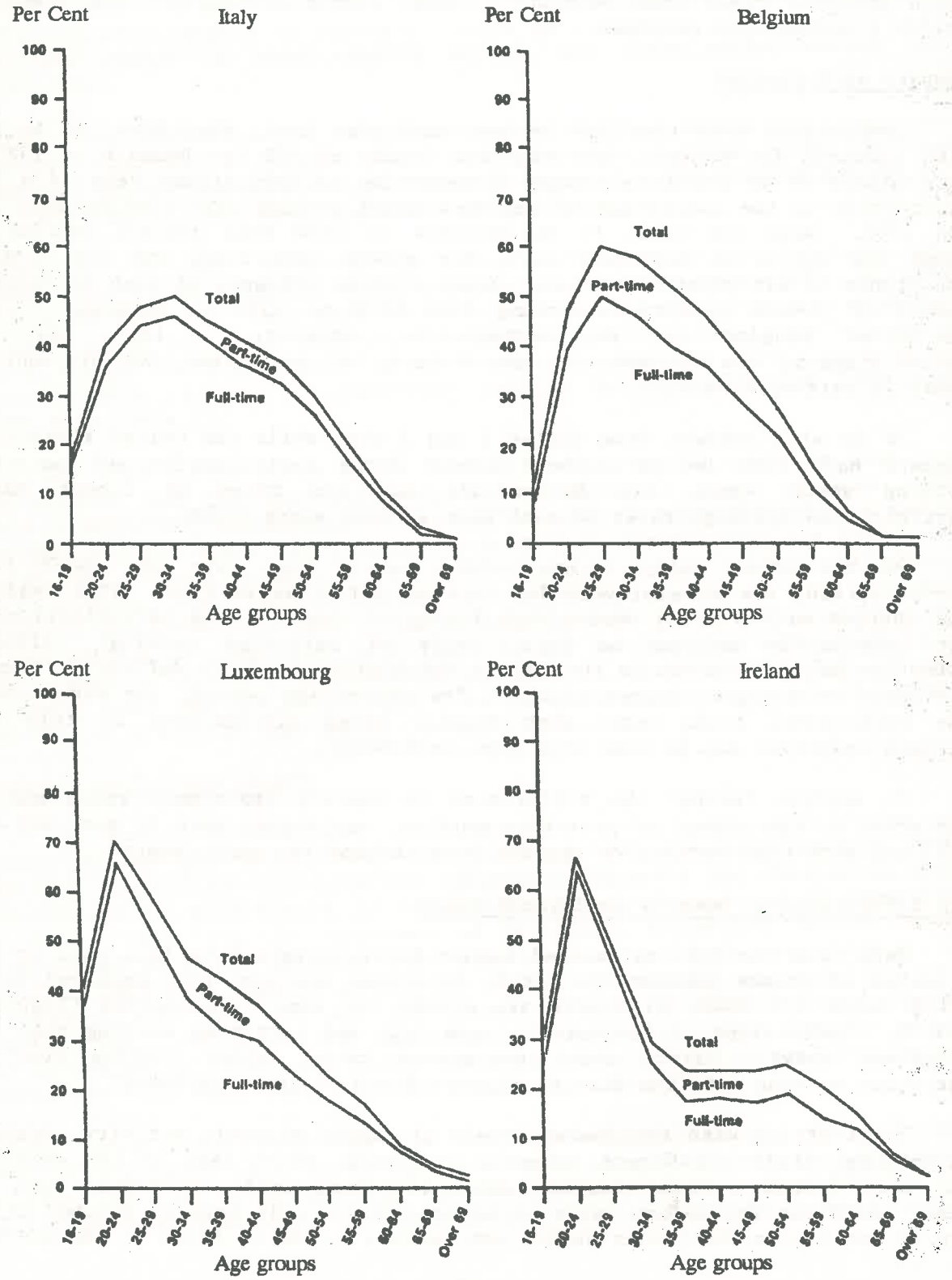
To explore further the differences in women's employment rates and the variation in the extent of part-time working, employment rate by age, and also full and part-time working by age has been charted for each country.

Age differences in women's employment rates

Data from the 1984 harmonized Labour Force Surveys have been used to give a series of graphs showing the total, full-time and part-time employed labour force rates for women by narrow age groups for nine EC countries (figures 2 and 3). Definitions of "employment" and full and part-time working have been discussed above. First, total employment rates, which combine full and part-time working (the top line on figures 2 and 3) are considered.

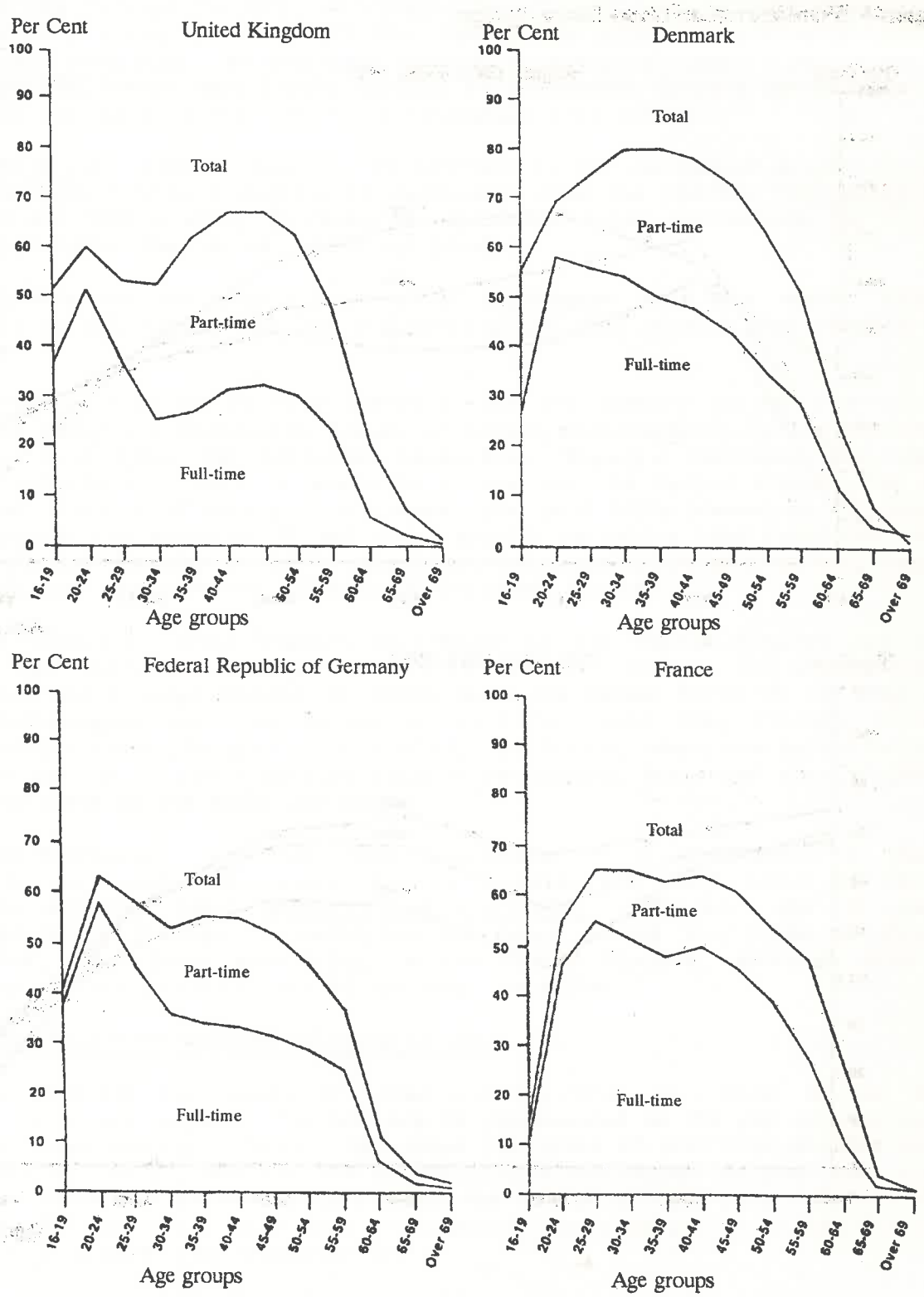
In countries with the lowest levels of female economic activity, Ireland, Luxembourg, Italy and Greece, women's employment rates peak in the early 20s and then follow a rapid decline which continues until retirement age. In these countries employment rates of up to 70% are only briefly reached at the age of entry into the labour market and decline to 40% or below by the mid-40s.

Figure 2 Total, full-time and part-time female employed workforce participation rates, 1984



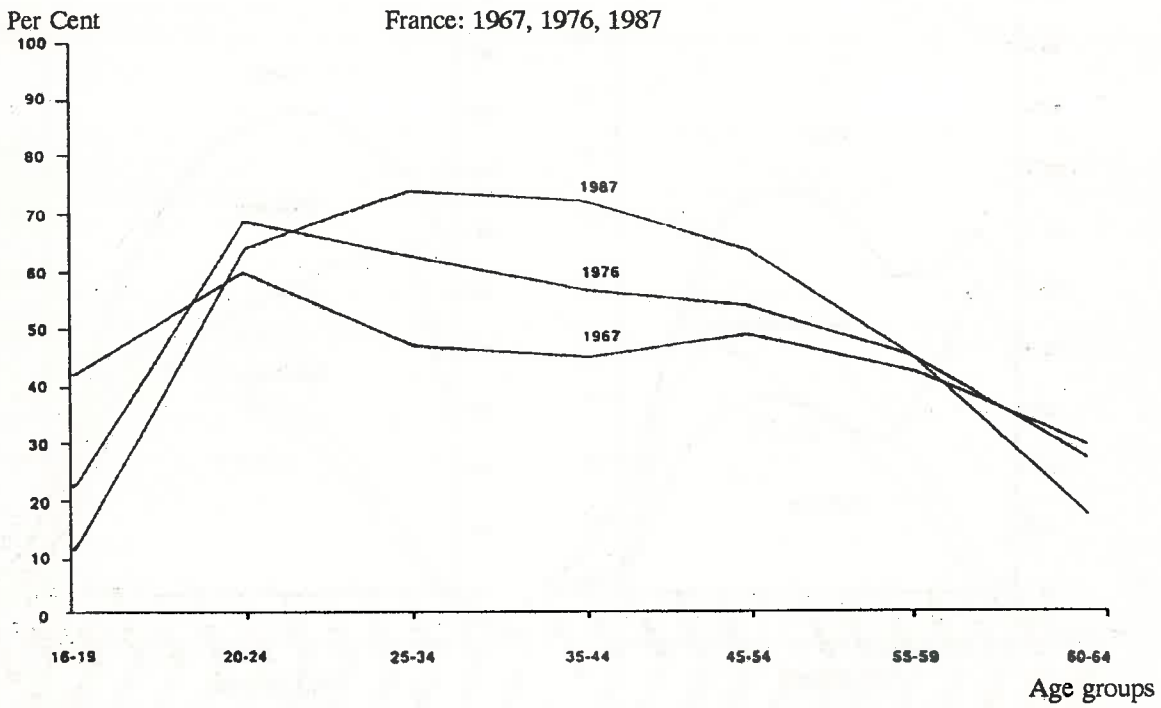
Source: OECD Labour Force Survey

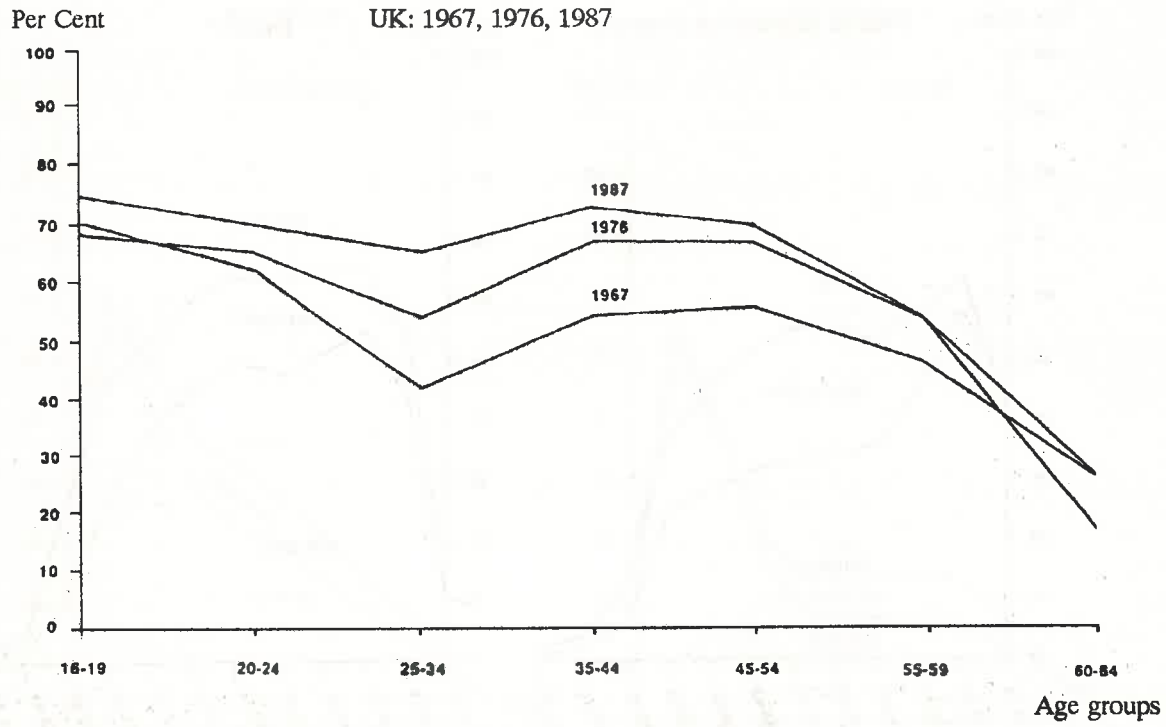
Figure 3 Total, full-time and part-time female employed workforce participation rates, 1984



Source: Labour Force Survey

Figure 4 Female civilian labour force, by age





Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics 1985-85 and 1986-86

In the Federal Republic of Germany and Belgium, while employment rates decline from a peak in the early 20s, they do so much more gradually than in the former countries. By contrast, France, with overall women's participation rates of 55%, shows very little decline in employment between the mid-20s and the late 40s, with levels around 65% throughout this period.

The United Kingdom, however, is distinct in its two-humped graph for rate of employment - with a decline in employment from the mid-20s through to the mid-30s and then a sharp increase to employment rates approaching 70% during the 40s - higher than at any other age group.

Denmark has an even higher total employment rate for women; rising steadily to 80% during the 30s and falling off only slowly from the mid-40s onwards.

However, time-series data indicate that the picture is not static, and that the generally increasing levels of female participation follow different patterns over time, for different countries. Figure 4 contrasts the labour force participation rate of women in France and the United Kingdom, by age group at three time points. In France, the late 1960s showed an "M"-shaped graph which, for women of 20 and over, broadly resembles that found for women in the United Kingdom in 1987; over time, this has moved upwards and changed shape to form the inverted "U" seen in the graph for 1987.

By contrast, while women's employment in the United Kingdom has also grown, the sharp dip between 25 and 34 is still present and represents a situation where large numbers of women leave the labour force at the peak age of child-bearing and then return to work in their 30s, finally leaving employment between the ages of 55 and 60. In France, women are more likely to stay in the labour force through their child-rearing years and then gradually start to leave in the older age group.

The development over time, from a two-peaked "M" to an inverted "U" shape, seems to be usual for countries with a relatively high level of female economic activity (OECD Labour Force Statistics, 1984:22). The "M" shape produced by a decline in participation rates during the years of family formation, is clearly persisting in the United Kingdom, although this is becoming the exception in most EC and OECD countries.

Part-time/full-time working relative to age

By plotting the levels of total and full-time employment on the same graph, the extent of part-time working is represented as the gap between total and full-time working. Table 2 has shown the level of part-time working among countries of the EC, and the way in which this has tended to rise over time. However, there are marked variations in the levels of both part and full-time working with age which also vary by country. There appear to be two distinct patterns into which the countries fall:

- those where rates of part-time working are fairly constant across the age distribution; and

- those where rates of part-time working vary markedly by age group.

In the first group - Ireland, Luxembourg, Italy and to a lesser extent Belgium - the numbers of part-time workers represent a relatively small proportion of the total employed workforce and the variation in level of part-time work differs little with age. In all these countries, overall levels of female labour market participation did not exceed 50% in 1985.

In the second group, where part-time working is more closely related to age, there is also a larger proportion of part-time workers. However, the extent of part-time working varies considerably within these countries, being particularly high in the United Kingdom and Denmark, somewhat lower in the Federal Republic of Germany, and considerably lower in France.

More working women

It has been shown that women's labour force participation has generally been rising throughout countries of the EC during recent decades. Where participation levels are none the less still very low, the usual pattern is for women's employment to decline steadily from the early or mid-20s - an effect which may be assumed to be due either to marriage or child-bearing - and in these countries part-time working is generally low and unrelated to age.

However, where employment levels are higher, there is also more likely to be a greater degree of part-time working, although considerable variation is found - as evident from the difference in patterns shown by France, the United Kingdom and Denmark. Thus while women's increased labour force participation in the United Kingdom and Denmark has largely been the result of part-time working by women of child-bearing age, this is not the case in France where full-time working still predominates.

Among those countries with high levels of women's participation rates, the United Kingdom is distinctive in the sharp decline in employment among women in their 20s. While this article has discussed many of the difficulties and problems associated with using comparative statistical data, it has none the less shown that such data can highlight interesting similarities and differences between countries which are worthy of further research.

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN THE UNITED STATES: TRENDS, COMPARISONS AND CURRENT RESEARCH*

by

Deborah Klein

The labour force participation of women continues to rise in the United States, reaching 56.6 percent in 1988. The proportion of women engaged in market work has increased by more than 10 percentage points since 1975, with the strongest gains occurring among married women, particularly those with children. Moreover, an increasing proportion of women who work do on a full-time year-round basis. American women are also becoming more and more likely to be found in the generally high skilled managerial and professional occupations.

These patterns are both a cause and effect of economic change. Job creation in the United States has been extraordinarily rapid over the past several decades. For example, nearly 50 million jobs have been added since 1963. This substantial growth of the economy provided opportunities for women to work, and the subsequent increase in the number of dual worker families caused an increase in market demand for those services that many families had previously provided for themselves, fueling even further demand for workers. Thus, by 1988, about 45 percent of American labour force consisted of women. (See table 1.)

Probably the most dramatic and far reaching change in this area is the extraordinary rise in participation among women with very young children. The historical pattern in the United States had been for many women to work for a few years upon completing school, leave the labour force upon marriage or childbirth, and sometimes return after their children were grown. What is different today is not only that a much greater proportion of young women enter the workforce, but that most of them leave very briefly or not at all following the birth of their children. For example, it took the two decades from 1950 to 1970 for the labour force participation of married women with preschool children to increase from 12 to 30 percent, but by 1984 more than half of such women were working; today the proportion stands at 57 percent. And, the participation rate for wives with school age children has reached above 72 percent (See table 2.) Even more striking is the fact that even mothers of toddlers are more likely to work than not.

*/ Paper submitted by the United States Department of Labour

Table 1.
Employment status of the civilian noninstitutional population 16 years and over by sex, 1955 to date
(Numbers in thousands)

Year	Civilian noninstitutional population	Civilian labor force							Not in labor force
		Total	Percent of population	Employed			Unemployed		
				Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries	Number	Percent of labor force	
				Men					
1955	52,109	44,475	85.4	42,621	5,265	37,356	1,854	4.2	7,634
1956	52,723	45,091	85.5	43,379	5,040	38,339	1,711	3.8	7,633
1957	53,315	45,197	84.8	43,357	4,824	38,532	1,841	4.1	8,118
1958	54,033	45,521	84.2	42,423	4,596	37,827	3,098	6.8	8,514
1959	54,793	45,886	83.7	43,466	4,532	38,934	2,420	5.2	8,907
1960	55,662	46,388	83.3	43,904	4,472	39,431	2,486	5.4	9,274
1961	56,286	46,653	82.9	43,656	4,298	39,359	2,997	6.4	9,633
1962	56,831	46,600	82.0	44,177	4,069	40,108	2,423	5.2	10,231
1963	57,921	47,129	81.4	44,657	3,809	40,849	2,472	5.2	10,792
1964	58,847	47,679	81.0	45,474	3,691	41,782	2,205	4.6	11,169
1965	59,782	48,255	80.7	46,340	3,547	42,792	1,914	4.0	11,527
1966	60,262	48,471	80.4	46,919	3,243	43,675	1,551	3.2	11,792
1967	60,905	48,987	80.4	47,479	3,164	44,315	1,508	3.1	11,919
1968	61,847	49,533	80.1	48,114	3,157	44,957	1,419	2.9	12,315
1969	62,898	50,221	79.8	48,818	2,963	45,855	1,403	2.8	12,677
1970	64,304	51,228	79.7	48,990	2,862	46,128	2,238	4.4	13,076
1971	65,942	52,180	79.1	49,390	2,795	46,595	2,789	5.3	13,762
1972	67,835	53,555	78.9	50,896	2,849	48,047	2,659	5.0	14,280
1973	69,292	54,624	78.8	52,349	2,847	49,502	2,275	4.2	14,667
1974	70,808	55,739	78.7	53,024	2,919	50,105	2,714	4.9	15,069
1975	72,291	56,299	77.9	51,857	2,824	49,032	4,442	7.9	15,993
1976	73,759	57,174	77.5	53,138	2,744	50,394	4,036	7.1	16,585
1977	75,193	58,396	77.7	54,728	2,671	52,057	3,667	6.3	16,797
1978	76,576	59,620	77.9	56,479	2,718	53,761	3,142	5.3	16,956
1979	78,020	60,726	77.8	57,607	2,686	54,921	3,120	5.1	17,293
1980	79,398	61,453	77.4	57,186	2,709	54,477	4,267	6.9	17,945
1981	80,511	61,974	77.0	57,397	2,700	54,697	4,577	7.4	18,537
1982	81,523	62,450	76.6	56,271	2,736	53,534	6,179	9.9	19,073
1983	82,531	63,047	76.4	56,787	2,704	54,083	6,260	9.9	19,484
1984	83,605	63,835	76.4	58,091	2,668	56,423	4,744	7.4	19,771
1985	84,469	64,411	76.3	59,891	2,535	57,356	4,521	7.0	20,058
1986	85,798	65,422	76.3	60,892	2,511	58,381	4,530	6.9	20,376
1987	86,899	66,207	76.2	62,607	2,543	59,564	4,101	6.2	20,692
1988	87,857	66,927	76.2	63,273	2,493	60,780	3,655	5.5	20,930
				Women					
1955	57,574	20,548	35.7	19,551	1,184	18,366	998	4.9	37,026
1956	58,228	21,461	36.9	20,419	1,244	19,175	1,039	4.8	36,769
1957	58,951	21,732	36.9	20,714	1,123	19,591	1,101	4.7	37,218
1958	59,690	22,118	37.1	20,613	990	19,623	1,504	6.8	37,574
1959	60,534	22,483	37.1	21,164	1,033	20,131	1,320	5.9	38,053
1960	61,582	23,240	37.7	21,874	986	20,887	1,366	5.9	38,343
1961	62,484	23,806	38.1	22,090	902	21,167	1,717	7.2	38,679
1962	63,321	24,014	37.9	22,525	875	21,651	1,488	6.2	39,308
1963	64,494	24,704	38.3	23,105	878	22,227	1,598	6.5	39,791
1964	65,637	25,412	38.7	23,831	832	23,000	1,581	6.2	40,225
1965	66,731	26,200	39.3	24,748	814	23,934	1,452	5.5	40,531
1966	67,795	27,299	40.3	25,976	736	25,240	1,324	4.8	40,496
1967	68,968	28,360	41.1	26,893	680	26,212	1,468	5.2	40,608
1968	70,179	29,204	41.6	27,807	660	27,147	1,397	4.8	40,976
1969	71,436	30,513	42.7	29,084	643	28,441	1,429	4.7	40,924
1970	72,782	31,543	43.3	29,688	601	29,087	1,855	5.9	41,239
1971	74,274	32,202	43.4	29,976	599	29,377	2,227	6.9	42,072
1972	76,290	33,479	43.9	31,257	635	30,622	2,222	6.6	42,811
1973	77,804	34,804	44.7	32,715	622	32,093	2,089	6.0	43,000
1974	79,312	36,211	45.7	33,769	596	33,173	2,441	6.7	43,101
1975	80,860	37,475	46.3	33,989	584	33,404	3,486	9.3	43,386
1976	82,390	38,983	47.3	35,615	588	35,027	3,369	8.6	43,406
1977	83,840	40,613	48.4	37,289	612	36,677	3,324	8.2	43,227
1978	85,334	42,631	50.0	39,569	669	38,900	3,061	7.2	42,703
1979	86,843	44,235	50.9	41,217	661	40,556	3,018	6.8	42,608
1980	88,348	45,487	51.5	42,117	656	41,461	3,370	7.4	42,861
1981	89,618	46,696	52.1	43,000	667	42,333	3,696	7.9	42,922
1982	90,748	47,755	52.6	43,256	665	42,591	4,499	9.4	42,993
1983	91,684	48,503	52.9	44,047	680	43,367	4,457	9.2	43,181
1984	92,778	49,709	53.6	45,915	653	45,262	3,794	7.6	43,068
1985	93,736	51,050	54.5	47,259	644	46,615	3,791	7.4	42,686
1986	94,789	52,413	55.3	48,706	652	48,054	3,707	7.1	42,376
1987	95,853	53,658	56.0	50,334	666	49,668	3,324	6.2	42,195
1988	96,756	54,742	56.6	51,696	676	51,020	3,046	5.6	42,014

Not strictly comparable with data for prior years. For an explanation see Notes Historical Comparability under the Household Data section of the Explanatory

Table 2 Labor force participation rates of married women, husband present, by presence and age of own children, 1950-1988

Year[1]	Participation rate				
	Total	With no children under 18 years	With children under 18 years		
			Total	6 to 17 years none younger	Under 6 years
1950	23.8	30.3	18.4	28.3	11.9
1951	25.2	31.0	20.5	30.3	14.0
1952	25.3	30.9	20.7	31.1	13.9
1953	26.3	31.2	22.4	32.2	15.5
1954	26.6	31.6	22.7	33.2	14.9
1955	27.7	32.7	24.0	34.7	16.2
1956	29.0	35.3	24.5	36.4	15.9
1957	29.6	35.6	25.3	36.6	17.0
1958	30.2	35.4	26.5	37.6	18.2
1959	30.9	35.2	27.9	39.8	18.7
1960	30.5	34.7	27.6	39.0	18.6
1961	32.7	37.3	29.6	41.7	20.0
1962	32.7	36.1	30.3	41.8	21.3
1963	33.7	37.4	31.2	41.5	22.5
1964	34.4	37.8	32.0	43.0	22.7
1965	34.7	38.3	32.2	42.7	23.3
1966	35.4	38.4	33.2	43.7	24.2
1967	36.8	38.9	35.3	45.0	26.5
1968	38.3	40.1	36.9	46.9	27.6
1969	39.6	41.0	38.6	48.6	28.5
1970	40.8	42.2	39.7	49.2	30.3
1971	40.8	42.1	39.7	49.4	29.6
1972	41.5	42.7	40.5	50.2	30.1
1973	42.2	42.8	41.7	50.1	32.7
1974	43.1	43.0	43.1	51.2	34.4
1975	44.4	43.8	44.8	52.2	36.7
1976	45.1	43.7	46.1	53.6	37.8
1977	46.6	44.8	48.2	55.5	39.4
1978	47.5	44.6	50.2	57.1	41.7
1979	49.3	46.6	51.9	59.0	43.3
1980	50.1	46.0	54.1	61.7	45.1
1981	51.0	46.3	55.7	62.5	47.8
1982	51.2	46.2	56.3	63.2	48.7
1983	51.8	46.6	57.2	63.8	49.9
1984	52.8	47.2	58.8	65.4	51.8
1985	54.2	48.2	60.8	67.8	53.4
1986	54.6	48.2	61.3	68.4	53.8
1987	55.8	48.4	63.8	70.6	56.8
1988	56.5	48.9	65.0	72.5	57.1

[1]Data were collected in April of 1951-55 and March of all other years.

Note: Children are defined as "own" children of the women and include never married sons and daughters, stepchildren, and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews and cousins and unrelated children.

With the more continuous attachment to the labour force, also has come fuller participation in terms of hours and weeks of work. More than three-quarters of adult women workers (age 20 and older) are employed full time (35 hours or more per week). However, because women are concentrated in those industries that tend to have shorter workweeks while men are more likely to work in industries than have frequent overtime, the workweek for full-time working women averages 41.4 hours, compared with 45.2 hours for men.

Over the course of a calendar year, nearly two-thirds of all working women are year-round participants. There has been a very rapid increase in the proportion of women with year-round work experience, especially among those in their twenties and early thirties. Women in these ages have very high participation rates -- over 70 per cent --- and their rates are projected to reach more than 80 per cent by the year 2000.

These developments have helped to narrow the gap between the earnings of men and women. Median weekly earning of full-time working women average 70 per cent as much as men in 1988, up from 62 per cent in 1979.

With the increased labour force activity of women has come an increase in the number of families with more than one earner. In fully 57 per cent of all married couple families both the husband and wife are earners. And, naturally, the more earners there are in the family the higher the income. On average, working wives contribute about 30 per cent of their families' total income. This ranges from 13 per cent for wives who work only at part-time or part-year jobs to 40 per cent for those who work year round, full time.

There has also been a marked increase in the number of women who maintain families on their own. Overall, women who maintain families on their own have higher rates of labour force participation than married women, but this pattern is reversed among those with young children. Child care responsibilities often make it hard to find and hold a job when there is no spouse to share some of the burden.

While many well-educated American women have achieved considerable occupational advancement, notably as computer programmers, accountants and in other professional and managerial fields, it is also true that many women remain concentrated in traditional and relatively low-paying occupations. For example, within the professional area, women are still more likely to be nurses and elementary school teachers and less likely to be engineers and physicians. And 30 per cent of all women workers are in secretarial and other administrative support positions. Also, women are more likely to work in low-paying industries like apparel manufacturing and banking, and less likely to work in high-paying industries like mining and railroads.

INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS

The increase in labour force participation among women has been widespread around the world. The U. S. Bureau of Labour Statistics regularly publishes data approximating U. S. concepts for many industrial nations (see table 3). Among these countries, Sweden has the highest female participation rate, 63.2 per cent in 1988, up from 55.2 per cent in 1975. Italy, has the lowest female participation rate, 32.9 per cent in 1988, up from 26.8 per cent in 1975, although it has been suggested that employment in the underground economy may explain the very low reported rates of participation. The Canadian rate is slightly higher than that of the United States, and has risen somewhat faster in recent decades. Japan and France had moderate growth between 1975 and 1985, and have shown virtually no growth in female labour participation since 1985. Over a longer term perspective, the countries have varied in pace and even direction, as Japan's female labour force participation declined during the 1960-75 period while France's rose slowly. These contrasts reflect differences in custom, attitudes toward the role of women, economic and industrial growth, fertility patterns, and educational attainment, among other factors.

These factors snow even more variation as we expand beyond the major industrialized countries. The excellent ILO/INSTRAW publication, Women in Economic Activity: A Global Statistical Survey, provides ample evidence of the differences in female labour force activity in all parts of the world. Nonetheless, the generalization that female labour force participation is expected to increase faster than men's in Europe, North America, South America, Australia and New Zealand. In contrast, similar growth patterns for men and women are expected in Japan, East Asia, and some countries of Latin America and Oceania. In Africa, the male labour force is expected to show greater growth than the female.

COGNITIVE RESEARCH ON THE CPS QUESTIONNAIRE

The information on the U. S. labour force comes from the Current Population Survey (CPS), a monthly sample survey of nearly 60,000 households. As part of its current program to redesign and improve its labour force survey, the United States is conducting new multi-disciplinary research on the survey questionnaire and data collection techniques. The program has several facets, including:

(1) a debriefing of interviewers to identify problems that they believe respondents have with the questions;

(2) a debriefing of respondents to ask them how they would classify the behavior of persons in hypothetical situations;

(3) laboratory testing with focus group discussions of the concepts used in the survey; and

Table 3. Labor Force Participation Rates by Sex, 1960-1988--Continued

Year	United States	Canada	Australia	Japan	France	Germany	Italy	Nether-lands	Sweden	United Kingdom
					Civilian Labor Force Basis					
Female										
1960	37.7	30.1	NA	52.7	NA	41.2	32.3	NA	NA	39.8
1961	38.1	31.0	NA	52.4	NA	41.0	32.5	NA	46.1	40.1
1962	37.9	31.3	NA	51.3	38.2	40.7	31.6	NA	47.1	40.5
1963	38.3	31.9	NA	50.0	38.2	40.7	29.7	NA	47.6	40.7
1964	38.7	32.9	33.8	49.3	38.2	40.3	28.8	NA	46.8	41.2
1965	39.3	33.8	34.8	48.8	38.2	40.0	27.8	NA	46.6	41.7
1966	40.3	35.4	36.3	49.2	38.2	39.4	26.5	NA	47.3	42.1
1967	41.1	36.5	37.8	49.6	38.5	38.4	26.6	NA	46.8	41.9
1968	41.6	37.1	38.3	49.2	38.8	38.5	26.5	NA	48.0	41.9
1969	42.7	38.0	39.0	48.8	39.2	38.5	26.6	NA	48.8	42.0
1970	43.3	38.3	40.4	48.7	39.8	38.5	26.4	NA	50.0	42.2
1971	43.4	39.4	41.0	47.7	40.2	38.5	26.3	NA	50.9	42.0
1972	43.9	40.2	41.2	46.8	40.6	38.6	25.6	NA	51.5	42.8
1973	44.7	41.9	42.4	47.3	41.0	38.9	26.1	28.5	51.7	44.6
1974	45.7	43.0	43.5	45.7	41.4	38.8	26.5	28.7	53.3	45.7
1975	46.3	44.4	44.5	44.8	41.7	38.4	26.8	29.5	55.2	46.2
1976	47.3	45.2	44.3	44.9	42.4	38.1	27.6	29.9	55.8	46.5
1977	48.4	46.0	44.8	45.7	43.2	37.8	28.9	30.6	56.7	47.0
1978	50.0	47.9	44.5	46.4	43.5	37.8	28.8	31.1	57.5	47.6
1979	50.9	49.0	44.3	46.6	44.0	37.9	29.5	32.1	58.5	47.8
1980	51.5	50.4	45.5	46.6	44.3	38.1	30.1	34.3	59.3	47.8
1981	52.1	51.7	45.5	46.7	44.5	37.6	30.4	36.7	60.1	47.6
1982	52.6	51.7	45.4	47.0	44.9	38.4	30.3	37.7	60.5	48.2P
1983	52.9	52.6	45.5	48.0	44.9	(1)38.4	30.5	(1)37.4	60.8	48.4P
1984	53.6	53.6	46.2	47.8	45.4	38.8	30.5	38.2	61.1	49.3P
1985	54.5	54.6	47.1	47.6	45.5	39.1	30.7	38.2	61.5	49.7P
1986	55.3	55.3	49.4	47.6	45.7	39.5P	(1)31.9	40.0	61.7	50.2P
1987	56.0	56.4	50.0	47.6	45.9	40.0P	32.3P	41.8P	(1)62.6P	51.0P
1988	56.6	57.4	50.7	47.6	NA	NA	32.9P	NA	63.2P	51.4P

Continued on the following page.

Table 3. Labour Force Participation Rates by Sex, 1960-1988--Continued

NA = Not available.
P = Preliminary.
(1) Break in series.

Note: Data relate to the total or civilian labour force approximating U. S. concepts as per cent of the total or civilian noninstitutionalized working age population. Working age is defined as 16-year-olds and over in the United States, France, and Sweden; 15-year-olds and over in Australia, Canada, Germany, and Japan; and 14-year-olds and over in Italy. For the United Kingdom, the lower age limit was raised from 15 to 16 in 1973. For the Netherlands, the lower age limit was raised from 14 to 15 in 1975. The institutionalized working age population is included in Japan and Germany.

(4) tests of self versus proxy responses using pairs of volunteers who responded both for themselves and for each other.

One aspect of the research effort to identify any conceptual and wording ambiguities has been the focus group discussions. Thus far, there have been more than a dozen focus group discussions with participants recruited through flyers sent to local unemployment offices and radio and television announcements that requested volunteers who considered themselves to be unemployed; two specialized groups selected to consider specific issues were high school teachers and steel workers. The volunteers were interviewed individually and in groups to observe and record their interpretation of the survey questions and concepts.

The project to evaluate the consistency of self and proxy reporting has also been done in a laboratory setting. As is the case with most household surveys, the U. S. labor force survey permits information pertaining to persons not at home during the interview to be obtained from another responsible household member. This procedure both reduces costs and enables the survey to be completed within the very rigid time constraints necessary for the monthly reporting of the unemployment data. Nonetheless, there has been some concern expressed that the procedure may reduce the quality of the data. Moreover, some previous research has suggested that there may be certain characteristics associated with being a reliable proxy respondent. For example, it may be that in some cases other family members are not as aware of the work performed by the women in the family. The purpose of this project is to try to determine whether, and under what circumstances, proxy respondents are reliable substitutes. Interestingly, preliminary indications are that neither the length of time the self and proxy have known each other nor the proxy's level of confidence in his/her ability to respond accurately is highly correlated with the reliability of the responses.

Several aspects of this research relate especially to the labour force status of women. For example, although preliminary results suggest that the vast majority of respondents understand the meaning of "work" in a way that is consistent with the survey concepts, there is some concern with a possible underreporting of informal/casual work, in particular, unpaid work in a family business or farm, intermittent part-time work, and self-employment based at home. To the extent that women are more often employed in these situations than men are, if this concern proves to be well-founded, it could suggest some undercoverage of women's labour force activity. Research in this area continues and, if appropriate, new questions or procedures may be developed for the survey and tested as part of the overall redesign effort.

The United States is not the only country that is studying the cognitive aspects of labour force surveys. The need for more research on the respondents' understanding of the survey questionnaire and the need for a better grasp of the role of the interviewer and respondent in the interview process have been recognized on an international scale. A useful discussion of these issues -- and the use of multi-disciplinary cognitive research -- was

held at the tenth meeting of the OECD Working Party on Employment and Unemployment Statistics. A consultant to the OECD Secretariat, Norbert Schwarz, reviewed the labour force questionnaires used in the European Community countries, and research papers were prepared by a number of member countries represented on the Working Party. Areas of cognitive research to enhance question comprehension, assist in respondent recall and estimation, and improve survey procedures were discussed.

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CHAPTER II

MEASUREMENT OF LABOUR INPUTS AND VALUATION OF THEIR OUTPUTS

HOUSEHOLD PRODUCTION AND NATIONAL ACCOUNTS *

by

Heinrich Lützel

I. HOUSEHOLD PRODUCTION AND GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT

In terms of income generation and expenditure, the household sector is by far the most important sector of national accounts; the households, in fact, are the financiers of national investments. They hardly ever appear, however, as producers. Those productive activities of private households covered by the gross domestic product (GDP), such as

- housing services of owner-occupied dwellings
- own account construction of dwellings
- susbistence production in agriculture and so on
- paid services of domestic servants,

however, are not shown separately.

The inclusion of household production - i.e., the goods and services produced without payment by family members and friends and neighbours in house, home and garden for the own family but also for the general public (e.g. as an honorary activity) - into the domestic product (GDP) has been discussed controversially since the beginning of national accounting and has eventually been rejected. Though this decision was supported by factual arguments, it is primarly an agreement based on statistical reasons. Because of the difficulties of collecting continuously and with sufficient topicality the basic statistical data required for measuring the value of household work, there was the wish not to place such a burden on GDP estimates. Particularly for the current presentation of results, an estimation of the value of household work and of the respective value added would be highly inaccurate. As a consequence, the percentage changes in the GDP would be subject to such a wide range of error that their reliability would not be sufficient any more for many traditional uses of national accounts data.

