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CHILD CARE FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF WOMEN IN THE INFORMAL ECONOMY

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I. Introduction

Alongside their low paid work, many women informal workers are responsible for cooking, cleaning and the care of children, the ill and the elderly due to socially ascribed roles. On average across 66 countries, representing two-thirds of the world's population, women spend more than three times as much time as men on unpaid care and domestic work in their own homes (ODI 2016). Having a young child at home significantly increases the time women spend on unpaid care work consisting of nursing, breastfeeding and looking after the child (direct care), as well as cleaning, cooking, laundry and water collection (indirect care) (Budlender 2008, Cook and Dong 2011). Research from Colombia, Ethiopia, Zimbabwe, Uganda and the Philippines shows that amongst low income households women's unpaid care work does not decrease once they start engaging in paid work; instead, their overall workload increases (Oxfam 2014).

Women's disproportionate responsibility for child care results in less time for paid work – in effect undermining their equal right to decent work, social security and an adequate standard of living as enshrined in international human rights treaties.¹ In need of flexible work, women in low and middle income countries are increasingly finding work in the informal economy as it continues to grow due to labour deregulation (Chen 2012). In this context, ignoring the provision of child care services undermines other attempts to improve women's economic mobility through access to finance or enterprise development. In low-income households where parents do not have enough resources or time to provide child care, children suffer, while girls and elderly women may have to provide unpaid care at the expense of their education and health. This in turn reproduces gender inequality and perpetuates intergenerational poverty.

This policy brief posits that addressing the child care needs of women informal workers – by providing quality childcare services for such workers – and valuing their paid child care work – by enforcing their labour rights, including those of domestic workers (who are often responsible for childcare) – helps women informal workers realise their rights and access economically empowering opportunities. This policy brief posits that addressing women informal workers' child care needs and right to decent child care work helps such women realise their rights and access economically empowering opportunities. This can happen in two key ways – first, by providing quality childcare services that reach informal workers, and second, by enforcing the labour rights of informal child care workers, including domestic workers (who are often responsible for childcare). It is these, primarily women, informal child care workers and domestic workers who enable other people to engage in economic activities. Child care, paid or unpaid, is undervalued as it is seen as an extension of women's gendered caregiving roles supporting primary male breadwinners (Elson 2000; Razavi 2011). This is compounded by racial, ethnic and caste discrimination reflected in the wages of paid child care and domestic workers. On average across Latin America, domestic workers earn 76 per cent of earnings of all women in the informal economy (Tokman 2010). In the UK and Australia the average wages of full time child care workers amount to only 45 per cent of the national average earnings and that same figure for the United States is 56 per cent (ITUC 2016a). Yet investing in quality child care provision can have considerable positive economic and social impacts for women and men, children and societies more generally. Referred to as a “triple dividend”, the benefits of extending quality child care provision can increase women's labour force participation, improve health and education outcomes for children and create decent work in the paid care sector that can spur economic growth (UN Women 2015a, ITUC 2016a).

¹ See the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), and the Beijing Platform for Action

II. Current progress

Momentum is mounting in support of child care provision. Sustainable Development Goal 5 on gender equality includes target 5.4 which commits all states to: *“Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.”* This builds on existing international human rights treaties such as the Convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women. ILO conventions on maternity protection (183) and workers with family responsibilities (156) speak directly to legislation and labour practices that help workers access decent work while considering care responsibilities. Particularly significant for informal workers are the recent ILO Recommendation 202 on social protection floors and Recommendation 204 on the transition from the informal to the formal economy which recognize the need for child care and maternity benefits as part of global social protection floors. The ILO Domestic Workers Convention (189) sets out legally binding labour standards for the protection of domestic workers – who are amongst the most oppressed informal care workers. UN agencies and bilateral and multilateral donors are also calling for greater public and private investment in child care services to protect women’s rights to decent work, tackle gender disparities in the labour market and realise children’s right to an education and care (UN Women 2015b, IMF 2015, World Bank 2015). Yet in order for this momentum to lead to changes for women informal workers, greater public investment is required alongside research to better understand workers’ child care needs and the immediate and long-term costs and benefits of child care provision.

