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Situation of unpaid work and gender in the Caribbean

The measurement of unpaid work
through time-use studies

Sheila Stuart



UNITED NATIONS

E C L A C

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This document was prepared by Sheila Stuart, Social Affairs Officer, with assistance provided by Candice Gonzales, Research Assistant, of the Social Development and Statistics Unit, of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Subregional Office of the Caribbean.

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Abstract

One of emerging statistical tools for the collection of comprehensive information detailing how individuals spend their time, on a daily or weekly basis, is time-use surveys. These surveys take many different forms to collect vital information which can be used to estimate not only the value of paid and unpaid work, but also the composition of the labour force. The time-use survey is the only available tool for measuring unpaid care work and is also a more cost effective method of collecting timely and accurate data on the gender division of labour within households and the interdependence of the paid and unpaid work undertaken by women and men. This data can be used to enhance the formulation of evidence based policies for pro-poor growth towards the achievement of gender equality and poverty reduction.

While many countries in other regions, including Latin America have undertaken national time-use surveys, the Caribbean remains the only region yet to carry out a full scale survey. This is deemed to be another one of the major data gap in statistical systems in the Caribbean, where the valuation of unpaid work is statistically invisible. This is a serious omission because it means that unpaid work, particularly unpaid care work, despite its important contribution to economic and social development, is not reflected in the economic statistics used for policy making —namely the national accounts and the official labour market statistics.

While definitions of care work vary, it can be described as a category of work which includes activities carried out in the service of others, deemed crucial for human well being and economic development (Razavi, 2007). Care work is often differentiated from other types of work because it is intrinsically linked to labour undertaken out of a sense of duty, responsibility and love/affection, that is, it is often viewed as an emotionally driven occupation. The unpaid care work performed primarily by women, underpins all societies, contributing to well-being, social development and economic growth. Care work, whether paid or unpaid provides vital services to assist with the development of capabilities in human beings. It involves a variety of domestic tasks, such as the preparation of food, cleaning, washing and ironing of clothes, the collection of water and fuel for cooking, as well as, the care of mostly dependant family members, including children, older persons and persons with disabilities. Care work is not only carried out immediate households, or for dependants, but also within communities.

It is estimated that if unpaid care work were assigned a monetary value it would constitute between 10 and 39 per cent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). However, it is generally unrecognised and under-valued by policymakers and legislators.

Introduction

The recognition of the economic value of unpaid work, carried out primarily women, has led to ongoing calls for governments, the United Nations and other intergovernmental agencies, research institutions and civil society to implement methods to collect statistical data on all forms of work. Traditional statistical methods of measuring productive activities focus almost entirely on paid economic activities¹ in the market economy. However, these measures do not provide a comprehensive account of all forms and types of work and employment. In order to provide a more comprehensive account of work and employment, particularly, the economic activities performed by women, it is necessary to measure the unpaid productive activities in what has been coined the care economy.

One of the most unique methods of collecting data on these economic activities in the non market sector is time-use surveys. At the global level, the determinants of time use have attracted a lot of attention (Ilahi, 2000), therefore the aim of this paper is to draw attention to the situation of women, especially in relation the intra-household use of time on unpaid work.

One of the single most important factors contributing to equality between women and men is women's economic empowerment. Empowerment itself is a process of change that gives individuals greater freedom of choice and action. However the empowerment of women requires that they have access to available resources, skills and opportunities. Nonetheless, women face many obstacles that hinder their attainment of economic empowerment. Among these obstacles, is society's dependence on women's unpaid work, either at home or the market, for example, in the agricultural sector, this results in women's increased time poverty, restricting their ability to fully engage in paid work in the formal sector.

Despite these obstacles, and more often because of their overall responsibility for family, women are entering the paid work force in greater numbers, which has reduced the time that they can devote to the care of family members and the community on an unpaid basis. This situation is compounded by the demographic transition in many regions including the Caribbean where the ageing population and major health challenges such as chronic non communicable diseases, have intensified the need for caring services.

¹ United Nations Statistics Division, 2000.

This paper therefore seeks to provide information on time use studies and how they can contribute to the measurement of unpaid work, a sector in which many more women than men are employed, as an avenue towards the development of policies to support and promote women's economic empowerment. The first sections provide definitions of unpaid work and time use studies, while the latter sections provide information on time use methodologies that have been used to collect statistical data on unpaid work.

Information is provided on how the measurement of unpaid productive work can be used to recognise and give visibility to the important contribution that this work makes to national economic development.

The final section begins a discussion on the importance of unpaid work to development policy in a number of critical policy areas including national gender policies for the promotion of gender equality, employment policies and statistical systems.

I. What are time-use surveys?

The collection of time use data is fairly new, but has proved to be extremely useful for policy making. While data on time use in relation to unpaid work and related activities can be collected from a number of sources, including Household surveys, income and expenditure surveys and Surveys of Living conditions, the time-use survey (TUS) is the main statistical tool used to collect this information. Data is collected to measure the time spent by people performing activities during a selected period of time.

The value of time use information lies in the fact that time is the ultimate resource and unlike other resources, time is shared equally by everyone. There are twenty four hours in everyone's day, so comparative analysis of time use begins with the same starting point for everyone. Time can be converted into money, goods and services through work. It is also required for the consumption of goods and services. Analysis of time use therefore provides an overview of both production and consumption (Fleming and Spellerberg 1999).

Variably referred to as Time Use Studies, Time Budget Surveys or Time Allocation Studies, the tool is used to collect detailed information for a wide variety of uses, from measuring the amount of time spent by adults and children on subsistence agriculture in Sub-Saharan Africa, to how much time is spent by teenagers on their mobile phones in the United Kingdom. The collected information is used to show the amount of time spent on each activity during the selected period of time, usually during a twenty four hour period of a seven day week.

However, TUS are commonly used to collect information to identify the differences in time spent on the various activities undertaken by women and men, in particular the time spent on unpaid work in the household.² This unpaid work has been identified as one of the significant factors, which contributes to the poverty of women and to the perpetuation of gender inequality.

The data collected from TUS provides important and unique information on the gender dynamics within households in terms of the division of labour performed therein, including market work, leisure time and housework.

² Margaret Mohammed (2009), page 11.

Activity and time are the two basic benchmarks for the collection of time use data. As Mohammed (2009) states, time-use surveys can reveal the extent of unpaid work within households and possible time poverty. The data from TUS can show who carries out the unpaid work, when they do it, and the number of other tasks the person may have carried out at the same time.

Statistics derived from TUS can be used as an empirical tool to assist in the development of evidence based advocacy, programming and gender sensitive policy formulation to effect real change and bring relief in time related burdens for both women and men. Unlike Census data, TUS statistics is a much more sophisticated tool to inform policy because it can assist with the identification of more pertinent issues, such as disparities not only in incomes, but also can help to identify the root cause of these disparities and the gender effects of these disparities.

TUS therefore provide vital statistics which can be used by policy makers to facilitate the development of gender sensitive budgets for economic planning and targeted intervention policies to address poverty issues and assist in meeting the needs of the most vulnerable groups to assist not only in the achievement of gender equality, but of more egalitarian societies. TUS are a source also of detailed sex disaggregated data, and can also be used as a tool to assist with monitoring and evaluation, by comparing data over time.

II. Rationale for measuring unpaid work

Unpaid care work has long been identified as a cost for those who provide this care, predominantly women. These include a myriad of costs including material costs such as energy, delayed or forgone employment opportunities, lost income and social security benefits. Other costs include the enjoyment (or not) of leisure time. These costs are a major determinant of gender inequalities, within the non-market private sphere of the household and beyond, particularly in the public sphere of the market, (Esquivel, 2013).

Official national income account data includes information on all production and work undertaken in society. However, unpaid work, care work and unpaid care work are areas of work which are largely invisible in national accounts. This invisibility is due to non-recognition of non market work as a contributory factor not only to the market economy but also to the total economy. The practise of not counting most of the household and related activities in national accounts perpetuates gender inequality, which inhibits economic growth and poverty reduction.

The conceptual and policy rationale for the collection of time use data are “to produce aggregate estimations of unpaid care work, which through the imputation of monetary values, would contribute to the building of household sector satellite accounts³”, (Esquivel, 2013). The underlying rationale is that time is a very important economic resource, particularly when viewed in the context where the economic agents’ (individual or household) interaction with the outside world (through market activities) is relatively restricted. Accounting for intra-household work, particularly women’s work, and ensuring that this work is reflected in representations of how economies work is a crucial aspect of the relationship between unpaid care work and time use data.