Again, in the current considerations on the revision of the 1968 System of National Accounts of the United Nations (SNA), the inclusion of household production into the GDP has not been supported 1/. As far as can be seen from

*/ Report by the Federal Statistical Office of the Federal Republic of Germany

1/ See Report on the Fourth Expert Group Meeting on the Revision of the SNA, The Household Sector, Florence 1987, p. 7 ff. This report may be obtained from the U.N. Statistical Office, New York, NY 10017.

the first draft for the revised SNA 2/, the new text - contrary to the old one - will treat this question in detail. These are the arguments employed:

- In a broader economic sense, household production is definitely a productive activity.

- For measuring economic welfare, the value of household work has to be included.

- It is not part of the tasks of national accounts to measure the level of or the change in economic welfare.

- Including household production would require a high proportion of additional imputations to be made. In connection with this production, it would be necessary to impute incomes differing considerably from income in cash, because their disposal (imputed purchase of goods and services of own production) is already decided upon at the moment of their generation.

- Including household production would reduce the practicability of national accounts for many purposes they have served so far. These are, inter alia, analyses of market, money, prices and persons engaged as well as the forming of models and forecasting of economic trends.

- Household production is primarily the provision of services (e.g., cleaning, care for children) or the finishing of goods (e.g., preparation of meals), and it is clear at the moment of production that these services are intended for own consumption only. If however - as is typically the case in developing countries - new goods are produced on own account, it is not yet certain at the moment of production which proportion is intended for third parties (sale or barter). For this reason, too, it appears meaningful to cover in national accounts such new goods produced in households, while most of the household production is not considered.

As a result of this discussion it may be noted that household production definitely consists of productive activities relevant to welfare. However, including them into national accounts at present is neither meaningful nor desirable - taking into account the traditional uses of the results of national accounts - or even continuously practicable because of the statistical problems involved. Since national accounts cannot and should not claim to represent the entire economic and social reality, it is suggested to show household production in a supplementary system. Such a system is often referred to as "satellite accounts".

2/ Author of the revised SNA is Prof. P.T. Hill, OECD, Paris. The drafts are expected to be available to third parties by 1990.

It would be the purpose of such satellite accounts on household production to present the economic processes related to the gratuitous production of goods and services in households, in neighbourly help or in an honorary function. The scope would extend far beyond of what is now covered by the GDP. Apart from data expressed in monetary units, there would also be shown data in quantity units. An important requirement would be the possibility of linking and combining as many data of the satellite accounts on household production as possible with the national accounts data.

In order to enable such a linkage to be made, the items of satellite accounts should - as far as is possible and appropriate - be defined and valued in the same way as comparable aggregates in national accounts. Moreover, the items already covered by the GDP which are relevant to satellite accounts also would have to be shown separately so that they can be included in satellite accounts 3/. Where necessary, the national accounts data would have to be further sub-classified (e.g., households in a socio-economic breakdown) and supplemented by further estimates (e.g. value of consumer durables).

By drawing up satellite accounts on household production it would be possible to establish new, wide-range measures of the national production comprising the GDP and the value of household work. As may be estimated from Chart 1, this combined value would exceed the traditional GDP by 30 to 50%. The broken lines in the chart illustrate the fact that a small proportion of household production is already covered by the GDP. By household production - also referred to as own-account production - by far the greatest part of the shadow economy would be quantified. A distinction has to be made between own-account production and underground economy. The underground economy basically has to be included completely into the GDP. It comprises illicit work, illegal activities (drug trafficking) or legal activities which, for other reasons (tax avoidance, avoiding the payment of social contributions), are not reported 4/. It is certainly not possible to fully include these hidden activities into the GDP as in fact would be desirable. The results of underground activities however do not remain completely hidden (e.g. houses built mainly through illicit work are well visible and are also included in certain statistics); they are actually covered by the GDP, however without being recognizable as such (in the chart, this is shown by means of the indented line).

3/ As to the concept of the satellite accounts for national accounts, see i.a. G. Hamer (1986), C. Stahmer (1988) and P. Teillet (1988).

4/ As to delimitation and breakdown of the shadow economy, see D. Schafer and P. Wittmann (1985).

II. DEFINITION AND REGISTRATION OF HOUSEHOLD PRODUCTION 5/

Human activities within a 24-hour day are highly differing and multifarious, ranging from remunerative occupation to housework and to Leisure-time activities all the way to mental and physical regeneration. In addition, the classification criteria selected may also vary considerably - depending on the survey purpose - while it is not possible to establish any priorities from the start. Household production in its widest definition may comprise anything not covered by paid economic activity. It would include the restoration of working power in the form of active and physiological regeneration just as activities related to care and social matters.

Such a wide definition of household production would extend well beyond the conventions currently accepted in national accounts. It implies an extended concept of human capital which considers maintaining and increasing human capital as a productive activity also in the economic sense.

This concept is no doubt important and very valuable for many purposes. It becomes questionable, however, where man and the factors changing man are to be evaluated in monetary units. Because of the problems of valuation, it is rather suggested to present in the satellite accounts on household production in monetary units only those non-paid activities which can be reasonably valuated also from an economic point of view. All other activities should however be presented in time units in order to enable further surveys and analyses - which are not necessarily dependent on data expressed in monetary units - to be carried out with more comprehensive delimitations of household production.

The recommendation to include in household production only those items which can be reasonably valued or which are productive, actually does not mean very much as long as it is not specific more clearly what the criterion "reasonable valuation" is supposed to signify or what is considered "productive" in this context. As long as the terms "reasonable" and "productive" are not defined more exactly and are not made operational, they are useless pseudocriteria for the delimitation of household production.

One criterion for delimitating household production which as a rule is used in empirical studies all over the world 6/ is the third person criterion defined for the first time by Margaret Reid (1934) and later again by Oli Hawrylyshyn (1977) as well as by Peter T. Hill (1979), each in a slightly differing form 7/. According to this criterion, household production

5/ This topic has been treated in detail by H. Lutzel (1983); thus the present discussion can be limited to major points.

6/ See L. Goldschmidt-Clermont (1987), p. 5.

7/ For a detailed discussion of this criterion in its various forms see D. Schater (1988), p. 311 ff.

Chart 1

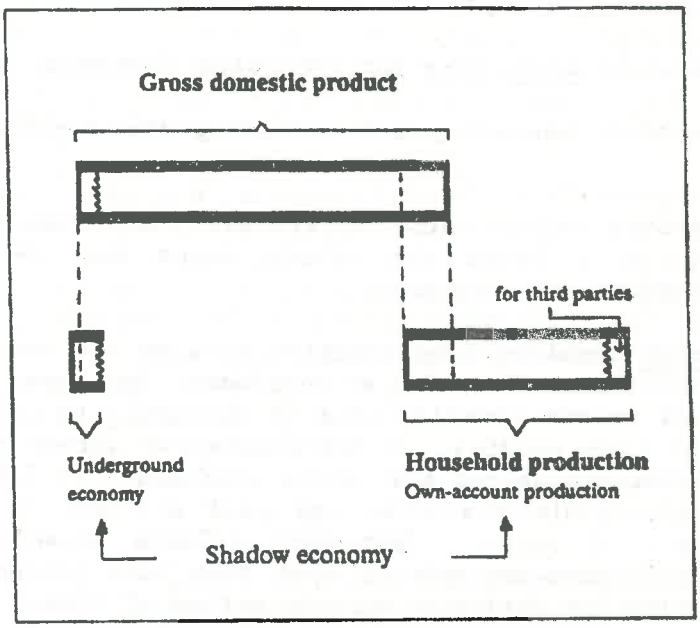
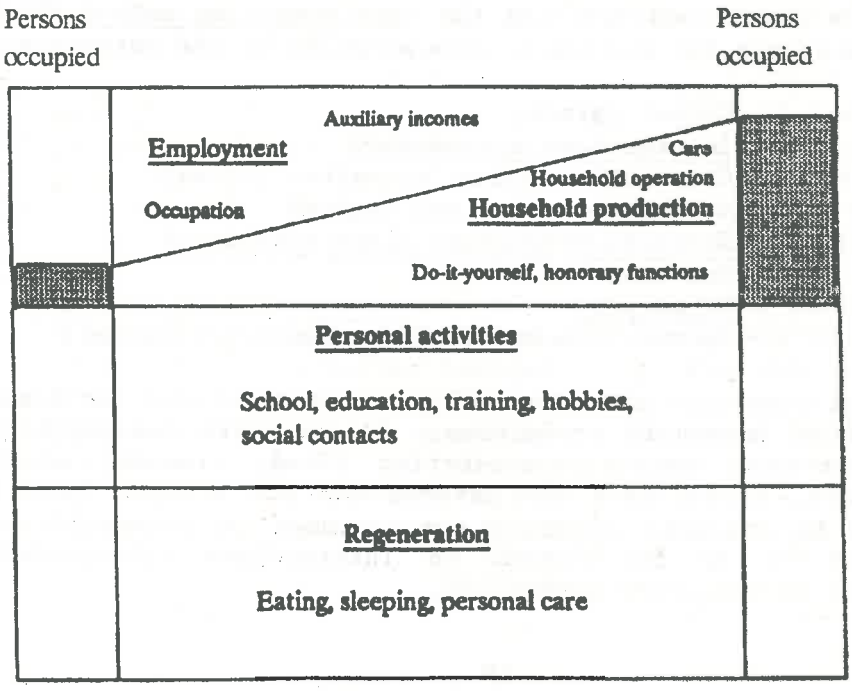


Chart 2

Activities



comprises those unpaid activities or outputs which may also be rendered by third persons (against remuneration). Chart 2 shows schematically a possible breakdown of a 24-hour day of a person occupied and of a person not occupied as well as the elements to be included in household production according to the third person criterion.

There are two possible approaches for recording household production:

- the output approach measuring and valuating the result of household work and

- the input approach which first determines the value and then the output, taking as a basis the labour input and the intermediate consumption of goods and services.

The output approach requires comprehensive data on the services rendered and goods produced in households in a breakdown by type, quality and quantity. A statistical survey covering data so difficult to collect seems to be practicable only for case studies. A representative survey carried out at a sufficient number of households for the entire production is likely to encounter nearly insurmountable obstacles and will at best be possible for some few selected kinds of output. Moreover, private households do not - contrary to enterprises - keep records of what they have produced (rendered) in which quality and quantity during a certain period of time. A description of this kind is difficult particularly for services because it is often not possible to state more than the number of hours spent for rendering a certain service. As a rule, natural units of quantity, such as kilogramme, litre, or joule are not suitable for the quantitative registration of services.

As far as it is possible to record the quantity of goods produced and services rendered within the scope of household production and to value them by applying prices of comparable goods and services offered on the market, the value added can be determined applying the same computing method which is used within national accounts for the production accounts of the enterprise sector:

Output (gross)
- Intermediate consumption
= Gross value added (at market prices)
- Consumption of fixed capital
- Taxes on production (less subsidies)
= Net value added
- Wages paid
= Income from household production (imputed)

Gross output comprises the value of goods produced and services rendered within the scope of household production. Intermediate consumption includes goods (rarely services) entering production (food, cleaning agents, dress material, wallpaper, fertilizers for gardens and the like). These household purchases, which in national accounts are included in household consumption expenditure, have to be transferred to intermediate consumption in the satellite accounts on household production.

Consumption of fixed capital would have to be computed for the consumer durables of households. For this purpose, the purchases of durables (such as washing machines, furniture, private cars and the like) have to be transferred to fixed capital formation. Taxes on production and subsidies rarely occur; they may be found however in connection with the letting or owner occupancy of dwellings. Finally, there may be domestic servants employed against remuneration within the scope of household production, whose wages will have to be deducted from the net value added in order to obtain the amount of the imputed income from household production

The input approach proceeds from the resources required for the production of goods and services, i.e. the inputs. Value added and output are computed by adding the input items. There is imputed implicitly that in connection with household production there are neither profits nor losses. This computing approach is a method commonly used in national accounts, particularly for nonmarket production (general government and private nonprofit institutions). The computing method here is an inversion of the one used with the output approach:

Imputed income from household production
+ Wages paid
= Net value added
+ Taxes on production (less subsidies)
+ Consumption of fixed capital.
= Gross value added
+ Intermediate consumption
= Output (gross)

It must not be concluded from the formal homogeneity of the computing pattern that the two approaches for output and incomes from household production will lead to the same result. The output approach takes gross output as the starting point, while the income is computed as the residual. The latter may also be negative, that is if rather expensive base materials are used for producing a product whose market price is lower than the total expenses for the base materials, energy consumption and the like. The input approach proceeds from the imputed income from household production which is computed by valuating the hours worked using comparable wage rates. With this approach, the output is the result of the computations. In most cases, the value of goods and services produced as determined in this way should differ considerably from the value of comparable products traded on the market.

The statistical realization of the input approach appears to be easier than that of the output approach. The most important original data required for the input approach is detailed information on the time that all household members from a certain age spent for the activities to be included in household production, for example according to the third person criterion. Of course, a statistical survey on time use should aim not only at these activities, it should rather take the 24-hour day as a basis - also for checking purposes - as is intended for the time budget survey planned by the

German Federal Statistical Office for 1992/93. The statistical data on time use have to be classified in sufficient detail according to the type of activities performed, in order to be suited for meaningful valuation. Moreover, the sample ought to be of sufficient size, so as to yield representative results - taking into account the intended breakdown of households by various criteria - which can then be blown up to the total. So far, none of the two requirements is met by the data on time use available in the Federal Republic of Germany.

The advantage of the input approach of being more practicable in terms of statistics contrasts with the disadvantage of not being able to provide answers to some important questions. It is for example not possible to find out whether certain goods or services can be produced (rendered) more efficiently, more effectively or cheaper in the household than on the market. Nor is it possible to provide information on the change in labour productivity within household production - as compared to the value added at constant prices per hour worked - because the computation of data in constant prices (constant wage rates) according to the input approach explicitly requires an assumption to be made on the change in labour productivity. The disadvantage of the input approach that there exist wide margins for the valuation of labour input is true just as much for the output approach, this is however relative to the valuation of the results of household production. As a result of these considerations it may be noted that the output approach is preferable for many uses of data on household production, while for statistical reasons the input approach has a better chance of being realized.

III. VALUATION OF HOUSEHOLD PRODUCTION

For the output approach, the valuation does not represent any conceptual problem. The standard to be applied are the market prices of goods and services with the best possible comparability. The problem here is the question of what is really comparable. For prepared meals for example, is it the fast food prices or those of high-class restaurants? Actually, the term "meal" covers a wide scope which may range from a snack at the kitchen table to a complete meal at a festive board. If, therefore, when applying the output approach, the value of household work is not differentiated in great detail by qualitative gradations, the valuation range will be very wide in practice. On the other hand, detailed differentiations by quality are hard to operationalize, and as a consequence the respondents of statistical surveys (contrary to case studies) are easily overburdened.

The input approach suggests the market valuation and the valuation at opportunity costs 8/. In each case, the hours worked are valued applying the wage rates of persons performing comparable activities against remuneration

8/ See particularly M. Murphy (1982).

(market valuation), or applying the income which could be earned by the person now working in the hosehold if he/she pursued paid work (opportunity cost approach).

With market valuation there may again be distinguished two approaches: One may proceed on an overall basis from the wages paid to a housekeeper who proceed in an activity-related way using the wage rate paid to a person who typically renders the service in question (cleaning, cooking, private lessons and so on). Comparative calculations made by Murphy for the U.S.A. have shown that the activity-related approach results in much higher values than the overall approach (see Chart 3). Obviously, even a housekeeper working completely on her own does not perform all the services rendered by the housewife and the other family members within the scope of household production. Thus, there is much to be said in favour of an activity-related valuation.

As is shown in the chart, the opportunity cost approach usually results in considerably higher values. This is not surprising since most of the remunerations for typical household activities are to be found in the lower half of the wage scale. In theory, applying opportunity costs may be an interesting approach; there is however some doubt whether it will prove useful in practice. If someone considers working in his/her own household instead of pursuing paid work, his/her decision will be influenced only to a lesser extent by income comparisons. Moreover, it appears quite uncertain whether someone could find at all - for the time he/she works in his/her own house or garden - an employment paid according to his/her education. For full-time employees running their households as a "secondary occupation", this alternative practically does not exist at all. For them, a temporary employment of paid domestic servants is more suitable, which again is an argument in favour of an activity-related valuation. For this and other reasons, the valuation of household production using market wage rates for comparable activities is certainly preferable.

IV. DRAWING UP SATELLITE ACCOUNTS ON HOUSEHOLD PRODUCTION

It has already been explained that it is not intended to extend national accounts by household production. Instead, household production and the related processes are to be shown in a supplementary system, here referred to as satellite accounts on household production, at the same time maintaining the traditional GDP estimates. The satellite accounts have to be constructed in such a way that a linkage with national accounts is possible. This exercise does not have to be done every year (or even quarterly), but a presentation once every few years would certainly be a great step forward.

The most important prerequisite for drawing up such satellite accounts on household production are detailed and representative results of a time budget survey. The data on time use have to be blown up to the total of all households and to be presented in the time dimension for all fields of activity in a breakdown by household groups and groups of persons, male and female.

The activities to be included into household production according to the third-person criterion have to be valued applying hourly wage rates of persons who pursue the same or similar activities as a paid employment, in order to obtain in this way an estimated value of the housework performed. The net value added from household production is obtained by adding to this value the remuneration paid by private households to third persons (household assistance, neighbourly help, but not to persons pursuing entrepreneurial activities).

In order to obtain the gross value added, the depreciation of consumer durables and the paid taxes on production (if applicable) have to be added. For computing the consumption of fixed capital, the purchases of consumer durables have to be separated from household consumption expenditure for many years back. Subsequently these purchases can be used for computing the value of consumer durables and the relative consumption of fixed capital[9/].

The value of the goods produced and the services rendered gratuitously in the household, i.e., the output, is computed according to the input approach by adding to the gross value added the goods and services used (consumed) during production, i.e., the intermediate consumption. The expenditure of households for these goods and services is also contained in household consumption expenditure and has to be shown separately. Most of these are goods used for the preparation of meals, for cleaning purposes and the like, but also in the garden or for do-it-yourself activities. In the satellite accounts on household production they enter output as intermediate use, and only when the output is used they become part of final consumption.

Household production may also include the gratuitous contributions of households which have already been included so far in national accounts. These are essentially the rental value of owner-occupied dwellings, the own-account construction of dwellngs and the production of agricultural products for own consumption in non-agricultural households. The output and the value added of household production would have to be increased accordingly.

The data shown in the satellite accounts on household production in monetary units are to be linked with comparable data of national accounts. This can be done in many different ways and will be explained below by way of example in the form of the derivation of the enlarged final consumption of households from household consumption according to the national accounts concept (see also Chart 4):

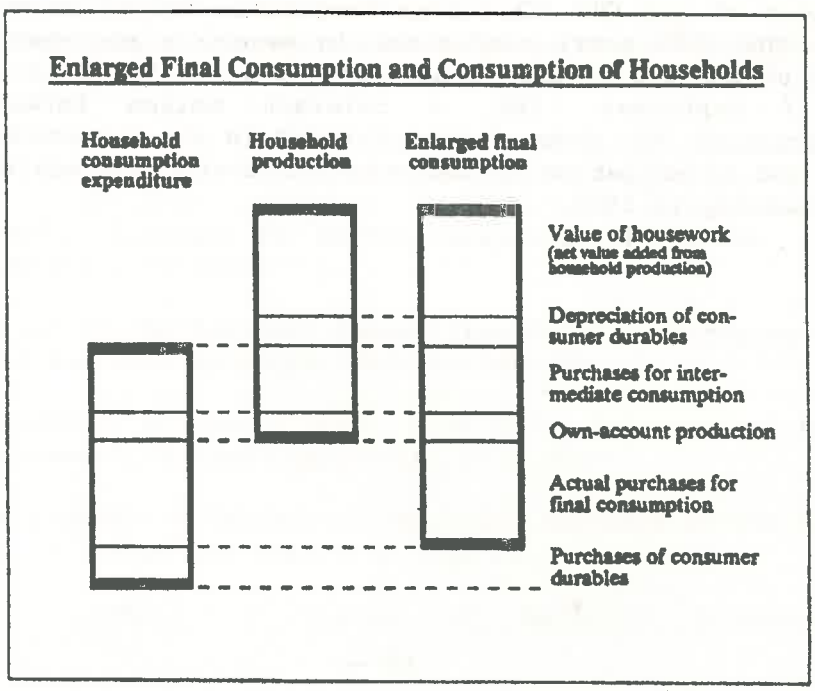
9/ For the Federal Republic of Germany, estimates for 1970 - 1984 have been prepared by D. Schafer (1985).

Chart 3

Evaluation method	Household production in % of GNP		
	U.S.A.	France	Finland
	1976	1975	1980
1. Output approach			
Market equivalents		37	30
2. Input approach			
a) Market valuation			
-Housekeepers' wage	32	31	32
-Activity-related	44		
b) Opportunity costs			
-after taxes	51	44	
-before taxes	59		

Source: M. Murphy, in Review of Income and Wealth 1/1982
A. Chadeu, in Review of Income and Wealth 3/1985
A. Suviranta, Determining the Value of Unpaid Housework, Helsinki 1986.

Chart 4



Household consumption expenditure
- Final consumption of private non-profit institutions
= Household consumption expenditure of households only
- Purchases of consumer durables
= Purchases for current consumption
- Purchases for intermediate consumption
= Purchases for final consumption
- Imputed purchases of own-account production
= Actual purchases for final consumption
+ Output of household production
= Enlarged final consumption of households

This example shows that a correct linkage of national accounts data with data of the satellite accounts as a rule involves some problems. In both accounts there have to be applied the same principles for delimitation, definition and valuation of the items. Moreover, the national accounts data required often have to be given a new sectoral delimitation and a further breakdown by new criteria, and sub-elements have to be re-allocated. It is a further complication that the fields in question mostly are not very well-founded statistically, which means that only rough estimates can be employed.

All these problems should however not prevent further action. Statistics should reach within the scope of its possibilities even if in this field the usual standards cannot be applied for the statistical foundation of the data supplied.

In recent years, the demand for including housework into national accounts has been advanced insistently by various quarters in the Federal Republic of Germany. To mention only a few, there is item No. 16 of the guiding principles of the CDU (Christian Democratic Union) on women policy as agreed upon at the 1985 party conference in Essen, a statement made by Dr. Vogel, chairman of the SPD (Social Democratic Party of Germany) in the Deutsch Bundestag on 7 September 1988, a relevant motion forwarded by the parliamentary group of "Die Grünen" (The Greens) in the German Bundestag on 16 September 1988 and a resolution of Deutscher Frauenrat (German Women Council) at its general meeting in 1985.

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SURVEY OF INFORMAL CARERS, GREAT BRITAIN *

by

Hazel Green

I am presenting a paper on informal care at a conference on women because caring is typically thought of as women's work. However, as will be discussed later, one of the most surprising and controversial findings of our survey was that a substantial proportion of men were involved in caring.

1. INTRODUCTION

At the request of the Department of Health, a series of questions was included in the 1985 General Household Survey to identify people looking after a disabled or elderly person. The main aim of the questions was to provide estimates of the numbers of informal carers in Great Britain and to describe their characteristics. This information was needed to help plan services for carers and to provide a national perspective on the results of more detailed local studies.

The General Household Survey (GHS) is a multipurpose continuous survey based on a representative sample of the general population living in private households in Great Britain. Approximately 10,000 households are included each year and interviews are carried out with all adults (persons aged 16 or over) in the sampled households. The questions on informal care were addressed to about 18,500 adults living in households sampled for the 1985 survey. Those identified as carers were asked about the number of disabled or elderly people they looked after (referred to as 'dependants' in this paper). Details were then collected about each dependant and the nature of care provided. Information was obtained for approximately 77% of the total eligible sample of adults.

There has been relatively little research into informal care and this study was the first national survey of carers to be carried out in Great Britain. It was therefore a very exploratory project and intended as a base on which future work in this area could build.

This paper describes two aspects of the research which presented problems of measurement: first, the definition of informal care and identification of carers and second, the assessment of the burden of care.

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* Report submitted by the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys.

2. DEFINITION OF INFORMAL CARE

There is no widely accepted definition of informal care and few studies have included questions to identify carers. It was therefore necessary to develop a definition for the survey. Our aim was to design questions which would identify carers looking after someone living either in the carer's home or in another private household and which would include those providing relatively small amounts of care as well as those with heavy demands upon them.

The concept of caring was first established in the interview in relation to people caring for a dependant living in the same household as the carer. It was necessary to distinguish between help normally given by one household member to another and the special help needed by people who are disabled. For this purpose, the introduction to the questions included a reference to 'extra family responsibilities'. For those caring for someone outside the household, we wanted to ensure that people providing relatively small amounts of help were included (for example, people who collected shopping or library books for a disabled person). The question to identify this group therefore referred to 'providing a regular service or help' for the dependant. The questions were:

Q.1 Some people have extra family responsibilities because they look after someone who is sick, handicapped or elderly.

May I check, is there anyone living with you who is sick, handicapped or elderly whom you look after or give special help to (for example, a sick or handicapped or elderly relative/husband/ wife/child/friend, etc.) (SPECIFY ALL HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS)?

Q.2 And how about people not living with you, do you provide some regular service or help for any sick, handicapped or elderly relative, friend or neighbour not living with you?

The questions were tested in a pilot study before being included in the main survey.

The absence of a strictly objective definition of a 'carer' meant that, in the last resort, we had to rely on the informant's subjective opinion as to whether or not he/she was a carer. Although this was unavoidable, it was recognised that the screen questions might not identify all carers. The pilot test suggested that there might be a few informants apparently carrying out informal care but who did not consider the caring role to be an 'extra family responsibility'. The interviewer was therefore asked to note any cases in which an informant had answered the screen question negatively but the interviewer was confident that he/she was providing a substantial amount of care. This check was possible only for carers looking after someone living with them, as in this case the interviewer was aware of the dependant's

household situation. However, such omissions were unlikely to occur among carers with dependants outside the household as the question to identify these carers was phrased differently. Of 18,565 adults who responded to Q1 above, there were 56 people (0.3), mainly people caring for spouse, whom the interviewers considered to be carers but who did not identify themselves as such. These cases were excluded from the analysis. Their exclusion makes no difference to the overall proportion caring or to the proportion caring for someone in the household.

The interviewers were also asked to note any situations in which they felt that informants had incorrectly identified themselves as carers. No such cases were reported.

Reports from the field staff and the small number of apparent carers who did not identify themselves as such suggest that the questions were reasonably successful at identifying people who had fairly heavy demands upon them, that is, those whose caring role was evident from interviews with all adult members of the household. It is more difficult to assess how reliably we identified those with lighter loads. Intuitively, it seems likely that there would be some such carers who would not consider that the help they gave was worth mentioning. However, the results show that many of those with relatively light loads were included and that, as would be expected, they formed a relatively high proportion of the total sample of carers. Over one third of the carers identified were devoting less than 5 hours per week to caring.

Other approaches might have been used to identify carers although it is difficult to envisage a completely objective definition. For example, one could ask a series of questions checking whether or not people carried out various caring tasks. But this would still have involved subjective judgement in distinguishing between tasks normally carried out for another household member and those performed because of disability. What is regarded as 'normal' may depend, for example, on the age or sex of the persons being looked after.

The importance of using an objective definition to identify carers will depend to a large extent on the aims of the research. The purpose of this study was to provide information to help the Health Department estimate the demand for services. It is likely that carers who see their role as a normal family responsibility will make fewer demands than those who consider it to be an extra duty. In this sense, a person's view about whether or not he/she is a carer may be a better indicator of the demand for services than a more objective identification.

The main estimates from the survey are shown in Table 1. Fourteen percent of people aged 16 or over said that they were looking after, or providing some regular services for, someone who was sick, handicapped or elderly. Although the public image of carers is of a predominantly female group, the proportion of women caring (15%) was not markedly higher than that of men (12%). Men and women were equally likely to care for someone living

with them (4% for both sexes) but women were more likely to care for people outside the household, 11% compared with 8% of men.

While it is surprising that there is not a greater difference between the sexes in the overall proportion caring, we have no reason to believe that the figure for women is an under-estimate. The group of apparent carers who did not identify themselves contained similar numbers of men and women and our estimates were comparable to those obtained in a local study carried out at around the same time. But, since there are more women than men in the total population of Great Britain, it is true that the number of women caring is considerably greater than that of men. The survey figures represent about 6 million carers overall in Great Britain, 3.5 million women and 2.5 million men. The fact that carers are more likely to be women than men may be one reason for the popular idea that women are more likely than men to be carers. As will be discussed later, there were some differences between men and women in the extent to which they shouldered the burden of care.

3. MEASURING THE BURDEN OF CARE

Within the total sample of carers, the nature of care provided covered a wide spectrum ranging, for example, from taking the dependant out once a week to almost continous care. The Department of Health was particularly interested in carers who had heavy demands upon them. The following measures of the burden of care were included in the study in order to distinguish this group:

1. Whether the dependant lived in the same household as the carer.
2. Number of hours devoted to caring.
3. Whether the carer was the main carer for the dependant.
4. Number of dependants cared for.
5. Number of years spent caring for the dependant.
6. Kinds of help given.
7. Support received from other family members or friends and from the professional and voluntary services.
8. Opportunities for taking time off from caring.
9. Other responsibilities/problems, for example, dependent children, paid job, health problems.

The survey did not attempt to explore people's attitudes to caring or its physical, social and financial consequences. These aspects of caring were being covered in smaller scale studies and there was insufficient time

available in the GHS interview for the kind of detailed questioning they would require.

The first three measures listed above were our main indicators of the burden of care. Caring for someone in the household was expected to involve a greater commitment for the carer and proved to be closely related to other measures indicating a heavy burden of care. This measure was straightforward. The other two, the time devoted to caring and whether the person was the main carer for the dependant, were more problematic. The following sections describe the difficulties in collecting this information and the inter-relationships between the three main measures of the burden of care.

3.1 Time Spent on Caring Activities

The main difficulty in assessing the time devoted to caring occurred among people giving rather intangible forms of help, for example, being in attendance in case help should be needed, keeping an eye on the dependant and being 'on call' while sleeping. We decided that caring which required the carer's presence during waking hours, even if he or she was not specifically looking after the dependant, should be counted because the need to be in attendance would restrict the carer's activities. Time spent 'on call' while sleeping was excluded because it was very difficult to define precisely and we thought that there would be a lot of variation in how it was interpreted. We are aware that this could be a considerable burden for some carers. However, it is quite likely that such carers would also be spending a substantial amount of time caring during the day so that they would be classified into the 'heavy burden' group on this basis.

For carers, giving more specific types of help and those with dependants outside the household, assessing the time spent caring was usually more straightforward, the only special instruction to interviewers being to include travelling time to dependants outside the household.

The pilot test showed that people devoting long hours to caring found it very difficult to calculate the time they spent. To simplify the task, informants were asked to give banded estimates, very broad bands being used for those with long hours. This information was sufficiently detailed for our purposes as our main interest was in dividing the sample into broad subgroups. The interviewers were briefed to help informants to calculate their hours, if necessary, by going through what happened on each day of the week. Although this was quite time consuming, the results were very encouraging, useable information being obtained for 99% of carers.

Figures 1 shows the close relationship between the time devoted to caring and the first indicator of the burden of care, whether or not the dependant lived in the same household as the carer. Nearly one half of carers whose dependants lived with them were devoting at least 50 hours per week to caring and less than one quarter were spending under 10 hours. Among those

with dependants outside the household, about three-quarters were devoting under 10 hours per week to caring to represent a subtantial burden for the carer. Such a commitment was made by about one quarter of carers, representing approximately 1.4 million adults in Great Britain.

3.2 Main carers

Our third measure of the intensity of care was whether the carer was the main carer for the dependant. 'Main carers' were defined as people who were the sole carers of a dependant or who spent more time than anyone else on the care of the dependant. We feel that this is not an entirely satisfactory definition of a 'main carer' in that time spent on caring does not necessarily distinguish adequately the degree of responsibility taken for the welfare of the dependant. Ideally we wanted to establish who took the main responsibility for organising activities, taking decisions, explaining to others what was needed, ensuring that there was supervision, dealing with an emergency and so on. Taking ultimate responsibility for the dependant is likely to be a considerable burden and involves a much greater commitment than merely spending time with the dependant. If the study should be repeated, we would aim to build in these more intangible elements of responsibility.

As Figure 2 shows, nearly one quarter (23%) of carers reported that no-one else helped to look after the dependant. A further 30% said that they received help but spent more time than anyone else on the dependant ('sole main carers') and 11% spent the same amount of time as someone else ('joint main carers'). Together, these groups (referred to as 'main carers') represent two thirds of all carers, which is equivalent to approximately 3.7 million adults in Great Britain. Among those caring for someone in the household, the vast majority were main carers (82%), including a high proportion, 42%, who were coping singlehandedly. Of those with dependants outside the household, 57% were main carers including only 15% with no other help.

As would be expected, main carers tended to devote considerably more time to caring than secondary carers and this was true irrespective of whether or not the dependant was in the household (Table 2). The Table also shows that secondary carers looking after someone in the household tended to devote longer hours to caring than main carers with a dependant living elsewhere. This may reflect the severity of the informant's disability in that severely disabled people who do not have a carer living with them are likely to require institutional care.

Figure 3 illustrates the degree of overlap in the groups with the heaviest burden, as indicated by the three measures discussed. The right hand chart shows that 25% of all carers were spending 20 or more hours per week on caring activities and, as would be expected, the vast majority of these were the main carers of a dependant. The left hand chart shows that the group caring for someone living with them was almost entirely composed of people spending at least 20 hours per week caring or people devoting fewer hours but

who were main carers, that is, the lined and/or shaded areas on the left hand chart.

3.3. Other Measures of the Burden of Care

There were a few difficulties with the other measures of the burden of care used in the survey, although most were straightforward. As noted earlier, there are some problems with obtaning information about the kind of help given by carers because of the need to distinguish between help normally given by one family member to another and that given to someone because of disability. For example, help with personal care is normally given to young children and some domestic tasks may be carried out by one person for the rest of the family. The question specified that the help should be 'over and above what would normally be done for the dependant' but it was sometimes difficult for the carer to make this distinction.

Table 3 shows the kinds of help carers gave to their dependants analysed by whether or not the dependant lived with the carer. The first 3 items, help with personal care, giving medications and physical help, involve some degree of intimacy between carer and dependant. These kinds of help were each given by about one half of those caring for someone living with them.

A surprisingly high proportion, 20%, of carers looked after more than one person. These were mainly people caring for both parents or for a relative and a friend. In some cases, having two or more dependants would substantially increase the burden of care but, in others, it might not. For example, cooking or shopping for two elderly parents would probably involve the same amount of effort as doing these tasks for one parent. On the other hand, caring for two dependants who lived some distance apart would probably be a considerable burden. Thus quite detailed information is needed to interpret this measure.

4. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN

It was noted earlier that the overall proportion of women caring was not very much higher than that of men (15% and 12% respectively). However, comparisons on the measures discussed above show that women tended to carry the heavier burden of care, as is illustrated in the following analyses.

Figure 4 shows that, among carers looking after someone living with them, 51% of women compared with 39% of men were devoting at least 50 hours per week to caring. Similarly, among those with dependants outside the household, 32% of women compared with 22% of men spent at least 10 hours per week.

Women were also more likely than men to carry the main responsibility for the care fo the dependant, either or with secondary support (Figure 5). Overall, 59% of women compared with 45% of men were in this position.

There were also differences between men and women in the kind of care given (Table 4). Women were more likely than men to help their dependants with personal care and to give general supervision while men were more likely to take their dependants out.

The group of women who tended to have the heaviest burden of care were single women aged 45 to 64 (Figure 6). In this age-group single women were more likely than ever-married women to be caring for someone living with them (15% and 6%) and more likely than single men to be main carers (22% and 12%). The proportions spending at least twenty hours per week caring for a dependant were also higher among single women aged 45 to 64 (13%) than among single men (6%) or ever-married women (6%) in this age-group. In other age-groups, however, there was no significant difference between single men and women or between single and ever-married women in any of these respects. These findings lend some support to the commonly held view that the caring role falls disproportionately on single women but the disparity is only evident in later middle age. It must be remembered too that the numbers involved are very small: single female carers represent only 11% of all female carers and 2% of all women.

Although, on these measures, women tended to carry a greater burden of care than men, the differences are not great. In the case of 'main' carers, this may be because we did not adequately cover the elements of responsibility discussed earlier. It may be that women are more likely than men to take ultimate responsibility for ensuring that a dependant is adequately cared for but this kind of burden is not easily measured. It may also be that women under-estimate their contribution, as has been found in studies of childcare. A survey of Women's Employment (2) found that one half of all married women considered that childcare was shared equally with their husbands and, even among non-working women tended to discount the time they spent while their husbands were working! Among the husbands of non-working women, a rather lower proportion, 30%, claimed that the care was shared equally. This study also found that husbands and wives tended to do different tasks, the husbands playing with the children or taking them out and the wives doing the more routine tasks of feeding, dressing, etc. Again there are parallels with the gender differences in the kinds of help carers gave.

5. FUTURE WORK

There is considerable scope for developing our analysis of the burden of care. In particular, it would be useful to link together the individual measures to provide an overall indicator of burden. Although we have completed our work on the project, the data tapes have been made available to other researchers and one organisation is currently carrying out secondary analysis of the data.

There may also be an opportunity for improving the question. The Department of Health is interested in monitoring changes over time in the numbers of carers and it is likely that a section on informal care will be included again in the GHS.