This policy brief explores the specific constraints informal women workers face when accessing child care and presents examples of child care cooperatives in India, municipality services in Brazil and national level policy reforms throughout Latin American countries. Each illustrates successful child care services that are designed and implemented with informal workers’ needs and rights in mind – both in terms how they arrange for care services and as child care workers. Women informal workers must mobilize and organize in collaboration with formal sector trade unions and women’s rights organizations to improve and expand child care services and strengthen labour protections. Multiple actors including women and men, extended social networks, and public, private and no-for-profit institutions must be involved to ensure child care is of good quality and supports all workers with family responsibilities (Razavi 2011). Child care can no longer be considered a private matter with women and girls bearing the trade-offs of paid work and unpaid care work – it must become a collective responsibility and considered as a key pillar of women’s economic empowerment.

III. Challenges and constraints: women informal workers’ child care needs

In sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, and South Asia, informal employment is a greater source of non-agricultural employment for women than for men (ILO 2016c). Informal employment includes a range of self-employed persons, who mainly work in unincorporated small or unregistered enterprises, as well as a range of wage workers who are employed but do not receive employer contributions to social protection (Chen 2012). The ILO estimates that own-account work and contributing family employment represents more than 46 per cent of total employment globally, representing 1.5 billion people (ILO 2016d). Around the world, 40 per cent of women in wage employment do not receive social protection through their work – with figures rising up to 63 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa and 74 per cent in Southern Asia (ILO 2016c).

One unique characteristic of informal employment is the lack of an employment relationship.

This is the case for own-account and contributing family workers, as well as those engaged in wage employment, such as homeworkers, who do not have a direct employer but are a part of supply chains (Chen 2012, ITUC 2016b). Without a direct employer, company-based child care services, such as workplace crèches, are not possible and informal workers cannot contribute to social security systems through their employers. Therefore, they may not benefit from maternity and child care benefits unless they live in a country where social protection programmes or universal healthcare exist and includes maternity care (ILO 2014).

Women informal workers are dispersed across multiple and varied worksites including city streets, waste dumps, agricultural fields and their own homes. They live in dense impoverished urban areas or in remote rural areas without adequate access to quality public services. They may also have irregular working hours, or no fixed hours, so that organized child care services are closed during the times women informal workers need them most. Without labour protections regulating working hours, the right to rest, and paid leave, informal workers – both women and men - have limited or no time with their children to develop important emotional bonds.

In focus group discussions with informal women workers in Brazil, Ghana, India, South Africa and Thailand, many explain that they choose more flexible informal employment in order to care for their children, even if the work pays less (Alfers 2016).² Survey data from 31 low and middle income countries shows that 39 per cent of working women with children under the age of 6 care for their children while working (UN Women Progress 2015). This undermines their productivity and lowers their earnings, as women informal workers cannot concentrate on their work while also taking care of a young child (Alfers 2016). Another 26 per cent on average rely on other relatives, and in the poorest households 18 per cent of women rely on girls to provide child care. For many informal workers, the ability to rely on extended family for child care is context specific and is not always a possibility (Heymann 2006). Many adults in low income households are themselves working and cannot bear the cost of losing their income to care for children and other dependents. Where grandmothers are responsible for child care it is frequently done alongside their own paid or agricultural work (ODI 2016, Alfers 2016). Informal workers who migrate with their children in search of employment may not have family in the area to help care for their children. Furthermore, live-in and migrant domestic workers have to leave their children with others to care for them.

Only 4 per cent of women surveyed used organized child care services – private or public; that same figure was 1 per cent for the poorest women (UN Women 2015b). According to the survey results, the first and most important barrier women face in accessing organized child care services is cost (Alfers 2016, Bhatkal 2014). This includes the direct costs of the crèche alongside additional costs such as transport and a private childminder if the child returns home during working hours. Where child care services are available for women informal workers they may be cheap but are of low quality. In China many of the child care services available to migrant women workers are unregistered because they do not meet the basic registration requirements (Cook and Dong 2011). The impact on intergenerational poverty is immediately evident as data from 67 low and middle income countries suggests that less than one-third of children aged 3-5 participated in early childhood education (ODI 2016).

