A framework for measuring rural women's empowerment within the context of decent work: focus on economic and social advancement¹

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ABSTRACT

PAPER

The objective of the paper is twofold: (i) to provide an assessment of existing measures of rural women's economic and social empowerment within the decent work framework, and (ii) to propose the first part of a new measurement framework to better capture the nexus between women's empowerment and decent work within rural areas in developing countries where agricultural is an important part of the economy. This partial measurement framework proposes an indicator set on time use as a way to measure an aspect of rural women's empowerment, complementing the conventional approaches to measuring employment and decent work in the rural economy.

Keywords: Gender and sex-disaggregated indicators, rural, agriculture, Decent Work, women's empowerment

1. Introduction

Gender-sensitive labour indicators disaggregated by rural/urban areas are crucial to better understanding how roles, rights, and opportunities shape men and women's access to decent work in rural areas in developing countries. They can assist in identifying disparities in rural men and women's participation in decent work, as well as in pinpointing differences in men and women's constraints in participation in decent work. Over the last decade, the development of international standards and quidelines has resulted in a greater number of gender-sensitive and sex-disaggregated statistics. However, despite the progress made, a gender-sensitive statistical measurement tool to explore the nexus between women's greater empowerment and decent work within the rural areas in a developing country context where many rural households are engaged in agricultural production has not yet been fully developed. The objective of the paper is twofold: (i) to provide an assessment of existing measures within the decent work framework of women's economic and social empowerment in developing countries particularly with a focus on rural areas, and (ii) to propose the first part of a new measurement framework to better capture the nexus between women's empowerment and decent work within this context. The full measurement framework aims to incorporate a set of core indicators to monitor rural women's empowerment, complementing the conventional approaches to measuring employment and decent work in the rural, agricultural context. Because of space, this paper presents only the first part of the full measurement framework, and within this partial framework it specifically focuses on a set of indicators measuring work time. The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 links the concept of women' empowerment with the concept of decent work and discusses the gender dimensions of work within the rural areas in a developing country context where many rural households are engaged in agricultural production. Section 3 assesses the decent work indicators and how well they capture women's social-economic empowerment (or constraints to empowerment) with work within this context and provides the first part of set of core indicators to monitor rural women's empowerment. Section 4 discusses data collection for the set of indicators measuring work time. Section 5 concludes.

Setting the stage: defining empowerment in terms of work and understanding the gendered dimensions of work within the rural areas in a developing country context where many rural households are engaged in agricultural production

The term empowerment encompasses a broad range of concepts, which generally comprises of, at least in part, the idea of having an environment or the conditions for which an individual can achieve his or her goals and having the ability to make decisions over one's life (Malhotra, Schuler and Carol 2002). Within the context of decent work–where the concept of work, according to the Resolution on work, employment, and labour underutilization adopted by the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in 2013, is defined as any activity performed by persons of any sex or age to produce

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goods or provide services for use by others or for own use -empowerment means that there are equal work opportunities for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security, and dignity (ILO 1999). This concept of decent work, as developed by the ILO and endorsed as a global goal, goes beyond a simple analysis of labour market outcomes such as unemployment reduction and employment creation. According to the Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization adopted in 2008 by ILO Member States, it incorporates four mutually intra-dependent strategic pillars: (I) employment creation and enterprise development, (II) social protection, (III) standards and rights at work, and (IV) governance and social dialogue (ILO 1999)². Following a Tripartite Meeting of Experts in 2008 with the aim to provide guidance on how to measure decent work, a Decent Work Measurement Framework was established and structured along 10 core substantive elements of decent work. Such substantive elements --ranging from employment opportunities to adequate earnings and productive work and social dialogue, workers' and employers' representation -- were attached to one or more of the four strategic pillars of the Agenda. Seventy-one statistical indicators and twenty-one legal framework indicators are currently contained in the Decent Work Measurement Framework as a way to measure progress within these substantive elements. The selected decent work indicators serve as a tool for a) assisting constituents to assess progress towards decent work and b) to offer comparable information for analysis and policy development. Building from this framework, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO 2016) developed a conceptual framework which incorporates rural women's empowerment in terms of work directly as well as all aspects outside of work but that affect work in a gendered way (e.g. health facilities and infrastructure, education, gender training, etc.) The FAO 2016 framework—which overlaps in parts but also extends beyond Decent Work agenda-has three empowering components as a way to conceptualise women's empowerment within the framework of decent work. These are 1) Social and Economic Advancement; 2) Power and Agency; and 3) Dignity and Value. The Social and Economic Advancement component focuses specifically on individual's engagement in work within and outside employment with a focus on rural and agricultural work. It also focuses on education and the skills development needed to access gainful employment activities within this context. It aims to measure men and women's work time, returns to wage work and differences in employment and skills development. The Power and Agency component focuses on access, control over, and influence of community and individual resources as well as engagement in social and economic decisions related in agriculture production and other productive activities in the household. It also focuses on control over and input into the use of income earned from the household's productive activities. It aims to measure ownership of physical and financial resources important in this context, decision-making over the use of productive assets and income earned form productive activities, and leadership in the community. The Dignity and Value pillar underlines the quality of life and work perceived by the individual and as measured by his or her surrounding environment. It aims to measure the freedom to choose and satisfaction with work, conditions of employment, forced labour, and child labour.