Another important factor in examining the intra-household allocation of time, is that time is generally not equally distributed across household members. There are major differences not only along gender lines, but also by age, social status and wealth, amongst others as demonstrated in Table I below. In both developed and developing countries, when unpaid work is taken into account, the results are that women work longer hours than men. However the persistent structural discrimination prevalent in all

³ The recommendation of the System of National Accounts which established the rules for national accounts, is for unpaid care work to be included in “satellite” accounts in parallel to core national accounts and not be included in the calculation of GDP.

societies, means that work performed by women in the household is seen as less valuable to society and also as largely unskilled, which means that men not only receive higher pay than women, but also are given more recognition for their contribution to society. This is largely responsible for women's lack of economic autonomy and for their financial dependence on men.

TABLE 1
TIME SPENT IN UNPAID AND PAID WORK BY MEN AND WOMEN IN TWO-ADULT FAMILIES
WITH A CHILD UNDER FIVE YEARS OLD
(Average hours per day)

Country	Men (average for all men)		Women (employed full-time in paid work)		Ratio: Women to men	
	Unpaid	Paid	Unpaid	Paid	Childcare	All unpaid
Canada (1998)	4.0	6.3	5.1	5.9	1.4	1.3
United States of America (1995)	2.5	6.2	4.2	4.9	1.9	1.7
Denmark (1987)	2.3	7.2	4.0	5.4	2.0	1.7
Finland (1987)	2.8	6.1	5.6	3.9	2.8	2.0
Sweden (1991)	3.7	6.4	6.1	3.9	1.9	1.6
Italy (1989)	1.8	6.6	6.4	4.2	2.7	3.6
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (1995)	3.1	6.3	7.4	3.5	1.4	2.4
Austria (1992)	2.2	6.9	5.8	4.7	2.2	2.6
Germany (1992)	3.4	6.1	6.2	4.1	2.1	1.8
Netherlands (1985)	2.9	5.2	6.2	1.7	2.4	2.1
Australia (1997)	2.9	6.1	4.6	6.0	1.8	1.6

Source: Shara Razavi, "The Political and Social Economy of Care in a Development Context: Conceptual Issues, Research Questions and Policy Options", United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, June 2007.

BOX 1
ARE WOMEN "TIME POOR" RELATIVE TO MEN?

Worldwide women perform the bulk of child care and household maintenance. Women in most settings combine household work with market or non market work to generate income or raise household consumption – work not often captured in traditional labour force statistics. Women tend to work significantly more hours than men when both market and household work are taken into account.

The gender differences in time spent working vary across developing countries. But women commonly work an hour or more a day than men. In the Cayman Islands the average time spent by residents over the age of 15 doing unpaid housework was 10.5 hours per week, with females reporting that they spent 13.5 hours, while males spent just over half that time 7.2 hours. (Cayman Islands National Policy on Gender Equity and Equality) while few studies compare time use by gender across households at different household levels, evidence suggests that gender disparities in time use tend to be greater among the poor than the rich (Ilahi 2000).

This raises questions about how women's primary responsibility for household work, along with more total hours of work, affects their welfare relative to that of men. To the extent that the gender division of labour in the family means that women undertake household work at the expense of income-generating activities, this limits their bargaining power and decision-making capacity in the home. And that has implications for their well-being. Moreover, gender disparities in hours worked imply that even if there are no gender biases in consumption in a household, women will work more hours than men to achieve the same consumption (Lipton and Ravallion 1995).

Source: World Bank, 2001, *Engendering Development: Through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources, and Voice*.

According to the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), households represent a major sector in national economies and therefore are the primary source of data to examine "the substantial contributions made by women and the limitations they face". The results of time use studies/surveys undertaken in several regions indicate that significant amounts of the time of women, is spent on a daily and/or weekly basis, producing goods and services in the household. Please see information in box 1, which points to the fact that women tend to be more "time poor" than men.

The intensity and amount of unpaid care work increases with poverty and social exclusion and is also more likely to be intensified for rural women. Women and girls living in poor households spend more time in unpaid work than non-poor households in all countries and at all levels of development.⁴ This is often due to the lack of access to public services for people living in poverty or in rural area and the lack of adequate infrastructure, such as the provision of transportation, pipe borne water and sanitation facilities. The lack of these services has a disproportionate impact on poor women living in rural area, who spend large amounts of time collecting water and other goods and services for household use.

However, household work in the non market sector is generally undervalued and undocumented because it replaces the household and care services that women have traditionally provided free of any remuneration.⁵ Furthermore the fact that it falls outside of regular employment, it is often explicitly excluded from labour legislation and social protection.

It is also inadequate to concentrate solely on market related activities and exchanges. For example, if it is necessary for household members to collect water from the nearest standpipe or river for use in the household, they are providing an alternative (albeit an inferior one) to pipe borne water supply in the household. Unfortunately, this type of very time consuming activity is blind to those looking for market interactions, and is therefore not recorded in national income accounts. Nonetheless, this is an important component of the basic needs of households. The fact that this activity is not recorded in official data is a failure on the part of the economy to generate adequate remunerative employment opportunities or households to afford such services. In other words, by overlooking the way in which household members allocate their time, overlooks how the household economy works (Ilahi 2000).

⁴ ILO and UNDP, Work and Family.

⁵ UN-WOMEN (2011), page 36.

III. Measuring time use

A Draft International Classification of activities for time-use Statistics (ICATUS) was adopted in October 2000 at a United Nations Statistics Division Expert Group Meeting on *Methods for Conducting Time-Use Surveys: Gender issues in the measurement of paid and unpaid work*. The adoption of the ICATUS was viewed as a step toward promoting the collection and compilation of data on paid and unpaid work. It addressed two main issues:

- Better measurement of production of goods by household members for own final use. These involve activities considered as work within the production boundary of the System of National Accounts (SNA) but are generally underestimated in labour force statistics, and
- Better identification of SNA work in informal sector enterprises. Many of these activities are not covered well in data collection on economic activity for several reasons – women and men who engage in such activities may not consider these as work because they are perceived as too small-scale, of subsistence-level, of short duration or seasonal, or because many of these activities may actually be done as part of production of services for own final use (e.g. cooking food for both the household and for sale); designers of surveys may not identify these accurately in operational definitions and in survey instruments; enumerators may have inadequate knowledge of what these activities are and may impose their own biases and judgments in recording them.⁶

The ICATUS differentiates between activities with respect to the relationship they bear to the production boundary of the SNA. It consists of 15 main categories, which are indicated by alphabetical labels from A to O. Each category consists of eight or more divisions. For example, categories A to E correspond to System of National Accounts work, namely those activities done in relation to production, categories F to H correspond to non-SNA work, namely those done in relation to production, but which fall outside of the SNA boundary; and categories I to O correspond to non-production activities.

⁶ United Nations Secretariat Statistics Division, Draft International Classification of Activities for the Time Use Statistics, Expert Group Meeting on Methods for conducting Time-Use Survey, New York, 23-27 October 2000.

The non-productive activities are classified in two groups: personal care, such as eating, sleeping, personal health, dressing and taking care of one's body, and personal recreation, as social visit, reading the newspaper, watching TV, going to the cinema, listening to the music, sports and resting. They are labelled as non productive because their product cannot be received for another, they are not exchangeable.⁷

There are three main problems linked to this revision:

- Underestimation of the value of the good produced for household consumption;
- Omission of the value of the household maintenance and care work from gross domestic product (GDP);
- Self-education performed within the home is classified as entirely “non-productive”.⁸

Time-use surveys are the starting point for creating Satellite Accounts⁹ to measure unpaid work. They are an alternative mechanism for measuring the value of unpaid work and household production.

One weakness of the Satellite Accounts is that they may not be the most effective way to measure many types of unpaid work such as community participation, self-education, travel time to and from paid work, which are not included in the SNA or extended-SNA production boundaries. Obstacles to the implementation of time-use surveys are a lack of updated and recent statistics, an insufficient appropriation of the concept of gender equality at the national level, antiquated judicial systems that have difficulties to implement gender sensitive public policy, an external impetus to conduct them and insufficient capacity-building and follow-up.