Table 1 Percentage of adults who were carers and percentages in some sub-groups of carers, by sex

Persons aged 16 and over — *Great Britain: 1985*

	Men	Women	All adults
Percentage of adults who were:			
Carers	12%	15%	14%
Caring for someone in the same household*	4%	4%	4%
Caring for someone in another private household only	8%	11%	10%
Base = 100%	*8,484*	*9,846*	*18,330*

* *Includes people who were caring for someone in the same household and someone in another private household (63 cases)*

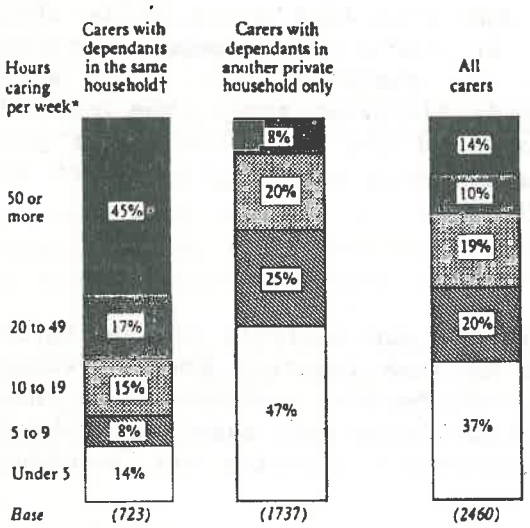
Table 2 Number of hours per week caring for (main)* dependant by whether the dependant lived inside or outside the carer's household and whether main carer

Carers — *Great Britain: 1985*

Number of hours per week devoted to caring	Carers whose (main) dependant lived: in the same household		in another private household		All carers	
	Main carers	Non-main carers	Main carers	Non-main carers	Main carers	Non-main carers
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Under 5	10	30	36	62	26	58
5 to 9	6	18	29	23	20	22
10 to 19	13	28	25	9	20	12
20 to 49	18	12	9	5	12	6
50 or more	53	12	1	Ø	21	2
Base = 100%	*576*	*125*	*947*	*722*	*1,523*	*847*

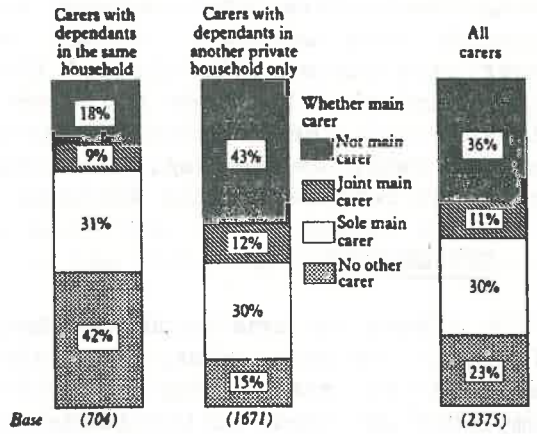
* *See the footnote to Figure 2*

Figure 1 Number of hours caring per week (for all dependants) by whether the dependant lived inside or outside the carer's household; Great Britain, 1985



* Includes time when carer was available in case help was needed
\+ Includes people caring for someone in the same household and someone in another private household

Figure 2 Carers: whether main carer for (main)* dependant by whether the dependant lived or outside the carer's household; Great Britain, 1985



* Where carers were looking after more than one person, information is shown only for the main dependant

Figure 3 Percentages of carers who were the main carers of a dependant and percentages who were caring for someone for at least 20 hours per week, by whether the dependant lived inside or outside the carer's household; Great Britain, 1985

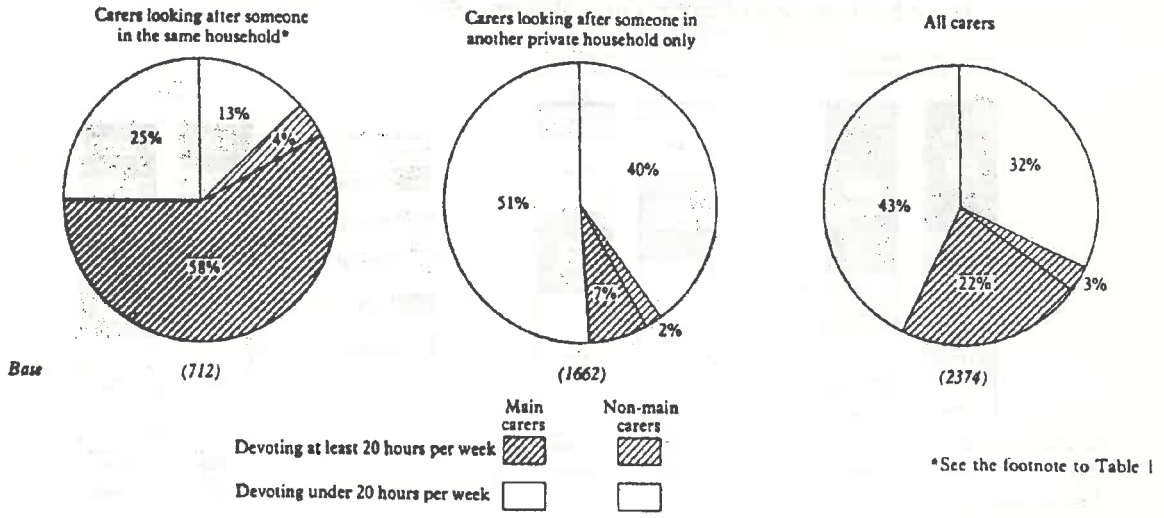


Table 3 Types of help given to (main)* dependant by whether the dependant lived inside or outside the carer's household

Carers — *Great Britain: 1985*

Help given to (main) dependant	Carers whose (main) dependant lived: in the same household	in another private household	All carers
	Percentage giving each type of help†		
Personal care (eg washing)	53	13	24
Giving medicines	46	13	22
Physical help (eg with walking)	46	12	22
Paperwork or financial matters	47	37	40
Other practical help	81	82	82
Keeping company	64	67	66
Taking out	54	47	49
Keeping an eye on dependant	79	69	72
Base = 100%	*713*	*1,749*	*2,462*

* *See the footnote to Figure 2*

† *Percentages add to more than 100 because some carers gave several types of help.*

Figure 4 Number of hours caring per week (for all dependants) by whether the dependant lived inside or outside the carer's household and sex of carer; Great Britain, 1985

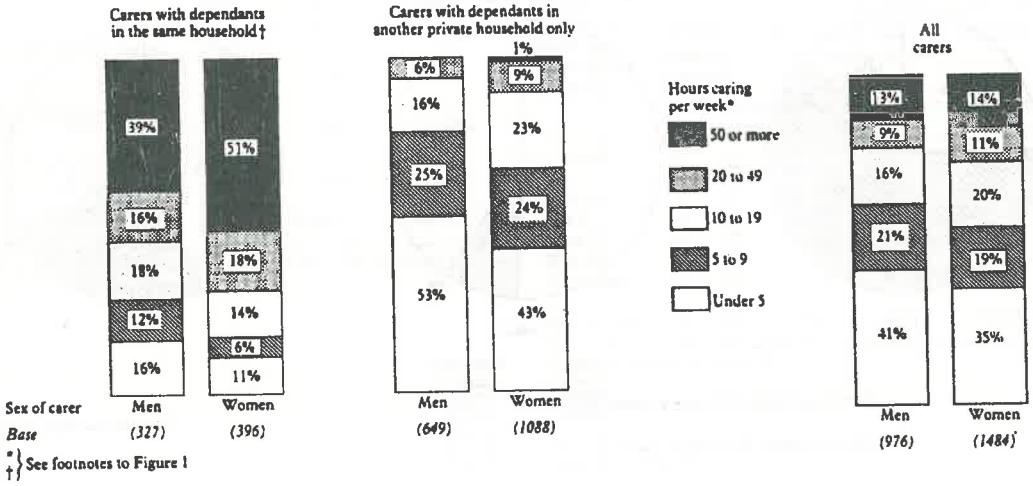
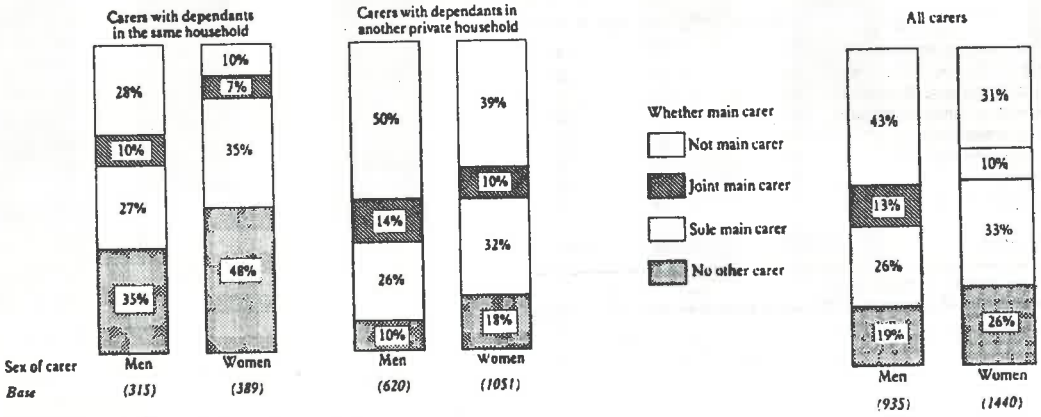


Figure 5 Carers: whether main carer for (main)* dependant by whether the dependant lived inside or outside the carer's household and sex of carer; Great Britain, 1985.



*See the footnote to Figure 2

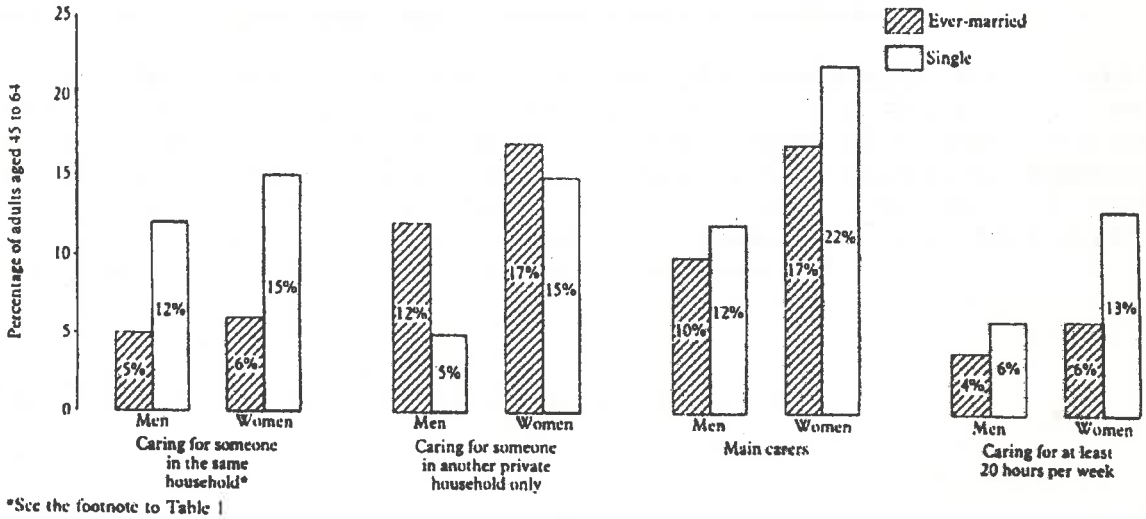
Table 4 Types of help given to (main)* dependant by whether the dependant lived inside or outside the carer's household and sex of carer

Carers — *Great Britain: 1985*

Help given to (main) dependant	Where (main) dependant lived and sex of carer: in the carer's household		in another private household		All carers	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
	Percentages giving each type of help†					
Personal care (eg washing)	43	62	7	16	19	28
Giving medicines	37	53	10	14	19	24
Physical help (eg with walking)	46	46	10	14	22	22
Paperwork or financial matters	42	51	40	36	41	40
Other practical help	82	80	82	82	82	82
Keeping company	63	64	63	69	63	68
Taking out	60	49	50	46	53	47
Keeping an eye on dependant	75	83	63	72	67	75
Base = 100%	*322*	*391*	*658*	*1,091*	*980*	*1,482*

* *See the footnote to Table 2*
† *See the footnote to Table 3*

Figure 6 Percentage of adults aged 45 to 64 in some sub-groups of carers by sex and marital status; Great Britain, 1985



*See the footnote to Table 1

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VALUING DOMESTIC ACTIVITIES*

by

L. Goldschmidt-Clermont

I. INTRODUCTION

I.1 Scope of paper

This paper deals with domestic and related activities. In domestic activities, we include meal preparation (preparing and cooking food, serving it and cleaning up), cleaning dwelling and its surroundings, care of clothing (laundering, ironing, mending), personal care of dependent household members (children, the aged, the ill) and all shopping related to these tasks. By related activities, we mean other productive household activities which in content, mode of production and disposition of output are similar or related to the basic chore of activities enumerated above. They include, for instance, food preservation, sewing clothes and curtains, gardening, repairs of household equipment, of dwelling and of car, etc.

Although these activities are "economic", in the broad sense of the term, they are not considered such by the United Nations System of National Accounts (SNA). They are not, therefore, recorded in labour statistics nor in national accounts.

I.2 Need to valuate domestic activities

Time-use studies show that women provide the largest share of unpaid labour for domestic activities and for part of the related activities. It is therefore appropriate for this meeting to devote attention to the unrecorded economic contribution women make through these activities.

It should however be remembered that the measurement and valuation of these activities is meaningful, not only for a clarification of women's economic status, but also for the overall improvement of economic statistics. Indeed research data indicate that, in industrialised countries, domestic and related activities, require about as much labour time as all combined activities in the recorded sectors of the economy and that their unrecorded product may amount to 30 to 50 per cent of measured GNP.

* Paper submitted by the International Labour Office

Transfer of production occurs between the recorded and unrecorded sectors of the economy. A sizeable share of private laundering, for instance, moved from the household to commercial enterprises in the late 1920s and early 1930s; it then moved back to households as appropriate equipment became available. Such transfers between the recorded and unrecorded sectors generate effects in GNP figures causing it to increase or decrease while the actual amount of goods and services available to the population does not change.

Data covering both the recorded and heretofore unrecorded sectors of the economy are needed on which to base economic policies, employment policies, income distribution policies, equitable distribution of the workload between genders, equitable social security provisions for unpaid workers, etc. They are also needed to provide a better basis for the financial settlement of divorce cases and of wrongful death cases in civil courts.

I.3 Main valuation methods

The valuation of domestic activities raises problems because both the labour inputs and the product are non-market: they do not give rise to a market transaction and therefore have no price. In order to value domestic activities it is therefore necessary to impute values.

Two broad categories of valuation methods can be distinguished among the studies performed to date. Valuations in the first category impute a market wage on the time devoted to domestic activities; they are wage-based valuations. Valuations in the second category, impute a market price to the product of domestic activities; they are output-related valuations.

The relative advantages and drawbacks of these methods have been discussed at length elsewhere (Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1982, 1986 and 1987a). The conclusion is that the imputation of market wages on non-market time produces results which are not compatible with national accounting procedures, and which, furthermore, have limited significance from the point of view of economic analysis. Output-related valuations do not have these drawbacks but they require data on the volume of household output which have only rarely been collected so far.

I.4 State of the art

At an earlier ECE Informal Meeting on Statistics and Indicators on Women, in 1987, a somewhat detailed overview for the methods used for the valuation of domestic activities was presented (Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1987b). Since then, no new methodological development seems to have been introduced in this field. We know that actual valuations are undertaken in two countries: France (INSEE/CNRS collaboration) and the Federal Republic of Germany (Statistisches Bundesamt).

In recent years, consensus has been steadily increasing among economists and statisticians about the need to measure and value the non-market sectors of the economy, including domestic activities; their estimated size and value are such that they cannot continue to go unrecorded. However, progress in achieving valuations appears to be slow; I would like to share with the participants to this meeting, some personal hypotheses for this situation. I think the reasons may be several and of different kinds; only if we can identify the obstacles shall we be able to take action on them.

One first obstacle lies in the need to ensure continuity of definitions in statistical time series. In order to overcome this obstacle, it is currently proposed, in national accounting, to deal separately with households' non-market production. The latter could be presented in a satellite account, without modifying the current structure of the accounts. By measuring the value of the non-market sector by methods compatible with those used for the other sectors of the economy, it will be possible to achieve an overview of "extended production", i.e. of conventional GNP plus household production. A similar procedure could perhaps be adopted for achieving "extended labour" statistics.

A second obstacle lies in the newness of the task. Statisticians carry out difficult measurements in fields where they now have gained more than half a century of experience; but experience is not available on the measurement of domestic activities and to start on this task may appear more difficult than it really is.

A third obstacle lies in the fact that emotional factors link people (including statisticians) to household production: living style, quality considerations, etc. are extremely important elements in our personal life, and we may tend to give them more weight when valuing "grand mother's cake" than when determining the value of manufactured men's shirts (United Nations, 1968, paragraphs 4.56). Are we tending to achieve more refined results for household production than for the agricultural sector or for manufacturing? At the present stage, when procedures for valuing domestic and related activities still are being developed, we should perhaps be satisfied with somewhat less precision, provided the measurement and valuation methods we adopt are sound. The criteria of "soundness" being, as said above, compatibility with national accounting and labour statistics, and meaningfulness for economic analysis. Statistical refinements may be postponed to later endeavours.

A fourth obstacle lies perhaps in the pressure under which statistical departments are working in order to produce better or more complete results in the fields in which they are already engaged. Where then to find the resources for engaging in a new field? The answer here is of a political nature: resources become available if political pressure is sufficient. The corresponding choices will be made and decisions will be taken, only if the usefulness of the new data about the household non-market sector is clearly understood. In this context, it should be remembered that the usefulness of such data goes far beyond the (legitimate) purpose of clarifying women's status.

II. A "LIGHT" VALUATION METHOD

In this section, a set of minimal requirements for achieving an aggregate level valuation of domestic activities is proposed. This "minimal" or "light" undertaking tries to take stock of existing data while producing results compatible with national accounting data. The valuation method proposed combines time-use data and an output-related measure of household productivity, namely returns to labour in domestic activities. These two ingredients are discussed in II.1 and II.2 and their combination in II.3; II.4 summarises the characteristics of the proposal.

II.1 Time-use data

Time-use research started around the 1920s in academic departments and was performed since in several countries. In some cases, it has been taken over by national statistical offices. A certain amount of international co-ordination has been achieved. A corpus of time-use data is thus available and is likely to be further developed as the many uses of such data are increasingly recognised.

The "light" procedure tries to take advantage of time-use data for two reasons. First, because, measured in time units, labour inputs into household production can be compared to labour inputs into production for the market; this comparison provides, per se, a direct assessment of the economic significance of domestic activities. Secondly, because given the availability of time-use data, part of the statistical effort required for valuing household production could be saved if satisfactory values could be imputed to the time inputs.

In order to qualify as satisfactory, these values should be related to production circumstances in the household (household equipment, size of household and other circumstances which bear on household productivity) i.e. these values should be related to actual household output. These values should definitely not be market wages because the latter are related to market production circumstances and reflect productivity in market enterprises which may be very different from household productivity. Returns to labour in household production may qualify for this valuation; they are discussed in the next paragraphs.

II.2 Returns to labour

The general procedure, in national accounting, for imputing value to non-market outputs such as agricultural products consumed by the producer, is to measure the amount of output in physical units, to value it at market prices and to deduct the value of intermediate goods and services used in the production process (United Nations, 1968, paragraph 6.21). This procedure can be applied to all non-market household output. In order to do so, it is necessary to measure the amount of household output in physical units, to value it at the prices of similar market products and to deduct the value of goods and services consumed in the production process.

To undertake at once a large scale valuation of domestic activities according to this general national accounting procedure may be an undertaking which goes beyond the available means of the statistical offices or of the institutions responsible for it. The proposal here is thus to perform the valuation on a limited sample of the population (as, for instance, in studies of household budget) and to start with a limited number of activities; on the understanding that the sample and the coverage of activities can be improved at later stages as experience is gained.

Physical quantities of goods and services produced by households (in all or some domestic activities) were estimated in several studies of industrialised countries (Clark, 1958; Chaput-Auquier, 1959; Chadeau et Fouquet, 1981; Sanik and Staffor, 1983; Bivens and Volker, 1986). The largest, most encompassing measurements of household output were performed in a national study in Finland (Finland, 1980 to 1986). These studies indicate that it is feasible to perform such measurements and they provide guidance on how to proceed.

Once measured in physical units, household output is assigned an imputed value (gross output value) on the basis of market prices for goods and services equivalent to those produced in the household. National accounting conventions provide guidance on price determination (prices differing between areas, seasons, rural and urban markets), on price adjustments for quality differences and on the use of producer or of consumer prices.

Once gross output value has been calculated, intermediate consumption and the consumption of fixed capital are deducted in order to obtain returns to labour. Returns to labour represent the saving (forgone expense) which accrues to the household for engaging in the productive activity. (These returns to labour correspond to what, in national accounting, would go under the headings "compensation of employees" and "operating surplus".) Returns to labour are an output-related measure of the value of labour expended in domestic activites; they are compatible with other economic measurements as they are obtained through the general national accounting procedure. They therefore qualify for the requirements set out in II.1 for imputation to time-use data.

II.3 Combining time-use data and returns to labour for valuation

In order to perform this imputation, it is necessary to compute returns to labour on an hourly basis; that is to relate the returns in a particular activity to the time expended by the household under consideration for performing the activity (Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1983). Such hourly returns to labour are then ready for imputation to time-use data collected on a larger statistical basis.

Returns to labour can be calculated for all domestic activities. However, if in an early phase of the study, they are calculated only for some major domestic activities, they can be averaged out for extrapolation to the other activities.

It should be noted in passing that returns to labour are interesting per se for economic analysis purposes as they yield information on the relative productivity achieved by households in the various domestic activities. They also make it possible to compare returns to labour in domestic activites to the actual returns achieved by the household for labour in the market sector (wages and other job-related benefits minus job-related expenditures, taxes, etc.).

II. 4 Summing up

The method proposed here is "light" in the sense that it requires less statistical work than the general value-added procedure. Statistical work is economised by:

1) utilising time-use data which are already available in several countries and which are collected from representative national samples;

2) calculating hourly returns to labour (value-added minus consumption of fixed capital) on a limited sample and on a limited number of activities, and averaging them out for imputation to other activities.

The precision of valuations achieved through this method depends of the quality of the sample used in 2) and on the number of domestic activities for which returns to labour are calculated. This precision can be adjusted to the resources available for performing the valuation.

III. PERFORMING A NATIONAL LEVEL VALUATION

III.1 Successive steps

When applied at the national level the procedure outlined in section II requires the following successive steps.

a. Measurements of the amount of household output have to be performed by activity. The following are examples of such measurements which have been utilised in valuations:

- meal preparation: frequency and content of various types of meals prepared at home; sometimes information was also collected on origin of food and its level of processing, on number of persons consuming the meals, etc.;

- food preservation: amount of fruit, vegetables, fish, etc. preserved by various methods;

- care of dependent household members: number of children of various ages cared for at home (part-time or full-time) and kind of care given (physical care, general supervision, training in special skills, etc.); number and characteristics of persons receiving special care at home (elderly, handicaped, ill persons) and kind of care;

- upkeep of dwelling and of its surroundings: surface swept and cleaned on a routine basis; kind and frequency and amount of laundering, of mending, etc.;

- manufacturing for household consumption: number of clothes home-made, by type (sewn, knitted or woven; skirts, dresses, trousers, socks, pull-overs or other; for children, women or men); other.

b. Once measured in physical units, the output of each household is assigned an imputed value (gross output value) on the basis of the prices paid in the market for similar goods or services. The following are examples of prices which were used for calculating the imputed gross output value of household production in industrialised countries:

- price of various types of foods or of meals available commercially, comparable in content and quality to the home-prepared ones;

- price paid for the care of children in foster homes and of handicaped or elderly people in institutions;

- price paid for laundering performed away from home;

- price of market-produced goods (ready-made clothes, soap, furniture, etc.).

c. Value added is calculated by deduction of the value of intermediate consumption (including the wages paid to domestic servants). Statistical data on consumers' expenditures are available and can be used; alternatively they can be collected from the limited sample under investigation, a method which would produce more accurate returns to labour figures.

d. Returns to labour are then calculated by deduction of fixed consumption. The same comment on availability of statistical data and on the alternative of collecting data from the sample applies here as for consumers' expenditures (c, above).

e. Returns to labour are then expressed on an hourly basis by relating them to the time expended by the household under consideration for performing the activity (Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1983).

f. Valuation is achieved by combining the average hourly returns thus calculated on a reduced sample, with time-use data collected on a larger statistical basis.

III. 2 Data sources

Commonly used data sources are:

- official statistics (census and national surveys data on household composition, on dwelling characteristics, on consumer expenditures, on prices, on wages, etc.);

- special studies conducted for business, policy or other purposes (on care of children, on meals taken at home and away from home; comparative quality tests of consumer goods performed by public bodies or by independent non-profit organizations; nutrition and food studies; trade bulletins, price lists; etc.);

- special household surveys conducted for collecting data on time-use, on the volume of household production and on household expenditures; in some surveys, questions are also added on the motivations for household production (forgone expense, quality preferences, conformity with social expectations, personal satisfaction, lack of alternatives, etc.);

- sociological studies using participant observation or key informant interviews, and covering a satisfactory number of representative households; sociological studies can be combined with the special household surveys.

III. 3 Miscellaneous comments

The simplest procedure is to record households' time and output as perceived by households. However, if the data collected at the household level will be used for comparison with national accounts aggregates, it is necessary to distinguish between activities lying within the SNA "production boundary" and those outside. For example, while cooking food for one's own family is excluded from GNP, cooking food for labourers working on one's own farm should be included on the ground that meals are provided as part of the labourers wages i.e. of a market transaction (Anker, 1983); a distinction households are not likely to make spontaneously and which is the consequence of SNA conventions. Such distinctions have to be made at the categorisation and data collection states in order to avoid duplication with GNP figures and in order to tabulate the product of domestic activities in two sub-sets: "accounted for" in GNP and "not accounted for in GNP".

In order to present household production in a satellite account, a few adjustments are required in the presentation of standard macro-economic figures. For instance, part of final consumption of households (as defined in the SNA) and wages paid to domestic servants should appear as intermediate consumption in the extended production approach (see section I.4 above).

Further work is needed for matching the classification of activities used in time-budget studies, with those used in macro-economic accounting (Chadeau and Roy, 1986) or in household budgets (Aldershoff and Kasper, 1986).

IV. CONCLUSION

International level action

The major responsibility for progressing in the valuation of domestic activities appears at present to lie with individual countries. As discussed in section I.4 (fourth obstacle), this is mainly an area for political action.

However, international organizations also have a role to play in providing guidelines which would facilitate the comparability of results obtained in different countries. Guidelines are needed for achieving common definitions (coverage and categorisation of households' activities) and for clarifying methodological valuation issues.

Finally, the international organizations could perhaps play a more active role in facilitating better communication between countries which already have undertaken, or which consider to undertake, the valuation of domestic activities. The series of meetings to which the present one belongs is certainly a useful step in this direction.

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MEASURING HOUSEHOLD PRODUCTION: CONCEPTUAL ISSUES AND RESULTS FOR FRANCE*

by

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There are several reasons to wish to measure inputs of time in housework and household output: If the time spent on housework remains unquantified, then figures measuring, in numbers of hours, the productive effort of a nation to create goods and services for consumption is grossly underestimated.

So is total well-being or total consumption, if the goods and services produced within the household for household members are not taken into account somewhere in national economic aggregates.

Moreover, growth rates may be overestimated when, in an economy, there is a steady shift of women from the household realm to the market sphere. The result is a recorded increase in the volume of market goods and services produced while the volume of goods and services produced in the household, decreases without this being taken into account. If household production or housework is not measured, i.e. taken into account in official published statistics, then the counterbalancing effect of a decrease in household production goes unobserved, and growth rates appear larger than they really are.

Furthermore, not measuring the amount of time spent on housework, particularly by women, is a way of concealing the importance of their contribution to the working force of a nation, and to the well-being of the total population. Translating the amount of nonpaid household work, and/or household production into figures, as is done for market activities, is a way of giving full recognition to its economic and social value.

4. One explanation to the fact that neither housework time nor household production are taken into account in national aggregates may be that both are more difficult to observe statistically, since they are exterior to the organized market sphere, which has its norms, rules and regulations clearly formulated and known to all who wish to observe it statistically.

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* The text of this paper, which was written by the consultant to INSTRAW is submitted to the meeting for discussion. The opinions expressed in the paper are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the opinion of INSTRAW.

Household activities take place within the privacy of a home and are not subject to any form of compulsory declaration or advertising; to this extent they are more difficult to measure statistically by an institutional observer.

In addition to the difficulty of observing household activities, there are specific obstacles to measurement: there are no binding rules or regulations for working hours, nor are there any set and known standards for production. A unit of monetary measure has to be invented, since work in the household is not remunerated, and goods and services produced are not sold by the producer to the consumer. A money value of time or production can only be set by analogy with the pricing system of the market sphere.

Yet, however real these difficulties may be, they are not necessarily unsurmountable. After all, it did take a lot of thinking and imagination to build a coherent system of national statistics describing the market sphere. Though the household sphere has different working rules, one may think that it would be equally possible to approach, observe and describe statistically the household sector in an acceptable way.

Measuring time inputs in housework and the money value of household output, requires a preliminary set of definitions and concepts before adequate statistics may be chosen.

Productive housework needs to be defined on the basis of an operational criterion:

The most widely accepted and applied criterion is that of the "third person": is considered as "housework", an activity performed by a member of the household for the benefit of one or several of its members (including the person actually performing the activity) if an equivalent result could be achieved by some person or economic unit outside the household against the payment of a fee.

The "third person criterion" is operational to distinguish productive non market activities from other household activities (see diagram), but still leaves some problems pending, and has its limits: only one activity may be taken into consideration since housework time has an absolute upper limit: that of the 24 hours of a day. This implies that when several productive activities, are performed simultaneously, only one may be taken into account.

It also implies that an activity performed by oneself for oneself may be considered as productive if "normally" this activity may be performed by someone else.

An adult, cutting, washing or setting his/her hair will be considered as performing a productive activity, because it is quite frequent that adults do go to the hairdresser and pay for the hairdressing service.

A healthy adult dressing himself would not be considered as performing a productive activity because, in most cases, adults do dress themselves in our western societies. This has not always been the case in former societies.

Some activities are no longer performed in some societies: for instance fetching water for household use is rare in industrial economies, where running water is normally provided to the household in its home.

These same activities may require a lot of time and effort in other societies: they are intuitively productive non market activities, but in fact, in the given societies there may exist no market alternative to the provision of water for domestic needs.

Some activities could not be performed by a "third person", but do have market alternatives: for instance walking to the shops for everyday purchases: the act of walking cannot be delegated to anyone else. Should it then be considered as a non productive activity, in virtue of the third person criterion? Yet instead of walking one could take a bus or be driven to the shops by car, and therefore, there does exist a market substitute to the actual service of travel. Another way of analysing travel could be to link it to the activity of shopping, the latter being viewed as the "main" activity and walking to the shops not isolated as an activity on its own. Time spent walking would then be added to time spent shopping. In measuring time inputs and outputs of household production, the treatment of travel raises a difficult problem. In this case, the "third person criterion" is not sufficient nor wholly satisfactory, when it comes to classifying the activity.

The definition of a household productive non market activity is contingent in border cases to social norms and habits, or to common sense when the activity is obviously time consuming and inextricably linked to an unquestionably productive activity.

The production boundary within the household is somewhat different when one focusses on output rather than on work inputs. The "third person criterion" still plays its part in identifying productive non market household activities, but, considered from an output angle, activities performed simultaneously may be equally productive and therefore, in the same units of time, two or more goods or services may be produced. So, an output approach may define a wider set of productive activities to be taken into consideration than a time input approach.

Measurement of housework time

For France, information is provided by time budget surveys, where households (about 16,000 households) are asked to fill in a diary at a five minute interval for the 24 hours of one day. Description of their activities is spontaneous: the interviewee describes in his/her own words activities performed. The sample is statistically representative of the whole population. Answers are classified according to a very detailed nomenclature, and main activities are registered separately from secondary activities.

Two comparable surveys, carried out by the INSEE in 1974-1975 and in 1985-1986 reveal the following results:

At an aggregate level, weekly average time for individuals in each population category is multiplied by the number of individuals included in the category, and by the number of working weeks (52 weeks for housework, and respectively 48 and 47 weeks for professional work in 1975 and in 1985).

Tables show that total productive work (unpaid housework and paid work on the market) have gone up by 3%, housework done by man has increased faster than housework done by women (respectively +8% for men, and +5% for women). Market work, on the other hand, has decreased globally by 9%, and faster for men than for women (-13% for men, and -1% for women).

These results show that the total number of hours spent on unpaid housework exceeds the total number of hours worked on the market, and increasingly so over the ten year period covered: in 1985, unpaid housework represented 61% of total productive work, against 56% in 1975.

This macroeconomic approach to the measurement of the volume of productive work shows that women still do approximately twice as much housework than men, but their share has gone down within ten years in France from 72% in 1975 to 38% in 1985.

At a less global level, results show that per week, full-time housewives spend more time on housework than women engaged in the labour force, but they work less hours in the home in 1985 than in 1975 (-9%). The decrease in housework done by women may also be noted for wage-earning women and for self-employed women. Nevertheless, the average weekly hours spent by men (in the labour force and out of it) on housework are much lower than those spent by women, whatever their status vis-à-vis the labour market, but their contribution has increased by 21%.

Money values of housework

According to the approach, i.e. global substitute, specialized substitute, opportunity cost of housework time on the market, market substitute for household produce, different prices have been used for the estimation of the money value of household work in France in 1975.

a. global substitute: the average hourly gains of a domestic servant;

b. specialized substitute: the average hourly gains of a person specialized in the performance of a specific task;

c. opportunity cost: the hourly wage, on the market, of someone with the same qualifications as the performer of housework;

d. the price of the "market substitute" of household production minus the expense on intermediate consumption of market goods and services give the imputed value of housework.

Each method leads to two estimations, one giving the foregone expense, the second, the foregone income, according to whether taxes and compulsory social security contributions are taken into account or not.

Results in percentage of GDP for France in 1975:

The table shows that the lowest values of housework are given by the "global substitute" method, excluding compulsory social security contributions. Even when housework is valued at the average hourly wage of a non specialized household employee, it represents nearly 1/3 of GDP. The highest estimation (excluding social security contributions) is arrived at by the "opportunity cost" method: in this case housework represents 44% of total GDP.

Now when social security contributions are added on to the hourly wage rate, then unpaid housework represents between 44% and 68% of total GDP.

The results are mainly sensitive to the valuation method used. An international comparison of studies giving a money value to housework shows, that one given method leads to remarkably consistent relative values of unpaid household work: the "opportunity cost" method results in larger orders of magnitude for housework, and even more so than the "global substitute method" which yields the lowest values, which, nonetheless are of significant importance. (see A. Chadeau, Measuring Household Activities: Some International Comparisons, The Review of Income and Wealth, 1985.)

All methods have their drawbacks and their limits, yet one may conclude that the money value of unpaid housework represents at least one third of total GDP.

The most discriminant parameters of the amount of time spent on housework within households are:

the sex: women do more housework than men,the woman's status vis-à-vis the labour force, and the self-employed more than wage-earners.

the presence and number of children in the household: whatever the women's status, housework time increases with the presence of children and their number.

This has been shown in France at the level of total housework, and also at the level of housework pertaining to meal production. (See A. Chadeau, A. Fouquet, "Peut-on mesurer le travail domestique?" Economie et Statistique, no. 136, September 1981, INSEE and A. Chadeau, C. Roy, "La Fonction de production domestique de repas par catégorie de famille" 1989, a study for the CNAF.)

So far, in France, time spent on housework, expenses incurred by household production, average market wage rates of the different categories of populations taken into consideration, census data on the numbers of individuals in each category of households, the place of residence, urban or rural, are the main variables which have been used to give a money value to housework and household production following one or several of the methods mentioned above.

The INSEE is in the process of leading a national survey on household production, where, amongst other questions, interviewees are asked how much they produce in volume, at how much they value in monetary terms their production and the time spent on their household productive activities, and how high they price the market substitute. Preliminary test results reveal that, spontaneously, interviewees do not implicitly refer to the "opportunity cost" method to set a price on their work, and in some cases they may quote a price for a market substitute to the product of their work. Actually setting a money value on their non-market time is rarely a spontaneous reaction to the questions asked.

The results of this survey should reveal the most realistic method to estimate the value of housework and household production in monetary terms, and provide for the first time statistical information on the quantities of goods and services produced within the household.

Diagram: Classification of household activities

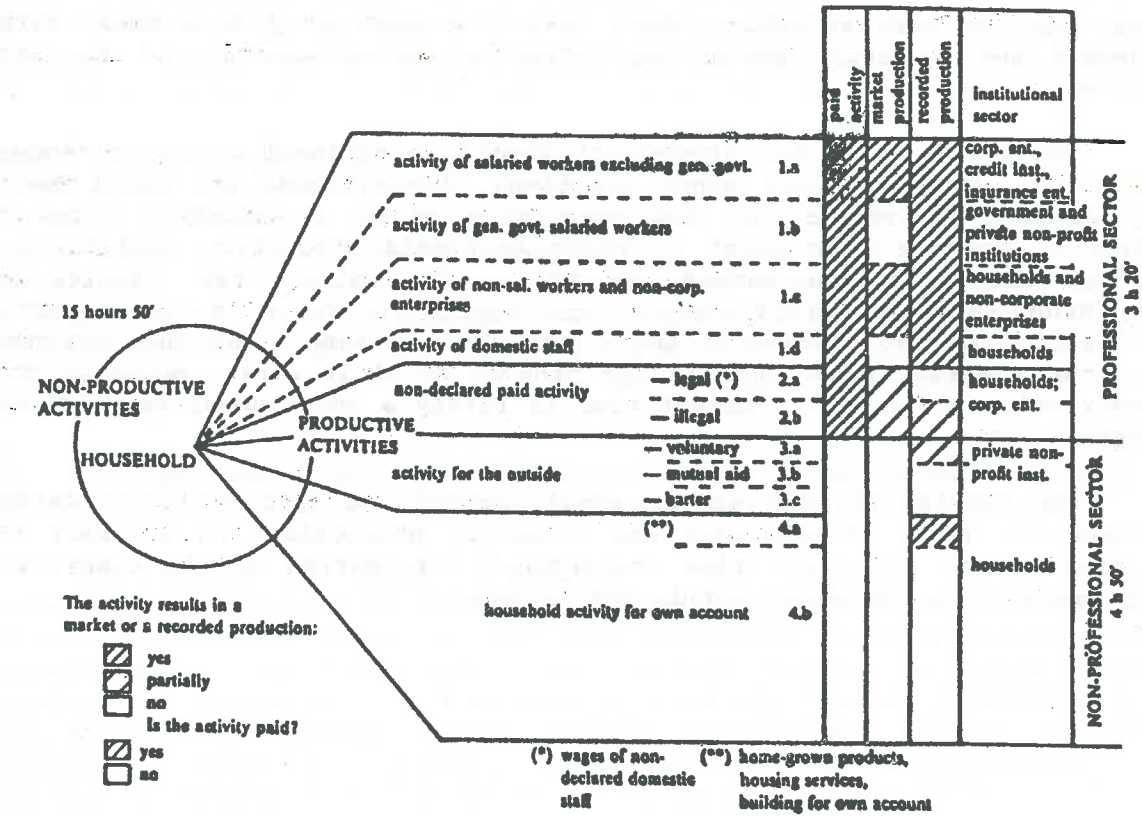

Diagram 1: Productive Activities of Households

Source: Relating Households Final Consumption to Household Activities: Substitutability or Complementarity between Market and Non Market Production, A. Chadeu and C. Roy, The Review of Income and Wealth, No. 4, 1986

Hours of Productive Work

1,000 millions of hours per year

	Women		Men		Women and Men		% Contribution of Women	
	1985	1975	1985	1975	1985	1975	1985	1975
Housework	31.9	30,5	16,4	12,1	48,3	42,6	66	72
Work on the labour market	11,6	11,7	18,7	21,4	30,3	33,1	38	35
Total	43.5	42,2	35,1	33,5	78,6	75,7	55	56
Housework in % of total	73	72	47	36	61	56		

Sources: Les Emplois du temps des Citadi ins, 1974, M. Huet, Y. Le mel, C. Rov, Collection rectangle, INSEE, December 1978

Enquête sur les Emplois du Temps, INSEE, 1985-1986

Unpaid Housework and Paid Professional Work

Number of Hours/Week

	Full-time Housewives			Women Wage Earners			Self-employed Women			Men		
	1985	1975	%	1985	1975	%	1985	1975	%	1985	1975	%
Housework	44,7	49,1	-9	31.6	32.1	-2	30,9	38,2	-20	22.3	18.5	+21
Professional work				35.6	38.9	-8	43.7	35.4	+23	47.7	47.0	-7

Sources: Les Emplois du Temps des Citadins, 1974, M. Huet, Y. Lemel, C. Roy, Collection Rectangle, INSEE
L'Enquête sur les Emplois du Temps, 1985-1986, INSEE

Money Values of Housework in France in 1975
in % of Total GDP

Methods	Incl. social sec. contributions	Excl social sec. contributions
Global substitute	44.1	28.3
Opportunity cost	67.9	43.7
Imputed value of housework	59.6	36.6

Source: Peut-on mesurer le travail domestique?, A. Chadeau, A. Fouquet, Economie et Statistique, No. 136, Sept. 1981, INSEE

CHAPTER III

STATISTICS REQUIRED FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE FORWARD-LOOKING STRATEGIES

STATISTICS ON WOMEN IN FINLAND AND THE NAIROBI FORWARD-LOOKING STRATEGIES*

by

Eeva-Sisko Veikkola

The Central Statistical Office of Finland has co-operated with the Council for Equality between Men and Women to improve the existing statistics and to produce more statistical facts on the prevailing circumstances on equal opportunities for women and men in the society. By equal opportunities is meant that women and men are to have the same rights, the same obligations and the same possibilities to:

- have work that accords them economic independence
- care for home and children
- participate in political, union and other societal activities.

Special emphasis is given to statistics on labour force participation including working time, working conditions and income. Connections between work and family life will be examined by a special survey. Unpaid work and work on the informal sector are being examined in the time-use study. Statistics on education, especially adult education, are being developed.

a) Labour force participation

In Finland, the main sources of statistics on the labour force participation include labour force surveys, surveys on working conditions, statistics on wages and salaries, population censuses and the new regional employment statistics based on data from registers and administrative records. Time use studies, carried out twice so far (in 1979 and in 1987/88), describe, for instance, the time used in paid work and the proportion of domestic work and of other unpaid work in the total work load.

b) Working time

One important indicator of the position of women in working life is the time that women use in paid work. A special topic of the annual labour force survey interviews in 1989 is the time used in paid work. In particular, part-time work (including the reasons for it), flexible working hours, wishes concerning working time, overtime work, extra work, and holidays are surveyed. The concept of part-time work has been expanded: those working

* Report submitted by the Central Statistical Office of Finland.

over 30 hours a week can be counted as part-time workers if they themselves think they are working part-time or shorter hours than what is considered normal for the sector. Otherwise, the earlier definition of part-time work, under which those working regularly less than 30 hours a week are considered part-time workers, is still applied in statistics.

c) Working conditions

A special survey concerning the working conditions of men and women is carried out at regular intervals. The surveys carried out so far relate to the years 1977 and 1984. Questions concerning computerization and the use of information technology, etc. are examined more thoroughly in these surveys than in the regular labour force surveys, which also provide information on working conditions and on the use of information technology. Data on women's use of information technology at work in 1987 are provided by Anna-Maija Lehto 1/. The position of women has been highlighted in both regular labour force statistics and other statistical publications.

