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Developing Gender
Statistics: A Practical Tool

Training manual prepared by the UNECE Task Force on Gender Statistics
Training for Statisticians with contributions from various experts

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Chapter 1 What is Gender Statistics and Gender Analysis

1.1 Introduction

The title of the widely-used training manual on gender statistics, *Engendering Statistics: A Tool for Change*, captures an essential feature of this field (See chapter 5 section 7 for more information). Gender statistics is not a discrete or isolated field but a perspective that relates to all fields of statistics¹. Essential to the production of gender statistics is the identification of what statistics are needed in the context of the problems and goals connected with gender issues in a country. It is this policy-oriented approach rather than the simple disaggregation of data by sex which is at the core of gender statistics.

Gender statistics is a field of statistics which cuts across the traditional fields to identify, produce and disseminate statistics that reflect the realities of the lives of women and men and policy issues relating to gender.

The development of gender statistics involves all steps of producing statistics, but with specific regard to integrating gender issues and reflecting gender concerns. The main steps include²:

- selection of topics to be investigated
- identification of statistics to be collected to reflect gender issues in society
- formulation of concepts and definitions used in data collection that adequately reflect the diversities of women and men in society and capture all aspects of their lives
- development of data collection methods that take into account stereotypes and social and cultural factors that might produce gender-based biases
- development of analyses and presentation of data that can easily reach policy makers, planners and the largest audience possible.

This chapter will focus on some of the basic issues and challenges that are involved with developing gender statistics.

1.2 The Importance Of A Gender Concern In Statistics

The first challenge faced by advocates of a gender-focus in statistics is to convince statisticians and even some potential users of the importance and feasibility of this field of work. Many argue that gender is already fully incorporated in statistics. Others that it is not necessary since women and men already have equal opportunities in society (see Box on frequently used arguments). By contrast, this manual argues that a gender focus strengthens, in fact improves the whole statistical system. Women and men continue to have different roles in society, different access to and control over resources and different skills and interests. Unless these differences are reflected in official statistics, statisticians will not fulfill adequately their mandate. Data must

¹ Birgitta Hedman, Francesca Perucci and Pehr Sundstrom, *Engendering Statistics: A Tool for Change*, (Statistics Sweden, 1996).

² Ibid., p. 11.

cover the entire population and show the differential impact of policies and programmes.

A starting point in the discussion of developing gender statistics is the distinction between two terms which are often confused – sex and gender. The difficulty of translating the term *gender* into languages other than English further contributes to the confusion in the use of these terms. Sometimes the simple categories of sex (male and female) and gender (masculine and feminine) are treated as if they were the same thing. They are not. Sex is a reference to the relatively fixed biological basis of the differentiation of women and men. Gender is a reference to the relatively fluid social basis of the differentiation of men and women.

When people are asked to record whether they are women or men, it is usually information on their biological sex that is being requested and provided. However the policy and research interest is almost always in gender not sex. It is the nature of variations in the patterns of gender relations that is the central concern of analysis and policy. There are, of course some exceptions to the focus of interest being gender rather than sex, for example, some aspects of health statistics concern forms of ill health that are related to biological differences. Also, not all aspects of biology are fixed, but may vary, for example, the average age of death varies between countries: diet and medical care affect longevity.

The analytic and policy interest is almost always in the variable social dimension of gender rather than the more fixed biological dimension of sex. However, when referring to data, disaggregation is on the basis of women and men, that is the biological dimension of sex.

Frequently used arguments against producing gender-sensitive statistics

Argument: Adding gender will cost too much

For the most part, there is a minimal cost attached to adding gender to existing instruments. In some cases, it simply involves the addition of an extra question or column specifying sex. In other cases it might involve the addition of several other questions. At analysis time, the main cost would be the time involved in running additional tabulations, but in many cases sex can simply be added to existing tabulations. Significant cost is generally only incurred when a completely new investigation (such as a survey) is envisaged.

Adding gender will adversely affect the quality of the data

On the contrary, the addition of gender will enrich the information becoming available from the investigation and increase its explanatory value. The addition of gender also often provides the basis for more thorough checking of the accuracy of data collection and recording in that it allows for additional logical checks.

Women and men in this country already enjoy equality

Women and men will never be exactly the same, because biological differences will persist, as will some social differences. Gender statistics are needed to illustrate both the respects in which male and female differ, as well as those in which they are similar. It is only on the basis of this information that governments can make sensible

policy. And it is only with ongoing production of this information that governments can be sure that policies in respect of gender equity are succeeding.

We already have gender statistics – all our data are sex-disaggregated

The production of gender-sensitive statistics does not involve only the production of sex-disaggregated data. Sex-disaggregated data form one important component of gender-sensitive statistics. But for full gender sensitivity, the NSS also needs to be confident that it produces statistics in respect of all the key gender issues in the country, and that it covers issues (such as maternal mortality) that might affect only one sex.

It is normal to have differences in the labour market between women and men because women prefer to stay at home

Gender-sensitive data do not in themselves present a value judgement on how the society should look. The task of the NSS is to produce data that accurately reflect the situation in the country. It is then up to the policy-makers and citizens more generally to decide whether the differences depicted between male and female are ‘normal’ and desirable.

The concept of gender places focus on both women and men; not merely on women. This is important because policies and programmes affect women and men differently and because men’s position in society is an important context for understanding women’s position.

However a focus on either men or women may also be appropriate. For example there are some issues that pertain to women but not men, such as maternal mortality, while there are some health issues that are specific to men.

1.3 Intersection With Other Social Relations

The division of the population into men and women is usually cross-cut by other social divisions. The nature and implications of these intersections always need to be considered when producing gender statistics. There are significant differences between women (and men) depending on age, education, and other significant categories. It is important to be careful about generalisations about women (or men) that might be misleading because of this diversity.

Gender relations intersect with a wide variety of phenomena that can make a significant difference. Another important set of divisions are those with class, poverty and social exclusion. Others significant categories include age, ethnicity, religion, disability, and sexual orientation – areas where inequalities are illegal in the EU. There are also important differences associated with migration and citizenship status, which may or may not overlap with categories of ethnicity and religion. Further distinctions may be based on urban/rural residence.

In some instances this intersection may simply lead to an additional form of disadvantage. In others the intersection changes the nature of both of the intersecting categories. This mutual effect can be complex. If there is mutual constitution of the categories, then the notion of simple addition of the various inequalities is insufficient. It will need to be addressed by a discussion of an additional ‘interaction effect’ in the analysis.

It is thus important, where possible, to gather and present data disaggregated not only by sex but by other dimensions of social relations at the same time.

1.4 Gender Statistics Topics

The areas covered by gender statistics are not confined to the family or any one area but span a wide range of concerns in every country. There are various ways to identify and classify critical gender concerns. The European Union’s Road Map for Equality³ between Men and Women and the United Nations Platform for Action⁴ provide two such approaches.

The 1995 United Nations Platform for Action identifies 12 critical areas of concern calling for strategic actions. In turn these gender concerns identify what statistics will need to be collected to provide a basis for policies and programmes and for their monitoring and evaluation. The listing below uses the phrasing of the “Platform” to establish why an area is a critical concern and selected research findings to briefly describe some gender issues each involves.

Poverty: ‘The persistent and increasing burden of poverty on women’: Poverty among women may be linked to policies on macro economics, welfare and credit that do not take sufficient account of the position of women. Poverty may be understood at the individual level of men and women as well as that of the household. Women

³ European Union, 2006 A Roadmap for equality between women and men.

http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/news/2006/mar/com06092_roadmap_en.pdf

⁴ The United Nations, Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 1995 *Platform for Action*
<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/plat1.htm>

may have different routes into poverty than men, such as widowhood and lone motherhood.

Education and training: ‘Inequalities and inadequacies in and unequal access to education and training’: Girls and women may have less access to education and training as compared with boys and men; there is often sex segregation so that women and men are typically found in different branches of education and training, which may lead to better or worse rewarded employment; life-long learning is typically more important to women than men, because women are more likely to want to return to education and employment in adulthood after periods of dedicated intensive childcare but this may be changing as men lose jobs and need to qualify for new types of employment.

Health: ‘Inequalities and inadequacies in and unequal access to health care and related services’: Women may have less access to health care than men; some forms of health care concern women specifically, such as at the time of childbirth, in their access to specific forms of reproductive health care; some diseases are specific to different sexes e.g. breast cancer, prostate cancer.

Violence: ‘Violence against women’: Gender based violence is predominantly from men to women, including domestic violence, sexual violence, stalking, sexual harassment at work, female genital mutilation, trafficking of women into prostitution, forced marriage, and traditional and honour based violence. Violence against women is both cause and consequence of gender inequality.

Armed conflict: ‘The effects of armed or other kinds of conflict on women, including those living under foreign occupation’: Women are typically less involved than men in decision making about conflict resolution; women can be particularly vulnerability to sexual violence in conflict and post-conflict situations.

Economy: ‘Inequality in economic structures and policies, in all forms of productive activities and in access to resources’: Analyses of the economy often pay less attention to the forms of work in which women as compared to men are involved, for example, unpaid domestic work as compared with paid work; there are important distinctions between forms of work organisation that are of particular relevance to a gender analysis, such as the distinction between full-time and part-time employment; occupational and industrial segregation by sex, the intricacies of combining caring and employment, discriminatory practices, and the gender pay gap.

Power and decision making: ‘Inequality between men and women in the sharing of power and decision-making at all levels’: Gendered issues include the proportion of women elected to Parliament, the proportion of women appointed as government ministers, the proportion of women in senior positions in the police, judiciary and other public bodies, proportion of women on the boards of major companies, as well as the nature of the outcomes of political processes.

Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women: ‘Insufficient mechanisms at all levels to promote the advancement of women’: This is a topic of specific relevance to gender relations; it concerns the existence, resources and capacity of the institutional machinery to advance women, including government ministries,

programmes and the development of an evidence base to evaluate policy, such as gender disaggregated statistics.

Human rights of women: ‘Lack of respect for and inadequate promotion and protection of the human rights of women’: While all human rights are women’s rights, some instruments have been developed that are focused on women, such as the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women. The concept of human rights has been particularly important in developing analyses of the policies needed to eliminate violence against women, which is conceptualised as a violation of women’s human rights.

Media: ‘Stereotyping of women and inequality in women’s access to and participation in all communication systems, especially in the media’: Gender issues in the analysis of the media include the extent of the participation of women in decision making in the media, as well as the nature of the representations of women in the media, such as whether these are stereotypical rather than balanced.

Environment: ‘Gender inequalities in the management of natural resources and in the safeguarding of the environment’: Gender issues include the participation of women in decision making about the environment, as well as gender-focused concerns about the environment.

The girl-child: ‘Persistent discrimination against and violation of the rights of the girl child’: Discrimination against girl-children is an example of concerns about girl-children.

Even this extensive list is not fully comprehensive. Other areas where gender analysis is important include transport, sport and leisure, reproduction, and sexuality.

1.5 Making Gender Visible In Statistics

The process of identifying gender and gender relevance is a complex and often subtle one. It requires an understanding of where gender might be relevant and which areas might contain dimensions that are significantly gendered. This requires an understanding of current policy issues. It also requires technical understanding of the conceptual frameworks and methods used in official statistics. Certain important frameworks and methods traditionally used in official statistics are biased against women or men and thus women’s or men’s activities and preferences are not fully covered in statistics. In addition the concept of the household, the basis for much policy-oriented data analysis, assumes homogeneity of all household members.

One example of bias in statistical concepts is in the definition of what is economic. The traditional approach to the economy focuses on the monetised sector that can be represented in measures such as Gross Domestic Product. This omits unpaid domestic labour that is labour classified as non-economic in the home, leaving a significant part of women’s contribution outside the analysis. To understand the full provision of goods and services in a country, it is important to have comprehensive data on all kinds of work. In order to more fully investigate these issues time budget surveys are being undertaken increasingly by national statistical offices to collect data on all forms of work. And the 1993 System of National Accounts recognizes the need for

separate measurement and recommends that valuation of production outside the boundaries set for the SNA be undertaken in satellite accounts.

In other areas, the traditional concepts - for example family status, fertility preferences, contraceptive behaviour and actual fertility - are biased against men. However after years of work in gender statistics, Sweden is one of several countries that now collect and publish data on family status, contraceptive practices and fertility for both men and women⁵.

A second type of problem occurs when the basic unit of analysis and presentation is the household, as for example in the traditional approach to poverty and social exclusion. This approach is often justified by the assumption that within the household there is an equitable pooling of resources. The assumption that the household is the appropriate unit is carried into certain public policies which tax and provide benefits to the household as a unit. However, use of the household as the unit in poverty analysis renders divisions associated with gender as invisible. It obscures gender inequalities in the distribution of resources within the household, and the implications of differential work incentives for women and men. It is important to collect data on income and resources at the level of individual men and women as well as the level of the household unit and to provide tabulations and analysis which show both household and individual patterns.

Another way the household concept has made women invisible in statistics is the use of "head of household." Often the characteristics of the whole household have been identified as those of the head and the head has been assumed to be the oldest man in the household. This practice obscures a series of gender issues. For example, comparing 'heads of households' may well not be a comparison between male earners: the highest earning of a two-earner household may be the woman; the woman may be the main earner and the man the main carer; the household may be made up of a lesbian or homosexual couple. The new practice of using the concept of the 'household reference person' allows the advantages of a single point of enquiry, without the disadvantages of making false gender assumptions.

The process of making gender visible in areas where it was previously thought not relevant lies at the heart of the development of gender statistics. Rather than making assumptions about the nature and significance of gender relations, such issues questions are opened up to analytic scrutiny. There are many questionable assumptions in traditional analyses. These include: assuming that gender is not relevant because other social and economic dynamics are more important; that women's interests are always closely aligned with those of their husbands; and that a particular category of person is always male or female. The development of gender statistics creates the evidence base that enables such assumptions to be tested, and better analyses and policies can then be developed.

1.6 Gender Equality

In many cases the interest in gender is an interest in the nature and causes of gender inequality. Many contemporary policies are designed to reduce the level of gender inequality. Statistics are thus needed to measure gender inequality. However, the concept of gender equality is complex.

⁵ Statistics Sweden, *Women and Men in Sweden: Facts and Figures 2008*, Sweden 2006.

The definition of gender equality depends on the understanding of gender differences. Are all differences also inequalities? Or are some differences valued and not a sign of inequality? Does reaching gender equality mean changing the position of women, or does it mean a much deeper transformation that includes changing the lives of men as well? These different approaches to gender equality may be summarized in a three-fold typology.

First, equality means a single standard of evaluation, with the implication that unless there is sameness there is not equality. An example is that of equal pay for work of equal value. This is the most widespread use of the concept of gender equality. This approach underpins most legal treatments of gender equality, which are based on the principle of equal treatment. It is the simplest and best understood meaning of the concept of gender equality.

Second, there is equal valuation of different contributions, with the implication that there is not a simple single standard against which men and women's positions are assessed. An example is that of unpaid care work, and whether and if so how this might be treated as equivalent to paid work. Should national accounts attempt to place a monetary value on unpaid care work in order to equally value it with paid work? This approach may lead to policies that involve special treatment for women, such as paid maternity leave. However, it is also argued that there is a danger that this approach may be used as a justification of the status quo rather than equality. Can different ever mean equal? Hence, while not an uncommon approach, this is a much disputed interpretation of the meaning of gender equality.

Third, is a position that equality between men and women will only be achieved through the transformation of the practices and standards of both men and women. An example is that of changing the structural conditions so that gender equality may be achieved, such as reconciling work and family life by making the workplace compatible with care; by changing gender power relations in order to reduce violence against women. This approach requires major structural changes throughout society. It is similar to the first interpretation of the concept of equality, in that equality is achieved through ultimately achieving sameness, but differs in positioning this within a wider analysis of the transformation of the social environment. This is the approach most usually adopted within the strategy of gender mainstreaming, which seeks to include the gender equality perspective in all areas of analysis and policy.

There are vigorous debates on these three positions among gender scholars and policy makers. It is not necessary to make a decision as to which one is best in order to produce statistics relevant to gender equality. Indeed to the contrary; the job of a gender statistician is to produce the evidence in order to facilitate the discussions that might achieve the resolution of these debates by others.

There are several further nuances on the concept of gender equality, including equal opportunities and equity.

Equal opportunities is an approach which focuses on issues of access of individuals to particular institutions and treatments. It is close to the notion of equal treatment. With its focus on justice for individuals, however, it is an approach that rarely

addresses the wider issues about the institutions that structure our resources. It may be regarded as necessary but perhaps not sufficient for the development of gender equality.

The concept of equity is a one that is closer to the notion of fairness than to equality, in that it allows for some inequalities to be regarded as legitimate. For example there may be gender pay equity rather than pay equality if there are gender pay differences that might be caused by differences in skills rather than by discrimination.

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Chapter 2 Why do We need Gender Statistics?

2.1 Introduction

As gender issues move forward in national and global agendas, new demands are created for statistics. Advocates, researchers and policy makers request additional data and also argue, more generally, that the gender perspective should be a basic assumption guiding which data to collect and to analyze. In doing so, they are not only asking for data needed for the development of policies on gender equality but also their efforts encourage change and reform in statistical systems to make them produce more useable information. The “*why*” of gender statistics is answered by both objectives. Gender statistics are needed to provide an evidence base for advocacy and policy development. In addition gender statistics have an important role in improving the whole statistical system, pushing it to describe more accurately and fully the activities and characteristics of the whole population and not only of men.

2.2 Importance of Gender Statistics

Gender statistics provide the information needed to inform public debate and support policy development and research. Gender statistics provide the numbers and are the basis for the analysis to assess differences in the situations of women and men and how conditions are changing or not changing. In this way gender statistics raise consciousness and provide the impetus for public debate and change. Gender statistics are also required for research to support the development and testing of explanations and theories to better understand how gender operates in a society. All of these uses form the basis for developing policies to foster greater gender equality. Furthermore, gender statistics are needed to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of policy developments.

The policies, research questions and public debate for which gender statistics are needed focus on issues of gender equality and the advancement of women. In addition, gender statistics have uses in areas of policy where gender is not the leading issue. In many instances social and economic policies are affected by gender dimensions even when it is not immediately obvious. In these cases the availability of the evidence base to support gender analyses is important to the investigation since without an understanding of the differences in the operation and effects of the policy on different population groups, such as gender, the full implications of the policy may not be understood and its objectives not be fulfilled.

Underlying all of these uses for gender statistics is their role in improving statistical systems. It is important to have a dialogue between producers and users of gender statistics. For example, gender advocates bring their own demands for data and in doing so identify deficiencies in the data currently available to them. They push for improvements in the concepts, methods, topics and data series to better reflect the activities and contributions made by women as well as by men. The result of such efforts is often not simply better information on women, but improvements in measuring the realities of economic and social life. For example, the box on developing statistics on employment in India describes how the efforts of advocates to

improve data on poor working women resulted in better data not only on these women but also on most employed women and men in India.

Box

Developing statistics on employment in India

Since the mid-1980's, the Self Employed Women's Association of India (SEWA) has worked tirelessly to promote the development of the Government of India's statistics on informal employment. SEWA- particularly its founder Ela Bhatt and its national coordinator Renana Jhabvala - recognized the power of statistics to advocate the cause of its workers and to inform policies and programs to improve their situation. As Ela Bhatt put it: "...the employers used to say: 'Who are homeworkers? How many are there? Where are they? They are not there.' And they used to make fun of us – to ridicule us". SEWA recognized that by collecting data on specific categories of homeworkers - bidi rollers and then incense workers – they were able to convince authorities of the importance of these workers and to negotiate their coverage by welfare funds. SEWA also used statistics to support passage of the 1996 ILO Homework Convention and to stimulate efforts in India and more broadly in Southeast Asia to improve the conditions of homeworkers. The results of these efforts also included the overall improvement in national labor force data.

SEWA has not restricted itself to small research studies but have taken an active role in shaping national statistical policy. It has lobbied the Government of India to set up commissions to study the problems of self-employed women, participated actively in the commissions once formed, collaborated with partners to do research studies, participated in the planning of surveys, and followed carefully decisions on data collection efforts that relate to their members.

These efforts have secured improvements in the livelihood of low income workers. Another result which is important to the field of statistics is that India is now a leading country in the development of statistics on informal employment. This achievement owes a lot to the close collaboration of the national statistical services with groups such as SEWA. The impact of these efforts on statistics goes beyond improving data on women in informal employment. As over 90 per cent of the country's workers are in informal employment, a result has been the improvement of data on the total labor force.

Gender Statistics in the Policy-Making Process

The process of producing gender statistics is closely linked to the policy-making process. The paragraphs below briefly describe some of the more important steps in these closely related processes. The descriptions illustrate how the process in reality usually consists of an iterative cyclical process.

- *Identification of gender issue in society*
The process starts with the realization that a gender issue exists in the society on

which greater knowledge is needed. The gender issue could relate to a particular key policy issue in the country, such as poverty, and the realization that the gender aspects of poverty are not well understood. Alternatively, there could be an explicit gender issue, such as gender-based violence, on which policy makers realize they need more information.

- *Production and presentation of gender statistics*
The next step involves production of statistics to help fill the gap in existing knowledge. This might involve the introduction of a completely new instrument, such as a survey on gender-based violence. Alternatively, it could involve an enhancement of existing data collection, through the addition of question/s in a survey or administrative form, expansion of response options to a question or administrative form, or changes in the way that questions are asked to make them less gender-biased. Yet another possibility is changes in the recruitment and training of data collectors, to ensure they are aware of the interrelationship between the relevant gender issues and their role in their interview process.
- *Marketing and dissemination of gender statistics*
Presentation of the enhanced statistics is not enough. In order to be used, they need to reach the policy makers (both civil servants and elected representatives) and those who advise them. They also need to reach the advocates, such as women's groups, who can put pressure on the policy makers for the necessary changes. Finally, the statistics need to reach those who have influence in the policy arena but who would normally not recognize gender issues. Different products, different marketing strategies, and different dissemination techniques may be needed for each of the different audiences.
- *Gender and policy analysis*
Generally national statistical agencies are tasked with producing statistics and are not expected to analyze them from a policy perspective. Indeed, in many countries there is an explicit requirement that the national statistical office should not make policy statements. Instead, they are meant simply to present the 'facts'. The situation might be different for data producers in some other parts of the national statistical services, for example those located in line agencies. However, here again those responsible for policy analysis and proposals will usually differ from those responsible for production of statistics, including their publication. This fourth step therefore involves different actors, who are usually outside the national statistical service and who analyze the meaning and implications of the statistics. While national statisticians are not directly responsible for this step, they need to be aware that the way they present statistics can influence the analysis.
- *Use of gender analysis for policy actions*
This step involves the use of the analysis in developing or amending policy and implementing it. It would, of course, be naïve to assume that policy is regularly based mainly on facts and figures. There are many different forces that influence policy. However, the existence of reliable facts and figures strengthens the hand of any policy proponent. It also promotes the development of 'evidence-based' policy, rather than policy that is driven by supposition or ideology. Further, it promotes sensible debate among policy makers of the different options.
- *Change in the society*
All policies are intended to promote some sort of change in society, or to avoid changes that would happen without the policy. From a gender perspective, the

hope is that policies will promote movement towards gender equality. In some cases these changes can happen fairly rapidly. For example, the introduction of free anti-retroviral medicines for those with HIV should result in a very rapid increase in the life expectancy of these people. In other cases change will be much slower. For example, a policy change that encourages young women to study in fields that will enable them to occupy higher-paying jobs will only result in a lessening in the wage gap years later when these students become part of the labor market.

- *Identification of gaps and formulation of new questions*
Ideally, governments should be monitoring all policies that are implemented in respect of both outputs (deliverables) and outcomes (impact on the society). Other actors, too, might be monitoring the impact of policies seen to have potential to address gender issues. For example, an organization working in the area of women's health might monitor the impact of a new policy approach in respect of contraception, while an NGO providing services for battered women might monitor the impact of the introduction of interdicts. This monitoring process might well lead back to the beginning of the chain by establishing that there are aspects on which knowledge is lacking.
- *New production of gender statistics*
This is an iteration of the second step described above.

The above description is very general. The specifics of how the process works will differ from country to country and from topic to topic. It will depend, among others, on which actors in the national statistical office are responsible for a particular issue. For example, it is likely to differ if the statistics concerned are produced by the statistical office or by a line agency. It will depend, also, on the level and breadth of awareness of a particular gender issue, and the degree to which the issue is politically or otherwise sensitive. It will depend on the approach of government, and the extent to which it prides itself on producing evidence-based policy, as well as on its commitment to gender equality. In some cases, the process of asking for statistics that enhance gender knowledge might be instigated by someone who opposes change, and is asking for more evidence as a delaying tactic.

2.3 Supporting Policy Development

A series of United Nations intergovernmental resolutions provide a mandate for the development of policies on the advancement of women and gender equality as well as for the statistics required for the development of these policies. These include the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women in 1979, the Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995, and the United Nations Millennium Development Goals in 2000. Regional governments have further developed mandates, for example the European Union's 1997 Treaty of Amsterdam, and legislation, such as directives on the equal treatment of women and men in employment and in the delivery of goods and services. Many national governments have their own specific policy and legislative programs to achieve women's empowerment and gender equality.

As an example of policy areas related to gender, Chapter 1 described the 12 critical areas of concern identified in the Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference

on Women.⁶ The Platform for Action called on Governments, the international community and civil society to take strategic actions on the following areas of concern:

1. poverty;
2. education;
3. health;
4. violence against women;
5. armed conflict;
6. the economy;
7. power and decision making;
8. institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women;
9. human rights;
10. the media;
11. the environment;
12. the girl-child

The Platform supports these areas of concern with strategic objectives and actions to be taken. One of the strategic objectives focuses on statistics. Specifically, objective H.3 is: “generate and disseminate gender-disaggregated data and information for planning and evaluation.” It is followed by a detailed set of actions, in fact an agenda for needed work in statistics. Some actions address the general need for statistics: “Ensure that statistics related to individuals are collected, compiled, analyzed and presented by sex and age and reflect problems, issues and questions related to women and men in society.” Other actions specify what needs to be done to develop statistics related to the specific topics of concern.

Gender statistics are also relevant for the development of policies that are not overtly related to gender. Many policies that appear to have little to do with gender equality are actually affected in an indirect way by aspects of the relationships between women and men. It is often necessary to investigate the gender aspect of a policy even if it is not directly articulated in a way that draws attention to this interaction. An example of the relevance of gender to policies that appear not to be relevant from a gender perspective is that of violent crime. The concept of ‘violent crime’ might appear to have little to do with gender. Yet, one of the hidden aspects of violent crime is violence in the home from husbands to wives. Omitting this part of violent crime would mean that a significant part of violent crime is not measured and therefore not considered in policies and programs. The inclusion of a gender perspective enables a more nuanced and multi-faceted policy to be developed; one that is likely to be more successful.

The interconnection between gender relations/policies and wider social issues is recognized prominently in the Platform for Action:

para. 41. The advancement of women and the achievement of equality between women and men are a matter of human rights and a condition for social justice and should not be seen in isolation as a women's issue. They are the only way to build a sustainable, just and developed society. Empowerment of

⁶ United Nations, *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women*, Beijing 4-15 September 1995 (United Nations publication, Sales no. 96.IV.13)

women and equality between women and men are prerequisites for achieving political, social, economic, cultural and environmental security among all peoples.'

2.4 Tools for Using Gender Statistics in the Policy Process

Developing effective gender policies requires the assessment of the impact of both proposed and existing policies on women and men. New importance has been placed on gender assessments and on a specific form of such assessment, gender budgeting. Indicators, benchmarks and targets are additional tools used to monitor change in the situation of women and men and the success or failure of policies and programs. All such tools require an extensive body of reliable gender statistics to be used successfully in the policy-making process.

Gender impact assessment

Gender impact assessment is an important tool in policy-making that can be used to reveal gender biases. Gender impact assessment takes place during the design stage, before decisions are made to show the implications of proposed policies on women and men. Gender impact assessment involves several stages. First the gender relevance of a proposed policy must be identified. This involves both analysis and consultation with relevant expert and representative groups. Second, the potential impact must be conceptualized and operationalized so that it can be represented as a measurable phenomenon. Third, the impact of the proposed policy must be analyzed and measured. Fourth, the implications of the impact for gender equality and the wider policy must be considered.

Gender Budgets

Gender budgeting is the application of gender impact assessment to the financial realm. Gender budgeting is a tool that places a gender equality perspective at the highest levels of financial decision-making. It challenges the traditional notion that financial decisions are gender-free. It involves a process of disaggregating budgets by gender in order to discover the extent to which policies that have made gender-relevant are differentially funded. It is not a separate budget for women. The purpose is to make financial decision-making at governmental level transparent in relation to gender (increased budget transparency is recommended by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)⁷ as a good governance practice). (The topic gender budgets is considered in more detail in chapter 6 section 1.)

Indicators

An indicator is designed as a succinct measure of a body of statistics. It simplifies complicated information in a way that is unambiguous and easy to interpret. An indicator should be meaningful and relevant to policy makers, service providers and the wider public. It should be supported by reliable and robust quantitative data; be available at regular intervals and be comparable between countries and population groups. Indicators for two points in time enable an assessment of trends, that is, whether an improvement or deterioration has occurred. An indicator is often most

⁷ OCED *Gender Tipsheet on Gender Budgeting* <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/3/27/1896544.pdf>

useful when it is part of a set of indicators in relation to a specific topic or field. The set of indicators should neither be so many as to confuse, nor so few as to mislead.

A more complex form of indicator, the composite indicator or index, is developed as a summary across various domains of statistics. For example, the United Nations Development Program's *Human Development Report* presents such composite indicators, that is, a gender-related development index and a gender empowerment measure⁸. However while such composite indicators may be useful for purposes of advocacy, they oversimplify the phenomenon they are measuring and are generally not meaningful indicators for measuring trends or framing policy issues.

In order for gender statistics to be of use in policy development, research and public debate, it is necessary not only to have a large and sophisticated database, but also ways of authoritatively summarizing the data in formats that are easily accessible to policy makers and others who are not statistical experts. *The World's Women: Trends and Statistics*⁹, a series of reports first published in 1991 analyzes key indicators on the situation of women and men globally. The approach of these publications is to present the indicators and data in a format that will be accessible to the media, advocates and policy-makers. These publications were prepared by the United Nations Statistics Division as a collaborative effort with other parts of the United Nations more directly concerned with using data to develop policies on gender. Gender indicator publications have also been prepared at regional and national levels as an input to raising consciousness on gender issues and input to the development of policies.

Benchmarking

Benchmarks are stable reference points. They are points against which future positions can be compared (for better or worse). They depend upon both indicators and robust gender statistics. They depend on the routine replication of data collection exercises, so that comparisons can be made using data that has been collected at different points in time.

Targets

Targets are the goals of a policy represented in a figure that is measurable. They indicate the intended outcome of the policy after a specific period of time of its implementation. A target will thus contain both a specific level of an indicator and a time period or date. For example, the United Nations Millennium Declaration in 2000 not only included a set of Goals (MDG's) but also a set of specific measurable and time-bound targets for each Goal, with progress to be measured on the basis of a list of internationally-agreed indicators. With respect to the MDG on gender equality and the empowerment of women, the target is: eliminate gender disparity in primary and

⁸ UNDP *Human Development Reports* http://hdr.undp.org/reports/view_reports.cfm?type=1

⁹ United Nations, *The World's Women 1970-1990: Trends and Statistics* (United Nations publication, Sales No.E.90.XVII.3); *The World's Women 1995:Trends and Statistics* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.95.XVII.2); *The World's Women 2000: Trends and Statistics*, (United Nations publication,Sales No. E. 00.XVII.14); United Nations, *The World's Women 20005: Progress in Statistics*, (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.05.XVII.7).

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secondary education, preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education no later than 2015.

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Chapter 3 How to Produce Gender Statistics: General Issues

3.1 Introduction

A wide range of data sources can be used to produce gender statistics within a national statistical system. These sources can be grouped into four broad types of national data collection: population censuses; household sample surveys; business surveys; and administrative records. This Chapter discusses each of these collection types and examines the main measurement issues from the perspective of deriving reliable, gender-relevant information.

Time Use surveys are given particular attention in this Chapter as they provide a wealth of information for analyzing many important gender issues. Two other topics of a cross-cutting nature - minority groups and social exclusion - are also discussed here because of their relevance for many gender analyses. While a variety of data sources may obtain information on these two topics, there are often major challenges in using these sources to produce reliable gender measures.

3.2 Data Sources

3.2.1 Types of Collections

Each of the four different types of collection – population censuses, household sample surveys, business surveys and administrative records - is a major source of gender statistics. While the information they provide is generally complementary, they are based on different methodologies which affect the type, range and quality of gender information they can provide.

In general there is not one source that can provide better or more gender-relevant information than others. The quality of the information provided for gender analysis by each source depends on many factors, including the concepts, definitions and classifications used, the way questions are asked, and the collection methods used to obtain data. Gender bias can arise in any of these areas.

To improve data quality, it may be necessary to review and modify existing practices in those sources where there are concerns about gender bias. It is important for example to ensure that the concepts, definitions and collection methods are gender sensitive. For example, in some countries problems can arise in measuring certain kinds of informal work often done by women. To address these problems and improve the measures of women's employment collected in censuses and surveys, it might be necessary to make some changes to question wording to better capture the range of activities that should be included. In considering possible changes, their impact on the comparability of data from previous data collections also needs to be taken into account.

This and other issues related to how gender bias can be avoided are considered when discussing measurement issues in later parts of this chapter.

A particular issue that arises in many countries (as well as between countries) is inconsistencies in measures produced from different sources. There can be many

reasons for this. For example, it may be due to a lack of well-defined and established definitions of some complex concepts (eg violence, work, earnings, poverty, social exclusion, etc) or to differences in methods of data collection (eg responses on self enumerated questionnaires may differ from those given to an interviewer, and responses provided in phone interviews may differ from those in face-to face situations). Methodological and user reviews may help in understanding the inconsistencies and in determining the best way to address their impact on the usefulness of different measures.

3.2.2 Population Censuses

Why is this Source Important for Gender Statistics?

The population census is typically the largest statistical collection undertaken by a country and one of the most important. While the objectives of a census are specific to individual countries and differ according to local circumstances, the broad aim is to accurately measure the total number and key characteristics of people in a country and in its smallest geographical areas at a specific time. This information is vital for national, regional and local planning, for policy development and evaluation, and for many administrative purposes.

The census has a unique role in an integrated statistical system. By collecting data for the entire population at regular intervals on a range of topics and for small areas and small population groups, the census can provide sample frames and various types of benchmarks for household sample surveys. It is also important in compiling current population estimates, including those needed to calculate various types of rates from registration or other administrative data (eg fertility rates, mortality rates, imprisonment rates etc). For small geographic areas or population subgroups, it may be the only source of information on certain characteristics.

The census collection methodology may involve direct collection of information from people or obtaining information indirectly through existing population registers. In some cases it may involve a combination of both approaches. Where information is collected directly from individuals, this may involve self-completion questionnaires (paper or electronic) or interviewer-administered instruments. Demand for new or expanded topics on census questionnaires and concerns about respondent burden have led some countries to make use of short and long forms. Under this approach, all people in the population are asked questions on the short form, whereas only a sample are asked questions on the long form.

Whatever methodology is used, the data collected for each person in the population invariably includes sex and age, as well as other basic demographic and social characteristics (eg marital status, place of birth, and place of usual residence). Generally a range of other topics are also covered, such as relationships between household members, educational attainment, economic activity status, occupation, and housing arrangements.

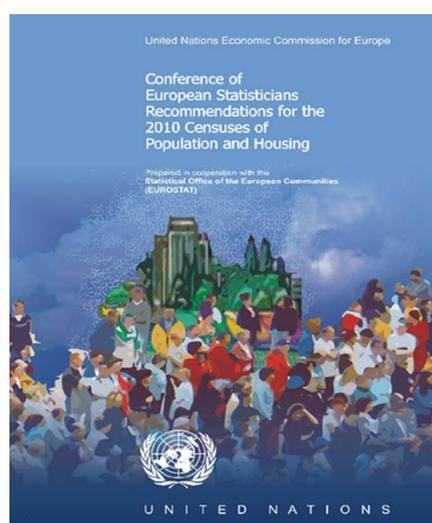
The population census is a rich source of information for examining differences between females and males across many dimensions of life. It can also be used to study particular population subgroups from a gender perspective, such as elderly

women and men or those living in rural areas, and to analyse gender issues at the local community level.

How can this Source be Improved to Provide More Gender-Relevant Data?

The planning process for the 2010 round of population censuses provides opportunities for countries to review past practices to ensure that a gender perspective is incorporated in all aspects of the methodology and at all stages of the statistical process (see Box 3.2).

Box 3.2. Conference of European Statisticians Recommendations for the 2010 Censuses of Population and Housing



In view of the 2010 round of population and housing censuses, the Conference of European Statisticians adopted a set of recommendations. The CES Recommendations provide guidance for countries in determining their core and non-core topic content, data item definitions, classifications, question wording and collection methodology.

The CES Recommendations can be downloaded on the UNECE website at: <http://www.unece.org/stats/census>

It is critically important to obtain wide community support for the census to ensure high response rates and accurate reporting. Many countries conduct major public relations campaigns around the time of the census to increase public awareness of the importance of the collection and everyone's role in making it a success. Such campaigns can contribute to much better reporting of some gender-sensitive data. The process of raising awareness of the census and its uses, including gender-related uses, should be a long term and continuous pursuit.

Problems and specific gender issues can arise in collecting census data on many other topics (eg fertility, disability). Continuing efforts might be needed to improve the census measures, particularly where no other sources for the data are available. Where other sources are available, data confrontation should occur to ensure differences are understood and explained to users.

New content may be required in some cases to provide additional gender insights. In adding new questions to the census, care should be taken to ensure that overall data

quality is not compromised (eg due to respondents perceiving the questionnaire as too long or intrusive) and that costs do not become prohibitive. This might require some trade-offs, such as cuts to existing questions. Alternatively, it might be possible to include additional responses in existing census questions with limited additional cost or respondent burden. In many situations it might be more cost effective to include the new questions in a household sample survey and limit the census to basic benchmark information.

Dissemination of census data is often an area where improvements can be made. Not only should data be timely, but key findings on gender-related issues should be presented in a way that policy makers find easy to understand and translate into government policy. The Central Statistical Office of Ireland for example produced a publication utilizing the data from the 2006 census to analyze disparities related to gender and other factors such as sexual orientation, family status, age and disability (Equality in Ireland 2007, http://www.cso.ie/releasespublications/documents/other_releases/2007/equalityinireland.pdf). Options for improving the accessibility of sex disaggregated data should also be considered. For example, better electronic access to microdata might encourage researchers to make greater use of the data in their gender analyses.

Box 3.2A provides some experiences from Nepal and India showing how they improved their 2001 Population Censuses from a gender perspective, resulting in better statistics for gender-sensitive policy formulation and program planning.

Box 3.2A How to make Population Censuses more gender-relevant: Some Experiences from the 2001 census in Nepal and India	
Nepal	<p>In Nepal, the major impacts of the 2001 census engendering process were:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Several concepts, including household, work and extended economic activities were redefined so that they were more gender sensitive. • New questions were included, eg to identify households with at least one female member with ownership in house, land, and/or livestock. • Answer categories for several other questions were modified or enlarged, (eg marital status of the population). • Census data were analysed from a gender perspective (eg all the individual information collected in the census was disaggregated by sex and the results were published). • Occupation and industry classifications were developed and prepared to suit the Nepalese situation (eg some of the extended economic activities typically done by Nepali women). <p>These changes, together with a massive awareness raising of respondents, contributed to a general improvement in gender sensitive data from the census. Increases in female literacy rates and female labour force participation rates were indicative of the improvements. Also, for the first time, data on polygamy and remarriage became available, providing additional information on the marital statuses prevailing in society. As expected, the new data showed that men were more likely than women to remarry, and three time more likely than women to have multiple spouses.</p> <p>The 2001 census findings on marital status showed that, by adding one or two categories to an existing census question, it was possible to obtain more gender sensitive data without adding a substantial burden of cost.</p>

	Source: <i>Engendering Population Census in South and West Asia</i> (UNFPA, 2004)
India	<p>Between the 1991 and 2001 Indian censuses, special efforts were made to improve the enumeration of females.</p> <p>Nationally there was an improvement in the sex ratio of the adult population in 2001, but the child sex ratio in the 0-6 age group showed a substantial decline, revealing a grim picture of the girl child in some areas of India. This finding was picked up by the media, sparking a major campaign ('Save the Girl Child') to control and monitor female foeticide. A number of remedial measures were introduced at national and state levels as a result of this finding.</p> <p>In the case of female work, the 2001 data showed an upward trend in the female participation rate, both nationally and in many states where the rate was previously very low. The data also showed a significant increase in the number of female marginal workers, suggesting considerable improvement in capturing data on this topic in the 2001 census.</p> <p>Source: <i>Engendering Population Census in South and West Asia</i> (UNFPA, 2004)</p>

3.2.3 Household Sample Surveys

Why is this Source Important for Gender Statistics?

Household sample surveys collect information directly from individuals and can cover a very wide range of topics in some depth. The data collected invariably includes sex and age of each individual in the sample. Some surveys have a multi-purpose focus and cover many discrete topics. Some have a more general social focus and cover a range of topics with the aim of exploring the relationships between them and analysing cross-cutting issues such as multiple disadvantage. Others focus primarily on a particular topic, such as labour force participation, education, health, disability, crime and safety, social capital or time use. Some may be specially designed to provide statistics about a particular population group, such as indigenous peoples or migrants.

Statistics produced from these surveys are generally a key part of a national statistical program and complement those produced from population censuses. They serve many different purposes and are used in many different contexts. They provide important measures of various aspects of people's wellbeing, including trends over time, transitions during the life-cycle, and differences in outcomes within and across population groups. The gender information they provide informs many areas of social and economic concern. It is widely used in economic and social policy formulation and monitoring; planning and evaluating government service provision; and research into social and economic conditions and progress.

Surveys may be conducted on a regular basis, or may be less frequent or one-off. They usually have a core component that doesn't change across cycles on the same topic, and they may include a variable component or supplementary modules. For example, the value of data from regular labour force surveys can be enhanced by supplementary modules that explore particular issues in some depth.

Surveys may also be designed to collect data from independent samples, each covering a representative cross-section of the community, or to collect longitudinal data from the same panel of people over time. Cross-sectional data provides

‘snapshots’ of the population and their lives at a particular time; longitudinal data follows the same group of individuals over time and can shed light on the dynamic nature of many aspects of life, including pathways and causal factors. Both types of surveys can be complementary and both can provide valuable gender perspectives.

Collection methods typically involve personal interviews that obtain information about the household in which the individual lives as well as about the individual. These interviews may be conducted either face-to-face or by telephone, and with or without computer assistance. In some cases self-completion questionnaires are also used to obtain data (eg on particularly sensitive gender-related topics, or on topics requiring detailed diary records).

How can this Source be Improved to Provide More Gender-Relevant Data?

While household surveys allow considerable control over the type and quality of data collected, obtaining reliable gender-relevant information can be difficult in some fields.

In some cases the data needed for gender analyses may be collected but only on an ad hoc basis. The relevant topic modules or surveys may need to be reviewed to assess whether they should be part of the country’s regular survey program. In other cases the data may be collected as part of the regular program but infrequently. Where this is a concern, options for improving the frequency may need to be explored.

Where there are significant data gaps, a review of the content of existing surveys may be appropriate to ascertain whether these can be addressed through those surveys. It may be possible to increase the amount of gender-relevant information by adding short question modules to these surveys in those areas where gender disparities are higher. Some countries have found this to be a cost effective way of obtaining data on issues that policymakers have placed high on the national agenda. For example, many countries conduct regular labour force surveys to measure levels and trends in employment, unemployment and labour force participation. As sex and age are among the core demographic variables in these surveys, the inclusion of additional modules can add considerable value to the gender perspectives available without impacting on the primary use of the data.

Box 3.2B illustrates some of the ways in which a countries have used labour force surveys to obtain data on additional topics.

Box 3.2C provides an example showing how Australia improved the gender-relevance of its 2005 Personal Safety Survey and how it is addressing inconsistencies between its survey-based measures of violence.

Box 3.2B Attaching Additional Modules to Labour Force Surveys	
Eurostat’s Labour Force Survey	<p>The 2005 Eurostat Labour Force Survey included an ad hoc module on reconciliation between work and family life to meet a number of policy needs in this area. Taking into account these needs and the constraint of 11 variables for the module, the aims of the module were:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to establish how far persons participate in the labour force as they would

	<p>wish, and where they are unable to do so, whether the reasons are connected with a lack of suitable care services for children and dependant persons;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to analyse the degree of flexibility offered at work in terms of reconciliation with family life: and • to estimate how far leave of absence is taken, such as parental leave to care for children. <p>The module was designed to collect data from everyone aged 15-64 years in the households selected in the survey sample. Sex and age disaggregations were available from the survey's core variables.</p>
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Box 3.2C Improving the Usefulness of Survey Data on Violence in Australia

The 2005 Personal Safety Survey conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics collected information about experiences of physical and sexual violence, as well as abuse, harassment and people's feelings of safety within the home and the community. This was the first national survey on this topic that obtained information about both women's and men's experiences. The previous survey on this topic, in 1996, collected information only on the experiences of women.

The results of the 2005 survey enabled gender differences to be analysed for the first time. For example, the survey found that:

- most Australian adults (95% of men and 83% of women) felt safe at home after dark;
- about one in 20 women (5.8%) and one in 10 men (11%) reported experiencing violence in the 12 months prior to the survey;
- since the age of 15, 40% of women and 50% of men reported experiencing at least one incident of violence;
- in relation to sexual violence, 1.6% of women and 0.6% of men experienced this type of violence in the 12 months prior to the survey, with the most likely perpetrators being family members or friends (39% for women and 44% for men).

While care was taken to ensure that the 2005 survey data for women was comparable with that collected in the 1996 survey, comparisons with other data sources could not be readily made because of differences in data collection methods and differences in the concepts and definitions used to measure violence. Even where the other source was a household survey and concepts and definitions were the same, there were some significant differences in the measures produced due to methodological and procedural factors, context effects and question wording.

An interagency review was undertaken to determine the best survey method for meeting user needs for crime victimization and related data in the future. It examined the differences in methods and frequencies of data collection and developed a preferred survey model which should produce better integrated and more useful data. The new model is now being implemented.

Source: ABS 2006a, 2006b

3.2.4 Business Surveys

Why is this Source Important for Gender Statistics?

Business surveys refer to statistical collections from businesses and other organizations engaged in economic activity. These collections include censuses and sample surveys relating to particular industries or activities (eg manufacturing, agriculture, services, etc) as well as economy-wide surveys (eg covering employers, small businesses, etc). The frames for these surveys are generally created from a

business register that records a certain amount of information about each entity. Both the surveys and registers can provide gender-relevant information if sex disaggregated data are collected for the individuals engaged in the entity (managers, owners, and employees). The extent to which this occurs varies across countries and collections, generally reflecting user priorities and the availability of such data from business records.

From the perspective of producing gender statistics, business surveys can provide very valuable information about female and male workers, including the types of jobs they hold, their working conditions, and their different contributions to economic activity. They can also provide information about female and male entrepreneurs and small business owners or managers, including the types of businesses they operate and the success of these businesses.

Examples of the types of statistics that can be produced from these sources are shown below.

- *Workers*: numbers, average weekly hours and earnings of males and females in different industries and occupations; differences in hours and earnings between full-time and part-time male and female workers; differences in their working and remuneration arrangements by jurisdiction; differences in the composition of their earnings (eg ordinary time or overtime); and differences in the way their pay is set and the extent to which this is associated with differing pay outcomes.
- *Entrepreneurs*: female and male participation rates in entrepreneurial activity; motivation for start-up of small businesses by gender; start up difficulties by gender; and the employment and turnover of these businesses.
- *Agricultural holders*: the differing proportions of women and men that are responsible for agricultural holdings; the types and sizes of their holdings; and the location and value of production of their holdings.

Data of this kind can be used together with data on related topics gathered from household surveys to examine issues such as the gender wage gap, the gender gap in business creation and ownership, and gender roles and responsibilities within the rural social context. Care is needed when using data in this way as there may be differences in the concept being measured in household and business surveys as well as differences in the methodology for collecting the data that may impact on data quality.

Box 3.2D illustrates how a business survey can be used to obtain sex disaggregated data on entrepreneurship, using the example of 12 Eastern European countries.

Box 3.2D Survey on Business Starting and Development Conditions in 12 Eastern European Countries

This survey was carried out in 1999 in 12 countries – Albania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. It was conducted as part of the Demography of Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (DOSME) project. The questionnaire was sent to a sample of new small and medium-sized enterprises appearing to start their activities in 1998. These businesses were identified from registrations with administrative sources.

The questionnaire collected data about each business, and data about the person who started it, including the gender of that person. The business data included form of organisation and details of operations. The personal data, which was only sought for sole proprietors or main partners in a

partnership, included: the sex, age and educational level of the starter; when the business started and how it was created; the source of capital needed to start the enterprise; investment by the business in capital equipment or buildings in the reference year; and difficulties experienced by the business in selling its products or services and in developing its activity.

The survey results were subsequently published and are available on the DOSME website.