⁷ See UNDP (United Nations Development Program), *Global Conference on Unpaid work and the Economy: Gender, Poverty, and the Millennium Development Goals*, Conference Proceedings, Levy Institute, New York, 1-3 October 2005.

⁸ See UNDP (United Nations Development Program), *Costing the Care Economy*, Columbia University, New York, December 2004, pp. 32-35.

⁹ Satellite accounts provide a framework linked to the central (national or regional) accounts, allowing attention to be focused on a certain field or aspect of economic and social life in the context of national accounts; common examples are satellite accounts for the environment, or tourism, or unpaid household work. Satellite accounts are one way in which the System of National Accounts may be adapted to meet differing circumstances and needs. They are closely linked to the main system but are not bound to employ exactly the same concepts or restrict themselves to data expressed in monetary terms. Satellite accounts are intended for special purposes such as monitoring the community's health or the state of the environment. They may also be used to explore new methodologies and to work out new accounting procedures that, when fully developed and accepted, may become absorbed into the main system over time.

IV. Defining unpaid work, care work and unpaid care work

The 1993 United Nations System of National Accounts (SNA) defines unpaid work as non market work. Prior to 1993 the SNA excluded measurement of much of this non market work which is primarily undertaken by women.

Available literature, refer to domestic work¹⁰ or housework as *unpaid or unwaged or unremunerated* work.¹¹ This work is performed predominantly by women in their own homes, and while it primarily involves the care of children, it is not limited to childcare but involves a wide range of activities. The literature identifies many different types of unpaid work, such as: (i) unpaid domestic work; (ii) unpaid subsistence activities; (iii) unpaid family work; (iv) unpaid work in paid workplaces; and (v) volunteering.

The unpaid domestic work tasks performed by women for their households and families include preparation of meals, cleaning, clothing care, gardening, home maintenance and management, care for children and adults, and in some instances the provision of unpaid help to other households. It also includes shopping or obtaining services, and unpaid work in family businesses. It is important to underline that each category of work performed includes a subset of tasks, for example, unpaid subsistence activity is another kind of unpaid work, performed predominantly by women, and includes activities such as cultivation of vegetables, fetching wood and water and the care of livestock animals.

Another category of unpaid work is volunteering, which is often performed for persons that are not family members. It involves both work performed for formal non-profit organizations and care provided in an informal way by individuals for other individuals. Volunteer work is varied and extensive. It includes caring for neighbours, forming community groups and institutions, advocacy, helping out in political campaigns, working with people in or leaving prison, agriculture work community gardens, international producing theatre and arts, counselling and education. In the

¹⁰ The concept of domestic work has been variously referred to as housework and/or domestic labour and these terms are used interchangeably in this paper to refer to work in the domestic economy, also referred to as the care economy or reproductive work.

¹¹ It is argued that the time devoted to housework limits women's opportunities to earn wages or salaries in the formal labour market.

Caribbean women also perform unpaid labour in the agricultural sector, and yet continue to have more responsibilities than men in the household, which reinforces women’s marginalization and contributes to the gendered dimension of poverty.¹²

Care defines activities that serves people and their maintenance and well being and includes both personal care and care related activities, such as cooking, cleaning and washing clothes. Work means that the activity entails expenditure of time and energy. Unpaid care work is also referred to as “reproductive” or “domestic” work in order to distinguish it from market based work. The International Labour Organization (ILO) uses the term “workers with family responsibilities”.

The International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Surveys distinguishes between three subcategories of unpaid care work: household maintenance; care of persons in one’s own household; and services and help to households in the community.

BOX 2

A NOTE ON TERMINOLOGY: UNPAID WORK, CARE WORK AND UNPAID CARE WORK

The terms “unpaid work”, “care work” and “unpaid care work” are sometimes used interchangeably. This is wrong and misleading, even though there are some overlapping areas among them.

Unpaid work includes a diverse range of activities that take place outside the cash nexus. It includes (i) unpaid work on the household plot or in the family business; (ii) activities such as the collection of water and firewood for self consumption; and (iii) unpaid care of one’s child, elderly parent or friend affected by a chronic illness.

Some elements of unpaid work—for example, unpaid work in a family business—are included in the SNA production boundary and should be included in the calculation of GDP. Other elements of unpaid work—for example, collection of firewood and water—are (since the 1993 revision of the SNA) included in the SNA production boundary and should be included in GDP calculations, although relatively few countries do this. Unpaid services such as shopping, meal preparation, washing clothes and so on and unpaid care provided for one’s child, elderly parent or neighbour are excluded for the SNA and GDP calculations.

Care work involves direct care of persons; it can be paid or unpaid. Those with intense care needs include young children, the frail elderly and people with various illnesses and disabilities, but able-bodied adults also require and receive care. Paid carers include nannies, child miners, nurses and care workers in homes for the elderly and other institutional settings; they can work in a variety of institutions (public, market, not-for-profit). Direct care of persons (bathing them, feeding them, accompanying them to the doctor, taking them for walks, talking to them and so on) is often seen as separate from the other necessary activities that provide the preconditions for personal care-giving such as preparing meals, shopping and cleaning sheets and clothes. But such boundaries are arbitrary, especially since the persons needing intensive care are often also unable to do such tasks themselves. Domestic workers often undertake some forms of care work (for example, child-minding (even though they are not defined as “paid carers”).

Unpaid care work is care of persons for no explicit monetary reward. The largest amount of unpaid care work in nearly all societies takes place within households/families, but individuals also perform unpaid care across households and across families—for other kin, friends, neighbours and community members—and also within a variety of institutions (public, market, not-for-profit, community) or an unpaid or voluntary basis. Unpaid care constitutes the overlapping area across the three categories.

Source: Shara Razavi, “The Political and Social Economy of Care in a Development Context: Conceptual Issues, Research Questions and Policy Options”, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, June 2007.

Unpaid care work is a critical –yet largely invisible– dimension of human well being that provides essential domestic services within households, for other households and its community members. Unpaid means that the person doing the activity does not receive a wage and that the work, because it falls outside the production boundary in the System of National Accounts, is not counted in Gross Domestic Product calculations.

¹² <http://www.unpac.ca/> (February 2007).

V. Unpaid care work and social services

Another aspect of the unpaid work performed by women is best described as an extension of the social services that should in essence be provided by the state. The increased need for such services was magnified during the period of structural adjustment and more recently as a result of the 2008-2009 global food, energy and economic crises, when a greater burden was placed on women to provide social services routinely provided by the state and which mirrors the unpaid care work carried out at the domestic level, for example, health care and other unpaid community services. This trend has continued over the last decade and has been exacerbated not only by the growing HIV and AIDS epidemic, but also by the increasing need for the provision of care for persons with disabilities and the growing number of elderly persons in the Caribbean.

The additional burden of care caused by the impact of HIV and AIDS in most countries of the Caribbean has added not only to the unpaid workload of predominantly older women, but it has also added to their poverty. These grandmothers and other relatives are increasingly being called upon to take care of their sick children and/or spouses and are often left to look after the orphaned grandchildren when parents afflicted with the disease die. In many instances women are the ones looking after family members with AIDS related illnesses because of the lack of hospital beds or because of the stigma and discrimination associated with the disease, which again makes this unpaid work very invisible.

In addition to the burden of care brought about by HIV and AIDS, there is also the responsibility for care of a growing population of persons living with disabilities in the subregion. According to the 2011 World Report on Disability¹³ in order to achieve a good quality of life and to participate in economic and social aspect of life on an equal basis with others, many persons with disabilities require assistance and support. For most persons with disabilities their primary care-giver is a parent or other family member including siblings and extended family members. In this way, they are able to live within a family setting, however, where this is not possible care is provided by a formal setting outside of the home, and is often provided by the state or private institutions.

¹³ World Report on Disability 2011. World Health Organization and the World Bank.