The most interesting results concerning the position of women as established by the 1984 survey on working conditions are discussed by Anna-Maija Lehto 2/. Some of the results were presented at the International Conference on Women, Work and Computarization held in Amsterdam on 27-29 April 1988 and have been published, in English, in the conference proceedings. The results concerning information technology from the point of view of women are discussed by Kortteinen, Lehto and Ylöstalo 3/.

d) Income

An experiment to produce statistics from income data combined with data from other statistical sources has been conducted in order to obtain more information on the connections of income and hours worked, income and occupation, etc. Income data based on tax information have been combined, at the level of individuals, with data from the 1987 labour force survey, making it possible to link data on hours worked to data on income. Income data are available for both individuals and families by type of family (single parents, etc.). Sex is an important variable in the statistics produced. The results are not yet available. The decision concerning a regular compilation of statistics like these will be made on the basis of the results of the experiment.

1/ Anna-Maija Lehto, "Does Information Technology Change the Position of Women in the Labour Market?", Labour Institute for Economic Research, Review 1/1989.

2/ Anna-Maija Lehto, Naisten ja miesten tyôolot (The Working Conditions of Men and Women), Central Statistical Office of Finland, Studies No. 138, Helsinki, 1988.

3/ Matti Kortteinen, Anna-Maija Lehto and Pekka Ylöstalo, Information Technology and Work in Finland, Central Statistical Office of Finland, Studies No. 125, Helsinki 1987

To enable regular monitoring of the earned income of men and women, a quaterly index of wage and salary earnings by sex has been constructed.

A comparative study concerning the earned income of men and women by occupation will be carried out using tax data combined with population census data from 1985. A Nordic project on equal pay comparing the wages and salaries of men and women has also been started.

e) Unpaid work and the informal sector

Plenty of information on the position of women will be found in the time-use study of 1987/1988. The population of the study comprised the populations aged ten years or over. Sample size was 9,900 and the random sampling method was used. Respondents kept time diary records for two consecutive days. The period covered was a calendar year. Background information was gathered using interviews. Among other factors describing the position of women, the proportion of domestic work and of other unpaid work and the total work-load of the population will be examined. Statistics on changes in time use from 1979 to 1987 will be published in English at the end of 1989.

f) Connections between work and family life

Connections between work and family life will be examined in a survey on married and cohabiting couples which will be carried out during the autumn of 1989. A total of 5,000 women and 2,000 men aged 20-40 will be interviewed. The content of the survey is large: an individual's background information concerning educational qualifications, labour force participation and marriage or consensual union will be linked to data on the birth and day care of children, etc. The survey will produce information on the fertility of different family types, on remarriage, and on the length of time as a single provider. Examination of the life circle is the main focus of the study.

The survey is part of the Nordic comparative study on connections between work and family and of the project for the Promotion of Fertility and Family Surveys in the ECE region.

g) Health

A study concerning the health of men and women is under way. Based on the 1986 survey on living conditions, the study examines the population's state of health, long-time illnesses, and psychic and psychosomatic symptoms as reported by the respondents themselves. Particular attention is paid to sex-related differences concerning the relationship between health and human relations.

h) General education

Education statistics on graduates from comprehensive school, senior secondary schools, vocational institutions and universities are compiled regularly, by sex. Statistics on the educational structure of the population are also compiled by sex. Statistics on teachers, university teachers excluded, are also compiled by sex. A publication entitled Pojat ja tytöt koulussa 1/ contains educations statistics by sex.

In the spring of 1989, a competition in essay writing was arranged for senior secondary-school students in order to make Nordic statistics known to students. The theme of the competition was "Living Conditions in the Nordic Countries". The statistical material for the competition derived largely from Women and Men in the Nordic Countries. 2/

The publication was a result of a co-operation between the Central Statistical Offices of Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden.

To break the stereotyped attitudes of students selecting fields of study (and careers), statistical material for the use of vocational guidance counsellors at comprehensive schools and upper secondary schools is being prepared in co-operation with counsellor organizations and the Vocational Guidance Division of the Ministry of Labour. The material contains statistics on population, education, labour force participation and wages and salaries.

i) Adult education

Development of adult education statistics is indispensable for monitoring changes taking place in the position of women in the labour market. The development of regular adult-education statistics is under way in Finland.

Education sponsored by the employer and other types of vocational adult education will be a focus of the labour force survey in 1989. The study is linked to a special survey on adult education currently under preparation. In the future, questions concerning participation in in-service education and the duration of in-service education will be included in the monthly labour force survey.

1/ Pojat ja tytöt koulussa (Boys and Girls at School), SVT, Education and Research 1988:7 (includes a summary in English).

2/ Women and Men in the Nordic Countries, Nordic Council of Ministers, 1988.

j) A statistical abstract on men and women in Finland

A statistical abstract on men and women in Finland was published (only in Finnish) in 1987. It contains information on population, health, education, working life, status in employment, income, time use, social activities, and criminality. The abstract is a handy source of statistical information on equality between the sexes and on the position of women at the workplace.

k) Nordic co-operation

Nordic co-operation on statistics on equal opportunities has been active since 1984, and has inspired the national work. A separate paper on Nordic co-operation will be presented by the Scandinavian Central Statistical Office.

STATISTICS REQUIRED FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE FORWARD-LOOKING STRATEGIES

Report submitted by France

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Since the appointment in June 1988 of Mrs. Michèle André, Secretary of State for Women's Rights in France, the Secretariat of State has, within the framework of Government action on behalf of women, set itself a forward-looking strategy based on three priorities:

Promoting the incorporation and advancement of women in economic life (2.1.);

Combatting all forms of exclusion of which they are victims (2.2.);

Promoting the access of women to public office.

1.2. In order to give a better grasp of the characteristics of the statistical apparatus which will assist in the achievement of these objectives, it is necessary to begin with a brief statement of the substance of the first two priorities.

2. Presentation of the French forward-looking strategies

2.1. The incorporation and advancement of women in all sectors and at all levels of economic life are based on action in the economic sphere and in that of vocational training.

2.1.1. The forms of economic action are:

(a) The establishment of a network of undertakings for the advancement of women: the Secretariat of State is suggesting to enterprises which have appreciated the need for, and the value of, including the advancement of women in their development strategy that they should sign a "moral contract" and thus become part of a network of enterprises whose progress will be statistically quantified. The "moral contract" will not replace existing tools (the annual evaluation, the equality plan, the equality in employment contract (contrat mixité)) but will supplement them and enhance their effectiveness.

(b) The establishment of a guarantee fund to promote the start up or development of enterprises run by women by providing a guarantee on favourable terms for bank loans and technical assistance for women who start or manage enterprises.

(c) The development of neighbourhood jobs in view of the difficulties experienced by women on the labour market.

(d) The advancement of women in non-traditional employment sectors (in particular the small and medium-sized enterprises which are currently generating employment) and improvement of their working conditions.

2.1.2. Types of action in respect of training are the following:

(a) Encouraging a wider variety of career choices for girls.

(b) Instituting specific actions for the entry of women into professional life (local recruitment programmes, action to assist women who are the sole support of their families, personalized training workshops to head off difficulties for women not engaging in professional activity, financing of experimental training in new or non-traditional sectors of female employment).

2.2. The fight against the exclusion of women is based on the evident fact that poverty and marginal situations are on the increase in France and in Europe as a whole. Women form a growing majority in the most vulnerable and marginalized population groups (the unemployed, the young, one-parent families, the elderly, etc.).

The Secretariat of State for Women's Rights therefore wants to support model activities aimed at strengthening the economic and social cohesion of the country:

2.2.1. By developing information programmes for women in difficulty or becoming marginalized:

2.2.2. By supporting the establishment of suitable premises where women can meet and talk with a view to their reintegration into society.

These measures particularly concern women between the ages of 50 and 60 and elderly women.

In the case of younger women, action is focused more on the area of health (contraception) and the prevention of violence against women (inside and outside the family setting).

3. Evaluation of the statistical apparatus as it relates to women and proposals to improve it

3.1. The problem:

In the context of the forward-looking strategies mentioned above, the statistical apparatus as it relates to women must make it possible:

(a) To have a better grasp of the position of women today in all its diversity;

(b) To provide an aid to decision-making by highlighting the fields in which action is required;

(c) To ensure the follow-up and assessment of both the quantitative and qualitative impact of actions aimed at promoting women's rights.

3.2. Two essential prerequisites for research:

(a) To have statistics systematically broken down by sex

This observation goes for all statistical sources but also for the data and processing from those sources: the problem is "initial results" or "rapid results" which are often not broken down by sex; it is then necessary to wait for detailed processing which arrives later.

The problem arises as early as the data collection stage but also at the data handling stage (particularly computerized data).

It is also essential that at the analysis stage (articles and comments presenting results) aspects specific to women are systematically included.

(b) The abandonment once and for all of the concepts of "head of household", "home" and "couple"

They do not make it possible to specify the place of women either in the analysis of certain socio-occupational categories (craftsmen, businessmen etc.) or in the economic field or in the manner of education and of the schooling of children, for example.

Since the 1982 census, a classification of households worked out by the National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE) has been used. This makes it possible to describe the behaviour of couples according to whether the woman has a professional activity - a step in the right direction.

Similarly, the description of the social environment of households is based on the socio-occupational category of both spouses when the woman has a professional activity.

3.3. When certain types of data which were formerly broken down by sex are discontinued (in the field of salaries and ongoing vocational training, for example), it would be useful to be regularly informed of the matter in advance.

A good deal of information disappears in this way every year without our having an opportunity to object.

4. The statistical apparatus should take into account forward-looking strategies involving women

4.1. With regard to the trends described above, information or supplementary information required might bear on:

(a) The broadening of follow-up statistics on employment policies to make it easier to assess diversification in women's occupations.

(b) Elements relating to female unemployment and particularly expiry of entitlements.

(c) Women who are taken on by enterprises under various employment promotion measures.

(d) Placement of young women in the framework of specific measures to provide jobs for young people.

(e) Women in economic life: women who launch and/or head enterprises, women occupying positions of responsibility in enterprises.

(f) Women receiving social benefits: mothers on their own, widows, women in difficulty.

(g) Women's wages.

(h) The collection of alimony payments, carefully distinguishing the proportion which is for the women themselves from that intended for the children.

(i) Taking account in the stastistics of non-monetary aspects of work: we shall not elaborate on that point, which is already covered under agenda item 2.

4.2. Finally, it is regrettable that statisticians are currently unable to evaluate accurately violence against women.

This state of affairs is less the result of any fault in the statistical apparatus than of the absence of legal criteria which make statistical treatment possible.

For example, it would seem to be particularly desirable to clear up the current confusion between the method of identifying offenders (in this case the aggressors) and the victims who are not classified as such.

Similarly, it would be desirable for the various types of aggression to be clearly defined: the problem arises for rapes (often softened to indecent assault), for battered women and/or victims of marital violence (currently classifed under the headings "assault and battery" or "disturbance of the peace at night") as well as for sexual harassment in the workplace.

5. CAN STATISTICAL CONCEPTS AND THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF DATA PROCESSING BE ADAPTED TO THE PROBLEMS OF WOMEN?

5.1. At the end of this survey, the question whether the nomenclatures used are sufficiently adapted to describe the status of women remains pertinent.

Besides the improvements in concepts mentioned in paragraph 3.2 (b), it would be useful to clear up the confusion about reasons for absenteeism owing to the aggregation of the different categories of leave.

Thus, it appears contrary to common sense, and liable to falsify the analysis of female absenteeism, to continue to include maternity leave under sick leave.

Similarly, the classification of leave for sick children which is too close to that of sick leave, does not differentiate between the proportion of men and women respectively (this type of leave can be taken by both sexes in France).

On problems of absenteeism overall, it would be desirable for statistical indicators to be sufficiently refined to take account of the social function performed by the women when she absents herself for childbirth or for looking after a sick child.

5.2. It would also be useful to make existing indicators more meaningful (or even to think up new indicators) by making it possible to interrelate them to describe the various roles played by women: for example, to make it possible to set the methods of analysing individual domestic habits of women against information about the context in which those habits occur (culture, sports or leisure activities in relation to looking after children, etc.).

6. CONCLUSION

The harmonization and standardization of statistical concepts used in the various member countries (in the ECE and beyond) remains one of the stumbling blocks to effective co-operation between the partners concerned.

Substantial progress has been achieved in this area, as is demonstrated by the example of the "time use" survey mentioned under agenda item 2.

Nevertheless, in respect of the sectors relating to women in which harmonization has not yet taken place or is proving difficult to achieve, it would be desirable to consider here and now why comparisons are difficult: in particular, reference to the cultural differences between one country and another may make it easier to grasp the nature of resistance.

WOMEN AND MEN IN THE NORDIC COUNTRIES: FACTS ON EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES *

by

Birgitta Hedman, Statistics Sweden

Active efforts for equality between the sexes - equal opportunities - are underway in all of the Nordic countries. In order to work for change in a society, it is necessary to know what the current situation is and how the development has proceeded. Facts about women's and men's situation within various spheres in society are needed in order to increase the level of consciousness about the problems of equal opportunities, to raise ideas for various measures, and to provide the basis for making decisions. Facts are also needed for showing the effects of the measures that are taken.

The Nordic central bureaus of statistics initiated a joint project in Autumn 1984 concerning statistics on equal opportunities. The purpose of the co-operation is to exchange experiences, carry out joint development projects and to describe and analyse the current situation of equal opportunity in the Nordic countries.

For the UN Conference on Women in Nairobi in July 1985, a short publication was presented entitled "Facts and Figures about Women and Men in the Nordic Countries. Kvinnor och män i Norden 1985".

During 1986-87 the co-operation resulted in a proposal for equal opportunity indicators. All of the indicators should be extracted on the national level. In addition, several of the indicators should also be used for Nordic comparisons. The indicators covered the areas on population, housing, health and ill-health, use of time, education, work, economy, criminality, child care, leisure time, and power and influence.

The list of indicators was presented at the informal ECE meeting on statistics on women in Geneva 18-20 May 1987.

From July 30 to August 7, 1988, the first regional conference on equal opportunities since the Nairobi conference took place. The Nordic countries held an official conference and a Women's Forum in Oslo. A plan of action for Nordic work on equal opportunities was one of the topics dealt with.

As supporting material for the discussions and decisions to be made, facts were needed. After a request from the Nordic Council of Ministers

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* Paper submitted by the Nordic Central Statistical Bureau.

the Nordic contact group on statistics collected and analyzed statistics and indicators of (un) equal opportunities in the Nordic countries. The resulting publication, "Women and Men in the Nordic Countries, Facts on Equal Opportunities 1988" was presented in Oslo at the official conference and at the Forum.

The book offers current information on the differences and similarities in women's and men's situations in the Nordic countries, in the form of tables, diagrams, and textual analysis. Due to a lack of underlying figures for many of the areas covered, the book does not cover the situation in the Faraoe Islands or Greenland.

The chapters are written either in Norwegian or Swedish. The table of contents and the table and diagram headings have been translated to English. A short summary of the book is given in all of the Nordic languages as well as in English. The summary is presented in the Annex of this paper together with the register of diagrams and tables.

The publication is funded by the Nordic Council of Ministers and the Nordic Central of Ministers via booksellers in each country.

The statistical offices have been engaged in the following promotional activities:

- Press conferences
- Press releases
- Articles, lectures and seminars
- Distribution of free copies to: the press, trade unions, political equal opportunity commissions, equal opportunity consultants, institutes of education, researchers etc.
- Copies have also been distributed to a number of international organizations, e.g. UN, UNESCO, ECE, EC.

The publication has been reviewed on television, in the daily press, weekly magazines and trade journals in all Nordic countries. Reviews have been positive in all countries.

The Nordic co-operation is now concentrating on a revision of the first list of indicators and elaboration of a plan for future work. The revised list of indicators will be presented in English at the ECE-conference in November in Geneva. A more elaborated summary of the Nordic book from 1988 together with some diagrams will also be presented in English, named "Women and Men in the Nordic Countries. Facts on Equal Opportunities Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow".

Women and Men in the Nordic Countries
Facts on Equal Opportunities 1988

Summary

Statistics are needed in the work towards equal opportunities

Equality between the sexes in all areas of society-equal opportunities-is an acknowledged goal in all five Nordic countries-Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden.

By *equal opportunities* is meant that women and men are to have the same rights, the same obligations, and the same possibilities to

- have work that accords them economic independence
- care for home and children
- participate in political, union, and other societal activities.

In the endeavours to achieve these goals, it is necessary to know what the prevailing circumstances are in our societies today, and what course the development has followed. For this statistical facts are needed. The statistical bureaus in Scandinavia have taken a joint initiative to collet available information for a comparison of the situation of women and men in the Nordic countries.

Sexual equality has both quantitative and quantitative aspects. In the book, *Women and Men in the Nordic Countries, Facts on equal opportunities 1988*, the emphasis is a quantitative account of women's and men's situation within most areas of society. By means of tables diagrams, and analysis, a picture is drawn of similarities and dissimilarities in women's and men's lives in the Nordic countries.

Women and Men in the Nordic Countries shows that there is not yet any area in which women and men are equal. Despite some changes, all Nordic societies are by and large divided into two segments.

Population

The number of inhabitants in the Nordic countries has doubled during the 1900s. For Norway, and even more so in Iceland, the tendecy points towards a continued increase in population even after the turn of the century. In the other Nordic countries, all indicators point towards decreasing populations in the early 2000s. Lower birth rates and longer life expectancies have influenced the age structure in all of the countries. The proportion of children and young people in the population is decreasing, and the proportion of elderly persons increasing. Families have become smaller, cohabitation outside of marriage increasingly common, and divorces have increased in number. Among all women with children at home, about every seven is a single parent. Among men, this proportions is between 2 and 4 percent.

Health

The average life expectancy in the Nordic countries in high. Japan is the only country with a life expectancy that is longer than in all of the Nordic countries. Women live longer than men. The difference is greatest in Finlad-8 years-and least in Iceland-5.5 years. The average life expectancy is longest for both women and men in Iceland.

Women's health distinguishes itself from men's in several respects. Mortality in cardiovascular diseases, malignant tumors, and violent deaths is higher among men than women. Women, on the other hand, have a higher morbidity rate for cardiovascular disease. The rate of cancer is different for the two sexes. Cancer of the respiratory and digestive systems is more common among men than women, but women are more often afflicted by breast and genital cancer.

Time use

Studies on the use of time by women and men show that throughout the Nordic countries, men spend more time on paid work than women do, and that women spend more time on unpaid work than men do. The total time spent on work is about the same for women and men, but the level is somewhat influenced by factors such as age, marital status, and number of children. Men in general have somewhat more free-time than women do.

Education

Women and men have the same educational opportunities, but they take quite different advantage of them. The choice of educational tracts is still largely sex-specific, which in turn greatly influences women's and men's input into working life. This is the case in all of the Nordic countries.

After nine years' compulsory school, most people continue on to upper secondary school. The number of upper secondary pupils has substantially increased in recent years. In the general theoretical high school education, girls dominate the humanities, whereas boys are in majority in the natural sciences and technical lines. Similar differences are found whithin vocational training. Girls train tremselves within the service and care professions whereas boys to a great degree choose production-oriented education.

On the university level, there are just as many female as male students, but even here the choice of education is different for the sexes. Women are in the majority within care and educational faculties, as well as within the humanities, whereas men constitute a majority of students in the technical and natural sciences.

Unpaid work

The scope of unpaid work is measured in the studies by how women and men use their time, but there is no generally accepted method for evaluating unpaid work. It is shown that women still bear the principal responsibility for household work, but the proportion of

women whose main activity consists of caring for home and children is steadily on the decline. This proportion is greatest in Norway and least in Finland. The part of household work that consists of maintenance of the dwelling and so on is performed by men more than women, but this work takes up considerably less time than regular houshold work. Least unequal with regard to household work seems to be Sweden.

Paid Work

Fundamental changes have occurred on the labour market in recent decades. With women's growing participation in working life, the total number of gainfully employed persons has increased, and the composition of the labour force has been altered. Today, women constitute just under half of the labour force compared to one-third in 1960. The proportion of women in the labour force remained greatest in Finland for a long period of time. Now it is largest in Sweden with 83 percent of all women from 20 years of age to retirement age in the labour force. The proportion is lowest in Norway at 73 percent.

Unemployment usually affects women harder than men. Part-time work is much more common among women than among men. About 50 percent of gainfully employed women in Norway, 40 percent in Demark, Iceland, and Sweden, and 15 percent in Finland, work part-time. Among Nordic men, about 5 percent work part-time.

Throughout the Nordic countries, there is a clear division between female and male occupations. Women give service to and care for people, whereas men look after the material values. In none of the countries are both sexes about equally represented in more than 10 percent of all professions.

Two-thirds of all public employees in Denmark, Finland, an Sweden are women, whereas two-thirds of all private employees are men.

Economy

Women generally have lower wages than men. The difference in wages between the sexes has successively decreased, and women within industry now earn on the average from 77 percent in Finland to 93 percent in Iceland (only non-professionally trained) of men's wages. The lowest wages are found within those occupations where women are in the majority. Wages within industry are highest in Denmark and lowest in Finland.

The income discrepancies between the sexes have decreased, but are still large. Women's incomes in Denmark, Finland, and Sweden have now reached 70 percent of men's. Corresponding figure are 60 percent for Norway and 50 percent for Iceland. The difference in income between women and men is caused by dissimilarities in the distribution of working time between paid and unpaid work, the fact that typical female occupations are also low-paid, and the fact that women generally earn lower wages than men.

Child care

The parental leave entitlement after birth of a child is designed quite differently in the various Nordic countries. Parental leave is longer in Finland and Sweden than in the other countries, and it is shortest in Iceland with four months. Parental leave can be divided up between the two parents, but only in Sweden for the entire period of parental leave. Leave of absence for care of sick children is also different in the countries. It is longest in Sweden with up to 60 days per child and year, and shortest in Iceland with 7 days per year.

The design of child care is far from satisfactory. The provisions are best in Denmark and worst in Iceland.

Free-time

Men have somewhat more free-time than women do. The difference is smallest in Denmark and greatest in Finland. The choice of free-time activities is different for women than for men, and there are also differences among the countries in terms of how people use their free-time. In all of the Nordic countries, men participate in and watch sports more than women do, and women participate in cultural activies to a greater extent than men. Women read more than men, and men watch more television than women.

Power

Men occupy significantly more positions of power than women in all sectors of society. Despite the fact that women have had the right to vote and have been eligible for election for more than 60 years, equality is still far from reality on the parliamentary, country, and municipal government levels. Women now constitute one-third of the elected representatives in the Nordic parliaments, except in Iceland where one-fifth of the members of parliament are women. Equal representation of the sexes on public boards, committees, and councils is an explicit goal in all of the Nordic countries. Within such bodies, the proportion of women is greatest in Denmark and Norway with just over 30 percent, and lowest in Iceland with just over 10 percent. On the staffs of the political parties and trade unions, as well as in executive positions within the public and private sectors, the proportion of women decreases with increasing significance of the tasks involved.

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93 Average hourly earnings within various industries, recalculated to common currency (d)

Average hourly earning within various industries. Values in national currency units (t)

94 Average income in different age groups, in percent of average income for all men (d)

Women's average income in percent of men's in different age groups (t)

95 Deciles for income earners, in percent of median income for all men (d)

96 Proportion of all age pensioners with only national basic pension (t)

97 Families with social assistance, by type of family. Total number of families and number per 1000 families in the population. Number of months of social assistance (t)

Child care

101 Parental rights to leave for care of small children (d)

103 Municipal child care for children 0-2 years (d)

104 Children 0-2 years old in day-care centers or family-dayhomes (t)

Children 3-6 years old in day-care center or family-dayhomes (t)

105 Municipal child care for children 3-6 years (d)

106 Municipal child care for children 7-10 years (d)

Children 7-10 years old in after-school centers or family day homes (t)

107 Personnel at day-care centers and after-school centers. Number of employees per 100 registered children, by education (t)

Municipal child care. Operational costs in million crowns marks, and financing (t)

Free-time

111 Average time spent on leisure activities in different age groups. Hours per week (t)

Social contacts in different age groups (t)

112 Outdoor recreation the previous week among persons 16-74 years in Denmark (t)

Outdoor recreation on more than twenty occasions the previous year among persons 16-74 years in Finland and Norway (t)

Outdoor recreation on more than twenty occasions the previous year among persons 16-74 years in Sweden (t)

Percentage of person 16-74 years who attended sporting events at least once the previous years (t)

113 Percentage of persons 16-74 years who read books last years (t)

Percentage of persons 16-74 years who participated in choirs, orchestras, etc (t)

Percentage of persons 16-74 years who attended cultural activities (t)

114 Percentage of persons 16-74 years who participated in hobby activities in Finland and Norway (t)

Percentage of persons 16-74 years who participated in hobby activities in Sweden (t)

Power

117 Representation in political parties, at party conventions, and in party central committees (t)

118 Percentage of women in the parliaments. Development over time (d)

The time of the last election (t)

119 Participation in parliamentary organisations (d)

Chairpersons and deputy chairpersons in administrative countries (t)

120 Percentage of women in national committeess (t)

121 Membership in organizations in Finland 1986 (t)

Membership in organizations in Norway 1987 (t)

Menbership in organizations in Sweden 1984 (t)

122 Participation in trade unions (t)

INDICATORS OF THE SOCIAL STATUS OF WOMEN IN SWITZERLAND DISPARITIES AND PERSPECTIVES *

By

Heinz Gilomen and Raúl Suárez de Miguel

"In Switzerland, as in all western countries, and throughout the world, sex is - along with social and ethnic origin - one feature of social inequality. There are many theses that seek to explain the generalized structural disadvantage of women. However, they do not explain the fact that there can be major differences of inequality between the sexes between nations in the same part the world."

Federal Committee for Women's Affairs 1/

In Switzerland, the legal situation of women has evolved significantly in recent decades. The political rights of women were recognized almost 20 years ago 2/ and equality of rights between men and women has been guaranteed by the Constitution since 1981; 3/ this has brought about a process of review and modification of certain legislation which, as in the case of matrimonial law, embodied discriminatory provisions. This process, however, is still in its early stages and everything indicates that several years of political and parliamentary discussion are still required in order to achieve a situation of real equality of rights between men and women in all fields covered by Federal legislation.

In addition to such progress and the preliminary legal reforms, the participation of women in various fields has been continuously on the increase since the 1960s. This trend is particularly noticeable in the educational sector, where co-education is now practically the rule. The differences between curricula for boys and girls have considerably decreased and women have access to all types and levels of training (although their numbers vary considerably from one branch to another). The disparity between the number of male and female graduates has been considerably reduced since 1970 and although the proportion of women amongst university students as a whole is still only 36%, it may be observed that the number of women studying at university has tripled over the past 20 years, whereas the number of men has only increased by half.

To note this increase of female participation is not, however, to justify an illusory view of the present status of women in Switzerland. Such progress has, in fact, been due in very large measure to a general development of our civilization rather than to any specific programmes or measures deriving from

*/ Report submitted by the Swiss Federal Bureau of Statistics.

a real policy for the advancement of women. Thus, the increased presence of women in certain fields does not yet mean that they have become full agents and partners in social, economic and political life. On the contrary, there is evidence that there has hardly been any change in the social and economic status of women over the past 20 years; the average employment rate for women has remained at about the same level since the end of the 1960s; 4/ women are still acutely under-represented in key posts and at decision-making levels in the public service; 5/ and inequality between men and women is still evident over earnings and social security benefits.

1. SOME ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE FEDERAL COMMITTEE FOR WOMEN'S AFFAIRS

With the object of achieving a better understanding of the social and economic situation of women and their real expectations, the Federal Committee for Women's Affairs (a consultative committee of the Federal Council) has undertaken a series of studies since 1977, the results of which are contained in four "interim reports on the situation of women in Switzerland" and in a considerable number of publications on specific topics. After 10 years of work, the Committee has presented a consolidated report entitled, Femmes et hommes: faits, perspectives et utopies (1987). The report gives a clear overview of women's progress in Switzerland, but also, in particular, of the inequalities and obstacles that still have to be overcome for the advancement of women to become a reality. This critical examination is concentrated on four priority areas:

Legislation, where the constitutional principle of equality of rights has to be translated into fact;

Education and training, where the principal of equality of opportunity must be implemented;

The family, where traditional barriers stemming from mentality, behaviour and social organization have yet to be overcome in order to achieve a form of domestic and family life in which men and women share responsibilities and encourage their partner's personal development;

Work, where basic structural transformations would be needed to eliminate all the kinds of inequality, discriminatory situations and organizational inflexibility which prevent women from advancing in their careers and restrict their access to a social and economic status corresponding to their abilities and the quality of their performance.

The report of the Committee also takes up a number of the topics and recommendations contained in the text drawn up at the World Conference on women, held in Nairobi in 1985, which concluded the United Nations Decade for Women. 6/ Certainly, "Nairobi has nothing new to offer to Switzerland in relation to the demands and recommendations which we (the Committee) have been formulating for 10 years. Many obvious things have not yet been translated into practice in our country. On reading the proposals of the Nairobi

Forward-looking Strategies we are conscious of the extent to which real equality between men and women is also a necessary prerequisite for the preparation of our own future". But, "through having to be valid world wide, the problem of emancipation also exhibits nuances which necessitate different forms of behaviour and measures in different parts of the world in order that real equality between men and women may become a fact". 7/

Indeed, while the Nairobi "strategies" (focused on equality, development and peace), do take into account the enormous variety of humankind's social, economic and cultural situations, they are quite rightly to a large extent oriented towards the situations of underdevelopment in which the majority of the world's population lives. The universal scope of the demand for emancipation is by no means diminished thereby but it has to be interpreted and translated into fact within the specific context of each national and geographical region. It is through such "national interpretation" that the parallel between the Nairobi text and the Swiss Committee's report becomes apparent. Moreover, it is through such an interpretation that certain of the Nairobi recommendations can become true directives for the overall advancement of women in our country. Such is, for example, the case for the Nairobi analyses and recommendations concerning "specific cases" in which women are experiencing or risk being subjected to "multiple discrimination". 8/ The Swiss Committee's report quotes several extracts of the Nairobi strategies concerning some of these situations "which concern our country more particularly": i.e. those of women who are elderly, young, ill-treated, bread-winners, disabled, refugees or migrants. 9/

The views expressed in international texts tally with the Swiss Committee's studies, particularly with reference to certain essential disparities in women's status. Apart from the legal aspects, which we will not go into here, factors determining the social status of women, their situation in the economic system and their ability to integrate and to influence the functioning of the social, economic and political context in which they find themselves are of particular interest. Such factors can and must be measured and analysed with the aid of appropriate indicators.

2. STATISTICAL OVERVIEW OF THE SOCIAL STATUS OF WOMEN

A great deal of statistical information exists separately for each sex in Switzerland and might serve to analyse women's living conditions. However, there are a few areas of statistics in which this subject is deliberately tackled, with questionnaires designed and structured to that effect. Unfortunately, the data available are rarely subjected to systematic analysis and as yet there has been no consolidated report on the status of women. Moreover, social statistics and survey-type instruments 10/ are still at a rudimentary stage of development and there are many gaps in information.

On the basis of a mandate from the Federal Committee for Women's Affairs, the Federal Bureau of Statistics (OFS) has collected statistics on the social status of women. 11/ The starting point for the analysis was the hypothesis that as late as seven years after the principle of equality of rights between

men and women had been embodied in the Constitution, there was still considerable discrimination in the social and economic fabric that specifically affected women.

The OFS statistics are a one-sided approach to the status of women. In point of fact, only items capable of being interpreted as significant aspects of social and economic inequality to the detriment of women were taken into consideration. Moreover, summary indicators were used. Consequently, the figures presented below must be considered as orders of magnitude. Lastly, the incompleteness of our statistics cannot be over-emphasized in connection with the uncertain nature of data on essential social facts. This means in effect either that elements crucial for the appreciation of the status of women in Switzerland have not yet really been the object of sufficiently representative empirical research or that such analyses are not available in a usable form.

The statistical information collected by the OFS relates to six fields corresponding to the social and economic disparities in the status of women to which reference has been made above:

Education, training and further training;

Gainful employment;

Income;

Social insurance;

The family;

Politics.

The OFS statistical analysis has led to the conclusion that clear inequality between the sexes persists in all these social fields, to the detriment of women. We present below some of the salient results of this analysis, which are capable of providing at least a general outline of the status of women in Switzerland.

2.1 Education, training and further training

Basic education and further training largely determine occupational opportunities and the income commanded. Formal education of a specific nature is a prerequisite for many occupations. School, vocational training and further training therefore represent important stages along the road leading to an occupation and, thus, to social status. The Swiss educational system has few legal provisions likely to penalize women in particular. Existing inequalities, therefore, stem above all from the fabric of society (its structural, social and cultural aspects).

(a) Generally speaking, the educational level reached by women is noticeably lower than that reached by men. In 1987, a third of adult women

had received no training beyond compulsory schooling. Only 18% of men were in this situation (see table 1).

(b) Higher vocational training (extra-university, tertiary level) is an area largely reserved for men. In 1986-1987, barely a quarter of students at the higher vocational training level were women. They are very poorly represented (3%) in technical high schools.

(c) In universities and institutes of higher learning, the number of women becomes less and less as scientific level and academic status increase: there is an increasingly strong presence of women as university students (36% of students are women) 12/ but their presence remains marginal among teaching staff.

Table 1: Educational level of the population in 1987 (micro-survey: sample of 8,000 persons over 19 years of age)

Last training completed	Men (%)	Women (%)
Compulsory schooling	18	34
Vocational training	56	53
General certificate of education (advanced level)/certificate of primary education	3	6
Higher vocational training	7	2
Specialized higher educational institution	6	1
University or institute of higher learning	10	4
Total	100	100

Source: Microrecensement 1987, OFS.

Table 2: Women in universities and institutes of higher learning, 1986/1987

Level	Proportion of university women (%)
Women students beginning studies	40
Women students	36
Women graduates or certificate holders	32
Ph.D.s	20
Junior teaching posts	20
Lecturers (ordinary and special)	2

Source: Système suisse d'information universitaire, OFS.

2.2 Gainful employment

The exercise of gainful employment is aimed at satisfying both economic necessity and the need for the emancipation of women. Occupation basically determines social status and the prestige attached thereto. It also opens up opportunities for personal development and direct participation in social and economic life. However, two pre-conditions put women at a disadvantage in their careers: firstly, their level of training is on average lower than that of men and, secondly, they are often forced to interrupt their careers as a result of pregnancy. These are two major obstacles to access to the higher levels of employment.

(a) Statistical data show that the higher a professional post is, the fewer are the women represented. Overall, only 5% of women in gainful employment hold managerial posts; this figure is 17% for men (see table 3).

(b) Even with equal vocational training, women's opportunities to hold managerial positions are more restricted than are those of men. Thus, only 12% of working women who have completed their training at the tertiary level occupy a managerial position, while this proportion is as high as 39% among men with comparable training.

(c) Women often have to interrupt their career because of family obligations and this holds back promotion prospects. Differences between the sexes (always to the detriment of women) by age groups for the proportion of the workforce occupying positions in management are as follows: -3% from 20 to 29 years of age; -13% from 30 to 39 years of age, and -17% from 40 to 49 years of age.

Table 3: Employment category of men and women in dependent gainful employment, 1986

Employment category	Women (%)	Men (%)
Directors, senior management	5	17
Subordinate employees	66	38
Skilled workers	13	30
Elementary or on-the-job training	16	15

2.3 Income

In parallel with employment category, income level is a determining factor of social stratification. Economic resources provided by income determine the degree of personal independence and therefore constitute an essential prerequisite for the advancement of the individual within society. Women are penalized in this area.

(a) Women's incomes are generally considerably lower than men's. Considered overall, this difference in wages between men and women amounts to some 30% (see table 4).

(b) Even where the employment categories of the sexes are similar, a woman's income is still some 20% lower than a man's. Taking into consideration position within the occupation, the higher level of training, and age, there is still a difference of some 20% between a man's net income and a woman's.

(c) Wage differences due solely to discrimination should be around 10%. Various studies carried out outside the OFS situated this difference at between 6 and 16% for the same work.

Table 4: Trends in the wages of active adult women (in percentage of the wages of the corresponding categories for men in gainful employment)

	Year					
	1939	1950	1960	1970	1980	1986
Women workers	55	65	63	67	68	68
Women employees	57	61	61	64	67	68

Note: Trends within more detailed categories (three categories of female workers by level of training and three categories of employees by level of employment) are similar to those for the summary categories.

Source: OFIAMT Wage Statistics in: La Vie économique 6/1987, p.385.

2.4 Social insurance

Income from gainful employment provides the basis on which a standard retirement pension derived from social insurance is determined. As a result, differences in the occupational and economic situation of men and women have repercussions on the amount of their pensions.

(a) There are many more retired women than retired men with a standard pension ("AVS old age pension") of less than 1,000 francs a month (see table 5).

(b) In the case of disability insurance (AI) also, pensions paid to women are less than those to men: 36% of women receive less than 800 francs a month, as compared to only 23% of men.

Table 5: Recipients of a standard "old age pension" of up to 1,000 francs, March 1986

24.8% of retired men) 35.7% of retired women)	receive a standard AVS pension of Fr.1,000 or less.

Source: Rentes AVS et AI à la lumière de la statistique, OFS, Berne, 1987

2.5 Family

In accordance with the traditional roles assumed by the two sexes, a woman's life is oriented essentially around the family, where she assumes, in particular, household and educational duties. Despite changing mentalities and a trend towards a certain equality between spouses/partners, women continue to devote much more time to their families and to housework than do men. Gainfully employed women are heavily penalized as, unlike men, they spend time both at work and on household activities.

(a) The time spent by women on household tasks is on average six times more than is spent by men (see table 6). This means that, although the images of the wife who stays at home and the man who goes out to work are now only partly representative of social reality, the home and housework remain very much the woman's domain. By their considerable unpaid work at home, women carry out a task essential to society. However, as this work is carried out free of charge, it enjoys little social esteem. Furthermore, the work of housewives and mothers is often underappreciated and even considered to be on a par with basic manual labour.

(b) The dual burden placed on women who work full time is a heavy one: they devote four times as long to household tasks as do men who work full time.

(c) Women working full time have much less leisure time than do men. Indeed, their dual burden leads to a situation in which the leisure activity of a woman employed full time is 25% less than that of a man. Even women working half time have some 10% less leisure activity than men working full time.

Table 6: Daily averages (Monday-Saturday) of household activities carried out by married women and married men (in hours)

	Domestic activities (including shopping and child care)	Housework in the strict sense of the term
Women in full time employment	3 00	2 1/4
Men in full time employment	0 3/4	0 1/4
Women in half-time employment	4 1/4	3 1/4
Women without gainful employment	6 1/2	4 1/2

Source: Emploi du temps en Suisse, OFS, Berne, 1981.

2.6 Politics

Political decisions structure and mould society. Women's representation in the institutions of political decision making (legislative and executive) or in the preparation and implementation of decisions (the public service) is one further factor determining true equality between the sexes.

Eighteen years ago, by granting women the right to vote and be elected it was possible to give tangible expression to the equality of the sexes in political matters. Women could therefore be elected to parliament and government. However, it is evident that, generally speaking, women are considerably under-represented in the political and administrative institutions of the State.

(a) In the Federal Parliament, the proportion of women was only 14% in 1987.

(b) In the public service, women most often occupy subordinate posts. Only 2% of the women in the Federal Administration are senior public servants. This proportion is 13% for men. 13/

(c) In cantonal parliaments and communal legislative bodies, women are equally poorly represented. In these bodies, the proportion of women is between 12% and 18%.

Table 7: Proportion of women candidates and women elected from 1971 to 1987 in elections to the National Council and the Council of States

Year	National Council			Council of States	
	Women candidates	Women elected		Women elected	
	%	Absolute figures	%	Absolute figures	%
1971	15.8	10	5.0	1	2.3
1975	16.8	15	7.5	0	0.0
1979	18.3	21	10.5	3	6.8
1983	22.9	22	11.0	3	6.8
1987	28.9	29	14.5	5	11.4

Source: Statistique politique, OFS.