How can this Source be Improved to Provide More Gender-Relevant Data?

There are various areas where business surveys might be improved to provide more gender-relevant data. One area concerns the collection of sex-disaggregated data. As many surveys do not collect this dissection, it may be appropriate to consider the relevance and practicality of introducing it. For example, lack of sex-disaggregated data makes it difficult to have a comprehensive understanding of how policies impact on women's and men's entrepreneurial behavior.

In some cases sex disaggregated data may be available but more detail or a different focus may be required to adequately support analysis of gender issues. For example, there may be deficiencies in the level of detail available for the self-employed and their businesses. More data may need to be collected about types of self-employment, and about the survival and growth of different types of businesses, to understand how the gender of the owner or manager might influence business behaviours and outcomes.

Definitional issues may also need to be addressed, both the absence of definitions for particular concepts and inconsistencies in definitions between different data sources. For example, there is currently a lack of common frameworks to define entrepreneurs resulting in fragmented statistics that often can not be compared within or between countries. A joint OECD-Eurostat project is currently investigating this issue with a view to producing a harmonized definition and manual on how to measure entrepreneurship.

Coverage issues may be a further area for attention, as many surveys use business size cut-offs or exclude certain geographic areas or industries. For example, Gender sensitive agricultural statistics may need to cover holdings without land, which are often excluded from agricultural census enumeration and sample surveys due to a minimum threshold for land area introduced for cost considerations. In developing countries, many women work holdings with no or only tiny areas of land. In order to measure women's contribution to agricultural work and to construct a complete picture of holding types, these very small holdings need to be identified and covered either in the census or targeted supplementary surveys.

The United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation has developed guidelines and gender-sensitive definitions of key concepts to assist countries to incorporate gender considerations into agricultural censuses and surveys (FAO 2004, 2005). These are embodied in its recommendations to countries for the 2010 round of Agricultural Censuses. Adoption of these in national collections should help to improve the quality of gender statistics at both national and international levels. **Include a box with the publication.**

In other statistical fields, such as those relating to work, there are many relevant standards agreed by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS). As gender issues have generally been considered in developing these standards, a country may be able to significantly improve its statistics by adopting the internationally agreed approaches.

3.2.5 Administrative Records

Why is this Source Important for Gender Statistics?

Administrative records are an important source of information for studying gender differences on a wide range of topics. In cases where an administrative record system operates effectively throughout a country it can provide frequent data at both national and sub-national levels. Using these records to produce needed statistics can be a cost-effective approach, since the data they contain are already routinely collected as part of regular administrative processes. Such data may also offer insights into gender issues not well covered by census or survey data.

Many different types of records are maintained by organisations. Among those most useful for statistical purposes are: business registers held for tax purposes; personal income tax records; population registers held for voting purposes; health care system records; birth and death registrations; disease registers; hospital admissions and outpatient records; school enrolments; educational assessment records; criminal incident reports compiled by police; court and prison records; migration records; community service provision records; and pension and social security records.

A significant proportion of the data held in administrative records relates to individuals. Such data can often be classified by gender, as many records already include the sex of the person concerned. Sometimes (as in health) this is done because it is essential information in respect of service delivery. Sometimes it is done as a bureaucratic requirement, or because sex is automatically recorded, for example in a person's identity number. The extent to which sex is recorded also reflects, to some extent, the regulations and laws of a particular country. For example, where tax is imposed on the household or couple rather than the individual, tax registers may not be sex-disaggregated to the same extent as where individuals file returns.

A wide range of statistics can be produced from data held in administrative records, including statistics relating to education, health, criminal justice, vitals, work and economic activity. For example, personal income tax records are a potential source of useful statistical information, both on economic empowerment and on access to income support benefits. Overall, women are likely to pay less personal tax than men because, in general, they earn less than men. Tax records may reveal to what extent this pattern holds in a particular country. They can also show, in countries that have family-related or child-related benefits, whether these are paid predominantly to men or women.

One of the advantages of administrative records is that they represent a full enumeration of the relevant entities, rather than a sample. For this reason they may have the potential to provide more reliable data than sample surveys, and more finely

disaggregated data (eg by geographic region or for small population groups). They also have the potential to provide cost efficient sampling frames for surveys of particular types of people that may be relatively rare in the population as a whole (eg children of a specific age).

However, their usefulness may be limited by other factors. In particular, their coverage will reflect only those entities of interest for the administrative function being performed, the details recorded may not be current, and definitions and classifications may be inconsistent with those required for statistical purposes. For example, some administrative records in the labour field may only cover employees of formal businesses. Some might cover only permanent (ongoing) workers. Other records may only cover the situation of citizens, or of legal immigrants, because it is only these people who are entitled to particular benefits.

The quality of the records will also depend on the rules and regulations governing their maintenance and updating. Consistency of data over time can be a problem when government policies or programs change. Such changes can affect concepts as well as the range and type of data collected, the way it can be used, and the population from which it is collected.

Many countries make extensive use of administrative records in producing gender statistics. Boxes 3.2E and 3.2F use the examples of justice statistics in Serbia and education statistics in Mexico, respectively, to illustrate how such records have proved valuable in producing gender-relevant information in those countries.

Box 3.2E Use of Administrative Records in Producing Justice Statistics in Serbia

The Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia compiles justice statistics from 9 regular data collections that obtain data from administrative systems. The reporting units for these collections are public prosecutors offices and courts. All criminal offence acts that are stipulated by the criminal law and other legislation dealing with criminal offences are observed. The aim of the collections is to follow the criminal offenders through the justice system. The data collected on offenders includes: kind of criminal offence; sex; age; occupation; nationality; outcome of investigations; and sentencing outcomes.

For example, data collected on the offence of people trafficking by adults revealed that there were 68 crime reports in 2005. These involved 67 known perpetrators, 5 of whom were women. The outcomes from these reports were: 12 cases where the report was denied; 11 cases where the investigation was stopped; and 44 cases where charges were filed. For those cases where charges were filed, 10 persons were sentenced, with 9 of them being sentenced to imprisonment.

As women are the main victims of certain crimes (eg sexual abuse, rape, sex trafficking and forcible marriage contracting), data on these crimes can be used to make some inferences about gender victimization. From 2007 further insights will be possible as the age and sex of the victim are being collected for charged and convicted offenders.

Box 3.2F Use of Administrative Records in Producing Education Statistics in Mexico

The usefulness of statistics derived from administrative records in Mexico has been demonstrated in some actions of social policy in the field of gender equality. Starting in 1997, information about school dropouts began to be broken down by sex, providing evidence of the higher dropout rate for girls.

Having this information, Mexico's Human Development Opportunities Programme sought and received additional resources to provide more scholarships to girls with the aim of achieving their longer retention in the school system. This allowed a higher proportion of scholarships to be granted to girls than boys.

After several years of implementation of this measure, the gender gap in elementary education has practically disappeared.

How can this Source be Improved to Provide More Gender-Relevant Data?

Administrative systems can be hard to modify as their primary focus is not statistics. In seeking improvements in the data from these systems, the actions that are possible will reflect the individual circumstances of each country, including the variety of organisational arrangements that are in place. Some aspects that might require special attention from a gender statistics perspective are discussed below.

An important gap in many countries - particularly less developed ones - is birth and death registrations by sex resulting in a large proportion of births not being counted. This is considered to be a critical challenge, as setting up and maintaining a civil registration system that allows the timely and regular production of statistics on births and deaths requires a major commitment by government.

The report also referred to problems in measuring migration, both in total and by gender. It acknowledged the existence of international guidelines on the collection of data on international migration but considered that many concepts and methods needed to be further improved and/or elaborated.

There are many other areas where changes in data collection concepts and methods may be needed to realise the full value of administrative data for addressing gender issues. For example, police and court records can be used to understand the criminal justice system's response to domestic violence, but this is only possible if information on the victim's sex and relationship to offender is collected in the primary record. Also, there needs to be a well-defined and accepted definition of domestic violence and agreed procedures for recording relevant incidents.

Production of statistics on some topics may involve compiling data from a number of different administrative sources. For example, data relating to individuals progressing through the justice system may be collected by different agencies within the government, (eg police, legal aid, courts, and prisons). Each of these agencies will have administrative processes in place to collect the relevant data for their particular purpose, but there may be no mechanism for combining the data from these different sources. Agreement between agencies to standardise aspects of their administrative systems can facilitate the sharing of information, such as using consistent identifiers.

In most registers relating to people there is information about sex but in many countries this information is not used in producing statistics for general release. Sometimes no statistics at all are produced from the records, or the statistics are only available on a restricted basis. In these cases the focus should be on raising awareness of the importance of sex-disaggregated data for gender analysis and on developing

tools and mechanisms to facilitate the timely extraction and wide dissemination of such data.

Appropriate use of the data is another issue to bear in mind when considering improvements. The coverage of an administrative dataset and the definitions it uses are subject to change as policies, regulations and administrative procedures change. Breaks in series may be unavoidable and invisible. To ensure users understand the limitations of the data, the statistics that are produced should be accompanied by explanatory material on data quality and the statistical impact of relevant administrative changes.

Production and dissemination of statistics from some administrative systems may be undertaken by a national statistical agency under an agreement with the custodians of the administrative records. In many cases, however, this statistical role may be dispersed across a range of agencies whose core business is not statistics production. Such agencies – often the custodians - may be especially resistant to addressing gender issues if the changes involved increase costs or add to the reporting load on them or their clients. Those responsible therefore need to be convinced of the usefulness of their data as a component of the wider national statistics effort.

Significant improvements in the usefulness of administrative data for statistical purposes can sometimes be achieved through focused, collaborative efforts involving statistical producers, relevant data custodians and users. These efforts might be directed towards negotiating agreed definitions for existing measures, developing new measures, arranging access to administrative lists for sample frame creation, establishing standard data compilation practices, or determining dissemination priorities and associated strategies. Some countries have found it productive to undertake work of this kind within an agreed framework, such as an inter-agency partnership agreement or information development plan for a particular field of statistics.

Box 3.2G illustrates some of the ways statistical agencies can seek to influence the quality of administrative data for statistical purposes, using the experiences of Ireland and Australia as examples.

Box 3.2G Influencing the Quality of Administrative Data for Statistical Purposes: Some Examples	
Ireland	<p>As part of a policy of developing the statistical potential of administrative data across government agencies, the Central Statistics Office (CSO) in Ireland undertook an examination of social data holdings in 6 key government departments in 2003. The resulting report made a number of recommendations in relation to the use of standard questions and classifications across data sources (CSOIE).</p> <p>These recommendations included:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some social statistics are more meaningful at the individual, family or household level. Where relevant, data holdings should be structured so that case-level or event-based information can be aggregated to compile individual, household and family statistics. • All official data sources should use standard classifications and coding systems. The CSO should take a lead in promoting, maintaining and disseminating these

	<p>classifications.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The CSO should work with departments to develop a core set of demographic and socio-economic variables. These could either be independently collected in administrative schemes and surveys or preferably, subject to meeting data protection restrictions, available via a central repository such as the Department of Social and Family Affairs Client Records System. Spatial information and nationality should be included in this core set. • Individual departments should develop a common look and content in the design of their administrative scheme application forms. This will ensure that the core information is collected in an identical manner across all schemes.
Australia	<p>The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) and the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW), under agreements with other agencies, maintain data dictionaries and other statistical standards for use in compiling national minimum data sets and other key statistics from a wide range of different administrative systems operating in different jurisdictions. These standards allow uniform national statistics to be compiled in fields such as births and deaths, causes of death, crime and justice, hospital services, diseases, health workforce, housing assistance, and disability and welfare services.</p> <p>The ABS has also issued a statement of Key Principles and a Handbook for Australia's National Statistics Service. These relate to all agencies that produce statistics from whatever source. The purpose of the Handbook is to provide a reference guide for use in conducting collections, extracting data from administrative systems, managing statistical data, turning administrative or survey data into statistics, and subsequently analysing the statistics. (ABS 2007).</p>

3.2.6 *Linked Data Sources*

In some cases linking or combining data from different collections may add considerable value to the separate statistics compiled from each source. This applies to gender statistics as well as to the broader body of statistical information. By enriching the data's analytic potential in this way, statistical producers may be able to more effectively support the development and monitoring of gender-related policy goals.

Linking may involve bringing survey data together with census or administrative data; bringing different administrative data sets together; or bringing data together from different census cycles or from different survey cycles. Whether it is feasible to link, and how this is done, depends on the costs and benefits as well as confidentiality and privacy considerations.

Some examples of recent or current data linking projects in different countries are provided in Box 3.2H.

Box 3.2H Examples of Recent or Current Data Linkage Projects	
New Zealand	<p>Statistics New Zealand (SNZ) has created Linked Employer-Employee Data (LEED) to provide insights into the operation of the labour market and its relationship to business performance. LEED draws on administrative data from the taxation system together with business data from SNZ's Business Frame.</p> <p>SNZ produces an annual report based on this linked information. The report provides a</p>

	<p>range of annual longitudinal statistics about people's interaction with the labour market as well as their sources of income. It includes information on income and earnings transitions, job tenure, multiple job holders, and self employment. Findings in the 2006 report included:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • there were nearly twice as many females as males holding multiple jobs; and • females tended to earn less than males for each job, regardless of how many jobs they held.
Australia	<p>In the lead up to its last population census in 2006, the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) initiated a project to add value to the census data. This involved the establishment of a Statistical Longitudinal Census Dataset (SLCD) based on a 5% random sample of census records. The SLCD will bring together data from Australia's successive 5 yearly censuses, starting from 2006, using probabilistic linking techniques. Through this project it is envisaged that the census can be made more useful to researchers. It will offer, for example, a rich data source for longitudinal studies of gender-related issues in the coming years.</p>
Ireland	<p>The Central Statistics Office in Ireland is involved in projects linking related data holdings in different Departments, such as pensions and income data. The Office also undertook a post-census national disability study in 2006, which brought together data from the population census for a selected group of people with data for those same individuals collected in a subsequent sample survey. Both initiatives are adding to the body of gender-relevant information available to policy makers, planners and researchers.</p>

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3.3 Measurement Issues

3.3.1 Statistical Production Process

Overall Design

The process of producing gender statistics, like other statistics, involves a range of highly inter-related activities whatever data source is used. Each of these activities, and the way they are linked together, can have a significant impact on the quality of the final product. It is therefore important to view the process holistically – from an end to end perspective – to ensure that all the activities are linked efficiently and seamlessly and that they form a well-integrated package. Clearly defined objectives and sound measurement practices should drive the overall design of the process.

Key Steps

In broad terms, the process of producing gender statistics is similar to that for other fields of statistics. It typically involves a number of key steps (UNECE 2008):

- selection of topics that need to be investigated;
- identification of the data needed to understand gender differentials and women's and men's roles and contributions in the different spheres of life;
- evaluation of existing concepts, definitions, and methods to produce unbiased gender-relevant information;
- collection and processing of data using methods and practices that will deliver reliable results;
- analysis and presentation of statistics in easy-to-use formats; and
- dissemination of statistical products to a wide range of users.

How these steps are operationalised in the context of an individual country's national statistical system will vary depending on the purposes for which the gender statistics are required and the data sources from which they will be derived. For example, the activities involved in developing a report on a core set of gender indicators, or developing a detailed database of gender statistics, will differ substantially from those involved in producing sex-disaggregated statistics on a particular topic from a collection whose primary purpose is to satisfy other important information needs. Similarly, the activities undertaken will vary depending on whether the data source is a statistical survey – census or sample survey - collecting data directly from the people or businesses concerned, or an administrative system where statistics are not the primary purpose of the system.

Avoiding Gender Bias and Assuring Quality

There are various types of measurement error that can be introduced at any step in the process. Gender bias is one type of error of particular concern for gender statistics as it can seriously undermine the reliability of the data. Possible sources of such bias need to be identified and, wherever relevant, addressed.

The following sections discuss gender bias in more detail as well as other measurement issues that need to be considered during the process of producing gender statistics. They also provide some ideas on how parts of the process can be improved

to avoid gender bias and maximize the usefulness of the statistical output. Specific attention is given to evaluation of data needs and sources; the unit of enumeration; concepts, definitions and classifications; survey design and content; data collection and processing; training of enumerators; and presentation and dissemination of statistics. While many of the issues confronting gender statistics derived from a particular source are the same as those confronting statistics in general from that source, where there are special issues associated with a particular type of collection these are also discussed along with possible solutions.

3.3.2 Evaluation of Data Needs and Sources

To determine what gender statistics should be produced and the priority that should be given to such work, the gender issues in a country and the policy goals and plans relating to these issues need to be understood by statistical producers. This requires ongoing engagement with relevant policy agencies, researchers and other potential users of the statistics as well as effective consultation with them throughout the statistical production process.

Once the data needs have been identified, statistical producers need to evaluate existing sources in order to assess the extent to which these sources meet those needs. Some of the data may be periodically collected by the national statistical system; some data may be available but it may not adequately reflect gender differences or it may contain biases; and some data may not be collected at all. This scrutiny of available data may reveal gaps that can be addressed by modifying concepts, definitions or methods used in existing collections. In other cases new collection activity may be required.

Workshops, seminars and user advisory groups can be valuable mechanisms for exploring the need for gender-relevant information, sharing experiences concerning the usefulness of existing data, and developing ideas to address data gaps.

3.3.3 Unit of Enumeration

Types of Unit

The unit of enumeration refers to the units in the population about which information is to be collected. These units refer to physical entities such as people, households, businesses, agricultural holdings, schools, hospitals, etc. In aggregate, these units represent the population of a collection. Enumeration units should be distinguished from units of analysis. Units of analysis refer to the units about which statistics are to be produced. They determine the data items to be collected and may refer to physical entities or to events such as births, hospital separations, economic transactions, etc. Both types of units need to be clearly defined early in the statistical production process.

Household and Person Level Units

In the case of gender statistics, the unit of enumeration will vary depending on the data source from which the statistics are to be derived. There can be particular complexities when the source is a population census or household survey, as there are

generally two levels of unit used: a household level unit and a person level unit. Both levels of unit are important for gender statistics and the data collected at each level are generally used in combination.

Information collected on household questionnaires typically identifies all the members of a household and the relationships between them. This information is provided by a household reference person and is essential for distinguishing household and family types and for determining their composition. The questionnaire also usually obtains a limited amount of data about each member's demographic and other personal characteristics (eg age, sex, marital status, country of birth etc) and about the household dwelling. On the other hand, personal questionnaires focus on a particular individual and their specific circumstances, allowing many more topics to be explored and in some detail.

When the information from both questionnaires is brought together, it can provide insights into topics such as the living conditions of women and men, their family circumstances, and the type of environment in which children are growing up. For example, the data can be used to identify households with low economic resources (eg in terms of income, wealth and expenditure) and these households can then be examined by household or family type (eg couple families with or without dependents, lone mother or father families, and lone female or male households). The data can also be used in examining issues such as: differences in the employment arrangements of lone mothers and partnered mothers; differences in the earnings of male and female partners in couple households with or without dependent children; and trends over time in the proportion of total income of couples attributable to the female partners' personal income.

Unit Issues Relevant to Gender Statistics

The unit for which data is collected affects the type of measures that can be produced and the type of analysis that can be undertaken. In the case of person level data, particular care is needed in analyzing the personal income, expenditure and wealth of females and males as some sharing of resources normally occurs between members of the same household and the nature of this sharing is affected by differences in household size and composition. For this reason, analysis of the distribution of resources is often based on measures of household income, expenditure and wealth adjusted or *equivalised* to take account of differences in household size and composition.

In the case of household level data, problems can arise if collection instruments use the concept of 'head of household' or if they obtain insufficient information to adequately describe the range of relationships that exist between household members. Deficiencies in the collection of relationship data can adversely affect the identification of different types of households and families, as well as the derivation of household and family status for individual members. These issues and ways of handling them are further discussed in Box 3.3A below. Box 3.3B provides a country example, showing how Ireland improved its collection of relationship information in its 2006 Population Census.

Box 3.3A Issues involving Household Level Data Collection Instruments*Reference Person Approach*

Many household instruments use the concept of household reference person. The relationship of each household member to this person is recorded and the information is then used to derive household and family types of interest.

In the past the 'head' of the household was generally used as the reference person and in some countries this is still the case. However, this concept of a household 'head' is no longer considered appropriate in many countries (UNCE 2006). The concept is difficult to define, particularly when gender issues are considered, and has little relevance in many current household situations. This problem can be compounded if the concept is used but collection instruments and training do not indicate how the head is to be identified. In some cases a replacement concept called 'the householder' has been introduced, defined as the person in whose name the household dwelling is registered. This approach is more objective than household head and may relate in some ways to power relationships in the household.

Different forms of questioning are used by countries to capture relationship details, and various criteria and procedures are used to select the reference person. The criteria generally focus on selecting an adult member of the household that will facilitate the mapping of household structures. When carefully chosen, this approach can give accurate information for most household and family types. However, there are some cases, such as multiple family households or multi-generational households, where the approach will not always give the required result. Often it is the poorer and more marginalised households that tend to be bigger and have more extended shapes. Migrant households, too, often do not follow the 'standard' nuclear model. The household reference person approach therefore involves a risk of some misunderstanding about the situation of those who are neediest.

Relationship Matrix approach

A more accurate method for mapping household structures is to use a matrix which asks for the relationship of each household member to every other member. This is the approach recommended by the Conference of European Statisticians' (CES) for the 2010 population censuses (UNECE 2006). The CES report observes that some countries have had good experience with using the matrix approach in their censuses, while others have noted problems with it due to its complicated character. For example, the matrix may take considerable time to complete, especially for larger households. For countries where the matrix approach is not feasible, the CES recommends that the household reference person approach be used and it provides some guidance on how this person might be selected.

Comparison of Household Types

The reference person approach is also sometimes used in comparisons of households. For example, analysis might be done to compare households where the reference persons are female with those where they are male, or where they are more or less educated, in different occupations, or belong to different age groups. There are many problems with this type of comparison. Some relate to the conceptual problem of identifying and defining the reference person. Others relate to the assumption of homogeneity – that the situation of the reference person will be reflected in some way in the situation of other household members.

Analysis that uses the household reference person concept in this way confuses a tool to facilitate data collection with an idea that has socio-economic meaning. Analysts may assume the person is the main breadwinner, or the main decision-maker. In reality, who is selected as the reference person may more often be a function of status within the household and society determined by other factors such as sex and age. In some cases, a largely absent member may be named as the reference person. Comparisons of households on the basis of such variably-defined entities may be virtually meaningless.

Households can be categorized in much more useful ways than by the sex of the household head or reference person. For example, the CES recommendations for the 2010 population censuses classify them into one person households and multi-person households (UNECE 2006). These households can be further dissected in various ways to indicate their composition and gender characteristics (eg single female or male household, lone mother or father household, couple household with or without children, jobless households, one or dual income earner households, etc). Of particular importance from a gender perspective is distinguishing between households where children are present and those where they are not.

Box 3.3B Improving the Collection of Household Relationship Data in Ireland’s Population Census

In the 2002 Census of Population in Ireland, persons were asked “What is your relationship to Person 1”. The options given were husband or wife, partner, son or daughter, mother or father, son-in-law or daughter-in-law, mother-in-law or father-in-law and other (write in). This approach failed to fully capture certain data such as relationships between different generations of the family. For example, the parents of a grandchild might not be identified.

For the 2006 Census, the Central Statistics Office (CSO) redeveloped the question to capture inter-relationships between persons and they also expanded the list of explicit options. The improved approach is shown in the following extract from the 2006 questionnaire.

Person 5: Tick how Person 5 is related to Persons 1, 2, 3 and 4.

3 What is your relationship to Persons 1, 2, 3 and 4?
 See example on back page.
 ✓ one box only for each person.

Relationship of PERSON 5 to	Persons			
	1	2	3	4
Husband or wife	1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Partner	2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Son or daughter	3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Step-child	4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Brother or sister	5	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mother or father	6	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Step-mother/-father	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Son-/daughter-in-law	8	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Grandchild	9	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other related	10	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Unrelated (including foster child)	11	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Tick 1 box in the 1st column to describe how **Person 5 is related to Person 1.**

Then, tick 1 box in the 2nd column to describe how **Person 5 is related to Person 2.**

Then, tick 1 box in the 3rd column to describe how **Person 5 is related to Person 3.**

Then, tick 1 box in the 4th column to describe how **Person 5 is related to Person 4.**

Source: CSO 2006b

3.3.4 Concepts, Definitions and Classifications

Standard Frameworks

In the planning stage of a collection, the data items to be obtained should be clearly defined according to the relevant standards and classifications. The use of standard frameworks for collecting and presenting the data enhances its usefulness. This applies to gender statistics just as much as to other statistical fields. For example, in surveys of businesses and households, information about female and male employees may need to be classified by industry or occupation or region. If this is done using standard classifications, the information can be compared over time and across collections. Similarly if standard definitions are used, such as for employment and income, the usefulness of the data can be maximized.

By making use of standard concepts and data items, it may also be possible to integrate data from different sources and organisations. Some standards have been developed with this as a key objective. This integration can improve the comparability and relevance of the data and reduce duplication of data collection. It is particularly important for gender statistics reports and analyses, where data may cover a wide range of topics and be drawn from many different sources.

Concepts and Definitions

At the core of any collection are the concepts to be measured and the definitions relating to these concepts. For purposes of producing gender statistics and analysing gender concerns, the concepts and definitions must be appropriate for gauging the experiences of both women and men and for understanding differences in their economic and social circumstances.

While conventional concepts may be well-suited to certain types of analysis, they may have shortcomings for gender studies. In such cases consideration should be given to the feasibility of developing supplementary measures based on alternative or extended concepts that offer richer gender insights.

For example, measures of employment based on conventional labour force definitions may be key indicators of economic activity in a country, but provide only partial information about gender contributions to economic production in its broadest sense because large amounts of unpaid work are excluded. In many countries, broader measures of work are produced periodically by collecting more comprehensive data covering both paid and unpaid productive activity. Such data can be obtained in various ways, such as through supplementary question modules attached to labour force or other regular surveys; through special diaries obtained in time use surveys; through additional questions in agricultural censuses or other business surveys; or by including questions about unpaid work as well as employment in population censuses.

A range of concepts can be relevant in producing broader measures of work, including employment, unemployment, underemployment, paid work, and unpaid voluntary work, etc. The concepts need to be clearly defined to capture the activity of interest, they should be consistent across surveys (eg population censuses, labour force

surveys, time use surveys, etc) and this consistency should carry through to the national accounting system.

What concepts are measured, on what collection vehicle and how accurately ultimately depends on the national survey program, the resources at its disposal, and the user priorities that drive it in each country. More accurate measures of some gender-relevant concepts may be possible from household sample surveys (eg labour force surveys, income surveys, or time use surveys) than from population censuses in some countries, because more effort can be given to interviewer training on gender issues and more questionnaire content can be devoted to obtaining the details required for definitional precision.

International Standards and Guidelines

There are a wide range of international standards and guidelines that are relevant to the production of gender statistics. These can help to improve the conceptual base, design and implementation of collections as well as the international comparability of results. They cover aspects such as definitions and classifications, data collection methods, question modules, estimation techniques, etc.

For example, internationally agreed concepts and definitions have been elaborated by experts in a range of fields – including national accounts, employment, demography, health, education, household income and expenditure – based on direct experience of national statistical offices, the findings of specific research and case studies. Similarly, international classifications are maintained in many fields, including: industry; occupation; diseases and related health problems; functioning, disability and health; level and field of education; status in employment; and countries and geographic areas.

International bodies have also provided specific guidance for the 2010 round of population censuses and agricultural censuses and this guidance has implications for gender statistics from these sources. In the case of population censuses, the CES recommendations for the 2010 round include definitions and classifications associated with core concepts such as household, family, current activity status, etc. (UNECE 2006). In the case of agricultural censuses, the FAO has recommended gender-sensitive definitions of a number of important agricultural concepts (eg holding, sub-holding, holder, sub-holder). (FAO 2005).

Much of the international effort in recent years to improve the quality and coverage of statistics from a gender perspective is reflected in the recommendations in these standards and guidelines, or in other international initiatives that are underway. The United Nations, in its report *The World's Women 2005: Progress in Statistics*, refers to many of these developments but also identifies many areas where concepts and methods need further improvement. (UNSD 2006).

3.3.5 Survey Design and Content

Role of Objectives in Survey Design

Measurement objectives should underpin all aspects of survey and questionnaire design. In the case of national sample surveys, the main objectives may be to obtain national and state data on particular topics with a number of key dissections, such as gender, age, and perhaps type of geography (eg urban, rural, remote etc). These aims then determine the sample design, including its size and geographic distribution. If a sample survey is to produce reliable data on females and males at some level of detail, or to provide measures for subgroups within gender groups (such as race or ethnic groups), the design must ensure that there is adequate sample to produce results within acceptable confidence ranges in the data cells of interest.

Questionnaire Design and Content

The questionnaire has a major influence on the quality of the statistics produced from a collection. If it is not carefully and appropriately designed it can adversely affect the answers and give rise to errors. Defining estimation goals early and clearly can help prevent development of questionnaires that do not meet users' needs, including needs for relevant data and analyses by gender. Developing table shells and/or multivariate models prior to development of a questionnaire can also illuminate potential problems at an early stage and avoid wasted work.

Incorporating a gender perspective into the questionnaire design involves consideration of a number of factors, including: the data items required to meet the objectives of the collection; the concepts and definitions associated with these data items; the conversion of these data items into questions; the formulation and wording of questions; and the order and sequencing of questions. This process may lead to some refinement of the concepts and definitions, some reformulation of questions, or some re-orientation of methods and procedures to make them more gender-sensitive. In some cases additional questions may be needed because modifying the existing ones would undermine data continuity and compromise comparisons over time. In all cases, the benefits of new or modified questions should be weighed up against the costs, including the costs of making questionnaires too long or repetitive.

User advisory groups can be very useful in determining the design and data item content of survey questionnaires, including gender-related aspects. Such groups can help to clarify and defend the concepts and data items to be measured, including gender-related aspects. They can also assist in overcoming resistance that may emerge to measuring certain issues, including those that are important for gender analyses. Their advice on relative priorities for specific data items can be valuable in cases where content may need to be cut back to fit within survey budget constraints or to comply with respondent load commitments of the collecting agency. In establishing these groups, care should be taken to ensure that they include a range of different types of users, including persons sensitive to gender considerations. Members should also be knowledgeable about the kind of data that a particular survey can capture and the analytical uses to which the resulting statistics will be put.

In developing questionnaires, every possible attempt should be made to avoid the most common gender biases. Typical causes of error are summarised in Box 3.3D. Attention should also be given to the interaction between gender and other factors, such as cultural and educational background. These interactions can lead to bias through non-response (full or partial) to certain topics or forms of questioning.

Box 3.3D Typical Causes of Gender Bias in Use of Questionnaires	
Inadequate definitions and concepts	Conventional definitions and concepts may fail to reflect accurately the gender differentiations common in the target population.
Erroneous wording of questions	The question, or series of questions needed to directly measure, or derive a measure, of a particular concept may be deficient. For example, the question about work on agricultural holdings in agricultural censuses is often so badly worded that work is construed solely as the regular exercise of a remunerated activity. As a result, many women are not recorded in agricultural censuses.
Selecting the wrong respondent	In this case, the respondent selected is not in a position to report correctly either on the people belonging to the household, or the people working in the business or on the agricultural holding. For example, male respondents may report women who are actually working on an agricultural holding as not economically active.
Using the wrong enumerator	Enumerators can introduce biases and personal values in the way they formulate questions as a result of their own prejudices, insufficient training, or simple carelessness.
Communication problems	These problems arise when respondents fail to understand the content or language of the questionnaire. This may occur if question wording is too technical or the terminology too complex and the impact may be greater in interviews with women than with men.
Obscuring the truth	In this case, respondents deliberately give a wrong answer, either to meet some socially acceptable norm or because they are fearful or suspicious about why the question is being asked. For example, a man may deny that his wife works on an agricultural holding, or a women may deny there are any domestic violence issues in her household.

Testing Questionnaires

Data items and questions should be tested as part of the questionnaire development process. This should allow any gender-related problems to be identified and corrected before a questionnaire is finalized. Different types of testing can be used at different stages of a survey's development to test different aspects. Testing is also relevant for data collected through administrative systems.

One relatively low-cost method for testing whether data item concepts and terminology are appropriate and relevant for both females and males (or other subgroups of respondents) is through *focus groups*. Focus groups are small groups of people with differing backgrounds that are selected from the target population for a collection. They can be used early in the development of a collection to investigate how women and men understand particular concepts, to explore the appropriateness of those concepts to their different experiences, to test possible definitions of terms, and to help in determining the language to be used in the questionnaire. Feedback from these groups can assist collection designers in developing questions that will work effectively and minimise gender bias.

In addition to focus groups, a number of other techniques can be used to formulate questions that minimize bias. For example, once a draft question has been written, trained methodologists can conduct *cognitive interviews*, or *pretests*, with a variety of potential respondents to gauge their understanding of the question, the ease or difficulty with which it can be answered, and the likely range of answers. The aim is to ensure that respondents will understand the question in a manner consistent with the survey developer's intent. If men and women perceive a question to have different meaning, it may be possible to revise the question to be more consistently interpreted. Alternatively, depending on the survey objectives, one might write different questions or use different examples for male and female respondents.

Pilot tests, or *field tests*, of draft questionnaires are further tools for ensuring that respondents will be able to supply the information to be collected and for ensuring the appropriateness of the data collection method. This type of testing involves interviews in a field context with a sizeable number of people from the target population. It allows problems to be identified and corrected prior to the full collection being conducted. In some cases, data collected in the tests may provide useful preliminary indicators of results from the full collection. Outcomes from the tests can also be used to estimate likely response rates as well as sample error, sample sizes and population variability.

Box 3.3C uses a national survey conducted in the United States to illustrate the way gender-related objectives can influence sample and questionnaire design, and the value of focus groups and cognitive interviews in developing questions on gender-related topics.

Box 3.3C Impact of Gender-Related Objectives and Question Testing on the USA's American Time Use Survey

In the development of the continuous American Time Use Survey (ATUS), a number of estimation objectives were established. A core objective was to measure time spent in 17 major activity categories by labor force and relevant household and demographic characteristics of respondents. Results of other surveys indicated that time-use patterns were strongly correlated with whether respondents had children as well as respondent gender. Knowing this, the sample designers included a stratification cell for presence and age of children in the household. Without prior planning, it is possible that the relatively small sample in the survey would not have provided reliable measures classified by this important household characteristic.

Another goal was to measure "passive" or "secondary" child care (in addition to primary child care). Neither of these terms would have been clear to respondents. Designers defined the concept as time when respondents were responsible for the well being of their children, were generally aware of what they were doing, and could intervene if necessary. To assist in the process of writing questions, two focus groups were held with both men and women with varying educational attainment. Video clips of respondents providing this type of care to children were shown to the participants, who then offered multiple terms for describing that care. These terms were tested using cognitive interviewing and associated debriefings. Ultimately, a term offered by focus group participants—"having a child 'in one's care'"—was chosen.

Source: BLS?

Measuring Women's Work

A particular area where country experience has shown that question wording can make a significant difference is in measurement of labour force participation by women and men. In many countries this effort has reflected concerns about underestimation of women's participation in economic activity, in turn leading to an underestimate of their contribution to the national economy. Such underestimation may arise, for example, where questions in censuses or sample surveys do not adequately capture information about the work of women on the family farm or in home based activities.

Various techniques have been used by countries to make labour force questions in different types of collections more gender-relevant. One approach is to modify the wording of questions and/or include some extra questions to ensure all the activities of interest are reported. For example, the context of household sample surveys, many countries have enhanced the value of the data obtained in certain collections by supplementing conventional labour force questions relating primarily to paid work with questions relating to unpaid work.

Another approach is to use a list to identify activities that qualify as economic activity but, from the perspective of the respondent, might not be considered to be such. For interview-based collections, this might involve the interviewer reading out a list of specific activities to ascertain whether the respondent engaged in any of them for pay, profit or family gain during the reference period. Alternatively, the activity list might be built into the questionnaire by asking about each activity in turn.

Box 3.3E provides further background concerning the issues involved in measuring women's work and highlights the main factors underlying the data capture problem.

Boxes 3.3F and 3.3G provide two country examples of the way questionnaire design has been used to improve the measurement of women's work. The first example shows how the United States used a change in question wording to improve the measurement of women workers in its Current Population Survey. The second example shows how Pakistan has incorporated an activity list into its Labour Force Survey questionnaire, resulting in much improved measures of female labour force participation.

Box 3.3H shows how Guatemala used a separate study, in combination with its agricultural census, to make women's work in agricultural production more visible.

Box 3.3E The Problem of Measuring Women's Work

The work of women and their contribution to the national economy tends to be subject to more underreporting and misrepresentation than the work and contribution of men. While labour force statistics generally aim to cover relevant aspects of all participants in the labour market and describe their different situations, the statistics often exclude some types of work in which women are more highly represented. There are three main factors contributing to this.

(i) Difficulties in identifying or describing certain types of work

Jobs that are difficult to identify and describe may be held by women more often than men. Such jobs may involve no cash remuneration. The work may be irregular, or organised on an informal basis. The work may also be undertaken intermittently with household chores close to or at the person's home.

Work of this kind may be hard to identify through business surveys if the jobs concerned are not covered by a country's legislative or regulatory framework, or if the businesses or other bodies for whom the work is done are not registered. Such work may also be hard to identify through household surveys if those doing it do not consider themselves to have a job. In both types of surveys, the jobs involved can be hard to describe if they are not based on standard work methods and practices.

Even jobs that involve stable, paid employment may be hard to describe if they are in areas that are less regulated. Such jobs are likely to be less well documented and differentiated from each other. For example, jobs in those parts of the service sector where the proportions of female workers are often higher may be less regulated than those in other parts of this sector or in other sectors such as manufacturing.

(ii) Lower priority given to measuring certain types of work

The aspects of work that are highlighted or suppressed when collecting labour force data depend on the priorities underlying the measurement instrument, which in turn reflect the needs of key users. In many countries there are regular labour force surveys whose primary purpose is to provide timely indicators of labour market trends for use in economic policy decision-making and in labour market negotiations. For these purposes the focus is mostly on market-oriented work and its economic value (eg work activities that are remunerated in cash or that are geared towards selling goods and services for money). The value added of household work that is mainly geared towards producing goods and services that will be consumed by households tends to be of less interest in this context. Consequently, capturing such work as part of these surveys may be considered low priority and other survey vehicles may be unavailable for this purpose.

In cases where household work has greater significance for economic policy, such as in many developing countries, more effort may be made to identify and measure it as part of labour force statistics. However, priority may still be given to those work situations that have greater perceived economic value. As those situations are more likely to involve market-oriented work and as such work is often more common among men, the contribution of women may continue to be understated.

(iii) Limitations of data sources and methods

Costs and other limitations associated with data gathering practices also affect the measures that are produced. These limitations vary depending on whether the source is household surveys (eg population censuses, labour force surveys, time use surveys, living conditions surveys etc), business surveys (eg employer surveys, agricultural censuses, service industries surveys etc) or administrative records. Each of these sources has strengths and shortcomings relating to the type, range and quality of labour force statistics that can be provided.

For example, household sample surveys may exclude people living in the more remote areas or in group facilities, and business surveys may exclude certain activities or very small establishments. In developing countries the exclusion of holdings without land, or with very little land, from agricultural censuses and surveys can obscure the important contribution made by women to agricultural work.

Whatever source is used, the characteristics to be measured have to be grouped into categories which highlight certain aspects while suppressing others. As it is not possible to measure the continuum of work situations in the labour market, categories like the 'employed', the 'unemployed' and the 'economically inactive' need to be created using a limited set of criteria. Similarly, it is impossible to measure all the characteristics of each job on every occasion, and so certain characteristics are given precedence over others. For example, details of a person's occupation, status in employment and earnings from employment are often collected with greater frequency than their place of work, working conditions, barriers to work and unpaid voluntary work.

Box 3.3F Improving the Measurement of Women Workers in the United States of America's Current Population Survey

In the Current Population Survey conducted monthly in the United States, the definition of employment is intended to capture persons who worked at least 1 hour during the survey reference week (among

others). Prior to 1994, however, the opening question to gauge such employment status probably did so more effectively for men than for women, as it focused on respondents' main activities. It read, "What were you doing most of last week—working, keeping house, or something else?" For women who primarily kept house but also did some paid work, this question appears to have led to some underreporting of work.

A redesign of the survey, which examined gender bias as well as other issues, led to a change in the question. It now reads, "Last week, did you do any work for pay or profit?" Following the redesign, the survey found an increase in the number workers, primarily women, who usually worked fewer than 10 hours per week.

Source: USA?

Box 3.3G Improving the Measurement of Women's Labour Force Participation in Pakistan's Labour Force Survey

In Pakistan's Labour Force Survey, an activity list was added to the employment questionnaire to better account for people engaged in informal and unregulated work. This list covered work activities that the persons who performed them tended to disregard as work.

The list covered 14 types of activities. For example, it included: agricultural operations (eg ploughing, sowing, transplanting rice, weeding field etc); food processing (eg milling, grinding, drying seeds etc); construction work (eg mud plaster of roof and walls of house, repair of boundary walls, etc); clothes making (eg sewing pieces of cloth, knitting, weaving, etc); and shopping and marketing. Respondents were asked whether, during the last week, they helped or worked in each of these listed activities and, if so, for how many hours. For some activities they were also asked to separate the hours between activities performed for their own family and those performed for other people for cash or payment in kind. Only when specifically asked about these activities were many of the participants revealed as workers.

The use of the list more than doubled the number of women classified as economically active, resulting in a significant increase in the labour force participation rate of women in Pakistan. In contrast, there was no change in the participation rate for men.

Labour Force Participation Rates in Pakistan, 2005-06		
	Activity Rate with Standard Questions	Activity Rate with Activity List
Total	46.0	57.0
Men	72.0	72.0
Women	18.9	41.1

Source: UNECE 2008

Box 3.3H Improving the Visibility of Women's Work in Guatemala's Agricultural Sector

In Guatemala, backyard farming is an important activity for family self-sufficiency and is carried out within the area that includes the house. To investigate this activity, a Backyard Holdings Survey was undertaken alongside the 2003 National Agricultural Census. The results from the Census showed that male agricultural holders predominated (92%), whereas in the Backyard Holdings Survey female holders predominated (79%). These findings were important in raising the visibility of women's contribution to agricultural production and household food security.

3.3.6 Data Collection and Processing

Collection Method

The success of a collection will depend to a large extent on the suitability of the collection methodology. International meetings of gender experts indicate that there is wide variation across countries in effective methods of data collection. These methods include collection of data by telephone, mail, personal visit, and the web, as well as in various types of administrative settings.

A number of factors play a role in the choice of method. Social norms, technological infrastructure, and costs are particularly important and may limit the choices. Collection characteristics also play a role, such the type of data needed to meet the primary objectives, the complexity and sensitivity of the topics to be covered, the nature of the questions, and privacy and confidentiality concerns. Other significant factors include the impact on response rates; respondent preferences; the location of respondents; the nature of the sampling frame; and the characteristics of the target population. For example, a mail or phone survey would not be appropriate for a survey of homeless women and men.

In addition to these factors, statistical producers also need to consider the possible gender effects of collection method choices. Different methods may affect, or be perceived by, men and women differently. If a particular method works better for either women or men, or affects their response rates differently, it could lead to biased gender measures.

In interview-based collections, measurement bias can also occur if communication and understanding between interviewers and interviewees are influenced by personal or cultural characteristics. The age, sex, appearance or manner of the interviewer may affect the answers obtained and in different ways. In some cases shared characteristics may have a positive impact on response, while in other cases they may have a negative impact. This possibility needs to be considered and, where appropriate, action taken to minimize the data quality risk.

Another aspect that needs to be considered when collecting data by personal interview is the way a respondent's sex is ascertained. It is usually unnecessary in a face-to-face situation to ask the question on sex, and it may be inappropriate or even offensive to do so. In practice, sex can usually be inferred from other cues such as observation, relationship to other household members, and first name.

Box 3.3I provides an example of a face-to-face survey - Australia's 2005 Personal Safety Survey - where field tests and other research suggested that the gender of the interviewer might differentially affect responses by females and males to certain types of highly personal questions. It illustrates how this risk was managed to avoid the problem arising when the full survey was conducted.

Box 3.3I Managing Interviewer Effects: Australia's 2005 Personal Safety Survey

Interviewers for Australia's 2006 Personal Safety Survey (PSS) were chosen from a panel of Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) interviewers used for household surveys and included some interviewers who had worked on the previous survey on this topic, the 1996 Women's Safety Survey (WSS).

Expert advice, evidence and experience gained from the WSS and findings from the PSS field tests indicated that both men and women were more inclined to communicate sensitive information to a female, than to a male, and feel more comfortable doing so. Based on this, female interviewers from the ABS panel of household survey interviewers were used. Respondents were given the option of a male interviewer upon request.

Wherever possible, senior and more experienced interviewers were recruited to work on the PSS. Interviewers were provided with an information paper which explained the content of the survey and some of the challenges they might encounter. Based on this, interviewers then decided whether they wanted to work on the survey.

Source: ABS 2006a

Editing and Imputation

Many statistical agencies use editing and imputation techniques to address item non-response when processing questionnaires. These techniques often assign a value to a missing response using an algorithm. For example, if a respondent does not provide an answer concerning a particular characteristic, an answer may be assigned based on his or her other responses or the responses of others in the same or similar households.

In defining edits during the survey development process, attention should be paid to gender and other issues that could lead to bias. For example, in some countries where only men serve in the armed forces, if gender is not stated on a self-completed questionnaire it would be appropriate to assign a sex of male to any survey respondent who answered positively regarding military service. However, in other countries, a more appropriate edit might be one that incorporated current, and possibly changing, distributions of men and women in the armed services.

In the case of imputation, a "donor" record may be identified based on a pre-determined set of characteristics similar to those of the respondent. Missing values in the original record are then replaced with values borrowed from the donor record. For example, a missing earnings value may be replaced with an earnings value from a donor with similar sex, age, occupational and educational characteristics. Analysts defining imputation algorithms should pay attention to places where gender bias could be created, such as imputing hours of work or earnings from all workers rather than from men or women with similar relevant characteristics.

While a 'not stated' code may be allocated for some item non-response, this is not usually done for core variables such as sex and age which are frequently cross-classified with other characteristics of people. For example, the CES recommendations for the 2010 population censuses specify that sex and age should be derived if it is missing or incomplete. (UNECE 2006)

Weighting and Benchmarking

Weighting is the process of adjusting results from a sample survey to infer results for the total population. It involves attaching weights to each sample unit to indicate how

many population units (eg households or persons) are represented by the sample unit. These weights are calibrated against population benchmarks to ensure that survey estimates conform to the independently estimated distribution of the population by age, sex, area of usual residence etc rather than the distribution within the sample itself. Calibration to population benchmarks helps to compensate for over- or under-enumeration of particular categories of persons due to either the random nature of sampling or non-response.

As response rates often vary across demographic groups, these estimation techniques ensure each group is correctly represented in the estimates generated for the total population. For example, as women tend to respond to surveys more frequently than men do, weights tend to be larger for men than women. It is important that these weights align with female and male population totals and it may also be important to control them to totals within gender groups.

3.3.7 Training of Enumerators

Enumerators need to be well-trained to effectively carry out their role in collecting and processing data. For example, interviewers and their supervisors need to understand the purposes of the collection, the concepts and definitions used, the questions included on the collection instrument, the procedures to be followed, and techniques for engaging with respondents to obtain their cooperation. They also need to be provided with effective tools to complete their tasks and be competent in using these tools. In the case of computer assisted interviewing, relevant computer skills are among the mix of skills required.

Training programs are important in developing the requisite understanding and skills, and in ensuring that all enumerators use a standard approach. Lack of uniformity can be a source of bias. These programs should be based on detailed documentation covering all the activities in which the enumerator will be involved. This documentation should provide instructions and guidance on how to undertake these activities and give contextual information about the collection and its objectives. It can also be helpful to provide examples of the uses made of data from previous collection cycles.

For purposes of obtaining gender-relevant information, enumerators need to be particularly aware of gender issues, including the differing ways females and males might respond to a topic or particular forms of questioning. For sensitive topics, such as domestic violence or mental health, they need to be aware of the different types of personal situations that respondents may have experienced and be able to manage their own reactions when seeking details of these situations. Training programs have a key role in raising awareness of these kinds of issues.

Training in techniques to deal with difficult or emotional interviews can help to ensure enumerators react professionally and appropriately in all circumstances, irrespective of the respondent's gender. Such training might be backed up by the establishment of support networks to assist enumerators in coping with the stresses that arise while working on sensitive topics. Such networks might include access to counsellors, other enumerators, office contacts, and voluntary emotional debriefing sessions at the end of enumeration.

3.3.8 Presentation and Dissemination of Statistics

Facilitating Use of Gender Statistics

The last steps in the statistical production process are concerned with the analysis, presentation and dissemination of data. For gender statistics, like other statistics, the outputs should focus on meeting the information needs of users, contain clear messages, promote correct use and interpretation of the data, and encourage further analysis.