In the Caribbean state support and provision of services for persons living with disabilities are inadequate due to a myriad of factors including the lack of resources. As a result, the major responsibility for the care and rehabilitation of these persons falls on family members, usually the mother or other female relatives. In a national survey that was undertaken in Guyana, the impact of caring for a family member with a disability was identified as threefold; namely caring responsibilities, financial and emotional.¹⁴

The entire family is affected by disability, not only the individual with a disability. In the Guyana study almost ninety percent of the respondents stated that they resided with immediate or extended family.¹⁵ Similarly the direct and indirect costs of a disability impacts both the individual and the family unit, which includes costs for health and related treatments, travel costs and indirect costs of carers and lost opportunities for income earning and economic autonomy. The responsibilities and demands faced by caregivers who provide physical care can often be burdensome especially for mothers who have to move or lift a physically disabled child. Many carers are unable to carry out these chores alone and the physical strain of lifting a child or an adult have often resulted in injury to their own health.

Further women are likely to fall victim to poverty when the male head of household falls ill, leaving them to bear the burden of caring for orphaned children. Further, the loss of income is often the catalyst for women to seek other sources of income, whether legitimate or illegitimate.

This and other responsibilities underscore the myriad of social services provided by women at all stages in their lifecycle and for which they receive no payment or economic reward. In this regard women contribute to what are very weak and inadequate social service delivery programmes and in no small measure to social protection.

¹⁴ National Council on Disability survey: Raising the Profile of Disability in Guyana, 2005.

¹⁵ Ibid.

VI. Mandates for measuring time use

The contribution made by women to the family and to the social and economic development of society was first given recognition in the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). Interest in unpaid work and its contribution to societal development was further heightened at the 1995 United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women. The strategic objectives and actions of the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPA) called for the development of “suitable statistical means to recognise the full impact of the work of women and their contributions to the national economy, including those to the unpaid and domestic sectors.”

The BPA recognised the contribution of women to development not only through paid work but also through a great deal of unpaid work. On the one hand, women participate in the production of goods and services for the market and household consumption, in agriculture, food production or family enterprises. Though included in the System of National Accounts and therefore in international standards for labour statistics, the BFA highlighted the fact that this tends to be both undervalued and under-recorded. On the other hand, women also perform the majority of unpaid domestic and community work, such as caring for children, sick family members, and older persons, preparing food for the family, protecting the environment and providing voluntary assistance to vulnerable and disadvantaged individuals and groups. This work is often not measured in quantitative terms and is not valued in national accounts. As a result, women’s contribution to development is seriously underestimated, and thus undervalued.

The full visibility of type, extent and distribution of this unremunerated work will also contribute to a better sharing of responsibilities.

Paragraph 206 of the Beijing Platform for Action specifically calls for: “Actions to be taken by national, regional and international statistical services and relevant governmental and United Nations agencies, in cooperation with research and documentation organizations, in their respective areas of responsibility: [...]

- Develop a more comprehensive knowledge of all forms of work and employment by:
 - Improving data collection on the unremunerated work which is already included in the United Nations System of National Accounts, such as in agriculture, particularly subsistence agriculture, and other types of non-market production activities;
 - Improving measurement that at present underestimates women’s unemployment and underemployment in the labour market;
 - Developing methods, in the appropriate forum, for assessing the value, in quantitative terms, of unremunerated work that is outside national accounts, such as caring for dependents and preparing food, for possible reflection in satellite or other official accounts that may be produced separately from but are consistent with core national accounts, with a view to recognizing the economic contribution of women and making visible the unequal distribution of remunerated and unremunerated work between women and men;
- Develop an international classification of activities for time-use statistics that is sensitive to the differences between women and men in remunerated and unremunerated work, and collect data disaggregated by sex. At the national level, subject to national constraints:
 - Conduct regular time-use studies to measure, in quantitative terms, unremunerated work, including recording those activities that are performed simultaneously with remunerated or other unremunerated activities;
 - Measure, in quantitative terms, unremunerated work that is outside national accounts, work to improve methods to assess its value, and accurately reflect its value in satellite or other official accounts which are separate from, but consistent with core national accounts [...].¹⁶

The Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) in 2005 adopted a resolution, encouraging governments to include indicators on the value of unpaid time devoted to health care in the home by women and men and further to link these indicators to total expenditures for health care system in their national health accounts.

¹⁶ Beijing Platform of Action, paragraph 206.

VII. Regional mandates

Support for research into unpaid work and time use received at the 2007 ECLAC tenth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, which was held in Quito, Ecuador. The outcome document the Quito Consensus recognized the contribution of unpaid work to the social and economic development of Latin America and the Caribbean. Agreement XIV of the Consensus calls for the adoption of “*measures in all spheres of institutional democratic affairs, and in particular, in economic and social areas, including legislative measures and institutional reforms, to ensure recognition of unpaid work and its contribution to families’ well-being and to countries’ economic development, and to promote its inclusion in national accounts.*” Agreement XXIII called for the development of “*instruments, especially time-use surveys, for periodically measuring unpaid work performed by women and men in order to make such work visible and recognize its value, to incorporate their results into the System of National Accounts and to design economic and social policies accordingly.*”

VIII. Subregional mandates

A. Legislation

The government of Trinidad and Tobago stands alone as the only Caribbean state to pass legislation to Count Women's Unremunerated Work in 1996. The Counting Women's Unremunerated Work Bill was first introduced in February 1995, as an Act to *“require the Central Statistical Office and other public bodies to produce and maintain statistics relative to the counting of unremunerated work and to provide a mechanism for quantifying and recording the monetary value of such work.”*

The Bill was expected to take into account and give value to a wide range of domestic tasks including agricultural work, care-giving of the sick, the disabled, the elderly and very young; work carried out in and around households; unpaid “Social Safety Net” work, and work carried out by both men and women in Non-governmental Organizations, *not as part of the overall GDP but, hopefully, parallel to it, to recognize the value of the work that is being given to society.*¹⁷

B. National gender policies

A number of national gender policies such as the 2011 National Policy for Gender Equality of Jamaica, and the Draft National Policy on Gender and Development of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago include policy recommendations on gender and care work. The Jamaica policy calls for the implementation of time-use surveys for understanding and measuring how unpaid work contributes to the national economy. It also calls for the creation of a system to capture, quantify and value unwaged/unpaid care labour and domestic work in the household and elsewhere.¹⁸

¹⁷ Parliamentary Debates of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, Tuesday, February 7, 1995 – 1453.

¹⁸ 2011, Jamaica National Policy for Gender Equality, pages 77 – 78.

C. Time-use surveys methodologies

Time-use studies can be conducted using a number of survey methods for collecting time use data. The interview method, the self-reporting diary method and the observation method are the most popular techniques. The collection of time use data present many interesting survey design issues. Time use studies may have the goal of not only sampling across the population, but also across hours in the day, days of the week, and seasons of the year. Surveys often have the goal of accounting for time in a specified period, usually a day. For some studies, a sample of a day's activities may be sufficient to achieve the goal of the study. Often time use studies need to collect information on where the respondent was during the activity, who the respondent was with, and whether the respondent was doing anything else in addition to the primary activity being reported.

The most widely used method for collecting time use data for a large sample of persons is the diary. The essence of the diary method is that respondents are asked to make a complete record of their activities over a period of time —usually one twenty four hour day. Although it is not always the case, diaries usually **ask open ended questions** about the respondents' amount of time spent in activities. In other words, the respondents enter the time an activity starts and finishes on a free form basis, rather than in time slots of (say) fifteen minutes. Activities are then classified and coded first into broad groups and then into more specific groups according to a set standard.

Time diaries can be filled out during the day or retrospectively. Sometimes survey respondents are interviewed to orient the respondent to the survey and then diaries are left behind with the respondents to be filled out for the next day. These are called leave-behind diaries. In contrast, a retrospective diary is one in which a respondent is asked to recall what he or she did for the “designated diary day” —the day for which the respondent has been asked to report his or her activities.

The choice of a leave behind diary or a retrospective diary has cost implications and data quality implications. Using leave behind diaries tend to be more expensive because an orientation interview for the study usually must usually be given to the respondent prior to leaving the diary. An interview may also be needed after the diary is completed to clarify respondents' answers or to fill in missing information. For retrospective diaries, respondents are oriented to the interview and provide responses in one sitting or telephone interview and are less expensive. However retrospective diaries rely on respondent's ability to recall how they spent their time, which may affect data quality.