While the FAO 2016 paper provides a comprehensive framework for conceptualizing rural women's empowerment in decent work, this paper provides a core set of indicators within this first pillar (social and economic empowerment) focusing specifically on measures of men and women's engagement in work. The setting is on developing countries where agriculture is an important part of the countries' economies, there is a large rural population, poverty remains largely rural, and many rural households engage in agricultural production. For the purpose of this paper we define agriculture as the production of crop and animal products, as well as hunting, trapping, fisheries and aquaculture, forestry and related activities. Rurality is defined in contrast to urban areas, referring to areas outside of urban agglomeration. These areas may lack sufficient infrastructures that connect rural to urban areas and thus may be cut off from more developed urban markets. The population density in rural areas is lower than urban areas, but what exactly constitutes rurality as defined by national statistical offices varies across country (United Nations 2014)³. Within this context, members of small-holder households in agriculture often engage in multiple livelihood activities as a way to try to minimise their vulnerability to variability and cyclicality of income throughout the year due to seasonality and uncertainty in agriculture production. These activities may include self-employment activities in agriculture, earnings or in kind from temporary or casual wage labour, petty trading, street vending, or rent from leasing land. Income diversification is recognized as an important survival strategy for poor households particularly in rural Africa, and many studies of households in developing countries have found that income diversification is positively associated with greater welfare in rural households, particularly when the diversification is in activities outside of agriculture (see for instance, Ersado 2006; Block and Webb 2001Davis, et al. 2010).

In addition to income earning activities, own-use production, including subsistence farming, is

² The Decent Work Agenda (1999) is a policy framework endorsed by ILO Member States for conceptualising how to achieve decent work at the national level, which has received endorsement at the highest political and international levels. The 2008 Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalisation indicates that member States should consider the establishment of appropriate indicators or statistics, if necessary with the assistance of the ILO, to monitor and evaluate progress made...[towards decent work] (ILO 2008 Paragraph II.B.ii).

³ The United Nation (UN) statistical division has proposed a minimum set of criteria for international comparability. Rural areas are generally classified in accordance with "the size of locality or, if this is not possible, the smallest administrative division of the country." In other words, rural areas comprise a less dense population even if country specific characteristics usually make these areas different from country to another (United Nations 2008).