3. THE PROJECT FOR INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN: AIMS AND PROSPECTS

Swiss statistics were not previously much involved in systematically surveying the social status of women or their conditions of existence. Only recently has the attempt been made to elucidate the matter by synthesizing the little statistical information that exists. It would therefore be premature to put forward any specific programmes or detailed methodological guidelines at the present stage. Here we shall restrict ourselves to a brief presentation of the basic aim of the statistical project for the development of indicators on the status of women, as well as to some considerations on future prospects.

3.1 Basic aims

Because the indicators are somewhat rudimentary and the information that they yield rather disjointed, the statistical overview we have just provided may seem rather disappointing. It is not, however, devoid of political interest: it provides those involved on the social scene and decision-makers

with an eloquent picture of the present situation and of the main trends. In so doing, statistical information helps to set the framework for political discussion and clarify decision-making processes. Obviously, this is not all that can be expected of a statistical study. The aim of official statistics, which is to provide information and analyses to help solve social and economic problems, implies empirical research going far beyond the mere description of objective behaviour. In the medium-term, therefore, it is our primordial aim to analyse the situation of women in a social, economic and cultural context.

(a) To that end, solid theoretical foundations must be constructed, so as to be able to raise matters arising from everyday problems and political discussion in an appropriate conceptual framework. This first stage of what may properly be termed theoretical research will make it possible not only to define basic concepts of statistical analysis but also to elucidate and refine them in the light of increasing differences of lifestyles and thereby arrive at a restatement of the nature of social inequalities. The theoretical framework, must in particular, make it possible to define and situate more precisely the links between interrelated problems typical of modern industrial societies.

(b) It has already been pointed out in this overview of the current situation that there are many interdependencies between the areas in which there is inequality to the detriment of women. For instance, level of training has a particular influence on the position held, which in turn determines income level. Relationships between other fields are less obvious and, at times, only provisional hypotheses may be formulated on the basis of purely theoretical considerations; at a later stage, however, it will be necessary to establish empirical bases for the detailed analysis of these interdependencies.

(c) Analysis of the social status of women must not be restricted to individually surveyed existential situations. Social inequality cannot be characterized solely by the objective content of what is felt by the individual but is first and foremost a matter of the inequality inherent in the conditions which form the framework of the institutions and structures of a society. Thus, by the way in which they operate, the forms and organization of specific institutions may facilitate or hamper the access of some social categories to social capital. At the same time, standards, values and attitudes leave their mark on modes of social behaviour and, particularly in the case of women, can be decisive factors in any possibility of change in mentality or behaviour. Analysis of the social, institutional and subjective structure and its repercussions on the social situation of women will therefore constitute a second major aspect of research.

(d) The above considerations show that the methodology of piecemeal description, typical of the classical method of social indicators, deserves to be made more widespread. To that end, a framework of analytical procedure deriving from the social sciences should be established to relate the methodology of official statistics to problems of political importance.

In that perspective, all factors determining the status of women, be they individual living conditions or social structures, institutions, standards and values, must be taken into account. In that respect, research methods involving evaluation might be particularly useful; this should be taken into account both when establishing methodology and when carrying out empirical work.

3.2 Short-term measures

In parallel with the medium-term and long-term strategies outlined above, that are aimed at developing the concept of theoretically and methodologically based analysis, there is an equal and immediate need for short-term measures. First, a framework of conditions relating to the organization and acquisition of data must be established with the aim of promoting and maintaining future statistical activity (see below). Second, it will be necessary to continue with special statistical work related to certain problems arising from political discussion. This work will be of capital importance for the development of indicators as it will make it possible to continue to focus on the status of women in its most concrete and pertinent dimensions and thus to maintain a balanced and productive relationship between theoretical and empirical procedures and reality.

3.3 Recommendations of the interministerial working group

At the conclusion of the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women, held in Nairobi in July 1985, the Federal Committee for Womens' Affairs prepared recommendations for follow-up, most of which were included in the Swiss delegation's final report. In one of them it was suggested that a working group be set up to study the feasibility of implementing the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies within the Federal administration and prepare proposals to that end for the Federal Council. The Federal Council accepted this proposal and, on 2 July 1986, set up a working group of officials from various ministries and federal offices that had been involved in the preparatory and final work of the Conference.

In its report 14/, the working group proposes 74 specific measures, 10 of which are directly related to official statistics; a number of other proposals are of indirect interest for statistics, as they concern empirical research projects. Listed below are some of the main practical measures which specifically concern statistics:

(a) Statistics should be systematically presented separately by sex. Meaningful statistics on the status of women in society are inconceivable without such a breakdown of the data. This requirement should be met in most fields, although there is still room for some improvements, particularly in the presentation of results.

(b) Fairly complete statistics are now available on the status of women. However, it is difficult to have access to them and the overview needed for assessment of the situation is generally lacking:

- A series of indicators should be developed to capture the specific nature of the situation and of the participation of women in society.

- A statistical report should be devoted periodically (every 10 years, for example) to the situation of women in society in order to show progress made towards the objective of equal rights.

- The annual microcensus should periodically be devoted to women (every five years, for example). All microcensuses should take into account the specific situation of women.

(c) Statistical exercises on the situation of women should also contain subjective indicators. In women's affairs, emphasis should be placed on the subjective dimension (attitudes, scale of values) of the situation of women: while women may be clearly distinguished from men on the subjective level, this does not mean that discrimination against women must be seen from a social and cultural point of view through transposed, stereotyped values, etc.

(d) Statistical analysis should not be restricted to isolated fields such as occupational training or criminality among women, for example. It is indeed also essential to study relationships of cause and effect, such as level of training in relation to hierarchical position, or family situation in relation to gainful employment. Statistical analyses should do more to bring out the interdisciplinary relationship between fields included in the "situation of women" concept.

(e) Evaluations and statistical analyses should be specifically oriented towards the effectiveness of measures undertaken by public authorities with the aim of promoting equal rights.

(f) The following statistical fields should be developed with greater emphasis on women's affairs:

- Fields of activity traditionally carried out by women in the main (housework, bringing up children, division of labour within the family, voluntary work in the social and cultural sector);

- Access to material resources (income, capital);

- The world of employment (conditions of employment, remuneration, part-time employment);

- Access to political power and its management (political participation, representation in the world of politics, active presence in associations);

- Access to occupational training and further training and, in particular, to lifelong education (the problem of returning to paid employment);
- Health.

(g) Survey concepts, methods and instruments used in statistics should be reviewed and checked to ensure their applicability to both sexes.

(h) A department for women's affairs should be created within the Federal Office of Statistics (OFS), to initiate, implement and co-ordinate the necessary tasks.

The Swiss Government has taken note of the Working Group's report and recommendations; it has instructed the OFS to consider ways and means by which the proposed measures may be implemented. For its part, the OFS has recently acquired the manpower and organizational resources to be devoted to the project on indicators of women's status. Work relating to this project will commence early in 1990.

Notes

1/ Femmes et hommes: faits, perspectives, utopies. Report of the Federal Committee for Women's Affairs, Berne, 1987, p. 3 et seq.

2/ Art. 74 of the Federal Constitution, adopted by popular vote on 7 February 1971: "Swiss men and women shall have the same rights and the same duties in relation to Federal elections and voting".

3/ Art. 4, para. 2 of the Federal Constitution, adopted by popular vote on 14 June 1981: "Men and women shall have equal rights. The law shall make equal provision, in particular in the areas of family, education and employment. Men and women shall be entitled to equal wages for work of equal value".

4/ According to the data from the 1980 Federal Population Census, the employment rate for women aged from 15 to 64 years was 50% (that for Swiss women being 49% and that for foreign women 63%). For trends in women's employment rates from 1967 to 1987 and comparison with the other industrialized countries, the following should be consulted: Etudes économiques de l'OCDE, 1988/89: Suisse, Paris, 1989, p. 19 et seq. This study states that "the female employment rate is lower than in a number of other OECD countries. There are a number of reasons for this, one of them perhaps being the difference between men's and women's wages. According to the figures on workers in the manufacturing sector, this difference would appear to be more marked in Switzerland than in the other countries" (op. cit., p. 20).

5/ According to the statistics of the Federal Bureau of Personnel for the year 1989, of 362 "non-classified" (managerial and ministerial level) posts, only 9 were held by women. For senior official posts (decision-making posts corresponding to classes 1A, 1 and 2), statistics for the year 1987 indicate that of 2,308 posts, only 46 were held by women.

6/ United Nations, Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women. Adopted by the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievement of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace (Nairobi, 15-26 July 1985), New York, 1986.

7/ Femmes et hommes: faits, perspectives et utopies, cit., pp. 164-166.

8/ Cf. United Nations, Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies, cit., paras. 46 and 277-304.

9/ Cf. Femmes et hommes: faits, perspectives, utopies, cit., pp. 202-213.

10/ In Switzerland, an official microsurvey at Federal level was started only in 1986.

11/ Federal Bureau of Statistics, Die Benachteilung der Frau in ausgewählten Lebensbereichen (author: H. Gilomen), Info à la carte, Berne, 1988.

12/ In 1970, the proportion of female university students was 23%. From 1970 to 1986, the number of male and female university students increased from 42,178 to 76,664, i.e. by 81%; over half of this increase resulted from an increased number of women students, from 9,500 in 1970 to 27,600 in 1986. Cf. Federal Bureau of Statistics, Annuaire statistique de la Suisse, 1989, Zurich-Berne, 1989, pp. 290ss., where other recent statistical information on the participation of women in different types and levels of training can be found.

13/ Cf. above, note 5.

14/ Interdepartmental Working Group, Suivi de la Conférence mondiale de Nairobi de la Décennie des Nations Unies pour la femme, Final Report, Berne, 1988, pp. 7-12.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STATISTICAL STUDY OF THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN THE USSR AND IMPROVEMENT IN ITS METHODOLOGY

Report transmitted by the USSR State Committee on Statistics

In the USSR regular statistical observation, synopsis, analysis and information have been organized to enable statistical data on the situation of women in social production and everyday life to be provided for the Soviet authorities, the mass media and other organizations concerned.

Among the methods at present employed in statistical studies, the one that has become most widely used is the comprehensive survey, which takes the form of population censuses, statistical reporting by enterprises and organizations, and the submission of simultaneous accounts.

Information on the fulfilment by women of their obligations in production, in the family and in the home is extensively supplemented by appropriate indicators derived from sample surveys, including sociological studies. Meanwhile the selection of samples for surveys is carried out on the basis of quota or stratified sampling, sometimes of a multistage or random nature.

The Constitution of the USSR guarantees women equal rights with men in all spheres of life, and above all the right to work and to free education.

As a result of legal, social and economic guarantees and also the practical implementation of the principle of the universal and obligatory nature of work there is a high level of economic activity among women in the USSR. About four fifths of the total number of women of working age are occupied in study or in work in the Soviet national economy. An important place in statistical observations is accordingly allotted to study of the situation of women in the work sphere.

The population censuses carried out once every 10 years provide extensive information on the educational level and numbers of women workers, the way they are distributed (in town or country), their employment in social production, domestic work or personal accessory production or individual working activity, the distribution of working women by types of occupation, etc.

In the period between censuses, information on changes in women's employment by branches of the national economy and by regions is contained in the annual statistical reports on their work force submitted by enterprises and organizations.

In studying the role of women in social production, wide use is made of data obtained from the results of comprehensive one-time reports for a particular date submitted, once or twice every five years. They include information on numbers of workers and office staff - by sex, age and years of service; the established duration of the working week and annual holidays, the

number of specialists with degrees - by level of education obtained in the establishment that provided training in the speciality and at the place of work; senior staff, specialists and office workers - according to the posts they hold; workers according to their occupations in various branches of material production and in the non-productive sphere.

Indicators on sex are contained in the information derived from the one-time surveys of work placement and utilization of school-leavers from the schools in the general educational system and graduates from higher and medium-grade teaching establishments.

The overall picture of the utilization of women's labour is supplemented by statistical information from sample surveys. Thus, a sample (5%) sociological survey of the population carried out on 1 January 1985 determined the numbers of women of working age who were not in work and among them the numbers wanting to work and the conditions under which they might be brought into employment. Among the conditions mentioned by women were the provision of work in their speciality near their place of residence, the possibility of working shorter hours, preliminary job training, the finding of places for their children in pre-school children's establishments, etc.

The use of various methods of statistical observation provides objective and reliable information on the quantitative and qualitative make-up of female labour resources, the use made of them in the national economy and the conditions under which women work.

On the basis of information on the numbers of women of working age, their engagement in training or socially useful work and the bringing-up of children, a balance is periodically struck of labour resources by sex, which is an important tool in the State regulation of employment and the distribution of labour resources over the country's territory.

Time series are kept on the most important social indicators of the situation of women in relation to work. They include the number of women employed on night shifts or on work under arduous and harmful conditions, the proportion of low-skilled and manual labour performed by women and occupational morbidity and injuries among working women.

Another subject of statistical observation is the partial employment of women in social production. In contrast to the practice in many other countries, in the USSR the working by women of a shorter working week is not always regarded with a favourable eye by the management of economic undertakings. Basically this arises in those branches of the national economy in which women workers play a leading role and where even their partial removal from productive activity brings substantial economic losses in its train. In view of this, in 1987 a special legislative decision was taken under which managements are obliged to establish a shorter working week for a woman if she has a child under eight years old and so requests.

Thus, statistical information on part-time employment of women is essential for monitoring the fulfilment of the State decision concerned.

The fact that a high proportion of women are employed in social production does not make any the less essential the statistical monitoring of the implementation of women's right to work. A feature of such monitoring under present-day conditions is that it is of a regional nature. Statistical study of women's employment remains highly important in areas of the country with a surplus of labour, where there are certain difficulties in finding jobs for people near where they live.

In view of the settled trend among women in the USSR to participate widely in social production, Soviet statisticians are faced with the task of deepening their statistical analysis of the effectiveness of utilization of women's labour the degree to which the jobs performed correspond to the level of women's general and professional education, the effectiveness of the systems used for improving qualifications, the preliminary training of women workers, particularly after they have been out of the production circuit for a long time because of bearing and bringing up children and the observance of women's rights to equality in regard to remuneration for work and promotion.

The system of statistical indicators makes it possible to throw quite considerable light on the implementation of women's right to free general and vocational education. Soviet statistics have a set of indicators concerning the number of establishments at different levels in the national educational system and the persons undergoing training in those establishments by sex, social group, nationality, etc.

At the beginning of the 1988/89 academic year, women made up 54% of the students in establishments of higher education and 57% of those in medium-grade special training establishments. In addition, millions of them were learning a trade in vocational and technical training establishments.

Extensive information on the level of education among women is provided by the results of the all-Union population censuses, which show the extent to which women in various age groups and in urban and rural localities are covered by different forms of training. The data obtained from census materials on the level of education of women are tied in with various socio-demographic characteristics. Soviet statistics show the growth of the proportion of women among intellectual workers and the increase in the number of women specialists with higher- and medium-grade special education.

Women may successfully combine work with motherhood, their duties in the family and the home and in many instances an active public life, provided that they have the benefit of assistance from the State in bringing up their children and provided that the necessary specific everyday living conditions are ensured.

One of the ways in which working women in the USSR are assisted is the system of pre-school training of children and of groups in the general educational system who are looked after at school after normal school hours. At the end of 1988 permanent pre-school establishments were attended by over 17 million children and at the beginning of the 1988/89 school year 9.8 million schoolchildren were in groups looked after at school after hours.

Statistical reports contain extensive information on general educational establishments and the number of children covered by such forms of education: kindergartens and creches, groups in ordinary schools looked after, after normal school hours, boarding schools, children's homes and forest sanatorium schools.

In addition, the statistical services have available data that characterize from every point of view the development of pupils' talents and predilections and the organization of their leisure and holidays (Young Pioneers' Palaces and homes, groups for young technicians, young naturalists and young ramblers, sports schools, children's theatres, libraries, summer Young Pioneer and sport and work camps, etc.). The statistical reports available make it possible to assess the network of extra-curricular establishments and the number of children who use the various forms of services which they provide.

One of the important conditions for alleviating women's work in the home is a highlv developed network of public catering establishments, shops and other enterprises serving the public.

Statistical reports make it possible to analyse the development of public catering establishments and shops both in general and by speciality, as well as the growth in the turnover and manufacture of articles of everyday use, the sale of semi-finished goods and culinarv products, development of various advanced types of shopping facilities and a growth in the volume of paid services for the population, in both town and country.

For the convenience of workers in various branches of the national economy the provision of shopping, household repair, medical and other services is being organized with a view to developing paid services for the population. Ministries and branches of the administration are being set special tasks and the degree to which those tasks are fulfilled is being monitored bv the statistical authorities. The data from special sample surveys make it possible to draw conclusions concerning the level of development of services at the place of work, their make-up and the degree to which women are satisfied by the quality of paid and free services.

In addition, in order to throw light on women's social and living conditions, use is made of the results of special investigations to determine the degree to which enterprises in the service sector are adapted to the needs of the workers and to discover how much time is spent in obtaining goods, including the time spent queueing and waiting for service. The opinion of the population, including women, concerning the quality of the goods bought and the services received is being studied.

The foundations of Soviet legislation provide for State protection and encouragement of motherhood. Statistics on the protection of mother and child take the form of indicators reflecting the development of the system of maternity homes, women's and children's advisory clinics, sanatoria and rest homes for pregnant women and women with children where their state of health is placed under medical observation.

A subject for special statistical observation is the situation of mothers employed in production. To allow for the physiological features of the female organism, there is a list in the USSR of types of production, occupations and jobs with arduous and harmful working conditions in which women's labour is forbidden with a view to protecting their health. The observance of these requirements is monitored by trade union bodies and reflected in reports on the subject which are used by the statistical authorities for preparing analyses and providing information for the authorities and the public.

Work by pregnant women, nursing mothers and women with children under one year of age is the subject of special State protection.

Women workers and office staff and women members of collective farms are given paid pregnancy and childbirth leave for 56 calendar days before childbirth and 56 calendar days after. The employment of pregnant and nursing women in night work, on overtime and in work on holidays is forbidden.

The dismissal without good reason of pregnant women and women with children under 18 months old is prohibited. When a woman needs to be at home because her child is ill, she is paid for up to 14 days if her non-appearance at her job is supported by a certificate of unfitness for work.

So that the observance of the social guarantees provided for working mothers can be monitored, enterprises and organizations must present annual reports on the number of women on pregnancy and childbirth leave.

A sample (40%) of enterprises have to present reports on the number of cases and the duration in calendar days of temporary unfitness for work in connection with pre-maternity and post-maternity leave and complications of pregnancy. Periodically information is collected from enterprises and organizations on a particular date concerning the number of working women on leave to look after a child up to 1 year or 18 months of age.

Important information on the incidence among women of active tuberculosis, malignant tumours, alcoholism and sexually transmitted diseases is contained in the medical statistics. After the collection and processing of these indicators the health authorities present them to the statistical authorities once a year (or in the case of tuberculosis morbidity once every three years).

The indicators in financial statistics on the sums expended on allowances and various types of payments to women out of the State budget - payment for pregnancy and childbirth leave from the State social insurance scheme, the

granting of partially paid leave until a child has attained the age of one year (in 1988 2.7 million women were on such leave), one-time benefits upon the birth of a child, monthly allowances for mothers with large families, single mothers etc. - provide an information base concerning the extent of and changes in the social assistance which the State provides for mothers. For the same purposes use is made of reports on the number of mothers with large families who obtain monthly State allowances and also the number among them to whom the State has granted the honorary title of "Mother-heroine" or who have been awarded "Glory of Motherhood" orders and maternity medals.

With a view to analysing women's fulfilment of their family and domestic functions a separate subject for statistical study is the way women divide up their time, the time they spend on bringing up their children and their domestic workload.

This analysis is particularly important in the case of those women who combine productive activity with family obligations and their domestic tasks and is based on sample surveys of the time budget of the population periodically conducted by the statistical authorities. Such studies are carried out in families which constantly keep budget notes, an analysis of which makes it possible to form groupings that reflect the influence of the level of material well-being of the family on the structure of women's time budgets, particularly in regard to leisure time.

Studies of time budgets in families were carried out in 1977, 1980 and 1985. The last survey was carried out in 51,000 families of workers and office staff from industry and collective farms. The next survey is planned for 1990.

The information received contains data on the amount of time spent by women at work, in transport (commuting to work and back, obtaining consumer goods), in study and improving their qualifications, on public work, on domestic tasks, on looking after children, on work in a personal ancillary occupation, on leisure, etc. All these data are classified in detail and broken down by separate forms of activity. Information is available on differences between men and women in the structure of their time budgets.

The processing of data concerning the way women spend their time is based on breakdown by social grouping, age, level of education and family situation (depending on the composition of the family, the number of children and other characteristics). Periodically information is also collected on the utilization of holidays and non-working days by working women of various ages in relation to the level of their material well-being, their family situation and the social group to which they belong. On the basis of data from a survey of the ways in which families spend their holidays, in 1989 information will be obtained for the first time on family holidays, factors that hinder the taking of holidays of the kind wanted, the arrangements for looking after the children, whether parents have taken their holidays separately, etc.

Another valuable source of information on the family situation of women is constituted by direct statistical data on the budgets of 90,000 families which are investigated monthly in the USSR. The most important indicators on living standards are tabulated in relation to the number of children and their age. In a simultaneous survey of the incomes of 310,000 families (once every five years), the distribution of women by number of children living in the family is determined.

On the basis of a one-time sample survey of social and economic factors in the formation of families, new data will be obtained in March 1989 on the distribution of young married couples by occupation of the husband and wife, their levels of education, the number of children, their nationality, their per capita income and its source and the role of the woman's income in the material well-being of the family.

A separate study is made of the opinions of the wife and the husband concerning the degree to which they are satisfied with the material position of the family in relation to per capita income, their idea of the minimum essential expenditure in relation to the number of children, their intentions in regard to improving their material situation if they are not satisfied with it, their intentions regarding having children, etc.

The information obtained on the basis of this statistical study will be of great scientific and practical significance for developing concrete measures designed to improve the material position of young families with scanty resources, and to stimulate the birth rate in regions of the country with low reproductive indices; such measures are a very important part of the general social programme developed for the near future and also up to the year 2005.

One of the important indicators of women's social activity and equality of rights is information concerning their participation in the management of the State, in public life and in the activities of various public organizations.

Data derived from special reports make it possible to characterize the growth in the public activities of women in various age groups, with various levels of education, belonging to different social groups and nationalities, etc., among People's Deputies, members of the Communist Party and members of the Komsomol, in trade union organizations and people's courts and also in public movements of various kinds (women's councils and informal groups).

The State statistical authorities also receive for analysis data from the law-enforcing agencies on the participation of women in civil and administrative offences, the commission of crimes by women, and the extent of their socially dangerous activity which creates the pre-conditions for crimes and other offences to be committed. The main indices of criminality and convictions are broken down by sex. Data are also available on prostitution, vagabondage, drug addiction and alcoholism among women.

Study of women's opinions on a whole range of questions has become part of the everyday practice of the Soviet statistical authorities. Among the questions they are asked are to what extent they are satisfied with their work, their opinion on the correct order of priorities among the social and economic undertakings carried out in the country and on questions of children's education, etc.

All these indicators make it possible to obtain quite a complete idea of the role of women in social production and their workload in everyday tasks and the carrying-out of domestic obligations. In addition, as new social processes begin to take shape, the need arises to further improve the information base. Thus, in view of the high proportion of Soviet women employed in social production, the difficulties that are occurring at the present time on the consumer market lead to a general overburdening of women and encroachments on their leisure time. In this situation, it becomes urgent to carry out systematic statistical observations reflecting the combined effect of working and living conditions.

It is planned to conduct a complex survey of Soviet women's lifestyles in 1990. In the same year it is proposed to study on a wider scale and in more detail what is happening in regard to the utilization of their own funds by enterprises and organizations to carry out measures of a social nature. As a result of branches of the national economy going over to self-financing and paying their own way, there is an increase in the resources that enterprises can use for the social needs of their own work collective. Social measures that are becoming current practice include paying from these resources (the social development funds) for women to take time off for looking after a child on a larger scale and for longer periods than provided for by the State. Extra material incentives are being offered to workers in pre-school educational establishments if by providing good conditions they reduce morbidity among children. Enterprises are also giving assistance to large families.

It is essential to conduct statistical studies of practice in the provision of social assistance by enterprises and organizations in order to assess its scale, forms and extent, its role in the all-Union and regional programmes for improving the population's standard of living and the degree to which it is in line with the principle of social justice.

In the forthcoming years it is intended also to pay greater attention to the use of statistical methods in the study of the part being played by women in the restructuring and democratization of Soviet society and in territorial self-management.

HOW PARTNERS SPEND THEIR TIME
A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON TIME USE BY MEN AND WOMEN*

by

Ineke A. L. Stoop and J. Oudhof

In this paper data on time use from a survey of Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics has been used to compare time use of men and women. It appears that the division of time spent on paid labour, domestic work, leisure activities and child care is unequal. Participation in the labour market by the female partner heavily depends on the presence of (small) children in the household. Even if both partners are working full-time, house-keeping and especially cleaning and laundering, seems to be a predominantly female task.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the Netherlands the labour participation of women is considerably lower than in other European countries. In 1987, 35% of the women between 15 and 64 years of age had a paid job and 32% of these women worked part-time (CBS, 1988). The policy of the Dutch Government is towards economic independency of women by participation in paid labour.

In this paper time use of men and women will be compared. Differences in labour participation and in time spent of paid jobs by both sexes will be discussed. Besides, special attention will be paid to time spent on child care and playing with children, on leisure activities like watching tv, reading and social life, and on housekeeping. The division of domestic chores will be discussed against the background of labour market participation, household composition, level of education and opinions and preferences with regard to housekeeping.

The data for the comparison of men and women come from a Time Use Survey which has been held by the Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics in 1987 (CBS, 1989). During the whole year, 3,817 respondents in 6,668 households kept a diary for two subsequent days, registering their activities by filling in fixed codes. Besides the diary, a lot of additional information has been obtained on the respondent and the household. The design of this study has been tested in a pilot study and is extensively discussed in Oudhof, Stoop and Luttikhuizen (1988). The Time Use Survey is focused on time spent on

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informally productive activities. Part of the data will be used here to find out the differences between men and women. For this purpose, a subsample of respondents has been drawn: only couples having provided complete information on both partners have been selected (thus people living alone and single parent families are excluded). Only the time budget of the male and the female partner is taken into account, thus leaving out children as well. For each partner the two days in the diary had to be completely accounted for. Thus remained 1,684 couples of different household composition. As weekend days were overrepresented in this sample, each couple has been weighted such that each day of the week occurs equally often. With respect to subgroups of the sample the days of the week may still be distributed unequally.

Firstly, the household composition and labour participation of the selected couples will be discussed. Next, time use of eight homogeneous groups of couples on a number of aggregate activities will be presented. Special attention will be paid to the division of two housekeeping tasks: preparations of meals and cleaning and laundering.

II. TIME USE OF MEN AND WOMEN

In table 1 the household composition and labour participation of couples is presented. With respect to couples not having children 67% of the younger people both labour full-time (at least more than 20 hours). In the next age group 37% of the partners both do not have a paid job and in 29% of the cases only the male partner works. Pensioners, 65 years and above, only very occasionally participate in the labour market. With regard to couples having children, in more than half of the cases only the male partner works. If the children are adults 20% of the parents are both jobless. Working female partners mostly have a part-time job, especially if the children are very young or are adults (and the parents elderly). Of all women in table 1, 37% participate in the labour market. This is almost the same figure as for the entire female Dutch population in 1987. In this study however single women and adult females living with their parents are excluded, whereas the figure for the entire population refers to women between 15 and 64 years of age only.

To compare time use of men and women, three groups have been selected according to labour market participation, viz. both partners not participating, male partner participating full-time and female partner not participating, and both partners participating full-time (i.e. working more than 20 hours a week). Each group has been subdivided according to household composition. Not all subgroups are included, therefore the time use of 13 subgroups remains, presented in table 2. Some subgroups are somewhat small, thus accidental fluctuations may have a large impact. In this table, only a selection of aggregate activities is presented: personal needs (like eating and sleeping), three leisure activities, viz. social life (visiting or entertaining, having coffee, going to the movies), watching tv or listening to the radio and reading, two housekeeping activities, viz. preparation of meals

Table 1. Household composition and labour participation of couples 1/

	MN		MW					Total	
			Part-time		full-time				
	FN	FW	FN	FW	FN	FW part-time	FW full-time		
	%								abs.
no children									
age female partner									
over 35 years	3	3	0	1	14	12	67	100	219
35-64 years	37	5	3	1	26	10	19	100	270
=under 65 years	90	5	2	0	2	1	0	100	203
children									
age youngest child									
0-5 years	4	1	2	1	69	18	5	100	400
6-12 years	6	2	1	2	51	29	10	100	289
13-17 years	6	4	1	2	51	24	12	100	193
=over 18 years	20	6	2	2	48	17	5	100	110
total	21	3	2	1	40	16	16	100	
	abs.								
n	356	52	27	20	679	275	276		1684

1) MN - male partner has no paid job
MW - male partner has got a paid job
part-time - 20 hours per week or less
FN - female partner has no paid job
FW - female partner has got a paid job
full-time - more than 20 hours per week

Table 2. Hours per day, participation and share female partner for selected activities by household composition and participation labour market.

	participation labour market												
	none			both fulltime					male fulltime, female not				
	n2	n3	c3	n1	n2	c1	c2	c3	n1	n2	c1	c2	c3
male	hours:minutes												
personal needs	11:35	12:13	11:38	9:44	9:44	9:58	10:23	10:26	10:00	10:19	9:54	10:02	10:04
social life	2:11	2:01	2:54	2:06	2:33	1:37	1:43	1:33	1:29	2:02	1:42	1:41	1:42
tv,radio	2:51	3:04	2:42	1:41	1:28	1:17	1:57	2:01	1:44	1:51	1:43	1:52	2:04
reading	1:03	1:25	1:13	0:25	0:42	0:44	0:33	0:38	0:27	0:55	0:39	0:41	0:47
cooking	0:47	0:52	0:30	0:34	0:37	0:40	0:42	0:13	0:34	0:18	0:27	0:17	0:14
cleaning	0:24	0:20	0:17	0:13	0:12	0:13	0:24	0:07	0:10	0:04	0:10	0:07	0:06
work	0:09	0:03	0:06	6:24	5:46	5:42	4:37	6:10	6:49	5:22	5:51	6:12	6:09
child interact.	-	-	0:06	-	-	0:18	0:20	0:00	-	-	0:25	0:10	0:01
child care	-	-	0:01	-	-	0:37	0:14	0:00	-	-	0:26	0:06	0:01
female	hours:minutes												
personal needs	11:35	11:46	11:00	10:23	10:05	10:22	9:55	10:35	10:57	11:08	10:30	10:35	10:54
social life	2:16	1:59	2:45	2:12	2:26	1:35	1:36	1:23	2:22	2:29	2:07	2:07	2:18
tv,radio	2:20	2:19	1:45	1:30	1:17	1:02	1:24	1:43	1:20	1:39	1:17	1:39	1:48
reading	0:44	1:06	0:40	0:26	0:37	0:41	0:23	0:47	0:33	0:56	0:33	0:40	0:46
cooking	1:57	2:17	2:38	0:54	0:54	1:13	1:45	1:36	1:28	2:00	1:51	2:25	2:20
cleaning	1:29	1:28	1:57	0:47	0:56	1:20	1:07	1:15	1:14	1:38	1:45	2:08	2:05
work	0:12	0:02	0:01	5:09	5:20	2:56	4:44	4:18	0:33	0:11	0:07	0:04	0:16
child interact.	-	-	0:04	-	-	0:25	0:13	0:02	-	-	0:46	0:22	0:04
child care	-	-	0:04	-	-	2:07	0:19	0:02	-	-	2:06	0:35	0:03
part. male	%												
personal needs	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
social life	90	88	93	92	96	87	92	79	88	92	86	82	82
tv,radio	97	97	97	91	87	93	92	93	96	92	90	91	90
reading	81	91	95	80	81	79	73	72	80	85	77	78	81
cooking	77	80	55	83	78	91	86	44	71	69	76	54	46
cleaning	54	54	30	40	32	39	32	11	33	19	35	22	19
work	14	6	4	79	89	78	81	77	91	82	78	85	83
child interact.	-	-	15	-	-	83	49	0	-	-	81	28	2
child care	-	-	5	-	-	67	49	0	-	-	69	26	3
part. female	%												
personal needs	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
social life	85	92	100	93	98	96	89	80	94	98	96	94	97
tv,radio	99	96	94	94	91	90	93	96	94	89	87	94	95
reading	79	86	74	80	81	75	73	71	82	88	77	80	81
cooking	98	98	100	96	100	84	100	100	96	100	100	100	99
cleaning	95	93	100	84	80	82	91	93	98	98	99	100	98
work	14	6	7	78	83	65	74	68	10	7	13	14	22
child interact.	-	-	8	-	-	64	44	12	-	-	87	54	13
child care	-	-	10	-	-	90	52	9	-	-	100	71	12
share female	%												
personal needs	50	49	48	52	51	51	49	51	52	52	52	51	52
social life	50	51	51	52	51	56	51	47	63	58	61	61	62
tv,radio	44	44	38	49	47	45	48	48	43	40	43	47	49
reading	42	43	31	49	47	43	46	34	58	52	49	49	50
cooking	74	74	85	63	65	56	69	88	73	86	82	90	92
cleaning	78	81	90	79	84	78	84	95	88	97	93	96	96
work	-	-	-	44	46	34	45	40	6	3	4	1	7
child interact.	-	-	33	-	-	57	46	100	-	-	69	73	95
child care	-	-	79	-	-	75	53	100	-	-	83	87	88
	abs.												
n	100	183	33	147	50	21	28	29	30	74	275	147	151

EXPLANATION

- Personal needs: eating, sleeping, bathing, going to hairdresser, doctor
  Social life: visit people, having visitors, having coffee, going to matches, movies, theatres, bars, dancings, political meetings, church, funeral ceremonies, corporate life
  Tv, radio: watching tv, video; listening to radio, records, tapes
  Reading: reading books, magazines (not for work or study)
  Cooking: cooking, baking, making breakfast or lunch, setting the table, washing the dishes
  Cleaning: cleaning, making the beds, laundering, ironing
  Work: paid job, including travel and breaks
  Child interaction: reading to, talking with, playing games (inside and outside) with the children
  Child care: taking care of babies or small children, baby-sitting, helping with homework, taking to school
- Household composition:
  n1 - no children, younger than 35 years
  n2 - no children, 35-64 years
  n3 - no children, 65 years and older
  c1 - youngest child 0 - 5 years
  c2 - youngest child 6-12 years
  c3 - youngest child 13 years and older
- Working fulltime: more than 20 hours per week
- Hours per day: average over all days of the week and all couples (whether or not one participated)
- Some activities are hardly applicable for specific groups (child care for own household when having no children) or unlikely to occur (paid work when not having a paid job). Also due to the very small number of cases in those groups who did mention these activities thay are designated by (-)

(cooking, washing the dishes) and cleaning up and doing the laundry, paid work, and finally, child interaction (playing with children) and child care. Child care does not include activities like washing diapers (i.e. cleaning) and cooking porridge (i.e. cooking). Working includes eating on the job and travel to and fro. Child care and domestic work only are included if performed on behalf of the own household.

The first two panels of table 2 give the average time spent on each activity by all men and women in each subgroup. The subsequent two panels indicate how many men or women actually did participate in each activity during the two days they were keeping a diary. The last two rows give the average share of women in each participating couple.

As can be seen from table 2, labour market participation and household composition have a considerable impact on time use. A large share of each day is spent on personal needs. Of course everybody has to sleep, eat and take a bath. This takes elderly male pensioners without children about 12 hours and a quarter a day whereas younger males without children who are working full-time (just like their female partner) spend about 9 hours and 3 quarters on this activity: a substantial difference of 2 1/2 hours a day. The latter group may eat on the job but this won't take that long. Men having a full-time job spend approximately 6 hours a day working (an average over all days including weekends, holidays and sick leave). Men with children from 6 to 12 years work a little less. In almost each group women with a job work less than men. This is abundantly clear for women having preschool children. On the average, they work less than 3 hours a day (21 hours a week). It should be remembered that only women with a 'full-time job', i.e. more than 20 hours are selected; most women with children tend to work less if they do have a paid job at all (see table 2).

Working women with preschool children may be compared a) with young working women not having children, b) with women with preschool children and no paid job and c) with their male partners. They spend approximately 2 hours a day less working than working women without children. Child care takes about as much time as it takes women of the same age who do not have a paid job, but they spend less time on child interaction (talking to children, playing with children). Housekeeping for them takes more time than for women not having children, but less than for proper housewives. Their social life is more limited and they spend less time watching tv. Amazingly they read more. Their male partners spend more time working and less time on personal needs. Both partners spend more or less an equal amount of time on the selected leisure activities (though men watch tv slightly more). The preparation of meals takes women five quarters of an hour a day and men 40 minutes. Cleaning and laundering however seems to be a predominantly female task. Men in this (emancipated?) subgroup spend about 13 minutes a day on this activity, as compared to 1 hour and 20 minutes for women (39% of the men did some cleaning and laundering during the two days they kept a diary and 82% of the women). Men spend much less

time on child care than their working partners. They spend however more time on child care than men with small children and with female partners who do not have a job, and less time on interaction with children.

In figure 1, the time use of men and women in the selected subgroups is presented graphically. In this figure personal needs are left out because the large amount of time spent on these activities would dominate it entirely. The figure clearly shows the impact on time use of gender (cooking, cleaning), labour participation (work) and household composition (child care). The last two activities are some kind of special. If you don't have a job you don't work, and if you don't have children, you can't take care of them. Cooking and cleaning on the other hand might be done by any adult. Thus we will pay attention to these aggregate activities.

III. COOKING AND CLEANING

The information from table 2 on two major domestic chores is graphically illustrated in figure 2. For both activities, the upper figure gives the average time spent and the lower figure, the percentage of participants and the average share of the female partner. For couples having small children and both partners having a paid job, the average share of women and cooking is smallest: 'only' 56% of the preparation of meals and 78% of cleaning and laundering is done by her. Of course, the fathers of the children are working a lot. The division of paid labour and housekeeping tasks within working couples may be seen most clearly when looking at younger people (younger than 35 years) without kids. The female partners on the average work 5 hours and 9 minutes a day, their male partners 6 hours and 24 minutes. Thus the male works 1 hour and 15 minutes longer. Cooking and cleaning takes up 47 minutes for males and 1 hour and 41 minutes for females. Thus domestic work takes the woman 54 minutes more than her male partner. So these men actually have less time for other things besides working and housekeeping than women. A similar comparison can be made for the group where both partners do not have a paid job, have no children at home and are between 35 and 64 years of age. Domestic work, i.e. cooking and cleaning, takes up 3 hours and 26 minutes for women and only 1 hour and eleven minutes for men. Of course they may do a lot of other useful things (like house maintenance), but the division of tasks is really very unequal.