Statistical outputs are often best expressed by presenting the main results as tables, with graphs and analytic commentary also included to aid understanding. In the case of gender statistics, tables and graphs should facilitate gender comparisons and highlight trends and patterns emerging from the data. For easy comparison of data on females and males, data are often presented side by side in statistical tables and often include both absolute numbers and percentages. This can allow, for example, the proportion of females or males with a certain characteristic to be shown, as well as the female and male proportions of the total population with that characteristic. Both types of percentages are useful for gender analysis.

Care needs to be taken in choosing labels for gender categories. For example, if the labels used are *women* and *men*, or *girls* and *boys*, there is an age threshold in distinguishing the categories but no universally accepted definition of that threshold. To avoid confusing users of the data and for purposes of data integration and comparability, it is often preferable to use the labels *females* and *males*.

Presenting data within a life cycle framework is one common way of assisting analysis of gender differentials. This involves showing female and male behaviour and characteristics over the various stages of their lives, such as: when they are children and live with their parents; when they pass through the education system; when they leave home to live independently; when they enter the labour market; when they start living with a partner; when they have children; when they retire from the labour force; as they get older, etc. In presenting data using this type of approach, significant life events can be defined both by age group as well as by other characteristics (for example: marital status; living arrangements; age of children; labour market participation; health; educational level; income; housing conditions, etc).

Data presentations should be accompanied by relevant metadata dealing with subjects such as: data sources; concepts and methodologies used; reference period; coverage; sampling and non-sampling error; standard errors, including their impact on the statistical significance of differences over time or between population sub-groups; breaks in series; signs and symbols used, etc. Estimates with high sampling variability should be flagged so that users do not attach undue importance to differences that are not statistically significant.

Types of Gender-Focused Products

As in other statistical fields, the development of gender-focused products should be based on a marketing and dissemination plan prepared early in the production process. Such plans should be developed in consultation with users and take into account evaluations of the usefulness of previous gender-focused products. This should help to ensure the target audience is reached effectively and data are accessible in user-friendly formats.

As gender statistics span all dimensions of life, they are often spread across a wide range of statistical products that deal primarily with other topics. These products include publications presenting the findings from particular collections, analytic articles and reports, and confidentialised microdata files which can support detailed research and modelling. To enhance the visibility and accessibility of gender statistics, many countries regularly bring together data related to women and men, or women only, in a single statistical product tailored to users' needs. Some also maintain gender-related databases that can be accessed through agency websites.

At the international level, there are continuing developments in dissemination of gender statistics. For example, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe has established a central Gender Statistics Database containing sex-disaggregated social data for many countries (UNECE 2008). A range of topics are covered: population; families and households; work and the economy; education; public life and decision-making; health; and crime and justice. The United Nations Statistical Division also maintains a website containing gender statistics and indicators in a number of similar fields for a much larger number of countries across the world. It draws on this database in producing its 5 yearly report on *The World's Women* (UNSD 2006).

3.4 Time Use Surveys

3.4.1 What are Time Use Surveys?

Time Use surveys collect information from individuals on what they do with their time and how they allocate it to different activities over a specified period, typically 24 hours of one or more days. They provide a picture of people's daily lives and are a rich source of gender-relevant information.

Statistics produced from these surveys show the activities people engage in, how much time is spent doing each of these activities, and the context in which they are undertaken. The statistics are usually disaggregated by sex, age group, rural/urban, and other population groups of interest to those who analyse the data. Often supplementary topics are added to the surveys to extend the analytic potential of the statistics.

A large number of countries have conducted Time Use surveys in recent years. For example, twenty one European countries conducted harmonised Time Use surveys over the period 1998 to 2004; a number of countries in Asia and Africa have conducted such surveys; the United States has conducted a continuous Time Use survey since 2003; Canada conducted its fourth national Time Use survey in 2005; and Australia conducted its third national Time Use survey in 2006.

3.4.2 Why are Time Use Surveys Important?

Time is a fundamental resource that can be used in many different ways. How people use this resource affects their social and economic wellbeing and has implications for the wellbeing of their families and the wider community in which they live. Data from Time Use surveys are important for understanding these effects and how they differ by gender. The different patterns of time allocation by women and men reflect differences in their roles, conditions and opportunities and have consequences for their family and social life as well as their personal fulfilment.

Statistics from Time Use surveys are widely used in policymaking, planning and research in many social and economic fields. By having information on how people spend their time, analysts and researchers are better able to understand the non-economic as well as economic effects of policy decisions. They are also in a better position to assess when new policies or services should be developed or existing ones adjusted to address the changing needs of society.

The statistics can inform debate on many issues associated with the quality of life and the nature of social and economic change. They can show how much time people spend on activities such as paid and unpaid work, sleeping, caring for children or the elderly, volunteering, or relaxing. They can also provide information on where, and with whom, people spend their time. For example, they can show how much time mothers or fathers spend with their children regardless of what else they might be doing at the same time and whether they are at home or somewhere else.

Time use statistics are invaluable for research into the relationships between paid work, unpaid work and leisure, and for understanding these relationships from a

gender perspective (OFW 2007). The statistics are vital for exploring issues such as division of labour within households and the extent to which women and men experience time stress. They can also be used to examine the effects of change in one area on another, such as increases in female and male education levels on differential patterns of participation in paid and unpaid work, civic life, travel, leisure, etc.

In many countries there is considerable debate about work/life balance. Time use statistics can shed light on the different ways that women and men balance their work, family and other needs and commitments. For example, the statistics can show how much time is devoted to work (paid and unpaid) and what remains for discretionary and other uses. As the surveys generally allow work to be contextualised within a 24 hour framework, it is possible to study sequences of work episodes and how they interact with other activities. If data on simultaneous activities are collected (not just primary activities), the overlap of different times can also be studied, such as work undertaken while travelling or with family members. Some surveys include questions on the level of satisfaction with the way time is devoted to different aspects of life, and on feelings of time stress. Such data can provide further insights into how well women and men are balancing the demands of their jobs, childcare, their need to relax or exercise, and their other commitments or needs.

For measuring time dedicated to paid work, some studies have suggested that Time Use surveys provide a more accurate source than Labour Force surveys (ISTAT 2007). This may reflect the difficulty of estimating hours actually dedicated to an activity unless all actions during a day are reconstructed, as required by a time use diary. Time Use surveys can also provide broader measures of hours worked (eg including time spent travelling to work) than those usually available from Labour Force surveys.

In most economies large amounts of unpaid work fall outside conventional definitions of economic production. Although most of this unpaid work constitutes production in the broad sense, international statistical standards recommend its exclusion from defined production because of conceptual and measurement difficulties. There is nevertheless a strong interest among analysts in monitoring the value, composition and growth of this unpaid work and in understanding its relationship with measured production. Reliable data on the volume of different types of unpaid work are generally only available from Time Use surveys. A number of countries have used such data, in combination with various valuation methods, to produce estimates of the value of unpaid work, including by gender (ABS 2000). These estimates have allowed unpaid work to be analysed within a national accounting framework and in some cases have been used in developing household satellite accounts.

Box 3.4A illustrates the range of data that can be provided and some of the uses, by taking Australia's Time Use surveys as an example.

Box 3.4A Time Use Data and their Uses: Australia's 2006 Time Use Survey

The survey provides information on:

- time spent on unpaid work in the home and community by women and men;
- care of children and other dependants inside and outside the household;
- the relationship between domestic care of other persons and the nature and extent of labour

- force participation by various household members;
- differences in the hours of paid work for women and men, and barriers to labour force participation;
- balancing paid work with other aspects of life;
- outsourcing of domestic tasks;
- patterns of leisure activity, such as relaxation, participation in fitness and health activities, and involvement in sports and cultural activities;
- lifestyles of people at different stages of the life cycle;
- daily life patterns and support needs of women and men in particular groups, such as older persons, unemployed persons, and persons with disabilities;
- transport and travel issues;
- the penetration and use of technology in households and how this affects the way people spend their time; and
- the nature and extent of people's social ties, such as time spent with family members in the same household, with relatives in different households, and with friends.

The information is available for males and females separately, as well as by age and other demographic and socio-economic characteristics such as household size, composition and income. Changes in patterns of time use over the years can be analysed by comparing results with those from the previous surveys in 1997 and 1992.

Like the previous surveys, the 2006 survey is an important source of information for government agencies concerned with policy development and service provision relating to: families and communities; work and family balance; women's affairs; health; social services; education; employment; town and traffic planning; media and communication; and sport and leisure. It is also a valuable source for a wide range of other organisations, such as research institutions, courts (eg in establishing benchmarks for compensation), and businesses (eg in determining employee work arrangements and workplace conditions).

The 2006 survey will also be used to update estimates of the value of unpaid work associated with household production that were derived from the 1992 and 1997 surveys using various valuation methods. The ratio of the value of unpaid work to Australia's GDP in 1997 ranged from 43% to 62% depending on the valuation method used, with the female contribution to the value of unpaid household work being around 65%.

Source: ABS 2000; ABS 2008b

3.4.3 Value Added of Gender in Time Use Statistics

A gender dimension is crucial for many studies of time use. For example, time use data disaggregated by sex (and other demographic characteristics) are necessary for analysing issues such as the division of labour within households; the extent to which men and women contribute to different types of productive activities inside and outside the home; the role social networks play in their lives; the balance between work and leisure for women and men in different types of households; the way caring for children is shared and how this changes as children age; and gender differences in daily activity patterns at different stages of the life cycle.

Comparisons over time, using data disaggregated by sex from Time Use surveys conducted in different years, can provide valuable additional information. Such data can be used, for example, to identify trends in male and female patterns of paid and unpaid work, to examine the extent to which there is convergence or divergence in these patterns over time, and to analyse a wide range of other issues associated with the changing roles of women and men within families and society.

As an illustration of the type of information that can be obtained from Time Use surveys, some gender-related findings from a range of national surveys are shown in Box 3.4B.

Box 3.4B Examples of Gender-related Findings from National Time Use surveys	
United Kingdom 2005	<p>Overall, women carried out about two thirds of the domestic tasks in 2005 – women spent on average 178 minutes a day on domestic tasks compared with 100 minutes among men.</p> <p>Women in all economic categories spent longer on domestic work than men – for example, women who worked full time spent 151 minutes on domestic work compared with 113 minutes spent by men who worked full time.</p> <p>Men tended to work longer hours in their paid job than women on average. Travel related to employment was also more evident among men while women’s trips were more concerned with domestic tasks such as shopping. Men used the private car more than women.</p> <p>Men were more likely than women to watch TV, spend time on the computer and take part in other leisure activities. Women were more likely than men to spend time reading or with other people.</p> <p>(ONS 2006)</p>
Canada 2005	<p>Between 1986 and 2005 the workday became longer for both men and women – by 0.6 hours for men and 0.7 hours for women.</p> <p>Women still do most of the housework and tend to feel more time stressed than men do. But now more men are juggling household chores and paid work duties, while women are spending more time at the office. As a result, the gap between men and women in the division of labour is still there, but it is slowly getting narrower.</p> <p>(STATCAN 2006d)</p>
Australia 2006	<p>Men and women spent their days in different ways in 2006. On average, men spent 19% of the day on recreation and leisure, 19% of the day on employment-related activities, and 7% on domestic activities. Women spent much less time on recreation and leisure (16%), nearly double the time spent by men on domestic activities (12%), and about half the time that men spent on employment- related activities (10%).</p> <p>Compared with 1992, there was little change in the time men spent on employment-related activities or domestic activities. However, the time women spent on employment- related activities increased by 12% while the time they spent on domestic activities declined by 5%.</p> <p>For parents of children under 15 years, mothers spent much more time than fathers on child care activities whether or not the parents were employed. This pattern was reflected across the age spectrum of children and across different types of caring. For both mothers and fathers, the time spent on caring activities decreased significantly as the age of the youngest child increased.</p> <p>(ABS 2008a)</p>
18 European Union Countries 1998-2004	<p>Based on a Eurostat analysis of results from national time use surveys, patterns of time use were generally quite similar throughout Europe, although some interesting differences were observed between women and men and between the countries surveyed. On average, women aged 20-74 spent much more time than men on domestic work, ranging from less than 50% more in Sweden to over 200% more in</p>

	<p>Italy and Spain.</p> <p>Men spent on average more time on gainful work/study than on domestic tasks whereas the opposite was true for women in most of the countries surveyed. The total hours worked per day – ie gainful work/study and domestic work – was shorter for men than women in most countries.</p> <p>While the amount of free time tended to be lower for women than men, how it was distributed was quite similar for women and men and from one country to another.</p> <p>(Eurostat 2006)</p>
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3.4.4 Data Collection Methods

International Guidelines

Several international agencies have produced material on data collection methods to assist countries in planning and conducting Time Use surveys. In particular:

- The United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) maintains a section on Time Use surveys on its Gender Statistics Website. It provides details of national methodologies for undertaking such surveys as well as links to international guidelines relating to Time Use surveys. In addition to detailed information on the methods and practices of a number of individual countries, the website includes sample copies of the collection instruments they use and presents some of the main statistical data produced from the surveys.
- The United Nations published a *Guide to Producing Statistics on Time Use: Measuring Paid and Unpaid Work* in 2005 (UN 2005). This guide provides a broad overview of national practices and international initiatives in the field of time use statistics. The Guide is intended as a reference tool and is aimed at facilitating the harmonisation of methods and practices. It notes that the field of time use statistics is rapidly evolving and that many of the unique challenges of time use surveys have yet to be fully addressed.
- The European Commission published *Guidelines on Harmonised European Time Use Surveys* in 2004 (EC 2004). The purpose of the guidelines was to ensure EU member countries implemented Time Use Surveys on a comparable basis so that results would be comparable, thereby greatly increasing the value of the data obtained. The guidelines provide detailed recommendations on methodology, including questionnaires, diaries, activity classification and coding, fieldwork, estimation procedures and basic statistical tables.

Role of Time Use Diaries and Questionnaires

Time Use surveys generally collect data from a sample of households in the reference population using face-to-face or telephone interviews with selected individuals in those households. The time use information that is collected basically refers to activities - the time of day they occur, their duration, and their context. While

countries use a range of survey instruments and methods, they typically collect the basic time use data through a time diary and a range of additional information through household and individual questionnaires.

Particularly important for gender statistics is the inclusion of questions that will allow disaggregation by sex, age and household composition. Other personal and household characteristics, such as education, labour force status and income, are also needed to support many types of gender analysis.

Several different types of time use diary are used by countries that conduct time use surveys. The most common approach is to use a 24 hour diary that provides for exhaustive recording of all activities of a respondent over one or more 24 hour days, including when and where each activity occurred. The diary may be completed in respect of one or more members of a household, and be designed for self completion or for an interviewer to administer either in a face-to-face context or by telephone.

'Full' or 'Light' Diary Options

The diary may be either a 'full' diary or a 'light' diary. The full diary allows for verbatim recording of activity descriptions (including simultaneous activities), their starting and ending times, and accompanying contextual dimensions such as for whom each activity was undertaken and when and where it was undertaken. These activities are then coded to a detailed activity classification. The light diary typically seeks less detail about each activity, with the activity descriptions restricted to a more limited set of pre-coded activity categories.

The choice between a full and light diary depends on a range of factors such as the analytical objectives of the survey, available resources, literacy of respondents, and survey comparability, both nationally and internationally. Often trade-offs will be needed. For example, the full diary approach produces a rich data set but resources may not be available to conduct such surveys with the frequency users would like. This has encouraged various countries to adopt, or explore the feasibility of adopting, abbreviated surveys where interviewers ask respondents to recall their activities on the previous day rather than fill in a detailed diary.

Boxes 3.4C and 3.4D illustrate the full and light diary approaches, respectively, using Australia's 2006 Time Use Surveys as an example.

Box 3.4C Full Diary Collection Method: Australia's 2006 Time Use Survey

The 2006 Time Use survey, conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics, was designed to provide representative national data on Australians' use of time together with a range of related information. To obtain data on time use patterns, the survey collected information on different days of the week and at different times of the year. Four enumeration periods were chosen, covering two weeks in each quarter of the year. Comparability with data collected in other surveys, including previous Time Use surveys in 1997 and 1992, was an important consideration at all stages of development.

The survey collected data from around 3,000 randomly selected households using a combination of face-to-face interviews with an adult member of the household, involving questions about the household and each usual resident, and a self-completion paper diary for each household member aged 15 years or over to be completed on two specified days following the interview. The survey was conducted using computer assisted interviewing methods. Respondents were notified that the

information provided would be treated confidentially, in accordance with Australian statistics legislation.

Questions asked at interview established scope inclusions and exclusions and obtained socio-demographic details for each household member, such as: sex; age; date of birth; marital status; country of birth; year of arrival in Australia; and relationship to others in the household. A number of topic-specific question modules were also covered to obtain details about: housing; ethnicity; education; labour force participation; income; child care; illness, disability and ageing; possession of household items; and IT use.

Before filling in the diary, respondents were asked to complete several additional questions about themselves: how they would describe their health; how strongly they agree or disagree that most people can be trusted; how often they feel rushed or pressed for time and the reasons they feel rushed; and how often they have spare time that they don't know what to do with and the reasons they have such spare time. At the end of each day they were asked some further questions about what type of day it was and whether they usually work in a paid job on that day of the week. At the end of the second day they were also asked how satisfied or dissatisfied they were with the way they spent their time over the two days, their attitude to the balance of time they spent alone and with other people, their attitude to gardening activities, and whether they had carried out any unpaid voluntary work in the last 12 months and for whom.

The diary covered a continuous period of 48 hours commencing at midnight and asked for the person's primary and secondary activities in 5 minute time intervals, as illustrated below. Contextual information about each activity episode was also sought. The designated days in respect of which the diary was to be completed were marked on the cover of the diary by the interviewer.

Day 1	3 hour time blocks (12 midnight to 3am, 3am to 6am, 6am to 9am, etc)				
5 minute time intervals	What was your main activity? (Please record all activities even if they only lasted a few minutes)	Who did you do this for? (eg self, family, work, friend, a charity, the community)	What else were you doing at the same time? (eg childminding, watching television, listening to the radio)	Where were you? (eg at work, home, on a bus, driving the car)	Who was with you at home, or with you away from home? (eg no-one, family, friends)
6.00					
6.05					
6.10 etc					

Respondents were asked to describe their activities in their own words, rather than select from a pre-coded list of activities, as this allowed greater detail to be collected which would meet the needs of a wider range of users. Interviewers arranged for the collection of diaries as soon as possible after their completion.

The activities recorded in the completed diaries were subsequently office coded into around 270 detailed categories using Australia's Time Use Activity Classification. The classification provides for these detailed categories to be grouped into 64 broader categories and 9 major categories. The 9 major categories can, in turn, be presented in terms of 4 different types of time, as shown below.

Necessary time	1. Personal care activities
Contracted time	2. Employment activities
	3. Education activities
Committed time	4. Domestic activities
	5. Child care activities

	6. Purchasing activities 7. Voluntary work and care activities
Free time	8. Social and community interaction 9. Recreation and leisure

A range of outputs have been produced from the survey. These include a summary publication presenting the main findings from the survey, a user guide, analytic articles, and a confidentialised unit record file.

Source: ABS 2008b

Box 3.4D Light Diary Collection Method: Australia's 2006 Time Use 'Lite' Survey

During 2006 the Australian Bureau of Statistics also tested an alternative method of collecting time use data using a light diary rather than the full diary. It conducted a Time Use 'Lite' Survey in two periods in the latter half of the year, as a component of its Multi-Purpose Household Survey. The purpose of the test was to determine whether results from the abbreviated survey were comparable with those from the full survey conducted in the same year. The findings from this analysis are expected to be released during 2008.

The abbreviated survey was designed to produce national level estimates from a sample of 1500 households. The collection method was based on a computer-assisted telephone interview with a person aged 18 years or over randomly selected from the usual residents of the household. Respondents were sequenced through a series of questions that were cyclical in nature. These questions recorded all the activities of the respondent in the 24 hours from 4am on the previous day (or one day earlier in some cases), including the time spent on each activity and for whom it was undertaken. No other contextual information about each activity was sought, and where two activities were undertaken at the same time only the most significant activity was recorded.

The use of computer assisted interviewing allowed interviewers to use an activity coder, based on a look up list of activities drawn from the full Time Use survey coding database. When developing the Australian instrument the ABS drew ideas from the computer assisted telephone interviewing methods used in the continuous American Time Use Survey conducted in the United States. It also drew on the United Kingdom's experience with its 2005 Time Use Survey in determining the list of broad activity categories to be used in classifying and coding responses.

The key differences between Australia's abbreviated survey and full survey were that:

- the abbreviated survey involved an interviewer asking respondents to recall their activities on the previous day, whereas the full survey asked people to maintain a diary of their activities on 2 specified current days following a face-to-face interview;
- activities in the abbreviated survey were coded to 30 broad activity codes only, whereas activities in the full survey were office coded to around 270 detailed categories;
- the abbreviated survey was limited to one respondent per household aged 18 years or over, while the full survey included all household members aged 15 years and over;
- the abbreviated survey focused on capturing main activities, while the full survey captured these as well as additional contextual information about each activity episode (ie where the person was, who else was with them, and any other activities undertaken at the same time);
- the abbreviated survey was conducted as part of a multi-purpose survey, with demographic and some socio-economic data collected as part of the multi-purpose survey's core data set, whereas the full survey was able to collect much richer information about household circumstances through household and personal questionnaires in addition to the time use diary; and
- in terms of outputs, the full survey can provide much richer data.

The abbreviated survey should provide estimates of time spent on unpaid and paid work and other major activity classes at lower cost and possibly more quickly than the full survey. If results are comparable, the abbreviated survey could be used between full surveys to update the value of unpaid work and track changes in time use patterns at more frequent intervals. If this turns out to be feasible, then the two different methods could be viewed as complementary and part of a comprehensive time use survey framework.

Source: ABS 2007c

3.4.5 Other Measurement Issues

Measurement issues generally associated with household surveys are also relevant to Time Use surveys. To ensure data of appropriate quality is produced, Time Use surveys need to be designed and developed in close consultation with the main users, survey standards need to be followed, questionnaires and procedures need to be tested, systems need to be reliable, and all processes need to be well managed. However, there are also some particular issues applying to Time Use surveys that can affect the usability of the resulting statistics. The more significant issues are outlined below.

Survey Scope

As there is increasing analytic interest in many countries in how children and older people spend their time as well as time use by other population groups, the reference population and the areas and dwellings to be covered in the survey may need special attention when determining its scope. For many gender analyses age is a key variable. Most countries that have conducted Time Use surveys in recent times have applied an age cut-off at the lower end of the age range in order to exclude all or some children. While most have not applied a cut-off at the upper end of the age range, they may exclude a proportion of older people if the special dwellings where some of these people reside are excluded from the scope of the survey.

Where children are within scope of the survey, it may be appropriate to have two versions of the time use diary: one for adults and one for children, with the text and examples tailored for each group. The Guidelines on Harmonised European Time Use Surveys provide examples of both versions, while noting that the actual diary component is the same (EC 2004).

Survey Design

Sample designs need to take account of seasonal and other variations in the activities people undertake throughout a year and on different days of the week. Reflecting this, surveys are generally conducted either continuously over a year or in several periods across the year with diaries distributed as evenly as possible throughout the days of the week in each collection period. As people often vary their activities depending on the time of year or day of the week, uneven capturing of activities could result in under or over reporting of some activities. To achieve an even representation of the days of the week for which activities will be reported, diary keeping days are generally worked out in advance and should not be changed.

Survey Content

A particular challenge for many Time Use surveys is achieving an appropriate balance between content and respondent load. Questions on a range of topics, in addition to time use, can significantly increase the value of the data for different types of analysis and may be strongly sought by users. Maintaining content comparability with previous Time Use surveys may also be an important requirement. However, the time it takes respondents to complete interviews and diaries can impact on response rates and the quality of reported data, so content decisions need to be taken with this in mind.

One technique used by Canada in its 2005 Time Use survey to allow more content while keeping respondent burden to a minimum involved splitting the sample for some parts of the questionnaire. Respondents were randomly assigned to one of the two sub-samples.

Respondent Co-operation

As Time Use surveys, particularly the diaries, can be quite onerous for the selected households, obtaining reliable data can be challenging. To encourage cooperation and good response, the importance of the survey, its nature and guarantees of confidentiality should be explained in the initial contact with the household and reinforced at interview. These explanations need to be meaningful to different types of households. Examples of how the information collected in the survey will be used can be beneficial. Examples showing how the information is to be recorded in the diaries can also very helpful.

Activity Classification

Whatever collection method is used, a comprehensive activity classification or listing is needed so all activities can be classified appropriately. It is particularly important for gender analyses that the classification or listing provides for adequate representation of activities mainly undertaken by females as well as those mainly undertaken by males. The inclusion of a 'for whom' column in the time use diary can also be helpful, by providing additional information on the purpose of activities which can enable more accurate classification (eg it can help in distinguishing unpaid household work from unpaid volunteer and community work).

Many countries that have conducted Time Use surveys in recent times have applied their own classifications to meet their own purposes, while others have used the International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics released by the United Nations in 2003. This international classification was developed to assist countries embarking on time use surveys and to facilitate international comparisons. It has a hierarchical structure, consisting of 15 major divisions, 54 divisions, 92 groups, 200 classes and 363 activity sub-classes (UN 2003).

Processing and Estimation

Producing good quality estimates from time use surveys is a complex process. The process can be particularly resource intensive for full diaries completed by respondents after interview, with activity coding and episode demarcation subsequently carried out in the office. It is vitally important for the reliability of the estimates that coders are accurate and consistent in their coding. A variety of tools and techniques are used by countries to achieve required coding standards. Box 3.4E describes some of the special data editing techniques that were used in the 2003 Italian Time Use Survey to improve the quality of data collected by diaries.

Deriving estimates from the edited data that conform to an independently estimated distribution of the total population by sex, age, employment, region etc also involves complex weighting and estimation procedures and the use of population distributions appropriate to each collection period. Some special steps are needed due to the diary approach, such as weighting adjustments to ensure days of the week and months of the year are equally represented.

Box 3.4E Data Editing of Diaries in the 2003 Italian Time Use Survey

In its 2003 Time Use Survey, Italy used both deterministic rules (involving automatic procedures) and non-automatic rules (applied by a trained staff of coders) to improve the coding of data collected by the survey's daily diaries.

Before coding, the words used by a respondents to describe their main activities, parallel activities, activity locations and modes of transport used were recorded in a literal way in the survey processing system, resulting in a considerable number of strings (or episodes) for each activity. This enabled the respondents' words to be interpreted in context and particular types of reporting problems to be identified. The analysis of recorded strings – often written in the form of sentences – considerably increased the potential for formalising correction rules and strategies for handling situations where the association between text and code was not a one-to-one linkage.

Computer assisted coding was used because of the complexity of the coding process. This, along with continuous monitoring of coding work, helped to prevent errors in the coding process. Ancillary codes were used to point out particular coding problems concerning critical events and these were resolved by a researcher in a subsequent editing phase.

A wide variety of errors were uncovered in the editing process. For example, in the case of employment activities, over 60% of diaries involved at least one corrected episode; while in the case of study activities, over 46% involved at least one corrected episode.

Source: ISTAT

Survey Output

Care is needed when interpreting time use data, particularly 'average' times. The structure of statistical tables containing such data, and the conventions used, need to be well explained in survey output to assist those analysing the data. For example, tables may show average time spent by all persons on an activity, or average time spent by only the participants in the activity. Tables can also be further distinguished by the kinds of activities included (eg main activities or all activities). Average times in tables relating to participants have different underlying populations so any calculations within these tables need to take into account the relevant population. In the case of tables relating to main activities, time spent adds to the total time in a day,

whereas in tables relating to all activities, time spent can add to more than the total time in a day.

Data Comparability

To facilitate comparisons with variables collected in national surveys on other topics, Time Use surveys should use standard definitions, classifications and question modules wherever feasible. For example, definitions concerning employment should be consistent with those used in labour force surveys.

Comparability of time use data over time can be impacted by changes to the collection method, such as moving from a full diary to a light diary approach. The United Kingdom has had experience with both approaches. It used the full diary in its 2000 Time Use survey and the light diary in its 2005 Time Use survey, conducted as part of its 2005 National Statistics Omnibus Survey (ONS 2006). Based on an evaluation of both approaches, it concluded that the light data set would be worthwhile in its own right and at a broad level would provide an indication of any major changes in time use since the full diary collection. It noted that there were limitations in terms of having only 30 activity codes in the pre-coded 2005 diary, compared with around 250 in the office-coded 2000 diary; that there were some difficulties in matching codes completely across the two surveys; and that some of the changes in data between 2000 and 2005 could be due to the differences in collection methods.

International comparability of data can be affected by many other issues, in addition to differences between countries in their collection methods and activity classifications. One of these issues is the different age limits that countries apply in defining the reference population. For example, a major difference between Canada's Time Use Survey and that conducted by the United States is the age cut off used to exclude children – Canada uses 15 years as the partition point whereas the United States uses 18 (Statcan 2006). In the case of the Harmonised European Time Use Surveys, the partition points for some countries were even further apart, ranging from 3 years (Italy) to 20 years (Sweden) (EC 2005).

Other Data Quality Issues

Overall response rates can be relatively low in some Time Use surveys. Non response can occur at various levels (eg household questionnaire, individual questionnaire, diary, individual data items) and result in biased estimates to the extent that non-respondents differ from the rest of the sample population.

Other sources of error can arise from the difficulty respondents may have in recalling activities, and variability in their activity descriptions affecting the accuracy of classification. Inconsistencies in classification can also occur where the same activity can be described in different ways that reflect its different aspects, such as its purpose or function.

If only primary activities are collected, activities that are frequently done simultaneously with other activities may be under-represented in the reported data set. Child care, watching television, and socialising are examples of activities that may be affected in this way.

3.5 Measuring Minority Groups

3.5.1 What are Minority Groups?

Within most countries there are groups of people with specific ethnic, cultural, linguistic and/or religious backgrounds that differ significantly from the bulk of the population. Such groups are often referred to as minority groups as they represent, in each case, a relatively small proportion of the total population.

Females and males within a particular group may differ from their counterparts in the rest of the population in terms of their roles, characteristics and social and economic circumstances. They may also differ from each other in ways that contrast with the rest of society or other minority groups.

In many countries, statistics reflecting the realities of women and men belonging to minority groups are scarce. This is despite the growing interest of national, regional and international bodies in both minority and gender issues and significant progress in some countries in producing gender-relevant data on minority groups. Part of the explanation may be due to the measurement challenges that emerge when a joint perspective on gender and minorities is adopted.

3.5.2 Why are Data on Minority Groups Important?

Statistics on the situation of women and men belonging to specific ethnic, religious or national groups are needed to increase visibility and understanding of the social and economic issues, including gender issues, affecting these groups and the lives of their members. Such data are particularly important because gender issues within minority groups are located at an intersection that risks being overlooked by those focusing on gender concerns in general, as well as by those focusing on minority group concerns. The data are essential for raising awareness - both among policymakers and the general public - of the complex interaction between these different dimensions, and for developing coordinated policies and programs to address both areas of concern.

The ethnic and cultural composition of the population has become increasingly diverse in many countries, largely as a consequence of recent and past migration flows. Reflecting this, data on population groups with particular ethnic, cultural or migration characteristics are of increasing relevance to many countries in understanding the cultural diversity of the population and the position of these groups within society. Such data are important in determining and monitoring migration, integration, anti-discrimination and minority group policies.

For example, migrant settlement issues and outcomes are often an important policy focus as people arriving under some migration programs or from particular countries may face more difficulty than others adjusting to a new way of life in an unfamiliar environment. The wellbeing of indigenous peoples is a further area where the policy focus has sharpened in some countries, reflecting concerns over the circumstances and life chances of these individuals and greater appreciation of their unique cultural heritage.

Gender issues within population sub-groups, like these, can vary considerably and the availability of gender-related data is crucial to orient policies as well as to facilitate mutual understanding and cohesion across these groups and the wider community. Reliable gender-relevant indicators need to be produced on a regular basis not only for the mainstream population but also for minority groups.

Policies addressing gender issues in general, such as programs to increase gender equality in employment or education, or to support families, do not necessarily bring the same outcomes in the mainstream population and in minority groups. For example, women in these groups might have special difficulties that are not targeted by such policies. Detailed data are therefore needed to tailor policies that can effectively address gender issues of minority groups.

On another aspect, gender roles are important in facilitating communication and integration between the various minority communities and/or between the mainstream population and specific groups. For example, public debate often focuses on the role of women within specific migrant or ethnic communities, and the implications of this role for relationships between the various communities. Statistical evidence is needed to provide sound data to inform such debate and to underpin related policies.

3.5.3 Value Added of Gender in Minority Group Statistics

In most cases gender-relevant data on minorities are important to show the extent to which women and men belonging to minorities are more or less disadvantaged when compared with each other or the rest of society. They may suffer disadvantage not only because they are members of the minority group but also because of their gender.

The reality is sometimes more nuanced and more complex patterns can be observed, with notable disparities between the various minority groups and/or between specific groups and the mainstream population. In any event statistical evidence is necessary to detect and show underlying patterns.

For example, statistics on employment or income based on sample surveys may be available for the population as whole and, in many cases, for population groupings formed from dissections such as sex, age, country of birth and family type. Aggregates compiled at this level, however, can hide important differences between women and men belonging to minority groups, not only with respect to the mainstream population but also between minority groups.

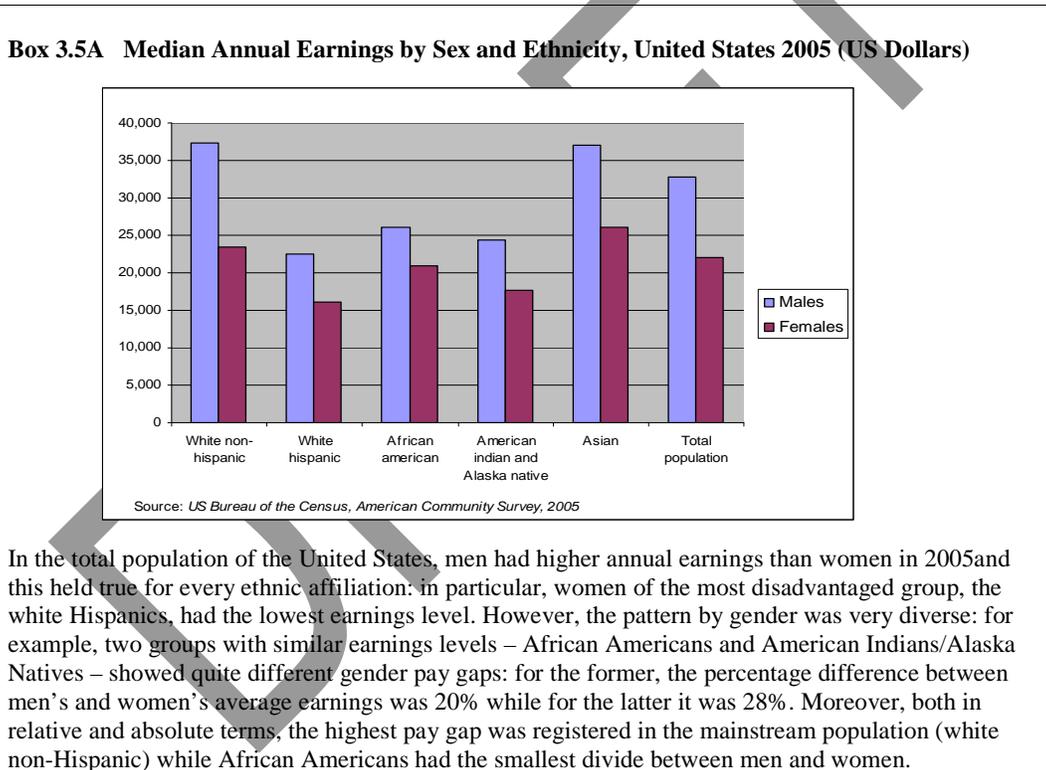
The following three country examples show the importance of collecting and disseminating gender-relevant data for minority groups. As explained in later paragraphs, many statistical challenges may arise in collecting such data. However, these challenges need to be addressed in order to provide policy makers, researchers and the general public with reliable figures on the issues concerning such communities.

Box 3.5A provides an example from the United States showing the relevance of both gender and ethnicity to monitoring earnings levels and patterns in that country. This example highlights the importance of providing both ethnic and gender perspectives

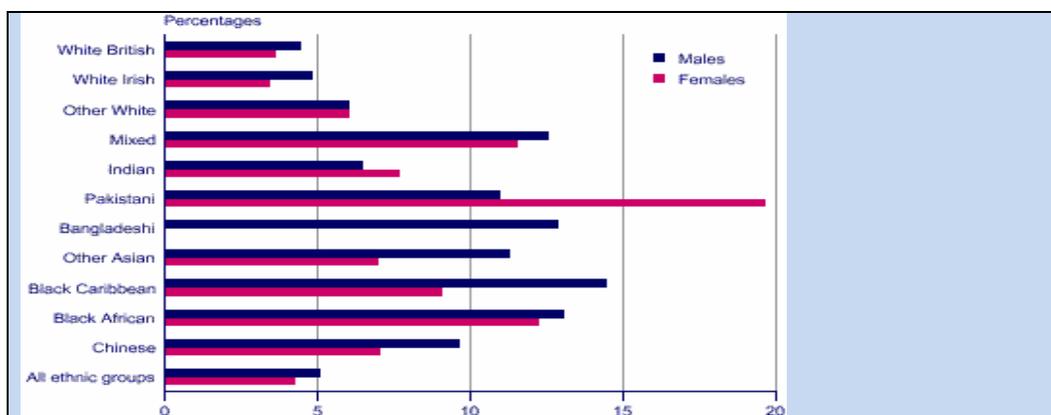
to make apparent how the two dimensions jointly operate as a social stratifier in the United States.

Box 3.5B relates to unemployment rates of ethnic groups in the United Kingdom. It shows once again that gender patterns within ethnic communities can be very diverse. It reinforces the importance of detailed and comprehensive data to reflect the complexity of social and gender structures existing in countries.

Box 3.5C compares the long-term health conditions of Australia’s Indigenous women with those of Indigenous men and non-Indigenous women. It illustrates one of many areas where survey data has shown that Indigenous people experience disadvantage compared with the wider population, with the extent of this disadvantage varying by gender. This kind of information can assist in identifying gender-sensitive approaches to address the disadvantage and in targeting government programs to those most in need.



Box 3.5B Unemployment Rate by Sex and Ethnicity, United Kingdom 2004



Source: Office for National Statistics, United Kingdom

Although the total unemployment rate in the United Kingdom was relatively low (below 5%) in 2004, with little difference between the two sexes, there were remarkable differences within and between ethnic communities. In particular, women of the Pakistani community suffered from a high unemployment rate (20%), especially if compared with the unemployment rate of men of the same group (11%). On the other hand, there were ethnic groups where men experienced a much higher unemployment rate than women, as in the case of Black Caribbeans, where unemployed men were 14% of the male labour force whereas the corresponding figure for women was 9%.

Box 3.5C Long-Term Health Conditions of Indigenous Women, Australia 2004-05

Australia's Indigenous population represents 2.5% of the total population, based on 2006 Population Census results. Various data sources can be used to compare the circumstances and outcomes of Indigenous women and men, both with each other and with non-Indigenous people.

For example, Indigenous women's health can be compared with that of Indigenous men and non-Indigenous women using data from two surveys conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics in 2004-05: the National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Survey and the National Health Survey. Among the findings from comparisons of long-term health conditions were:

- 85% of Indigenous women aged 18 years and over reported at least one long-term condition compared with 77% of Indigenous men.
- The prevalence of multiple conditions was also higher among Indigenous women, with 68% reporting two or more long-term conditions compared with 58% of Indigenous men.
- After adjusting for age differences between the two populations, Indigenous women were more than 10 times as likely as non-Indigenous women to have kidney disease; more than four times as likely to have diabetes/high sugar levels; and nearly twice as likely to have asthma.

Source: ABS 2007a

3.5.4 Data Collection Methods

Definition and Identification of Minority Groups

Various factors can hinder data production on minorities and they have to be dealt with to produce good quality data on gender and minorities. At the most fundamental level, the minority groups of interest need to be defined, and in a way that facilitates

their identification. While determining one's gender status is relatively easy, defining minority status is much more complex.

There is no generally accepted definition of a 'minority group' and the term itself is not used in the statistical outputs of many countries. Different countries or regions use different approaches to define and identify the small groups within their populations for which statistics are required. User priorities are important in deciding which groups should be separately identified and the types of statistics to be produced. Gender perspectives are invariably important for each separately identified group.

The groups of interest may be defined by reference to a person's ethnic affiliation, racial or ethnic origin, indigenous origin, ancestry, language, migration status or religious affiliation. They may also be defined by reference to other personal factors that reflect policy priorities or social issues in the particular country (eg people who have a disability, lone mothers and fathers, long-term unemployed persons, elderly women and men, prisoners, same-sex couples etc).

In the field of international migration alone, there are many ways of identifying and classifying population groups and many of the groups overlap. Each group is relevant for analysing different aspects of the migration and integration process and represents a possible target of different programs and policies. The size of each group depends on the country, its legislation and its migration history. The Conference of European Statisticians' recommendations for the 2010 population censuses provide guidance on how different groups in this field might be identified and classified. (UNECE 2006)

Overlaps between groups are also common in other fields. For example, affiliation with certain ethnic groups is distinct from affiliation with language or religious groups and from membership of particular groups based on ancestry. Individuals are frequently members of a range of different groups when these different aspects are considered. The combined collection and analysis of data on groups with several ethno-cultural and/or migration characteristics can be particularly informative for the understanding of cultural diversity.

Criteria Used to Identify Certain Types of Groups

For purposes of discussion in the rest of this section, minority groups are confined to those that are based on a person's ethnic, cultural or migration characteristics. Two main approaches tend to be used in defining and identifying minority groups of this kind: those based on subjective criteria, and those based on objective criteria. Sometimes a mixture of the two approaches is used.

Subjective Criteria Approaches

An approach based on subjective criteria is centred on self-declaration of individuals. Self-declaration is usually the best option when trying to identify population groups with homogeneous cultural traits. It may also be the only option for identifying some groups, such as indigenous peoples, in many countries. However, it also presents some disadvantages, such as changing perceptions of belonging to a certain minority group, across individuals and across time, which can have an impact on comparability

of data. Moreover, the sensitivity of questions on ethnicity or religious affiliation can also have an impact on data quality.

In the context of the 2010 round of population censuses, the Conference of European Statisticians recommends that the collection of data on ethno-cultural characteristics should always be based on the free self-declaration of a person, as such information is generally subjective and sometimes sensitive (UNECE 2006). Questionnaires that seek data on ethnicity, language, religion etc should therefore include open questions to allow small groups to identify. Respondents should also be free to indicate more than one ethnic affiliation or a combination of ethnic affiliations if they wish to do so. In order to guarantee the free self-declaration of ethnicity, respondents should also be allowed to indicate ‘none’ or ‘not declared’.

Objective Criteria Approaches

Where minorities are linked to immigration flows, an objective approach based on a person’s migration background may be used in identifying the relevant groups. In this case, the groups may be identified on the basis of recorded personal characteristics such as country or place of birth, country of birth of parents, year of arrival in host country, and/or citizenship. These characteristics are usually perceived as being not sensitive. Moreover, they are relatively stable across time and easy to understand by respondents. While they do not necessarily mirror the ethno-cultural background of respondents, they may sometimes provide a useful proxy for this if it is not feasible to seek self-declarations by individuals. However, the identification of members of third and subsequent generations would be possible only through information on grandparents.

In relation to identifying migrant groups, the Conference of European Statisticians’ recommendations for the 2010 population censuses provide helpful guidance on the topics on which data should be collected, the mode of collection, and issues to be addressed in question wording. (UNECE 2006)

Other Approaches

It is also possible to use self declarations on ancestry, or ethnic or cultural origin, in combination with information on country of birth and country of birth of parents, to obtain a good indication of the ethnic background of first and second generation residents of a country. This information can be essential in some countries for effective delivery of services to particular ethnic communities.

Where a country has a generally accepted standard question for identifying a particular group (eg indigenous people), the standard wording should be used wherever possible to obtain data for that particular group. This facilitates complete and consistent recording in different data sources as well as comparisons across topics and over time.

Evaluation of Basic Approaches

Box 3.5D summarises the main advantages and disadvantages of the two basic approaches to defining and identifying minority groups, ie migration background and ethno-cultural status of individuals.

Box 3.5D Advantages and Disadvantages of Basic Approaches for Identifying Minority Populations		
Approach and Identification Criteria	Advantages	Disadvantages
<p>Migration background</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Country of birth ▪ Region of birth ▪ Country of birth of parents ▪ Citizenship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ These topics are usually not sensitive, are easy to collect, compile and disseminate and are often readily available. ▪ When a foreign country is reported, these concepts reflect a migration process that individuals or their parents undertook. ▪ Citizenship may also detect groups that have higher probability of discrimination due to legal barriers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Being born in a foreign country or having a foreign parent or citizenship does not necessarily indicate minority status. ▪ These concepts may not reflect the cultural background of individuals. ▪ No possibility of identifying third and subsequent generations.
<p>Ethnic and cultural characteristics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Race ▪ Ethnicity ▪ Ancestry ▪ Religion ▪ Language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Based on self-declaration. ▪ Better identification of population groups with similar cultural and/or ethnic background. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Topics based on racial and ethnic status, or religious affiliation, can be highly sensitive. ▪ Multiple affiliations can be difficult to capture. ▪ Subject to change with time and between generations.

Data Sources for Measuring Small Population Groups

For purposes of gender analysis of minority groups, data are needed about the lives of their women and men members. This requires, for each group, data on sex cross-classified by a range of demographic and socio-economic variables such as age, employment characteristics, educational status, access to resources, health conditions and outcomes, etc. As minority groups represent small – sometimes very small – proportions of the total population, this poses methodological challenges for data collection.

The main kinds of sources used to collect this information are population censuses, household sample surveys, and administrative records. Some of the methodological challenges are common to all these sources, such as defining the minority groups of interest and developing appropriate questions to consistently identify and classify their members. Other challenges vary with the data source. The country context invariably has a major effect on how these challenges are addressed.

Population censuses

When questions to identify minority groups are included in a population census, this source can provide very accurate data to measure the social and economic status of the female and male members of each group. It can also provide data at fine levels of geography and for particular localities, which can be important for analysing minority group issues within different communities. However, intervals between censuses are generally quite long (eg 10 years) and censuses typically do not cover social and economic topics in much detail.

Household sample surveys

Household sample surveys can usually provide data more frequently than population censuses and more comprehensively in terms of the topics covered. However, sample size and sample design are crucial issues. For example, minority group status indicators may be included in a survey but, unless the sample is sufficiently large or has some special design features, it may not be able to capture reliable sex-disaggregated data for small population groups.

In some cases it may be possible to use regular household surveys to provide useful gender-relevant data on some minority groups. For example, by adding appropriate minority status identifiers and/or question modules to labour force surveys, some countries have been able to produce a limited amount of data on the characteristics and experiences of selected groups such as migrants or indigenous people. Care is needed in using samples designed for other purposes in this way, as the more detailed results may not be statistically significant due to the small number of individuals representing the minority group in certain sample cells. There may also be other data quality issues specifically related to the group.

Sometimes the sample size and/or design for a particular survey can be adjusted in order to produce reliable results for minority groups. For example, over-sampling from some areas or minority groups may be possible, allowing the collection of representative data for those groups. A survey's coverage may also need adjustment if minority groups tend to be concentrated in geographic areas or dwellings not usually enumerated. There may also be implications for a survey's sampling frame: if the

existing frame does not adequately reflect the relevant minority groups, its updating will be essential.

Where data on a particular group is a high priority, some countries conduct special surveys of people belonging to that group. In these cases sample designs, sample sizes, survey coverage, topic content, questions, enumeration practices etc can be tailored to the task of producing relevant and reliable data for the group. The outputs can also be tailored, with detailed cross-classifications possible on a wide range of topics. In designing and developing these surveys, some additional challenges may arise. For example, some level of comparability may need to be maintained with surveys covering the same topics for the population as a whole, and with previous special surveys of the group.

Administrative Records

Administrative records can provide valuable data when minority status is determined on the basis of migration background. They can also provide valuable information when indigenous status is recorded. For example, in cases where standard questions on indigenous status are included in relevant administrative systems (eg birth and death registrations, hospital records, school records, police records, etc) and good coverage of the population of interest is achieved, important gender-relevant information can be produced on variety of topics relating to government programs and service provision. Such data can complement what is collected through censuses and surveys.

Engagement and Enumeration Strategies

Representatives of relevant minority groups should be consulted throughout the statistical production process to assure transparency, ensure questions will be correctly understood by the women and men in their group, and to encourage the group's full cooperation in providing data. Whatever collection method is used, respondents should be informed about the reason for gathering the data and the importance of accurate responses.

Some minority groups can be particularly difficult to enumerate in both censuses and surveys. These may include, for example, ethnic groups who have trouble reading or speaking the official language, indigenous people who live in remote areas, and homeless persons. Special enumeration strategies may be helpful in obtaining reliable data from the men and women in such groups.

Box 3.5E provides an example of a special enumeration strategy, based on Australia's 2006 Population Census.

Box 3.5E Indigenous Enumeration Strategy in Australia's 2006 Population Census

Targeted procedures were used in Australia's 2006 Population Census to ensure that the coverage of particular groups was as complete as possible. Separate strategies were developed for Indigenous people, Ethnic groups, and Homeless persons.