particularly important to the well-being and survival of poorer rural households, where own-use production is the production of household goods and services for the household's consumption or family living in other households⁴. It includes unpaid caregiving services and household maintenance such as cleaning, laundry, agricultural production for consumption, food preparation, gathering food, and providing for children or elderly. When dealing with shocks or income shortfalls, households may substitute market goods and services with goods and services provided by household members. Since incomes tend to fluctuate, there can be a large amount of fluidity between the consumption of goods and services produced for home consumption and goods and services purchased in the market. In poor rural households engaged in agriculture, it is often the combination of income from employment work activities and own-use production work in collaboration with other household members that sustains the household. The same activity in own use production (e.g. harvesting maize, or food preparation, etc.) can be considered a form of employment if the work is paid or the goods are intended for sale. There are a gendered aspects to these work activities. Evidence from the literature suggests that women perform a large majority of the household's own-use production work; although it varies by context (see, among others, Antonopoulos 2009, Bardasi and Wodon 2006, Budlender 2008; Ilahi 2000). Additionally, contributing family work is a widespread form of employment among women, particularly among the extremely and moderately working poor (ILO 2014). Data from the ILO global employment trend (2014), for instance, suggests that 59 percent of the female labour force in South Asia, 35 percent in Southeast Asia and the Pacific, 35 percent in Sub-Saharan African, and seven percent in Latin America are contributing family workers in the household's business. While contributing family workers are included in the definition of employment (with the ICLS 19th Resolution), remuneration of the work is paid to another household or family member. Indirect remuneration is subject to individual with control of the revenue. Women's greater engagement in work for which they are not directly paid (such as own-use production work and contributing family labour) compared to men results, in some contexts, in women working a greater number of hours than men, and a greater likelihood of facing time poverty, where time poverty is defined as not having adequate time for rest and relaxation. Bardasi and Wodon (2005), for instance, find that women work more hours than men on average in Guinea for 2002-2003 and that time poverty rates are much greater in rural areas than in urban areas. Women's greater engagement in own-use production work and contribution family labour than men also affects how and to what degree women can engage in employment activities for which they are paid directly. Women, for example, may be more likely to combine own-use production and other non-remunerated activities with remunerated work, taking on multiple work tasks at the same time. Floro (1995) argues that overlapping activities are particularly applicable to women in poorer households that do not have the access to resources that would allow them to purchase market substitutes. Additionally, studies suggest that the concentration of women from low-income households in informal paid work is in part related to the greater ability to combine unpaid household work and paid work (Mitra 2005; Chen et al. 2005; Kucera and Roncolato 2008; Roncolato and Radchenko forthcoming). This is because the informal nature of many self-employment jobs, such as street vending or trading, often allows greater flexibility in terms of time dedicated to other activities.

Assessment of current Decent Work indicators for measuring rural women's Social and Economic empowerment in work and proposal for a conceptual framework for measuring rural women's empowerment within decent work

The concept of Decent Work is a means to identify countries' major priorities in terms of labour market outcome achievements as well as a better understanding of productive work overall of both men and women. Recognizing that men and women may not have the same opportunity and treatment in work, and the women may face different constraints around family and engagement in work, many of the Decent Work indicators are sex disaggregated and there are a number of gender relevant indicators including occupation segregation, wage gap, maternity protection, and work time arrangements. While these indicators are important, many are not as easily applicable in a context described above where many individuals may engage in multiple income-earning activities, self-employment activities are the norm, and own-use production work is vital to sustaining the household compared to contexts where individuals are mostly engaged in one or two primary jobs in the formal market. The gender wage gap indicator (EQUA-3), for example, is calculated based on average hourly earnings from employers, which is less applicable in this context where work with earnings from employers is only a small percent of

⁴ Specifically, if it is unpaid, the 19th ICLS Resolution considers own-use production work as

a. Producing and/or processing for storage agricultural, fishing, hunting and gathering products that are not intended for sale or profit ;

b. Collecting and/or processing for storage mining and forestry products, including firewood and other fuels;

c. Fetching water from natural and other sources;d. Manufacturing household goods (such as furniture, textiles, clothing, footwear, pottery or other durables, including boats and canoes);

e. Building, or effecting major repairs to, one's own dwelling, farm buildings, etc.

f. Household accounting and management, purchasing and/or transporting goods;

g. Preparing and/or serving meals, household waste disposal and recycling;

h. Cleaning, decorating and maintaining one's own dwelling or premises, durables and other goods, and gardening;

i. Childcare and instruction, transporting and caring for elderly, dependent or other household members and domestic animals or pets, etc.