In table 3 and 4 the results of four separate multiple classification analyses (MCA) are presented. In MCA the results of an analysis of variance are displayed: the deviations from the grand mean of all categories of each variable are computed, adjusted for the effects of all other variables. The dependent variables are time spent per day per couple (divided by two) and the share of the female partner both for preparation of meals and for cleaning and laundering. The following independent variables have been included in the analyses: household composition and labour participation (see table 2), the opinion of both partners about

Figure 1. Hours per day spent on 8 activities by 13 subgroups

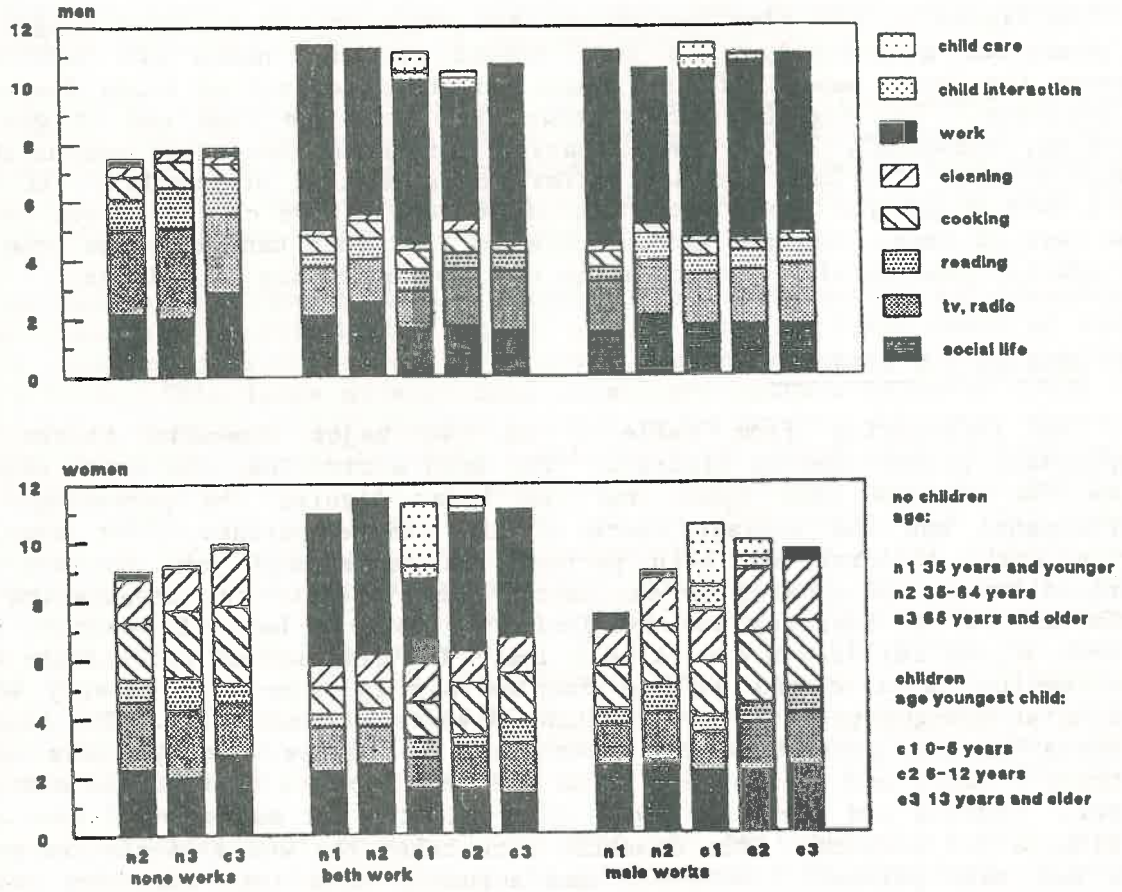
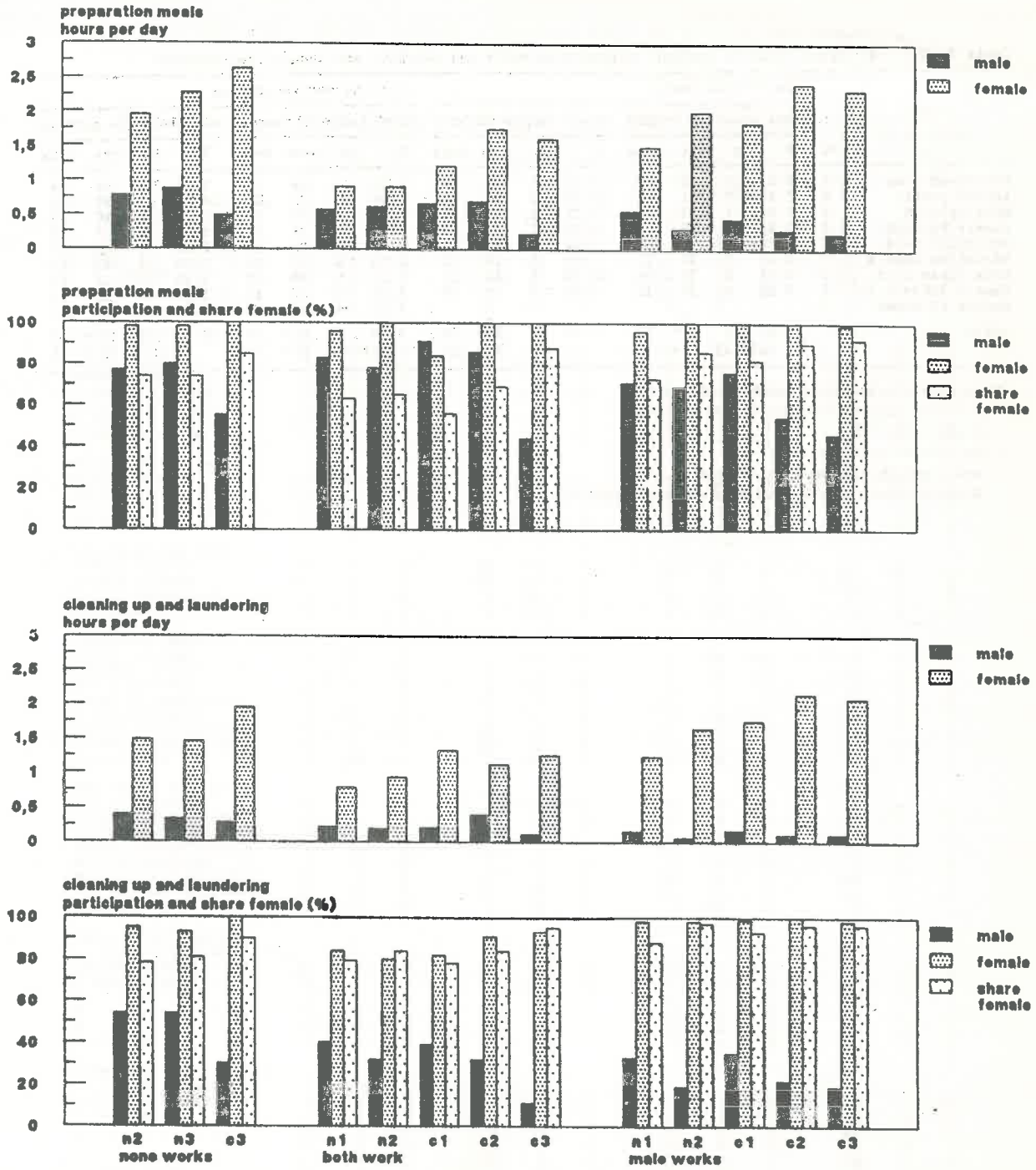


Figure 2. Preparation meals and cleaning up and laundering



LEGENDA:	no children age:	children age youngest child:
	n1 35 years and younger	c1 0-5 years
	n2 35-64 years	c2 6-12 years
	n3 65 years and older	c2 13 years and older

Table 3. Multiple classification analysis preparation meals and cleaning and laundering, summary

		preparation meals								cleaning and laundering							
		time spent by couple				share female partner				time spent by couple				share female partner			
	df	F	p	eta	beta	F	p	eta	beta	F	p	eta	beta	F	p	eta	beta
household comp.	6	6.22	.0	.29	.18	5.51	.0	.29	.15	3.95	.0	.26	.15	1.48	.2	.19	.09
labour partic.	6	7.32	.0	.31	.21	13.99	.0	.37	.26	7.94	.0	.31	.23	14.81	.0	.32	.28
male opinion	3	0.94	.4	.05	.05	4.22	.0	.29	.10	0.31	.8	.12	.03	0.99	.4	.16	.05
female opinion	3	0.91	.4	.09	.04	5.41	.0	.29	.11	1.77	.2	.13	.06	2.64	.1	.18	.08
education male	7	2.72	.0	.16	.12	2.09	.4	.13	.09	1.20	.3	.12	.08	2.50	.0	.06	.12
education female	7	2.99	.0	.19	.12	3.59	.0	.18	.13	0.53	.8	.13	.05	2.35	.0	.12	.11
male likes c./c.	5	0.53	.8	.12	.04	12.93	.0	.35	.21	1.81	.1	.09	.08	3.60	.0	.15	.11
female likes c./c.	5	3.60	.0	.15	.11	2.94	.0	.16	.09	3.95	.0	.16	.12	5.29	.0	.16	.13
number of rooms	7									1.10	.4	.16	.08	2.24	.0	.16	.11
total		6.37	.0	R^2= .17		12.89	.0	R^2= .29		4.94	.0	R^2= .16		5.81	.0	R^2= .18	
		(df=42)		R = .41				R = .54		(df=49)		R = .40				R = .43	

*) See table 4 for description variables and categories
F: F-value analysis of variance without interaction;
p: probability of F;
eta: bivariate correlation ratio;
beta: standardized regression coefficient;
R: multiple correlation (squared: % of variance accounted for)

Table 4. Multiple classification analysis preparation meals and cleaning and laundering, time couple and share female, deviations from grand mean (unadjusted and adjusted)

	preparation meals						cleaning and laundering					
	time couple			share female			time couple			share female		
	n	dev.gr.mean		n	dev.gr.mean		n	dev.gr.mean		n	dev.gr.mean	
		unadj.	adj.		unadj.	adj.		unadj.	adj.		unadj.	adj.
	%	minutes		%			%	minutes		%		
household composition												
no children le 34	16	-18	-10	16	-11	-3	16	-17	-7	15	-7	-4
35-64	14	-3	-3	14	-4	-2	14	-5	-4	14	-3	-1
ge 65	7	18	10	7	-8	-2	7	-1	-6	7	-7	2
youngest 0- 5	27	0	-2	28	0	-3	27	3	0	28	3	0
child 6-12	19	8	7	19	6	4	19	8	6	19	4	2
13-17	11	3	2	11	8	5	11	8	6	11	3	1
ge 18	6	4	2	6	10	6	6	9	5	6	3	3
labour participation												
no job both	13	15	8	13	-5	-5	13	3	6	13	-6	-6
female works	3	0	-4	3	-21	-20	3	-6	-5	3	-26	-26
male part-time	2	0	-1	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	4	2
m.part./f.works	1	-1	1	1	-22	-19	1	-6	-7	1	-16	-17
male full-time	43	6	5	43	7	4	43	8	6	44	5	4
m.full./f.part.	18	-4	-4	18	5	4	18	0	-2	19	3	3
both full-time	20	-18	-12	19	-12	-6	20	-19	-13	18	-6	-3
housekeeping both												
male agrees	65	-1	0	65	-5	-2	65	-3	0	64	-3	-1
partly agrees	26	1	1	26	8	3	26	6	1	27	4	1
partly disagrees	5	5	-4	5	7	1	5	0	0	5	5	2
disagrees	4	2	4	4	16	6	4	4	-1	4	9	4
housekeeping both												
female agrees	69	-2	0	69	-5	-2	69	-3	0	68	-3	-1
partly agrees	23	4	1	23	10	4	23	6	1	24	6	3
partly disagrees	4	2	-4	4	10	2	4	-1	-7	4	7	3
disagrees	4	8	7	4	13	4	4	12	6	4	3	-1
education male												
still student	1	-12	1	1	-10	18	1	-20	-12	1	-3	28
primary school only	7	17	14	7	-3	-2	6	-1	-3	6	-4	-2
lower general	6	0	0	6	-2	-2	6	-4	-3	6	-2	0
lower occupational	17	1	1	17	3	1	17	1	0	17	0	-2
middle general	5	-10	-5	5	-1	3	5	-8	-4	5	1	4
middle occuptional	38	0	-1	38	3	1	38	3	2	39	1	0
higher occupational	18	0	0	18	-3	-1	18	1	0	18	0	1
university	9	-8	-4	9	-6	-2	9	-6	-4	9	2	4
education female												
still student	2	-16	-12	1	-21	-20	2	-9	2	2	-14	-14
primary school only	10	7	0	10	5	5	10	3	0	10	0	1
lower general	12	4	-5	12	0	0	12	-2	-3	12	-1	-1
lower occupational	23	6	-2	23	3	0	23	5	1	24	2	3
middle general	5	-8	-3	5	-2	2	5	-6	-2	5	1	2
middle occupational	32	0	2	32	0	0	32	-1	0	32	1	0
higher occupational	14	-2	3	14	-6	-3	14	-2	2	14	-4	-3
university	2	-29	-18	2	-8	0	2	-16	-4	2	2	4
male likes cooking/ likes cleaning												
not applicable	34	4	0	34	9	5	10	0	-5	11	5	2
1 not at all	10	4	1	10	8	5	21	-3	-1	21	4	3
2	7	-3	2	7	0	3	25	-2	-2	25	1	1
3	21	-5	-2	21	-8	-5	29	2	3	29	-4	-3
4	15	-5	0	15	-8	-5	9	3	1	9	-2	-1
5 very much	13	1	2	13	-8	-5	5	8	5	6	-3	-1
female likes cooking/ likes cleaning												
not applicable	1	26	19	1	-28	-21	0	-6	-6	0	-47	-39
1 not at all	4	-2	-2	4	-8	-3	19	-8	-7	18	-2	-1
2	4	-11	-8	4	-3	-1	20	-2	0	20	-2	-1
3	33	-4	-3	34	-1	-1	33	0	0	33	3	3
4	28	1	3	28	1	1	16	6	5	16	0	-1
5 very much	29	5	2	29	3	1	12	9	5	12	1	0
number of rooms												
2							1	-18	-7	1	-17	-14
3							5	-16	-6	5	-12	-6
4							21	-3	-2	21	0	2
5							36	2	0	36	2	1
6							24	4	2	24	1	0
7							8	1	1	8	1	-1
8							2	3	3	3	-1	-2
9 or more							2	9	10	2	-2	-2
n (abs.)	1346			1340			1348			1309		
grand mean		67			78			52			88	

sharing housekeeping (it is very normal that both partners should participate in housekeeping: agree, partly agree, partly disagree, disagree), the final level of education of both partners (a special category is: still studying), the preference of both partners for cooking used in the analyses of preparation meals or for cleaning used in the analyses of cleaning up and laundering (including the category 'not applicable': chosen by a third of the men with respect to cooking!) and the number of rooms in the analyses of cleaning. All couples are included in the analyses provided they have valid values on all variables. As the share could only be computed if at least one of both partners participated still some more couples had to be left out in these analyses. Table 3 contains a summary of the results, table 4 the unadjusted and adjusted deviations for each category in each analysis. Thus the last column of table 4 (adjusted deviation grand mean share female) indicates that in couples where the male partner is studying (education male: still student) the share in cleaning of the female partner is 3% less than the grand mean (88%). However, adjusted for the other variables (that is assuming that the couple is average on the other variables) her share is 26% more than the grand mean.1/

The adjusted deviations of the grand mean of the share of the female partner are graphically presented as well in figure 3. From the analysis results we might conclude that whether or not either partner works is important for the time spent on domestic work as well as for the share of the female partner. When both do not have a paid job a lot of time is spent on housekeeping, when both work full-time (more than 20 hours a week) a lot less than on the average, and when the female partner has a job and her male partner does not work or only part-time less than on the average. When the female partner works about as long as the male (including both not at all) her share in housekeeping is less than on the average. But remember, women tend to work less often and less than men, especially when they have children. Household composition seems to have more impact on the time spent on domestic work than on the share of the female partner. The opinion of the male partner about sharing domestic tasks does not have a large influence on the actual sharing of housekeeping. However, the opinion of the male is closely related to participation in the labour

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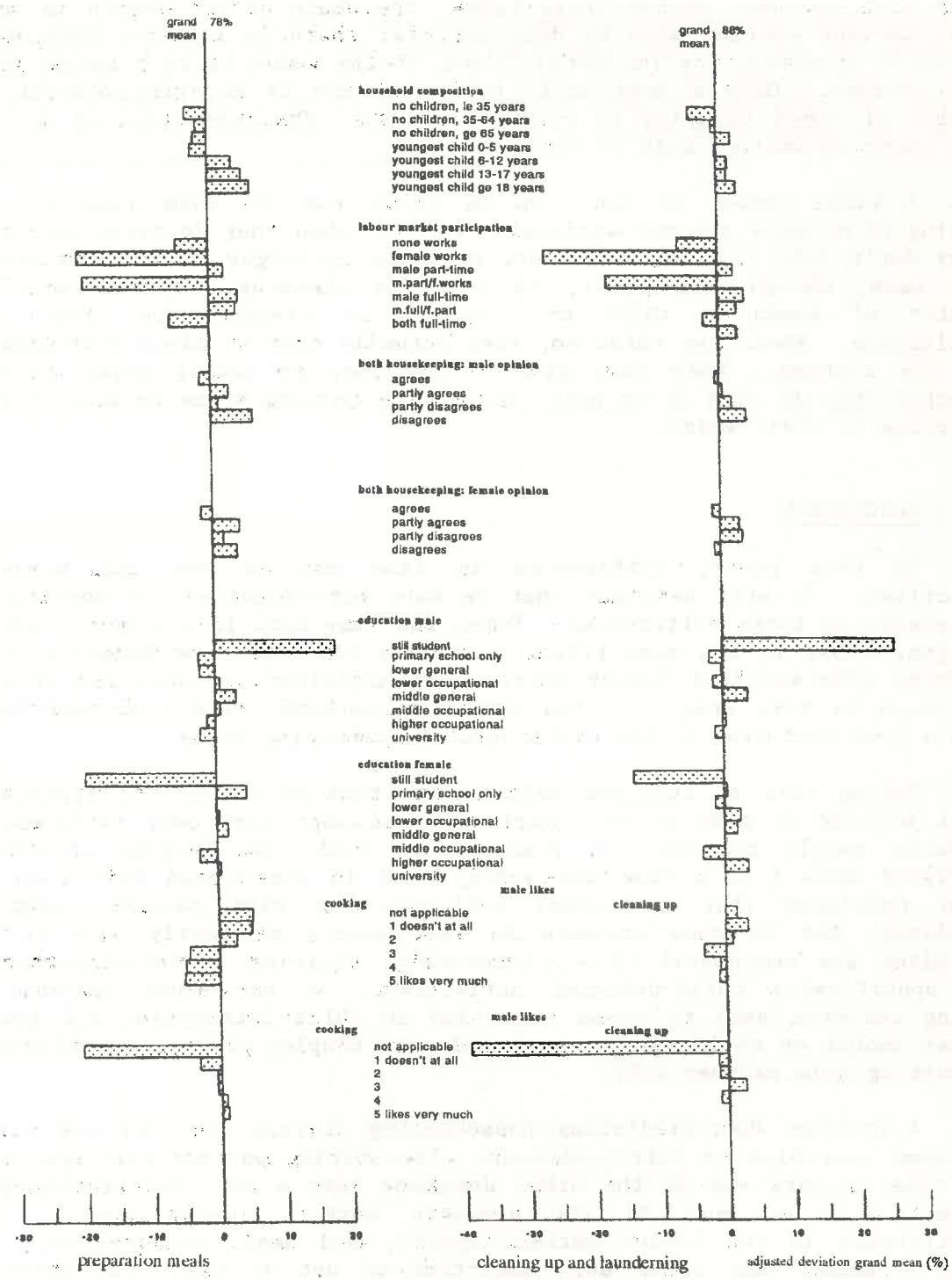
1/ A word of caution may be required here. If the above is true, in an average couple including a studying male, the share of the female partner thus would be 88%+26%=114%. As this is clearly not possible, it shows that such a couple will not be average on other variables: they probably will be young, have no children, the female partner possibly is working, etc. Thus the independent variables are not independent between themselves, especially for small categories. Up and above MCA is particularly appropriate when there is no interaction between independent variables. Actually, there is interaction between household composition and labour market participation (although relatively small as compared to the main effects). So the MCA results are mainly descriptive rather than downright explanatory of what is going on.

Figure 3. Multiple classification analysis share female partner



market by the couple (if both partners are working full-time 84% of the men agree that domestic work should be shared, whereas if only the man works had works full-time only 53% agree), and it is clear that when he agrees that both partners should share tasks, the share of the female is smaller than average whereas when he does not, her share is larger. When the man is still studying, the (adjusted) share of the woman is much larger than on the average. Only a very small number of men is studying however. The number of women studying is somewhat larger. When she still is a student her share is smaller than on the average.

A large number of men seem to think that to them questions about liking of cooking are not applicable (34%). When they do think so, or when they don't like cooking, the share of women is larger than on the average. The same, though less clear, is true for cleaning. Only a very small number of women do think that cooking or cleaning for them is not applicable. When they think so, they actually cook or clean much less than on the average. When they give an opinion, it hardly seems to matter whether they do like it or not: not liking cooking seems to lead to a tiny decrease in their share.

IV. CONCLUSION

15. In this paper, differences in time use of men and women are described. It will be clear that we have not exhausted the possibilities of analyzing these differences. Using the same data in a recent study (Van Roijen, 1989) it has been tried to explain time spent on domestic work by couples from marginal hourly wages. The explained variance was very low, although in this study too the number of working hours from each partner was a good predictor or the division of housekeeping tasks.

Taking care of children mainly is a task of women. It appears they quit working or pass on to a part-time job when they bear children. Our results partly confirm the findings of Nock and Kingston (1988) who analyzed data from a time use survey held in the United States in 1981. They concluded that work does influence the time parents spend with children, but it does so more in the aspects of family life in which children are peripheral (i.e., homemaking, visiting or entertaining) than in specifically child-oriented activities. In our study, parents with young children seem to spend less time on child interaction and about an equal amount on child care as compared with couples with young children and a working male partner only.

A problem when predicting housekeeping division is that the relation to some variables is fairly obvious. The working partner will spend a lot of time on work and if the other does not have a job, she (in almost all cases) will do most of the domestic work. Elderly people do not participate in the labour market anymore, and small children very often have a mother who works only part-time or not at all. The opinion of

especially the male about the division of housekeeping task is closely related to the division of paid jobs by the couple. Sometimes it is hard to find out what is the cause and what is the effect.

Still it remains clear that women work less often and less than men, especially when the couple has small children. Men do some housekeeping, in particular if both partners are working full-time and if the children are very small. Their contribution mainly lies in the area of cooking, washing the dishes and setting the table; cleaning and laundering appears to be a predominantly female task.

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STATISTICS AND INDICATORS ON THE ROLE AND SITUATION OF WOMEN AND MEN: THE SWEDISH APPROACH *

by

Birgitta Hedman[1/]

I. The Work for Equal Opportunity in Sweden

Work to promote equal opportunity is intensive in the whole world. The United Nations Decade for Women, 1975-85, ended with the ratification of strategies up to the year 2000.

In June 1988, the Swedish Parliament adopted a five year Plan of Action for the promotion of equal opportunity. The other Nordic countries also have adopted similar plans. As a complement to the individual national plans, under the direction of the Nordic Council of Ministers, a Nordic five year plan was adopted in 1988.

In Sweden today, there is wide political agreement on the goals of equal opportunity.

In Sweden, equal opportunity denotes that women and men are to have the same rights, the same obligations, and the same opportunities to:

- have gainful employment that accords them financial independence,
- care for children and the home,
- participate in politics, unions, and other societal activities.

Despite that much has been done over the years and that today Sweden does not have any legal obstacles to equality between the sexes, women and men still have very different roles and opportunities in society. The opportunities to promote and realize equality between the sexes differ throughout Sweden.

The traditional sex roles still have a great influence on women's and men's choice of education and occupation. One's sex is often more important than one's interests and talents. This is also true for the way that women and men divide their time between paid work and unpaid work and between political and union participation and participation in other leisure activities.

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* Paper submitted by Statistics Sweden

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During the 1970s and 1980s, women have secured their position in the labour market. In 1988, 85% of all Swedish women and 90% of all Swedish men in the ages 20-64 were in the labour force. However, women and men work in different industries, in different occupations and professions, and work different numbers of hours. These and other factors result in great differences in women's and men's wages and incomes.

Adults are role models for girls' and boys' choices of education and occupation. Habits and expectations from chilhood and youth form the basis of one's adult life.

Girls and boys choose, to a very large extent, sex-segregated education. In upper secondary school, girls choose service, health care, and cultural education and boys choose technical education. This leads to a highly sex-segregated labour force. The natural sciences comprise the major part of the small part of upper secondary school where the sex distribution is approximately equal.

Just as many men as women have homes and children. Nevertheless, the amount of time that men devote to caring for their children and homes is much lower than the amount of time that women devote to their children and homes. Many women have problems combining the responsibility of children and home with paid employment that allows them to support themselves.

Just as many women as men vote in political elections and are members of trades and professional unions. Yet women's representation in decision making bodies is much lower than men's. The percentage women holding positions of leadership in the public and the private sectors is very low.

The Swedish five-year Plan of Action, 1988-1993, includes concrete goals and measures to promote equal opportunity in different areas of society. Efforts will be made to eliminate sex segregation from the labour force and educational institutions. Another important goal is that every individual should have a job paying wages adequate to support her/himself. Differences in income that are the result of sex discrimination or that women's work is valued lower than men's shall be eliminated. Women and men shall share power, influence, and responsibility in all areas of society.

The Nordic Council of Ministers' Plan of Action, 1988-1993, to promote equal opportunity in the Nordic nations has two main themes: the role of women in economic development and the relation between family life and work life. Research, investigations, seminars, and other concrete projects are part of the plan.

II. The Goals of Statistics on Equal Opportunity.

Statistics that cast light on women's and men's situations in different areas of society play an important role in the policy formed to promote equal opportunity. Statistics provide a basis from which problems can be identified

and corrective measures formulated. Factual data allow us to follow developments and evaluate the effects of corrective measures. Statistics also have an important role in forming public opinion.

Statistics Sweden has had extensive contact with other governmental agencies, organizations, politicians, researchers, and others involved in the promotion of equal opportunity to take stock of current interests and determine statistical needs. The need for statistics on women and men is great and encompasses many areas of society. The users of these statistics are also highly diverse. Representatives from all levels of government, private companies, organizations, the mass media, teachers, students, researchers, etc. want detailed information on many topics. The importance of seeing the relationship between work life and family life, between work in the labour force and unpaid work in the home has been given special emphasis. Many users need data for the regional and local levels.

The following are statistics Sweden's goals for the production of statistics on women and men.

A. To quickly be able to answer the following important questions with official statistics.

a. Use of time:

How do women and men distribute their time between work in the labour force, unpaid work in the home, and leisure activities?

b. Work that enables an individual to support her/himself:

What types of education do women and men have?
What types of occupations do women and men have?
To what extent do women and men work full-time or part-time in the labour force and at what time of day or night is the work done?
How much power do women and men wield at work?
What incomes do women and men have?
What value is attached to the work that women and men do?
How strong is the relationship between education- occupation-wage for women and men?
What types of work environments do women and men have?
What types and amounts of pensions do women and men have?
How are women and men affected by changes in the public sector?

c. Care of home and children:

What is the family composition?
How much responsibility do women and men take for the care of the home and children?

To what extent do women and men use their rights to maternity/paternity leave?

What are the components of our total care of children?

d. Participation in politics, unions, and other societal activities:

To what extent do women and men wield power and exercise influence in society?

e. Other important areas:

What level of health do women and men experience? How does society provide for aged women and men?

B. To provide a statistical basis from which programmes and other efforts can be evaluated.

The Swedish Plan of Action contains concrete goals and corrective measures. We need 'statistics to be able to follow new developments and evaluate our progress. In some cases, special authorities are given the responsibility of producing regular follow-up statistics.

The following are important target areas where facts are needed:

A reduction in the number of educational tracts in upper secondary schools and at university that are highly sex-segregated. And a reduction in the number of school drop-outs. An improved sex ratio among school principals and directors of studies.

A reduction in the number of totally sex-segregated jobs and an increase in the number of jobs with an equal sex distribution.

An improved sex ratio within the hierarchy system of various jobs.

The difference between the average number of hours worked by women and men should be no greater than 4.5 hours a week by 1993.

Government-owned companies must increase the percentage of women at all levels in the company and in their boards of directors. The measures taken to achieve this end will be reported to the government each year.

All companies shall annually report the number of female and managerial positions.

Since 1984, each county has been responsible for reporting the trends and developments for women in the labour force and in the education system.

The within county and between county differences in women's and men's labour force participation should be decreased. No later than 1991, day-care run by the municipality should be available to every child from the time the child is 18 months old.

An increase in the percentage of men who take care of children during protracted periods and who exercise their right to reduced working hours to care for their children.

The consequences for a family's financial situation when the parents take the different forms of leave that Swedes are legally entitled to, should be highlighted.

To help increase the percentage of women serving on governmental committees, boards, councils, and commissions, the public sector must report its progress annually. A governmental agency will report for the state level and the county councils will report on the regional levels.

In 1984, the United Nations published special guidelines for statistics and indicators that focus on the role and situation of women. The United Nations strategies up to the year 2000, adopted in Nairobi in 1985, emphasize the importance of basing policies and measures on a more solid foundation. Statistics and research on women's and men's different situations in different countries is considered an extremely important basis on which to base decisions. The U. N. strategies and guidelines for the production of statistics on women and men are important even for Sweden.

The statistics should be: goal oriented, timely, broken down by sex, have a high degree of accuracy, and be produced regularly.

The U. N. strategies state that the unpaid work should be identified in all sectors, measured, and reflected in the economic statistics and Gross National Product (GNP). Special attention should be paid to the unpaid work in the production of food, household chores, and reproduction.

Within the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE), member countries have tried to adhere to the U. N. strategies by participating in a co-operative effort in producing statistics that focus on the role and situation of women. The program includes activities to:

Improve the measurement of women's participation in the labour force.

Define and measure work performed by women and men in the informal sector.

Measure and attach an economic value to work in the home.

Conduct time use studies.

Conduct life cycle studies which reflect women's and men's demographic and economic situations; conduct cohort and other longitudinal analyses and studies of social mobility.

Work out definitions and classifications of the household and the family so that both women's and men's situations can be highlighted by statistics.

Produce statistics and indicators necessary for implementing, following up, and evaluating the U. N. strategies for the ECE member countries.

C. To provide economic forecasts that guide the planning of work that promotes equal opportunity.

The five year plan states that governmental reports should consider the effects that their suggestions have on the promotion of equal opportunity. This makes it even more important to have detailed official statistics broken down by sex.

The plan also states that the distribution of economic resources between women and men should be watched continually and reported annually in budget proposals.

Knowledge about how the infrastructure affects equal opportunity is insufficient at present. For this reason, pilot projects are being initiated in three municipalities in different parts of Sweden. Differences in women's and men's situation on the labour market, etc., will be analyzed. During a five year period, co-ordinating efforts will be made for labour market issues, education issues, collective traffic issues, social services, the length of time different functions are held open, the number of women at different levels, etc.

D. To make statistics accessible for all types of users and for the documentation of social conditions for posterity.

The need for statistics on women and men is great and covers many areas of society. Despite that a lot of information already exists, both raw data on tapes and statistics in publications, it is often difficult and time-consuming for a user to get a perspective on the information that is available and retrieve that information. Statistics are produced regularly only in certain areas, for example, population statistics, education statistics, labor force statistics, income statistics, and child care statistics.

The goal is to regularly produce combined statistics that focus on equal opportunity and that appeal to the needs of different users. For instance, there is a place for both short publications presenting basic facts on equal opportunity and other publications that are more detailed and analytical.

Other ways of disseminating statistics can also be used, for example, exhibits, courses, lectures, and information flyers.

The goal is to have funding for a group who is knowledgeable in both questions of equal opportunity and the availability of statistics. This group can answer questions from different types of users, mediate contacts, and give suggestions about how different types of user needs can be met. Publications important for the promotion of equal opportunity, analyses of common interest, and educational materials should be given regular funding.

E. To produce statistics with the right quality, at the right time, and for the lowest possible costs.

Users demand that the statistics include variables of interest to them, but also that the statistics are presented in an easily accessible fashion. This often entails simple tables and diagrams, complemented with some analysis.

The demands for small-area statistics, for example, counties and municipalities, are increasing.

III. The Current Production of Statistics

Equal opportunity statistics are cross-disciplinary and in this way differ from other subject matter areas. The data for equal opportunity statistics are collected by many different subject matter areas and are then presented in publications which focus on equal opportunity.

Since 1983-84, Statistics Sweden has had a special unit for the production of equal opportunity statistics. This unit takes inventory of users' needs for statistics on equal opportunity. Within Statistics Sweden, the unit functions as a think tank, an organizer, and an impetus, and also is responsible for the marketing, and dissemination of equal opportunity statistics, and even for the production of some commissioned statistics. At the present, our activities correspond in work-hours to about three full-time employees.

We have a small summary publication (a facts booklet in a very small format) that gives the most basic information about the situation of women and men. The first version was published in 1984 and an English language update entitled "Women and Men in Sweden, Facts and Figures, Equal Opportunity, Know Your Facts" was presented at the U. N. conference in Nairobi in 1985. In 1987 we published a more extensive and highly detailed document entitled "Women's and Men's Worlds, Facts About Equal Opportunity in Sweden 1986." This document reflects the questions and concerns about equal opportunity that came to the forefront during the 1980s.

"Equal Opportunity? Read, Write, and Reason" is an educational material for students in upper elementary school, i.e., grades 6,7, and 8. This document is meant to make children aware of their own sex-role choices and help reduce the sex-segregation in upper secondary school. This document can be used in instruction in mathematics, social studies, and in guidance and career counselling.

"Women and Men in the Nordic Countries, Facts About Equal Opportunity 1988" is the result of a co-operative effort among the Nordic statistical agencies under the auspices of Nordic Council of Ministers. This book has essentially the same format and presentation as "Women's and Men's Worlds."

The need for regional statistics is great. Statistics Sweden is currently involved in research on the optimal way of reporting on important variables at the regional level.

We are also studying ways of describing the distribution of power and influence in different areas of society.

Discussions are also in progress on the need to produce factual information on the role of men to help change the role of men in society.

Within Statistics Sweden, there has been an increased awareness of the need to produce statistics that are broken down by sex. In certain cases, this has led to the production of special publications.

Over the last decade, the demand for speakers who can lecture on equal opportunity at courses and seminars has increased greatly. The audience can be anything from school children to university students to politicians, governmental agencies, private companies, etc.

An exhibit with facts on equal opportunity "Talking about women and Men" was produced in the spring of 1984. From 1984-85 to 1986-87, the five copies were rented out to 60 customers from different target groups in all corners of Sweden.

The Unit for Equal Opportunity Statistics has the main responsibility for Statistics Sweden's participation in Women's fairs and other types of conferences concentrating on equal opportunity issues. This participation has meant that equal opportunity statistics have gained an unusually wide dissemination and Statistics Sweden made itself known to nontraditional groups of users of statistics.

The Unit conducts, on a commission basis, large sample surveys and data analysis. These, for example, can entail investigating women's and men's situations in different geographic areas which will then serve as the grounds for an authority's or a company's work to promote equal opportunity.

IV. The Need for Change

In general, work with equal opportunity statistics should be conducted with the same emphasis and in the same form as we have done up to now. Section II reviews what we consider to be the important questions of the 1980s and 1990s. Without factual information, intelligent discussions and decisions are not possible. The following section discusses the activities and efforts necessary to illuminate the questions enumerated in Section II.

There is much left to be done before the data needs discussed in Section II are completely met. The reason for this is that much information is not presented in the right way, not broken down by sex, or simply does not exist.

Efforts must be made in the following areas:

A. Content

a. Statistics broken down by sex

A basic requirement is that statistics on individuals are reported by sex. At present, Statistics Sweden has no idea which of its statistics are not reported by sex and which have data collection by sex, but not reported in the final publication.

This sort of inventory should be done accompanied by an estimate of the resources that would be needed to present these statistics by sex.

b. Invisible areas

Today, statistics on a number of important areas are not available. Some of these are the following: time use statistics (the unpaid and paid work, leisure activities, etc.); men and their role as parents; power and influence; the relationship between education-work-earnings; the work environment; the value placed on different types of work; women and men's visibility in the mass media.

These areas must be described so that official plans and programmes can be effectively executed and evaluated.

The unpaid work, which to a great extent is done by women, must be made visible. Use of time studies are a necessary basis for analyzing the distribution of paid and unpaid work between women and men and for studying the economic importance of work in the home and volunteer work in society. Making the unpaid work visible makes it possible to look at the transactions between the formal and informal economies. The U. N. strategies up to the year 2000 require that all work, both paid and unpaid, be identified, measured, and included in economic statistics and the GNP Statistics Sweden is currently planning a time use study to be conducted in 1990/91.

B. Analysis and presentation of statistics

The analysis and presentation of statistics must be tailored for special groups of users. If statistics are to be disseminated to various groups of users, it cannot be presented in just the traditional publications. In addition to the larger publications, smaller summary publications, single page fact sheets, publications with less complex analyses, press releases, and articles in newspapers and journals are necessary. Information must also be disseminated via diskettes, exhibits, conferences, fairs, courses, seminars, and workshops.

a. The total picture

A basis of regular official statistics that describes the current situation and changes in the progress towards equal opportunity is needed. To meet international and international demands for indicator of (in) equality, these statistics should be published at least every third year. The presentation should encompass the main questions listed in Section 2 and be in the form of summary statistics. A new "Talking About Women and Men, Summary Statistics on Equal Opportunity" should be published in 1990. An English translation should also be done to provide information to other nations.

"Women's and Men's Worlds, Facts About Equal Opportunity 1986" has provided a more detailed analysis of women and men's situations in different areas of society and has highlighted certain patterns and relationships. An updated edition of this book should be published in 1991/92.

b. Special studies

Special studies should be conducted and presented in separate publications. These studies are needed to describe:

The distribution of power and influence,
men and the male sex role,
the relationship between education-work-earnings,
the value placed on work,
young people's choice of education and occupation.

c. Exhibits

The exhibit with basic facts about equal opportunity constructed in 1984 has been in great demand. A new exhibit with updated data should be produced. One idea is that the new exhibit be printed on posters which can then be sold.

C. Special needs

To adjust equal opportunity statistics to different needs requires a close co-operation between the users and producers of these statistics.

a. Regional statistics

Statistics Sweden plays an important role in both the production and analysis of data on the regional and local levels. Statistics Sweden is involved in one project, commissioned by the government, in which the county authorities have a certain responsibility to improve women's positions in the education system and on the labour market. Thus far, the work at the county level has not completely succeeded in producing meaningful statistics that can be used to highlight problems and suggest corrective measures. Regular statistics on the supply of labour (for example, broken down by age, education, mobility, and obstacles preventing one from working) and on the demand for labour (for example, place of work, industry, occupational category, and work hours) are badly needed.

New ways of producing and presenting statistics should be tried. For example:

A guide to regional statistics should be published.
Basic statistics on equal opportunity in all counties should be produced on a commission basis.
The possibility of producing regional summary statistics sheets is being looked into.
Statistics Sweden participates by giving lectures at conferences and workshops.
Special efforts are being made in the three pilot municipalities where co-ordination activities are made in accordance with the official Plan of Action (see Section 2).

b. The education system

Schools are an important part of the work to promote equal opportunity. Schools have an increasing need for statistics on equal opportunity. Educational material is needed for all levels in the educational system, from teachers' training courses to preschool classes to upper secondary levels.

One book on equal opportunity has already been produced for grades 6, 7, and 8. After this book is evaluated, it should be revised and other educational materials developed for pupils in other grades.

In addition to publishing educational materials, Statistics Sweden can participate in educational activities, for example, workshops, courses for teachers, and in the school classes per se.

c. Work to promote internal equal opportunity at government agencies, private companies, and other organizations.

All of the above named institutions and organizations need data on their own internal structures in order to work towards equal opportunity. A person's willingness to work for equal opportunity is greatly influenced by her or his knowledge of equal opportunity in today's society and the effect that it has on an individual's life.

Statistics Sweden's summary statistics and publications presenting more detailed analyses together provide a complete picture of the society and its developments serve as a point of departure for internal equal opportunity work. Statistics Sweden can also give a company or an agency advice about how to conduct its internal work for equal opportunity as well as describe and analyze the degree of equal opportunity that a work-place has achieved.

The first step is always to produce basic statistics, broken down by sex, age, wage, education, and job description and level of authority. A governmental agency that is responsible for equal opportunity work for employees in government has recommended that Statistics Sweden produce these basic statistics annually for every governmental agency, county by county.

D. Nordic co-operation

Nordic co-operative activities in the production of statistics on equal opportunity began in 1984. We now have a five-year plan for the production of statistics that support the Nordic activities to promote equal opportunity. The Nordic countries also cooperate in producing statistics for programmes conducted under the auspices of the Economic Commission of Europe (ECE), see Section 2. Among other things, we are working on a common, revised recommendation for indicators.