The Indigenous Enumeration Strategy consisted of special collection procedures and Census awareness activities to improve the coverage and accuracy of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population

count. It identified and addressed cultural and other barriers to the effective enumeration of these people in both discrete communities and in households in rural and urban areas. A consultative committee covering a range of stakeholders, was established in 2003 to guide the development of the strategy.

The special collection procedures included the use of Indigenous engagement managers who liaised with Indigenous communities to establish rapport; extensive consultation with Indigenous organizations and communities; a special recruitment effort to ensure that wherever possible Indigenous people were employed to help with the collection; a more flexible approach to enumeration, enabling the tailoring of strategies to suit community characteristics and specific situations; the use of specially designed forms and additional questions in nominated discrete communities to improve coverage and data quality; the use of interviewers rather than self-completion questionnaires in many Indigenous communities in remote areas; and independent observations of the Census enumeration in a number of remote areas.

The awareness activities were aimed at encouraging participation of Indigenous people in the Census. They included newspaper articles, presentations in Indigenous languages, radio and television interviews and information brochures.

Source: ABS 2006b, 2007b

3.5.5 Other Measurement Issues

Legal Framework

In some countries data protection laws are often cited as prohibiting the collection of data on ethnicity, race and /or religion. Where the prohibition refers only to individually identifiable data, it may still be permissible to collect anonymous data under strict conditions. If this is the case, it may be possible for statistical offices to adjust their collection and processing procedures so that anonymous data are obtained in compliance with legal framework.

Political and cultural context

There can be various challenges in self-reporting of information on ethno-cultural status. Interpretation of the concepts involved and their political and cultural connotation are among these challenges. For example, it may be difficult to identify the actual meaning behind a respondents' declaration of a particular ethnic origin. It could be a statement of identity, a declaration of particular ancestry or an expression of affiliation with a particular group within the society. These personal perceptions may change over time, often depending on whether or not the socio-political environment of the country is safe or favourable enough for individuals to identify their minority status.

While a positive environment towards minority groups can encourage good reporting, a negative environment can have the opposite effect. In particular, persons belonging to certain minority groups may be particularly vulnerable to discrimination on the grounds of ethnicity or religion. Because of this, individuals might be reluctant to identify as members of the group. An example is the Roma minority in countries of Central and Eastern Europe. Although official statistics on the number of Roma often exist, advocacy groups and others believe that these statistics heavily underestimate

the real number. One of the main reasons could be that individuals fear discrimination if they report their true identity.

Data Confidentiality

Obtaining reliable data on ethno-cultural background may be problematic if respondents have concerns about confidentiality. Legislation protecting the confidentiality of personal data may help in getting members of minorities to identify their status, but some may still lack the confidence to identify due to distrust towards government and/or fear of giving social visibility to the minority group. Special care may be required in data collection procedures and outputs relating to such groups in order to demonstrate to respondents that appropriate data protection and control measures are in place.

Coverage of Selected Migrant Sub-Groups

Special procedures may be needed in some countries to ensure particular types of migrant are not overlooked when conducting surveys. For example, where a country has significant numbers of foreign women doing domestic and caring work for households, their work might easily be overlooked in data capture processes. Information on the characteristics of different migrant sub-populations is important for understanding issues associated with their wellbeing as well as for analysing the social and economic impacts of their presence on the wider community.

The forced migration of individuals as a result of 'people trafficking' can involve many countries: some may be the source of trafficked persons, some may be the destination for these persons or provide a transit route, and others may be involved from all of these perspectives. In view of the illegal nature of the activity, it is unlikely that any country will ever be able to collect comprehensive statistics about the group of people who have been subjected to trafficking. However, it might be possible to use administrative records - such as those held by welfare services, immigration services, and the criminal justice system - to produce some gender-relevant statistics on cases that come to light.

Data Dissemination and Analysis

In many countries there may be potential for greater use of available data to describe gender issues across and within minority groups. For example, in Eastern European countries there is a long tradition of data collection on ethnicity in population censuses but dissemination of socio-economic data by sex and ethnicity status is still limited. Improving data dissemination and accessibility can often be critical to achieving greater data use. Better and more accessible information on the collection methods used and the reliability of results may also be important.

In presenting statistics on minority groups, age standardization may be important for comparing individuals in one minority group with those in another or in the general population. In cases where the age structures of the different populations are significantly different and the variables of interest are highly related to a person's age, comparisons of unadjusted data can produce misleading results.

3.6 Measuring Social Exclusion

3.6.1 What is Social Exclusion?

Social exclusion generally refers to a situation where a person does not participate in the normal relationships and activities available to the majority of people in the society in which the person lives. It reflects a lack of connectedness that is multi-dimensional in nature and shaped by the communities, social and physical environments in which they live. It can affect both the quality of life of individuals and the equity and cohesion of society as a whole.

It can also be described as a process. In this sense social exclusion is the process of being progressively shut out from the social, economic, political and cultural systems which contribute to the integration of people into the community. This may involve the lack or denial of resources, rights, goods and services as well as an inability to participate in key activities.

Poverty, deprivation and social exclusion are distinct but overlapping concepts. Together, they cover what many people understand by the term ‘social disadvantage’, which involves restricted access to resources, lack of participation and blocked opportunities. In the case of poverty, the focus is often on the lack of resources required to achieve an acceptable standard of living, whereas social exclusion has broader and different dimensions. In particular, social exclusion extends the focus beyond an individual’s lack of resources to also encompass an individual’s lack of capacity to meet everyday needs and the roles of institutional structures and community attitudes in creating the barriers that restrain participation. These barriers may involve discriminatory practices, language or cultural factors, or legislative or regulatory restrictions.

Social exclusion can take many forms. Broad dimensions that are often of interest include:

- economic resources (eg being poor in terms of both low income and deprivation, or having a low level of assets or low consumption possibilities);
- labour market participation (eg being unemployed for a long period, or living in a jobless household);
- services access (eg lack of adequate access to key services such as public transport, health care, financial services or basic services inside the home); and
- social relations (eg lack of someone who will offer support in key areas of personal life, no social networks, or disengagement from political and civic activity).

3.6.2 Why is Data on Social Exclusion Important?

In many countries social exclusion is considered to be a major issue that affects the wellbeing of significant numbers of women, men and children. Some population groups can be particularly vulnerable and the negative effects can spill over into the wider community, rupturing social bonds and breaking down social cohesion. Gender differences and inequalities can be a fundamental feature of social exclusion.

Data are needed to understand the nature and extent of social exclusion, the risks and pathways associated with such disadvantage, and its effects on the individuals concerned, their families and the general community. To understand the impacts from a gender perspective, it is crucial that the data are disaggregated by gender as well as other demographic variables. Such data are essential for developing appropriate policy responses, targeting programs to address barriers and capacity issues, and monitoring the success of these programs.

Measures aimed at removing the barriers to participation in society, strengthening capacity and encouraging social inclusion are core aspects of social policy in many countries. For example, the European Union (EU) has adopted a social inclusion framework that lies at the heart of EU social policy making and is relevant for all member countries as well as those seeking membership. It reflects a basic right in the European Social Charter: the ‘right to protection against poverty and social exclusion’.

Box 3.6A outlines the aims of the EU social inclusion strategy and describes how it has driven the development of a set of social inclusion indicators to monitor progress in each member country. A gender breakdown is applied to the indicators wherever it is judged relevant and meaningful.

Box 3.6A European Union’s Social Inclusion Strategy and Indicators

The EU’s social inclusion strategy is aimed at making “a decisive impact on the eradication of poverty and social exclusion” by ensuring: that there is access for all to the resources, rights and services needed for participation in society, by preventing and addressing exclusion, and fighting all forms of discrimination leading to exclusion; that there is active social inclusion of all, by promoting participation in the labour market and by fighting poverty and exclusion; and that social inclusion policies are well-coordinated and involve all levels of government and relevant actors and that they are efficient and effective and mainstreamed into all relevant public policies.

Member countries are required to monitor progress against a number of commonly agreed social inclusion indicators. This includes analysis of the current situation concerning social exclusion, identification of key challenges, review of the effectiveness of existing policies and identification of key priorities for the future. In the context of the EU social inclusion process, poverty and social exclusion are relative concepts that encompass income, access to essential durables, education, health care, adequate housing and distance from the labour market.

As from June 2006, the indicators include 11 primary indicators, 3 secondary indicators and 11 context indicators. Most of the indicators have age and gender breakdowns. The primary indicators contain only the most important ones describing the various dimensions of poverty and social exclusion. They are:

- at-risk-of poverty rate (share of persons aged 0+ with an equivalised disposable income below 60% of the national equivalised median income);
- persistent at-risk-of poverty rate;
- relative median poverty risk gap (difference between the median equivalised income of persons aged 0+ below the at-risk-of poverty threshold and the threshold itself, expressed as a percentage of the at-risk-of poverty threshold);
- long term unemployment rate;
- population living in jobless households;
- early school leavers not in education or training;
- employment gap of immigrants;
- material deprivation (to be developed);
- housing (homelessness, housing costs and decent housing) (to be developed);
- unmet need for care by income quintile (to be developed);

- child well-being (to be developed).

Source: European Commission 2006

3.6.3 Value Added of Gender in Social Exclusion Statistics

To understand and address the gender-specific aspects of social exclusion, it is important to have reliable, sex-disaggregated statistics on its various dimensions. Gender differences are apparent in many of the commonly used indicators of social exclusion, with females facing greater risks of poorer outcomes in some areas and males in others. The magnitude of the gender gap varies according to the dimension of social exclusion that is being analysed and trends over time may indicate a widening or narrowing gap.

A gender perspective is also vital for understanding the extent and form of social exclusion among particular disadvantaged groups within the population of many countries. For example, some disadvantaged groups are predominantly female, such as lone parents. The intersection of gender and age in risks of social exclusion is another area where the issues are complex and changing.

Data on these gender differences can assist policymakers, program managers, service providers and researchers to identify the characteristics of those most in need and to put in place appropriate, gender-sensitive strategies and interventions for addressing the different forms of disadvantage that people are experiencing. Gender-relevant information can also help to inform public debate on social exclusion and to assess progress towards meeting national objectives in this area.

For example, the gender breakdowns that are available for the EU social inclusion indicators have added important insights in monitoring progress towards to the objective of preventing and alleviating poverty and social exclusion in EU member countries. Box 3.6B uses a report on the social situation in the EU to highlight the type of gender-relevant information that has helped to inform analysis and to evaluate policy measures in those countries.

Homelessness is one of the most extreme forms of social exclusion. In many countries it is a continuing public policy issue and often there are a range of programs to assist homeless people. These programs may target people with different needs, such as women and children escaping domestic violence, single men or women, young people, etc. In this context reliable information is needed on the social characteristics and geographical spread of homeless people, including their gender and age. Box 3.6C uses an example from Australia to show how data on gender can inform debate on this topic.

Box 3.6B Gender Analysis of Social Inclusion Indicators in European Union Countries

The report, *The Social Situation in the European Union 2005-06*, underlined the importance of equal opportunities for securing adequate incomes for families and protecting them against poverty. Among the gender-relevant findings relating to social inclusion were:

- The at-risk-of poverty rate for women was 3 percentage points higher than that for men in the

EU countries. The promotion of gender equality measures in social inclusion and social protection policies therefore was gaining in importance.

- Single parent families – typically single mothers - were much more at risk of poverty and social exclusion than the average, often reflecting the difficulty of reconciling full-time employment with family obligations. One third of them were exposed to poverty and social deprivation.
- Other groups with higher than average levels of poverty risk included women living alone, old people living alone, and couples with 3 or more children. For persons living in jobless households with children the risk was particularly acute.
- People most at risk of poverty – lone parents and couples with 3 or more children – could only afford low quality housing.
- Older people, single persons and lone parents were most likely to spend a high proportion of their disposable income (close to 60%) on essential items.
- Immigrant women faced particular challenges - their employment rate in 2005 was 15 percentage points lower than that of their EU national counterparts (the corresponding gap for men was smaller, 7.7 percentage points). The report concluded that these data showed the need for increased efforts to ensure social and labour market integration and better utilization of the employment potential of immigrant women.
- Female income from work was increasingly important for the living standards of the household. Analysis of child poverty across the EU indicated that child poverty was 3 to 4 times lower when the mother worked.
- Of 18-24 year olds, women (13%) were less likely than men (18%) to be not in education or training even though they had not completed a qualification beyond lower secondary schooling. The at-risk-of poverty rate was much higher among these early school leavers.
- Long term unemployment was more prevalent among females than males (4.6% compared with 3.5%).
- People in jobless households were at least 3 times more likely than those in working households to be living below the poverty line. Of people aged 18-59, 11% of women and 9% of men lived in such households.

Source: European Commission 2007

Box 3.6C Gender Dimensions of Homelessness in Australia

Homeless people are among the most marginalized people in Australia and their profile has been changing in recent years from predominantly older, lone men to include more women, youth and families. Factors ranging from increased family breakdown to changes in the labour market have been identified as influencing these changes. These findings resulted from an analytic study that used data from the 2001 Census of Population and Housing, modified with administrative and survey data, to estimate the number of homeless persons in 2001.

Other gender-specific findings included:

- Of the 99,900 homeless people in 2001, 58% were males and 42% females. In age groups above 34 years, men made up around two thirds of homeless people.
- There were more males than females in every segment of the homeless population except those in supported accommodation where males made up 47%. Supported accommodation agencies include many refuges for women escaping domestic violence.
- Most notable was the predominance of males in boarding houses (72%). There were also more males than females sleeping rough (61%), and staying with friends or relatives (53%).
- Although there were more males in the homeless population, women are now a substantial minority compared with 30-40 years ago.

Source: ABS 2003

3.6.4 Data Collection Methods

Types of Measures

As indicated earlier, the concepts of social exclusion, poverty and deprivation are overlapping and often the study of one involves consideration of the others. There are also no universally agreed definitions of these concepts and the aspects that are emphasized can vary considerably between countries, reflecting the wide variation in social conditions in different countries and differing national priorities. For this reason, the following discussion ranges across all three concepts and covers a number of aspects that are relevant for measuring each of them.

To produce gender-relevant measures of social exclusion, a key challenge is to determine what types of measures are most needed in the particular circumstances of a country. In some cases the priority may be to describe the nature and extent of social exclusion as it currently exists and to identify the trends that are emerging. This may require measures of the multiple disadvantage experienced by certain categories of people, including the impact on their lives and on the wider community.

In other cases the focus may be on the risks of certain individuals becoming socially excluded. This may require a range of indicators associated with particular dimensions of social exclusion or, conversely, social inclusion.

Whatever approach is chosen, measures of change over time and across population groups, with dissections by gender, are likely to be important for informing debate. There is also likely to be a need for contextual information on social inclusion, such as levels of participation in key activities by the population as a whole.

Data Sources

Many different data sources can be useful in producing measures of social exclusion. While population censuses, household sample surveys and administrative records can all provide valuable gender-relevant information, the sources that are most important depend on the types of measures required. In some cases it may be necessary to use a combination of data sources to derive a comprehensive measure of a particular aspect of social exclusion, such as homelessness. Box 3.6D looks in more detail at the variety of data sources that can be useful in measuring homelessness, based on experiences in Europe.

Surveys of income, expenditure and/or wealth can be particularly valuable in providing measures that relate to the *economic resources* dimension of social exclusion. For example, they can be used to identify households and individuals that have low income, low assets and low discretionary expenditure, and to examine their characteristics. They can also be used to produce measures of financial stress. Similarly, labour force surveys can be valuable for examining the *labour market participation* dimension of social exclusion, such as long term unemployment or jobless households. Living conditions surveys which explore a range of social issues and the inter-relationships between them can be valuable in studying the *social relations* dimension of social exclusion, as well as the interactions between the

different dimensions. For example, they can be useful in identifying people facing multiple disadvantage and in understanding their circumstances.

Longitudinal surveys, or longitudinal elements in cross-sectional surveys, can provide insights into the persistence of a particular situation, such as low income or joblessness, and the causal pathways and transitions involved. An example of a survey of this kind is the European Survey on Income and Living Conditions which was launched in EU member countries in 2004. The survey has both cross-sectional and longitudinal components, collects data on both income and living conditions, and is a key source for the EU's common indicators for social inclusion.

In some cases it may be necessary to conduct specially targeted surveys as those relating to the mainstream population may not adequately cover people who are not participating in society or are at high risk of dropping out (eg samples may be too small, or their designs may exclude certain living situations). Since social exclusion is often concerned with the things people miss out on doing, this can also present a challenge when identifying it because many sources tend to focus on identifying the things that people actually do.

In many countries administrative records can provide information on some aspects of the *services access* dimension of social exclusion, such as the characteristics of people who use special support facilities to meet basic accommodation, health care, transport etc needs. However, there can be limitations around the data from such sources for examining social exclusion issues, since many people with high risk of exclusion may not use such services. On the other hand, for some special groups shut off from society in institutions, such as those in prisons and correctional facilities, administrative data may be a particularly good source.

Box 3.6D Measuring Homelessness in Europe

A report on *Measuring Homelessness in Europe*, published by the European Commission in 2005, identified methods and practices to develop an information base for measuring homelessness and housing deprivation in EU member countries.

It recognized the role and value of different sources in collecting data on different categories of homeless people. In particular:

- information on people living in emergency accommodation and in homeless accommodation can be obtained from client record systems held by service providers (eg overnight shelters, homeless hostels, women's refuges);
- administrative data can provide information on people living in institutions (eg health care institutions, penal institutions);
- survey sources can be used to obtain information on people living rough (eg on the streets or in public spaces without a shelter) and people living temporarily with family and friends due to lack of housing; and
- census data can provide information on people living in non-conventional dwellings (eg mobile homes, temporary structures) due to lack of housing, and in some cases on people living temporarily with family and friends.

The report noted that these different sources can be used in combination and that they are essential parts of a strategy to measure homeless people. Among the methodological issues identified in the report were the need for standard core variables, the need for a comprehensive directory of service providers, and the use of unique identifiers to minimize double counting.

Source: European Commission 2007b

3.6.5 Other Measurement Issues

Role of Frameworks and Standards

For countries seeking reasonably comprehensive measures of social exclusion, it may be helpful to develop a framework within which the different dimensions can be systematically considered, the particular indicators for each dimension can be defined, and the data items needed to derive each indicator can be decided. A framework of this kind can also be a useful tool in presenting and analyzing the results.

In some cases it may be possible to define indicators in a way that aligns with international or national standards and guidelines for producing data in a particular field, such as unemployment or income. In other cases there may be no relevant standards and indicators may need to be developed from the ground up. Some countries have found that considerable development work is needed to produce useful measures on some topics directly concerned with or closely related to social exclusion, such as financial exclusion, material deprivation, financial stress, housing stress, emotional wellbeing, etc.

Avoiding Gender Bias

It is important that both female and male perspectives are taken into account when defining the various measures to be produced, developing the data items to be collected and framing questions for respondents to answer. Some of the data items used to assess the incidence of different forms of social exclusion can be quite subjective and there is considerable scope for gender bias unless particular care is taken to avoid it.

Low Economic Resources Indicators

There are no widely accepted measures of the extent to which people fall below minimum living standards and the numbers of people that fall below. Such people may be considered to be experiencing, or at risk of, poverty or social exclusion. However, it is possible to measure the economic situation of households that have lower levels of economic resources, such as income and wealth, and are therefore more likely to have standards of living below an acceptable minimum. It is also possible to identify the types of households that have lower levels of expenditure and therefore potentially also lower standards of living. Once such households have been identified, it is possible to analyse their characteristics, including the gender, age, and other characteristics of the individuals who belong to them.

In countries where household income is the major component of economic resources for most households, it is a key determinant of the economic situation of households. However it is not the only economic resource available. Households that have higher levels of wealth can utilize these assets to support a higher standard of living. Some countries produce measures that relate to households having both low levels of

income and low levels of wealth. For example, such measures - covering households with both income and wealth in the lowest three deciles - are produced in Australia. Similarly, it is possible to compare the expenditure of households in this low economic resources group with expenditure of all households in the population.

There are no uniform criteria for identifying low income households, or households with low economic resources or expenditure. Different thresholds are used in different countries and for different purposes. Many approaches involve median or mean measures that refer to a distribution that ranks all households in order of the size of their equivalised income, resources or expenditure. Household resources are chosen in preference to personal resources for developing these measures, in recognition of the sharing of resources that typically occurs between partners in a couple relationship and between parents and dependent children. To a lesser degree, there may also be sharing with other members of the household. Even where there is no transfer of resources involved, members of a household are likely to benefit from the economies of scale that arise from the sharing of dwellings.

However, larger households normally require a greater level of resources to maintain the same material standard of living as smaller households, and the needs of adults are normally greater than the needs of children. To assist analysis of the relative wellbeing of different households, estimates of household resources are often adjusted by equivalence factors to standardize them for household size and composition, while taking into account the economies of scale that arise from the sharing of dwellings. Although there is no standard equivalence scale, the modified OECD equivalence scale has wide acceptance in many countries.

Financial Stress Indicators

As there is no standard way to measure the total economic resources available to a household, or to measure the financial needs of a household, it can be useful to examine indicators of the economic situation of households which more directly identify people at risk of or actually falling below minimum acceptable living standards. For example, indicators identifying the different types of households experiencing high levels of financial stress may point to those most likely to have unacceptably low living standards. Box 3.6E provides an illustration of a summary indicator of this kind, using an example from Australia.

Box 3.6E Financial Stress Indicators in Australia

Several national household surveys conducted in Australia have included questions on financial stress. Respondents were asked about a number of potential symptoms of financial stress over the last 12 months, including whether they had various cash flow problems, such as being unable to pay certain bills on time; or whether they could not afford activities such as a night out once a fortnight, or a special meal once a week; or whether they had gone without food or heating because of a shortage of money.

Based on the information reported, a *high financial stress* indicator was developed. This summarized 15 individual financial stress indicators. Persons in households with high financial stress were defined as those people whose household reported an incidence of 5 or more out of the 15 individual indicators.

Source: ABS 2006c

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Chapter 4 Selected topics relevant to gender statistics and implications for data collection

4.1 Gender Employment Statistics

4.1.1 What it is

Labour segregation

The division of labour by gender refers primarily to the allocation of paid and unpaid work between women and men in private and public life. This division often reflects the traditional division of women's and men's roles in society, which results in women's work being often invisible and therefore undervalued in national accounts and in the labour statistics¹⁰

Informal employment

Informal employment and the related concept of the informal sector are relatively new topics in labour force statistics. In 1993 the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) adopted an international statistical definition of the informal sector to refer to employment and production that takes place in unincorporated small and/or unregistered enterprises. In 2003 the ICLS broadened the definition to include certain types of informal employment outside informal enterprises, for example casual or day labourers, industrial outworkers and unregistered or undeclared workers. Those working in informal wage employment generally are without formal contracts, worker benefits or social protection and therefore have little economic security.

Informal employment comprises a large and diverse category of workers which can be divided into the more homogenous categories, informal self-employment and informal wage employment, according to status in employment.

Informal self-employment includes:

- employers in informal enterprises
- own-account workers in informal enterprises
- unpaid family workers (in informal and formal enterprises)
- members of informal producers' cooperatives (where they exist)
- own account workers engaged in the production of goods exclusively for own final use by their household.

Informal wage employment covers informal employees holding informal jobs, employed by formal or informal enterprises or households: Employees are considered

¹⁰ ABC on Women Workers' Rights and Gender Equality, p. 35. (2003, ILO Geneva)

to have informal jobs, if their employment relationship is, in law or in practice, not subject to national labour legislation, income taxation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefits (e.g. advance notice of dismissal, severance pay, paid annual or sick leave). Informal wage employment is common among the following categories of employees:

- employees of informal enterprises
- casual or day labourers
- temporary or part-time workers
- paid domestic workers
- unregistered or undeclared workers
- industrial outworkers (also called homeworkers).

4.1.2 Why it is important

Women are more likely than men to undertake ‘unpaid’ activities, whether economic or noneconomic. Women are also more likely than men to be involved simultaneously in unpaid care work and in unpaid or low-paid economic activity. More generally, women are less likely than men to be engaged in full-time regular employment as ‘employees’ in formal sector enterprises, which is the simplest form of work to capture in surveys. Often the work of women is unrecognised by society, their families and even themselves. They are instead regarded as homemakers, and thus not economically active, even though they are engaged in economic work.

Gender-sensitive statistics are needed to understand how a range of different factors are affecting women and men, and especially those who are poor, and their families. These factors include:

- A large, and possibly expanding, informal economy;
- Globalisation – increased economic integration and advances in technology;
- The impact of work and lack of work on family and personal lives;
- The linkages between unpaid care work and production;
- The extent to which women and men are affected by decent work deficits: the lack of decent employment – work largely unprotected, lack of access to social protection, lack of representation and voice – largely speaking, those aspects that measure “quality” of work;
- The extent of lack of access to sufficiently remunerative employment and income, and poverty, which has direct linkage to economic well-being of people, particularly women; and
- Gender division of work, distribution of resources and assets – men and women do not have the same share of these within the household, the community, and the economy as a whole¹¹.

Political will and advocacy are necessary to ensure that reliable gender-sensitive statistics are produced, and used to promote a better understanding of the gender issues in a society and economy, and thus encourage political will to address them.

¹¹ Naoko Otobe, ILO, Geneva, at the validation workshop, Dhaka, August, 2005.

Occupation

Across the world, occupational segregation and clustering tends to be one of the key determinants of differentials in male and female earnings. In order to detect the impact of these differences, it is necessary to analyze occupations at a fairly detailed level. ISCO-88 is a hierarchical classification system, which has nine major groups at the most aggregated level. The third group covers all occupations relating to technicians and associate professionals and they are feminized in most countries¹².

Informal sector vs. informal economy

A large proportion of both women and men workers are in informal employment. Women are particularly likely to be found in subsistence or marginal agriculture, which is sometimes excluded from measurements of the informal sector. Where they are engaged in non-agricultural activities, they are more often than men considered to be contributing family workers, if they are considered as ‘working’ at all.

Place of work and work reconciliation

World-wide, women tend to work fewer hours in economic work than men, even when women’s labour force participation rates are similar to those of men. This pattern is largely a result of the fact that women tend to have more domestic roles and responsibilities than men. In particular, women tend to do more unpaid care work than men to the extent that the total working hours of women exceed those of men when the hours spent on economic work and unpaid care work are added together.

4.1.3 The value-added of statistics

Advocates for gender equality have long placed a high priority on improving data on women’s role in the economy. In 1975 the World Plan of Action for the Implementation of the Objectives of International Women’s Year adopted by the Mexico City Conference stressed that data on topics such as the “equality of opportunity and treatment for women workers and their integration in the labour force ...and their right to work, to equal pay for equal work, to equal conditions of work and to advancement” were essential in formulating policies and evaluating progress (United Nations, 1975, paras 88-107).

The 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) took up the topic of gender statistics and in its conclusions stressed the importance of mainstreaming gender in labour statistics not only to address gender concerns but also to understand labour market functioning more fully¹³. The ICLS recommended that labour statistics should satisfy the following four requirements:

- a) *They will be based on a political will at all levels, in the various data collection and analysis agencies and in all agencies which can provide administrative information;*
- b) *The data collection procedures for labour statistics will ensure that, as far as possible, all relevant topics for describing gender concerns are regularly*

¹² Mata Greenwood, A. (1999). “Gender issues in labour statistics”, *International Labour Review*, 138.3:273-86

¹³ Mata Greenwood, Adriana a. (2003). “Producing Labour Statistics that are useful for addressing gender concerns.” Room Document for XVII International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS/17/2003/RD.9), Geneva, 24 November – 3 December 2003.

included. Such topics may include employment in the informal economy, non-SNA work, employment by detailed occupations and status in employment categories, income from paid and self-employment, statistics on the life course, on lifelong learning and on working time;

- c) The data collection and processing procedures for labour statistics programmes will be designed to ensure that definitions and measurement methods cover and adequately describe all workers and work situations in sufficient detail to allow relevant gender comparisons to be made. Household and establishment-based surveys as well as administrative sources are valuable and, in particular, periodical time-use surveys are crucial;*
- d) The resulting statistics will always be presented as part of regular publications in a way that will clearly reveal differences and similarities between men and women in the labour market and the factors that may influence their situations. This can be done by (i) presenting relevant topics in sufficient and relevant detail and by (ii) providing statistics according to relevant descriptive variables, e.g. personal and family circumstances, work environment and institutional setting.*

It is noteworthy that the list begins with the need for “political will” because what is required to truly mainstream gender in labour statistics goes beyond the simple requirement of disaggregation of labour statistics by sex to focus on the deep and complex issues which must be addressed in the development of statistics on the economic roles of women and men. The changes required are far-reaching. An examination of national statistics in terms of these four requirements is an important exercise in planning a country’s gender statistics programme. It will reveal the strengths and weakness of the statistics currently available and the need for and feasibility of improvements.

The challenge underlying the second requirement is that the economic activities of women are different than those of men and they tend not to be described fully by the standard topics used in labour force statistics. For this reason, the manual gives special attention to topics which are essential in fully describing women’s economic activities and their differences with men’s. Informal sector/informal employment, entrepreneurship, agricultural statistics and the gender pay gap, encompassing earnings from both wage and from self-employment will be considered in special sections that will follow.

The importance of *informal employment* and its role as a source of employment for women is increasingly recognised. Informal employment comprises one half to three-quarters of non-agricultural employment in developing countries and it is especially important in describing women’s employment throughout the developing world (ILO, 2002). Data disaggregated by informal and formal employment and employment status provide new information on the differences in the opportunities and earnings of women and men in the labour market:

- **informal** employment is generally a larger source of employment for women than **formal** employment (ILO, 2002);
- in most developing countries it is a larger source of employment for women than for men (ILO, 2002);
- women are concentrated in the more precarious types of informal employment (Chen et.al, 2006);

- the average earnings from these types of informal employment are low, generally lower than men's in a given employment status and not sufficient in the absence of other sources of income to raise households out of poverty (Chen et al., 2006).

In developed countries employment arrangements which are consistent with the concept of informal employment are also important and even growing in importance. Own-account self employment, part-time and temporary wage employment – including fixed term/contract, casual, seasonal and on-call work and work through a temporary agency are more typically classified as non-standard employment because they differ from the full-time, full year job with benefits and labour and social protection but all are types of informal employment. Again these arrangements are a more important source of employment for women than for men. For example, in many OECD countries there are more women than men in part-time employment (both wage and self-employment) and in temporary jobs. The so-called flexibility of these jobs is often viewed positively, especially for women allowing them to combine paid work with unpaid family responsibilities. However there is some evidence based on data for Canada that an earnings penalty is associated with these jobs and that this penalty is greater for women than for men¹⁴.

In addition, informal employment is becoming important in countries in transition from a centrally planned to a market economy. Under the centrally-planned economy, informal activities were considered illegal and even forbidden. Now in countries of Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) such activities increasingly have a role in creating jobs, in providing income, and in the production of goods and services. In Moldova, for example, the 2003 Labour Force Survey showed that 38 per cent of the total employed population were in informal employment with roughly similar proportions of employed women and men in these jobs (39 per cent for women in contrast to 38 per cent men)¹⁵. However underlying the similarities in general rates are very different types of work. When each of the standard classifications of economic activity are disaggregated by sex and formal/informal employment, new information is revealed about the highly gendered nature of work. The Moldova data show that while men are more often than women engaged in agriculture, forestry and fishing, men predominate in formal employment in this branch of economic activity while women are in informal employment. Further, disaggregation showed that as much as 80 per cent of women's employment in the informal sector is in the traditional branches of agriculture, forestry and fishing rather than the potentially more lucrative branches of economic activity. Women's economic activity tends to be in the small subsidiary plots (which are not registered as agricultural holdings) of households, on which they produce agricultural goods wholly or partly for the market (sale or barter).

The general category wage employment also conceals important differences in the quality of employment for women and men in this region. An ILO study in five countries of Eastern Europe found that women tend to be disproportionately

¹⁴ Chen, Martha, Joann Vanek, Francie Lund, James Heintz with Renana Jhabvala and Christine Bonner (2005). *Progress of the World's Women 2005: Women, Work and Poverty*. United Nations Development Fund for Women: New York.

¹⁵ ILO Bureau of Statistics in collaboration with the Department of Statistics and Sociology of the Republic of Moldova (2004). "Employment in the informal economy in the Republic of Moldova. International Labour Office Bureau of Statistics Working Paper No. 41. Geneva.

represented in flexible or informal employment arrangements such as part time work (often involuntary) and employment on fixed term contracts¹⁶. These types of employment are generally connected with lower quality employment and insecurity since they typically do not carry adequate social protection.

An additional problem is that **definitions and classifications** of economic activity often do not describe the activities that women perform as well as those of men. Women more often than men work in “atypical” situations in informal, irregular and unpaid work outside of formal establishments. Characteristics of such jobs are often described with less detail or in other biased ways in classifications of status of employment and occupations than more formal types of work. For example, the international standard classification of occupations (ISCO) tends to have fewer subdivisions of occupations in which women predominate (such as secretary), while the occupations which are male-dominated (such as craftsperson) are more finely delineated¹⁷. ISCO 1988 tries to name all occupations in a gender-neutral way, for example to use ‘firefighter’ rather than ‘fireman’ and ‘flight attendant’ rather than ‘air hostess’; however these terms are often not used in national codes. As a result, women in such occupations may not be correctly classified. Further, the occupation “sex worker” is significant for women in some countries, but it is included only implicitly, in the 4-digit level sub-category, “other personal service workers not elsewhere classified.” Efforts are being made to include “sex worker” as an explicit category in the ongoing ISCO revision (ISCO-08).

Moreover to measure women’s and men’s activities equally well, care must be taken in the application of basic definitions. For example, the working age population is often classified as either economically active or unemployed. However the situation is more complex for women and requires use of the full classification scheme, including the category “not currently active” as well as the categories “economically active” and “unemployed”. “Seeking work” is a central criterion in the measurement of unemployment; however it tends to be a more relevant criterion for men than for women. Many women who are available for work and take jobs, if offered, do not “seek” work because this activity requires time and mobility which women often lack given their family responsibilities. The importance of giving attention to the category “not currently active” is shown especially in transition countries in explaining sex differentials in unemployment. The much higher unemployment rates for men than for women in this region do not mean that women are more successful in finding employment. As noted in a World Bank report, in times of limited availability of job opportunities and less generous family and social policies to assist employed women with their family responsibilities, women may become more easily discouraged than men in their job search and would be counted as inactive rather than unemployed¹⁸.

There are also biases in the application of the status of employment classification. Women working in the family farm or shop are often counted automatically as unpaid family workers even when they are working on an equal footing with their husbands.

¹⁶ Cazes, Sandrine and Alena Mesporova (2003). Labour Markets in Transition: Balancing Flexibility and Security in Central and Eastern Europe. International Labour Office: Geneva

¹⁷ Anker, Richard (1998). Gender and Jobs: Sex Segregation of Occupation in the World Geneva: International Labour Office.

¹⁸ Paci, Pierella. (2002). Gender in Transition. Washington, D.C: The World Bank. Statistics Sweden (2006). Women and Men in Sweden: Facts and Figures 2006. Stockholm: Forecasting Institute Statistics Sweden.

In such cases international classifications recommend they should be identified as employers or own account workers.

Time-use surveys

Statistics on economic activity capture only one part of the work life of women and men. A range of productive activities in the home - although not classified as economic - have great importance in the hours worked and in the well-being of families, and in the overall productivity of the economy. Traditionally these activities have been mainly performed by women and this has had important effects on women's participation in the labour force and their economic security. Efforts to redress and monitor this imbalance require data on total working time and on how women and men balance their working life with other obligations in the family. Advocates have pressed national statistical offices to collect data on new topics. One source of data to shed light on these issues is time-use surveys. In the past many statistical offices collected time use data but often these surveys focused on leisure time-use rather than total work time in both paid and unpaid activities.

Data may also be collected by a series of questions added to a labour force survey. To provide such data, the European Union has developed a module on the reconciliation of work and family life to be included in labour force surveys. This module was carried out across the EU countries in the 2nd quarter of 2005. It was asked of persons aged 15-64 with a child aged under 15 living with them. The module established the type of childcare used, if any and whether the person voluntarily took care of ill, disabled, elderly relatives or friends aged 15 or over. Such persons were asked whether they would like to change the organisation of his/her working life and care responsibilities. The change could be to reduce or increase caring time. The person interviewed was then asked further questions in relation to reasons for not working.

The indicators have two main purposes: (i) to assess different lifestyles through the distribution and allocation of time; and (ii) to understand the role of men and women in contributing to the well-being of families, communities and the nation. The former has traditionally been the objective of time-use surveys in developed countries. The second is increasingly important and is the main reason for undertaking time-use surveys today in both developed and developing countries. The work of women is often inadequately measured, especially if carried out within the household. Time-use data are uniquely able to measure the different activities of women and men in the economic/non-economic dichotomy of national accounting¹⁹.

Employed women, aged 25 to 54, who lived with a child under age 6 spent about an hour less per day on average working than employed women living in households without children. On the other hand, employed men living with a child under age 6 worked about the same amount of time as those living in households without children²⁰.

¹⁹ <http://www.un.org/esa/sustdev/sdissues/consumption/cpp1224m15.htm>

²⁰ American Time Use Survey, <http://www.bls.gov/tus/charts/work.htm>

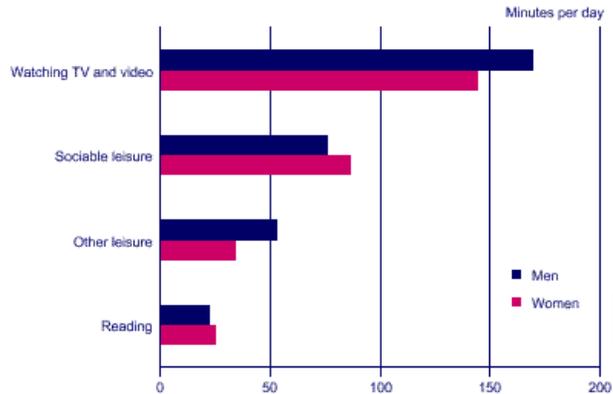
Men have on average 30 minutes more free time than women although this is to some extent compensated for by the extra 20 minutes women spend sleeping on average. Less free time is enjoyed by men and women when there are children in the household. Men aged 16-49 with children of pre-school age have 231 minutes free compared to 348 minutes for those without dependant children²¹.

Differences in the economic activities of women and men also create challenges for the data collection and processing procedures for labour statistics programmes to ensure that definitions and methods fully cover and adequately describe all workers and work situations. Women's employment is more likely than men's to be casual, part time, unpaid, seasonal, carried out close to, or in, the home and integrated with unpaid housework. When work is of this nature, often neither the woman herself nor the interviewer will consider that she is engaged in economic activity. Steps must be taken in the design of questionnaires, in the formulation of questions and in interviewer training to ensure proper identification of a woman's status in terms of economic activity. In addition, the seasonal nature of activities involves sampling issues. Statisticians have done a lot over the years to develop **measurement methods** to improve the capture of women's economic activities but these improvements have still not been adopted by many countries (for a discussion of best practices in this respect see: Hussmanns et al., 1990; United Nations 1988; United Nations 1993).

²¹ Source: 2000 and 2005 Time Use Survey, Office for National Statistics UK, <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/ccj/nugget.asp?id=7>

Time spent on leisure activities: by sex, 2005, Great Britain

Men in Great Britain were more likely than women to watch TV or listen to the radio and take part in 'other leisure' activities including sport, entertainment, hobbies and using the computer (224 minutes per day compared with 180 minutes per day for women in 2005). Women were more likely than men to spend time reading or socialising with other people (113 minutes per day compared with 100 minutes per day).

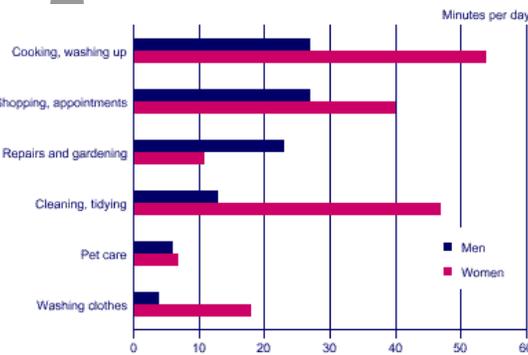


Time spent on leisure activities: by sex, 2005, GB

Computers are increasingly used at home for a range of activities, such as contact with friends, helping the children with homework and listening to music. On average, men spent 28 minutes per day using a computer and women 13 minutes.

In 2006, 65 per cent of men and 55 per cent of women had accessed the Internet, whether at home or elsewhere, in the three months before interview. Of these, men used the Internet more regularly with nearly two thirds (64 per cent) using it every day or almost every day, compared with 54 per cent of women.

Internet shopping is becoming increasingly popular. A slightly higher proportion of men than women used the Internet to purchase goods or services associated with leisure, such as travel, accommodation or holidays (53 per cent of men compared with 48 per cent of women) and videos or DVDs (45 per cent compared with 39 per cent). Conversely a higher proportion of women than men used the Internet to purchase clothing or sports goods (42 per cent of women and 34 per cent of men), and food and groceries (25 per cent of women and 16 per cent of men).



Time spent on housework: by sex, 2005, Great Britain

Women in Great Britain spent more time on shopping and other domestic work in 2005 than on paid work, 228 minutes and 146 minutes respectively. In comparison, men spent more time on paid work

(225 minutes) than on domestic work (129 minutes). If paid work and domestic work are combined, women still spent 20 minutes more on average per day on work than men.

Overall, women carried out about two thirds of the time spent on housework (178 minutes a day compared with 100 minutes for men). Women spent more time than men cooking and washing up, cleaning and tidying, washing clothes and shopping (159 minutes per day compared with 71 minutes per day for men). Men spent more time performing DIY repairs and gardening (23 minutes per day compared with 11 minutes per day for women).

Sources:

Time Use Survey 2005 (collected on the NS Omnibus survey), Office for National Statistics; Internet access 2006, (collected on the NS Omnibus Survey), Office for National Statistics. Note: Other leisure is sport, entertainment, hobbies and using the computer.

4.1.4 Implication for data collection

The methods used to measure the various labour topics will also affect the ability of the resulting statistics to reveal possible gender differences. Labour statistics are collected through household-based surveys, establishment-based surveys or administrative records. Each methodology has distinct features regarding coverage of workers, work situations and the control they have over the type and range of data which can be collected. To understand the strengths and limitations of each source and to interpret the resulting statistics correctly, it is important to be aware of these differences.

Statistics on the structure and characteristics of the labour force should be disaggregated by variables which reflect the workers' personal and family situations, to explain the labour force participation and behaviour of women as compared to men in a more holistic way. Variables related to men's and women's personal and family circumstances include their age, their level of education, whether there are children in the household who need care, whether there are adults requiring assistance in the household etc. All these factors constrain in different ways the time and energy which women and men can dedicate to "economic" work. In many societies, a person's marital status will also strongly influence their participation in the labour force, and in societies practicing polygamy, a variable which deserves attention is the rank within the marriage. The type of household (e.g. single parent, female headed, etc.) to which the person belongs can also be used as a descriptive variable.

Informal employment: issues in data collection and dissemination

More and more countries are collecting data on employment in the informal sector and informal employment outside the informal sector. Among these are several countries in transition which for the first time are undertaking labour force surveys. Even when a country has not specified informal sector and informal employment as objectives in a data collection effort, it may be possible to produce tabulations on these variables. If there are questions on size of enterprise and on whether the enterprise is registered, statistics on employment in the informal sector may be prepared. Moreover if there are questions on social protection or other employment

benefits - specifically the payment of social security contributions or the existence of paid leave - informal employment can be distinguished from formal.

For developed countries, data are generally collected on types of work that are commonly found in the informal economy, such as part-time, temporary and own-account work. Although data collection and the standard tabulations do not distinguish these arrangements as informal employment, such tabulations can be used to provide information on the existence of and trends in informal employment arrangements in developed countries.

It is preferable, of course, if data on informal employment and employment in the informal sector are collected as part of an overall strategy on the production of labour and economic statistics²². Another ILO Bureau of Statistics Working Paper, “Employment in the informal economy in the Republic of Moldova (ILO: 2004) provides information on the questions used in the Moldova Labour Force Survey from 2003 as well as a statistical annex on the results (see Box 2).

In tabulation and analysis, informal and formal employment can be used as broad categories for presenting all major classifications of economic activity. For example, all tables in the Moldova report referenced above are presented using formal and informal employment and sex as basic categories of disaggregation, including branch of economic activity, occupation, status in employment. Further, additional tables are disaggregated by type of unit: formal sector enterprises, informal sector enterprises and households.

More generally, informal employment is a key category specified in a background indicator “gender differences in the structure of employment” recommended by the Gender Indicators Sub-group of the Inter-Agency and expert Group on the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) for monitoring progress in achieving women’s equality and empowerment, the goal of MDG 3. This indicator presents data on the employment of women and men in the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors, formal and informal employment and status in employment – employers, own-account workers, wage employees, contributing family workers, or domestic workers. This broader indicator was considered necessary given problems in interpreting the employment indicator for MDG 3, non-agricultural wage employment. In many developing countries, non-agricultural wage employment is only a small percentage of total employment. Moreover it includes various types of employment which vary in terms of earnings, social protection and security. These features underlying the indicator make it difficult to interpret any change in women’s share of non-agricultural wage employment as progress or lack thereof. The more detailed and comprehensive information provided by this “background indicator” will facilitate monitoring whether progress is being made.

Box 2

*Questions relating to informal employment and informal sector: Moldova
Labour Force Survey as from 2003*

²² Guidelines for this are found in an ILO Bureau of Statistics Working Paper, “Measuring the informal economy: from employment in the informal sector to informal employment” (Husmanns: 2004)

For the identification and description of production units (enterprises) considered as belonging to the informal sector the following additional questions were introduced in the LFS questionnaire:

- a) Legal organisation of the enterprise, in which the interviewed person was employed:
- Enterprise, organisation, institution (with the status of a legal person);
 - Individual agricultural enterprise;
 - Individual enterprise or partnership (without status of a legal person);
 - Individual work activity (own-account worker);
 - Private household;
 - Does not know.
- b) Registration of the enterprise:
- Registered;
 - In the process of registration;
 - Not registered;
 - Does not know.
- c) Size of the establishment (number of persons engaged):
- 1-4;
 - 5-9;
 - 10-19;
 - 20-49;
 - 50-99;
 - 100-199;
 - 200 and more;
 - More than 9;
 - Does not know.
- If less than 10: Exact number of persons engaged in the establishment.
- d) Kind of work place:
- Home of the interviewed person;
 - Enterprise, plant, factory, office, shop, workshop, etc. separate from the person's home;
 - Farm or agricultural land;
 - Client's or employer's house;
 - Construction site;
 - Market or street stall;
 - Without fixed location;
 - Other (specify).

Only questions a) and b) were used to define the Informal Sector.

All of these questions were asked in respect of the respondents' main activities as well as secondary activities. These questions were addressed to all employed persons except household producers of agricultural goods. For producers of agricultural goods exclusively for own consumption by their household a question was added on the number of hours worked in this activity during the survey reference week. Persons, who had worked less than 20 hours in the production of agricultural goods exclusively for own consumption by their household, were not considered as being employed. Regarding the identification of employees in informal employment the following additional questions were introduced in the LFS questionnaire for testing:

- Type of employment contract or agreement (written; oral);
- Payment by the employer of social contributions for the employee (yes, certainly; possibly; no; does not know);
- Possibility to benefit from paid annual leave (yes; no; does not know);
- Possibility to benefit from paid sick leave in case of illness (yes; no; does not know);
- Possibility to benefit from maternity leave in case of birth of a child (yes, certainly; possibly; no; does not know; not applicable);

Only questions 2, 3 and 4 were used to **define** informal wage employment.

A question on the permanency of the job (permanent vs. temporary job) had already been included in the LFS questionnaire prior to 2003.

These questions were only addressed to employees. (As from 2004, all the questions were asked in respect of the main **and** the secondary job.)

In addition, a probing question referring to the most common types of informal activities in the Republic of Moldova was included among the lead survey questions on employment during the survey reference week and on the engagement in secondary activities. This was because persons could only be classified as being employed in the informal sector or in informal jobs, if they had been identified as employed persons in the first place. Unless such a probing question had been included in the survey questionnaire, there would have been a risk of informal activities not being reported by respondents as employment.

Reconciliation of work and family life module

In 2005 data were collected by a module added to the Labour Force Survey in the EU. The formal decision was explained as follows: “There is a need for a comprehensive and comparable dataset on reconciliation between work and family life, as referred to in the EU gender policy objectives on employment indicated under Pillar IV of the 2002 Employment Guidelines “Enabling women and men to reconcile work and family life” as adopted by the Council on 18 February 2002 and under Pillar VI of the 2003 Employment Guidelines “Gender equality” as adopted by the Council on 22 July 2003.”

The data collected in the 25 EU-countries are not as yet available, but will be so presumably before mid 2007. The results will be used to evaluate actual labour market policies and to develop new policy initiatives at the national as well as EU-level. In the Netherlands similar data (but collected some years before on a national scale) were used in the development of measures like the Life course savings schema (see under Gender Budget Analyses).