Table 1: Proposed work indicators for measuring rural women's empowerment within the context of decent work under the economic and social empowerment component of the FAO (2016) conceptual framework

	Area	Indicators	Already in the DW framework
1.1	Employment and labour force participation	Men's employment-to population ratio, Women's employment-to population ratio Men's labour force participation rate; Women's labour force participation rate	Yes (EMP-1 and EMP-5)
1.2	Informal employment, including the agricultural sector	 Proportion of men informally employed; Proportion of women informally employed 	Yes (EMP-4)
1.3	Own account workers and contributing family workers	 Proportion of employed men who are own-account workers; Proportion of employed women who are own- account workers Proportion of employed men who are contributing family workers; Proportion of employed women who are contribution family workers 	Yes (EMP-9)
1.4	Work contribution	 Average total number of hours per day men dedicate to remunerated and non-remunerated work in agriculture Average total number of hours per day women dedicate to remunerated and non- remunerated work in agriculture Average total number of hours per day men dedicate to all remunerated and non- remunerated work; Average total number of hours per day women dedicate to all remunerated and non- remunerated work 	No

the work done by men and women. Profits from and time worked in self-employment activities, which often overlap with other activities and are difficult to separate from own-use production, makes the data difficult to capture in this context. Similarly, measures of maternity protection and work time arrangements within employment are less applicable in a setting where much of employment work is informal. Occupational segregation (EQUA-1) measures men and women's difference in occupations in their main job. While important, the occupational categories are broad (ISCO sub-major groups) and less informative than the EMP indicators when disaggregated by sex. Indeed, when compared to the employment-to-population ratio (EMP-1), the other labour force indicators disaggregated by sex: informal employment rate (EMP-4), employment status in employment (EMP-8), and proportion of contributing family labours in total employment (a part of EMP-9) allow for a greater understanding of men and women's differences in employment work as well as engagement in employment that does not provide direct exchange for the work within this context. Previously these indicators included individuals engaged in own-use production of goods (but not services) as a main job in the definition of employment. This changed with the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS Resolution I, 2013), which distinguishes between work for pay or profit, or employment, and unpaid forms ofwork across five forms of work:1) own-use production work, 2) employment, 3) unpaid trainee work, 4) other work activities, 5) volunteer work. The new concept includes only formal and informal wage employment, self-employment activities, and contributing family labour in the definition of employment. The exclusion of own-use production makes the employment indicators more comparable across countries. Within this context, however, to capture the full extent of men and women's work, the Decent Work framework also needs to include measures of own-use production work and time worked in employment and non-employment work activities. Based on current definitions, the Decent Work time use indicators only focus on time associated with employment activities, not all work activities. The Subsistence Worker Rate (STAB-3), which is the proportion of employed persons who are subsistence workers—where subsistence workers are subsistence farmers, fisheries, hunters, and gathers—needs to be modified to be in line with the new definitions. Even with a modification, a proportion indicator only captures who engages in the work and not the extent to which individuals engage in the type of work.

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Additionally, it does not capture all forms of own-use production work.

Under the Social and Economic Advancement component of the FAO 2016 framework, Table 1 presents our proposed set of core indicators that we believe may better capture a decent work framework for the measurement of rural women's socio-economic empowerment in developing countries where small household agriculture in an important part of the economy. The set of indicators is based on both the FAO conceptual framework as well as the ILO decent work Agenda and Decent Work indicators already part of the framework. The indicators proposed are at the country-level. Since rurality differs by country, it is difficult to compare across countries if the focus is only on rural areas. However, we recommend countries also disaggregate by rural/urban areas.

Indicators 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3 are already part of the Decent Work Measurement framework. The employment indicators (under 1.2 and 1.3) provide information on the type of the employment and whether the type of jobs men and women engage in lack basic social or legal protections or employment benefits. Greater empowerment is proxied though fewer women (and men) in informal type work of those employed. The criteria adopted to construct the proportion of employed rural population working under informal labour arrangements follow the resolution adopted by the 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians. According to the ILO (2012), informal employment is a job-based concept capturing the extent to which employed persons lack basic social protections in a given economy⁵. These indicators are often limited to individuals' main jobs. The 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians recommendations suggest to countries to compile statistics on multiple jobholders, but countries often do not have the resources to incorporate this into Labour Force Survey questionnaires.