Diaries can be used to collect data for one day; several specific days, for example a weekday and a weekend day; or for an entire week or month. Diaries may also collect information from one or more household members based on a number of factors including age and sex. They can also be used to collect information such as, who the respondent was with during the activity, where the activity took place and whether the respondent was also doing another activity. Diaries may collect very basic information about the respondent, such as age, race and size of household or they may have extensive sets of questions on specific topics. This can include questions on volunteer activities, educational activities, time spent on unpaid activities and time spent in child care activities.

More stylized questions are often designed to capture information on the amount of time spent on a particular activity. These questions are often used to supplement time diaries to collect information that the regular diary may not capture, for example, the time of another household member's time or time spent being “on call” for child care – i.e. not actively caring for the child, but simply being present and available in case of an emergency —which may not be recorded as the primary activity and hence may not be easily identified in diaries. These questions may also capture information that respondents are reluctant and or unwilling to report in a diary e.g. sexual activity or deviant behaviour.

TABLE 2
AN EXAMPLE OF A TIME DIARY USED BY AUSTRALIA

Day 1 6 a.m. 9 a.m.

	1 What was your main activity? (Please record all activities, even if they only lasted a few minutes)	2 Who did you do this for? (e.g. self, family, work, friend, a charity, the community)	3 What else were you doing at the same time? (e.g. childminding, watching television, listening to the radio)	4 Where were you? (e.g. at work, home, on a bus, driving a car)	5 Who was with you at home, or with you away from home? (e.g. no-one, family, friends)
6:00	Sleep	Self	Passive child care	Home	Family
.05	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.10					
.15	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.20	Toilet				
.25	Had shower				
.30	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.35	Got dressed				
.40	Put on a load of washing	Family			
.45	Made breakfast		Talked to family		
.50	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.55	Ate breakfast	Self	Read newspaper		
7:00	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.05					
.10	Hung washing on line	Family	Nothing		
.15	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.20	Dressed children	Children	Talked to children		
.25	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.30	Brushed hair, teeth, etc.	Self	Nothing		
.35	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.40					
.45	Packed children s bags	Children	Said goodbye to partner		
.50	Drove children to my		Talked to children	Driving car	2 children
.55	mother s house			↓	↓
8:00	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.05					
.10	Greeted my mother	Self	Organising children	Mother s	Children &
.15	Said goodbye to children		Nothing	↓	mother
.20	Drove to work		Listening to radio	Car	No-one
.25	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.30					
.35	Parked car & walked to work		Nothing	Street	↓
.40	Working	Work		Work	Workmates
.45	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
.50					
.55	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
9:00					

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics.

Note: See Stinson Linda L., "Measuring how people spend their time: a time-use survey design", in Monthly Labour Review, Vol. 122, No. 8, August 1999, p. 15.

The self-reporting diary method allows individuals to record how they spend their time in their own words. This system is the most used for collecting large scale data. The advantage of the self-reporting diary method is that it is open-ended and diary can be easily integrated into statistical methods. This method can be used for long stretches of time or at different intervals of time. It helps to avoid the bias of overestimation, frequent in the simple survey questions. But this method has also disadvantages. Recall errors are frequent and it's not so successful with people of low levels of literacy.

The interview method or recall interviewer method is very common, especially in developing countries. With this system persons are trained to conduct in-person interviews with respondents concerning their daily time-use. Interviewers can collect data on time-use through face-to-face interviews or telephone surveys. These interviews are generally done using stylized questions,

standardized surveys or formal questionnaires. A large number of countries use this method, because it is suitable for use with populations with lower levels of literacy, particularly where they are not familiar with more formal questionnaires and standard modes of “time clock” measurement.

The interview method is more effective in capturing contextual information from individuals. In this way the interviewer can determine where an activity occurred, whether other people were present during the activity, the person for whom the activity was done, if the activity was paid or unpaid and the purpose of the activity. Another advantage of this method is that it allows for data collection on multiple individuals in a household; this is important because it captures intra-family disparities in resources and time allocation. Additionally this method requires a significant investment in training and monitoring of investigators. It should not be limited to technical and operational issues, but it has to include elements for augmenting local cultural competence, gender awareness and gender sensitivity.

Some time-use surveys e.g. in Canada, have used Computer Assisted telephone interviews (CATI) technology, which is less expensive than paper and pen interviews. The use of CATI can also help to speed up interviews and allows for the validation of answers while an interview is ongoing, e.g. interviewers may be notified when a value given by the respondent falls outside of a value range of answers, which can assist in improving data quality.

A challenge with using CATI for time diaries is that interviewers can sometimes be given considerable discretion to classify activities. Since different interviewers may classify similar activities differently, there may be variability in the classification of activities across interviewers. This requires that special and careful attention be given in establishing coding procedures and the training of interviewers about these procedures.

The observation method is highly structured, and can be undertaken by either continual observation and/or random spot-checks. In the first method, the researcher makes prior arrangements with the respondent for recording all his/her behaviours for an extended period of time (usually 1 day). In the random spot-checks observation method the researcher records behaviours for a short period of time (usually 1 to 2 hours). The advantages of the observation method are several. For example it's more accurate than the other methods, because the results are not biased by subject recall errors and they are more easily standardized.

In addition, this method, as with the interview method, doesn't require a high literacy rate. A specific advantage of the random spot-check method is that the observation session is random and unannounced and the outcome is an accurate representation of normal behaviours. The observation method has several disadvantages; the researcher has to more work to undertake and it's more expensive than the other methods. This is because the researcher is required to physically travel to the location of the subject and observe only one household at a time. This method is also prone to bias, due to the behavioural changes in the individuals under observation. One very real challenge is that persons under observation may/could change their behaviours if they know that are being studied. Another factor that can cause bias is movement to a new location. In order to overcome these biases many time-use studies use a combination of the observation method with other methods.¹⁹

¹⁹ See UNDP (United Nations Development Program), *Costing the Care Economy*, Columbia University, New York, December 2004, pp. 2-17.

IX. The results of time-use studies

The data collected from time use studies hold the potential to inform development policy interventions, be they poverty alleviation, safety nets, basic services projects or agricultural extension programmes. (Ilahi 2000). The availability of time of all or some household members can significantly impact the outcomes of projects. For example, if household members living in rural areas spend a great deal of time travelling to work or school on foot, then there is very high probability that the provision of rural roads and public transportation would yield high returns in terms of increased productivity, health and related benefits.

Results of times use studies in Europe has quantified the value of unpaid work as high as 36.8 per cent of the European Union GDP. The most ideal source of information to estimate the value of unpaid family care work is a data set containing information on both the hours devoted to unpaid family care work and the labour earnings necessary to estimate its value (Francavilla et al. 2011).

The results of time use studies can also provide very useful information on the impact of labour market exclusion, by quantifying the amount of time spent searching for work. The results can also provide useful data on whether those self-described as unemployed or are in fact working (for money or not), within or outside of their own households. Information from time use studies in the United Kingdom, for example, have shown that at least one third of all working age non-employed perform some paid work in any given week. It therefore raises crucial questions pertaining to whether or not this continues to be the case, or whether those who lose their jobs spend more time performing household tasks such as cleaning and cooking as well as other productive household activities, or do they simply slide into inactivity.

Data from time use studies can also help us to understand changes in the domestic division of labour, which is critical for achieving gender equality. Despite women's growing presence in the labour market, it has been argued that they are still largely responsible for domestic chores. However data from historical time use diaries is probably the only valid source to have established that, (1) there has been a substantial convergence in the total domestic work time of men and women, and (2) that the gap between women and men total time use is still sufficiently large which places women at a distinct disadvantage in competition for jobs and promotions (Gershuny 2013).

Other useful information gathered from time use data, includes information not only on care activities, but also on relationships within the household. For example, by recording multiple simultaneous activities and registering who is present during these tasks, it is possible to provide “uniquely specific and reliable evidence of the relationships between spouses and the true time devoted to child care and development, and to elder-care.” This information is especially useful in identifying the amount of time use in relation to the total time spent with, looking after, and caring for children and the elderly (Ibid)

Finally, the results of time use studies undertaken in the United States have been used to estimate individual exposure to environmental risk such as sunlight and toxins. The time diary studies have also provided useful information for predicting fuel demand, which is derived from the individual and household travel, space heating/cooling, cooking and leisure activities. Further, time series information from studies dating back to the 1960s to the present in the United Kingdom have shown the decline in how families spend time together, for example, Sundays which was once the focus for family lunches is now more devoted to shopping and other pursuits.