The module on reconciliation of work and family life was carried out across the EU in quarter 2 2005 (March to May). It was asked of people aged 15-64 with a child aged under 15 living with them. The module established the type of childcare used, if any, and whether the person voluntarily took care of ill, disabled, elderly relatives or friends aged 15 or over. Such persons were asked whether they would like to change the organisation of his/her working life and care responsibilities. The change could be to reduce or increase caring time. The interviewee was then asked further questions in relation to reasons for not working more, availability of flexible work practices, and use of special and parental leave²³.

Use of Labour Force Survey for gender modules in Ireland

The Labour Force Survey in Ireland is carried out as an ongoing survey (Quarterly National Household Survey) with results published every quarter. The survey is conducted by means of personal interviews and the information is recorded directly onto laptops. Households are interviewed for five consecutive

²³ http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/site/en/oj/2004/l_005/l_00520040109en00570060.pdf

quarters with the first interview being the most time-consuming as details are being collected for the first time whereas in subsequent quarters they are checked and updated. The CSO also carries out a broad range of special modules in conjunction with the LFS interview. Typically the first quarter module is a combination of one or two key update questions from previous full modules. For example, there are two questions on disability included in the first quarter module (December to February). These provide annual updated information on the key aspects of the full module on disability that was undertaken in 2002. The second quarter module is reserved for an EU wide Eurostat module. The modules in quarters 3 and 4 are either repeats of previous full modules (every 5 years based on demand) or new modules. Examples of the range of topics that have been covered includes: pensions, childcare, educational attainment, union membership, equality, crime and victimisation, housing and ICT. These modules provide a relatively low cost basis for collecting specialised data that may not warrant an independent survey. They also provide an opportunity for users to be consulted in the formulation of the module²⁴.

Time-use statistics

Time-use data provide information that is generally not easily available from other sources. At the micro-level, Sabbadini suggested that time-use data make it possible to analyse issues such as:

- the division of domestic and other workloads between male and female;
- how women and men, girls and boys use their time;
- the way gender differences in time use develop during the various stages of life;
- the relationship between (paid) working time and time spent in studying, on other productive activities, leisure time and family care;
- surveys and the national accounts;
- use of public services;
- use of leisure time; and
- use of mass media and IT.

At macro level time-use data facilitate better planning, such as:

- family policies that make it easier for women and men to combine work activities and family duties and attend to the needs of the young, aged, sick and disabled;
- a labour policy that provides more adequately for those engaged in non-traditional forms of work;
- a transport system that provides better for the daily and more occasional needs of the full range of people in the country;
- better planning and organisation of general services.

Some might argue that these studies are extremely expensive, and the type of information

gathered does not justify this expenditure. In South Africa, the time use study conducted in 2000 was justified largely on the basis of its contribution to a better understanding of economic activity, among others. The executive summary to the report read as follows:

²⁴ http://www.cso.ie/qnhs/spe_mod_qnhs.htm

The aim of the survey was to provide information on the way in which different individuals in South Africa spend their time. Such information contributes to greater understanding of policy-makers of the economic and social well-being of different groups. In particular, the study was intended to provide new information on the division of both paid and unpaid labour between women and men, and greater insight into less well understood productive activities such as subsistence work, casual work and work in the informal sector.

The survey thus had dual objectives:

1. improvement of concepts, methodology and measurement of all types of work related activity, and
2. the feeding of information into better policy-making, with a particular focus on gender equity (Budlender et al, 2001: 1).

Time-use diaries are generally accepted as collecting the most accurate data in this area. Because of the relatively resource-intensive nature of the studies, they will, at best, only be done at about five-yearly intervals. Many countries conduct time-use surveys less often than this. In the interim period, or if full time-use studies are not immediately feasible, a range of cruder methods are available. Since 1996 the Canadian Census had included stylised question about unpaid work and, in particular, time spent caring for children and elders and time spent on unpaid domestic work. This instrument provides information for small geographical areas. For more detailed analyses and understanding, Canada also has a General Social Survey on time use which, alongside the detailed time diary, collects information on labour market and family characteristics, and subjective questions about work/family balance, well being and enjoyment of activities. The first such survey was conducted in 1986, with further surveys undertaken in 1992 and 1998.

Eurostat has done extensive work in developing a standard suggested approach for time-use studies in Europe. At an international level, the Statistics Division of the UN Department of Social and Economic Affairs has recently produced a *Guide to Producing Statistics on Time Use: Measuring Paid and Unpaid Work* which is intended (a) as a reference tool for countries planning time-use surveys; (b) to encourage harmonisation of methods; and (c) to solicit feedback on the trial International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics (ICATUS). The Statistics Division has also developed a website (<http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/sconcerns/tuse/tu1.aspx>) that contains questionnaires and other documents from a range of countries.

One of the potential uses of time-use data is for the elaboration of satellite national accounts, as suggested by the SNA, which reflect unpaid care work.

The Irish National Time-Use Survey 2005

The Irish National Time-Use Survey 2005 was a pilot survey conducted by the Economic and Social Research Institute for the NDP Gender Equality Unit of the Department of Justice, Equality, and Law Reform.

It collected for the first time detailed national time-use statistics on Irish women and men's daily activities. Just over 1,000 adults filled out two diaries that provided a complete record of their activities

over a 24 hour period – one diary was completed for a weekday and another for a weekend day. A light-diary approach was used whereby respondents chose an activity from a pre-defined set of activities.

These results provided nationally representative and accurate estimates of the amount of time people in Ireland spend on a wide range of activities from watching TV and volunteering, through to cleaning, childcare, travelling and employment. The results also quantified for the first time important differences in the time-use of women and men, such as differences in the time spent on caring and unpaid household work and differences in leisure time and leisure activities. These data also filled an important gap in comparative research, since up until now Ireland was one of the few countries in the developed world not to have time-use data.

Source: <http://www.ucd.ie/issda/dataset-info/timeuse.htm>

4.1.5 Further reading

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4.2 Entrepreneurship

4.2.1 What it is

There is not a commonly accepted definition of entrepreneurship or entrepreneur and there are different understandings of the phenomenon. One definition is that “entrepreneurship is a phenomenon in the economy by which individuals or companies assume risks to create something new in order to reap the benefits from the new venture”²⁵. This very broad definition would also allow the inclusion of aspects such as intrapreneurship (entrepreneurship possibilities within a given company).

Definitions used by countries to collect and or disseminate data on women’s and men’s entrepreneurship include concepts such as *owners, managers, self-employed, and employers* but different approaches are often used when these concepts are defined and put into the context of entrepreneurship.

An entrepreneur may be defined as the owner or manager of an enterprise, its executive director, or a member of its managing board. Self-employed people are also commonly considered to be entrepreneurs, but not all data sources include self-employment in their definition of entrepreneurship. Self-employment itself can be defined in multiple ways according to the different goals of various sources. For example, not all countries in the UNECE region use the standard guidelines of the International Labour Organization (ILO) for defining self-employment.

The lack of a common framework for defining entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship makes it difficult to have one internationally recognised definition. Different countries pursue different objectives through entrepreneurship so no single definition would satisfy all. The links between entrepreneurship and the objectives that countries pursue through entrepreneurship should be clear.

4.2.2 Why it is important

Entrepreneurship is an important part of the national economy. It is an important factor in creating and increasing employment opportunities and fuelling economic growth. For many years, policymakers have identified entrepreneurs as important drivers for employment, innovation and economic growth²⁶.

Entrepreneurship is viewed as a critical activity to regenerate and sustain economic growth in strong economies and also as a means of boosting employment and

²⁵ ?From Pieter Gardener version

²⁶Understanding entrepreneurship: Developing indicators for international comparisons and assessments, OECD, STD/CSTAT, 2006

productivity in deprived regions or in developing countries, as it is an important source of job creation, career opportunities and poverty reduction for both men and women.

According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Report on Women and Entrepreneurship regardless of country, men are more likely to be involved in entrepreneurial activity than women.²⁷ Examination of entrepreneurial behavior across the globe yields a clear picture of a gender gap in venture creation and ownership activity. The entrepreneurial gender gap exhibits varying dimension and characteristics, a significant gender gap exists for both early stage entrepreneurial participation and established business ownership, and this gender gap is greatest in the high-income country group, regardless of type of activity.

In the Beijing Platform for Action one of the means of improving women's employability, in the context of increasing flexibilities in labour markets, is fostering women's access to self-employment and entrepreneurship. However, policies aimed at supporting entrepreneurship development tend to be gender neutral.

The OECD notes that the reduction of women's barriers to market access, the improvement of their position within the value chain and the enhancement of their productivity is likely to benefit local, national and regional economies as well as households²⁸. Overall, the data shows that women entrepreneurs across all types of countries and economies have an important impact on the economy through creating jobs for themselves and for others. This is of social and economic importance to their economies.

²⁷ The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) 2006 Report on Women and Entrepreneurship, Babson College, and London Business School, 2007

²⁸ OECD, Enhancing Women's Market Access and Promoting Pro-poor Growth, Promoting Pro-Poor Growth, Private Sector Development, Chapter 5, 2006.

Economic impact of women entrepreneurs*

Canada, 2000 (The Prime Minister's Task Force on Women Entrepreneurs Report and Recommendations). There are more than 821,000 women entrepreneurs and they contribute to an excess of CAD 18,109 billion to the economy annually. Between 1981 and 2001, the number of women entrepreneurs increased 208%, compared with a 38% increase for men. Average annual sales for women-owned firms are significantly lower. In 2000, women-owned SMEs averaged CAD 311,289 in sales, compared with 654,294 in sales for firms owned by men.

Germany, 2000 (Kay, R., 2003. *Female Entrepreneurs in Germany*. Bonn, Germany: Institut für Mittelstandsforschung.). There are a total of 1.03 million women-owned businesses in Germany. Women-owned and managed businesses having annual turnover of at least €16,620 number 522,000. This represents 18% of the total in this group, and provides jobs for 2 million employees. Their turnover is in total €232 billion, approximately 6% of the overall turnover or 11% of the turnover gained by owner managed firms.

Sweden, 2001 (ITPS, 2002). Women start 28% of genuinely new firms and employ on average 0.6 full time employees compared 1.7 for men.

United State, 2002 (US Census). Women owned and managed firms represent 28% of the 23 million firms (6.4 million) and they provide employment for 9.2 million people. That represents 9% of all employed in the private sector.

Source: Promoting entrepreneurship and innovative SMEs in a global economy, OECD, 2004.

* These studies define women's entrepreneurship as firms owned and managed by women.

Overall, women still represent only a minority of all entrepreneurial and SME owners. Women's business is mainly concentrated in the areas of small-scale entrepreneurship, which primarily includes retail and service. They are still represented as a minority of those who started business, are self-employed, or manage an SME type of a business.

Women entrepreneurs in some transition countries

Women entrepreneurs are less numerous than men in all transition countries. In countries for which there are data, men start their own businesses twice as often as women. In 2000 only 9% of employed women were entrepreneurs in the Czech Republic as compared to 18.8% of men. The situation was similar in Hungary (women 9.6% and men 18.7%) as well as in Romania, though the proportion of self-employed women is higher due to the larger share of self-employed in agriculture (women 17.4% and men 32.6%). The gender gap in entrepreneurship was even higher in Slovakia and Slovenia, where women's share was respectively 4.1% (men 10.9%) and 6.5% (men 15.3%). These proportions were slightly better in Bulgaria, Croatia, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. In most countries, however, the gap between men and women in entrepreneurial activities had widened in many of these countries during the 1990s.

These trends reflect a loss of potential for job creation and growth as shown by many developed countries, where women-run enterprises are the most dynamic segment of the SMEs sector. In 2002, women-owned firms in the US employed nearly 9.2 million workers, up 30% from 1997, which reflects a growth rate that is between one-and one-half times the national average.

Source: Women entrepreneurship in Eastern Europe and CIS countries, 2004

Immigration is often an important parameter of entrepreneurship. In many instances, immigrants cannot easily find employment in the country of their destination and therefore establish themselves in new ventures. These can be family enterprises such as pizzerias. Like all ventures, some grow and move on from a small, family-operated business without any paid employees to a large employer.

In order to realise the objectives of further implementing the United Nations global mandate on gender equality by promoting the economics of gender as a factor of sustained growth, it is important to incorporate the gender entrepreneurial dimension in considering all SME and growth policies²⁹. In order to develop these policies and respond to them there is a need for a clear understanding of the nature of women's and men's entrepreneurship and for accurate, comparable, timely and sex disaggregated data on financing, training, regulatory and legal environment of entrepreneurship.

4.2.3 The value-added of statistics

In order to develop policies that take into consideration their different impact on women and men entrepreneurs, policy makers need accurate, comparable and reliable data. For this purpose, it is necessary to identify the policy relevant issues of women and men entrepreneurs in order to clarify the objectives of any data collection. Gender statistics on entrepreneurship can be used effectively to:

- Make a significant and sustained impact on policy-makers of the value of female and male entrepreneurs to the national economy.
- Provide a better understanding of the factors that influence entrepreneurs.
- Provide a better understanding of female and male participation rates in entrepreneurship and its sectoral specifications.
- Incorporate a gender entrepreneurial dimension in considering all SMEs and growth policies (e.g. the administrative burden in the form of taxes and accounting etc.; addressing women's and men's financing needs for all stages of business; policy coordination and leadership; promotion; training and mentoring; business support and information; associations and networks; regulatory and legal environment; technology access and utilisation: R&D and innovation).
- Make mainstream policies, research and programmes gender sensitive and take into account the specific needs of women and men entrepreneurs at their start-up and growth oriented stages.
- To profile women and men entrepreneurs, demographic information would help to promote awareness of their role in the economy.
- Monitoring the effectiveness and impact of government policies, programmes and initiatives on SMEs and entrepreneurship development.

Specific analyses of gender effects in entrepreneurship are still at the early stage. It is important that sex, as a fundamental variable, immigration, and the age of the entrepreneur are identified. While statistics generally serve to gauge the effects of past

²⁹ Declaration for the Sixtieth Anniversary of the UNECE, 26 April 2007, Geneva

policy decisions, they also assist investigation of future policy options. If, for example, entrepreneurship statistics yield diverging results by gender, then future policy measures could accordingly be more appropriately directed towards women or men.

To offer the best possible support there is also a strong need for better knowledge about women and men entrepreneurs and statistical information on them. There is need for information on: who they are, what kinds of businesses they run, and how women are faring compared to men. The extant data often suffers from a lack of standard definitions and a lack of consistency among available data sources.

The OECD, in its research on women's entrepreneurship³⁰, has shown that a key determinant relates to women's overall position in society. They note that being female creates the problem. Specific responsibilities (e.g., family-related) need to be overcome for them to have similar access to entrepreneurial opportunities as men. Furthermore, women may experience problems in regard to ownership of property and contract-related activities. More women need to participate in the labour force in order to improve the relative position of women in society and of self-employed women.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM)³¹ is an annual assessment of the national level of entrepreneurial activity across 42 countries. It is based on a harmonised assessment of the level of national entrepreneurial activity. GEM Global produces three reports on a number of special topics: High Growth / High Expectation Entrepreneurship; Financing; and Women and Entrepreneurship. In 2007, a report on Women Entrepreneurship using sex disaggregated data showed that there is a difference between men and women in starting up business and its ownership across selected European countries. The data show that women are a minority among business owners and they are less likely to start their own business.

A number of countries (Canada, Finland, etc) have placed considerable emphasis on the development of entrepreneurship indicators within its national policy framework³². Available data sources are limited in their ability to differentiate adequately among different types of self-employment. The lack of detailed information on the self-employed and their businesses makes it difficult to target policies to those most in need of support. Specifically, informal micro-entrepreneurs, many of whom are women, are most likely to be excluded from existing policy measures designed to support self-employment and entrepreneurship.

4.2.4 Implications for data collection

The gender dimension has traditionally been completely absent from business statistics. Lack of sex disaggregated data makes it difficult to have a comprehensive understanding of how policies impact on women's and men's entrepreneurial

³⁰ Promoting entrepreneurship and innovative SMEs in a global economy, OECD, 2004.

³¹ For more information please use <http://www.gemconsortium.org/>

³² OECD Entrepreneurship Indicators Project: Entrepreneurship Statistics and data,

behavior. One of the main reasons is that for larger and particularly corporate businesses, it can be difficult to identify the entrepreneur.

The analysis of the role of gender in entrepreneurship requires the availability of data both at national and international levels. The most significant issue relates to the definition of entrepreneurs. There is currently a lack of common frameworks to define entrepreneurs. Statistics have been produced largely in a fragmented manner, and suffer from a lack of comparability within and between countries.

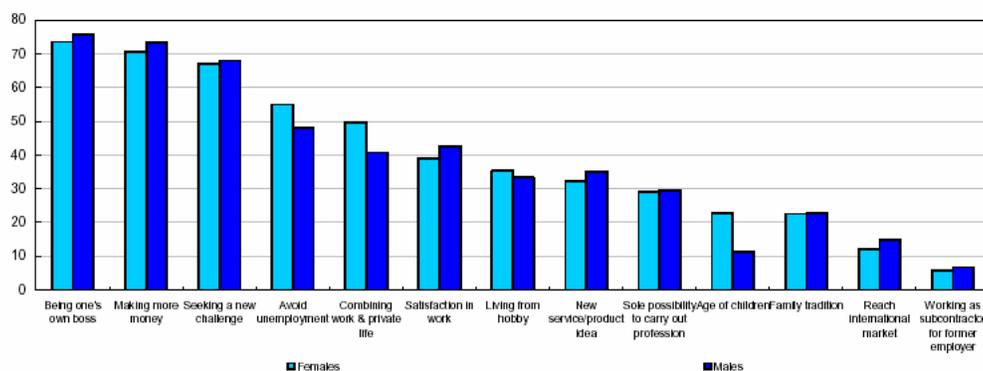
A joint OECD-Eurostat³³ project is currently investigating indicators and parameters of entrepreneurship and aims to produce a harmonised definition and a manual on how to measure entrepreneurship in such a way that it can be compared between regions, countries and sub-populations.

³³ Understanding entrepreneurship: Developing indicators for international comparisons and assessments, OECD, STD/CSTAT, 2006, p.1.

Sex disaggregated data on ‘Factors of Business Success’ (FOBS)*

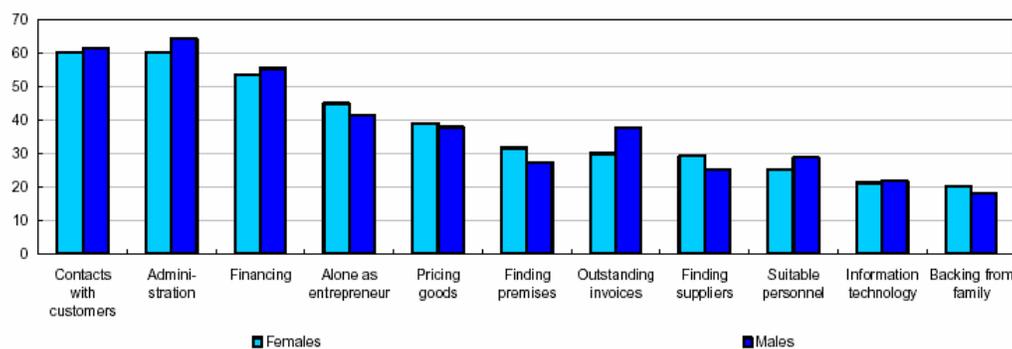
Sex-disaggregated data can help to determine the factors that determine the success and growth of new enterprises, and it can show the differences between women and men in the motivations for starting up one’s own business, the barriers and risks encountered during the first years of existence, the current situation of the enterprise, and business plans for future development. Looking at some of the motivations, for women, the motivations ‘to avoid unemployment’, ‘to combine work and private life’ and ‘the age of the children’ would seem to be more important than for men. By contrast, for men, ‘to get away from an unsatisfactory work situation’ is more important than ‘to combine work and private life’. Whereas the ‘age of children’ comes 10th place out of 13, this motivation ranks last-but-one for men.

Figure 1: Motivation for start-up by gender, average of available countries, in %



Source: FOBS survey, 2005

Figure 2: Start-up difficulties by gender, in %



Source: FOBS survey, 2005

Differences between both groups are rather small but men cite more often ‘outstanding invoices’, finding ‘suitable personnel’ and ‘information technology’ as start-up difficulties. ‘Alone as entrepreneur’, ‘pricing goods’, ‘finding premises’, ‘finding suppliers’ and ‘backing from family’ were mentioned slightly more frequently by women.

*The target population of the survey is defined – based on the concepts of the Business Demography data collection – as an enterprise born in 2002, which had survived to 2005 and which was still managed by the original entrepreneur or founder. The survey was carried out from June 2005 to January 2006 by the National Statistical Institutes of 13 EU Member States (CZ, DK, EE, FR, IT, LV, LT, LU, AT, PT, SI, SK and SE) and two Acceding Countries (BG and RO).
Source: Statistic in focus., 29/2006, European Communities

It is difficult to translate the concept of entrepreneurship into statistical measures using existing data collections. It is necessary to change the focus of the data from the characteristics of the enterprises to the characteristics of the people managing/owning the enterprises including sex-disaggregated data. Elements of the entrepreneurial role may be split across shareholders, directors and other senior staff, making it difficult to determine the impact of gender on entrepreneurship. The first major international study to use this approach was the Demographics of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises project³⁴.

The most common sources for data collection on women and men entrepreneurs are *household surveys* (usually labour force surveys), *enterprise surveys*, and *official registers of enterprises*. But each of these data sources uses different categories when collecting information and each also focuses on a different aspect of entrepreneurship. The resulting data is therefore not always comparable. These data collection issues have several implications:

- When using or comparing statistics on entrepreneurship it is important to take into account *the source of the data* and *what definition for entrepreneurship was used*.
- Regional and national efforts to promote women's entrepreneurship must include work to establish a standard *framework for defining entrepreneurship and a common set of indicators to measure entrepreneurship*.
- It would be valuable to have some agreement on the *type of information sources* to be used (household surveys, administrative records, enterprise survey) and a *time frame* (annually, three years, and one-off).

When collecting sex disaggregated data on entrepreneurs it would be beneficial to have information on the relevant areas of entrepreneurship at two different levels: start-up and growth-oriented entrepreneurs levels. Relevant areas³⁵ of entrepreneurship could be policy coordination and leadership, legal environment, promotion of women and men entrepreneurs, role models, access to loans and premises, enterprise support and information centres, mentoring, networks, and training.

Policy coordination and leadership level

- Have women and men been identified as specific groups in government's SME policies?
- Is the strategic framework for developing SME gender sensitive?
- Are women business associations represented at government advisory level?

³⁴ Funded by the European Union and collected data on new businesses in central European countries during their transition to market economies.

See <http://forum.europa.eu.int/irc/dsis/dosme/info/data/en/index.htm>

³⁵ Adapted from 'Support for Growth-Oriented Women Entrepreneurs', by Lois Stephenson and Annette St Onge published by ILO.

Creating better data for the future knowledge

In order to really understand what drives women's entrepreneurship and what are the consequences for the economy, three levels (individual, firm, and business environmental level) should be addressed to gain a better understanding. In relation to the dynamics of entrepreneurship, these levels should be studied in order to understand the nature of women entrepreneurship.

The first level is concerned with women being or becoming self-employed and is related to self-employment as a career choice among other available options. This level of analysis is related to women participation in the labour force and what they choose to do. Questions related to women's entry in and exit from self-employment are major questions here.

The second level of analysis is at the firm level. That is, once women have engaged in business activities, how well will they perform relative to men in terms of survival and growth of their respective firms.

The third level is analysis at the business environment level. This level of analyses is related to understanding how the business environment is supporting or obstructing women entrepreneurs.

All levels of analysis have to be taken into consideration in order to understand what is happening and why.

For example, a recent study conducted in Sweden on the science and technology labour force's career history and its involvement in self-employment showed that of those engaging in self-employment 30% only stayed self-employed for one year and very few repeated the experience over the eleven year period studied (1990-2000)*. About 12% of the science and technology labour force was at any time engaged in self-employment compared to 10% for the total labour force. At least for this group (which is seen as a very important source of entrepreneurship), other career alternatives had a better return. This study indicated important differences between men and women in their willingness to engage in entrepreneurship even when education and the effect of base rates were controlled for**.

Source: Adapted from 'Promoting entrepreneurship and innovative SMEs in a global economy, OECD, 2004.

*Delmar, F., Sjöberg, K., & Wiklund, J. 2003. The Involvement in Self-employment among the Swedish Science and Technology Labor Force between 1990 and 2000. Stockholm: ITPS.

**Carroll, G. R., & Mosakowski, E. 1987. The career dynamics of self-employment. Administrative Science Quarterly, 32: 570-589.

Promotion of women and men entrepreneurs

- Are there initiatives in place to recognise the achievements of women entrepreneurs?
- Is the media used to stimulate interest in entrepreneurship and promote it?
- Are there role models of women entrepreneurs?

Access to loans and premises

- Do women have equal access to financial sources and premises for starting up/growing a business?
- Can women access finance beyond micro-credit as individual entrepreneurs?
- Are there any difficulties in accessing finance in rural areas?
- Are there any financial programmes targeting specifically women entrepreneurs?

Enterprise support and information centres

- Is there a dedicated system of business support for women entrepreneurs (women's desk in government, SME agencies, etc?)
- Are there many women business advisors?
- Is information easily available for women to access?

Networks

- Do women have networking access and activities to main business and industry associations?
- Is it easy to join a women's business association (easily accessible, free of charge, etc?)
- Is business networking publicised?
- Do women's business associations lobby government on behalf of women entrepreneurs?
- Do these women associations exist in rural areas?

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4.2.5 Further reading

Declaration for the Sixtieth Anniversary of the UNECE, 26 April 2007, Geneva.

ILO, Global World Employment Report, Global Employment trend for women, 2007.

Issues related to statistics on women's entrepreneurship workshop on firm-level statistics, OECD, 2001.

OECD, Enhancing Women's Market Access and Promoting Pro-poor Growth, Promoting Pro-Poor Growth, Private Sector Development, Chapter 5, 2006.

Promoting entrepreneurship and innovative SMEs in a global economy, OECD, 2004.

Stevenson, Lois & Anders Lundstrom (2002). *Beyond the Rhetoric: Defining Entrepreneurship Policy and Its Best Practice Components*. Swedish Foundation for Small Business Research, Stockholm.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) 2006 Report on Women and Entrepreneurship, Babson College, and London Business School, 2007.

Understanding entrepreneurship: Developing indicators for international comparisons and assessments, OECD, STD/CSTAT, 2006.

United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE), Women's Self Employment and Entrepreneurship in the ECE Region, Regional Symposium on Mainstreaming Gender into Economic Policies, 28-30 January, 2004, UNECE Secretariat, Geneva, 2004.

Women entrepreneurs in SMEs, OECD, 1998.

Women entrepreneurship in Eastern Europe and CIS countries, UNECE, Geneva, 2004.

4.3 Agriculture

4.3.1 *What it is*

Historically, agriculture has provided a livelihood for the majority of the world's rural population and indeed continues to do so in many developing countries.

Consequently, most national statistical systems compile, tabulate and disseminate a wide range of statistical information on agricultural production, prices and markets, as well as on the structure of the agricultural sector. However in many countries there is a need for more data on the lives of people engaged in agriculture. Such areas include data on the situation of women and men in relation to the farm workforce, farm ownership and inheritance, the ongoing availability of education and IT training, and the availability of public and private rural transport for access to urban areas for educational, medical and other purposes.

The production and use of accurate gender-disaggregated data on the agricultural sector and rural areas is an essential step for the elaboration of sustainable development programmes, crucial for genuine gender mainstreaming, and a powerful way to combat the persisting invisibility of rural women in the planning process. Agricultural statistics cover both commercial agriculture (production primarily for sale) and farming for own consumption. In more developed countries, area farmed size thresholds are often used to exclude very small farms in surveys on the basis that they contribute very little to agricultural production. However the labour input of these farms, and their contribution to rural society, requires that they should be included in agricultural censuses.

In many countries where agriculture makes a single figure contribution to national GDP, agriculture is sometimes merged with related areas such as forestry, food, and environment. For the purposes of this manual our focus has been solely on agriculture with particular attention given to issues of concern to women involved in farming.

4.3.2 *Why it is important*

In less developed economies, agriculture is often of primary importance in the sustenance of predominantly rural populations. The availability of agricultural work and resources, land for families to rear livestock and grow crops, are crucial elements in the wellbeing of these populations.

More developed economies, while less dependent on agriculture, often have a more diversified involvement in farming. Many statistical offices have tried to improve the availability of agricultural labour data by collecting data on the sex and age of agricultural labourers and the type of labour provided, e.g. family versus non-family labour, paid versus non-paid labour, permanent, seasonal and occasional labour, and labour support groups. Such data contribute to a better understanding about labour relations in the agricultural sector in general and women's involvement in agricultural production in particular, irrespective of their access to productive resources. Moreover, this information is essential for realistic planning of sustainable agricultural development.

Social changes in rural areas resulting in declining (and ageing) farm populations and the shrinking of viable employment prospects on-farm in the European region have prompted policy makers to place greater emphasis on the use of agricultural statistics in their social context. Within the EU and throughout the European region, socially-relevant agricultural statistical information is becoming increasingly important for both agricultural and rural policy formulation. For example, Hill has noted that:

Policies involving agriculture require information about production of commodities and about the farms that produce them. Understanding the behaviour of the family-farm is central to many issues and increasingly relevant as objectives evolve and the pluri-active nature of farm households is recognised.

Agricultural statistics programmes face considerable challenges in providing relevant information for agricultural and rural policy planning, since obtaining information for rural development via agricultural surveys will provide an increasingly narrow picture of rural society. Farm survey information is most useful for rural analysis when presented in its rural context (Bollman 2000). An FAO review of rural gender issues in different world regions identified a number of rural characteristics and issues that have gender relevance and should concern agricultural and rural policy makers and analysts:

Population Issues (gender and age structure and dynamics)

- Rural population is often in the majority
- Rural-urban migration (especially among youth)
- Rural population ageing

Rural Economic Issues (gender structure and dynamics)

- Rural Unemployment
- Commuting
- Below-average agricultural incomes
- Rural poverty dimensions

Agricultural Characteristics

- Declining importance of agriculture
- Dual farm structure
- Subsistence farming economy
- Fragmented holding structure
- Land ownership issue
- Lack of investment capital
- Invisibility of women in agriculture

Gender Issues - Rural Europe

- Feminisation of agriculture
- Gender-based inequalities in access to productive resources
- Gender-based inequalities in off-farm employment opportunities
- Capacity building
- Participation, political status

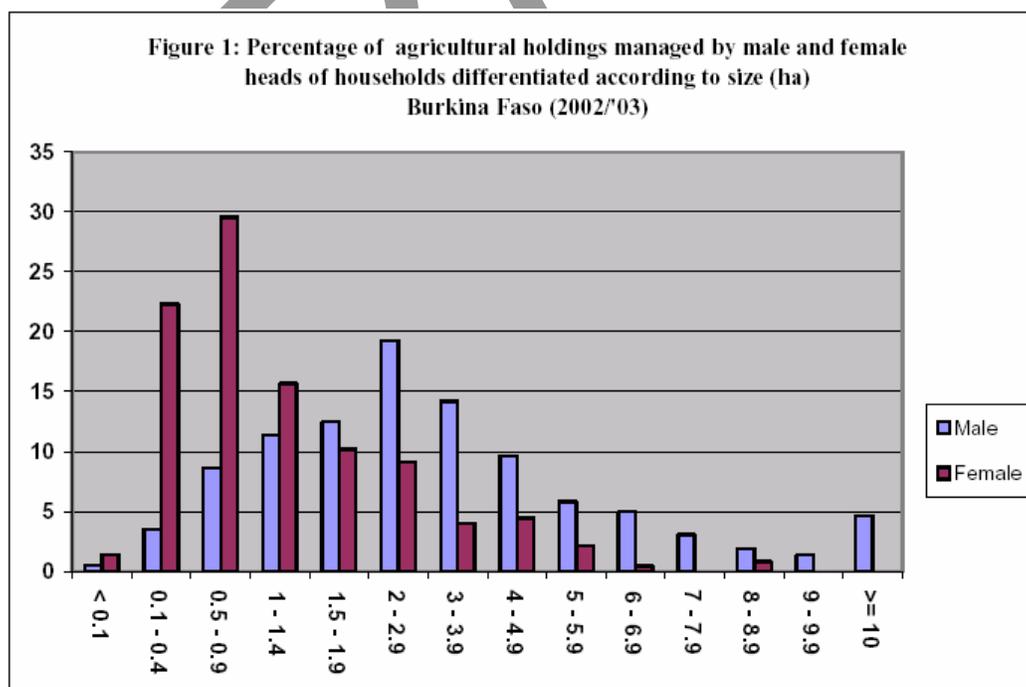
- Quality of life, domestic violence

Rural women

- Work in black or grey labour markets
- Self-employment in rural areas
- Female farm-heads in transition countries
- Rural/farming women's access to resources
- Land rights/use
- Domestic violence in rural areas
- Human trafficking (rural)
- Women's representation in decision-making; farm/agricultural organisations

4.3.3 The value-added of statistics

More gender-disaggregated data need to be produced on ownership of, access to and control over *productive resources*, whether land, water, equipment, inputs, information and/or credit in order to gain greater insight into intra-household decision-making processes. This is essential for the planning and development of agricultural interventions and poverty reduction strategies. Data collected during the 2001/2002 Annual Agricultural Survey (EPA) undertaken in Burkina Faso showed that male farmers managed and cultivated on average more land and larger holdings than female farmers. This is likely to be the result of gender based differences in access to and control over land. Detailed statistics on land ownership and access are required if such differences are to be fully understood.



Source: Annual Agricultural Survey (EPA) 2002/'03

The relative importance of agriculture to an economy and to a society can vary significantly across different statistical measures. Gross value added in agriculture represented 1.9% of EU25 GVA in 2005 (agricultural products are relatively low in value compared to high technology products). However using a measure such as annual work units generally results in a larger contribution from agriculture at EU level and moving further to persons working in agriculture (including on a part-time basis and on own account) further increases the importance of agriculture to the European economy. Moving to a concept such as the share of total land used for farming shows how important agriculture is to domains such as the environment and biodiversity. Hence policy-makers and economists need to take a multi-dimensional view of agriculture not only to the economy but also to society and the environment.

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Gross Value Added at basic prices: agriculture, hunting, forestry, and fishing

Country	1995	2000	2005
% of the total economy			
Lithuania	11.4	7.9	5.7
Greece	9.9	7.3	5.2
Poland	8.0	5.0	4.8
Hungary	6.7	5.4	4.3
Slovakia	5.9	4.5	4.3
Latvia	9.1	4.6	4.1
Estonia	8.0	4.9	3.7
Spain	4.5	4.4	3.3
Czech Republic	5.0	3.9	2.9
Cyprus	5.1	3.6	2.9
Finland	4.3	3.5	2.9
Portugal	5.7	3.8	2.8
Ireland	7.0	3.4	2.6
Malta	:	2.3	2.5
Slovenia	4.2	3.2	2.5
Italy	3.3	2.8	2.3
France	:	2.8	2.2
Netherlands	3.5	2.6	2.2
EU-25	2.8	2.3	1.9
Austria	2.7	2.1	1.6
Denmark	3.5	2.6	1.5
Sweden	2.7	1.9	1.2
Belgium	1.5	1.4	1.1
Germany	1.3	1.3	1.0
United Kingdom	1.8	1.0	0.9
Luxembourg	1.0	0.7	0.4
Turkey	15.7	14.2	10.5
Romania	:	12.4	10.1
Bulgaria	:	13.9	9.3
Croatia	10.4	8.8	6.7

Source: Eurostat

Over 90% of the population of countries such as Bhutan and Nepal lived in rural areas in 2004 and more people were involved in agriculture³⁶ than lived in these rural areas. At the other end of the scale, many of the EU countries had under 5% of their population living in rural areas. In more developed countries the relative sizes of the rural and agricultural populations varied considerably however care should be taken as to whether persons are being classified to agriculture on the basis of their principal occupation or on the basis of performing any agricultural work during the year. The overall figures at World level for 2004 were 40.8% of persons were engaged in agriculture and the ratio of the agricultural population to the rural population was 79.5%. Clearly on the basis of these figures agriculture has a considerably more important role in social and demographic than in economic statistics.

³⁶ Includes forestry and fisheries.

Country	Population			Population ratios	
	Total	Rural	Agriculture	% Agr/Total	% Agr/Rural
Bhutan	2,325	2,121	2,176	93.6	102.6
Nepal	25,725	21,733	23,872	92.8	109.8
Burkina Faso	13,393	10,962	12,345	92.2	112.6
Rwanda	8,481	6,781	7,644	90.1	112.7
Burundi	7,068	6,349	6,341	89.7	99.9
Niger	12,415	9,597	10,782	86.8	112.3
Guinea	8,620	5,523	7,095	82.3	128.5
Guinea-Bissau	1,538	1,003	1,257	81.7	125.3
Ethiopia	72,420	60,926	58,408	80.7	95.9
World	6,377,646	3,271,630	2,600,301	40.8	79.5
Finland	5,215	2,043	262	5.0	12.8
Libya	5,659	756	263	4.6	34.8
Norway	4,552	940	205	4.5	21.8
Italy	57,346	18,614	2,505	4.4	13.5
Australia	19,913	1,484	853	4.3	57.5
Austria	8,120	2,778	352	4.3	12.7
UAE	3,051	449	122	4.0	27.2
Barbados	271	129	10	3.7	7.8
Bosnia	4,186	2,307	156	3.7	6.8
Bahamas	317	32	10	3.2	31.3
Denmark	5,375	781	174	3.2	22.3
Sweden	8,886	1,481	275	3.1	18.6
Japan	127,800	44,129	3,895	3.0	8.8
Netherlands	16,227	5,458	485	3.0	8.9
Lebanon	3,708	439	105	2.8	23.9
France	60,434	14,248	1,659	2.7	11.6
Israel	6,560	526	150	2.3	28.5
Canada	31,744	6,098	710	2.2	11.6
Germany	82,526	9,712	1,724	2.1	17.8
USA	297,043	57,847	5,828	2.0	10.1
Luxembourg	459	36	8	1.7	22.2
UK	59,648	6,565	986	1.7	15.0
Belgium	10,340	287	164	1.6	57.1
Malta	396	32	5	1.3	15.6
Kuwait	2,595	103	27	1.0	26.2
Qatar	619	49	6	1.0	12.2
Bahrain	739	71	6	0.8	8.5
Brunei	366	85	2	0.5	2.4

Source: FAO

4.3.4 Implications for data collection

The integration of gender concerns into the objectives of agricultural censuses is of crucial importance for ensuring the production of gender-disaggregated agricultural data. It dictates a gender-aware review of the statistical methodologies and tools used, and determines the analysis, presentation and dissemination of such data. Gender concerns tend to be ignored or overlooked when they are not specifically referred to in the objectives of the census.

Systematic underreporting of women farmers' involvement in agricultural production has occurred especially when censuses focused on commercial rather than on communal or subsistence farming activities (on large-scale agricultural production units while omitting small-scale agricultural production units), and when censuses excluded peri-urban and urban agricultural activities. In many developing countries, women farmers tend to be more actively involved in small-scale subsistence and peri-urban farming.

At times agricultural censuses fail to accurately capture existing gender interactions, differences and inequalities in the agricultural sector due to gender biases in the way standard statistical concepts and definitions are applied. Often such biases can be reduced by improving the use of the standard concepts through better training of interviewers and supervisors, drawing their attention to gender concerns in the agricultural sector and in particular in interview situations. Similarly, census sensitisation campaigns could already stress the importance of reporting on both men's and women's work in the agricultural sector, stipulating that responses by the head of the household be complemented with information provided by other household members directly involved in agricultural production.

Wherever possible, a national gender consultant experienced in both gender and statistical analysis should work with the census team on various activities, including:

- the need for gender disaggregated data in that specific country;
- preparation of a gender statistics component for enumerator training;
- review for gender biases of questionnaires, sampling and definitions;
- facilitation of contacts between statisticians and gender planners;
- preparation of outline publication tables; and
- review of final publications and distribution plan.

Data on the size of all holdings, even those without land, need to be covered in order to construct a complete picture of holding types by size alone, or by correlating size with other variables such as income or work on the holding. A holding with no land can be extremely significant in different types of situations; for example, in the case of the poorest farmers (who are poor precisely because they are landless) or farms based on new, high-yielding techniques that require little land. Also, many women may work holdings with no or only tiny areas of land, rearing livestock or poultry or growing vegetables. This type of holding may also be found in urban areas. These issues may need to be investigated through supplemental surveys.

Agricultural censuses and surveys are two of the most important sources of gender-disaggregated agricultural data. An agricultural census is best suited for the collection of structural data (such as areas of holding, land use, livestock numbers, use of machinery and farm labour inputs) rather than performance data (such as prices, production, farm costs and farm incomes). Performance data are best collected through frequent sample surveys. Consequently, agricultural censuses may not be able to produce all the required gender disaggregated agricultural data and more in-depth data may need to be obtained from thematic agricultural surveys. As a result, the World Programme for the 2010 Round of Agricultural Censuses encourages countries to plan such surveys as an integral part of agricultural census planning.

The complexity of the agricultural holder concept has been recognised in the World Programme for the Census of Agriculture 2010 and has resulted in an amendment of the *agricultural holder* definition. The new definition allows for the possibility that a group of people be considered as the holder.

*Important definitions*³⁷

The *agricultural holder* is defined as the person or group of persons who make the major decisions regarding resource use and exercise management control over the agricultural holding operation. The agricultural holder has technical and economic responsibility for the holding, and may undertake all responsibilities directly, or delegate responsibilities related to day-to-day work management. The agricultural holder is often, but not always, the household head.

The sub-holder and sub-holding concepts have been introduced into the World Programme for the 2010 Round of Agricultural Censuses in order to obtain a better understanding of the roles of selected household members, especially female members, in the management of a holding. These concepts, which may not be applicable to all countries, need to be developed and tested in accordance with national agricultural practices.

A *sub-holding* is defined as a single agricultural activity or group of activities managed by a particular person or group of persons in the holder's household on behalf of the agricultural holder. There may be one or more sub-holdings in a holding. A sub-holding could comprise a single plot, a whole field, a whole parcel, or even the whole holding. A sub-holding could also be a livestock operation associated with a plot, field, parcel, *inter alia*, or a livestock operation without any land.

A *sub-holder* is the person or group of persons responsible for managing a sub-holding on the holder's behalf. There is only one sub-holder for a sub-holding. S/he does not necessarily have to be the formal owner of the productive resources used. Identifying each sub-holding and sub-holder in the holding requires answering a series of questions on the role of each household member in the management and operations of the holding during the census reference year.

Concepts such as holder and manager can be used to distinguish between ownership of the farm and responsibility for management of the farm. Similarly concepts such as persons and annual work units can be used to identify the level of part-time and casual labour that takes place in agriculture. Often farmers may also have occupations outside of farming and in more general surveys, such as a labour force survey, the principal occupation they are classified to may be non-agricultural such as teaching or farm-tourism activities.

An example of the difference between the number of persons doing any work on a farm and the number of annual work-units performed can be seen in the EU 27 figures

³⁷ A System of Integrated Agricultural Censuses and Surveys. Volume 1. Guidelines for the World Programme of Agricultural Censuses. Rome: The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

for 2005. The difference in the relative importance of family and non-family labour at national level often reflects different ownership structures across countries.

EU 27 Farm labour force 2005

	Family			Non-family	
	Holder	Spouse	Other family	Regular non-family	Non-regular
Persons	7.6m	4.2m	4.3m	1.8m	
AWUs ³⁸	4.2m	1.9m	1.4m	1.5m	0.9m

An example of a postal farm questionnaire³⁹ that collects information on the agricultural workforce illustrates how these data were collected. The questionnaire uses line 1 to collect information on the farm holder, line 2 to collect data on the spouse, lines 3-6 to collect data on other family workers and lines 7-12 to collect data on non-family workers. More detailed explanation of the table is given in the website link to the questionnaire. The example given is from an EU country and the section has been compressed for reasons of questionnaire size. An interview based survey in a country where agriculture is of high importance to the economy and society, would need to examine these issues in greater detail.

Please fill in lines 1 and 2 below for the farm holder and his/her spouse/partner (even if no farmwork was carried out). Also fill out a separate line for each person 15 years of age and over who carried out some farmwork on the holding in the past 12 months. Farmwork includes management but excludes housework.

	Gender Please		Age (Years)	Time spent on farmwork		Manager	Importance of farmwork Please ✓ appropriate column		
	Male	Female		Number of weeks	Average no. of hours per week		Sole Occupation?	Major Occupation?	Subsidiary Occupation?
1									
2									
3									
4									
5									
6									
7									
8									
9									
10									
11									
12									

³⁸ One annual work unit is sometimes defined as 1800 hours work.

³⁹

http://www.cso.ie/surveysandmethodologies/surveyforms/documents/agriculture/excel_docs/june_2006_form.xls

4.3.5 Further reading

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4.4 Gender Based Violence

4.4.1 What it is

Gender based violence can be perpetrated by both men and women. Research has focussed more on violence carried out by men against women, and it is that aspect we primarily consider in this chapter. However as countries develop their statistical capability in this area, data on violence by women against men should also be collected.

The Beijing Platform defined violence against women as any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life⁴⁰.

This definition covers a broad range of acts that can occur within the family (battering, sexual abuse of female children, dowry-related violence, and marital rape), in the wider community (rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment, trafficking in women and forced prostitution), and by the State (including physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the State).

4.4.2 Why it is important

Violence against women is a violation of women's human rights and prevents women from enjoying their human rights and fundamental freedoms, such as the rights to life and security of the person, to the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health, education, work and housing and participation in public life⁴¹. The long-standing failure to protect and promote those rights and freedoms in the case of violence against women is a matter of concern for all States and should be addressed⁴².

Violence affects many women around the world

One of the most common forms of violence experienced by women globally is intimate partner violence. A review of 50 population-based studies in 36 countries showed that the lifetime prevalence of ever having experienced physical violence by intimate partner ranged between 10 per cent and over 50 per cent. Studies of femicide from Australia, Canada, Israel, South Africa and United State of America show that 40 to 70 per cent of female murder victims were killed by their husbands or boyfriends. Several studies across the different developing countries indicate that violence during pregnancy range from 4 to 32 per cent, and that the prevalence of moderate to severe physical violence during pregnancy is about 13 per cent. The WHO multi-country study on domestic violence found that between 20 per cent and 75 per cent of women had experienced one or more emotional abusive acts.

⁴⁰ Beijing Platform for Action adopted at the Fourth United Nations World Conference on Women in 1995.

⁴¹ In-depth study on all forms of violence against women, Report of the Secretary-General, Sixty-first session UN, 2006 (Paragraph 156)

⁴² Beijing Platform for Action, 1995. (Paragraph 112)

Source: In-depth study on all forms of violence against women, Report of the Secretary-General, Sixty-first session UN, 2006

Violence against women impoverishes individual women and their families, as well as their communities, societies and nations at many levels. It reduces the capacity of victims/survivors to contribute productively to the family, the economy and public life. It drains resources from social services, the justice system, health-care agencies and employers. It lowers the overall educational attainment, mobility and innovative potential of the victims/survivors, their children and even the perpetrators of such violence⁴³.

As a consequence, there are policy issues across the whole range of subjects that concern governments. These issues are particularly important in the area of crime, health, family, education and economic well-being. Violence against women exists in all societies, in all cultures and religions and in all social classes. Violence against women is a complex matter that is both a cause and a consequence of women's inequality in society.

The costs of violence against women *

Violence against women impoverishes not only individuals, families, communities and Governments, but also reduces the economic development of each nation.

In Canada, the annual costs of direct expenditures related to violence against women were estimated at 684 million Canadian dollars for the criminal justice system, 187 million for police and 294 million for the cost of counselling and training, totalling more than 1 billion a year.

In the UK the study examined the cost categories of justice, health care, social services, housing, legal, lost economic output and pain and suffering and estimated the resulting cost of domestic violence to be 23 billion pounds sterling (£) per year or £440 per person.

In Finland estimated economic costs of violence against women is measuring the direct costs of health care, social services, police, courts and incarceration and also the indirect costs of the value of lost lives and time lost from paid work and volunteer labour. The annual cost was estimated at 101 million euros (€) per year, or approximately €20 per person.

A **World Bank** study estimated that domestic violence and rape account for 5 per cent of the total disease burden for women aged 15 to 44 in developing countries and 19 per cent in developed countries.