² WIEGO in collaboration with affiliated informal workers' organizations and supportive NGOs conducted focus group discussions with 159 home-based workers, street vendors, agricultural workers and domestic workers across these five countries in 2015. The research relationship was built on high levels of trust between WIEGO and the organisations, a result of interactions over some years. WIEGO's research feeds into workers' advocacy campaigns

IV. Promising examples: child care services for informal workers and low income households

The following examples highlight various private and public child care services specifically designed for and run by informal workers. They include care cooperatives, municipal child care centres and national child care and social protection programmes.

SEWA Child Care Cooperatives

The Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA), founded in 1972, is an Indian trade union that represents nearly two million working poor women in the informal economy organizing for better working conditions. SEWA's child care cooperative offer affordable and quality child care services to its members, many of whom are home-based workers, street vendors, domestic workers, and agricultural labourers. The first SEWA child care cooperative were set up in 1986 in Ahmedabad; at their peak 210 existed across Gujarat though now there are only 33 still functioning due to cuts in government funding.

Where the government provided some financial support for these child care centres, SEWA has seen these funds dwindle as early childhood care and education is prioritized less.

The child care cooperatives are open from Monday – Saturday from 9:00 a.m. – 5:00 p.m. and take in children under the age of 6 years old. SEWA members pay Rs 150 (US\$ 2.2) per month per child. The child care cooperatives adopt a holistic approach and address children's health, nutrition and educational needs while accommodating working women's schedules. During the day children are given a nutritious meal, play and participate in educational activities, and learn about basic hygiene and cleanliness. Children's weight and height are tracked by child care workers and immunization programmes are conducted within the centre in partnership with primary healthcare centres. This has resulted in improved health and nutrition outcomes amongst children at the cooperatives.

The child care workers are from the community where the cooperatives are based and are themselves SEWA members. They receive training and are paid for their work at the child care centre. The cooperative members include the children's mothers and the child care workers. Monthly meetings are held between mothers and the child care workers. This gives both groups a say in how the centres are managed and helps build trust and confidence between mothers and child care workers. The democratic member control of cooperatives helps ensure the quality of the care (ILO 2016a). Every three months meetings are also held with fathers to engage them more in the wellbeing of their children and the running of the cooperatives.

In an impact assessment of the SEWA child care cooperative model conducted in 2011, mothers said that they preferred to send their children to SEWA child care centres rather than to the government provided Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) because these centers are open only for part of the day (ASK 2011). Women were able to work more hours during the day, and work more days during the month allowing them to earn a higher income and bolster their savings. The increase in income typically ranged from Rs 500-1,000 (US\$ 7-14) per month with some women's wages increasing as much as Rs 2,000 (US\$ 28) per month (ASK 2011). Women also reported that having their children enrolled in the care centres allowed them to be more mobile during the day and gave them time to engage in other activities such as looking for a better job, visiting family and friends, and going to the bank or the market. Mothers said that they enjoyed the peace of mind knowing that their children were well cared for

throughout the day. All-day child care services also decreased the time older siblings, primarily girls, spent on caring for young children, leading to improved school enrolment rates (ASK 2011).

Part of the costs of the child care cooperatives are covered by the fees, but the majority of the costs including salaries, food, rent and materials are covered through the government and donor funds. SEWA is actively involved in training government child care workers and advocating for improvements so that ICDS centres are available to more women. They see their own centres as a model for the provision of child care to informal workers.

Belo Horizonte municipal child care service for waste pickers³

The Asmare waste pickers cooperative has agreements with the municipality of Belo Horizonte in Brazil to pick up recyclable materials after business hours from federal buildings. The members of the cooperative also pick up materials from businesses and large retail stores in the commercial area near the cooperative's warehouses during the afternoon and early evening. In the late 1990s waste pickers started organizing through the local assemblies with support from Catholic non-governmental organizations, *Pastoral de Rua* and *Cáritas*, to demand a day care centre for their children. Initially, *Pastoral de Rua* collaborated with the city Sanitation Department to set up a small room within the Asmare cooperative that would be used as a day care centre. With additional support from an international foundation and a local company, a separate building was later built to house a day care centre. In 2004, the day care centre became part of the municipality's system of early childhood development centres – UMEIs (*Unidades Municipais de Educação Infantil*) and is known as the UMEI Carlos Prates.