TUS like Censuses should be viewed as part of a wider statistical system, with TUS data providing important baseline data for policy. The value of the TUS is increased if the results can be used together with the results of other investigations and can be used as the basis or as a benchmark for current statistics.

X. Policy and Unpaid Work in the Caribbean

One fundamental purpose of the Time-Use Survey (TUS) is to provide the facts essential to governmental policymaking, planning and administration. Evidenced-based decision making is universally recognized as essential for efficient management of economic and social affairs and of overall effective governing of societies today.

Today unpaid work needs to be recognized, especially for understanding the contribution of women to national economy and for assuring women better living-conditions. There is an urgent need to implement time-use surveys in the Caribbean in order to get a better understanding how unpaid work contributes to the national economies. These studies help to build a solid basis of information necessary for the implementation of evidence-based gender sensitive policies, and the promotion of the value of women's work, their role in the society and their contribution to national production.

Interestingly, the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago is yet to conduct a time-use survey, despite the passage of legislation in 1996 on counting women's unremunerated work. In fact as early as 1997, one Senator lamented the fact that "there was no disaggregation of the contribution of women to the Gross Domestic Product —unpaid work done mainly by women. The Senator was critical of the fact that the legislation was a public relations effort,²⁰ but had immense value in helping to determine the extent of poverty because attached to the legislation was the proviso for Government to hold periodically, a minimum of once every three years, a household survey.

A number of recent national gender policies such as the 2011 Jamaica National Policy for Gender Equality and 2009 Draft National policy on Gender and Development of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago include policy recommendation on "gender and Care work".²¹ The Jamaica policy calls for the following:

- Implement time-use surveys for understanding and measuring how unpaid work contributes to the national economy;

²⁰ Senator. Prof. John Spence, Senate Debates, December 30, 1997.

²¹ Appendix 7. Issues & Policy Recommendations from National Consultations.

- Encourage the equal sharing of responsibilities between women and men, including care-giving in the context of HIV and AIDS;
- Create a system to capture, quantify and value unwaged/unpaid care labour and domestic work in the household and elsewhere;
- Establish a means of reducing and redistributing certain kinds of unpaid work through policies and programmes to facilitate this “burden” sharing;
- Identify care-giving support strategies and policies that may serve as a model for the design and implementation of redistribution processes; and
- Explore ways that home-based care work can be supported and compensated through policies and budgets.

The Trinidad and Tobago national policy contains a detailed section on “Unwaged Economic Activities, Domestic and Family Life”, which identifies the fact that the gender analysis of mainstream economics has served to bring to the fore, the value of unwaged invisible work in the operation of the economy. It also identifies the many ways in which the productive waged economy is facilitated by the reproductive unwaged economy. As stated “the advancement of such work has prioritized an understanding of the concept of unwaged work as being fundamental to people centre, holistic gender sensitive policy development policy”.

The lack of recognition for unwaged reproductive activities carried out by women, including unpaid agricultural work as family workers on farms and within family businesses was identified as an emerging area of concern for policy intervention. The time which women have to effectively participate in the labour market was curtailed by their unwaged work in the home, which also serves to limit their personal and life choices. The need to transform the internal family dynamics to make them more equitable, recognizing women and men as leaders and decision-makers within households, with shared responsibilities for the care and nurturing of children was therefore underscored in the policy.

Among the policy measures identified for implementation in the Trinidad and Tobago policy are the following:²²

- Collation, analysis and publication of findings from Census data on unremunerated household work, consistent with the requirements of the Counting of Unremunerated work Act of 1996, to provide statistical fact on the contribution of unwaged household work to national development.
- Examination of sex disaggregated data and increased research on unpaid work in various sectors, including agriculture and family businesses, within the formal and informal contexts, as a basis for the allocation of resources for the training and development of unpaid workers.
- Development of programmes aimed at increasing understanding of the value and visibility of housework and other forms of unremunerated work, including mechanisms to encourage increased male participation in housework, childcare and other areas deemed to be ‘women’s work’ and which are normally unremunerated. Draft National Policy on Gender and Development of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago
- Provision of increased innovative opportunities for women and men engaged in unwaged housework to access information communications technology, lifelong learning, and opportunities for part-time, short and long-term income earning possibilities. Such opportunities will include contemporary employment strategies that allow persons to work from home, or take extended work leave to care for young children and the elderly, and return to the job market without penalty and loss of opportunities.

²² For the full list see appendix 3.

Given these policy prescriptions, there is need in the Caribbean to develop the necessary framework to implement them to bring about the desired transformation of the condition of women. Action therefore needs to be taken to conduct national level time use studies in the Caribbean to not only measure women's economic contribution to national accounts, but more importantly to use the information collected to develop policies that promote a more equal sharing of unpaid care work between men and women, as a measure towards women's economic empowerment, by releasing them to participate more fully in the paid labour force.

XI. Conclusion

Advancing women's economic empowerments should become a national priority of all Caribbean governments. "It is the right thing to do from both a human rights and economic perspective."²³ There is need for States to comply with their obligations to end discrimination based on sex, by addressing the disproportionate workload that women undertake in carrying out the duties of unpaid care work in the household, by introducing policies and programmes to measure time use.

Caribbean Governments must seize available opportunities to reduce inequality and poverty through the empowerment of women. Women's employment options could be improved through increased investments in education and skills training —alleviating women of the burden of unpaid work through the use of childcare policies and by making investments in infrastructure and time and labour saving technologies (Bachelet, 2012).

In a recent report presented to the United Nations General Assembly by the Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights²⁴ unpaid work was positioned as a major human rights issue. Focussing on women caregivers, particularly those living in poverty, the Special Rapporteur explained that the unequal distribution of care responsibilities among women and men is a major barrier to gender equality and to women's enjoyment of human rights, and further condemn women to poverty. "Therefore the failure of States to adequately provide, fund, support and regulate care contradicts their human rights obligations, by creating and exacerbating inequalities and threatening women's rights enjoyment".

As the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) framework comes to a close in 2015, Caribbean States need to harness the opportunity to join forces at the regional and global level in advocating for a comprehensive and transformative Post 2015 and Small Island Developing States (SIDS) development agenda.

The Post-2015 Development Agenda provides the ideal opportunity to focus attention on the critical need to track progress in a way that measures the impact of development goals on women and

²³ Michelle Bachelet 2012. Free trade Needs Free Women, in International Trade Forum. Issue 2, 2012.

²⁴ Magdalena Sepulveda Carmona, Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights, (2013). Promotion and protection of Human rights: human rights situations and reports of special rapporteurs and representatives.

the results women achieve. Further, there must be a new framework for the inclusion of indicators that measure the impact of goals on women's economic empowerment. "This is of critical importance because when women's incomes go up, women spend their money on children and family, on health and education that help break intergenerational poverty" (Jones, 2012).

The goal should be to ensure that Caribbean specific priorities for the achievement of gender equality and women's empowerment are advanced as was advocated in 2013 by the Caribbean forum on this issue.²⁵ "The emerging global development frameworks must address the structural foundations of gender-based inequality, including the recognition that inequalities are a consequence of the unequal relations of power" and distribution of unequal care responsibilities. The issue of unpaid care work between women and men must no longer be relegated to the private sphere, but must be seen as impacting the public sphere and more fundamentally the area of women's economic autonomy and poverty.

It is therefore critical that the global Post-2015 and SIDS frameworks not only take into consideration the social, economic and environmental vulnerabilities of SIDS, and the resulting challenges for sustainable, but more fundamentally, there is need to focus specifically on ensuring the human rights-based and gender responsive development of the subregion.

This should include a focus on the continuing significant differences in women's and men's access to economic opportunities and the provision support for poverty reduction through macro-economic reforms which reduce the persistent and increasing burden of poverty on women, through the implementation of the conduct of regular national time-use surveys as a strategy for measuring time and developing evidences based policies to secure the financial independence of women; promote their equal participation; and, provide socioeconomic protections that would contribute to reduction in poverty and inequality, thereby enhancing the quality of life of women and their families.

²⁵ UN-Women-supported "Caribbean Forum on Gender Equality and the Post-2015 Agenda" held in Barbados (22 to 23 August 2013).