The final indicator set (under 1.4) captures women and men's time spent in all work in agricultural activities and total work time spent in all activities (agriculture and non-agriculture). The indicator set in not currently included in the current Decent Work indicators. Similar to the indicators proposed in the Global Strategy for Improving Agricultural and Rural Statistics "Guidelines for collecting data for sex-disaggregated and gender-specific indicators in national agricultural surveys" (FAO forthcoming) we propose including (1) the average time spent in all agricultural activities by men and women and (2) the average time spent in all work activities in general by men and women. Specifically these are $\left\{\frac{\sum_{i} T_{Ai}}{X_{T}}, \frac{\sum_{j} T_{Aj}}{Y_{T}}\right\}$ and $\left\{\frac{\sum_{i} T_{wi}}{X_{T}}, \frac{\sum_{j} T_{wj}}{Y_{T}}\right\}$, where X_{T} is the total number of adult women in the time use sample, Y_T is the total number of adult men in the time use sample, and T_A is the time spent by the *ith* female or *jth* male in work in agricultural production, and T_w is the time spent by the *ith* female or *jth* male in all work. We aggregate own-use production and employment in agricultural work and all work, because in this context often the boundaries between own-use production work and employment work are not distinct. For example, it can be difficult to distinguish activities where the crops are primarily for sale versus activities where the crops are for home consumption, since so often these are dual-purpose, particularly in smallholder agriculture. Even aggregated, the indicator set captures the extent of rural women's work as compared to men in this context in a way all the other Decent Work indicators focused only on employment work do not.

Recommendations for data collection of the new indicator set measuring work time

To capture time use data, many labour force surveys as well as agricultural surveys tend to use stylised time methods where time in a specific activity is estimated over a week or month. Data collected in this way are best used when activities take place on a regular basis and when general trends, rather than the actual time spent, are sought (Juster, Ono and Stafford 2003). The preferred approach for collecting time use data is through experimental sampling method for time use data collection, where an individual records their own activities at random times throughout a specified time period. This approach tends to be less prone to systematic measurement error than recall methods, but more burdensome to the respondents and more costly to implement than stylized approaches. As a middle ground—following the Global Strategy Guideline—we propose using a 24-hour recall module that can be included as part of labour force surveys. Unlike other stylised methods where the time period is much longer, the 24-hour recall method reduces methodological biases and allows for the detail needed

⁵ From a statistical standpoint, the employment in the informal sectors can be computed according to the characteristics of the enterprises owned by the own-account worker and employers. According to the ICLS, the informal nature of their jobs follows directly from the characteristics of the enterprise, which they own. Three main criteria are employed in defining the jobs performed in the informal agricultural sectors: 1) produced goods are meant for sale or barter; 2) the size of the farm in terms of employment falls below a certain threshold–determined according to national circumstances— 3) farms are not registered under specific forms of national legislation. The informal employment is captured by summing up the total number of informal jobs performed under informal arrangements and not regulated labour relationships. This is the case of contributing family workers who, by definition, inherently hold informal jobs. Accordingly, the ILO statistical definition of informal employment (ILO, 2003) classifies jobs held by contributing family workers as a priori informal, irrespective of the formal or of informal nature of the sector in which they work. The classification does not apply to employees, since the informal nature of the performed job mainly reflects the absence of national labour legislation, social protection or employment benefits that apply to their jobs. In practice individuals within the rural population may engage in multiple forms of employment, the labour force statistics collected, however, are usually based only on individual's primarily and sometimes secondary occupations.

to capture differences in time spent in different work activities (Kan and Pudney 2008). An example module in the appendix merges the time use modules in the American Time Use Survey (ATUS) and the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture (WEAI and pro-WEAI) Surveys. To collect information on the selected respondent's activities, the enumerator asks the respondentfor activities from 4 a.m. the previous day until 3:59 a.m. the day of the interview using pre-codes to record activities. Using the data from this module, the mean population estimates can be inferred by collecting time use data from one randomly selected respondent per household in a subsample of households (and weighted as needed based on the probability of an individual within his or her household) (Frazis and Stewart 2012). A drawback to the 24-hour approach, however, is that we are often interested in time use over a longer period of time than a single day. If data is collecting for many households over a period of time (such as a particular season), inferences will be made on men and women's average time use over that full season. To be comparable across years the module will need to implemented at the same time period every year. Ideally, the module would be implemented quarterly (or at least twice a year) as a way to capture seasonality. Future drafts will include examples of set of time use indicators using data from districts in Uganda.