There are approximately 15,000 children under the age of 5 year olds in the municipal education system in Belo Horizonte: 11 per cent of which are children under the age of 3 (Vieira and Souza 2010 cited in Ogando and Brito 2016). The UMEI Carlos Prates is the only day care centre that remains open from 7 a.m. to 10 p.m. in order to meet the needs of the waste pickers in Belo Horizonte's downtown commercial district. These opening hours are representative of the needs of many working families and 300 children are on the waiting list for a place in the day care centre. Currently, 70 per cent of the spaces are designated for the waste pickers' children and 30 per cent for the general public. The UMEI provides services for about 80 children who are divided into four age groups: nursery, 1-2 year olds, 3-4 year olds and 5 year olds. The UMEI has a staff of 27 professionals, 22 of which are teachers hired through the public servant exam. The municipality hires early childhood education professionals to work for 4.5 hours per day, 5 days a week (Vieira and Souza, 2010). Part of their salaries also includes the time dedicated towards planning classes. These professionals are supported by assistants who work for eight hours per day and are not paid to prepare classes and activities (Vieira and Souza, 2010).

The UMEI also has special needs assistants since there are some children with Down's syndrome, cerebral palsy, hearing impairment and autism. The centre prides itself on its vision of social inclusion by not only integrating the special needs children but also teaching the other students to accept differences from an early age. The example of this day care service reveals how the synergies between a committed local government, supporting organizations and a well-

³ This case study is taken from Ogando, Ana Carolina and Marina Brito. 2016. Latin America Scoping Policy Exercise: Considerations on Child Care Services in Brazil and Peru. WIEGO Child Care Initiative – Social Protection Programme.

organized group of informal workers can better address workers' specific needs.

National care systems in Latin America

Child care and the care of dependents, including the elderly and people living with disabilities is redefining public policy debates in Latin America. Feminist movements, academics and women in political office are influential in framing care as a rights-based issue calling for a move away from the sexual division of labour and towards a collective responsibility for care (Espino and Salvador 2014, Esquivel, 2014). National time use surveys revealed that women in low-income households, mainly working in the informal economy, spent more time on unpaid care and domestic work than women in wealthier households, leaving them less time to engage in paid work (Espino and Salvador, 2014). In response, some countries, such as the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and the Plurinational State of Bolivia recognize the need for public policies to address women's unequal responsibility for unpaid work in their political constitutions. In Costa Rica, Ecuador, Jamaica, Suriname and Uruguay care services are increasingly considered as a specific public policy agenda (Batthyány 2015).

Initiatives such as Chile's *Crece Contigo* or Uruguay's *National Care System* are designed with the well-being of both children and women workers in mind (Staab 2010, Batthyány 2015). In Uruguay, the National Care System, launched in November 2015, is the fourth pillar of the social protection system complementing healthcare, education and social security (Uruguay 2012). During the first phase of implementation it will provide child care services to households living in poverty but eventually it will expand to cover all households. Targeted populations will benefit from a national household care programme where paid child care workers will come to the homes of babies less than 1 year old to provide care. The government will extend public day care services for children between the ages of 1 and 3 years old and design day care centres that can accommodate children less than 1 year old if home care is not possible. Child care centres will be decentralized so that communities can flexibly adapt the services to meet their specific needs. These public services will be complemented by labour market protections such as extended maternity and paternity leave, half-time paternity work and parental leave when children are sick.

Since 2007 Uruguay has implemented progressive tax reforms and instituted labour market regulations (e.g. the reinstallation of collective wage bargaining) to address income inequalities (IMF 2015). The World Bank has noted that amongst those who have benefited the most from the tax reforms have been construction workers and domestic workers who now retain a greater share of their wages (Masood and Sinnot 2010). These policies both serve to finance the National Care System in the long-term and to sustain an increase in women informal workers' incomes.

Guardians need to trust the quality of care to leave their children with an institutional or community-run child care centre (Alfers 2016). Community child care services such as SEWA's child care cooperatives or Uruguay's decentralized "neighbourhood services" can ensure that guardians know the people looking after their children and are an effective way to provide child care for informal workers. However, community-based schemes must also offer decent work opportunities to child care workers. If not, these schemes will perpetuate labour market inequalities and reinforce gender norms that consider child care to be a low paid and unskilled type of work for women from marginalized ethnic, racial or migrant groups. In Ecuador the government is formalizing the national child care service which relied primarily on volunteers

known as ‘community mothers’. Since 2013, these child care workers received the minimum wage which is triple their previous stipend. In addition, the government is recruiting more and more trained child care workers as the public service expands (UN Women 2015a).