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Annexes

Annex1

The £21,000 grandma: grandparents who take on babysitting duties reduce the cost of childcare by a whopping £4,300 every year

BOX A.1

By the time a child starts school, he or she will have spent more than 5,610 hours being cared for by grandparents. Average savings tot up to £21,654.60 over four pre-school years. A quarter of parents say without free childcare from grandparents, they wouldn't be able to work. They're the unpaid babysitters that many parents couldn't manage without. And now, their true value can be revealed as a new report has calculated exactly what grandparents are worth. Thanks to long hours spent watching the grandchildren while their parents are at work, kindhearted grandparents can save families up to £4,300 annually - money that would otherwise have to have spent on professional childcare. By the time the average youngster reaches school age, they will have been babysat by their grandparents for more than 5,610 hours, meaning their parents will have saved a whopping £21,654.60. The study of 1,298 parents also revealed as many as one in four wouldn't be able to hold down their current job without the help of their elder relatives. Around half said it wouldn't be worth them going to work if the children's grandparents weren't around to help out.

Stacey Stothard, of Skipton Building Society, said: 'As this study clearly indicates, modern day grandparents are an absolute god-send for working mums and dads. 'Despite reaching an age where they should be winding down and enjoying their retirement years, grandparents end up almost "working" for their own children, making it possible for them to earn a living, safe in the knowledge that the little ones are well cared for. 'And as we can see, a grandparent's help is invaluable. Not only do they provide a safe and caring environment for the grandchildren to grow up in, but they save thousands of pounds in childcare fees every single year. 'They also provide that flexibility which parents would be hard-pushed to find with any nursery or child-carer.' The study revealed during term time, and for 39 weeks of the year, grandparents will help out on three days of the week for at least 5.5 hours a time. This means they are acting child-carers for 16.5 hour per week or 643.5 hours over the course of 39 weeks. For the remaining 13 weeks of the year - the school holidays - the grandchildren will be looked after by their doting grandparents for a further 32 days, for an average of seven hours a time. In addition, parents will request a further four babysitting occasions every month, for just over five hours - equating to 255 hours and 12 minutes over the course of one year. This means that by the time a child reaches school age, they will have been babysat by their grandparents for 5,610 hours. And parents will have saved an incredible £21,654.60.

Stacey Stothard added: 'Families, more than ever, are feeling the squeeze and it can be a really tough balancing act trying to maintain a manageable income while arranging childcare. 'Willing grandparents will not only look after poorly children - when nurseries will often turn anything away that might be contagious. 'But they'll also often provide food and snacks, take kids for days out, and not worry if you're running late collecting them at the end of the day. 'Grandparents who look after their grandchildren in the family home are even on hand to help with the running of the home - helping to do household chores, as well as being in to sign for parcel deliveries and pay the window cleaner or milkman. 'But with this flexibility and financial benefit for parents sometimes comes a feeling of obligation for grandparents. 'At a time when young families are feeling the squeeze so too are their parents who are facing the prospect of reduced retirement income and financial uncertainty. 'Many may feel that although they want to help out, they could actually do with having some time for paid work themselves. 'It's clear there's a social shift change occurring, and something the two generations need to meet in the middle to discuss solutions that work well for both of them.'

The poll also revealed six in ten parents prefer asking the grandparents to help out with childcare rather than paying a nursery or child-minder. And 46 per cent of these claim that as well as the cost benefits, they simply don't trust anyone else to look after their child. But four in 10 mums and dads do feel guilty about how much they rely on their own parents for help, and a third worry that they are getting too old to deal with energetic grandchildren. Indeed, while six in 10 parents are choosing to bury their heads in the sand and refuse to think about what might happen when their own parents get to the point where they can't look after the children anymore, a further 33 per cent are resigned to the fact they will eventually have to give up work to look after their own children.

GRANDMA BY NUMBERS: WHAT SHE'S REALLY WORTH TO PARENTS

- 3: Number of days per week the average grandparent helps out
- 16: Number of hours per week spent babysitting grandchildren
- 25: Percentage of parents who couldn't work without childcare courtesy of grandma
- 32: The number of days children spend with grandparents during school holidays
- 255: The number of hours the average grandparent spends babysitting annually
- 21,654: The number of pounds saved because of free childcare from grandparents between birth and starting school.

Source: Daily Mail 17 January 2013 by Ruth Styles.

Annex 2

International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics (ICATUS)

A Draft International Classification of activities for time-use Statistics (ICATUS) was adopted in October 2000 at a United Nations Statistics Division Expert Group Meeting on *Methods for Conducting Time-Use Surveys: Gender issues in the measurement of paid and unpaid work*. The adoption of the ICATUS was viewed as a step toward promoting the collection and compilation of data on paid and unpaid work. It addressed two main issues:

- Better measurement of production of goods by household members for own final use. These involve activities considered as work within the production boundary of the System of National Accounts (SNA) but are generally underestimated in labour force statistics, and
- Better identification of SNA work in informal sector enterprises. Many of these activities are not covered well in data collection on economic activity for several reasons – women and men who engage in such activities may not consider these as work because they are perceived as too small-scale, of subsistence-level, of short duration or seasonal, or because many of these activities may actually be done as part of production of services for own final use (e.g. cooking food for both the household and for sale); designers of surveys may not identify these accurately in operational definitions and in survey instruments; enumerators may have inadequate knowledge of what these activities are and may impose their own biases and judgments in recording them.²⁶

The proposed International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics (ICATUS) is intended to be a standard classification of activities that takes into account all activities that the general population typically spends time on over the 24 hours of a day. Its main purpose is to provide a set of activity categories that can be utilized in producing statistics on time use that are meaningful in relation to the broad range of objectives of national time-use studies as well as cross-national and cross-temporal comparative studies on time use. ICATUS is intended to serve as a standard for activity classifications for time-use statistics applicable both to developing and developed countries. It builds on existing national and regional classifications, and considers the experiences of both developed and developing countries in constructing and applying activity classifications for collecting and analysing time-use data.²⁷

Time used for:

1. Employment for Establishments

- 11 First job or employment
- 12 Second , third and other jobs
- 13 Working in apprenticeship, internship and related positions
- 14 Short breaks and interruptions from work
- 15 Seeking employment and related activities
- 18 Travel to/from work and seeking employment in establishments
- 19 Employment in establishments not elsewhere classified

²⁶ United Nations Secretariat Statistics Division, *Draft International Classification of Activities for the Time Use Statistics*, Expert Group Meeting on Methods for conducting Time-Use Survey, New York, 23-27 October 2000.

²⁷ http://unstats.un.org/unsd/methods/timeuse/icatus/icatus_2.htm.

2. Primary Production Activities not for Establishments

- 21 Crop farming and market/kitchen gardening: planting, weeding, harvesting, picking, etc
- 22 Tending animals and fish farming
- 23 Hunting, fishing, forestry and gathering of wild products
- 24 Digging, stone cutting, splitting and carving
- 25 Collecting water
- 26 Purchase of goods used for and sale of outputs arising from these activities
- 28 Travel related to primary production activities (not for establishments)
- 29 Primary production activities (not for establishments) not elsewhere classified

3. Services for Income and other Production of Goods not for Establishments*

* In each activity buying of inputs and selling the products are included, and may be disaggregated at the third digit level

- 31 Food processing and preservation activities: grain processing, butchering, preserving, curing
- 32 Preparing and selling food and beverage preparation, baking, confectionery and related activities
- 33 Making and selling textile, leather and related craft: weaving, knitting, sewing, shoemaking, tanning, products of wood
- 34 Building and extensions of dwelling: laying bricks, plastering, thatch, bamboo, cutting glass, plumbing, painting, carpentering, electric wiring
- 35 Petty trading, street/door-to-door vending, shoe-cleaning and other
- 36 Fitting, installing, tool setting, maintaining and repairing tools and machinery
- 37 Provision of services for income such as computer services, transport, hairdressing, cosmetic treatment, baby-sitting, massages, prostitution
- 38 Travel related to services for income and other production of goods (not for establishments)
- 39 Services for income and other production of goods (not for establishments) not elsewhere classified

4. Household Maintenance, Management and Shopping for own Household

- 41 Cooking, making drinks, setting and serving tables
- 42 Cleaning and upkeep of dwelling and surroundings
- 43 Care of textiles: sorting, mending, washing, ironing and ordering clothes and linen
- 44 Shopping for goods and non-personal services: capital goods, household appliances, equipment, food and various household supplies
- 45 Household management: planning, supervising, paying bills, etc.
- 46 Do-it-yourself home improvements and maintenance, installation, servicing and repair of personal and household goods
- 47 Pet care
- 48 Travel related to household maintenance, management and shopping
- 49 Household maintenance, management and shopping not elsewhere classified