**Note: Studies have been using different methods and different definitions.*

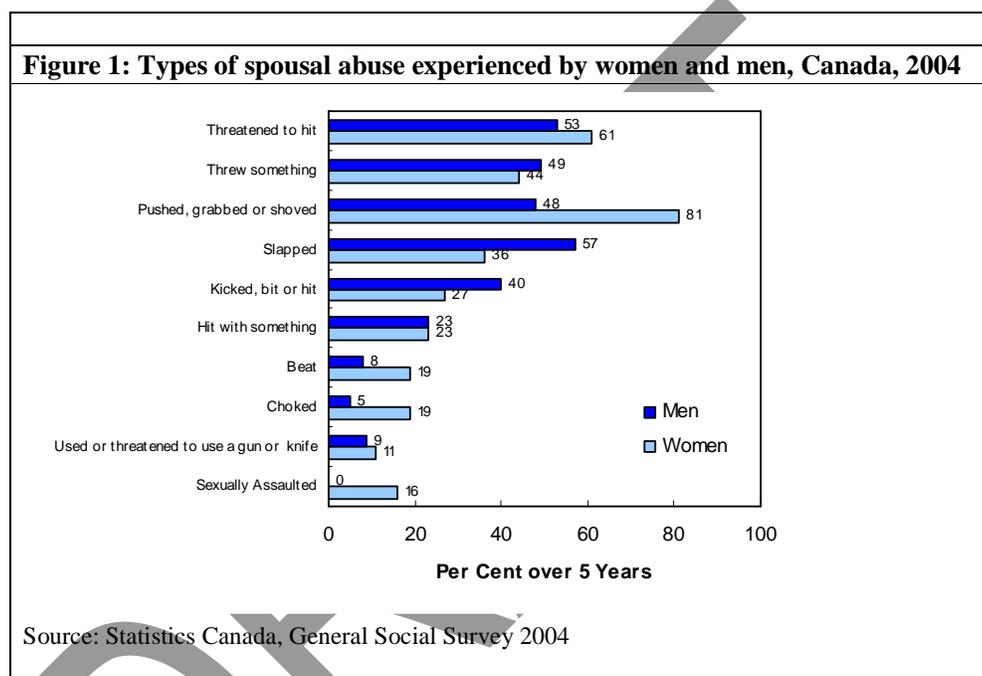
Source: In-depth study on all forms of violence against women, Report of the Secretary-General, Sixty-first session UN, 2006 (Paragraph 180)); Sylvia Walby. The Cost of Domestic Violence (London: Department of Trade and Industry Women and Equality Unit), 2004.

Results from the 2004 Canadian General Social Survey showed that while women and men experienced comparable overall rates of violent victimisation, the rate of sexual assault for women was five times higher than the rate for men (35 per 1,000 women

⁴³ In-depth study on all forms of violence against women, Report of the Secretary-General, Sixty-first session UN, 2006 (Paragraph 171)

compared with 7 per 1,000 men). The survey also showed that women experienced more serious and repeated violence.

Gender-specific data can pinpoint those areas where the need for support services is different for women and men. Data that are made available by gender demonstrate the specific risk areas for men and women and highlight the need for targeted programs to address violence for each gender. Men's and boys' experiences of violence are different than women's and girls' in important ways. While men are more likely to be injured by strangers in a public or social venue, women are in greater danger of experiencing violence from intimate partners in their own homes. Women are also at greater risk of sexual violence (see Figure 1).



4.4.3 The value-added of statistics

Accurate and comparable data on violence against women are needed to understand the problem and its nature. In order to respond to this at a fundamental level, policy-makers require a clear statistical understanding of the prevalence of violence against women.

Sound statistical data is critical for the development of appropriate policies, legislation and services for women affected by violence. Statistics on violence against women can be used effectively to:

- To enable the evaluation of the extent to which policies are working to reduce violence or not.
- Make a significant and sustained impact on public awareness of the extent, nature and dynamics of sexual, physical and psychological violence against women;
- Provide detailed data on the nature and extent of violence against women to criminal justice practitioners, medical practitioners, service providers, legislators and researchers;

- Make available detailed data on correlations and risk markers for violence to better understand the dynamics of violence and to design prevention programs;
- Develop shared ethical standards for use in research into violence against women;
- Assist governments in forming legislation and policies that respond to violence against women;
- Assist medical and social service agencies in the design of services for victims and offenders;
- Assist judicial authorities to raise awareness among police, lawyers and judges and improve the criminal justice response to violence; and
- Assist educators in the training of service providers and others whose work brings them into contact with victims and offenders.

Developing a set of international indicators on violence against women

Policymakers and activists have called on States, intergovernmental agencies and others to develop a set of international indicators on violence against women. These indicators should be based on widely available and credible *data* collected at the national level. These are needed for three main purposes:

- **To persuade policymakers of the need to take action to address violence against women.** The most compelling evidence has been based on household surveys that measure the extent and characteristics of different forms of violence against women. There are numerous examples around the world in which the *presentation of survey data on violence against women has galvanised political will and resulted in legislative and policy reforms.*
- **To measure access and quality of services to survivors of violence.** This information is generally derived from the administrative records of the criminal justice system, health and social services or of NGOs that provide services to survivors of violence or from research on women's perceptions and use of services. Evaluation research, using both qualitative and quantitative methods, is key to assessing the effectiveness of programmes.
- **To monitor the progress of States in meeting their international obligations to address violence against women.** Relevant indicators would measure the impact of policies through changes in the prevalence and incidence of violence, progress in the establishment of legal and policy reforms and availability of services and budgetary allocations to address violence against women.

Source: (In-depth study on all forms of violence against women, Report of the Secretary-General, Sixty-first session UN, 2006 (Paragraph 236))

4.4.4 Implications for data collection

Over the past decade, progress has been made in documenting the extent and nature of violence against women particularly through new surveys. While a great deal has been accomplished already, there are still challenges and gaps in developing knowledge on this issue in all parts of the world, especially in the regions where violence against women is under recognised. Some statistical challenges are due in part to the lack of standardisation in methods and questionnaires, and an uneven development in survey and research design.

The involvement of national statistical systems in violence against women surveys can be seen as an indication of a political will to measure the magnitude and the different forms of violence against women in a given country.

At the sixty-second session of the UN General Assembly, National Statistical Offices were requested to provide “data disaggregated by sex, age and other relevant information, on the extent, nature and consequences of all forms of violence against women, and on the impact and effectiveness of policies and programmes for, including best practice in, combating such violence”⁴⁴.

There are two main types of sources of statistical data: national population sample surveys and administrative statistics. Survey statistics are important since women tend to underreport sexual offences⁴⁵ and therefore statistics based on reporting cases heavily underestimate the phenomenon⁴⁶.

Surveys dedicated to measure violence against women are better tools to collect the relevant information on violence against women since women do not need to officially report the violence. Also, if properly designed, they reflect the actual occurrences of victimisation rather than what is reported to officials.

Administrative statistics

Relevant administrative statistics on violence against women occur not only in the area of criminal justice, but may also be in health, civil law, housing and in other agencies that help victims. While these statistics cannot be used to determine the actual rate of violence against women, it is important to be able to assess the contribution that these systems make to address violence against women. For example, changes in levels and types of reporting may provide data on changes in willingness to report and confidence in the justice system.

It is difficult to harmonise all definitions across administrative systems since they are embedded in local laws and procedures⁴⁷. However additional collection of data on items such as the relationship, if any, of the victim of a violent assault to the perpetrator, would enable statistics to be collected on domestic violence without the need to change the legal categories of crime.

Detailed information is needed about the court response to violence against women, including convictions or acquittals, type of sentence, treatment ordered, bail granted

⁴⁴ The UN General Assembly resolution 61/143 adopted on 19 December 2006

⁴⁵ The low legal culture of women, who don't know their own rights, don't know that they could be protected; the absence of the law or its imperfection; gender stereotypes, they all contribute to discourage women to report violence, particularly domestic violence.

⁴⁶ For example, as revealed in the 2004 Canadian General Survey on victimisation only about one in three women assaulted by partners reported the assault to police.

⁴⁷ The development such indicators is part of the process of developing the national machineries for gender equality to which governments committed themselves in the 1995 UN Platform for Action, which was reaffirmed in New York in March 2005.

or denied, charges reduced, supports for victims provided at court, and protection orders. Counts of repeat offending and repeat victimisation are needed to assess the effectiveness of criminal justice systems responses.

Information on the number of women presenting to hospitals for medical treatment for injuries resulting from violence is needed as an indicator of the severity of the problem, demand for health services resulting from violence, and the portion of health costs that are due to violence.

Surveys

Survey research on violence against women has been carried out as long as general victimisation surveys have existed, but the inadequacies of these surveys in addressing violence against women led to the development of specialised surveys. National-level surveys on violence against women, especially those conducted by national statistical institutes, have been undertaken in countries of the UNECE region only since the mid 1990s.

There are currently on-going efforts of international organisations and institutes to support the implementation of internationally comparative surveys dedicated to violence against women by encouraging the use of a standard survey methodology. Two important examples of multi-country efforts of dedicated surveys are the International Violence against Women Surveys (IVAWS)⁴⁸, and the WHO Multi-Country Study on Domestic Violence and Women's Health⁴⁹.

In victimisation surveys, the focus is on obtaining current reliable estimates of victimisation rates. In contrast, the most critical issues in surveys that measure violence against women relate to the definition of violence, the identification of violence typologies, the disclosure by victims, the recognition of groups at risk, information on perpetrators of violence and the different patterns of violence in its several forms. For these reasons, "lifetime" and "one year" are the most commonly used reference periods to study violence against women.

Surveys, while being the best vehicle to collect information about violence against women, have significant collection and definitional issues. In planning surveys, particular attention should be devoted to:

- How to ask women about their experience with violence and to design the questionnaire so that women are asked about violence in an indirect way.
- The reference period of victimisation (lifetime, previous 6 months, one year, five years).
- What information should be collected on the victimisation event.
- How to assure the safety of the women and make sure that the data remains confidential and the women will not be affected by revealing their stories.

⁴⁸ See <http://www.heuni.fi/12859.htm>

⁴⁹ See http://www.who.int/gender/violence/who_multicountry_study/en/. The results of the survey conducted in 10 countries was published in *WHO Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence against Women, Initial results on prevalence, health outcomes and women's responses*, Geneva, 2005, ISBN 92 4 159358 X

Refusals are likely to be the main element of non-response in violence against women surveys. Issues that affect refusals include: wording, length of the interview, sensitive nature of the survey topic, survey method, as well as time availability of the respondents. Experience has shown that surveys with the lowest non-response rates are those that make use of advance letters, call-backs, and follow-ups. The use of proxy interviewees is problematical when dealing with such sensitive and personal information. Attention needs to be given to preserving the privacy and safety of respondents and interviewers if non-response is to be kept to acceptable levels. It is necessary to speak with women when they are alone or in a safe situation and to ensure their privacy.

Important issues in conducting surveys on violence against women

- **The wording and the number of questions** used to identify women who experienced violence affect the quality and reliability of the results.
- Surveys need to ask about experiences with **violence in behavioural terms**, not simply whether respondents have been the victims of ‘violence’ or have ever been ‘assaulted’ or ‘sexually assaulted’.
- Providing multiple **opportunities for disclosure** will help to counter the reluctance or hesitance of many women to talk about their experiences. Asking only one question has been shown to undercount rates of partner violence and sexual violence, which women are naturally reluctant to discuss.
- The need for **confidentiality** for the person who is making the disclosures, confidentiality from her family and even from the interviewer assists disclosure.
- The **sampling frame** must be complete and not omit marginalised women, who may be at a higher risk of violence. The response rate must be high.
- It should also be possible to differentiate between perpetrators by **classification characteristics** such as age, sex and type and length of relationship with the victim.

A broad range of information on the type of violence should be collected and should not be limited to rape and partner violence. The severity and frequency of incidents should also be obtained. The relationship between victim and perpetrator is a key category for classifying the types of violence. The majority of surveys measure intimate partner violence, which is defined as violence perpetrated by current and former spouses, cohabiting partners, dates, and boyfriends. Many surveys have the objective to identify all perpetrators, including those who are not intimate partners.

Surveys need to ask about experiences with violence in behavioural terms, not simply whether respondents have been the victims of ‘violence’ or have ever been ‘assaulted’ or ‘sexually assaulted’. Providing multiple opportunities for disclosure will help to counter the reluctance or hesitance of many women to talk about their experiences. Single questions have been shown to undercount rates of partner violence and sexual violence, which women are naturally reluctant to discuss. Multiple questions may also elicit links between different types of violence. For example, the 2004 Canadian GSS survey found that there was a correlation between emotional abuse and spousal violence.

There is evidence that interviewers' characteristics and training contribute to data quality, easier disclosure of respondents' experience of violence, improved confidentiality of the information and safety of the respondent. Experience with interviews on violence against women has shown that, despite the sensitivity of the topic, it is possible for interviewers to collect reliable and valid information on violence against women, provided they are sensitive to the issue and have received appropriate training. There is also a responsibility on the part of survey managers to prepare for and to respond to emotional trauma on the part of interviewers who might become distressed by repeatedly hearing stories about violent victimisation. It is important that the WHO ethical and safety recommendations are carefully taken into consideration.

Ethical and Safety Recommendations for Collecting data on Violence against Women⁵⁰

- The safety of respondents and the research team is paramount, and should guide all project decisions.
- Prevalence studies need to be methodologically sound and to build upon current research experience about how to minimise the under-reporting of violence.
- Protecting confidentiality is essential to ensure both women's safety and data quality.
- All research team members should be carefully selected and receive specialised training and on-going support.
- The study design must include actions aimed at reducing any possible distress caused to the participants by the research.
- Fieldworkers should be trained to refer women requesting assistance to available local services and sources of support. Where few resources exist, it may be necessary for the study to create short-term support mechanisms.
- Researchers and donors have an ethical obligation to help ensure that their findings are properly interpreted and used to advance policy and intervention development.
- Violence questions should only be incorporated into surveys designed for other purposes when ethical and methodological requirements can be met.

WHO Ethical and Safety Guidelines for Researching Domestic Violence against Women. See http://www.who.int/gender/documents/EthicsSafety_web.pdf.

Interviewers will generally not know in advance when a woman is approached for an interview if she has had violence in her life or if she is currently living with a violent partner. Interviewers have an ethical responsibility not to endanger a woman whose violent partner may learn of the nature of the interview. Through training and experience, interviewers can detect whether respondents have the necessary privacy to continue through to questions about violence and are able to speak freely and safely.

Both reliability and validity will be affected if respondents interpret question wording differently to other respondents or if large numbers fail to disclose incidences of violence against them. If large numbers of women refuse to report honestly on their experiences of victimisation then violence would be undercounted. It is therefore necessary to develop innovative approaches that are sensitive to the women

⁵⁰ Adapted from the *WHO Ethical and Safety Guidelines for Researching Domestic Violence against Women*. See http://www.who.int/gender/documents/EthicsSafety_web.pdf.

responding and would give respondents options as to when and how they would participate, thus encouraging participation and candid disclosures of violence.

Very few violence against women surveys are conducted on a regular basis. Most of the countries that conduct surveys to collect information on violence against women surveys do so as an *ad-hoc* activity. While ad hoc surveys are important in providing benchmark data, it is also important to be able to measure changes over time. However the need for time series data may conflict with the need to introduce evolving international standards in data collection.

An example of behavioural questions to identify women affected by physical violence from a Finnish survey

“Has your current partner sometimes behaved violently against you (over the last 12 months or earlier)”, such as:

1. Threatened you with violence?
2. Prevented you from moving or grabbed you?
3. Slapped you?
4. Thrown a hard object at you?
5. Beaten you with a fist or a hard objects, or kicked you?
6. Strangled or tried to strangle you?
7. Shot at you or stabbed or cut you with an edged weapon?
8. Beaten your head against something?
9. Pressured, coerced or tried to coerce you to have sex with him?
10. Behaved violently against you in some other manner?

Source: Violence against women survey in Finland; methodology and experiences, Statistical journal of the UNECE, Volume 22 Number 3, 4, 2005; Straus, Murray A. 2007.

A survey that is dedicated to violence against women is likely to produce the best methodology. Against this, it is cheaper to append a module on violence against women to a survey that is already established. If ad-hoc modules are to be appended to ongoing surveys, then the ongoing survey should deal with similar topics (health, victimisation). A full-scale survey should be preceded with adequate pilot testing of the methodology and of the questionnaire.

The need to develop a sample that is representative of the population as a whole is especially acute in the field of violence against women, since the women who are the most heavily abused are likely to be marginalised and socially excluded in other ways. In most cases the surveys are limited to adult respondents. In case of under-aged respondents, it is often not possible to include them on legal or ethical grounds.

A survey methodology does not lead itself to addressing important forms of violence against women, such as trafficking and forced prostitution. Women in these situations are not easily available to be interviewed and will require specially targeted studies as opposed to random surveys of the population.

The method of disseminating survey results is important. Widespread dissemination through published reports, data files and the internet helps ensure that the results will reach a wide audience and will be broadly used. Release of anonymised micro-data files makes the data available in its original form to researchers who can explore the data for details not published in reports, which often are no more than summaries or highlights. This helps expand on the knowledge that is generated by these surveys.

4.4.5 Further reading

"Violence against women: a statistical overview, challenges and gaps in data collection and methodology and approaches for overcoming them"

Expert Group Meeting: UN Division for the Advancement of Women
14 April, 2005 Geneva Switzerland

"Assessing the prevalence of violence against women in Canada"

Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada
Economic Commission for Europe statistical commission, Group of Experts on Gender Statistics, Fourth session, Geneva, 11-13 September 2006

"Analysis of national surveys carried out by the countries of the conference of European Statisticians to measure violence against women" UNECE task force on measurement of violence against women, Economic Commission for Europe statistical commission, Group of Experts on Gender Statistics, Fourth session, Geneva, 11-13 September 2006

"Statistics on violence against women: a case study in how to develop gender statistics"

Sylvia Walby, Lancaster University, UK, UNECE Task Force on Gender Sensitisation training for statisticians, Rome, 6-7 February 2007

UNECE Statistical Journal, Special issue dedicated to the measurement of VAW, Volume 22 Numbers 3,4, 2005
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"In-depth study on all forms of violence against women" Report of the Secretary-General, General Assembly UN, 2006

4.5 Health

4.5.1 What it is

Health and medical statistics incorporate a wide variety of data. The most common statistics reported are vital (birth, death, marriage, divorce rates), morbidity (incidence of disease in a population), and mortality (the number of people who die of a certain disease compared with the total number of people). Other areas where statistical data are commonly reported include the demographic distribution of health status and the health care system. An assessment of the performance of a health care system includes an examination of the levels of health in a population, the distribution of health, the level and distribution of responsiveness of the health system, and the fairness in financial contributions from patients.

A comprehensive program of health statistics also incorporates analyses of the determinants of health status. The determinants of health include socioeconomic (poverty, psychosocial factors, employment, education, gender), lifestyles (nutrition, physical activity, tobacco, alcohol, illegal drugs), and physical environment (air quality, food safety, water, housing, work conditions, transport, climate change).

4.5.2 Why it is important

Health is one of the widest statistical domains. Periods of ill health are critical times in a person's life and citizens place trust in a society being able to provide them with an appropriate level of care irrespective of their socioeconomic situation. The importance of health as a measure of the development of a country is indicated by the inclusion of health and health determinant measures among the eight Millennium Development Goals:

- Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger (goal 1);
- Achieve universal primary education (goal 2);
- Promote gender equality and empower women (goal 3);
- Reduce child mortality (goal 4);
- Improve maternal health (goal 5);
- Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases (goal 6);
- Ensure environmental sustainability (goal 7); and
- Develop a global partnership for development (goal 8).

The provision of health care is expensive. Hence it is important Government to have a comprehensive range of relevant health statistics available to inform and to monitor health policy. Typical goals of public health policy measures include:

- Reducing incidences of disease and disability, and increasing life expectancy particularly among children;
- Ensuring early intervention to prevent the development of serious illnesses;
- Promoting healthy lifestyles and providing a basic education in good health practices; and
- Developing health systems that are equitable and responsive.

Some health problems are of more relevance to men or women, for example reproductive health and health care for the elderly are of particular concern to women. Since sex is a determinant of health, and risk factors are very different by gender, causes of death and other outcomes, such as disability, vary greatly between women and men. It is important to differentiate data for women and men because they will sometimes require different emphases in health policy. Adequate data on reproductive health is particularly important in developing countries, and statistics on disability are particularly important for women in countries with long life expectancies.

4.5.3 The value-added of gender statistics

Many aspects of child health are determined by maternal health, prenatal and perinatal development, and the quality of the social and physical environments in the early years of life. Examples of relevant statistical measures in this area include delivery methods, breastfeeding, the provision of basic care for the most common childhood illnesses, affordability of child health care such as the cost of doctor and hospital visits and medicines, and healthy nutrition.

Summary health indicators by region, 2003⁵¹

Regions	Crude birth rate ⁵²	Life expectancy at birth ⁵³	Under 1 mortality rate ⁵⁴	Total fertility rate ⁵⁵	Life expectancy: females as a % of males	Lifetime risk of maternal death ⁵⁶ , 1 in	Crude death rate ⁵⁷
	2003	2003	2003	2003	2003	2000	2003
Industrialised countries	12	78	5	1.7	108	4000	9
CEE/CIS	13	70	27	1.6	114	770	11
East Asia and Pacific	16	69	31	2.0	107	360	7
Latin America and Caribbean	22	70	34	2.5	110	160	6
Middle East and North Africa	27	67	45	3.4	105	100	6
Developing countries	24	62	60	2.9	105	61	9
South Asia	26	63	67	3.3	102	43	8
Least developed countries	39	49	98	5.1	104	17	15
Sub-Saharan Africa	40	46	104	5.4	104	16	18
World	21	63	54	2.7	106	74	9

The 23 countries in the world with the worst mortality rates in 2006 were all in sub-Saharan Africa. While a pregnant woman in Sweden had only 1 in 30,000 chances of dying, in Sierra Leone the risk was 1 in 7. The problem has been described as the poor

⁵¹ <http://www.unicef.org/>

⁵² Annual number of births per 1,000 population.

⁵³ The number of years newborn children would live if subject to the mortality risks prevailing for the cross-section of population at the time of their birth.

⁵⁴ Probability of dying between birth and exactly one year of age expressed per 1,000 live births.

⁵⁵ Number of children that would be born per woman if she were to live to the end of her childbearing years and bear children at each age in accordance with prevailing age-specific fertility rates.

⁵⁶ The lifetime risk of maternal death takes into account both the probability of becoming pregnant and the probability of dying as a result of that pregnancy accumulated across a woman's reproductive years.

⁵⁷ Annual number of deaths per 1,000 population.

state of Africa's health systems. WHO estimates that three-quarters of maternal fatalities and disabilities could be prevented if deliveries were to take place at well-equipped health centres, with suitably trained and skilled staff.

Regions less developed economically tend to have the highest death rates and birth rates, and the lowest life expectancy. Women in all regions had a higher life expectancy with the highest difference among CEE/CIS countries where the life expectancy of women was 14% higher than for men. In the European Union, there was also a wide variation in the EU between the life expectancy of men and women in 2006. The largest variation was in Lithuania where women lived 11.7 years longer than men.

EU: Life expectancy at birth by sex, 2006⁵⁸

Country	Males	Females	years
			Gender difference
Lithuania	65.3	77.0	11.7
Estonia	67.4	78.6	11.2
Latvia	65.4	76.3	10.9
Poland	70.9	79.7	8.8
Hungary	69.2	77.8	8.6
Slovakia	70.4	78.4	8.0
Slovenia	74.5	82.0	7.5
Finland	75.9	83.1	7.2
France	77.3	84.4	7.1
Bulgaria	69.2	76.3	7.1
Romania	69.2	76.2	7.0
Portugal	75.5	82.3	6.8
Spain	77.0	83.7	6.7
Czech Republic	73.5	79.9	6.4
Belgium	76.6	82.3	5.7
Austria	77.2	82.8	5.6
Germany	77.2	82.4	5.2
Luxembourg	76.8	81.9	5.1
Malta	77.0	81.9	4.9
Ireland	77.3	82.1	4.8
Greece	77.2	81.9	4.7
Denmark	76.1	80.7	4.6
Sweden	78.8	83.1	4.3
Netherlands	77.7	82.0	4.3
United Kingdom	77.1	81.1	4.0
Iceland	79.6	83.5	3.9
Cyprus	78.8	82.4	3.6

Source: Eurostat

The death rate in Ireland in 2006 was higher for males than for females in all age groups with the most pronounced difference in the 15-24 age group where the male rate was 2.7 times higher than the female rate.

Ireland: Age-sex specific death rates, 2006

per 100,000 population

⁵⁸ 2005 data for Spain, UK and Iceland.

Age group	Males	Females	Male/Female ratio
0-4	102	79	1.3
5-14	14	9	1.6
15-24	80	30	2.7
25-64	276	177	1.6
65-74	2,418	1,344	1.8
75 and over	9,298	7,410	1.3

Source: CSO Vital Statistics

An analysis of fatal accidents at work showed that men are well over two times more likely to be the victims of fatal accidents at work with the construction, agriculture and transport sectors the areas with the highest rates.

EU Fatal accidents at work⁵⁹ by sex and type of activity, 1994–1999

Category	Fatal accidents at work per 1,000 employees Incidence rate
Men	53
Women	20
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	71
Manufacturing	45
Electricity, gas and water supply	14
Construction	78
Wholesale and retail trade	25
Hotels and restaurants	37
Transport, storage and communication	57
Financial intermediation	18

Source: Eurostat

Respondents to an EU SILC question on their health varied widely in their responses. The rate for males was higher in all age groups. The rate for people aged 85 & over was twice the overall level for people aged 15 & over.

EU: Health problems⁶⁰ by sex and age group, 2005

Age group	% of cohort	
	Females	Males
Total 15 & over	29.1	32.9
15-24	10.5	11.6
25-34	14.4	14.8
35-44	19.7	21.7
45-54	30.2	32.0
55-64	43.2	44.5
65-74	53.1	56.7
75-84	61.3	64.3
85 & over	63.7	67.6

Source: EU SILC

The availability and composition of human resources for health is an important indicator of the strength of a health system. Although there is no consensus about the optimal level of health workers for a population, there is ample evidence that the

⁵⁹ Excludes fatal accidents.

⁶⁰ Do you suffer from long-standing (chronic) illness or condition (health problem)? Problems that are seasonal or recurring should be included.

number and quality of workers are positively associated with immunisation coverage, outreach of primary care, and infant, child and maternal survival.

The indicators needed to describe the characteristics of the health workforce and monitor its development over time are often generated from a multitude of sources and cover many areas (such as profession, level of training and industry of employment). The diversity of sources may necessitate that harmonisation methodologies will have to be undertaken to arrive at comparable estimates of the health workforce for each country. Human resource health indicators are typically expressed as a rate per 1,000 of the population:

- Physicians
- Midwives
- Pharmacists
- Community health workers
- Other health workers
- Nurses
- Dentists
- Public health workers
- Laboratory health workers
- Health-management and support workers

Education is a key determinant of health in later life. Basic indicators such as enrolment rates and literacy show very wide variation in different regions of the World, and across the World women received less education than men.

Selected health indicators and determinants⁶¹

Region	Adult literacy rate: females as a % of males	Gross enrolment ⁶² females as a % of males primary school
	2000	1998-2002
Industrialised countries	-	100
CEE/CIS	97	97
East Asia and Pacific	87	99
Latin America and Caribbean	98	98
Middle East and North Africa	70	91
Developing countries	81	91
South Asia	64	86
Least developed countries	68	91
Sub-Saharan Africa	77	87
World	87	93

4.5.4 Implications for data collection

Comprehensive analyses need to be undertaken to fully understand health statistics. For example, an analysis of crude death rates in the EU in 2006 for the whole population showed rates of 952 for females and 998 for males per 100,000

⁶¹ http://www.unicef.org/sowc05/english/Table1_E.xls

⁶² The gross enrollment ratio is the number of children enrolled in a schooling level, regardless of age, divided by the population of the age group that officially corresponds to that level.

inhabitants. However using standardised rates, the rate for women was substantially below the rate for men (502 for women and 824 for men).

EU27: Crude and standardised death rates, 2006

Indicator	Population		per 100,000 inhabitants Persons aged 0-64	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
Crude	952	998	156	317
Standardised	502	824	143	300

Source: Eurostat

Some causes of death are of more relevance to one sex and age is a critical factor for some causes. Neoplasms and diseases of the circulatory system account for around two-thirds of all deaths. Men have higher rates for deaths due to accidents and suicides. Women have higher crude rates for diseases of the circulatory system but lower standardised rates after longer life expectancies have been adjusted for.

EU27: Crude and standardised death rates by cause of death, 2006

Cause	per 100,000 inhabitants			
	Crude death rates		Standardised death rates	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
All causes	952	998	502	824
Neoplasms (C00-D48)	217	291	137	238
Malignant neoplasm of larynx (C32-C34)	26	81	18	67
Malignant neoplasm of breast (C50)	36	1	25	0
Diseases of the circulatory system (I00-I99)	428	376	201	303
Accidents (V01-X59)	24	42	14	38
Suicide (X60-X84)	6	19	5	17

Source: Eurostat

Health financing is a critical component of health systems. National health accounts (NHA) provide a large set of indicators on the basis of the expenditure information collected within an internationally recognized framework. NHA are a synthesis of the financing and spending flows recorded in the operation of a health system, from funding sources to the distribution of funds between providers, and functions of health systems and benefits across geographical, demographic, socioeconomic and epidemiological dimensions. Indicators of interest include:

- Total health expenditure as a percentage of GDP
- Percentage of total general government expenditure that is spent on health
- Per capita total expenditure on health at international dollar rate

These different indicators can provide quite different information, and users should make allowance for differences in price levels in different countries as well as considering what proportion of GDP a country spends on health.

EU: Total expenditure⁶³ on health as percentage of GDP, 2003–2005

Country	% of GDP		PPS \$ per capita	
	2003	2004	2005	2005

⁶³ Public and private.

France	10.9	11.0	11.1	3,374
Germany	10.8	10.6	10.7	3,287
Austria	10.2	10.3	10.2	3,519
Belgium	10.1	10.2	10.3	3,389
Portugal	9.7	9.8	10.2	2,033
Greece	10.0	9.6	10.1	2,981
Denmark	9.1	9.2	9.1	3,108
Malta	9.3	9.2	8.7	:
Netherlands	9.0	9.1	9.3	:
Sweden	9.3	9.1	9.1	2,918
Italy	8.4	8.7	8.9	2,532
EU 27	8.7	8.7	8.8	2,493
Slovenia	8.8	8.6:	:	:
Luxembourg	7.8	8.3	:	:
United Kingdom	7.8	8.1	8.3	2,724
Spain	7.9	8.1	8.2	2,255
Hungary	8.3	8.1	:	:
Ireland (% of GDP)	7.3	7.5	7.5	2,926
Finland	7.3	7.4	7.5	2,331
Czech Republic	7.6	7.3	7.2	1,479
Slovakia	5.9	7.2	7.1	1,137
Latvia	5.0	6.3	5.3	:
Cyprus	6.4	6.2	6.4	:
Poland	6.2	6.2	6.2	867
Lithuania	5.7	5.6	5.7	:
Estonia	5.1	5.3	5.1	:
Romania	3.9	3.6	3.9	:

Source: Eurostat

Compiling health statistics for international comparison can often involve the statistician in using a wide variety of data sources for the same indicator and differences in definitions. While these are problems that are not easily resolved, an example of some commonly used health statistical measures, the rationale for using them and a brief definition of each indicator is given in the following table:

Table: Definitions of some health statistical measures ⁶⁴

Indicator	Rationale	Definition and data sources
Life expectancy at birth	Life expectancy at birth reflects the overall mortality level of a population.	Average number of years that a newborn is expected to live if current mortality rates continue to apply. Vital registration, census and surveys: Age-specific mortality rates required to compute life expectancy at birth.
Healthy life expectancy	Substantial resources are devoted to reducing the incidence, duration and severity of major diseases that cause morbidity but not mortality, and to reducing their impact on people's lives.	Average number of years that a person can expect to live in "full health" by taking into account years lived in less than full health due to disease and/or injury. Death registration data. Estimates for the incidence, prevalence, duration and years lived with disability by major causes.
Infant mortality rate	Under-five mortality rate and infant mortality rate are	Infant mortality rate is the probability of a child born in a specific year or period dying before

⁶⁴ <http://www.who.int/whosis/indicators/2007compendium/en/index.html>

Indicator	Rationale	Definition and data sources
	leading indicators of the level of child health and overall development in countries. They are also MDG indicators.	reaching the age of one, if subject to age-specific mortality rates of that period. Age-specific mortality rates among children are calculated from birth and death data derived from civil registration, census, and/or household surveys:
Neonatal deaths	Neonatal deaths account for a large proportion of child deaths. Mortality during the neonatal period is considered to be a useful indicator of maternal and newborn health and care.	Number of deaths during the first 28 completed days of life per 1000 live births in a given year or period. Civil registration: the number of live births and number of neonatal deaths are used to calculate age-specific rates. This system provides annual data. Household surveys: calculations are based on birth history—a series of detailed questions on each child a woman has given birth to during the 5 or 10 years preceding the survey. The total number of live births surveyed provides the denominator.
Maternal mortality	Complications during pregnancy and childbirth are a leading cause of death and disability among women of reproductive age in developing countries. The maternal mortality ratio represents the risk associated with each pregnancy, i.e. the obstetric risk. It is also a Millennium Development Goal Indicator for monitoring Goal 5, improving maternal health.	Number of maternal deaths per 100,000 live births during a specified time period, usually 1 year. Vital registration, household surveys, census, health service records and specific studies on reproductive-age mortality.
Age standardised mortality rates	The numbers of deaths per 100,000 population are influenced by the age distribution of the population. Age-standardised mortality rates adjust for differences in the age distribution of the population by applying the observed age-specific mortality rates for each population to a standard population.	The age-standardised mortality rate is a weighted average of the age-specific mortality rates per 100,000 persons, where the weights are the proportions of persons in the corresponding age groups of the WHO standard population. Death registration data, sample registration systems, available data on child and adult mortality from censuses and surveys, together with population-based epidemiological studies, disease registers and notifications systems for the estimation of mortality for 21 specific causes of death.
Immunisation coverage for 1 year olds	Immunization coverage estimates are used to monitor immunisation services, to guide disease eradication and elimination efforts, and are a good indicator of health system	Measles immunization coverage is the percentage of one-year-olds who have received at least one dose of measles containing vaccine in a given year. DTP3 immunization coverage is the percentage of one-year-olds who have received three doses of,

Indicator	Rationale	Definition and data sources
	performance.	<p>the combined diphtheria and tetanus toxoid and pertussis vaccine in a given year. HepB3 immunization coverage is the percentage of one-year-olds who have received three doses of Hepatitis B3 vaccine in a given year.</p> <p>Administrative data: Reports of vaccinations performed by service providers are used for estimates based on administrative data service providers (e.g. district health centres, vaccination teams, physicians). The estimate of immunization coverage is derived by dividing the total number of vaccinations given by the number of children in the target population, often based on census projections.</p>
Presumed pneumonia	<p>Acute respiratory infections (ARI) are responsible for almost 20% of all deaths of children aged less than 5 years worldwide. The proportion of under-fives with ARI that are taken to an appropriate health-care provider is a key indicator for coverage of intervention and care-seeking, and provides critical inputs to the monitoring of progress towards child survival-related Millennium Development Goals and Strategies.</p>	<p>Proportion of children aged 0–59 months who had ‘presumed pneumonia’ (ARI) in the last 2 weeks and were taken to an appropriate health-care provider.</p> <p>Household surveys.</p>
Low birthweight	<p>At the population level, the proportion of babies with a low birth weight is an indicator of a multifaceted public-health problem that includes long-term maternal malnutrition, ill health, hard work and poor health care in pregnancy. On an individual basis, low birth weight is an important predictor of newborn health and survival.</p>	<p>Percentage of liveborn infants that weigh less than 2500 g, for a given time period. Birth weight is the first weight of the fetus or newborn obtained after birth. For live births, birth weight should ideally be measured within the first hour of life before significant postnatal weight loss occurs.</p> <p>Health-service statistics: the proportion of live births with low birth weight, among births occurring in health institutions. Household surveys.</p>
Obesity	<p>The prevalence of overweight and obesity in adults has been increasing globally. An increase in BMI exponentially increases the risk of noncommunicable diseases (NCDs), such as coronary heart disease, ischaemic stroke and type-2 diabetes</p>	<p>Percentage of adults classified as obese (BMI \geq 30.0 kg/m²) among total adult population (15 years and older).</p> <p>Nationally representative household surveys, including Demographic and Health Survey (DHS).</p>

Indicator	Rationale	Definition and data sources
	mellitus. Raised BMI is also associated with an increased risk of cancer.	

4.5.5 Further reading

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4.6 Information and Communication Technology⁶⁵

4.6.1 What it is

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) are the hardware, software, networks, and media used to collect, store, process, transmit, and present information in the form of voice, data, text, and images. They range from telephone, radio, and television to the Internet⁶⁶.

"Engendering ICTs" is the process of identifying, assessing and eliminating gender inequality in the access to and use of ICTs, as well as of adapting ICTs to the special needs, constraints, and opportunities of women and men⁶⁷.

4.6.2 Why it is important

Women and men need ICTs for the same reasons: to access and utilise information for themselves, their families, their work, and their communities. ICTs give women and men a voice in their lives, their community, their government, and the larger world. Women and men need ICTs to function in a digital and virtual world.⁶⁸

A key reason for gathering and disseminating ICT statistics by gender at country level is to inform national policy and to set international policy goals. Without sex disaggregated data, there is no understanding of gender issues in ICT and it is therefore difficult to make priorities in developing policies. Furthermore, such data articulates the case for the inclusion of gender issues in ICT policies, plans and strategies for policymakers.

ICTs offer women and men abundant opportunities to develop and expand projects. Information may be globally accessed which may alleviate the isolation of many women and men living in remote places, and facilitates all kinds of cultural, economic, political or social contacts and associated networking. Social organisations (such as women's movements) are increasingly using Internet tools such as web pages, e-mail, and forums.

Accessing ICT involves potentially gender specific barriers such as high access costs and technology choice, access to learning new skills, perception of ICT as a "male" sector, geographical access factors, family status, age, and religion.

The benefits of ICT for women

⁶⁵ The term "information technology" (IT) tends to be used interchangeably with information and communications technologies (ICTs). The latter recognizes the multiple technologies involved as well as the ubiquitous convergence of communications with information technology.

⁶⁶ Engendering ICT Toolkit: Challenges and Opportunities for Gender-Equitable Development <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTGENDER/EXTICTTOOLKIT/0,,contentMDK:20273967~menuPK:578395~pagePK:64168445~piPK:64168309~theSitePK:542820,00.html>

⁶⁷ Adopted from 2

⁶⁸ See 2

- Increased access to jobs and income-generating activities
- New opportunities for employment
- Increased access to information
- Expanded opportunities for communication
- Reduced time demands on women and girls

The benefits can contribute to women's empowerment by counteracting the barriers associated with isolation, limited mobility, and other cultural and social norms. They can translate into women's enhanced ability to participate in the political process and to advocate for their needs.

Source: Access to financing and ICT for women entrepreneurs in the UNECE region, UNECE, Geneva and New York, 2004.

4.6.3 The value-added of statistics

Comparable data on ICT are needed to understand its nature and its role in women's and men's lives. The data are needed in order to ensure the inclusion of gender issues in ICT. In order to respond to this at a fundamental level policy-makers require a clear statistical understanding of the impact and value added of ICT in women's and men's day-to-day activities. Statistics on ICT can be used effectively to:

- Provide political leaders with information to develop and implement ICT policies with an engendering approach on national, regional and local levels;
- Assist governments in forming legislation and policies that respond to developments in ICT;
- Include a gender perspective into the debate and the preparation of national ICT strategies and fully involve women in the development of e-governance systems at a decision-making level;
- Provide detailed data on the nature and extent of economic, social and the overall impact of ICT on women's and men's day-to-day activities;
- Encourage the development of gender mainstreaming in ICT in order to ensure affordable access for disadvantaged women and men, such as those living in rural areas, single mothers or fathers, elderly people, and people with disabilities;
- Understand what are the dynamics that could optimise the ICT benefits and gains to a society, and particularly to empower women and men in their participation in the labour market;
- Develop further women's and men's capacity to use ICT for entrepreneurship and business development;
- Assist ICT policies to achieve their potential for serving human development needs by analysing not only how women and men benefit from ICT, but which women and men benefit most (class, age, rural/urban location, race, religion, etc);
- Assist educators in the training of service providers of ICT to women and men;

- Launch an on-going process of preparing national reports⁶⁹ to assess the situation of women and men as ICT users, producers and decisions makers;
- Develop a role model for women and men and example of best practise in the area of ICT. Include women as leaders and decision-makers in ICT area; and
- Raise awareness on gender-related barriers to ICT access.

*Pilot Household Survey on ICT Usage**

A 2002 Pilot Household Survey on ICT Usage, conducted by Eurostat with responses from 10 EU national statistical offices (NSOs), provides some of the first data on women's and men's use of ICT in EU countries. Preliminary findings suggest that women in EU countries use computers and the Internet less often than men. The data also reveal some areas where women's and men's preferred uses of the Internet differ.

The survey found different levels of intensity of use between women and men in the EU. Women appear to be more casual ICT users, especially with regard to private home use. The data also reveals some interesting trends in how women and men use ICTs and the Internet. The percentage of people who reported computer use in the last three months varies across countries, and was lowest in Greece (24%) and highest in Sweden (76%). On average, 6.1% fewer women than men use a computer at least once every three months. Italy, Austria and Luxembourg had the highest gender differences: respectively 11%, 10% and 9% fewer women.

The gender divide increases when daily use of a computer at home is considered. In the UK for example there is almost parity in the use of computers in the long period of time (last three months), but the more intensive use (daily) shows a higher percentage of men (23%) than women (16%). On average, 8.1% less women than men use a computer daily at home. The highest differences were reported in the Nordic countries, Denmark, Sweden, and Finland, where the gender gap is 15%, 11%, and 10% respectively. In the same countries the differences of percentages between men and women were 7%, 4%, and 2% respectively when computer use in the last three months was considered.

4.6.4 Implication for data collection

Reliable data on ICT access and usage is crucial for examining the extent and dynamics of its social and economic impacts. There are four main sources used to collect data on ICT use, access and demand, they are⁷⁰:

1. Telecommunications operators and Internet service providers (ISPs);
2. Enterprise surveys;
3. Household surveys; and
4. Web-based user surveys.

⁶⁹ For example reports, see http://www.cso.ie/releasespublications/pr_it.htm

⁷⁰ Me A., Sicat M., Data on ICT and Gender: Where are the gaps? Access to financing and ICT for women entrepreneurs in the UNECE region, UNECE, Geneva and New York, 2004.

Telecommunications operators and ISPs. One of the sources from which countries can collect data on ICT access and use - such as on standard access lines, integrated services digital networks (ISDNs) and mobile phone networks - are telecommunications operators. Surveys on ISPs for example can provide information on internet subscribers (business or household), type of technology used (dial up, cable, WAP, etc.) and length of connection and data compiled from the largest telecommunications operators can provide information on internet subscription by country. These sources look at the provider side but do not reveal information on the actual use of the technology.

Enterprise surveys provide information on enterprise ICT use. In countries with sufficient resources, NSO's may conduct a full ICT-specific enterprise survey. The Eurostat Enterprise Survey on ICT Usage, based on a model survey developed by the OECD, collects information on: (1) an enterprise's ICT systems; (2) Internet use; (3) e-commerce via Internet; (4) e-commerce via EDI or other networks; (5) confidence-building practices for Internet commerce; and (6) barriers to e-commerce. Alternatively, NSOs can add ICT-specific questions to existing enterprise surveys.

Household surveys⁷¹ on ICT usage provide sex disaggregated data on individuals' ICT use, such as how frequently a person uses a computer, what he/she uses the Internet for, and what types of items he/she buys online. As with the enterprise survey, a country may conduct a full ICT-specific household survey or add a module on ICT to an existing survey. The OECD has also developed a model survey on household ICT usage on which the Eurostat Household Survey on ICT Usage is based. In addition to gender, surveys of this type can provide data on other social demographic variables such as age, education level, employment situation, type of household, and income, and show how usage differs between men and women. An ICT survey module conducted in Ireland⁷² in 2003 showed that whereas women accounted for around 43% of persons using the internet for private use purchases, this proportion rose to 81% for purchases of food items and fell to 15% for purchases of computer hardware.

Web-based surveys of Internet users, carried out by national agencies or market research companies, are another source of data.

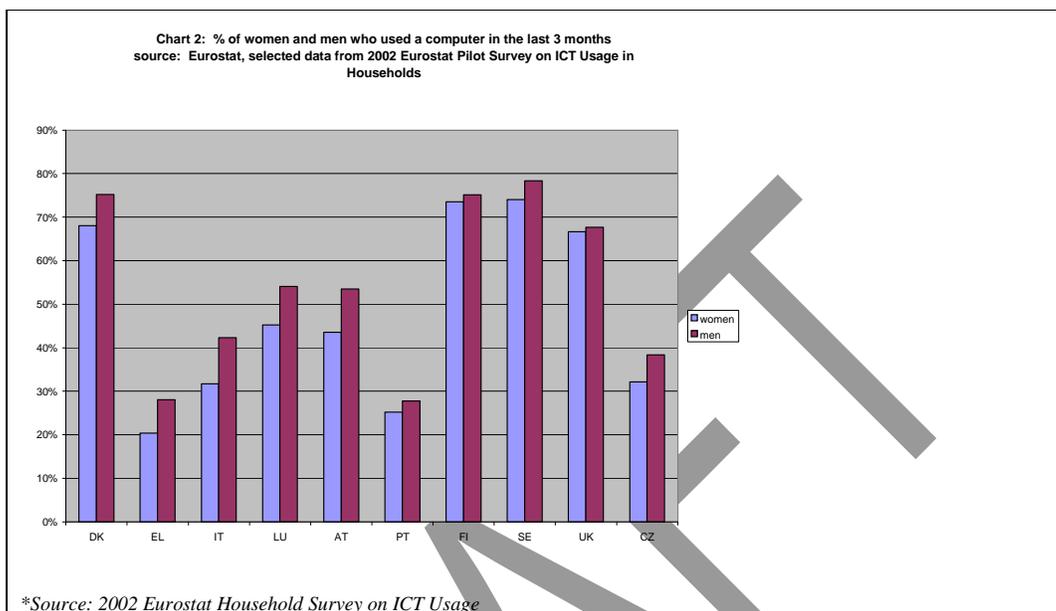
Administrative records can also provide gender specific ICT data such as information on the gender patterns of enrolment in IT studies or employment in the ICT sectors. But the quality of the data provided depends on the coverage and content of these records and registers.

Each of these data sources has strengths and drawbacks. Because data from telecommunications operators and ISPs are aggregate estimates, they provide limited information on individual ICT user patterns and are not sex-disaggregated. The changing nature of the ISP industry can also make such data very inaccurate. Still, they are useful, especially for countries for which no other data are available. Enterprise surveys provide valuable information on ICT use patterns among businesses. But as currently designed, they reveal little about the unique conditions

⁷¹ For questionnaire examples, please see Further readings at end of chapter.

⁷² <http://www.cso.ie/qnhs/documents/qnhsictmodule.xls>

faced by women and men entrepreneurs, the characteristics of women's and men's enterprises, or women's and men's ICT usage preferences. Because they are based on direct responses from interviewees, household surveys are a very good source of sex disaggregated data on men's and women's patterns of ICT use. Web-based surveys may not be based on standard methodologies; however, for some countries, they may be the only source of sex disaggregated data.



Improvements⁷³ in the collection and dissemination of gender-sensitive data at national and international level could include the following:

The development of a framework for gender-sensitive ICT indicators.

This would help to translate policy needs into statistics able to benchmark the current situation and measure trends over time. This framework would need to be drawn from a close examination of how the underlying dynamics operating in ICTs impact on women's and men's unique conditions and circumstances. The framework should include indicators that are measurable in official statistics. The selected indicators if not currently available would help national statistical offices to identify priority areas where the collection of ICT sex-disaggregated data could be improved and included in the regular statistical production of a country.

The development of a framework for gender-sensitive ICT indicators is needed to build a statistical foundation for indicators distinguishing the unique ways that ICTs are taken up and impact on women and men. As existing ICT indicators are on a general level and the consideration of gender specific purposes or uses have not been a key factor in the selection of questions for surveys, a core set of gender-sensitive ICT indicators is recommended.

⁷³ This part is based on a paper by Angela Me and Marie Sicat, Joint NECE/UNCTAD/UNESCO/ITU/OECD/Eurostat Statistical Workshop: Monitoring the information Society: Data, Measurement and Methods, Geneva, 2003

In developing such a framework, differences between countries must also be considered. It is possible that the same model may not apply to all countries, though it is important to identify similarities and establish a baseline for the work and core set of indicators.

Areas that should be included in this framework are:

Availability, access and usage of various types of ICTs at home and at work
 Knowledge and skills of ICT
 Education in the ICT sector, including access to and usage in schools
 Employment in ICT field, including training and use of technologies in the workplace
 Gender dimension of e-business
 Gender dimension of e-commerce
 ICTs in women's entrepreneurship

Development of gender-sensitive ICT modules

As was made clear in the responses of NSOs to the UNECE Assessment Survey, full ICT specialised household data collections are difficult to implement in countries with limited statistical resources. More efforts should be made to develop short ad-hoc modules, to be included in on-going household surveys, which ensure that ICT data can be analysed in a social conditions context.⁷⁴

Existing surveys on women's entrepreneurship, such as in the USA, could also provide a great deal of information on ICT access and use among women's businesses if a module on ICT use was added. Experiences and best practices among countries using this method of collecting ICT data should be reviewed and shared, providing feedback for future recommendations in the development of the modules.