V. Women informal child care workers and domestic workers

Women informal workers are also amongst the most marginalised child care workers. They often work in low-paid community child care centres or neighborhood child care centers which they run as volunteers. In South Africa many street vendors leave their children with women from the neighbourhood who set up informal child care centres in their homes (Alfers 2016). Little national or global data exists on these informal child care providers and much of their work is either low paid or unpaid as they depend on the low and irregular earnings of other women informal workers. Domestic workers also contribute to the direct and indirect care of children, the elderly and people living with disabilities. Domestic workers relieve women and men of unpaid care work and allow them to engage in economic activities. Yet domestic workers’ labour rights are not recognized and are often violated. Having successfully mobilized, the challenges domestic workers face including their unmet child care needs are increasingly being addressed.

Domestic care workers mobilize to enact ILO Convention (189)

In 2011 the ILO Domestic Workers Convention (189) was adopted following the mobilization of domestic workers across the world. National domestic worker groups collaborated with global trade unions to demand an ILO Convention that would protect their rights. The convention reaffirms domestic workers’ rights to a living wage, regulated working hours, training, paid leave and access to social protection. The accompanying ILO recommendation (201) proposes steps states can take towards formalizing domestic work. Though domestic workers have been organizing nationally, domestic workers’ groups across different regions met for the first time in 2006 (Mathers 2012). Organizing domestic workers seemed like an improbable feat; domestic workers are isolated in individual households, the majority are informal workers without an employment contract, many are migrants, and in certain countries domestic workers are legally barred from forming or joining trade unions because they are not considered workers under the employment act. The national and international mobilization of domestic workers in collaboration with global trade unions demonstrates the potential women informal workers have to organize for their rights as care workers. Even in contexts where social and labour protection systems are weak, organizing can empower domestic workers to negotiate directly with their employers for improved working conditions (Castel-Branco 2012).

In the two years following the adoption of the ILO Convention, domestic workers formed a fully constituted, democratic federation known as the International Domestic Workers Federation (IDWF). Today, the IDWF is made up of 59 membership based domestic worker organisations representing more than a million domestic workers across 47 countries (IDWF 2016). The IDWF ensures that the struggle for decent work for domestic workers is coordinated and sustained (Bonner et al. 2014).

The ILO estimates that there are 67 million domestic workers across the world and more than 80 per cent are women (ILO 2015c). Domestic works are disproportionately women from low income groups and marginalized migrant, ethnic and racial communities disproportionately work as domestic workers. Their concentration in that occupation compounds and reinforces multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination. The 11.5 million migrant domestic workers worldwide are particularly vulnerable to forced labour, low wages, long hours and deplorable working conditions (ILO 2015c).

Some countries such as Brazil, Vietnam, Uruguay, South Africa and the Philippines have taken promising steps to formalize domestic work. However, domestic workers in many countries continue to work without an employment contract that regulates their monthly wages, working

hours, paid leave and social security contributions. The ILO estimates that globally 90 per cent of domestic workers are legally excluded from social security systems (ILO 2016b). Domestic workers and their children are amongst the most affected by a lack of maternity protections and accessible quality child care services even though they are employed to care for children in wealthier households.

Domestic worker cooperatives are an alternative employment and service delivery model that help to meet the growing need for domestic workers and better protect domestic workers' labour rights. An ILO survey indicated that care cooperatives effectively protect workers' rights. Accordingly, survey respondents asserted that members of the care cooperatives could access social security and many were granted paid sick leave, maternity leave, and guaranteed-hour work weeks (ILO 2016a). Domestic workers' cooperatives also offer training opportunities for their members and a space to organize for labour protections. For instance, the South Korean Home Managers Cooperative works closely with the country's trade unions and domestic workers to stage rallies calling for social recognition, legal protection and the adoption of the ILO Domestic Workers Convention (ILO 2015a).