E. Other international work

Statistics Sweden's work with equal opportunity statistics has aroused international attention. The publications of summary statistics have been a model for publications in other countries. In addition to the work with the ECE program, Statistics Sweden does consulting in developing countries to aid these countries in producing and presenting statistics on equal opportunity.

F. Methods, definitions, and classifications

Current methods, definitions, and classifications are not always relevant for describing women and men's situations in society.

Occupational classifications must be reviewed to better mirror the diversity of the female dominated jobs.

Many surveys done at Statistics Sweden do not produce data that is truly comparable because of varying definitions of children, family, household, age groups, etc.

Methods of valuing the unpaid work should be developed and then used in the upcoming time use studies.

V. Statistical Publications on Equal Opportunity Statistics.

a. In Swedish:

Talking About Women and Men, Summary Statistics on Equal Opportunity 1984.

Technicians of the Future, Women and Men 1985.

Women's and Men's Worlds, Facts About Equal Opportunity in Sweden 1986.

Equal Opportunity? Read, Write, and Reason, Educational material 1987.

Talking About Men and Women, Summary Statistics on Equal Opportunity 1987.

Women and Men in the Nordic Countries, Facts About Equal Opportunity 1988.

Women and Men in Higher Education, Educational Statistics 1984.

Women and Men; Educated Today, Working Tomorrow 1986.

Women and Men in the Labour Market 1986.

Women's and Men's Wages 1986.

Women's Rights, Statistics and Thoughts About Women and Crime 1986.

b. In English:

Women and Men in Sweden, Facts and Figures, Equal Opportunity, Know Your Facts 1985.

Women and Men in the Nordic Countries 1985.

Women and Men in the Labour Market 1986.

Wages and Salaries of Women and Men 1986.

CHAPTER IV

CONTRIBUTIONS FROM INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

WOMEN IN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY *

by

Adriana Mata

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to outline the different principles embodied in the international standards on the measurement of the economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment adopted by the 13th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in 1982. These standards establish various criteria for classifying a person in economic activity, in the context of a short or a long reference period.

These standards revise the earlier standards, adopted by the 8th ICLS in 1954, with a view to improve in particular the identification of persons in atypical employment situations, such as persons helping in a family business or farms and persons who because of their age, sex, or family role, are generally considered to be mainly students, homemakers or retired persons, regardless of whether they are involved in economic activities, or whether they dedicate much of their time to economic activities.

This paper concentrates on the implication of the present standards for the measurement of women's economic activities. Women workers are in general more difficult to identify than men workers because of the type of work they carry out and the role generally associated to them. Women workers are engaged more commonly than men in home-based, unpaid and informal sector activities. Their work may be confused with their other non-economic activities, or may go unrecorded due to its unstable nature. Furthermore, women's usual role as homeworkers generate sex-based stereotypes, which hinder working women from being considered in economic activity by other persons and by women themselves. Given this combination of factors, even though the international standards are free from sex-biases, in practice, respondents or interviewers may tend to exclude women engaged in this type of activities from economic activity.

The results of two Methodological household surveys carried out in 1983 in Kerala, India and Costa Rica, will be presented for illustration purposes. The main objective of these surveys was to test the measurement of the various concepts defined in the present standards. They used different questionnaires which were applied to a random sample of chosen areas. The samples are not representative of the countries and the results therefore are not necessarily estimates of the general situation of the country.

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* Paper submitted by the International Labour Office, Bureau of Statistics

The paper examines the concept of employment (Chapter 2), unemployment (Chapter 3), underemployment and employment in the informal sector (Chapter 4). Finally, Chapter 5 presents the conclusion of the paper.

2. THE MEASUREMENT OF EMPLOYMENT

2.1 Work for one hour. The concept of employment includes persons who during a brief reference period (of one day or one week) performed some work. Such work is to be carried out for pay, profit or family gain. The standards state that for operational purposes "some work" can be understood as work for at least one hour. Thus any person, including unpaid family workers, working at least one hour during a reference week is to be considered in employment. This represents a difference from the former standards, which included unpaid family workers only when they worked at least one third of the normal working time during the reference week.

The results of the methodological surveys show that the variation in the definition had a small effect over employment (see Annex). In both countries, the inclusion of unpaid family workers working less than one third of the normal working hours (here considered to be 15 hours), only increased the employed population by 1 per cent. Even though the effect of this group of workers was small, in Costa Rica the increase in the employed population was slightly higher among women (1,5 per cent) than among men (0,4 per cent). In Kerala the opposite was true (0,8 and 1 per cent respectively).

2.2 Formal attachment to the job. The concept of employment also covers persons who during the reference week did not perform any work, but who had a job or enterprise from which they were temporarily absent. The international standards make a distinction between persons in paid and in self-employment. For paid employees not at work during the reference week, the criterion of formal attachment to the job was introduced. Formal job attachment is to be measured by the continued receipt of wage or salary, and/or an assurance of return to work or an agreement as to the date of return, and/or the elapsed duration of absence from the job. The combination of these criteria and the limit to duration of absence are not specified, and should be determined according to national circumstances. Self-employed workers on the other side, may be absent for any specific reason and still be considered in employment.

In Costa Rica,[1/] among those who declared to be absent from a job with question: "Although you did not work, did you have a job from which you were absent?", many were receiving a salary while absent (69 per cent), and most had been absent four weeks or less (92 per cent). Assurance to return to work seemed to be the key question for determining absence from work, because all (100 per cent) were sure of returning to the job. The share of women among those absent from work, as well as among those at work, was not very high (30 and 31 per cent respectively, see Annex).

1/ In Kerala, there were no employees absent from a job.

2.3 Persons in marginal activities. The present standards link the concept of economic activity to the concept of production as set in the United Nations System of national accounts (SNA). According to this System, "production" includes all production of goods and services intended for the market and certain types of own account production, namely the production of primary products (agricultural activities), the processing of primary products by the persons who produce them (e.g., processing of food), the production of fixed assets (e.g., construction of households), and the production of any other type of goods and services when a part of this production is intended for the market. In this context, the present standards include in employment persons engaged in the production of goods and services for own and household consumption, provided this production represents an important contribution to the total household consumption. Thus, persons who only keep a small field in the backyard are not considered in economic activity, while persons who produce the beans and corn for daily eating are; those involved in drying the beans that they produce are also considered economically active, as well as persons who construct their own house are in employment; however, persons who repair it are not. Finally, persons who make clothes to sell and who also make clothes for the family members, are considered as employed during the latter activity.

The correct measurement of employment requires the inclusion of all workers engaged in any type of economic activities, regardless of whether they are considered by others or by themselves as economically inactive. The measurement instrument should therefore be independent of the preconceived ideas that respondents or interviewers may have. Conventional questions of the type, "Did you work during the reference period?" may not necessarily be answered appropriately because the term "work" has an implicit social connotation to which persons engaged in these kind of activities may not be identified. Persons should be explicitly asked whether they are engaged in a series of specific activities. Because these activities are seen as being on the borderline of economic activity they are commonly termed "marginal activities".

A measurement instrument to detect marginal activities was applied in the Methodological surveys (Figure 1). A list of activities (called "Activity list") was included in the questionnaire to detect persons who answered negatively to the question "Did you work last week". In Costa Rica, it was applied to those who also answered negatively to the question "Although you did not work, did you have a job or enterprise from which you were absent?". In both countries, workers producing for the market were registered in the list and considered in employment, regardless of whether they also produced for own account. On the other side, the treatment of workers producing only for own account differed. In Kerala, workers whose production represented at least 10 per cent of the total consumption of this good in the household were registered as employed. In Costa Rica all persons who declared to be engaged in one of the activities listed were registered, but only those who dedicated 15 hours or more to these activities were considered in employment.

Figure 1. ACTIVITY LIST

in Kerala

- Growing or attending: coconuts, paddy, tapioca , other vegetables or fruits, other crops; engaged in activities related to: livestock and livestock products, poultry or poultry products; other agriculture or mining activities, including hunting, forestry or fishing;

- Hand pounding; curing and preserving fish; making copra and crushing; other food processing activities; retting coconut husk or making coir fiber; making and repairing fishing nets; making baskets, mats or other handicrafts; spinning, weaving, dressmaking or tailoring; other manufacturing activities;

- Construction, repair or maintenance of farm buildings, own dwellings; other construction activities; engaged in tea shops, street vending, etc; assisting in sales of agriculture products and other retail trades; carrying loads to market or for storage; other transport activities; operating informal chit funds; other financial activities; giving tuition to students; repair services (tools, shoes, etc.) collection of firewood, fetching water and other services.

in Costa Rica

- Preparing the land, planting, cultivating or gathering sugar cane, coffee, beans, yucca, fruits, vegetables, raising cattle, poultry, etc., producing milk, eggs, etc. other agriculture/mining activities, including hunting, forestry and fishing;

- Processing of food products; manufacture of baskets, tapestries, mats; manufacture of spinning, fabrics, clothing other manufacturing activities;

- Construction, repair, maintenance of barns, own house or dwellings, etc.; helping in the sale/distribution of food/beverages; helping in the sale of agricultural products and in other establishments of retail trade; transporting loads for marketing and storing; other transport activities; repairing tools, shoes, etc.; collecting wood, fetching water, other services.

The inclusion of the activity list increased the employed population by 4 per cent in Costa Rica and by 9 per cent in Kerala (see Annex). In both countries the increase was greater for women (18 and 8 per cent in Costa Rica and Kerala respectively), than for men (4 and 2 per cent). This is understandable, given the traditional role of homeworkers commonly associated to women.

The present standards also state that persons mainly engaged in non-economic activities who worked during the reference period should be considered in employment. The results from the surveys show that persons who are usually inactive during the year were well captured, particularly through the inclusion of the activity list. When workers in marginal activities were not considered in employment, 10 per cent of the currently employed persons were usually inactive during the year in Costa Rica. When including workers in marginal activities, the percentage increased to 13 per cent. In Kerala, the increase was similar : 3 and 6 per cent. In both cases, the effect of the activity list was greater for women than for men: the percentage of usually inactive persons among the employed increased from 6 to 7 per cent among men in Costa Rica, and from 20 to 27 per cent among women in Kerala; the figures were 2 to 3 per cent and 6 to 20 per cent respectively.

3. THE MEASUREMENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT

The international standards propose two definitions of unemployment, based on the criteria of being without work, i.e., not employed, seeking work and available for work. Seeking work is measured through steps taken to seek paid or self-employment during a specified recent period. Availability for work is based on the notions of desire to work, previous work experience, willingness to take up work for wage or salary on locally prevailing terms, or readiness to undertake a self-employment activity given the necessary resources and facilities.

3.1 Strict unemployment. A first definition proposed by the international standards is similar to the previous definition of unemployment, and includes persons who were not in employment during the reference week, were seeking and available for work. The methodological surveys measured strict unemployment in different ways. In Costa Rica, an initial question on steps to seek work was followed by a question on availability, and in Kerala, the question on availability was followed by the question on steps to seek work (Figure 2).

Figure 2. STRICT UNEMPLOYMENT

in Costa Rica

50. Last month, did you look for salaried job or try to establish your own establishment or business?

51. What did you do last month to look for work or to establish your own establishment or business?

- Contacted employment office; contacted employers; went to the workplaces, farms, etc.; contacted friends, family, etc.; placed advertisement or answered offers appearing in the newspapers;

- Looked for land, buildings, etc. to establish own business or enterprise; looked for finances to establish own business or eterprise; asked for a permit or license to establish own business or enterprise; other.

52. Could you have started to work last week?

in Kerala:

40. Was s(he) available for work during the last 7 days?

45. What specific steps has s(he) taken during last year to seek paid or self-employment?

- Registered with public or private employment exchange; applied to prospective employers; checked at work sites, farms, factory gates, markets or other assembly places; placed or answered advertisements; sought assistance of friends or relatives;

- Looked for land building, machinery or equipment for setting up own enterprise; arranged for financial resources; applied for permit or license; other steps.

The measurement of strict unemployment produced an unemployment rate of 12 per cent in Costa Rica and 19 per cent in Kerala (see Annex). In both countries the female unemployment rate was higher than the male rate (15 per cent for women and 11 per cent for men in Costa Rica, 22 and 17 per cent respectively in Kerala). Most persons in strict unemployment were, however, men (63 per cent in Costa Rica, 52 per cent in Kerala).

3.2 Broad definition of unemployment. The relaxed definition of unemployment proposed by the standards respond to the need of reflecting the reality in countries where the labour market is structured in such a way that seeking work is not common or necessary for obtaining work. In these cases, the international standards proposed to relax the seeking work criterion, thus increasing the relative importance of the availability criterion.

A relaxed measure of unemployment can include some persons who were available for work but did not seek work for reasons linked to the labour market. Such is the case of persons who are discouraged from seeking work because they believe there is no work available, persons waiting to receive a reply from a potential employer, persons waiting for the agricultural season or those who did not know how to look for work. It can also include other persons who did not seek work for personal reasons, such as persons who are studying, persons with family responsibilities, and persons who are sick.

The methodological surveys inquired on the reasons for not seeking work (Figure 3) among those declaring to be willing or available to work. In Costa Rica, 33 per cent did not seek work for reasons linked to the market (see Annex), most of whom believed there was no work available or did not know how to look for work. The other 67 per cent did not seek work for other reasons, such as for family reasons (29 per cent). In Kerala most persons who did not seek work believed there was no work available (70 per cent).

Figure 3. REASONS FOR NOT SEEKING WORK

in Costa Rica:

- Sickness or accident; went to school; had family or personal duties;
- Waits to be reintegrated to work; waits response from employers; waits peak agricultural season; has already found work; believes there is no work available in the region; does not know how to look for work; other reason.

in Kerala:

- Attending school; engaged in household duties;
- laid off, waiting for recall to work; waiting replies from prospective employers; believes no suitable work available in area; don't know how to proceed to seek work; other reason.

It was of interest to know if these persons would enter employment or begin to actively seek work (here termed the strict labour force) sometime in the future. The methodological survey in Costa Rica was carried out during four consecutive months to the same group of households. Household members who looked for work and those who did not but were available for work in the first month, were followed to verify if they entered the labour force sometime in the following three months. Results show that many persons in strict unemployment remained in the strict labour force (76 per cent) in the following months. On the other side, very few persons not seeking work for personal reasons entered the strict labour force in the following three months (21 per cent). The number of persons entering the strict labour force was higher among persons not seeking work for reasons linked to the market, such as those waiting a reply from potential employers (50 per cent), those awaiting the agricultural peak season (100 per cent), and those who believed there was no work available (56 per cent). It was not so high among those who did not know how to seek work (22 per cent) and those who did not seek work for other reasons (11 per cent). Persons not seeking work for personal reasons seem to differ from those not seeking work for reasons linked to the market or with those actively seeking work, with respect to their willingness

or possibilities to engage in economic activity. Under these circumstances, an appropriate relaxed definition of unemployment may include only persons who did not seek work for specific reasons linked to the labour market.

If a broad unemployment definition includes only those persons who did not seek work for reasons linked to the labour market, the unemployment rate increases from 19 to 25 per cent in Kerala, and from 12 to 20 per cent in Costa Rica. The unemployment rate increases from 19 to 25 per cent in Kerala, and from 12 to 20 per cent in Costa Rica. The unemployment rate is again higher for women than for men (26 per cent of women and 24 per cent for men in Kerala, and 31 and 14 per cent respectively in Costa Rica). The sex composition of the unemployed population in Costa Rica also varies with the introduction of the non-seekers: the proportion of women increases, to represent more than half of the unemployed (53 per cent). In Kerala, however, the proportion of women decreases (to 42 per cent).

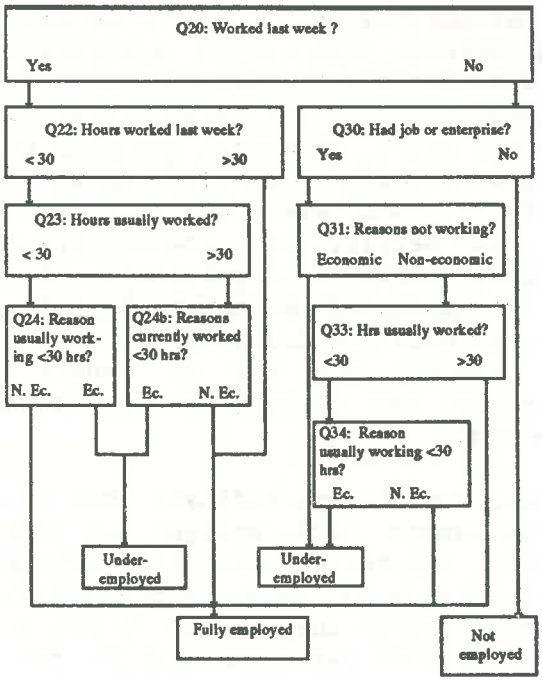
4. VISIBLE UNDEREMPLOYMENT AND THE INFORMAL SECTOR

4.1 Visible underemployment. Visible underemployment is a measure of underutilization of resources. The concept of employment, which includes all persons working one hour or more during a reference week, combines a broad group of people with different intensities of employment. The concept of visible underemployment thus refines the measurement of employment, by identifying those workers who are involuntarily working less than the normal duration of time, and are seeking or available for additional work.

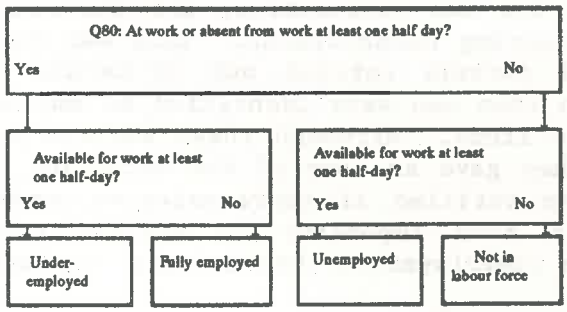
The concept of visible underemployment was measured in the methodological surveys, based on questions of hours actually worked, hours usually worked and the reasons for working short hours (Figure 4). A complementary measurement was carried out using a labour time disposition table, which inquired on the economic activity (at work, not at work, available for work, not available for work) of every half day of the week (Figure 4). The two measurement instruments identified different sets of persons in visible underemployment. Only 68 per cent of the workers in Costa Rica and 38 per cent in Kerala were identified as underemployed by both methods simultaneously (see Annex). In general, the economic and demographic characteristics of the underemployed deleted by the labour time disposition table were closer to those identified as underemployed by the two methods simultaneously. Because of this, in the absence of alternative methodologies to measure the same concept, it would seem more appropriate to use the labour time disposition table. Regarding the composition by sex, underemployment measured by conventional questions in Kerala and by both methods in Costa Rica, show a higher share of women among the underemployed (41 and 33 per cent with the conventional questions and the labour time disposition table in Costa Rica, 43 and 29 per cent in Kerala), than among total employment (31 per cent in Costa Rica, 40 per cent in Kerala). The labour time disposition table permitted to estimate the amount of time that the visibly underemployed were available for additional work. In Costa Rica, women were available more days than men (3,3 days during the reference week versus 3.0 days); in Kerala, the opposite was true (1,2 days versus 1,8 days).

Figure 4. DEFINITION OF UNDEREMPLOYMENT

conventional questions



labour time disposition table



4.2 Employment in the informal sector. The 13th ICLS recommended that methodologies be developed to identify the workers engaged in the informal sector. The 14th ICLS in 1987 discussed a working paper on the subject, which stated two principles for defining this concept. First, the informal sector is a characteristic of the place of work and not of the workers. Second, this sector is characterized by its small-scale activities, low level of organization and of technology.

The methodological surveys measured non-agricultural employment in the informal sector. All persons working in unregistered establishments were included, as well as those persons working in registered establishment with at least one similar characteristic to the unregistered establishments. In Costa Rica these characteristics were: no social security coverage, no invoicing of the sale of goods and services, use of manual power to operate the manufacturing establishments, and small number of workers (the number varies with the industry). In Kerala, the characteristics were: no license requirement, no external audit, non-existence of a pension scheme, no invoicing of the sale of goods and services, no paid leave, small number of workers (the number varies with the industry, low value of tools and equipment (under 5,000 indian Rupees), and use of manual power to operate the establishment. Registration was defined as registration under a legislative or professional group's act.

In both countries, the results indicate that 48 per cent of the workers in non-agricultural employment were engaged in the informal sector (see Annex). Women were more important among the informal sector workers than among total employment (in Costa Rica, women represented 49 per cent of employment in the informal sector compared to 30 per cent of total employment; in Kerala, the figures are 48 per cent and 37 per cent). This was more evident among workers in unregistered establishments, who had a higher share of women (56 per cent in Costa Rica, 50 percent in Kerala).

5. CONCLUSIONS

The present international standards on the measurement of the economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment, have clearly improved the measurement of female economic activity, particularly through the incorporation of an activity list to detect persons engaged in production for own consumption, and the relaxation of the seeking work criterion for measuring unemployment. This was confirmed by the results of two methodological surveys carried out in Kerala and Costa Rica, which showed that more women than men were identified in employment and unemployment when introducing these items. Although these surveys were not representative of their countries, they gave an idea of the situation of women in the labour market, which could be verified if representative surveys were carried out: women were relatively more important in visible underemployment, in the informal sector and in unemployment, than in total employment.

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ANNEX MAIN RESULTS OF THE METHODOLOGICAL SURVEYS

	Costa Rica			Kerala		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Employment						
Total employment	665	458	207	317	190	127
who are usually inactive	87	31	56	31	6	25
1. at work at least one hour	598	419	179	275	177	98
who are unpaid family workers	51	34	17	14	8	6
working < 15 hours	5	2	3	3	2	1
2. self-employed absent from work	14	9	5	16	6	10
3. paid employed absent from job	26	19	7	-	-	-
who are: sure of returning	26	19	7	-	-	-
receiving salary	18	12	6	-	-	-
absent 4 weeks or less	24	17	7	-	-	-
4. workers in marginal activities	27	11	16	26	7	19
who are usually inactive	20	5	15	20	3	17
Unemployment						
1. Seeking and available	89	56	33	75	39	36
who are usually inactive	26	10	16	11	5	6
who stayed in labour force	68	38	19	-	-	-
unemployment rate	12	11	15	19	17	22
2. Available but not seeking	143	28	115	33	22	11
2.1. for labour market reasons	72	19	53	31	22	9
waiting reply from employers	8	4	4	-	-	-
waiting peak agricultural season	1	-	1	-	-	-
believed no work available	27	7	20	23	16	7
did not know how to seek	18	6	12	8	6	2
other	18	2	16	-	-	-
who are usually inactive	55	9	46	3	1	2
who returned to labour force	26	11	15	-	-	-
unemployment rate	20	14	31	25	24	26
2.2. for personal reasons	71	9	62	2	-	2
sickness	10	1	9	-	-	-
school	21	5	16	-	-	-
family	40	3	37	2	-	2
who are usually inactive	64	7	57	2	-	2
who returned to labour force	15	2	13	-	-	-
Visible underemployment						
1. conventional questions	69	41	28	56	32	24
2. labour time disposition table	63	42	21	49	35	14
3. both methods simultaneously	47	29	18	21	15	6
4. quantum of underemployment.	3.1	3.0	3.3	1.6	1.8	1.2
The informal sector						
1. non-agricultural employment	408	236	172	204	118	86
2. Total informal sector	195	99	96	96	50	46
3. unregistered establishments	120	53	67	60	30	30
4. registered establishments	75	46	29	36	20	16

MEASURING WOMEN'S WORK

Joint Report of the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) and the Statistical Office of the United Nations Secretariat

INTRODUCTION

The measurement of women's labour force participation and their labour inputs and production in domestic and informal activities has been a subject of growing concern for at least a decade. These concerns have kindled much debate and interest among scholars resulting in a wide range of views as to the causes of underestimation of the women's economic contribution. It is generally acknowledged that lack of accurate statistics on women's role in the economy constitutes a major obstacle to their achieving the full benefit of development. The Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women make a strong case for measuring women's contribution, urging that special attention be given to women in the peripheral or marginal labour markets, such as those in unstable temporary work or unregulated part-time work, as well as to increasing number of women working in the informal economy.[1/]

The main objective of this paper is to address issues of concern emerging from international, regional and national debates as important prerequisites to measuring women's full participation in development. Three themes are discussed: (i) measurement of women's labour force participation and the importance of informal and domestic activities, (ii) measurement of labour inputs in informal and domestic sectors and their valuation; and (iii) improving statistics and indicators for implementation, review and appraisal of the Forward-looking Strategies.

Given the fact that women's activities cover a wide range, it is necessary to group them in categories which for the purpose of this report might be: those carried out in the formal sector, those corresponding to what is called informal sector, and a third group domestic activities. The first two are considered "productive" activities by the recommendations on labour statistics by the International Labour Organization and the Systems of National Accounts. The third group of activities although important and indispensable to the well being of the family and to the economy are not considered productive by these recommendations and guidelines. These groups might be delineated as follows:

a) The formal sector refers to all women included in the labour force as employers or as employees. In looking for data to show the economic contribution of this group some issues arise: the concentration in certain activities and exclusion from other; sexual wage discrimination; lack of stability in jobs.

b) The informal sector refers to certain groups of women who work as own account workers and their family helpers. For this group, some data by gender are available; other data needs to be developed and often what is needed is a reclassification of the existing data. Many recent International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women's proposals for classification, subsectoring, etc. are directed to these needs.

c) The domestic sector which includes all women working solely for their own households.

The quantification of informal and domestic activities depends largely on specialized surveys and time-use and in the immediate future will produce rather approximate figures. Though these should be kept apart from figures on formal activities, they are very important per se, as a component of national product and expanded national product and a crucial indicator of potential development.

Each of these groups is important and the problems in collecting data differ from one group to the other. Consequently, the type of analysis which is adequate in each case varies and, still more importantly, the data and statistics that are needed and can be obtained in each case also varies.

I. MEASURING LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN AND THE IMPORTANCE OF INFORMAL AND DOMESTIC ACTIVITIES

The concept of economic activity now in use classifies labour force as being in the both employed and unemployed persons as being in the labour force. Further elaboration of the concept defines as economically active persons engaged in the production of goods and services within the production boundary delineated by the United Nations in the System of National Accounts. This concept is more easily applied and more accurately depicts the level of employment in societies where a majority of those engaged in economic activity are employers or employees in stable wage employment. Other categories classified as being in the labour force are own-account workers, unpaid family workers and apprentices. "Housewives", students and retirees are however not considered to be in the labour force. Those considered as economically active are determined on the basis of response to a question on whether the individual above a specified age (10 or 15 years) has worked for pay or profit during a particular reference period (frequently one week) or sought work or is available for work.

This question does not capture the total participation of women in the labour force. For example work in subsistence production, milling grain and weaving baskets and other primary processing for own use, gathering fuel and carrying water count as labour force activity according to the ILO recommendations and the definition of production by SNA. However, these activities are usually not measured when the standard single question on labour force activity is asked. Questionnaires should include additional questions to ensure that women's activities are fully measured.

The other set of activities, the domestic tasks such as cooking, cleaning and family care, though fundamental to family well being, are not usually collected in official statistics although a number of countries in the ECE region carry out periodic time use surveys. Time use or time budget surveys provide a unique source of information on the domestic sector. They cover productive activities both outside and inside the household, and they can capture activities of short duration which are characteristics of women's various activities in the informal and domestic sectors. Whether one is performing productive activities is not decided on the basis of one or two questions about primary or secondary activity but emerges from a detailed activity listing, thus overcoming the cultural perception that women without salaried employment are engaged only in housework.

Boundaries set by the SNA in many ways fail to address the problems associated with own-account and subsistence activities, and inconsistencies arise when the concept of exchange is used to describe production boundaries.[2/] For instance, while domestic services by household members are generally not included, household services provided to other households would be included, valued at the prevailing wage rates. But where production is neither sold nor exchanged, but is exclusively for own use, the treatment is far more problematic. As a way to overcome the problems of substitution between own production and purchases, it is sometimes suggested that economic activity be defined as all activities which produce goods and services that are potentially marketable. However, it is recognized that this system of measurement would be difficult to implement especially as it requires imputing a value to many household services for own consumption. In this context, it is necessary to understand more clearly what women's work is, especially within the informal economy and domestic sector.

Another term which is of great relevance to measurement of labour force participation is "work". Usually, the concept of work is associated with those activities which are remunerated, continuous, carried out outside the home environment, and often on a full-time basis.

These characteristics do not coincide exactly with those which, and numerous studies document, constitute the actual work performed by women. Women's work is said to be characterized by discontinuity associated with the life cycle, part-time and to an increasing degree also at home, in family enterprises or on own account.

Limitations in these concepts are evident in both rural and urban situations but are most serious in rural settings, where much of the activities of women cannot or are not classified as work according to existing definitions and practices.

It has been recommended that the household be viewed as both a production and a consumption unit and that the term work be defined to include all activities performed both within and outside it. "Work" would then include the following three categories: (i) work in relation to production for the market; (ii) work for barter such as exchanging items within the neighborhood and (iii) work for home consumption only.[3/]

Measurement of Unemployment

Unemployment rates are crucial not only because they describe the out-of-work population but to provide statistics representing the concept of potential labour force, which is the number of people who would work if work were of the right kind and available at the right place and offering a just reward.

The measurement of unemployment is affected by these conceptual issues and exacerbated when various approaches to the reference period are taken into account. Due to the nature of activities women usually engage in it is highly possible among women to have performed economic activities in the past year or even the past month but not in the past week.

Hence, defining the reference period for labour force participation affects the recording of the status of women. Those people who did not participate in the labour force during the specified reference period are automatically excluded from the labour force, are therefore neither counted or recorded as unemployed. This is not a problem among women who work under formal working arrangements but among many women who are usually engaged in informal, seasonal and unstable jobs.

II. MEASUREMENT OF WOMEN'S LABOUR INPUTS IN THE INFORMAL AND DOMESTIC SECTORS AND THEIR VALUATION

A. Informal economic activities

There has been both an ample literature which makes reference to the informal sector as well as many efforts to have a clear-cut definition capable of referring to the phenomenon in all its heterogeneity and useful to the various types of data users. However, the defining criterion of the informal sector still remain elusive and there does not exist today a clear agreement on an international definition which can be applied in a variety of conditions.

The first attempt to define the informal sector was by the International Labour Organisation and based on studies of the phenomenon in Latin America and Africa. According to these studies, the informal sector would correspond to a sector of production in which activities with low productivity are predominant, manual labour is on own account, and workers are in small enterprises and with a low level of organization.

Other proposals, such as those of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean distinguish the informal sector according to the following dimensions: (a) location of place of work, (b) the degree to which the activity resembles domestic work, (c) destination of the produced good, (d) legality and level of social acceptance of the activities, (e) strength of links to formal sector, and, (f) technical and social complexity of the activity, (g) stability of the activity over time.[4/]

A possible definition of the informal sector for statistical purposes was discussed at the Fourteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians convened by ILO in 1987, but no agreement was reached. It was agreed, however, that work on the informal sector will be taken up again at the fifteenth conference. [5/]

In the work of INSTRAW the concept of the informal sector focuses on aspects considered relevant from the point of view of women's participation in the informal economy. It points out that those people who are workers on their own account and who do not have regular employees (with or without unpaid family workers) should be considered as forming part of the informal sector.

Without entering into analysis of the empirical evidence, it can be generally stated that women's participation in the informal sector is quite significant, especially in services. Women tend to be concentrated in low-income activities within the sector. Although exact figures are not available, research studies are in agreement in pointing out that a large proportion of workers in the informal sector form part of what is treated as a marginal labour force: women, the young, the elderly, and immigrants.

The importance in the mid 1980s of the informal sector, in developing as well as in the developed world, signals the changing trends in employment structures, which are also associated with the process of expansion of the tertiary sector. This phenomenon has been observed since the last decade by social scientists, government officials in charge of formulating economic and social policies, as well as by the United Nations in developing technical co-operation activities. All of them, from different angles, have observed the emergence of a new phenomenon of labour relations in which different labour regulations prevail compared to those in the formal labour market. Specifically, there is consensus that what was thought of at the beginning of the 1970s as a phenomenon associated with short-term crisis, has not only tended to continue but to grow. Therefore, after more than a decade of observing the phenomenon, it may be observed that the informal sector constitutes today an integral component rather than a marginal element of national economies.

In Latin America one can observe that the streets of the region are being filled with hustlers and various other types of precarious activities on which a large part of the population is dependent to survive. There are many industries developing their production under the "maquila" system. In the countryside, long-term production relations break down and the work is performed more and more with only temporary work contracts. In Africa, a substantial amount of production is performed by units operating on a small scale, and with labour intensive and manual work techniques.

Nevertheless, the existence of large sections of the population working in the so-called informal sector is not exclusive to developing countries as it was at first thought. In highly industrialized countries, even though it manifests itself somewhat differently than in developing countries, there is mounting evidence from diverse studies that the number of small enterprises is increasing at a fast rate. Informal production units working under the "putting-out" system sustain the weaving, clothing, motorcycles and footwear industries in many areas. In many European countries, women are also becoming the mainstay of this informal mechanism in the form of household production units, through outwork and multiple activities of rural women.

The activities of this informal sector need to be carefully researched and its contribution systematically estimated. The sector appears to be generating substantial production and providing employment to countless numbers of people.

An important category of the informal sector, outworkers, largely predominated by women, introduces another dimension to the issue and further complicates the conceptual and measurement problems. Outworkers assemble products at home using materials or components which either they bought themselves or which were supplied by the enterprises which receive the products. This type of activity characteristic, of the Second World War period, has re-emerged in more recent years, frequently in connection with external trade. Thus, it is directly linked, not only to domestic production and income creation, but also to international trade balances. While the expression "outworker" refers to the activity of one single person, "outwork" as such can be organized in units which comprise more than one worker, either unpaid family workers, or salaried workers, or both in which case the unit is clearly an "enterprise".

In this pattern of work, the linkages between formal and informal establishments become more complex, and on this basis some have called into question the validity of the concept of the informal sector. Contractual agreements between formal and informal sector units are problematic, and alternatives for classification of outworkers are multiple.

During the Fourth Expert Group Meeting on the Revision of System of National Accounts, the Household Sector, some provisional rules concerning the classification of the outworkers and units of outwork were proposed.

Outwork usually applies only to non-agricultural activities, and remuneration is typically by piece or task. Outworkers may then be classified, following the rules set down in the present version of the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE), as employees (when performing work for wage or salary) or own-account workers (when operating businesses without the assistance of paid workers but possibly with the assistance of unpaid family workers). Those who themselves employ workers are not considered outworkers. Following this discussion it was agreed this was one of the areas in need of harmonization between labour statistics and the classifications in SNA.

B. Domestic activities

Underestimation of the economic contribution of women is also in part due to result of the non-recognition of the economic importance that domestic activities performed inside the home represent in the economy, and which are essential to ensure generational reproduction and the sustenance of the workforce.

The importance of such activities lies not only in terms of numbers of individuals involved but also is a basic ingredient of the social structure and the long-term social and economic viability. Thus, in reviewing the definition of production a more comprehensive definition of economically active population to include production of goods and services within the home for the consumption of household members ought is needed. This means, for example, that in the classification of occupations it will be necessary to add "domestic activities" (in own household) as a group in addition to "domestic service" (as employee), now included.

Different methodological studies show that it will be possible to accurately assess the economic contribution of women, particularly in reference to the informal sector and to domestic work, when adequate information is made available regarding activities performed according to occupational category and branch of economic activity.

The agreements in the SNA review on subsectoring the household sector are a useful basis for the creation of statistics related to the informal sector, and with additional efforts accounts and tables on women could be prepared. Other decisions on the revision of SNA that affect women's statistics are the use of the main provider of income as an alternative to the head of the household, and agreement that different sectors may be expanded in different years allowing flexibility to deploy resources in alternate sectors as opportunity permits.

C. Classification issues

Classification schemes are essential for analyzing the economic contribution of women. A sensitive classification may reveal facts that another may hide. This is particularly important for collecting

information on women's economic activities, since they often work in activities that are not reflected in the traditional categories. Compilation of statistical data is influenced by past experiences and outlooks and it is, therefore, not always easy to include new areas formerly considered unimportant or of less interest, or to bring in new categories not contemplated before.

Moreover, mere quantity of statistical data cannot make up for quality, either in the purely technical sense or in the accuracy with which they depict the phenomenon studied. Frequently, when examining available statistics, one is confronted with the fact that they are sometimes even over-abundant but not necessarily of the right kind. However, in the case of statistics on women's economic activities in many countries, there is neither a sufficient quantity of statistical information nor is it of the kind that is required. At the very least it may be a question of presenting already existing statistics by gender where appropriate. Although this may sound simple, the fact everywhere is that this is not followed systematically and much remains to be done, especially in developing countries or countries that are statistically under-developed.

Special classifications and definitions must be found to reveal the specific nature of women's economic participation in society, but this is also much more complex than it might appear. The position of women in production can be understood only if a number of different factors are taken into account, some are social, others historical, cultural and/or traditional.

The main classification systems are: the International Classification of Occupations (ISCO), the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC), the International Classification of Status in Employment (ISCE). For women the classification of the household sector in SNA is also of particular importance. These classifications represent different ways of classifying economic and social phenomena complementing each other in many ways.

The new International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) better reflects the situation of women in the labour market and provides an improved framework for the formulation of policies. One significant change is the distinction now made between market-oriented and subsistence activities in agriculture, a field where women play an important role, both because of the numbers involved and because of the relatively poor coverage attained hitherto. The new design at the one-digit level and the further disaggregation at the 2-,3- and 4-digit levels will show more clearly how women participate in the labour force and the kinds of jobs they are engaged in, as the new classification has more detail related to jobs usually performed by women.

When it comes to the classification of services, one has to remember their many peculiar features which might suggest the possibility of using, within the ISIC, classification criteria for services different from those accepted for goods-producing activities. In fact, the very general expression of "services" covers a wide spectrum of activities whose characteristics are extremely different. The requirements vary a great deal from situations where there is no need of special skills, or even no schooling, to those where the most advanced qualifications are required. Service producing units are dispersed and they are difficult to observe by established statistical methods; it is much easier to find physical indicators for activities which produce goods than for services, concurrently, changes in the value of services are harder to separate into their quantity and price component.

The revision of ISCO has shown the necessity of revising the related International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE). The status of employment is inter-linked with socio-economic realities: Data on status in employment reveal many aspects specific to the situation of women which cannot be obtained by any other type of classification. This classification will have a major impact on the analysis of data for policy purposes.

The new International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC) introduces an important change: mixed farming as a group. This is a fundamental economic and social characteristic that should not be lost through statistical aggregation and, though such work is performed by both sexes, will be very informative on women's work.

From the point of view of the interest of women, it is important to insist on the need to co-ordinate the different types of statistics, in particular statistics on production, income and labour. Information on economic activity of women requires combining all types of statistics. The classification of statistics by gender and the elaboration of supplementary tables related to national account data seems to be a realistic possibility.

An effective contribution in this connection has been the joint work developed by INSTRAW and the Statistical Office of the United Nations Secretariat, which undertook a review of ongoing work on the revision of SNA and related international recommendations on basic statistical classifications. This work has provided important inputs for taking women's concerns and the informal sector into account in the complex process of revising basic international statistical classifications and SNA.

Own-account workers, unpaid family workers and members of producer co-operatives are equally important categories for both conceptual and classification issues from the point of view of measuring labour force participation of women. For unpaid family workers, the criteria is that they must do work that contributes directly to the family enterprise. The problem here lies in making certain of full but not excess coverage of family workers.

On the other hand, self-employment or own account workers, for example, women making domestic or related articles, appear to be under-reported not only for reasons of technical counting but for social related reasons such as difference in perceptions and family pride.

D. Valuation of women's economic contribution in the System of National Accounts

A major step to achieve an adequate recognition of women's contribution to the economy as a whole should be the utilization of the information compiled in the process of development planning. An effective contribution to the fulfillment of such an objective is the proper incorporation of the economic contribution to the United Nations System of National Accounts.

The purpose of the System of National Accounts (SNA) is to be "a framework within which the statistical information needed to analyze the economic process in all its many aspects could be organized and related." In the case of women's contribution to development and economic participation, the question posed is clearly that of measuring one part of a given whole, namely that part of total economic development and growth that has been created by women; in other words, their share in the aggregate "remuneration of labour".