Beyond sex-disaggregated ICT data

Developing gender sensitive ICT data does not refer only to making sex-disaggregated ICT data available. The availability of sex-disaggregated ICT data is important to being able to provide gender sensitive ICT indicators. But building a system to collect gender sensitive ICT data is also a matter of identifying areas which have special bearing on women's or men's lives. Locating these areas and identifying ICT indicators which draw out these gender and societal links is useful and important.

The identification of women and men's "niche" areas is important, especially as they could have policy implications helping to improve the welfare of women and men. The trend of women's strong use of the internet for health purposes which became apparent in the Eurostat household survey data could be categorised as a woman's "niche" area. The identification of such trends and "niche" areas could serve to flag potential areas for policy action. They signal to policymakers that policies, for example, on the use of public internet sites to target women in the provision of medical services and health information could be quite useful and needed.

⁷⁴ In household surveys there is often a household questionnaire and an individual questionnaire. Household questionnaires often include questions related to availability of appliances (TV, telephone, etc.). These types of questionnaire should be updated to include technologies such as computer, internet access and mobile phones.

Gender-sensitive education indicators with regard to ICTs

Data on women's education in IT was among the most widely reported ICT data type by countries in the ECE Assessment Survey. There has been discussion of the increasing need to "change women's perceptions of IT programs [so that the IT field may] consequently attract more girls and women to this field."⁷⁵ An IT curriculum emphasizing aspects such as the role of technology in the social context, focusing on the use of IT skills on community projects and the connection of technology with "real-world" problems has been found to be more appealing to women IT students than the conventional IT curriculum.⁷⁶ The promotion of such an IT education with a women's slant could be supported through the development of unique gender-sensitive IT education indicators reflecting the importance of the social context of the new technologies.

⁷⁵ UNCTAD 2002 E-Commerce and Development Report, p.74.

⁷⁶ UNCTAD 2002 E-Commerce and Development Report, p.74.

Example ICT Questions
CSO Ireland ICT Questionnaire Q1 2006

Direct interviews of all persons in the household aged 16 to 74.

Examples of questions asked, note interviewer notes not included below.

Which of the following computer related activities have you already carried out?

1. Copying or moving a file or folder
2. Using copy and paste tools to duplicate or move information within a document
3. Using basic arithmetic formulas in a spreadsheet
4. Compressing files
5. Connecting and installing new devices, e.g. a printer or modem
6. Writing a computer program using a specialised programming language
7. None of the above

Where or how did you learn to carry out these activities?

1. School, college or university
2. Training courses in an adult education centre (not organised by employer)
3. Vocational training course organised by employer
4. Self-study using books, cd-roms etc.
5. Self taught i.e. learned by doing
6. Informal help from colleagues, friends, relatives etc.
7. Some other way

Which of the following Internet related activities have you already carried out?

1. Using a search engine to find information
2. Sending e-mails with attached files (documents, pictures etc.)
3. Posting messages to chatrooms, newsgroups or an online discussion forum
4. Using the Internet to make telephone calls
5. Using peer-to-peer file sharing for exchanging movies, music, etc.
6. Creating a web page
7. None of the above

Have you used the Internet in the last 3 months for any of the following activities?

1. Sending or receiving e-mails
2. Telephoning over the Internet/Videoconferencing
3. Other communication-related activities (use of chat sites etc.)
4. No, none of the above

Have you used the Internet in the last 3 months for any of the following activities?

Note: This question relates to Internet use for private purposes only

1. Finding information about goods and services
2. Using services related to travel and accommodation
3. Listening to Web radios/watching web television
4. Playing/downloading games, images or and music
5. Downloading software
6. Reading/downloading online newspapers/news magazines
7. Looking for a job or sending job applications
8. Seeking health-related information (e.g. injury, disease, nutrition, improving health etc.)
9. No, none of the above

Have you used the Internet in the last 3 months for any of the following activities?

Note: This question relates to Internet use for private purposes only

1. Internet banking
2. Selling goods or services (e.g. via auctions)

3. No, none of the above

Have you used the Internet in the last 3 months for any of the following activities relating to training and education?

Note: This question relates to Internet use for private purposes only

1. Formalised educational activities (school, university etc.)
2. Post educational courses
3. Other educational courses related specifically to employment opportunities
4. No, none of the above

When did you most recently buy or order goods or services for private use over the internet?

1. Within the last 3 months
2. Between 3 months and a year ago
3. More than 1 year ago
4. Never bought or ordered

What were the main reasons for not buying/ordering any goods or services for your own private use in the last 12 months?

1. Have no need
2. Prefer to shop in person/ like to see product/ loyalty to shops/ force of habit
3. Lack of skills
4. Delivery is a problem (it takes too long etc.)
5. Security concerns or privacy concerns, i.e. worried about giving credit card or personal details over the Internet
6. Trust concerns, i.e. concerned about receiving and/or returning goods, complaint/ redress concerns
7. Don't have a payment card allowing payment over the Internet
8. Speed of the Internet connection is too slow
9. Other

What goods and services did you order over the Internet for private use in the last 12 months?

1. Food/Groceries
2. Household goods (e.g. furniture, toys, etc.)
3. Films/music
4. Books/magazines/ Newspapers /E-learning material
5. Clothes/sports goods
6. Computer software and upgrades (including computer and Video games)
7. Computer hardware
8. Electronic equipment (incl. Cameras)
9. Share purchases/Financial services/Insurance
10. Travel or holiday accommodation
11. Tickets for events
12. Lotteries or betting
13. Other

Of the products that you ordered over the Internet, were any of the following downloaded or accessed from websites rather than delivered by post etc.?

1. Films, music
2. (Electronic) books magazines, newspapers, e-learning material
3. Computer software (including computer and video games and software upgrades)
4. None of the above

Would you be interested in using the Internet instead of having personal contact with public services/ authorities?

1. Yes, I already use the Internet for this purpose
2. Yes, but I do not currently use the Internet for this purpose
3. No

What are the main reasons that you do not use the Internet to deal with public services/ authorities?

1. Services are not available or difficult to find on-line

2. Personal contact is missing
3. Immediate response is missing
4. Concerned about protection and security of my data
5. There are extra costs involved (e.g. connection costs)
6. Using the Internet for this purpose is too complicated
7. None of the above

Which of the following matters relating to public services/authorities are you already using the Internet for?

1. Income taxes
2. Job search services
3. Social welfare applications
4. Personal documents e.g. passport or driver's license
5. Car registration
6. Application for building permission
7. Police reports (e.g. reporting a theft)
8. Public libraries e.g. catalogues and search tools
9. Requesting certificates of birth and marriage
10. Enrolment in higher education or university
11. Change of address announcements
12. Health-related services e.g. hospital appointments
13. Other

What types of Internet connection are used?

1. Modem (dial-up access over normal telephone line) or ISDN
2. DSL (e.g. ADSL, SHDSL, etc.)
3. Other broadband connection (e.g. cable UMTS, etc.)
4. Mobile phone over narrowband (WAP, GPRS, etc.)
5. Don't know

What are the main reasons for this household not having access to the Internet at home?

1. Have access to Internet elsewhere
2. Don't want Internet (because content, harmful, etc.)
3. Don't need Internet (because not useful, not interesting, etc.)
4. Equipment costs too high
5. Access costs too high (telephone, etc.)
6. Lack of skills
7. Physical disability
8. Privacy or security concerns
9. None of the above, but other

4.6.5 Further readings

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4.7 Gender Attitudes

4.7.1 What it is

Gender attitudes can be measured across most topics, for example do men and women have different attitudes to crime, health service delivery, environmental issues such as recycling and sustainable development, education and learning, money management, and relationships. Attitudes constitute both an important factor creating gender patterns, as well as a powerful reflection of gender patterns in society. However, despite the importance of attitudes in relation to gender, national statistical institutes seldom measure them.

4.7.2 Why it is important

Attitudes are dynamic and constantly changing. Our ideas and experiences shape the world around us and, in turn, the world shapes our ideas and experiences. Attitudes can vary significantly by sex, age, and level of education. These characteristics are interrelated and what may seem to be a gender difference may be due to other socio-demographic differences. This can be particularly true for attitudes. Thus, while it can be difficult to determine which factors have the greatest impact on people's views, an understanding of attitudes, and of the values behind those attitudes, is essential if policy initiatives are to successfully influence attitudes.

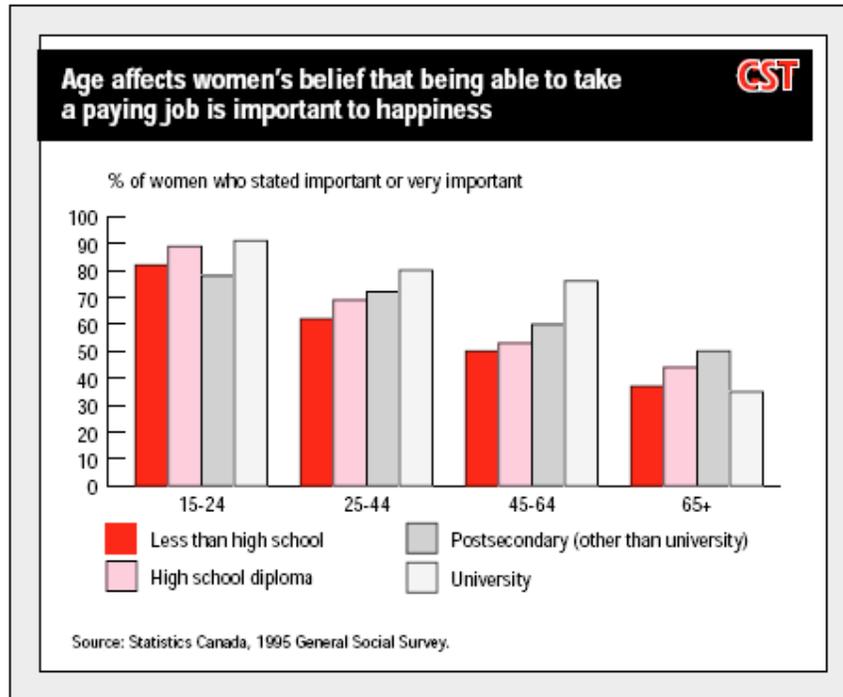
Canadian Attitudes towards Learning

The Survey of Canadian Attitudes toward Learning is conducted in collaboration with the Canadian Council on Learning to assess Canadians' needs, opinions and knowledge concerning learning and education. The survey covers four domains that represent learning themes of current importance: early childhood learning, structured learning (elementary, secondary and post secondary), health and learning, and work-related learning. The results of the survey are of considerable interest to those who help to plan policies and services in the area of learning and education. The survey helps identify knowledge gaps that exist and leads to a deeper understanding of attitudes towards learning among Canada's population.

The questions on the survey are broken down by themes:

- Early Childhood Learning and Structured Learning focus on the goals, quality, and priorities of formal education.
- Health and Learning pertains to how Canadians learn about health in general; where they get their information in relation to particular health issues; and to a lesser extent, what motivates people to learn about health.
- Adult/Work and Learning seeks to answer questions, such as: What motivates adults to engage in work-related education and learning? What keeps them from participating in work-related learning? What are the differences between adults who do and those who do not engage in work-related learning?

Gender attitudes in all aspects of human life are important to study and understand. In recent years there has been a transformation in the world of work, which has had profound consequences for individuals, households, and wider society, as people



attempt to reconcile work, family lives, and social life. It is important to measure the attitudinal barriers that society and people place in the way of facilitating these changes.

The attitudes of women appear to be more closely related to age than to educational attainment. A Canadian survey⁷⁷ found that young women were more likely than their older counterparts to respond that being able to work for pay is important or very important to personal happiness, regardless of their educational background. For example, among women who had attended university, 80% of those aged 15 to 24 held this view, compared with 35% of women aged 65 and over. On the other hand, men's views on this subject tended to be similar across all ages and levels of educational attainment.

4.7.3 The value-added of statistics

While statisticians measure outcomes, such as employment rates and educational attainment, most national statistical offices do not measure the attitudinal factors influencing these outcomes. Attitudes play some role in maintaining gender

⁷⁷ <http://www.statcan.ca/english/kits/pdf/social/women2.pdf>

inequalities. Adequate measurement of attitudes is relevant from this perspective. Systematic and regular presentation of attitudinal data on some central gender issues could produce signals for gender policy initiatives.

Attitudinal measures on specific national policy items could be useful to inform policy-makers to what extent new initiatives might get broad acceptance or which initiative may need intense efforts to attract support. For example, regarding attitudinal data on female participation in decision-making issues, information on the following are of relevance:

- Measuring the general level of support for initiatives like preferential policies can be useful to develop implementation strategies.
- The attitudes of decision-makers themselves to increasing the representation of women at senior decision-making levels are also of relevance.

Only by measurement can efforts to change attitudes on female leadership be evaluated. Attitudes and opinions are not common subjects in official statistics, but their relevance for policy development, implementation and evaluation in many domains would justify more investment in this direction. Stereotype attitudes and traditional beliefs play an important role in attempts to change, or to withstand changes, in gender relations.

4.7.4 Implications for data collection

The Dutch government believes that attitudes are an important determinant of structural inequalities in power between women and men, and has therefore run several campaigns over the years to raise awareness and change attitudes. Towards the end of the decade, the government developed an Emancipation monitor and arranged for a special survey focused on a range of emancipation-related issues.

For each item, respondents had to indicate where they agreed, disagreed, or were neutral in respect of the statement. The relevant statements were as follows:

- When a woman invites a man for a drink, after an evening out, this often means that she would like to have sexual intercourse.
- If a woman says no to sexual advances, she means no.
- If a man gives a gentle slap on the buttock of a woman, it is a compliment for her.
- In sexual intercourse a man should take the initiative.
- If a man is married or has a steady relationship with a woman, he has a right to have sexual intercourse with her.
- Too often boys and men impose their will in sexual relations.
- Nowadays women interpret men's behaviour too soon as sexual harassment.
- When a man beats his wife, he should leave the house and not the woman (as is most often the case).
- In cases of domestic violence, the position of the police should be one of reticence.

An important caution when using an approach such as this is that the statements often elicit socially desirable answers rather than a true reflection of the respondent's attitude. There is also no proof as yet that the responses to the statements are a good predictor of behaviour.

Measuring gender opinions in South Africa

Four years after the end of apartheid, in the second half of 1998 South Africa's first national gender opinion survey was undertaken. The survey was conducted by a non-governmental organisation on behalf of the Commission on Gender Equality, a constitutional body with the mandate of monitoring gender equality in the country. A total of 1,752 individuals aged 18 years and above were interviewed in the course of fieldwork. The survey was preceded by ten focus groups to test the design of the questionnaire.

The survey collected a range of demographic information as well as facts relating to the situation of the individual. These allowed for comparisons of opinions of different groups of women and men, as well as providing a snapshot of the situation in respect of key gender practices. The main body of the instrument investigated the situation and opinions of women and men on culture, tradition and religion; division of labour; decision-making; social needs; rights and the law, sexuality, and constitution, governance and politics.

In most countries, the national statistical office is unlikely to organise a survey that focusses only on gender attitudes. The central aim of the European Social Survey (ESS)⁷⁸ is to gather data about changing values, attitudes, attributes, and behaviour patterns within Europe's social, political and moral climate. The ESS hopes to measure and explain how people's social values, cultural norms and behaviour patterns are distributed, the way in which they differ within and between nations, and the direction and speed at which they are changing.

Data collection takes place every two years, by means of face to face interviews of around an hour in duration. The questionnaire consists of a 'core' module lasting about half an hour - which remains relatively constant from round to round - plus two 'rotating' modules, to be repeated at intervals, each devoted to a substantive topic or theme.

The themes covered in the core modules are: Trust in institutions; Political engagement; Socio-political values; Moral and social values; Social capital; Social exclusion; National, ethnic, religious identity; Well-being, health and security; Demographic composition; Education and occupation; Financial circumstances; and Household circumstances.

An ESS survey module on family, work and well-being focussed on the inter-relationships between work, family and well-being. It dealt with the implications for personal well-being of changes in the nature of work and in the nature of family and household structures. Everyday experiences of combining work and family obligations are crucial for the life satisfaction and psychological well-being of European citizens. The aim of the module was to provide insights into current issues of work, family and

⁷⁸Source: The European Social Survey <http://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/>

well-being and into the interactions between them. The module included the following questions about family and work:

- To what extent is modern working life in Europe possible to combine with family life?
- In what way, and how much, do the possibilities of and problems in combining family and work correlate with job, family, and personal life satisfaction?
- How do the modern family and job structures affect gender relations?
- To what extent do national policies (such as care service and parental leave schemes) enable men and women to reconcile work and family life?
- Do socio-economic and ethnic-based inequality in employment opportunities and working conditions on the one hand, and family arrangements on the other, influence social cohesion?
- To what extent do job histories, and family events and structure, create social and economic resources and influence the health status and life satisfaction of people during retirement ages?

In the 1995 General Social Survey, the following questions were asked of a representative sample of the Canadian population.

(1) In order for you to be happy in life, is it very important, important, not very important or not at all important to be able to take a paying job either outside or inside the home?

- (2) Can you tell me if you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with each of the following statements?
- An employed mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work for pay.
 - Having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person.
 - Both the man and the woman should contribute to the household income.
 - A pre-school child is likely to suffer if both parents are employed.
 - A job is all right, but what most women really want is a home and children.

It is not only in the area of employment and the labour market where dramatic changes have taken place in society. Religious values, policy areas requiring a delivery of State services as distinct from free market services delivery, and racial and cultural tolerance are other examples of the many areas where statistical offices could undertake research that would better inform government policy measures aimed at supporting change in society.

Attitudes of people aged 15 and over, by sex, 1995

CST

	Very important	Important	Not important	Not at all important	Don't know ¹	Total ²
Importance of being able to take a paying job						
%						
Men	37	49	9	1	3	100
Women	18	46	26	4	4	100
Total	27	48	18	3	4	100
	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know ¹	Total ²
Employed mother can have warm relationship with children						
%						
Men	8	51	27	3	10	100
Women	14	53	20	2	9	100
Total	11	52	24	3	10	100
Having a job is best way for a woman to be independent						
%						
Men	5	44	35	3	12	100
Women	10	45	33	3	8	100
Total	7	45	34	3	10	100
Man and woman should contribute to household income						
%						
Men	12	56	19	0	11	100
Women	15	58	15	1	9	100
Total	13	57	17	1	10	100
Pre-school child will suffer if both parents are employed						
%						
Men	11	48	28	2	9	100
Women	11	40	34	3	10	100
Total	11	44	31	3	9	100
A job is all right, but what most women really want is a home and children						
%						
Men	4	42	32	2	18	100
Women	6	40	37	4	11	100
Total	5	41	35	3	15	100

¹ Includes "No opinion"² Includes "Not stated". Also, rows may not add to 100% because of rounding.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1995 General Social Survey.

4.7.5 Further reading

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4.8 Education, Research and Science

4.8.1 *What it is*

Education is a means of ensuring that all people have an equal opportunity in life. Engendering education involves examining and making progress towards gender equity in the learning opportunities available for both women and men throughout their lives but particularly during their period of full-time education. It also encompasses an examination of equity in the delivery of education service delivery, such as teaching and management, and curriculum content.

4.8.2 *Why it is important*

There is a general international understanding that education is valuable, that it is a right in itself, and that it is central in promoting women's and men's rights and in achieving gender equality in society. The importance of education is recognised by all countries as an important factor for the socioeconomic development and sustainable growth of a nation.

The social effects of education concern a variety of dimensions such as health, mortality, public life, decision-making, behaviour in terms of birth control, violence in society, etc. Comparable and comprehensive data on gender in education are required in order to develop appropriate legislation and policy aimed at⁷⁹:

- Promoting full and equal education for women and men throughout life, with a focus on life-long learning and basic education.
- Providing gender-responsive learning environments and equitable access to appropriate education programmes for all members of society.
- Encouraging equal access to knowledge and career opportunities in all fields but particularly in fields such as communications, science, technology, and engineering where there is often a lack of participation by women.
- Promoting the attainment of gender parity in education decision-making structures.
- Fostering partnerships and dialogue between women and men, underlining the long-term gains of social transformation leading to gender-sensitive societies.
- Strengthening capacities to collect and analyse sex-disaggregated statistical data, and to develop appropriate gender-sensitive indicators and guidelines in

⁷⁹ For more information please see : <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001318/131854e.pdf>

order to monitor progress made towards the achievement of international development targets relating to gender equality in education.

4.8.3 Value-added of Statistics

Most countries can produce a wide array of statistics on examination results. However less widely available are statistics on drop-out rates, and on the cultural and economic factors causing early school-leaving. With few exceptions, girls are more likely than boys to be missing from classrooms across the developing world. Girls who do enrol in school often drop out when they reach puberty for many reasons – the demands of household responsibilities, a lack of school sanitation, a paucity of female role models, and child marriage or sexual harassment and violence, among others⁸⁰. In EU countries, the opposite situation pertains with boys more likely to be early school leavers.

EU: Early school leavers⁸¹, 2002 and 2006⁸²

Country	% of 18-24 age group			
	2002		2006	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Austria	9.3	9.8	8.7	10.2
Belgium	14.9	10.2	14.9	9.9
Bulgaria	18.2	17.9	22.5	19.6
Cyprus	23.5	9.2	22.3	11.0
Czech Republic	5.7	5.4	5.3	5.7
Denmark	12.8	9.1	10.3	6.9
Estonia	19.6	:	15.6	9.6
EU 27	17.5	13.2	19.3	14.9
Finland	10.4	6.4	12.6	7.3
France	15.1	11.2	14.9	11.9
Germany	13.9	13.6	12.6	12.6
Greece	20.7	11.0	20.7	12.6
Hungary	14.0	10.7	12.5	11.8
Ireland	18.4	10.9	14.9	8.7
Italy	24.3	17.3	27.9	20.7
Latvia	21.6	16.1	26.7	12.2
Lithuania	13.3	7.0	15.1	13.4
Luxembourg	20.9	14.0	14.4	19.6
Malta	44.6	38.8	56.5	49.7
Netherlands	15.1	10.7	15.7	14.3
Poland	7.2	3.8	9.5	5.6
Portugal	46.4	31.8	52.6	37.5
Romania	19.1	18.9	24.3	22.1
Slovakia	7.3	5.5	6.7	4.6
Slovenia	6.9	3.3	6.2	3.3
Spain	35.8	23.8	36.4	23.1
Sweden	13.3	10.7	11.4	9.3
United Kingdom	14.6	11.4	18.8	16.7

Source: Eurostat LFS

⁸⁰ Sources: Gross secondary enrolment ratio: UNESCO Institute of Statistics. Net secondary school attendance ratio: Demographic and Health Surveys and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys.

⁸¹ EU Structural Indicator <http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/structuralindicators>.

⁸² 2006 data for Estonia, Lithuania, Slovenia and Croatia are unreliable. 2002 data for Estonia, Slovenia and Croatia are unreliable. 2006 data for Latvia, Portugal, Finland, Iceland and Switzerland are provisional. Break in series in 2002 for Lithuania.

Good quality statistics can allow national policy-makers to see at a glance where their country is positioned relative to both more and less developed countries, and allow them to anticipate future trends in areas such as subject choice, teaching and management structures. Time series analyses can also reveal which countries have reversed trends in these statistics.

Gender differences are visible as early as second level education when students begin to specialise in subjects. In Ireland, only 0.5% of girls took engineering as a higher level Leaving Certificate examination subject compared to 12.8% of boys. Boys accounted for more than 90% of candidates in technical drawing and construction studies at higher level. In contrast, 31.4% of girls took higher level Home economics compared to just 3% of boys. The effect of differentiation in very specialised subjects at this early stage of the education cycle is likely to be carried into third level education and employment choices.

Ireland: Leaving Certificate higher level candidates, 2005				
Subject (higher level)	Number		% of candidates	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Biology	5,113	12,369	20.0	43.4
Mathematics	5,028	4,813	19.7	16.9
Chemistry	2,544	3,488	10.0	12.2
Physics	3,812	1,691	14.9	5.9
Construction studies	6,300	419	24.7	1.5
Technical drawing	2,797	263	11.0	0.9
Engineering	3,280	155	12.8	0.5
Home Economics	774	8,950	3.0	31.4
Art	2,540	5,093	9.9	17.9
Music	1,099	3,128	4.3	11.0
Irish	4,626	9,728	18.1	34.1
English	13,665	18,679	53.5	65.5
French	5,248	9,363	20.5	32.8
Total candidates¹	25,543	28,530		

These trends were also visible at third level where women represented 82.1% of graduates in the health and welfare field and 79.3% of graduates in education. In engineering, manufacturing and construction, 23% of male graduates qualified with this degree compared to only 3.2% of female graduates.

Ireland: Third level graduates ² by field of study, 2005				
Field of education	number		% of graduates	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Agriculture	163	169	0.6	0.5
Arts and humanities	4,623	9,244	17.5	27.8
Education	684	2,623	2.6	7.9
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	6,087	1,070	23.0	3.2
Health and welfare	1,136	5,203	4.3	15.7
Science	5,605	4,053	21.2	12.2
Services	677	496	2.6	1.5
Social sciences, business and law	7,480	10,337	28.3	31.1
Total³	26,455	33,195	100.0	100.0

CHAPTER

Across the EU, there is a general trend for women teachers to significantly outnumber men in early education, for a better balance at second level, and then for men to be in the majority at third level. In many countries, it is also mainly men who are school principals. Lifestyle choices and income remuneration are key factors determining these trends.

EU: Classroom teachers and academic staff, 2005

Country	%					
	ISCED 1		ISCED 2-3		ISCED 5-6	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Austria	10.2	89.8	38.8	61.2	:	:
Belgium	21.3	78.7	41.7	58.3	59.3	40.7
Bulgaria	7.2	92.8	22.8	77.2	55.0	45.0
Cyprus	17.0	83.0	39.5	60.5	58.4	41.6
Czech Republic	16.4	83.6	32.8	67.2	59.9	40.1
Finland	24.0	76.0	35.6	64.4	53.9	46.1
France	18.4	81.6	41.9	58.1	62.0	38.0
Germany	16.3	83.7	44.0	56.0	65.6	34.4
Greece	37.0	63.0	44.2	55.8	64.0	36.0
Hungary	4.1	95.9	28.8	71.2	61.2	38.8
Ireland	15.9	84.1	38.4	61.6	60.6	39.4
Italy	4.4	95.6	33.6	66.4	66.5	33.5
Latvia	2.9	97.1	16.8	83.2	42.1	57.9
Lithuania	2.3	97.7	:	:	47.3	52.7
Luxembourg	28.8	71.2	:	:	:	:
Malta	14.4	85.6	42.7	57.3	73.3	26.7
Netherlands	17.8	82.2	:	:	64.8	35.2
Poland	15.5	84.5	30.9	69.1	59.0	41.0
Portugal	18.5	81.5	31.4	68.6	58.0	42.0
Romania	13.5	86.5	33.7	66.3	57.1	42.9
Slovakia	10.4	89.6	27.0	73.0	58.1	41.9
Slovenia	2.6	97.4	28.8	71.2	66.5	33.5
Spain	30.6	69.4	:	:	61.2	38.8
Sweden	18.7	81.3	42.4	57.6	57.5	42.5
United Kingdom	18.4	81.6	39.2	60.8	60.1	39.9

Source: Eurostat,

EU: School management personnel, 2005

Country	%			
	ISCED 1		ISCED 2-3	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Austria	34.8	65.2	58.2	41.8
Bulgaria	23.6	76.4	34.8	65.2
Cyprus	37.4	62.6	51.6	48.4
Finland	64.1	35.9	61.5	38.5
France	18.7	81.3	55.8	44.2
Greece	:	:	26.0	74.0
Ireland	49.0	51.0	67.4	32.6
Italy	:	:	61.3	38.7
Netherlands	68.6	31.4	:	:
Romania	36.6	63.4	47.1	52.9
Slovakia	12.9	87.1	52.2	47.8
Slovenia	35.9	64.1	40.4	59.6
Sweden	25.1	74.9	50.9	49.1

United Kingdom

30.0

70.0

: :
Source: Eurostat

4.8.4 Implication for data collection⁸³

In the field of education, there are a wide number of inter-related aspects ranging from the level of demand for and supply of educational opportunities to the way in which people gain access to and participate in education. These aspects include the quality of the teaching and learning process, the internal efficiency of the education system, individual learning outcomes, and the impact of education on personal growth and the well-being of the individual, the community and the country as a whole.

Data required for measuring gender disparities in education can be collected from different sources using a variety of existing methods of collection. Essentially, the data sources may be categorised by individual persons and educational institutions. The individual persons in this respect refer not only to the students and teaching staff, but can also include the parents, other members of the same family, community leaders, employers, etc. The educational institutions, although most often referring to the schools and universities, may also cover adult education centres and other places of learning/training. The methods of collection may include regular school surveys, administrative reporting, population censuses, and household surveys. Each of these methods has proved to be effective for collecting specific types of education statistics.

Methods of collecting education data	
Population censuses	Educational attainment School attendance Fields of study Illiteracy
Household surveys	Additional data on illiteracy surveys and educational attainment Household educational expenditures Qualitative data Other topics (reasons for drop-out, parents expectations or opinions etc.)
School surveys	Pupils by sex, age, grade, field of study, ethnicity Assistance for students with learning difficulties Conditions of schools, equipment, facilities
Administrative files	Educational expenditures Teachers' salaries Principals and teaching staff by sex and age Examination results

⁸³ The section is based on "A practical guide", by UNESCO Gender-Sensitive Education Statistics and Indicators

http://www.uis.unesco.org/file_download.php?URL_ID=5017&filename=10420443980gend-stat.pdf&filetype=application%2Fpdf&filesize=229846&name=gend-stat.pdf&location=user-S/

Data gathered from regular school surveys and population censuses are essential for obtaining a general overview of gender differences in educational access, participation, and performance. More focussed additional data are necessary if there is a need to study more deeply the reasons for inequalities in order to identify appropriate measures to reduce disparities. It may be interesting to identify reasons for drop-out, low school attendance, low participation by women in technical subjects, and to analyse other elements such as children and community's needs, parents' perceptions and expectations, etc. Similarly, information is needed about aspects of the supply of education, e.g. public policies, resources allocation, and school infrastructure.

In most developing countries, girls and women are worse off than boys and men as regards access to and participation in schooling, as shown by an analysis of gender disparities in intake (entrance) rates into primary education and enrolment ratios. It is of interest to examine the behaviour of girls as compared to boys once they are in school, i.e. whether they tend to remain in school more or less than boys. School survival is given by the estimated percentage of a cohort of pupils who have entered grade 1 in a given year and eventually complete the final grade.

While in the majority of developing countries overall gender parity in education is far from being achieved, progress is being made quite fast in some developed countries, and in some countries of Latin America and the Caribbean region. However even in countries where overall parity is achieved, large disparities appear in the distribution of male and female students among the different fields of study in technical and vocational and in higher education. The index of gender segregation by fields of study is defined as the percentage of all persons enrolled at a given level of education who would need to change their field of study if the ratio of females to males were to be the same in all fields (assuming that there is no change in the total enrolment).

In making inter-country comparisons there is a need to take into account overall achievement and gender inequalities (gender gaps and parity indices). If the overall value is the same, more inequality will evidently indicate a worse social situation. But the question is more complex when the overall or mean levels of achievement are different. In Haiti, for instance, the literacy rate is 43% with 46% for males and 40% for females. Should this social outcome be judged worse than that of Chad, which has an overall literacy rate of 45% with 59% for males and 31% for females?

In order to answer this type of question, synthetic indicators have been proposed integrating the gender-equity dimension in the measure of absolute achievement. UNDP has developed a gender-equity-sensitive indicator (GESI), which utilises the harmonic mean between the male and female indicators. The harmonic mean has the property of taking into account both the value of the overall ratio as well as, to a certain extent, the disparity between males and females.

*Gender parity in education*⁸⁴

⁸⁴ Source : Education for all in least developed countries. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001472/147259M.pdf>

One of the indicators used to measure progress towards gender parity in education is the Gender Parity Index (GPI) of the Gross Enrolment Ratio for each level of education. The GPI is the ratio of female to male enrolment ratios. A Gender Parity Index close to 1.00 (between 0.97 and 1.03, according to the EFA Global Monitoring Report) indicates parity at the given level of education.

A number of explanations exist:

- At the primary level, the advantage may appear to be in favour of girls because countries are enrolling a greater number of girls than boys who have previously not enrolled in school. Countries where gender disparities in favour of boys have tended to exist over many years will have a greater “backlog” of girls to educate now, which will result in GPIs in excess of 1.03.
- At the secondary level, the advantage may appear to be in favour of girls in some cases because they have moved on more rapidly than boys from primary education (whereas the boys are tending to repeat more often in primary); in other cases, it is because young men move on more rapidly from secondary education than young women, either into the world of work or to other – often more prestigious – streams of education (including higher levels or educational provision abroad). In some countries, it may be because girls have undertaken further studies than boys at the secondary level and that boys have dropped out of the education system.

Gender statistics in research and science: measuring inequality⁸⁵

The number of female researchers continues to increase, but women still make up less than a third of researchers in Europe as well as in all other world regions *except* for Latin America & the Caribbean with 46% women and Central Asia with 50% women. Europe outside the EU/EFTA countries has 42% female researchers, and in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) the share is 44 % compared to 27% in the EU/EFTA countries⁸⁶.

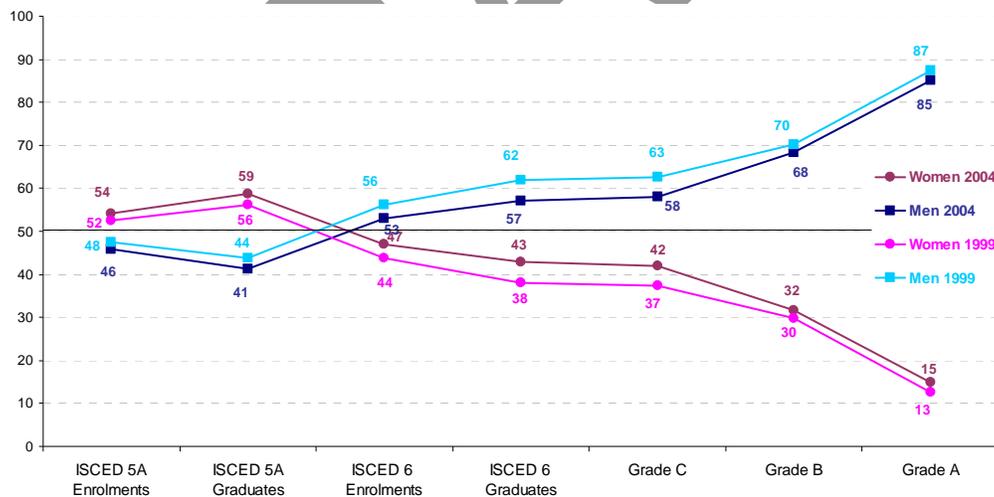


Figure 1: Relative share of women & men in a typical academic career⁸⁷ EU-25, HC, 1999 and 2004

⁸⁵ Camilla Gidlöf Regnier, European Commission

⁸⁶ Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) May 2006, data from 2004

⁸⁷ Definitions:

Grade A – The single highest grade/post at which research is normally conducted,

Grade B – Researchers working in positions not as senior as top position (A) but more senior than the newly qualified PhDs

Grade C – The first grade/post into which a newly qualified PhD (ISCED6) graduate would normally be recruited

ISCED 6 – Advanced higher education programmes (PhD)

ISCED 5A – Basic higher education programmes (Bachelors and Masters) leading to access to advanced university studies

Source: European Commission, Eurostat NewCronos database and WiS database

While a positive shift is occurring overall, progress remains slow and is almost static in some sciences. Also, while female participation is increasing, this is not being reflected as much in increased participation at senior levels, with only 15% women in grade A academic positions (full professors and similar) across all fields of science in the European Union⁸⁸.

Statistics such as these have value both as knowledge and as a policy resource. The process of engendering statistics started however quite recently in the area of science and research. Although some countries have had national sex-disaggregated statistics on researchers for quite some time, this has not been the case for the majority of countries. Unlike education statistics, research statistics have in the past been more focussed on the financial side.

The European Commission published in 2000 a report entitled '*Science policies in the European Union – Promoting excellence through mainstreaming gender equality*' prepared by the European Technology Assessment Network (ETAN) on Women and Science. One of the main conclusions in the ETAN-report was that assessment of the position of women in science is made difficult by the absence of reliable, accessible, harmonised data broken down by sex. The report stated that "*It is all too easy to ignore the disastrous effects of direct and indirect discrimination while we are in the dark about statistics. It is vital that there is a clear picture for all to see. However, it is currently impossible to get a proper fix on the position of women in science, engineering, and technology or to make systematic cross-national comparisons or to track changes over time. Sex-disaggregated statistics need to be collected, compiled, analysed, harmonised and disseminated on a regular basis, as a matter of course, at institution, local, regional national and EU level*".

Because of the data gaps, the European Commission launched in 2001 an annual data collection for 32 countries⁸⁹ through the Statistical Correspondents, a sub-group to the Helsinki Group of Women and Science and this annual collection was continued until 2006. The Women in Science questionnaires collected sex-disaggregated statistics on researchers by sector and field of science, and by economic activity (NACE) for the business sector, researchers by seniority level/grade, members of scientific boards and applicants and beneficiaries of research funds. The collection of most of these data items have now been taken over by Eurostat and been incorporated into the common R&D survey for Eurostat and OECD. There are also other breakdowns in the R&D survey such as qualification, citizenship and age.

⁸⁸ Data for reference year 2004 when Bulgaria and Romania were not yet members of the European Union

⁸⁹ EU-27 plus Iceland, Israel, Norway, Switzerland, and Turkey

Table 1: Availability of sex-disaggregated data on Researchers in the Eurostat NewCronos database

Indicator: Researchers by...	Availability of sex-disaggregated data for researchers		Rate of relative availability of sex-disaggregated data	Availability of data for total number of researchers		Rate of relative availability of sex-disaggregated data
	data for total number of researchers	sex-disaggregated data for researchers		in HC	sex-disaggregated data for researchers	
Sector (in general)	84.0%	80.0%	0.95	100%	76.0%	0.76
- Business enterprise	84.0%	76.0%	0.91	100%	60.0%	0.60
- Government	84.0%	80.0%	0.95	100%	76.0%	0.76
- Higher education	80.0%	72.0%	0.90	96.0%	60.0%	0.63
- Private non-profit	64.0%	56.0%	0.88	80.0%	48.0%	0.60
Qualification	36.0%	24.0%	0.67	20.0%	0.0%	0.0
Field of Science	32.0%	28.0%	0.88	40.0%	32.0%	0.80
Age	20.0%	20.0%	1.00	-	-	-
Economic activity (in Business enterprise sector)	64.0%	56.0%	0.88	72.0%	48.0%	0.67
Size class in Business enterprise	-	-	-	64.0%	48.0%	0.75
Citizenship	52.0%	44.0%	0.85	-	-	-

Source: EuroStat NewCronos database, 2005

Despite the improvements made so far, a significant effort is still needed in data collection at national level to provide the comprehensive information requested. A number of countries with large research populations such as Australia, Canada, China, Mexico and the United States of America still do not have data on the total number of researchers by sex⁹⁰. Often the reason for this is that there is no sex-breakdown for the business enterprise sector.

Table 2: Availability of sex-disaggregated data on researchers (FTE) in the UIS database

Region/Group (countries and territories)	Availability of data for total number of researchers	Availability of sex-disaggregated data for researchers	Rate of relative availability of sex-disaggregated data
	A	B	B/A
World (223)	44.8%	30.5%	0.68
Developed countries	77.8%	57.4%	0.74
Developing countries	34.3%	21.9%	0.64
Africa	26.8%	14.3%	0.53
Americas (51)	45.1%	23.5%	0.52
Asia	50.0%	40.0%	0.80
Europe	75.6%	62.2%	0.82
Oceania	14.3%	0.0%	0.00
OECD	100%	66.7%	0.67
EU-25	96.0%	76.0%	0.79

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics S&T database, 2004

There is still much room for further advancement in the collection of research data both in developed and developing countries. Firstly, much improvement is needed in the availability of sex-disaggregated data on researchers, especially for breakdowns like researchers by qualification and field of science or age, where data are missing for many countries. Data on gender distributions for research funding and of scientific boards can be further improved and eventually incorporated into official statistics. Other missing areas are pay gap, S&T performance (patents, publications etc.). Statistics on participation in higher education is for the most part much more complete

⁹⁰ UIS Bulletin on Science and Technology Statistics Issue No. 3, November 2006

in terms of sex-breakdown than the area of scientific employment, but one area that has been lacking is graduation from individual subjects, which is also important for gender analysis. Eurostat has recently collected statistics on graduates by detailed fields of study for the first time. In addition to R&D and education data, Eurostat and OECD also collect data on employment in science and engineering, *Human Resources in Science and Technology – HRST*. This category is broader in the sense that it includes not only researchers but also other science and technology occupations. The HRST data are derived from labour force surveys where the sex-breakdown is usually assured, but because of the nature of sample surveys, data cannot always be broken down by sex plus other variables at the same time.

Gender monitoring is a key element of gender mainstreaming, and for this purpose employers need to maintain adequate gender monitoring statistics to submit for official statistics. International organisations can encourage national statistical offices to improve the quality and availability of sex-disaggregated statistics, but the demand for policy relevant, timely and accurate statistics to measure the progress towards gender equality in science and research must first and foremost come from national decision makers.

4.8.5 Further Reading

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4.9 Gender and Access to Assets: guidelines

4.9.1 What it is

Assets:

Assets are defined as stocks of financial, human, natural, or social resources that can be acquired, developed, transformed, improved and transferred across generation⁹¹. Economic assets can be stored whereas resources may be not.

Assets can be tangible as for instance land, housing, financial capital, tools, machinery, jewelry, etc... or less tangible as for instance human capital (education), human assets (intellectual, biological), social capital (information, socio-economic networks and extensions), etc... Because intangible assets may not be so easily conceptualized and measured, in this guidelines we only focus on measurable economic assets, either financial assets or real assets.

- **Real assets** include housing, land, livestock, businesses, equipment, tools and consumer durables.
- **Financial assets**⁹² include cash, accounts of various kinds, stocks, bonds, trusts, insurances and private and public pensions.

Access:

Access embraces not only the ownership and the legal rights but also the control that an individual may have or claim over a present or a future asset. The legal aspect of accessing assets is a very important aspect for a gender perspective i.e. the laws that regulate the transfer ownership and/or the control of assets from one person to another, within the household (husband and wife in case of a divorce for instance), within families and family members (inheritance) or in general within the community or the nation (rights over common land, spouse's pension).

Empirical studies have shown that men and women do not have the same symmetrical access to assets: men are very often the only one to have a title or a socially recognized claim over most of the household assets. Gender disparities thus do exist particularly when assets are transferred within families as in the event of a marriage, a succession or when families are broken as in the case of a divorce when women are discriminated towards men.

Because of these inequalities and bias in accessing economic assets, individual data are necessary in order to fully understand how assets accumulation or depletion may affect differently women and men, especially in the event of a policy change or a shock.

Assets functions:

Economic Assets are a bridge between past accumulation and future well being:

⁹¹ Ford Foundation, 2004

⁹² While most people in the developed world take access to banking services for granted, price and non-price barriers (in particular physical barriers, affordability and eligibility) prevent large part of the population in developing countries and emerging markets from accessing and using formal banking services. Yet in general these barriers are not gender based and equally affect women and men. Women may face gender based obstacles towards credits when sex discrimination occur by lack of collateral (land, housing title to men only) or because of women are more likely to start their business in the informal sector.

- **Past accumulation**, i.e. store of value accumulated and invested in different form of liquidity (or more durable goods) whose market value may have to be determined but can be turned into cash when needed.
- **Future income from assets**, i.e. assets that will be available in the future in terms of flow of income from business, rent, pension or insurances and which present value has yet to be determined.

Economic assets serve three main functions:

- ASSETS as a **MEANS OF CONSUMPTION** (Enjoyment). In this respect tangible goods are owned for the enjoyment of their use and consumption over time (for example durable goods like a Fridge or a TV set).
- ASSETS as a **SAFETY NET** (Ownership and Control). In this respect, the crucial issue to explore is what resources do women own and control (for example financial assets like Insurances, Bank Accounts or real assets like Housing, Land or Jewelry).
- ASSETS as a **SOURCE OF INCOME** (Control and Mobilization). In this respect, the crucial issue to explore is whether women can mobilize resources of their own to generate income (profits, interests or rent), to access more resources and to preserve their assets (for example Livestock, Yard, Vehicles, Machinery, Tools but also Cash).

Access and control:

Individuals may access assets directly or indirectly, yet even if they own an asset they may lack the necessary *control* over it (see B. Agarwal 1994):

- **Directly**, a person has a title on an asset or a claim that is **legally and socially recognizable and that is enforceable by external authorities** such as village-based institutions or the nation state. Personal endowment before marriage or assets earned before marriage, as for example her or his personal savings, are example of assets directly accessible by individuals.
- **Indirectly** a person may *control* an asset that is not individually owned and may be available at the household level or at the community level.
- The issue of **control** in both cases is important and has two dimensions :
 - The ability to **take decisions regarding the disposal of the asset** through sale, mortgage, bequest, or gift.
 - The ability to **take decisions regarding the use of the asset**, including leasing it out or self-managing it and disposing of its produce or returns if any.

Women's access to economic assets is primarily a property rights and vulnerability/social security issue:

The institutional framework and the legal context are important explanations of women's ability to access assets. Women may be subject to discriminatory property, family and inheritance laws as well as cultural practices.

In the ECA region the legal framework is generally gender-neutral, that is not openly discriminatory against women with only few exceptions as for instance on divorces or

inheritance. Nevertheless, even when statutory and customary laws provide equal access to assets for men and women, women can face other types of obstacles.

Legal rights which have the most impact on women in ECA countries are the ones related to *intra-household issues*, primarily women's right to access household' assets when the family structure change through on of the following events:

- *Divorce; Incapacity or abandonment of a spouse; Death of a spouse or of parents; Childbirth.*

Strong men bias also exists in legal inheritance rights and in social security and widowhood pensions.

In the CIS countries transformation from planned to market economy opened new opportunities for relatively highly educated women but at the same time had serious implications in the re-distribution of assets and level of financing within societies as well as by the reduction in social welfare.

- As an example based on expert estimated, women in Russia (and in other CIS countries) obtained only 5-7% of privatized assets (in Moldova 1%)

Women's access to assets capable of generating income has more to do with general 'control' of assets and its returns and the conditions that affect management and decision power

Even when women have legal ownership over an asset, they may still lack the control over the asset. In other words women may face difficulties, obstacles and may be unable to control economic assets which in turn prevent them to realize gains from them.

Women may be excluded from the control of their economic assets and from the decisions that affect both, intra-household dynamics and household and individual production capability in the long run (household behavior).

Women who are able to mobilize assets for income generation are more likely to operate in the informal sector. These business assets play an important role in economic activities whose significance is often ignored by national statistics and can effectively be an important seed-bed for new entrants into micro enterprises.

Women mobilizing economic assets are less likely to be members mainstream business associations and network where information on business and market opportunities is generated and shared.

Women's lack of wealth or property ownership results into lack of collateral required by most loan application and because women's businesses tend to be concentrated in low-growth sectors (agriculture, handicraft, petty retail sales), they are viewed as less attractive investments.

4.9.2 Why it is important

Many women in many countries are unable to access productive resources and assets that exist within their societies. This gender-based disparity leads to exclusion from participation in the economy and society.

Economic assets spread risk over time and can play a critical role in sheltering women from poverty, economic insecurity, and vulnerability to shocks.

Ownership and control over assets provide direct and indirect benefits to individuals and households including a secure place to live, the means of livelihood, protection during emergencies and collateral for credit that can be used for investment or consumption.

Gender equality in legal rights to own or access assets does not guarantee control: the distinction between law and practice and between ownership and control are especially critical in the context of gender.

Women often not only lack access and control over economic assets but also lack decision-making power and authority within the household. These two dimensions may go together—for example, higher control over assets may give women a higher bargaining power within the household. Moreover, in time of crisis for example, women deplete their own assets at a faster rate than men with disproportionate impact on their potential earnings when using real assets as shown in box 1.

Empirical study showing a Gender Pattern on Asset Depletion among poor during time of crises

- A 2005 empirical study from low-income married couples in Bangkok showed that in time of crisis, women tend to deplete their own assets at a faster rate (26%) than men and deplete jointly owned assets at an even faster (64%) than men.
- Moreover, the rates increase significantly if the earnings are used for household expenses, showing that women tend to deplete at a faster rate (28%) than men, if jointly owned assets were used for the household (crisis) and at an even faster rate than men (38%) if individual solely assets were used.
- Finally, the study shows that the value of depleted business assets and the value of total depleted real assets have a disproportionate impact on the earnings potential of women compared to men, thereby maintaining or increasing women's vulnerability and making micro-lending schemes risky and unstable for them.

Source: R. Antonopoulos, M.S. Floro, "Asset Ownership along Gender Lines", 2005, Levy Economics Institute, NY

Women's limited ability to accumulate wealth (exclusion from formal land ownership, financial capital, education, healthcare, water, and energy) has far-reaching implications for inclusive and equitable development.