5. Care for Children, the Sick, Elderly and Disabled for own Household

- 51 Physical care of children: washing, dressing, feeding
- 52 Teaching, training and instruction of own children
- 53 Accompanying children to places: school, sports, lessons, etc
- 54 54 Physical care of the sick, disabled, elderly household members: washing, dressing, feeding, helping
- 55 Accompanying adults to receive personal care services: such as hairdresser's, therapy sessions, etc.
- 56 Supervising children and adults needing care
- 58 Travel related to care of children, the sick, elderly and disabled in the household
- 59 Care of children, the sick, elderly and disabled in the household not elsewhere classified

6. Community Services and Help to other Households

- 61 Community organized construction and repairs: buildings, roads, dams, wells, etc.
- 62 Community organized work: cooking for collective celebrations, etc.
- 63 Volunteering with for an organization (which does not involve working directly for individuals)
- 64 Volunteering with for an organization (which does not involve working directly for individuals)
- 65 Participation in meetings of local and informal groups/cast, tribes, professional associations, union, fraternal and political organizations
- 66 Involvement in civic and related responsibilities: voting, rallies, etc.
- 67 Informal help to other households
- 68 Travel related to community services
- 69 Community services not elsewhere classified

7. Learning

- 71 General education: school/university attendance
- 72 Studies, homework and course review related to general education
- 73 Additional study, non-formal education and courses during free time
- 74 Work-related training
- 78 Travel related to learning
- 79 Learning not elsewhere classified

8. Social, Cultural and Recreational Activities

- 81 Participating in cultural activities, weddings, funerals, births, and other celebrations
- 82 Participating in religious activities: church services, religious ceremonies, practices, rehearsals, etc.
- 83 Socializing at home and outside the home
- 84 Arts , making music, hobbies and related courses
- 85 Indoor and outdoor sports participation and related courses
- 86 Games and other pass-time activities
- 87 Spectator to sports, exhibitions/museums, cinema/theatre/concerts and other performances and events
- 88 Travel related to social, cultural and recreational activities
- 89 Social, cultural and recreational activities not elsewhere classified

9. Mass Media Use

- 91 Reading
- 92 Watching television and video
- 93 Listening to music/radio
- 94 Accessing information by computing
- 95 Visiting library
- 98 Travel related to mass media use and entertainment
- 99 Mass media use and entertainment not elsewhere classified

10. Personal Care and Self-maintenance

- 01 Sleep and related activities
- 02 Eating and drinking
- 03 Personal hygiene and health
- 04 Receiving medical and personal care from professionals and household members
- 05 Doing nothing, rest and relaxation
- 06 Individual religious practices and meditation
- 08 Travel related to personal care and self-maintenance
- 09 Personal care and self-maintenance not elsewhere classified

Annex 3

Draft National Policy on Gender and Development of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago (pages 31-33)

1.6 UNWAGED ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES, DOMESTIC AND FAMILY LIFE

Mainstream neo-classical economic theory, based on the experience of fully industrialized economies assumes all economies to be fully monetized, market oriented societies. Within such societies labour is only considered to be of economic value if it attracts a wage on the market, all other labour is outside of, and of no significance to the operation of the economy. Such work does not form a part of conventional growth centred economic development policy.²⁸ Gender analysis of mainstream economics has brought to the fore the value of unwaged invisible work in the operation of the economy and the ways in which the productive waged economy is facilitated by the reproductive unwaged economy. The advancement of such work has prioritized an understanding of the concept of unwaged work as being fundamental to people centred, holistic, gender sensitive development policy.

Historic gender roles and responsibilities in many societies have seen the creation of a gendered division of labour between those activities which generate income and are subject to market forces (productive activities) and reproductive activities which relate to unwaged work in the home, such as caring for the young and elderly, housework and subsistence agriculture. It is in fact women's and to a lesser extent men's management of reproductive work that makes productive work possible. Although reproductive activities have been traditionally associated with 'women's work, with time women's responsibility outside of the home have grown. Development has seen shifting gender roles, and women are becoming more visible in the productive spheres of the economy.

The importance of the domestic environment in establishing values of productivity, discipline in the workplace and harmony within society underpins the country's economic strategies. Increased options for women to enter the education system and life and work options available to women outside the home have accompanied a shift in ideology on what constitutes gender roles within the family. There continues to be a distinctive shift in the perception of male roles in parenting over the last decade, and an emphasis on the role of men in the child rearing process. This is to be encouraged.

However, there are many complex gender issues in domestic and family life in relation to the way time is used, savings are accumulated, the distribution of food, access and control over the use of money and other resources, and the violence perpetrated on those who are most vulnerable. In setting the tone for the conditions under which both sexes participate in households and how they are enabled to enjoy social and familial life, social and economic policies must be informed by gender sensitive intra-household data, including information on the unwaged work of women and men in child care, health care and elderly care, and unpaid in agriculture and other sectors.

This policy recognizes the family as an important institution of socialization representing the smallest unit of affinity and security in the society. It endorses the development of the family as an institution of equality by advocating that men and women share the responsibilities of care-taking family members, and experience more equitable access and control over resources within the family.

²⁸ The impact of this neo-classical economics specific to the productive and reproductive spheres were most visible in the implementation of structural adjustment policies where governments sought increased efficiency in services like the health sector. Increased efficiency meant within the hospital system meant shorter patient time in the institutions. The result was a shift from the paid economy to the unpaid. Money cost per patient fell, but unpaid work of women in the household increased (pg 16 Sparr et al).

EMERGING AREAS OF CONCERN

The lack of recognition for unwaged reproductive activities carried out by women, including unpaid agricultural work as family workers on farms and within family businesses.

Unwaged work in the home affects the time which women have to effectively participate in the labour market and places limits on their personal and life choices.

The need to transform the internal dynamics of families to be more equitable, recognizing women and men as leaders and decision-makers within households, with shared responsibilities for the care and nurturing of children.

POLICY OBJECTIVE:

To promote recognition of unwaged and reproductive work, and unpaid labour, and domestic and family life arrangements, based on their immense contribution to social protection and national development, and to ensure that increased value and resources are ascribed to the improvement of this sector.

POLICY MEASURES TO BE INSTITUTED:

36. Collation, analysis and publication of findings from Census data on unremunerated household work, consistent with the requirements of the Counting of Unremunerated work Act of 1996, to provide statistical fact on the contribution of unwaged household work to national development.

37. Examination of sex disaggregated data and increased research on unpaid work in various sectors, including agriculture and family businesses, within the formal and informal contexts, as a basis for the allocation of resources for the training and development of unpaid workers.

38. Development of programmes aimed at increasing understanding of the value and visibility of housework and other forms of unremunerated work, including mechanisms to encourage increased male participation in housework, childcare and other areas deemed to be ‘women’s work’ and which are normally unremunerated. Draft National Policy on Gender and Development of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago.

39. Provision of increased innovative opportunities for women and men engaged in unwaged housework to access information communications technology, lifelong learning, and opportunities for part-time, short and long-term income earning possibilities. Such opportunities will include contemporary employment strategies that allow persons to work from home, or take extended work leave to care for young children and the elderly, and return to the job market without penalty and loss of opportunities.

40. Provision of gender aware facilities within public and private buildings, through defined specifications, equipped for the changing of babies, providing areas where nursing mothers can feed babies, safely extract and store breast milk, and attend to the needs of very young children.

41. Institutionalization of parenting support programmes, which include gender sensitive approaches and increased support to parents in more effective ways of child rearing, fostering gender equity in upbringing boys and girls, and promoting non-violent ways of discipline and child development.

42. Promotion of initiatives that foster gender equality and social justice principles among young children with a view to advancing mutual respect and partnership between boys and girls in their childhood, youth and eventual adult relationships, including training for Early Childhood Educators in gender socialization.

43. Promotion of initiatives that support and strengthen domestic and family life, and increase the participation of men and women in shared family responsibilities, including the ratification of the ILO Convention on Shared Family Responsibilities.



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