Recent decades have seen considerable progress in the collection of economic data, due mainly to the fact that elaboration of national accounts as well as their use has become wide-spreading. Such data have been oriented mainly to calculating of global aggregates and measuring their inter-relationship. However, as it sums up an immense amount of economic statistics, in this process, individual traits tend to be absorbed into broad general categories which become inaccessible for the analyst.

Moreover, more recent analyses have drawn upon the concept of monetary production which is directed towards the market. According to the revised SNA guidelines, the informal marketed production is the output of household enterprises, where production for the market tends to be more important than for its own use.

The production of household enterprises could be disaggregated into two major groups: (1) production and processing of primary products, mostly agricultural (such as fruits, vegetables, flowers, etc.). From the women's standpoint the statistical coverage of women's work poses basically a problem of a relationship between "employer" and the unpaid family workers, who may have a different perception whether the job is a steady or a voluntary engagement, (2) other types of products produced by household enterprises in rural and urban areas, as in case of manufacturing (which may be performed by hand or power driven machine within or outside the household premises), trade and services. In this second case there are many conceptual difficulties because of inter-linkages between the formal

and the informal sector. The situation in most developing countries is such that a large part of the population must satisfy their needs through household production. There is a strong case that all those activities should be treated as productive and not as general household duties. However, another conceptual problem arises of how to distinguish a worker who works for his/her own account or as an employee.

Household enterprises also cover many types of different household services ranging from paramedical care and teaching to street performing. So far we have touched the areas which in the present framework of SNA refer to the category "other goods and services".

Non-monetary production and services outside SNA are another challenge to be solved in statistical valuing of women's work. In case women's work is accounted for and given monetary value it would have implications for the expansion of national product. Work done by women in their houses and for their families is multifold by nature. Within the present national accounting framework it is recorded only if performed by a hired person.

The non-monetary production includes primary production as part of subsistence production such as growing vegetables, keeping poultry and small cattle, fishing, hunting, firewood gathering and the like. It also includes processing of primary products by the producers for household consumption such as oil, wine, cheese, cloth and furniture. In some countries it has been recommended to include commodities like footwear, pottery, small agricultural tools, etc. The activities considered refer also to fixed capital formation such as construction works, land improvement, storage facilities, boats, fishing nets, water supply, etc.

In short, total non-monetary production in the informal sector is the sum of primary production, processing of primary products and fixed capital formation. Non-monetary production is usually measured in physical units and has to be valued in monetary terms prevailing at formal markets.

The women's movement advocates the inclusion of domestic work in SNA. There are two basic approaches that are taken to estimate the value of women's activities in their own home. The first is the "opportunity cost approach" according to which domestic activities would be assigned a price according to the earnings a person would make in her or his non-domestic occupation. This means that a medical doctor and a nurse would value differently an hour of their domestic work if they opted for staying home. This issue has been open for discussion as to its advantages and disadvantages. The second approach is known as "equivalent market function". According to it all kinds of domestic work would be assigned a value in accordance with the corresponding market prices, i.e. the corresponding salary of a domestic servant, cook, nurse, etc.

An important step towards recognizing these economic contributions of women shall be the use of the definition of production recommended by the Fourth Expert Meeting on Revision of SNA, which states that "production is

the creation of goods and services which are exchanged on the market, are capable of being marketed or are produced with factors of production bought in the market". Equally important for better recognition of and support for women's contribution to the economy through the informal sector are recommendations concerning the revision of the SNA production boundary.

To properly appraise the economic contribution of women through economic activity is complex but if one has available adequate statistical information it would be possible to arrive at a disaggregation by gender of the gross national product. Another possibility is to reflect women's contributions within the framework of a national accounts satellite account. Such a system appears today as the most viable solution to enhance the economic contribution of women and as an essential requirement for putting into effect the expanded gross domestic product concept as well as the complementary separation by gender.

Household production including services could thus be considered through development of supplementary accounts. These should be divided into two broad categories: those activities performed for the benefit of the community, such as voluntary work as nurses in hospitals or ambulatory residences, midwives, teachers, firefighters, and the like, as well as services rendered free to a specific family or other households and those for the benefit of the household in which they take place. A supplementary account could be created in order to present a new aggregate reflecting the value of these activities and their characteristics.

III. IMPROVING STATISTICS AND INDICATORS FOR IMPLEMENTATION, REVIEW AND APPRAISAL OF THE FORWARD-LOOKING STRATEGIES

The remainder of the present paper discusses certain issues relevant to the selection of statistics and indicators for review and appraisal of the implementation of the Forward-looking Strategies, with particular reference to the ECE region.

The Strategies identified some of the main themes on which to monitor the achievements of women under the three broad themes of the Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace. Following closely the framework for evaluating the status of women, social, demographic, economic and other related statistics should be considered.

Statistics and indicators on demographic characteristics, in general, pertain to fertility, mortality, nuptiality and divorces, and the internal and external migration patterns of males and females. For countries of the ECE region age-specific indicators might be of interest as the recent indications show the aging of these populations. Aside from demographic consequences, aging population has both social and economic implications as well. And as it is universally accepted, women tend to live longer than men and thus, the changes in the demographic phases should be properly integrated in compiling statistics and indicators of relevance to women.

Other indicators and statistical series might also include:

- Social indicators: specifically information relating to age-specific literacy, enrolment and retention rates, attendance, and attainment in education, and to the ideological area of the context of education, gender role stereotypes and the attitudinal domain;

- Health assessment indicators: such as mortality, morbidity, life expectancy, nutritional standards and the provision and utilization of services;

- Legal and political status indicators: showing women's participation in public life and their respective communities.

- Data for assessing women's contribution to the economy: should include data on women's access to economic resources, their economic activities within and outside the household (which should capture the proliferating pluri-activity among urban women in European countries), the extent of their occupational segregation in industries, their representation in the heirarchical levels of employment, unemployment, productivity, income and savings. Market and non-market activities should be distinguished: (i) Market work done by employees, employers, own-account workers, unpaid family workers (enterprise assistants) in marketed production; from (ii) Non-market work for subsistence, production for own use; and voluntary work.

The main sources of data available to compile information about the economic activity of the population are the population censuses and household surveys. Other sources include economic censuses, agricultural censuses or surveys, and other specialized surveys. The increasing prominence of time-use surveys must also be mentioned.

A number of steps need to be taken to improve the quality of information from the two most common sources of data population censuses and household surveys.

Inclusion of a special module to enumerate the truly inactive

As the general tendency is to classify many women as inactive, it would be useful to include special modules to collect additional information on the activities of those women who at the first interview are classified as inactive. This module must necessarily be brief, though it is possible to add a series of questions where a list of activities carried out by women are mentioned. Many of these activities would undoubtedly share similar characteristics as those carried out in the informal sector.

The Reference Period

A second debatable aspect when formulating the questionnaire is the reference period which must be used to consider a person as economically active. The convenience of adopting the week before the moment of the census or the survey is frequently argued as the most adequate procedure to arrive at a more exact way to measure unemployment at the moment the survey is performed. From that point of view, this argument could be held as valid.

Nevertheless, from the point of view of the participation of the female population and especially for those who carry out activities in the informal sector and whose participation as has already been mentioned is essentially unstable, intermittent, and seasonal, as in the case of agriculture work, it would be more advisable to adopt a longer period - for example, the year previous to the census or the survey - as reference period[6/].

Considering the advantages and disadvantages of both criteria used to determine the reference period it would seem better to adopt a decision combining the advantages of the two possibilities: to use the week before the census or survey for the traditional questions included about economic activity and a longer period for those questions included in the additional module designed to rescue the economic activity of those people who are at first instance qualified as inactive.

Order of the questions

A third element which can either facilitate or hinder the adequate compilation of the basic information about the economic participation of women is the method used to formulate the questions about the participation in the economic activity. It is necessary, in this regard, to follow the recommendations stated in the United Nations Principles and Recommendations for population censuses as well as those referred to the Household Surveys regarding the need to formulate first those questions which make reference to whether the person was working during the period of reference, thus avoiding the tendency of the female population to classify themselves as "housewives".

Questions about personal attributes of women

It is accepted that for the objective of planning the economy and related social policies to facilitate the incorporation of women in equal conditions into economic activity, it is necessary to understand the differentiated contribution of the various sectors of the female population. Similarly, differences due to different socio-economic status, different ethnic groups, marital status, different educational levels or working in different cities or countries from place of birth, women must be equally accounted for during the process of planning.

Statistics and indicators on the elderly

The main purpose of collecting information on elderly women's work in the informal sectors of economy is to provide relevant information as a base for decisions on policies and programmes supported by either national or international sources. Incorrect assumptions on the role of the elderly have often been the major cause where their concerns were simply ignored. Good data can play a major role in redressing this imbalance, but only if they are readily available, timely and presented to a forum of policy makers, who may not have any special interest or expertise in economic activity of the elderly and the need to increase their standard of living and income.

The informal sector offers developmental potential for the changing demographic structure in most European countries where, due to increasing life expectancy and low fertility, the population structure shows a bulging of the population group aged 60 and above. This is the reason why it is often argued that the work force in the informal sector could be a source of employment for elderly women. Income generating programmes for elderly women in the informal or household sectors could be developed so as to use the enormous potential of the elderly population. It has to be underlined that any activity related to the economic contribution of elderly women should take into account the need to foster improved inter-generational interaction.

In broadest terms, there is some information relating to the demographic situation of elderly women and the level of their economic participation. There are even more deficiencies as a consequence of the way the information is collected and published. Quite often data are not adequately separated by gender, and the age breakdowns and classifications are frequently inadequate. Even more, there is an urgent need to improve conceptual and methodological framework which will serve as basis for collection of statistical data on the work of the elderly in the informal and household sectors of the economy.[7]

Notes

1/ See Report of the World Conference, to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, Nairobi, 15-26 July 1985 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.85.IV.10). Chapt. I, sect.A.

2/ See, for example, "Problems of Data Utilization for Construction of Indicators" Lawrence Lewis, in Report on Workshop on Statistics and Indicators on the Social and Economic Situation of Women Particularly in the Informal Sector held in Colombo, Sri Lanka, 12-16 October 1987. INSTRAW, 1987.

3/ See the recommendations of the Workshop on Statistics and Indicators on the Social and Economic Situation of Women Particularly in the Informal Sector, held in Sri Lanka 12-16 October, 1987. The workshop was organized by the Centre for Women's Research (CENWOR), the Department of Census and Statistics, and the United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) in collaboration with the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) and the United Nations Statistical Office.

4/ ECLAC, "Women in the informal sector in Latin America: Methodological aspects", Santiago, Chile, 1986.

5/ ILO, Fourteenth International Conference of Labour Statistics, Report of the Conference (ICLS/14/D.14, final version).

6/ See ILO Thirteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians, Report of the Conference (ICLS/13/D.11, final version) and Improving Concepts and Methods for Statistics and Indicators on the Situation of Women) Studies in Methods, Series F. No. 33 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.84.XVII.3) for a discussion of both the current activity status and the usual activity status as approaches to measuring the economically active population.

7/ "Las mujeres de edad madura en América Latina," INSTRAW paper prepared with the American Association of Retired Persons, August 1988.

CHAPTER V

CONFERENCE WORKING PAPERS

MEASUREMENT OF LABOUR INPUTS IN DOMESTIC/HOUSEHOLD INFORMAL AND RELATED ACTIVITIES AND THE VALUATION OF THEIR INPUTS

Transmitted by France

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Influenced by the upsurge of feminism in the 1970s, various sectors of public opinion gradually came round to the need to give recognition to the work and services involved in domestic activity.

1.2 This term covers work performed within the family that is necessary for day-to-day existence within the framework of existing social standards; such work is essentially unpaid and performed by women.

1.3 The demand that domestic work be "quantified" is no longer a purely feminist issue. It is the focus for the growing interest of economists and statisticians, in an area of economic activity that remains outside or is poorly integrated into market economies.

1.4 Before going into technical detail, it is worth pausing to consider our aims in seeking to improve our understanding of domestic work, in particular that done by women.

2. THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

2.1 There are two possible approaches:

- the first gives priority to the concept of time and to equality between men and women in the sharing of domestic chores,

- the second favours extending the concept of the market to cover activities hitherto excluded from the "economic" sphere.

2.2 As regards critical analysis of the division of male and female roles through an analysis of the time devoted to domestic activities:

The burden of domestic activities is unequally shared between men and women in families with children.

The case of a two-parent family needs to be dealt with differently from that of a single-parent household.

2.3 Consequently, the "quantification" of domestic work implies something more than the critical analysis of the man/woman relationship and raises the question of including domestic chores in the "economic" sphere. These activities should be broken down according to the possible ways in which this could be done.

The idea that it is unjust that certain work in a household should be performed free of charge by the wife, and that it would be only fair if she were to receive "normal" payment for her work - that is to say if it were paid for on the basis of its "true worth" or "true price" - should be abandoned.

In point of fact this idea, developed by advocates of the "maternal wage" would appear to be detrimental to the recognition of women's legitimate desire to work outside the family circle.

Moreover, a considerable proportion of the domestic chores in a man/wife household - up to a maximum of 50 percent if there are no children - involve production and consumption by the individual, and no exchange takes place.

It is, therefore, that proportion of domestic chores which are performed within the family unit and for which no payment is made which can, in terms of volume, be included in the "economic" sphere and thus substantially affect the balance of the labour market providing that demand is backed by willingness to pay for services rendered.

The difficulty is that the appearance on the market of a "new domesticity" could well aggravate the existing sexist division of labour to the detriment of women. This would certainly happen if the idea of a "maternal wage" were to be pursued, since it would create within the household chores regarded as being specific to women. The risk would be just as great, however, if the economic development of the "new domesticity" were to result in an increase in women-specific jobs of a precarious nature.

2.4 Evaluations in time-budget terms cannot, however, be replaced by monetary evaluations of domestic work without taking into account the implications of extending the "economic" sphere (market or non-market) to encompass new activities, which, for the most part, lie outside this sphere at the present time.

In France, these questions have for some time been examined under the auspices of the National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE), and have resulted in the resumption of regular time-use surveys.

3. THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO THE "TIME-USE SURVEY"

3.1 Interest in research into time budgets dates from the years following the First World War, although it was essentially after the Second World War that there was a greatly increased demand for improved knowledge of time use.

Studies carried out between the wars dealt with specific activities (distances travelled, the media, etc) or with groups of individuals (young people, students, retired persons, etc). The need became apparent to develop a broader outlook and to collate the work carried out separately in different countries. After 1917, the Soviet Union, in particular, acquired considerable experience of time-use surveys.

3.2. The first overall survey of activities by INSEE was part of a major international survey of time budgets. Ten countries participated in the 1966 survey: Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Hungary, Poland, USSR, United States of America, Yugoslavia.

In France, the survey was carried out in 10 medium-sized towns in the North and East. As the sample was by definition incomplete, the survey was supplemented in 1967 by a survey of a sample population in Paris and Nîmes. At the same time, INSEE launched a specific survey of leisure activities.

3.3. In 1974 and 1975 INSEE updated the previous surveys and conducted a survey on a representative sample of 10,000 dwellings in an urban area covering the use of time on the whole range of activities and on a number of leisure activities or domestic work.

This survey was to be returned, up-dated and renewed 10 years later, in 1985 and 1986; it now provides a frame of reference on the subject.

4. CHARACTERISTICS AND AIMS OF THE "TIME-USE" SURVEY (1985-1986)

4.1. Like its predecessor, the survey sought in particular to assess domestic activities, leisure and gainful employment and/or domestic work, in addition to providing an overview of daily activities.

The survey was broader in scope than its predecessor.

It was conducted throughout the whole of France (including the rural population) and not only, as in 1974-1975, among town dwellers. It covered 16,000 dwellings and 24,000 individuals over the age of 15, whereas a minimum age of 18 had been adopted for the previous survey.

Finally, as for the previous survey, it is planned to carry out an international comparison, albeit less formally, with countries that carried out similar surveys in 1983-1987.

4.2. The stated aims of the survey are as follows

4.2.1. To provide quantified analyses of daily life, either in global terms (number of hours) or in respect of specific populations.

The survey, which is naturally sex-specific, allows issues as varied as the management and use of time and space, family organization, integration within society and, membership of societal networks to be dealt with, as well as more specific problems such as domestic productivity and time saving.

4.2.2. To take stock of the changes in behaviour, in structural terms, 10 years on, thanks to time-use measurement techniques that were the same in the two surveys, but also thanks to broader sampling that nevertheless covers the same sample as the previous survey, thus making comparison far easier.

4.2.3. To cover the full range of the various types of household and of individual. For the first time, it has become possible to study, for example, the time use of women working in agriculture, women living in an urban environment and adolescent girls.

5. METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS OF THE SURVEY

5.1. The information is obtained through two different procedures

In the case of often repeated activities, one or two persons in a "household" - including spouses - provide a detailed description of their time use on a given day.

In the case of some irregular or infrequent activities an interview determines their average frequency over a long period of time.

5.2. Thus the results are obtained by transcribing literal statements. When two activities are undertaken simultaneously (e.g. "preparing vegetables while listening to the radio"), the first is deemed the main activity, the other secondary.

At this level the breakdown is inevitably somewhat arbitrary: "doing my shopping and my neighbour's shopping" will be counted as a main activity under "purchase of daily consumer goods" and as a secondary activity "helping neighbours or relatives if they are not part of the household".

5.3. Consequently, it is necessary to construct four nomenclatures in order to record activities: one, comprising 199 entries, made up of (principal and/or secondary) activities one covering purpose (personal, professional, for an association, charitable outside an association), one covering place (10 entries) and one covering the company kept, whereby it is possible to distinguish between approximately 100 possibilities.

5.4. Trends in the results since 1975

Men and women still have distinct domestic roles (activities associated with the washing, ironing and care of clothes and household linen are exclusively carried out by women) although the tasks are shared somewhat less unequally.

The time taken up by men's domestic activities has increased, while there has been a slight drop in the time taken up by women's activities (washing-up, cooking, washing, ironing, etc.).

Overall, women still work more than men by virtue of their domestic activities (4 hours, 30 minutes per day). Where housewives are concerned, these tasks take between 7 hours 12 minutes and 8 hours 12 minutes per day, depending on age; in other words, they require more time than a gainful employment.

Tables 1 and 2 provide a summary of these results

Table 1: Trends in time-use of adult urban dwellers between 1974-1975 and 1985 and 1986 1/

In hours and minutes per day

	18-64 age group								Over 65s								Overall	
	Men				Women				Men				Women					
	With a job Active		No job Inactive		With a job Active		No job Inactive		Alone		In the family		Alone		In the family			
	1975	1985	1975	1985	1975	1985	1975	1985	1975	1985	1975	1985	1975	1985	1975	1985	1975	1985
Time spent on physiological requirements	11h 40	11h 17	13h 04	12h 23	11h 20	11h 15	12h 06	12h 06	13h 57	13h 06	14h 04	13h 10	13h 46	13h 32	13h 50	13h 10	12h 06	11h 53
including:	1h 33	1h 23	1h 47	1h 37	1h 28	1h 18	1h 54	1h 37	1h 29	1h 22	2h 10	2h 06	1h 38	1h 35	2h 08	1h 55	1h 41	1h 30
- Meals at home	42	40	40	31	26	33	15	21	39	34	12	8	15	15	7	4	29	28
- Meals outside the home																		
Time spent at work or study 2/	6h 49	6h 21	2h 06	1h 59	5h 36	5h 16	38	57	8	16	50	21	20	7	15	4	4h 01	3h 32
- Work	6h 05	5h 36	20	15	4h 58	4h 38	5	8	6	11	42	19	19	6	11	4	3h 23	2h 49
- Study and training	4	5	1h 35	1h 31	6	4	28	41	1	3	1	1	0	0	2	0	14	20
- Travel in connection with work and study	40	40	11	13	32	34	5	8	1	2	7	1	1	1	2	0	24	23
Time at home including:	2h 20	2h 41	3h 34	4h 05	4h 42	4h 38	7h 47	6h 53	4h 46	4h 31	3h 23	4h 08	5h 19	5h 04	5h 48	5h 57	4h 26	4h 31
- Domestic chores (cooking, washing-up, housework, washing clothes)	54	1h 05	1h 31	1h 38	3h 15	3h 09	5h 14	4h 17	2h 54	2h 52	1h 32	1h 48	2h 53	2h 37	4h 32	4h 30	2h 44	2h 38
- Sewing, do-it-yourself	21	24	21	36	13	11	30	23	16	9	20	28	35	28	25	33	21	23
- Other travel	41	43	1h 02	1h 07	39	41	51	54	54	54	37	44	36	36	27	28	43	47
- Care of the person	12	12	10	11	28	28	62	55	5	4	8	10	3	5	6	10	24	24
Leisure including:	3h 11	3h 41	5h 16	5h 33	2h 22	2h 51	3h 27	4h 04	5h 09	6h 08	5h 43	8h 21	4h 35	5h 17	4h 07	4h 49	3h 28	4h 04
- Television	1h 20	1h 38	1h 43	2h 18	59	1h 10	1h 25	1h 51	1h 42	2h 29	2h 07	2h 56	1h 35	2h 26	1h 46	2h 24	1h 22	1h 48
- Sport	5	11	9	17	2	5	2	5	1	7	5	7	1	0	0	1	3	8
- Entertainment, outings	8	9	9	15	5	9	3	8	5	2	4	3	2	5	1	1	5	8
- Play	9	10	13	21	5	6	4	8	12	24	16	16	5	16	9	14	8	11

Source: INSEE - 1985-1986 "Time-use" survey.

1/ For each of the four main components of time-use we have given only those activities whose evolution was most marked

2/ Inclusion of Saturdays and Sundays in calculating the averages leads to suprising results for time spent on work or study, when multiplied by seven the results are more realistic.

Table 2: Time-use of adults living in rural areas 1985-1986 1/

In hours and minutes per day

	18-64 age group						Over 65s				Overall
	Men			Women			Men		Women		
	Farmers	Other jobs	No job	Farmers	Other jobs	No job	Alone	In the family	Alone	In the family	
Time spent on physiological requirements	11h 41	11h 19	12h 40	11h 40	11h 31	12h 15	14h 00	14h 29	14h 20	13h 54	12h 22
including: - Meals at home	2h 02	1h 30	1h 57	2h 04	1h 26	1h 53	1h 37	2h 13	1h 42	2h 03	1h 46
- Meals outside the home	21	35	22	7	26	14	18	10	9	6	21
Time spent at work or study 2/	8h 19	6h 20	1h 10	4h 11	5h 05	26	18	24	2	4	3h 14
- Work	7h 59	5h 41	23	4h 02	4h 36	9	17	23	2	4	2h 51
- Study and training	0	2	38	0	3	15	0	0	0	0	7
- Travel in connection with work and study	20	37	9	9	26	2	1	1	0	0	16
Time at home	1h 39	3h 00	4h 52	6h 15	5h 52	7h 36	4h 50	4h 00	5h 08	6h 15	4h 50
including: - Domestic chores (cooking, washing-up, housework, washing clothes)	48	1h 01	1h 35	4h 35	3h 20	4h 54	3h 02	1h 15	3h 24	4h 18	2h 43
- Gardening	12	33	75	29	12	31	45	1h 37	34	44	37
- Travel	23	39	51	29	34	37	27	28	19	22	34
- Sewing, do-it-yourself	10	32	58	17	14	34	22	25	34	29	29
- Care of the person	4	11	7	22	28	53	7	5	5	17	21
Leisure	2h 21	3h 21	5h 18	1h 54	2h 32	3h 43	4h 52	5h 07	4h 30	3h 47	3h 34
including: - Television	58	1h 27	2h 03	37	1h 02	1h 39	1h 52	2h 07	1h 48	1h 39	1h 30
- Walks	6	13	34	8	11	14	37	39	22	21	18
- Group activities (worship and association)	11	8	2	7	4	7	5	5	7	7	6
- Fishing and hunting	6	7	11	0	0	0	2	5	0	0	3

Source: INSEE (idem)

1/ For each of the four main components of time-use we have only adopted those activities in which the gap between rural and city dwellers was widest.

2/ Inclusion of Saturdays and Sundays in calculating the averages leads to suprising results for time spent on work or study, when multiplied by seven the results are more realistic.

6. TOWARDS A CHANGEOVER FROM VALUATION OF DOMESTIC WORK IN TIME-BUDGET TERMS TO ITS REFLECTION IN MONETARY TERMS?

6.1 Two distinct methods have traditionally been used by statisticians to assess domestic work: valuation at market cost and valuation at opportunity cost. */

The first consists in comparing domestic work with the cost of having it performed by someone else, either globally in terms of the cost of a domestic employee, or item by item (in which case the estimated cost is that of a specialist of either sex).

The second method compares domestic work with the income that the person performing it could earn on the labour market if gainfully employed. In this case "what would be earned" is the amount earned after taxation and social security contributions.

While this method is of some interest strictly in terms of consumer micro-economic theory, we nevertheless feel that its implications are highly questionable: at least so far it has not reflected the impact of the broadening of the economic sphere (in market or non-market terms) to include new activities, mostly located outside that sphere.

6.2 Once the 1975 time-use survey has been completed, a number of scenarios allowed monetary estimates to be made of domestic work. At the time, these estimates accounted for between 48% and 65% of the market GDP.

These quite considerable orders of magnitude are still in the sphere of economic fantasy. Were domestic work to be performed against payment the whole system of remuneration would be affected and the balance of the economy would be seriously disturbed.

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*/ The opportunity cost method of surveys in English-speaking countries.

STATISTICS AND INDICATORS ON THE SITUATION OF WOMEN AND MEN IN THE NORDIC COUNTRIES*

Active efforts aimed at achieving equality between the sexes - equal opportunities - are underway in all of the Nordic countries. In order to work for societal change, it is necessary to have insight into the current situation and the preceding development. Facts on the situation of women and men within various societal spheres are necessary in order to increase the level of awareness of the problem of unequal opportunities, to arouse sentiment for the enactment of various measures, and to provide the basis for making decisions. Facts are also needed for evaluating the effects of the measures taken.

Five years ago, the Nordic central statistical bureaus initiated a joint project for developing statistics on equal opportunities. The purpose of the project is to exchange experiences, to conduct co-operative developmental projects, and to describe and analyze the current situation of equal opportunity in each of the Nordic countries.

During 1986-1987, the co-operation resulted in a proposal for equal opportunity indicators. The list of indicators was presented at the informal ECE Meeting on statistics on women in Geneva 18-20 May 1987.

On the basis of this list of indicators, statistics have been compiled and analyzed. The resulting publication, "Women and Men in the Nordic Countries: Facts on Equal Opportunities 1988" was presented in Oslo at the official Nordic conference and the Women's Forum in August 1988.

The list of indicators has now been revised. The new version will serve as the basis for future work, aimed at improving the collection, analyses, and presentation of equal opportunity statistics.

Principal areas	Number of indicators	Principal areas	Number of indicators
Population	18	Paid work	15
Housing	6	Economy	10
Health and ill-health	16	Criminality	3
Use of time	2	Child care	8
Education	11	Leisure time	9
Unpaid work	4	Power	12
		Total	114

* Prepared by the Nordic Committee for Equal Opportunity Statistics
Paper presented by the Nordic Central Statistical Bureaus.

STATISTICS AND INDICATORS OF THE SITUATION OF WOMEN AND MEN IN THE NORDIC COUNTRIES

All indicators should be given by sex.

PRINCIPAL AREAS	SUB-AREAS	STATISTICS AND INDICATORS	
POPULATION	Population	1	Population, by age
		2	Population, by citizenship
		3	Live births per 1,000 women, by mother's age
		4	Total fertility rate, i.e., average number of live births per woman during her reproductive period
		5	Deaths, by age
		6	Infant mortality
		7	Average life expectancy
	Birth control measures	8	Use of birth control, by type
		9	Sterilizations, by age
		10	Legal abortions per 1,000 women, by woman's age
		11	Abortion rate (no. of legal abortions performed per 1000 women during their reproductive period)
		12	Legal abortions per 1000 live births
	Families and households	13	Individuals, by age, cohabitation status, and children at home
		14	Entered marriages, by previous civil status
		15	Divorces per 1000 married women

PRINCIPAL AREAS	SUB-AREAS	STATISTICS AND INDICATORS
		16 Divorces, by duration of marriage
		17 Family units, by cohabitation status and number of children
		18 Households and individuals in households, by size of households
HOUSING	Type	19 Young persons' housing, by age (16-19, 20-24 years)
		20 Retirees' housing
		21 Municipal services for retirees
	Standard	22 Residing in single-family houses, by life cycle
		23 Modernness, by life cycle
		24 Overcrowding, by life cycle
HEALTH AND ILL-HEALTH	Life style	25 Daily smokers, by age
		26 Alcohol consumption, by age
		27 Exercise habits
	Diseases	28 Diseases, by type
		29 Major disease groups, by age
		30 Chronic or long-term disease with considerable impact on working ability, by age
		31 Occupation-related diseases, by type and age
	Accidents	32 Accidents at home, by type and age
		33 Accidents at work, by type and age
		34 Injuries and deaths in traffic accidents, by age

PRINCIPAL AREAS	SUB-AREAS	STATISTICS AND INDICATORS
		35 Recreational accidents, by age
	Deaths	36 Deaths, by cause (major groups) and age
		37 Occupation-related causes of death
	Consumption of health care	38 Use of medicines, by type of disease
		39 Treatment days in in-patient health care services
		40 Use of health services
USE OF TIME	Total use of time	41 Use of time, by type of activity (paid work, unpaid work, leisure) and life cycle
		42 Use of time, by type of activity and age
EDUCATION	Level	43 Educational level of population, by age
		44 Pupils 16-29 years in the regular educational system
	Subject	45 Pupils in upper secondary education, by subject area
		46 Drop-outs from upper secondary education, by subject area
		47 Completed diplomas in upper secondary education, by subject area
		48 Pupils in vocational training on middle level, by subject area
		49 Drop-outs from vocational training on middle level, by subject area

PRINCIPAL AREAS	SUB-AREAS	STATISTICS AND INDICATORS
		50 Completed diplomas in vocational training on middle level, by subject area
		51 Students in higher education, by field of study
		52 Drop-outs from higher education, by field of study
		53 Completed degrees for higher education, by field of study
UNPAID WORK	Use of time	54 Time spent in unpaid work, by type (housework, etc.) and life cycle
		55 Time spent in unpaid work, by type and age
		56 Time spent in housework, by life cycle and age
		57 Full-time homemaker, by life cycle and age
PAID WORK	Employment	58 Population from age 20 to retirement age, by employement status
		59 Proportion of persons employed in different age groups
		60 Population, by main activity and age
		61 Proportion of persons in different age groups in the labour force
		62 Employed persons, by full-time, long or short part-time
	Working time	63 Average working hours, by age
		64 Average working hours, by life cycle

PRINCIPAL AREAS	SUB-AREAS	STATISTICS AND INDICATORS
		65 Rates of unemployment in different age groups
	Absence	66 Reasons for absence from work
	Occupation	67 The thirty largest occupations (1-w hours/week)
		68 Employed within non-segregated (40-60%), highly segregated (60-90%), and completely segregated (90-100%) occupations
		69 Employed within private versus public sectors
		70 Employed, by occupation and education
	Industry	71 Employed, by industry
		72 Self-employed, by industry
	Working environment (physical & psycho-social)	
	Labour market measures	
ECONOMY	Wages	73 Wages (hourly or monthly), by industry
		74 Wages, by occupational group and full or part-time
		75 Wages, by occupational group and educational level
	Income	76 Income earners, by amount of income
		77 Income, by full or part-time employment
		78 Income, by age

PRINCIPAL AREAS	SUB-AREAS	STATISTICS AND INDICATORS
		79 Deciles for income earners (women/men), in percentage of men's average income
		80 Disposable income, by type of family
		81 Incomes of old-age pensioners, by type of income
	Social assistance	82 Family units receiving social assistance, by type of family
CRIMINALITY	Sanctions	83 Sentences for violations of Criminal Code, by type of crime
		84 Sentences for violations of Criminal Code, by type of crime and person's age
		85 Sentence for violations of Criminal Code, by type of sanction and age of person
CHILD CARE	Parental leave	86 Parental leave for care of children
	Day-care and family day-care	87 Children at day care centres and family day-care, by age
		88 Children 7-10 years at municipal after-school centre or family day-care
		89 Children, by age and degree of child care paid by municipality
		90 Employed persons with children 3-6 years, by degree of child care for 3-6 year olds paid by municipality
	Other child-care	91 Private child care

PRINCIPAL AREAS	SUB-AREAS		STATISTICS AND INDICATORS
	Resources	92	Personnel at day care centres and municipal after-school centres. Number of employees per 100 registered children, by education
		93	Municipal child care. Operational costs and cost distribution among financers
LEISURE	Use of time	94	Time for various leisure activities, by life cycle
		95	Time for various leisure activities, by age
	Activities	96	Exercise, sports, or athletics, by age
		97	Participation in associations, by age
		98	Holiday trips, by age
		99	Participation in cultural activities, by type and age
		100	Hobby activities, by age
		101	Social contacts, by age
	Obstacles	102	Obstacles to recreations, by age
POWER	Politics	103	Voting in parliamentary elections, by age
		104	Voting in municipal elections, by age
		105	Representation in political parties' national congresses, central committees, and executive boards
		106	Members of parliament, government, and municipal and county councils

PRINCIPAL AREAS	SUB-AREAS	STATISTICS AND INDICATORS
		107 Chairpersons in municipal and county governing bodies
		108 Members of municipal and county governing bodies
		109 Members of governmental committees, boards, and councils
	Organi-zations	110 Organizational membership, by type
		111 Members and executive committees in trade unions
	Business and adminis-tration	112 Leaders in private and public sectors, by industry
	Mass media	113 Editors-in-chief of newspapers, radio, and TV
		114 Journalists at newspapers, radio, and TV

SOCIO-PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF WOMEN IN POLAND IN THE YEARS 1983-1987*

In the years 1983 and 1987 the Central Statistical Office of Poland conducted special surveys on the socio-professional status of women in the working age i.e., aged 18-59. The surveys covered women living in families which take part in the household budget surveys.

The objective of those surveys was to obtain information i.e., on the status and position of women in the family, their professional and social activities, the reconciliation of the professional job with domestic duties and children upbringing, the ways of spending their free time and on their favourite and actual lifestyles.

In the 1987 surveys 66.5% constituted economically active women (in 1983 - 65.1%) of which 50% worked in the sectors of national economy outside agriculture (in 1983 - 48.2%), 14.8% worked in agriculture (in 1983 - 15.8%), 1.7% combined work in a private farm with work outside agriculture (in 1983 - 1.1%). There were about 3% (in 1983 - 4.1%) women who exclusively attended schools and 30.5% (in 1983 - 30.8%) neither studied nor worked.

The vast majority of surveyed women were married (in 1983 - 74.1%, in 1987 - 75.1%). In 1987 over half of the respondents had dependent children - 62.6% (in 1983 - 60.1%) of which 23.4% possessed one child (in 1983 - 25.3%), 25.3% had two children (in 1983 - 23.3%) and 13.9% - three or more children (in 1983 - 11.5%).

The above-mentioned surveys indicate that the division of domestic duties has not changed considerably in the discussed period. The basic domestic chores such as cooking, washing up, cleaning, washing, ironing in most households are done mainly by women. The husbands' participation in the domestic duties increases with higher level of their education.

The domestic duties such as washing, pickling, cleaning or thorough cleaning are done in the households almost exclusively by the very members of the families. The main reasons for such a situation are the following: the scarcity of this type of services, especially in the rural areas, too high prices and bad quality of services.

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* Submitted by the Central Statistical Office of Poland, Social and Demographic Surveys Division

Activities a/	1983	1987	Activities a/	1983	1987
	% of married women			% of married women	
Cooking			Washing		
mainly wife	83.6	76.8	mainly wife	78.3	80.1
mainly husband	1.1	1.0	mainly husband	0.9	0.9
wife and husband	5.1	7.0	wife and husband	9.7	7.5
Washing up dishes			Ironing		
mainly wife	64.4	61.1	mainly wife	82.6	82.8
mainly husband	2.6	2.9	mainly husband	0.8	1.2
wife and husband	9.3	10.1	wife and husband	2.2	2.3
Cleaning			Clothes mending		
mainly wife	57.1	57.1	mainly wife	85.7	83.2
mainly husband	2.4	1.9	mainly husband	0.5	0.7
wife and husband	15.8	13.5	wife and husband	1.1	1.2
Thorough Cleaning			Everyday shopping		
mainly wife	45.5	45.1	mainly wife	42.2	45.1
mainly husband	2.8	1.6	mainly husband	7.1	8.1
wife and husband	32.1	27.8	wife and husband	21.8	21.5

a/ The table presents the division of the domestic duties exclusively between the husband and wife.

The partnership in the families of married women is also expressed by taking decisions together with the husbands on economic matters, the organization of family life and upbringing of children. The highest percentage of the families in which decisions are taken by husband and wife together is among younger families with the higher level of education living in the urban areas and decreases with the older age of the respondents, lower level of education and among the respondents living in the rural areas.

The way of taking decisions

Decisions	both spouses	exclu-sively husband	exclus-sively wife	both spouses and children	diffe-rently	not appli-cable
	% of married women					
- on economic matters	82.6	3.9	5.0	5.1	3.4	-
- on the organi-zation of family life	75.6	2.0	8.4	9.4	4.6	-
- on children upbringing	63.7	1.2	6.6	2.9	5.2	20.4

In the 1987 survey the women were asked to choose from the five models of lifestyles presented to them. The extreme models meant the orientation either exclusively towards the family or the professional work.

On average, every third woman believes that she should be economically active but she should take a leave in the period of upbringing small children. She should aim towards a partnership in sharing the domestic duties and should value higher the harmony in the family life than her professional career (33.5%).

Preferred lifestyle	age		level of education	
	18-24 years	50-59 years	basic	higher
	in percentage of a given group of women			
A woman should first of all take care of the family, even at her expense, she shouldn't work professionally and she should do by herself the domestic duties	10.1	31.0	32.9	4.1
A woman should treat the domestic duties as her profession which can bring a success, should have her own interests and free time for herself, aim towards partnership in the family and living in the family circle be able to satisfy her own needs	20.8	23.6	23.3	19.1
A woman should work professionally but should take a break from work in the period of upbringing small children, she should aim towards partnership in the division of the domestic duties and should value higher the harmony in the family than professional career	38.7	26.9	27.1	34.1
A woman should work professionally, treat her own duties as the duties of her husband, should aim towards a success both in her job and in her family life	29.7	17.7	16.1	41.5
A woman should value the highest her professional career, aim towards success in her job even at expense of her family	0.7	0.8	0.6	1.2

The variety of the responsibilities of a modern woman (professional work, family life, maternity responsibilities) and the complicated socio-economic situation causes that it is more and more difficult for the Polish women to find time in which they could take a rest, entertain themselves or relax. If they manage to find some spare time they usually spend it at home watching TV. The home-oriented model of spending free time is a typical feature of the eighties.

Ways of spending free time a/	1983	1987	Ways of spending free time a	1983	1987
	% of women			% of women	
Reading books			Listening to the		
everyday	13.8	10.8	radio everyday	68.1	72.7
2-3 times a week	15.9	15.0	2-3 times a week	16.4	16.4
once a week	11.00	8.1	once a week	5 0	3.4
almost never or never	34.2	27.7	almost never or never	6.9	3.9
Reading newspaper			Going to the cinema		
everyday	48.2	46.3	once a month	8.2	6.6
2-3 times a week	24.4	28.2	a few times a year	26.8	27.5
once a week	13.3	13.9			
almost never or never	8.8	4.7	almost never or never	58.1	52.2
Watching TV			Going to the theatre		
everyday	64.0	69.9	once a month	2.6	1.7
2-3 times a week	25.1	24.6	a few times a year	17.3	17.3
once a week	6.9	3.4	almost never or never	78.6	66.5
almost never or never	2.0	05			

a/ Only the most frequently occurring categories were taken into account.

The vast mojority of women have a positive attitude towards professional work. They wanted or would like to work professionally (86.0%). The main reasons for such an attitude towards the professional work are: the eagerness to increase the living standards of the family (44.0%), being financially independent (43.2%), providing the family with basic necessities (40-9%) and the possibility to keep in touch with other people (37.2%).

The social and political activity is not the strong point of women. Only 3.6% of women aged 18-59 belong to political parties, 10.5% to trade unions, 3.5% to the Polish Women's League, and 10.5% of women are members of the Parent's Committees at the school of their children.