2. Conclusion

This paper proposes the first part of set of core work indicators with the socio-economic component of the FAO 2016 women's empowerment framework to monitor rural women's empowerment in the context of decent work within rural areas in developing countries where agricultural is an important part of the economy. This paper is the first of three papers. The other two will cover the Power and Agency and Dignity and Value components of the FAO 2016 women's empowerment framework.

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Appendix

TIME USE MODULE

TIME USE MODULE

PLASE RECORD ALOG OF THE ACTIVITIES FOR THE INDIVIDUAL IN THE LAST COMPLETE 24HOLKS (STARTING YESTERDAY MORNING AT 4AM PINSHING 3:53 AM AN OF THE CURRESPONDING ACTIVITY CODE IN THE BUX. PER LACTIVITIES FOR THE INDIVIDUAL IN THE LAST COMPLETE 24HOLKS (STARTING YESTERDAY MORNING ACTIVITY CODE IN THE BUX. TIME_id TIME_id <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th>TIME USE</th> <th>MODU</th> <th>LE</th> <th></th> <th></th>				TIME USE	MODU	LE		
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VENT TO SLEEP FOR THE NIGHT	0
LEEPING, RESTING, RELAXING	1
ATING OR DRINKING	2
PERSONAL CARE / PERSONAL HYGIENE - E.G. DRESSING, GROOMING, WASHING SELF	3
JNPAID DOMESTIC AND CAREGIVING SERVICES FOR HOUSEHOLD AND FAMILY MEMBERS	
CAREGIVING SERVICES FOR HOUSEHOLD AND FAMILY MEMBERS	4
FOOD AND MEALS MANAGEMENT AND PREPARATION	5
CLEANING AND UPKEEP OF DWELLING AND SURROUNDINGS	6
COLLECTING WATER FOR HOUSEHOLD USE	7
COLLECTING FIREWOOD AND OTHER NATURAL FUELS FOR HOUSEHOLD USE	8
SHOPPING OR BUYING FOOD, CLOTHES, OR OTHER	9
CONSTRUCTION OR REPAIR OF THE HOUSEHOLD PREMISES	10
WEAVING, SEWING, TEXTILE CARE FOR HOUSEHOLD USE	11
OTHER UNPAID DOMESTIC AND CAREGIVING SERVICES FOR HOUSEHOLD AND FAMILY MEMBERS	12
JNPAID VOLUNTEER, TRAINEE AND OTHER UNPAID WORK FOR AN ENTERPRISE, GROUP OR ORGANIZATION	13
JNPAID HELP A NEIGHBOUR, FRIEND, OR OTHER INDIVIDUAL WHO IS NOT FAMILY	14
exchange agricultural work for another household	15
WAGE OR SALARY WORK IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION NOT IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION	15 16
SELF-EMPLOYMENT OR OWN BUSINESS WORK IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION NOT IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION	16 17
HELPING A FAMILY MEMBER WITH THEIR WAGE OR SALARY WORK IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION NOT IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION	18 19
WORK FOR FAMILY OR THE HOUSEHOLD BUSINESS IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION NOT IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION	20 21
AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION ON THE HOLDING PRIMARILY FOR OWN-USE	22
TRAINING IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION NOT IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION	23 24
ORGANIZATIONAL MEETING IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION NOT IN AGRICULTURE, AQUACULTURE OR LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION	25 26
SCHOOL OR HOMEWORK	27
SOCIALIZING AND RELIGIOUS PRACTICE INCLUDING PRAYER OR MEDIATION OR OTHER SPIRITUAL ACTIVITY	28
CULTURE, LEISURE, MASS-MEDIA AND SPORTS PRACTICES, INCLUDES WATCHING TV, LISTENING TO RADIO, READING, EXERCISING, HOBBIES, MASS MEDIA USE	29
COMMUTING OR TRAVELING TO AND FROM WORK OR SCHOOL	30
COMMUTING OR TRAVELING (NOT TO AND FROM WORK OR SCHOOL)	31
OTHER	32