VI. Financing child care for women's economic empowerment

Initiatives led by informal worker organizations, care cooperatives and larger-scale national child care programmes are redefining the debate on child care to include the rights of children, women and child care workers. Cooperatives that address care needs promote inclusion, democratic decision-making and empower care providers and recipients (ILO 2016a). Global trade unions are also mobilizing against the privatization and outsourcing of care and education services that generally lead to more precarious and informal employment for child care workers (Urban and Rubiano 2014, ITUC 2016a).

Care is increasingly considered an integral component of broader social protection systems as illustrated by the experience of countries such as Uruguay and Costa Rica. The ILO Social Security Convention (102) includes family benefits as one of nine core work-related contingencies. The convention mentions key provisions regarding the care of children such as food, housing, and domestic help. This provides a basis from which to frame quality child care services as a component of social protection systems. Without access to quality public child care women's present and future income security is significantly compromised. Cash transfers can address some of the costs associated with child care. However, in most countries the amount transferred does not meet the full cost of caring for children. The provision of quality child-care could augment the impact of cash transfers (Lund, 2008). As the SEWA example shows, childcare services can also complement the expansion of universal healthcare by providing nutritious food and basic health check-ups for the children of informal workers.

High quality private child care services are unaffordable or inaccessible to informal workers, particularly in rural areas. The private for-profit sector is less prevalent in rural areas and does not reach the poorest (Ashley et al. 2014). In addition, private child care services are incentivized to keep workers' wages low and are likely to pay the same low wages received by teachers working in inexpensive private schools in low and middle income countries (UNESCO 2015). Therefore, direct public funding is necessary to ensure informal women workers have access to affordable, high quality child care. Furthermore, evidence from high income countries suggests that publicly funded child care guarantees more uniform levels of service quality and better working conditions (OECD 2006, UNICEF 2008). Public funding can also help maintain and expand the reach of child care cooperatives in areas where the state may not yet have public

child care centres. One of the main challenges in creating and sustaining care cooperatives is the lack of investment from local and national governments (ILO 2016a).

Financing quality and affordable child care services through global social protection floors calls for greater public spending. Despite the commitments made by signatories of the Sustainable Development Goals, 81 low and middle income countries and 45 high income countries are projecting to cut back on public spending between 2016 – 2020 as part of broader austerity measures (ILO 2015b). This will affect more than six billion people – or close to 80 per cent of the global population. Recent austerity measures that cut public spending and reduce tax credits in high income countries are undermining the quality of public child care and women's sustained engagement in the labour force (ITUC 2016a, Women's Budget Group 2013). A review of IMF loan conditionalities between 1985 – 2014 shows that the IMF continues to support liberalizing labour markets and reducing public sector employment and public sector wages (Kentikelenis et al. 2016). Yet expanding public child care services can have significant economic and social returns. Evidence from high and low income countries indicates that public investment in child care can produce economic returns equal to roughly 10 times its costs (Barnett and Nores 2015, Yoshikawa and Kabay 2015). These various studies use diverse methodologies to assess the economic returns of child care primarily on the basis of their impacts on education and health outcomes for children. In order to benefit from the triple dividend associated with child care, national economic policies must allow for greater public investments by reversing austerity trends (UN Women 2015b, ILO 2015b).

VII. Recommendations

- Promote the right to freedom of association and increase support for informal worker organizations and trade unions that economically empower women. Organized workers have more influence over the implementation of child care services and decision-making processes that impact their rights as workers. The mobilization of care workers helps ensure that their work is recognized and affirms the value of care for all societies.
- Protect the labour rights of care workers including domestic workers and child care workers.

Ratifying the ILO Convention on Domestic Workers (189) and formalizing child care work can create new decent work opportunities for women informal workers, increase their income security and access to social protection, and reduce gender inequalities in the labour market.

- Promote and protect the rights of migrant domestic workers who are amongst the most vulnerable workers in expanding global care chains. States can act to guarantee employment contracts and visas, regulate recruiting agencies and ensure migrant domestic workers enjoy the same labour protections and rights as national workers.
- Extend quality holistic child care services, as part of social protection systems, to protect against work-related contingencies and amplify the benefits of cash transfers. Providing child care can improve short and long term income security for women informal workers.
- Reverse austerity measures and scale up funding for the provision and extension of child care services to reach informal workers and their children. Increased public spending on child care services will deliver the triple dividend and stimulate and sustain economic growth.

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