New evidence demonstrates that when women and men are relatively equal, economies tend to grow faster, the poor move more quickly out of poverty, and the well-being of men, women and children is enhanced.

In this respect, it is also important to consider the interaction of assets: recent studies in South Africa demonstrate that land restitution and redistribution programs have done little to contribute to poverty reduction. Instead, access to labor market and access to social grants for poor households remain fundamental to avoid poverty.

Furthermore, since saving out of a current income is one of the primary means of accumulating individual wealth, it may be necessary to focus on the interaction between the access to assets and the Labor Market. In particular, *Women's lower wages, Women's primary role with childcare*, and—in the labor market—the differences between *formal and informal sector*, are all determinants of women's ability to access control over assets and accumulate wealth and affect women's ability to accumulate individual savings.

Finally, the few disaggregated data available on asset ownership as shown in box 2., indicates how gender-based disparities and inequalities are present in the developing countries and at the same time illustrate how difficult it is for women to have access to assets.

Data on Gender and Assets Ownership.

Housing

- A 2004 survey in West Bengala of 450 women surveyed about 35% owned property land, and of these nearly 47% owned a house only, 36% owned land only and 9% owned both.
- In Nicaragua, in 2001 (calculation based on survey), 44% of owned residences belonged to women, compared to 50% owned by men while 6% were held jointly by both spouses.
- In Panama, in 2003, (calculation based on survey) 42% of owned residences belonged to women (31% in 1997), 42% were owned by men (58% in 1997), and 16% were held in the names by both partners (11% in 1997).

Land Ownership

- In Latin America, in the various national rural household surveys in the early 2000, the share of female landowners ranged from 11% (Brazil) to a high 27% (Paraguay).
- A 2001 household survey in Pakistan found that women owned less than 3% of the plots, even though the 67% of the sampled villages reported that women had a right to inherit land.
- According to the 2001 Population Census in Nepal, only about 11% of women own land and among those, around 90% own less than 1 acre.

Livestock Ownership

- In Nicaragua 37% of the livestock owners are women, compared to 23% of men, with livestock owned by both in 40% of the households. Men, however, are more likely to own cattle, horses and donkeys while women own pig and poultry.

Business Assets

- In Ghana, although women are more likely than men to own business assets, the mean value of business assets owned by men is much higher than owned by women.
- Recent data in Nicaragua shows that it was more likely that the household business was owned by a woman (49%) than a man (37%), in Panama it was more likely that these assets were owned by a man (59%) than a woman (30%). In both countries it was for many of these household businesses to be owned jointly by a couple (14% Nicaragua, 11% Panama).

Other Physical Assets

- An analysis of data from a UNICEF/IFPRI, UDS (2001) survey in Ghana shows that men are far more likely than women to own bicycles, cars or motorcycles (72% of men owned a bicycles compared to 0.7% of women) as well as canoes and ploughs. Women by contrast, are far more likely to own bowls and *makolles*.

Source: Doss, Grown, Deere, "Gender and Asset Ownership", 2007, World Bank.

Why individual data? Key issues on Gender and access to economic assets:

Individual-level data on assets is essential for specific program concerned with assets, such as land redistribution or titling programs, or those promoting home ownership and improve the understanding and effectiveness on several other policy issues related to poverty reduction, social protection, the empowerment of women (Millennium Development Goals #3), and the promotion of pro-poor economic growth. A series of key issues are summarized in the Box 3. below.

In light of their commitment to meet the Millennium Development Goals by 2015, international aid agencies and national governments are interested in effective strategies that promote gender equality and empower women. To meet these objectives, the lack of data is a barrier and collecting individual level information would enable to surpass this barrier, will help policymakers assess the extent to which the Millennium Development Goals #3 is being met.

<i>Key Issues on Gender and Economic Assets</i>	
<i>Asset inequality and property rights.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The disparities in property rights and social norms are fundamental for acquiring ownership and control over assets. Legal disparities between men and women on marital regimes, inheritance laws, and customs and social norms increase inequalities. ○ Analyses of “household wealth” ignore the fundamental institutional issues governing individual property rights. Sex-disaggregated information is important for reform of key laws that underpin social institutions, including divorce, inheritance, and family law more broadly.
<i>Poverty reduction</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Assets inequality, combined with market failures, leads to differential productivity between those who own assets and those who do not, which creates poverty and inequality traps. ○ Evidence from different countries like Brazil, Cote d’Ivoire and Bangladesh suggests that women are more likely than men to use their incomes to improve their children’s nutrition, health care and schooling, therefore improving opportunities for the next generation, with positive effects on poverty.
<i>Women’s Vulnerability to shocks</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Lack of ownership, control and decision power over assets may result in greater economic vulnerability for women, especially in the event of a divorce or death of the husband. ○ Women tend to face greater market (pay) discrimination or policy (pensions). ○ Moreover, pensions also reflect market discrimination, and pay discrimination are partly a result of policy, or lack of good policies distortions therefore they are more vulnerable to economic shocks within the community as well as within the household.
<i>Economic growth and entrepreneurship</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Gender bias limits the economic potential of half of the society: gender inequality, including in access to assets, which remains pervasive worldwide, tends to lower the productivity of labor and the efficiency of labor allocation in households and the economy, intensifying the unequal distribution of resources. ○ Women may not benefit from assets owned and controlled by men, not only within the community, but also within the household. A lack of social and economic networks, for example, may lead to discriminatory practices and obstacles. ○ Women continue to have systematically poorer control over a range of productive resources and in most developing regions female-run enterprises tend to be undercapitalized, having poorer access to physical assets, extension information, and credit than male-run enterprises.

Gender inequity is thus the result of an overlapping set of economic, social, cultural and political inequalities that reinforce each other which we can summarize by two main issues (World Development Report, World Bank '06):

- **Equal opportunities:** gender should not determine whether a person has more or less access to assets nor should create inequalities that persist and reproduce themselves limiting access to assets over time.
- **Endowment inequalities:** differences in endowments based on gender may come from market failures (labor, credit, insurance) as well as from political and institutional gender discrimination (inheritance, divorce)

The implications of these inequalities cause women to have less access to property rights, wealth and education and limit their access to labor and financial markets and to spheres of activity outside the home. This in turn, constrains their ability to influence household decisions.

In addition to the collection of data broken down by sex, the production of gender statistics on access to assets implies that all the factors that can produce gender-based bias are taken into consideration. In particular to address the following issues:

- Eliminate discriminatory laws and practices.
- Eliminate the gaps between the legal framework, law implementation and policy.
- Remove gender-based institutional, cultural, regulatory and legal barriers that impede access to a range of essential financial and non-financial resources, and ultimately limit women's ability to cope with life changing events like childcare, divorce, widowhood, illness and aging thus increasing their vulnerability.
- Improve access to and control over a range of essential financial and non-financial resources, which are fundamental in generating income, along with the removal of gender-based institutional, cultural, regulatory and legal barriers that limit the scale and scope of women's business operations.

4.9.3 The value-added of statistics

Few studies – either at the micro or macro levels – examine the gender dimensions of assets ownership and wealth gap and in general there is a lack of official gender-disaggregated data to fully evaluate women's access to financial and real assets and in general women's access to physical and financial resources.

Very few studies collect in official statistics information on the full set of real and financial capital, i.e. on physical and financial assets.

The few that collect data on assets at the individual level usually focus on a limited number of assets rather than the full range of material and financial assets listed above.

Moreover few studies examine whether economic assets are owned individually or jointly, how assets were acquired, what is their current value, and the rights, the tenure and the level of control that individuals have over each type of assets. Yet all this information is important for policies to reduce poverty, provide social safety nets, and improve individual well-being and promote women' empowerment, equal opportunities and economic growth.

One of the main reasons why official gender-disaggregated data are lacking is that very few household surveys collect data on ownership (not to mention the gap between ownership and control) of assets at the individual level.

Assets data are routinely collected, but normally only at the household level and only a few surveys actually collect individual information on ownership and/or control of land, housing, livestock and other productive assets. Without the gender dimension researchers and policy makers have only an incomplete understanding of the assets that women own, how they acquire them, and how they use them to influence decisions that their own and others' well-being.

The limited existing information shows that:

- Women in many countries are far less likely than men to have ownership and/or control of productive assets.
- Women may not receive the benefits of assets held by men, even when they live in the same household.

For a long time, economists did not adequately recognize that gender inequity has an impact in the home, and models assumed that decisions were taken by one person (head of household) with no room for different choices across spouses. One of the consequences of this view suggests that taxes on household will not affect the allocation of resources within it.

Economists now question this view and econometric work shows that an increase in a woman's relative worth and an improvement in her fallback options (in the event of a divorce for instance) have effects on consumptions pattern as shown in the following box 4:

EXAMPLES from previous studies of how gender equity may have an impact at the household level

- The health of Brazilian children improves when additional non-labor income is in the hands of women.
- In the United Kingdom, when legislation ensured that child support payments were made directly to mother, expenditures on children's clothing tended to rise.
- In Bangladesh and South Africa, women bringing more assets into the marriage increase household expenditures on children's education.

(Source: The World Bank, Global Monitoring Report, 2007)

Because government policy, social norms, intra-family arrangements, and the market, determine ownership, control and accumulation of assets: gender bias in each of these different institutions and practices limit women's ability to obtain and keep economic assets yet these manifestation of inequity are difficult to capture in a survey or in a set of data and are not generally independent from one another.

An effort to show these interrelationships can illustrate the nature and implications of the inequalities and unequal opportunities existing between men and women.

The role of statistics in the observation of direct inequalities or formal exclusion would appear limited, nevertheless statistical information on the infringement of legal constraints or legal inequalities in general, can be relevant.

Moreover statistics may highlight both, the presence of women and their under- or over- representation together with the application of selection criteria that may lead to unequal access (education, work experience, requirement as a collateral).

4.9.4 Implications for data collection

Why is it difficult?

By comparison to other topics, Gender and Access to Economic Assets is a relatively new field of researches: only few studies address this particular issue and have introduced a module or a specific survey but there are neither standards nor specific recommendations concerning data collection in this domain.

When data on economic assets and wealth in general exist, they usually have been collected at the household level rather than at the individual level which means it is difficult to assign individual ownership to assets. For example, when comparing across household types, it is challenging to compare household with one adult to those with multiple adults.

Yet there are several lessons learned from a few previous studies that we are going to present and discuss below with the different type of survey.

In general, the definitions and delimitations of “*Access*” and “*Assets*” are the most important implications for data collection. For example, the legal ownership and control of assets brought to, acquired during and if the case, divided after, the marriage, may differ across countries and within countries (because of federal legal system or customary laws for example).

For that reason, in order to design an appropriate questionnaire for survey, one would have to know the legal context, not only at the general level but also at the individual level (if individual can opt for alternative marital regimes, for example or what are the consequences in case of a divorce).

Another problem concerns the differences between assets and the frequency in the data collection: for instance, it may take more time to accumulate and transfer some assets than others; some may last longer than others or can be used in multiple ways over time and all these differences and pattern may be related to gender and therefore influence the frequency of the survey.

For example, recent studies (Afghanistan) have shown that big animals (cows, horses) are more likely to be held by men whereas birds with a shorter life cycle are more likely to be held by women who have the control of them but not the control over the profits generated by them.

Finally, as a group, women are not a homogenous and differ not only by age, marital status, but also by life position, education and access to resources in very different

ways. The timing, the composition of assets transfers and the method of acquisition of an economic asset can reflect these differences together with discriminatory practices and may differ substantially cross-culturally. Because of all these differences, the timing of acquisition of an economic asset and the control over an asset are relevant data to collect because it matters for women's bargaining power and to determine their vulnerability in the event of an economic shock, a change in their marital status or a policy change that may affect the asset.

To distinguish these discriminatory practices against women, from differences in the individual pattern of accumulation, depletion or transfers of assets is therefore one of the main problem in the collection of data about access to assets.

Which type of survey is best?

Because this is a multidimensional field of research, there is not a preferred method of analysis but several possibilities are offered to statisticians in order to collect data on gender and access to assets.

A first step would be to define the context of the region. For example, a detailed survey on access to financial assets would be different if focusing on rural areas instead of urban area. Moreover it may be useful to collect specific data when focusing on the effects of a new policy or an economic reform (privatization, welfare reform, land redistribution).

A second step would be to define the *spirit* of the survey. In this regard, it is necessary to answer some preliminary questions:

- What do we want to know exactly? What is the institutional context? What are the issues with gender: *Women's vulnerability / perception of poverty? Women's bargaining power within the household? Asset accumulation and poverty reduction? Economic growth? Women and self-employment and access to business assets?*

Given the '*spirit*' of the type of survey, then it is critical to clearly identify the right module so one of the possible choice would be whether or not it is useful to introduce a dedicated survey on access to assets, thereby collecting the full set of individual information and data on assets ownership and control.

Dedicated Survey or Ad Hoc Survey

A ***Dedicated Survey*** has the advantage of making the point about access and assets distribution with detailed questions about sex disaggregated data on ownership and control on both, the full set of financial assets (also access to assets as collateral for financial purposes or to pensions for example) and the full set of physical assets (also access to vehicles or jewelry as a safety net for example); yet such a collection of data may face several problems:

- People may be reluctant to disclose the value of their assets and collecting individual-level data on assets is not a trivial task: sometimes assumptions are required and complementary information need to be collected to allow proper interpretation for instance regarding direct or indirect control over a household asset.

- Sex-disaggregated data on real assets (which actual value may have yet to be established) may not come easy: most of the time real assets are shared at the household level and its access may not be restricted to an individual.
- Due to the time dimension of assets, it would be necessary to repeat such a dedicated survey regularly over time so that the dynamics and pattern of accumulation and depletion would also be available at the individual level, especially with the durable goods and real assets such as land and housing.

Finally, a dedicated survey is a type of survey that may preclude the possibility of a multidimensional analysis, because it is focusing only on detailed questions. In other words this is not a general survey offering a perspective within the household of several information connected each other for instance such as the individual situation on the labor market, the household consumption behavior and the demographic data (for example education).

If the time dimension is important, then a second type of survey, although more costly and more complex to realize, may be of interest: a *panel data* survey.

Panel Data

A ***Panel Data*** module is best suited to follow access to assets “*over time*” and therefore capture the time dimension and the use of assets by comparison to ownership alone dimension by regularly collecting sex-disaggregated data from the same panel or group thereby capturing individual pattern of accumulation, depletion and control over assets.

The two main problems with Panel Data beside are its costs and the complexity and technical challenges of following the same group, the same household, the same person, over time. Another problem is the fact that it is not possible to adjust the questionnaire from time to time according to the context or the “*spirit*”:

- With every context there are some limitations: for example, if we are after vulnerability, it is necessary to collect data on poverty and on discriminatory regimes while collecting data on access to assets which exclude the possibility of questions about how bargaining power or assets for economic growth (for instance self-employment) may vary over time.

Exploit synergies with other multi-topics modules: Cross Section surveys

Finally, with Panel Data is it not possible to exploit synergies among different parts of other modules (*Labor Market, Consumption, Demographic, etc.*) that already exist as ***Multi-purpose Cross Section surveys***.

This type of survey then would be made thanks to the synergy by adding a few questions in relation to access to assets into other modules. For example, if we are after vulnerability and are not be able to set up a specific module for gender and access to assets (no questionnaire for this topic); then what we could do is to complement some basic information of another survey that already exists with a few

specific questions on individual asset ownership (disaggregated by sex), on access and control to assets.

Before assessing if such a synergy is possible and viable and in order to fully exploit these synergies among different parts of another questionnaire, it is necessary to first clearly identify the right context and consequently the right module. Secondly, there are several difficulties and time consuming efforts in terms of what questions have to be included and where exactly to position them in a multi-topic questionnaire.

Finally, one of the main problems with Cross Section Analysis is that it is not possible to include shocks or a time dimension into it: all the questionnaire is designed for *a particular moment of time*. The questionnaire is not about what happened before or about what the situation would be in case of a change.

One of the possible solutions could be to complement some basic information on individual asset ownership and control with other questions **on personal perception** of poverty, of security in case of shocks, of opportunities.

Another possible solution would be first asking question about channel of acquisitions and perception of personal control over it (for instance in the future) and then ask for a title or legal document in which the timing is included.

In general, an intervention in an already existing multi-purpose questionnaire is a very effective and relatively cheaper way to gather few disaggregated data while collecting others data at the household level.

The *Living Standard Measurement Survey* (survey about consumption) and the questions in Box 5 are an example of such an intervention, showing how few questions about access to land and control over this asset may be collected at the individual data even if the module is focusing on the household.

Examples of potential questions on “access to Land” in a Living Standard Measurement Survey (LSMS)

Surveys such as the Living Standard Measurement Survey (LSMS) capture more data at the household level than data at the individual level. However it is possible to collect individual data on assets to provide a more dynamic perspective about who owns what, whether all benefits are equally shared, what happens to an asset over time, etc. by adding specific questions for each individual.

Here is an example of a few questions to be added into the LSMS multi-topic questionnaire:

- Do you own this land?
- Do you own this land yourself or jointly with someone else? (list...)
- How did you acquire this land?
 - With regard to this land, can you, yourself sell it?
 - With regard to this land, can you, yourself bequeath it?
 - With regard to this land, can you use it as collateral for a loan?
 - With regard to this land, can you rent it?
 - With regard to this land, can you make improvements on it?
 - What is the land primarily used for? (list...)
 - Who makes the decisions about which inputs to use?
 - Who provides labor on this agricultural land?
 - Who makes the decisions about what to sell?
 - Who keeps the revenue from the sales of the crops grown on this agricultural land?
 - Can you count having access to this land next year?
 - Can you count having access to this land in five years?
 - Can you be evicted from this land?

Implication of Access to Assets for Gender Statistics:

To understand gender patterns of asset ownership and thereby wealth distribution by sex, it is important to know both, the *proportion* of men and women who own a particular asset, as well as the *value* of the assets.

To understand gendered patterns of asset management and control at the individual level it is important to know not only the *proportion* of men and women who own an asset, and the *value* of the assets, but also the *purpose, use and allocation* of a particular asset, i.e. if an asset is (or can be used as) a business asset or a collateral for a business loan.

If a dedicated survey on *access to assets* is not possible, then adding a few specific questions into a questionnaire already available from another module could be the best solution. In this case it is important to consider that:

- It is necessary to collect information on individual ownership and property rights (where these are formally recognized, for example by a title) – or a situation that de facto is similar to an ownership according to the respondent.
- At the same time it is necessary to collect the full set of financial assets and the full set of physical assets that may differ by gender. This is important because as some studies have shown there may be a gendered pattern of asset ownership among husbands and wives and that women's vulnerability and bargaining power may be related to the timing of assets ownership as well as their fallback options.
- At the household level, this implies documenting whether assets are owned individually or jointly, how assets were acquired, what are their current value and the rights that individuals have over each type of assets (how decisions are made about sale, etc.) and who receive the benefits (income, rents, dividends, etc.) generated by each asset.
- However it is important to ask for any documentation only at the end of the process because this may preclude the respondent to give any information about ownership that is de facto similar to an ownership but without the title.
- If an asset is owned for business purpose at the household level, it is necessary to examine if it is owned individually or jointly, how the business asset was acquired, what is its current value and who receive the benefits (income, rents, dividends, interests, etc.) generated by each asset.

Multi-topic surveys generally allow to connect several dimension at the same time (for example: marital status + education + employment + individual assets), yet they are not designed to measure poverty, vulnerability or well being. Moreover they are not design to obtain individual level data on business assets because they focus and examine the income generated by the business.

The design of the questionnaire therefore is of great importance in order to obtain individual level asset data on ownership, control, management and accumulation by adding just a few, selected and specific questions.

4.9.5. Further readings

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4. 10 Decision-making

The topics covered in this chapter are distinct in several ways. First, they span widely from the highest posts in a country to the household. Second they range across many institutions in a country—including government, business, science and the family. Third, they are topics not usually covered in the programmes of the national statistical office. The topics, however, are critical in assessing women's power and influence relative to that of men's and some - but not all of the data required - are available in various administrative sources.

4.10.1 What it is

Decision-making will be considered as a position from where it is possible to take or influence a decision. The 1995 Beijing Platform for Action emphasized that equality in decision-making is essential to the empowerment of women and that "*women's equal participation in decision-making is not only a demand for simple justice or democracy but can also be seen as a necessary condition for women's interests to be taken into account*" (Para. 181).

One of the clearest measures of gender equality and women's empowerment is the extent of women's representation in top positions in politics. Are women heads of State or Government? To what degree are women represented in national parliaments or in ministerial or sub-ministerial positions? If women are represented, are they in specific areas of government, for example in social and law and justice ministries or are they also in political and economic ministries?

Economic-decision-makers are those who occupy institutional positions in decision-making bodies, they are actively involved in the deliberation and determination of economic policies and they are responsible for implementing them on behalf of the State or the institution they represent. Economic decisions determine both present and future economic performance and assets, with obvious implications for everyone's daily life.

A *household decision-maker* is a person who has a dominant position within a household in making decisions at all levels relating to the family (e.g. nutrition for a family, health care, education, investment, spending collective resources, decisions to take a sick family member to a health institution etc.).

4.10.2 Why it is important

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights states "everyone has the right to take part in the Government of his/her country. The empowerment and autonomy of women and the improvement of women's social, economic and political status is essential for

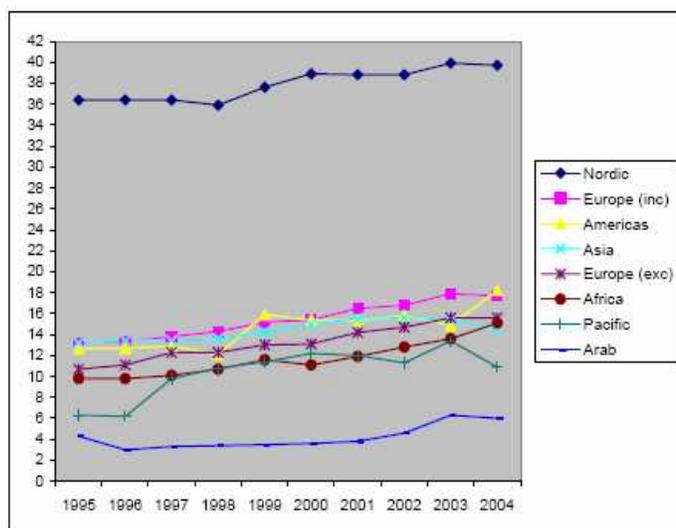
the achievement of both transparent and accountable government and administration, and sustainable development in all areas of life. Equality in political decision-making performs a leverage function without which it is highly unlikely that a real integration of the equality dimension in government policy-making is feasible"⁹³.

It is important to examine whether the situation of women and men at the national level extends to or is better than in sub-national governmental bodies and in the public sector. Participation in regional and lower level political posts may provide an entry which will permit women in time to progress to higher level offices. Public sector employment often works in similar ways for women and men. In some countries the public sector provides the major source of employment for more highly educated women as well as the main route to move up to administrative and management positions. Relevant indicators include the share of women and men in elected and/or appointed positions in state/provincial, regional or municipal levels of government.

Women representation in decision-making for the last 10 years

The trend in terms of women's representation over the past decade has been one of gradual but steady progress. In 1975, women accounted for 10.9 per cent of MPs worldwide. Ten years later, in 1985, women's representation had increased by only 1 percentage point, to an average 12 per cent. In 1995, the number of women had actually decreased to 11.6 per cent. By 2000, the number of women in parliaments had increased to 13.4 per cent of In October 2005, a new global high was reached, as 16.2 per cent of the members of lower or single houses of parliament were women, and 14.8 per cent in upper houses, bringing an overall total average of 16.0 per cent in all parliaments. While steady, the progress has been slow.

Figure 2: Women in Parliament by Region: 1995-2004



The Nordic countries have the highest representation of women, with averages consistently over 38 per cent. In October 2005, they reached an average of 40 per cent women for the first time.

In contrast, women are least represented in the Arab States, where as at October 2005 the regional average in lower houses is 8.2 per cent. While this is half of the global average, it is double the rate of eight years ago. Much of this progress is attributable to the

implementation of different types of quotas in some countries in the region, including in Djibouti, Jordan, Iraq, Morocco and Tunisia. Women remain under-represented in the parliaments of the Pacific Island States. The average for the Pacific region (excluding Australia and New Zealand, where women's representation stands at 24.7% and 32.2% respectively) is 3.2 per cent.

⁹³ The United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women Beijing, 1995, Para 81.

Source: IPU, 2005. *Women in Politics: 1945-2005. Information kit.*

<http://www.ipu.org/english/surveys.htm#45-05>

** Note: *Europe (inc)*=OSCE member countries, including Nordic countries. *Europe (exc)*=OSCE member countries, excluding Nordic countries.

Economic decision-making has traditionally been a male-dominated sphere, as has political decision-making. The last twenty years have seen a huge increase in the number of women participating in the labour force almost everywhere and in all sectors. For example, in recent years, women studying economics to post-graduate level and pursuing careers as economists in academia, private sector, government has increased significantly. However, women's representation at a decision-making level is much lower than men's in major institutions that are responsible for conceiving and formulating ideas, determining strategies and implementing fiscal, monetary and economic policies. The effective participation of women in economic and financial decision-making is not only very low, but also the gender dimension has been absent from macroeconomic policies and decisions regarding resource distribution, wealth creation and exchange.

Women's representation at an economic decision-making level in the EU*

Women's representation at a decision-making level is much lower than men's in major institutions that are responsible for conceiving and formulating ideas, determining strategies and implementing fiscal, monetary and economic policies. The effective participation of women in economic and financial decision-making is not only very low, but also the gender dimension has been absent from macroeconomic policies and decisions regarding resource distribution, wealth creation and exchange.

The study and data collection on female representation in economic decision-making centres started in 2003 by the Greek Presidency of the European Union, and continued by the Italian Presidency, represents a particularly interesting project that to define and recommend a set of appropriate indicators in this important area of gender equality. Some results of this study illustrate inequality in economic decision-making among women and men.

- Out of 52 **economic Ministers** 13 are women and 39 are men.
- Out of 104 **deputy ministers** only 21 are women. The highest level of women's representation was found in France (45,5%), followed by Sweden (40%) and Austria (36,4%). Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg and Spain did not have any women as deputy ministers.
- Out of a total of 26 **labour confederations** for 12 respondent countries there were only 4 women Presidents (15,4%): 2 in Sweden, 1 in Belgium and 1 in Portugal.
- The representation of women in **governing bodies** is lower than it is in the labour confederations.
- The low representation of women at the decision-making levels of the **top firms** is reflected in the absence of women as chief executive officers (2,4% women and 97,6% men in the 10 Member States).
- The representation of women in the **executive boards** of the top 50 firms in Member States was exceptionally low (6% women in the 10 Member States).

*Source: *Report on equality between women and men, 2004. European Commission.*

http://europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/equ_opp/com_04_115_en.pdf

Many decisions that affect the well being of individuals are made within families or households. The gender equality in decision-making at household level by which resources are allocated is vitally important for a family and a society. If there is gender inequality in household decision-making then this affects the economic well-being of women and children in the household. In such households, women are dependent on their husbands and are expected to perform certain labour and household obligations. Household decision-making

affects many choices with important consequences including the distribution of income, education, medical and nutrition care, allocation of resources, the allocation of time, purchase of goods, fertility decisions, etc.

4.10.3 The value-added of statistics

One of the most effective ways of improving the status and well-being of women is by ensuring their full, equal and effective participation in decision-making at all levels of political, economic and social life. This approach promotes and protects women's human rights while allowing society to benefit from the diverse experiences, talents and capabilities of all its members.

Comparable and comprehensive data on women and men in decision-making are essential in order to develop appropriate legislations and regulations that are aimed at eliminating obstacles to women's and men's access to decision-making and managerial positions.

Data on women in decision-making in public can be used to:

- Empower women's and men's social, economic and political status.
- Provide detailed data on the division of power and influence between women and men in a society to ensure equal distribution and exercise of power and influence between women and men.
- Assist the implementation of equal opportunities' policies and practices to accommodate diversity in economic, social and political life. Women's experiences are different from men's and need to be represented in discussions that result in policy-making and implementation.
- Make available detailed data on women's exclusion from male-dominated policy domains (such as the military, police, and jurisprudence), macroeconomic policy and foreign affairs.
- Assist in developing more women-friendly environments in political institutions such as parliaments and legislatures.
- Create or strengthen, as appropriate, mechanisms to monitor women's access to senior levels of decision-making.
- Consider examining party structures and procedures to remove all barriers that directly or indirectly discriminate against the participation of women or men

Statistics on the gender balance in decision-making in EU *

Improving statistics on the gender balance in decision-making and monitoring progress in this field are crucial to addressing the under-representation of women. For this reason, the European Commission set up a project to collect, analyse and publish data on women and men in decision-making positions. The project – a web-based database – aims to create awareness while monitoring progress on gender equality and the position of women in the decision-making process.

The scope of the project covers decision-making positions in major organisations across three broad domains:

- Political (heads of government, ministers, members of parliament);
- Public sector and judicial (senior civil servants, top judges);

- Social and economic (companies, financial institutions, NGOs).

*Source: *Equality between women and men in the European Union, 2005.*
http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/publications/2004/ke6304949_en.pdf

Indicators about economic decision-makers are needed to:

- To understand the conditions in society for women and men.
- To understand what affects gender equality.
- To provide quantifiable information and advocate for gender equality.
- To monitor policies and their impact on the situation of women and men.
- To understand better working conditions at a company level and incorporate gender issues into personnel policy. There is a need to improve working conditions for managers in terms of “reconciliation of work and family life”.

Devising indicators for household level decision-making is more complicated as the designation of a particular person as the decision-maker is seldom formal. Instead, it is a function of a range of factors, including custom, attitudes and gender prejudices. In addition, decision-making within a household will often differ according to the type of decision to be made. For example, while a woman member of the household might be given the responsibility for deciding what food to purchase and cook on a daily basis, the decision as to where the family will live might well be made primarily by a man.

Statistically sound data are fundamental for the development of proper policies for supporting gender balance in decision-making at household level. Statistics on household decision-making can be used to:

- Strengthen legal systems aimed at elimination of all forms of discrimination against women.
- Mainstreaming a gender perspective in the development process.
- Create an environment through economic and social policies to enable women and men to fully exercise their human rights.
- Provide equal access for women and their families to health care, nutrition, quality education at all levels, career and employment, community activities.
- Change societal attitudes and community practices towards women’s and men’s role in household decision-making.
- Enable women to exercise their right to control their own fertility free of coercion, discrimination and violence. Improve the quality and availability of reproductive health services and barriers to access.
- Encourage men’s responsibility for sexual and reproductive behaviour and increase male participation in family planning.

4.10.4 Implications for data collection

There are several indicators to consider when measuring political representation and access to decision-making positions. It is obvious that providing a gender breakdown provides an idea of women’s access to political power, and can be measured in the following ways:

- Seats held by women and men in national parliaments
- Number of electoral candidates contesting elections
- Women and men in highest positions of State
- Women and men in parliamentary positions.

Fundamental to the participation of women and men in political life is voting. Formal limitations to women's access to suffrage have been abolished in all countries with a national parliamentary system of government. However practical limitations still remain and these tend to affect women more than men. The standard indicators for measuring voter participation are registration and turnout. Election commissions usually collect data on the proportion of women and men who vote, but this data source will not provide information on differences in the voting behaviour of women and men. This issue was examined in Ireland⁹⁴ where a national module on voter participation was attached to the labour force survey after the general election in 2002. The results showed that broadly similar proportions of women and men voted (75.6 per cent for women and 76.1 for men). However reasons for not voting varied with a higher proportion of men citing "disillusioned" and more women citing "lack of transport."

Given the widespread lack of female presence in national parliaments, more data on persons not registered to vote, on persons who were registered but did not vote, and on the lack of success of women in being elected should be collected.

Women in Power and Decision-making

*Indicators developed in the European Council for the follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action **

1. The proportion of women in the single/lower houses of the national/federal Parliaments of the Member States and in the European Parliament.
2. The proportion of women in the regional Parliaments of the Member States, where appropriate.
3. The proportion of women in the local assemblies of the Member States.
4. Policies to promote a balanced participation in political elections.
5. The proportion of women of the members of the national/federal Governments and the proportion of women members of the European Commission.
6. The number of women and men senior/junior ministers in the different fields of action (portfolios/ministries) of the national/federal Governments of the Member States.
7. Proportion of the highest-ranking women civil servants.
8. The distribution of the highest-ranking women civil servants in different fields of action.
9. The proportion of women of the Supreme Courts of the Member States and the proportion of women of the members of the European Court of Justice and the Court of First Instance.

*Source: *European parliament committee on women's rights and gender equality*
http://www.europarl.europa.eu/comparl/femm/womensday/2005/work51_en.pdf

94

http://www.cso.ie/releasespublications/documents/labour_market/current/qnhsvoterparticipationandabsentention.xls

In December 2003, the European Council adopted conclusions and indicators on female representation in decision-making processes in the public and private sectors, referring to the follow-up of the United Nation's Beijing Platform for Action (1995). These indicators are an essential basis for the systematic recording and monitoring of the existing level of gender equality in macro-economic decision-making.

Women and men in economic decision-making
Indicators developed in the European Council for the follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action *

The proportion and the number of women and men in economic decision-making among:

1. Governors and deputy/vice-governors of the Central Banks.
2. Members of the decision-making bodies of the Central Banks.
3. Ministers and deputy ministers/vice-ministers of the Economic Ministries.
4. Presidents and vice-presidents of the Labour Confederations.
5. Total governing bodies of the Labour Confederations.
6. Presidents and vice-presidents of the Employer Confederations.
7. Members of total governing bodies of the Employer Confederations.
8. Chiefs of executive boards of the 50 top firms quoted on the national stock exchange.
9. Members of executive boards of the 50 top firms quoted on the national stock exchange.

**Source: Review of the implementation by the Member States and the EU institutions of the Beijing Platform for Action.*

http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/gender_equality/docs/beijing_indicators_it3_en.pdf

***** Box on *Women and Men in Sweden: Facts and Figures 2006* *****

The gender statistics booklet, *Women and Men in Sweden: Facts and Figures 2006*, is an excellent example of the use of a full range of indicators related to women's and men's positions of power and influence. Only with such broad-based data can the questions raised at the beginning of this section on the extent and the sustainability of women's roles in political and economic decision-making be answered. (see Box). The data presented in this booklet - and updated with more recent unpublished tabulations - show that in Sweden women have made broad-based gains at all levels of government; but in some top positions while progress has been made, women still do significantly less well than men. However the situation in the private sector is much less favorable for women.

To review in greater detail the data for Sweden, in 2006 women had progressed to near equality with men as ministers where they held 45 per cent of posts and in parliament where they held 47 per cent of posts... Women also participated in a broad range of parliamentary committees – a much broader range than in 1973 when women mainly served on committees of labour, justice and culture. Further, women were equal or were approaching equality with men in positions in central and regional governmental boards, in county councils and in membership in municipal governing bodies. Some evidence of the strength of women's position in elected offices is shown in comparisons of the shares of women and men nominated relative

to the shares of women and men elected. Across parliamentary, municipal and county council offices, the share of women elected was higher than the share nominated.

In central and regional boards women also participated equally across different areas, including the police; in county councils women's participated on a fairly equal basis in most areas; the exception was traffic and real/estate and administration/economy where their share of posts was between 37 to 39 per cent. However when data were disaggregated according to the status of positions, women generally did less well. Few women were party chairs or chairs of committees and few women were in municipal executive committees. On the other hand among officials in government offices, although women are near equality as ministers only about one third of state secretaries and top administrators are women.

In contrast to government, few women in Sweden advanced to positions of influence in the private sector. Very few women have made it to top positions as managing directors of enterprises listed on the stock exchange in 2006 (only 5 out of 291 such enterprises had women in permanent positions as managing directors) and only 18 percent of board members in such enterprises were women. Further in 2004 many fewer women than men were private sector employees and fewer still were managers. By contrast more women than men were in the public sector and served as managers in the public sector.

Box: Influence and Power in Sweden*

Economic Decision-making:

Governmental Enterprises: Share of board members by sex
 Enterprises listed on stock exchange
 share of board members by sex
 share of managing directors by sex

Elected officials and members of trade unions, by sex, 1973, 1985 and 2005

Managers and total employees in private and public sector 2004
 share of women and men

Managers by sector 2004, number and share of women and men
 distribution

Political Decision-making:

National level: Composition of Parliament by sex 1919-2002

Election to Parliament by age 1994, 1998 and 2002 by sex

Elected to Parliament by Party

Nominated and elected candidates in general elections by
 county of birth, number and sex distribution

Party chairpersons, number and share women and men

Parliamentary committees by area of work and share of women
 and men in 1973, 1985 and 2006

Top officials in government offices, share women and men in

1973, 1985, 1998 and 2006 (ministers, state secretaries,
top administrators)

Regional level: Members of central and regional governmental lay
Boards and chairpersons, shares of women and men, 1988-
2004
Members' of regional governmental authorities by area of
work, shares of women and men, 2004

Municipal/local level: Positions in municipal government, by organizations,
shares of women and men, 2003
Positions in county council government, by organizations,
shares of women and men, 2003
Positions in municipal government by board, shares of women
and men, 2003
Positions in county councils, by type of board, number,
percentage distribution and share of women and men,
2003

*Statistics Sweden, *Women and Men in Sweden: Facts and Figures 2006*. (Stockholm, 2006).

****end of box on Sweden****

The popularity of the concept of household head might be partially due to the fact that many people see it as an indicator of decision-making. In particular, where survey instructions to the enumerator or respondent state that the household head is the person considered by other members to be the head, the implication is that this person has the most authority – and thus presumably the greatest decision-making power – in the household. An alternative approach is to replace the designation of household head with a series of questions that ask more explicitly and directly about the different aspects that are often conflated in the notion of household head. In South Africa⁹⁵, for example, some surveys ask which member of the household usually brings in the most money in addition to the usual question about household head. (The household head question was retained because of resistance to abandoning old practices.) Comparison of the responses to the two questions reveals that men who bring in the most money are more likely than women in this position to be named a head of household. Thus, in the 2001 labour force survey, only 7% of the male main money-earners were not household heads, while this was the case for 21% of the female main money-earners. In addition to this gender bias, there were cases where males other than the head were the main earners in male-headed households, and females other than the head were the main earners in female-headed households.

Another aspect of control (headship) that could be asked about separately in a similar way involves control of the dwelling. Thus one could ask in whose name the ownership or lease of the dwelling is registered. This aspect is important from a gender perspective in that where a woman wants to leave a relationship because of

⁹⁵ Budlender D. 2002. *Women and Men in South Africa: Five years on*. Statistics South Africa: Pretoria: 53.

domestic abuse, it will be much easier for her to do so if she has some rights to, or control over, the dwelling.

One can also attempt to ask more directly about decision-making. Where this is done, the question needs to specify the type of decision-making under consideration, for example food purchases, where to live, or decisions about children's schooling. The standard core module for the Demographic and Health Surveys includes the following five questions in the women's questionnaire:

- Who usually decides how your husband's/partner's earnings will be used: you, your husband/partner, or you and your husband/partner jointly?
- Who usually makes decisions about health care for yourself: you, your husband/ partner, you and your husband/ partner jointly, or someone else?
- Who usually makes decisions about making major household purchases?
- Who usually makes decisions about making purchases for daily household needs?
- Who usually makes decisions about visits to your family or relatives?

In addition, the standard women's status module for Demographic and Health surveys includes questions as to:

- Who chose the woman's current/last husband/partner?
- Whether the woman was asked whether she wanted to marry/live with him when he was chosen?
- Who has the final say on (a) whether the woman should work to earn money, (b) whether to use contraception, (c) decision about children's schooling, (d) what to do if a child falls sick, (e) how children should be disciplined, and (f) whether to have another child?
- Whether the woman has any money of her own that she alone can decide how to use?

The resultant statistics are likely to be more reliable if more than one person in the household is asked the same question as perceptions might differ as to where the real locus of decision-making lies. Perceptions may differ between the main couple in a particular household and other members of that household, such as their children, parents, siblings or others.

The woman's status module of the Demographic and Health survey asks for women's level of agreement with the following statements:

- The important decisions in the family should be made only by the men of the family
- A married woman should be allowed to work outside the home if she wants to
- The wife has a right to express her opinion even when she disagrees with what her husband is saying.

An example of household decision-making questions

In 1998, the Community Agency for Social Enquiry in South Africa conducted an opinion survey focusing on gender for the country's Commission on Gender Equality. The section on decision-making included the following questions, among others:

1. Who makes the most important financial decisions in your household?
(I do, my partner/spouse, me & my partner/spouse, grandmother, grandfather, mother, father brother, sister, other (specify relationship as well as sex))
2. How many men and how many women bring money into to this household?
(men, women)
3. List the three people who bring the most money into this household (specify a sex)?
4. Listen to the following statements and tell me whether you are neutral about the statement or you agree or disagree with the statements:
 - A person who earns money must be able to decide how that money is spent without having to consult with other people.
 - Husbands and wives must share their money equally.
 - It is easy for women to control how many children they have.
 - Men who listen to women are weak.
5. Who should decide on the number of children a woman should have?
(Woman, woman's partner, woman and partner together, other (specify))
6. Who should decide what type of contraceptive should be used?
(Woman, man, woman and man together, health staff, person herself/himself, other (specify))

The following questions related to decision-making could be included in other parts of the questionnaire:

7. Who mainly influenced your decision to follow the particular direction you have taken in your life?
(Mother, father, another female, another male, no one)
8. Who chose your spouse?
(I did, my father, my mother, both my parents, other relatives, other (specify))

4.10.5 Further reading

1. Equal Participation of Women and Men in Decision-Making Processes, with Particular Emphasis on Political Participation and Leadership. United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW), EGM/EPDM /2005/REPORT. <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw> (download the document: http://www.ipu.org/PDF/publications/wmninfokit06_en.pdf) <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/eql-men/FinalReport.pdf>
2. Equality between women and men in the European Union. European Community, 2005. <http://europa.eu/int>
3. Gender mainstreaming into practice. European Commission, Gender Quality http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/gender_equality/gender_mainstreaming/general_overview_en.html
4. Steering Committee for Equality between Women and Men (CDEG). Sex-disaggregated statistics on the participation of women and men in political and public decision-making in Council of Europe member states Situation, 2005 ([http://www.coe.int/t/e/human_rights/equality/PDF_CDEG\(2006\)15_E.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/e/human_rights/equality/PDF_CDEG(2006)15_E.pdf))
5. Women and Men in Sweden. Facts and Figures, 2006 http://www.scb.se/statistik/publikationer/LE0202_2006A01_BR_X10ST0602.pdf
6. Women in Politics: 1945-2005. Inter-Parliamentary Union, Geneva, 2006
7. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs Opinion of the Advisory Committee on Gender Equality on Gender Statistics and Indicators, 2001.
8. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs Women in Decision-making, Report on Existing Research in the European Union, 1998.
9. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs, "Note On Gender Indicators" Prepared by the Working Group on Gender Indicators of the Advisory Committee on Gender Equality, DOC-EQOP 60-2001.
10. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs, Beijing +5, An Overview of the European Union Follow-up and Preparations, 2000.
11. Indicators of Women and Men in Economic Decision-Making Centres put forward by the Italian EU Presidency, Brussels, 28 November 2003.
12. Linda Wirth, Breaking through the Glass Ceiling, Geneva: International Labour Office, 2001.

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13. Nota Kyriazis Women in macroeconomic Centers of Decision-making in the European Union, Department of Sociology, Panteion University, Athens, June, 2003.
14. Sigrid Quack and Bob Hancke, Women in Decision-Making in Finance, European Commission, Directorate General V, Industrial Relations, Employment and Social Affairs, 1997.

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Chapter 5 Making it happen

5.1 Dynamics of getting started

Introduction

Recognition is growing in most – but not yet all – societies that official statistics should describe, compare and analyze the lives of all members of society. This includes all domains, such as education, health, employment and family life, as well as the interactions of the members by gender and their unique contributions and needs. Although in some countries this has been recognized for some time in much of the world this is a relatively recent phenomena. The development of gender statistics follows recognition of gender as an important issue for social and economic development. As a result gender statistics programs in, for example, the Nordic countries are mature, and in other countries, they are in a more embryonic stage.

This section discusses some specific steps and actions that could comprise an action plan developed to either start or strengthen an existing gender statistics program. Each individual statistical office, of course, must adapt these steps to its particular situation. No two offices and no two political systems are exactly alike and what works for one may not work for another. Depending on the structure, national statistical offices have either a centralized or decentralized system. Each structure will determine the processes through which change can take place. For example, a decentralized system may make it harder to coordinate and construct alliances, but it may be easier to understand and meet customer needs. Thus, it is important to tailor the steps to adequately bring a gender perspective to all statistics produced by a national statistical office. These steps and actions can be categorized as the following:

- Building Alliances and Meeting Customer Needs
- Obtaining Top Management Support
- Developing Funding
- Legislation
- Defining the Program
- Organizational Issues

Centralized and Decentralized systems

Statistical systems in a country are organized in either a centralized or decentralized system. In a decentralized system, there may be different statistical agencies located in different ministries devoted to the different domains. In such a case, there are many different players responsible for the collection, production, analysis, and dissemination of data. It is impractical to expect that they will give up their individual surveys for one survey. If a coordinating body exists for the decentralized system, that office can organize and operate an inter-ministerial group to develop the reference points and standards necessary to integrate data across surveys. We note that the deliberations of this inter-ministerial body must be regular and recurring. Moreover, the inter-ministerial body must be prepared to arbitrate differences and institute standards of data collection. There will have to be give and take and the

coordinating body must be able to implement decisions that are binding on the different statistical agencies. The likelihood of success of developing and implementing the necessary standards decreases significantly if this coordinating body does not exist, or if it does not have sufficient authority. In such a case the largest agency can attempt to develop a consensus. More likely, in the case of the absence of a coordinating function, it may be necessary for the Prime Minister's Office to become involved.

A centralized system has one entity that is responsible for the collection, production, analysis and dissemination of statistical data. Even in a centralized statistical office there are usually separate divisions devoted to each of the domains. In theory, at least, there is a single head of the agency that can make the necessary decisions. However, one should not underestimate the cultural and historical forces that exist in a statistical office and militate against consensus and common standards. This problem is considered further in the section on building alliances.

BOX: Development of Gender Statistics in the Netherlands

The Netherlands has a long history of providing statistical data to reflect on the lives of women and men. Two governmental institutions mainly publish the gender statistics in the Netherlands. The first is the national statistical institution, *Statistics Netherlands (CBS)*, which is the main producer of the centralized formal statistics in the Netherlands. The other institution, the *Social and Cultural Planning Office (SCP)*, is a government agency, which conducts research into the social aspects of all areas of government policy. The main fields studied are health, welfare, social security, the labour market and education, with a particular focus on the interfaces between them. As a corollary of its main task, the SCP often initiates data collection on various subjects, and thus has started several periodic surveys among them is the five-yearly Time Use Survey and the (almost) annual Cultural Changes in the Netherlands Survey, both of which generate relevant gender statistics data to track gender issues in the country.

Since its inception in 1973, the SCP has been producing gender studies, which are generally rather broad and sophisticated studies on gender issues. In the Netherlands the policy domain generally mentioned is 'emancipation'. Statistics Netherlands has always been one of the main data producers for these studies, but, historically, was not producing gender-specific statistical output apart from many statistics by sex.

In the mid 1980s, the policy department concluded that it needed some supplementary and more elementary compilation of data on gender. Thus, Statistics Netherlands started a small yearly publication to meet this need. Over the years, the relations between SCP, Statistics Netherlands and the policy department (especially on the working level) had mutual effects on the development and use of relevant statistics and indicators in spite of budgetary variations and policy developments.

Since 2000, both institutions merged their publications into a joint twice-yearly publication, called the *Emancipation Monitor*, which unites the objectives of both institutions for the thematic and statistical elements.

In the Netherlands, while gender is an important issue in the statistics produced, the personnel capacity specifically available for gender statistical analysis is limited.

At SCP, there are about two full-time persons while the specific gender personnel capacity in Statistics Netherlands is much smaller (about 0,3 full time equivalent). Statistics Netherlands personnel are mostly engaged in the coordination of the contribution by Statistics Netherlands to the common publication.

5.2 Building alliances

The audience reading this manual may be already convinced of the necessity for gender statistics – whatever its magnitude. It would be a mistake, however, to think that everyone, even in the statistical office, necessarily shares that view. In order to develop a new program of gender statistics, or to improve an existing one, alliances should be built both inside and outside the national statistical system.

Within a statistical office...

As we mentioned above there are natural constituencies within both centralized and decentralized offices that will often resist a gender statistics program. They may see gender statistics as either intruding on their prerogatives or as being unnecessary. It may be possible to appeal to a higher authority and simply order these different constituencies to cooperate. Ultimately however, this will be a pyrrhic victory. When, as it inevitably will, authority changes the gender statistics program will lose its legitimacy. Ensuring long-term viability of the program requires first understanding the problems and needs of other domains (education, health, economic, etc.).

First, one must understand why different sampling frames and time frames are used in say education and health surveys and why different editing and imputation methods are used. Only then can the statistical office begin the joint process of integrating data across surveys. In addition to providing a richer analysis of existing data, this process will also improve the data collection processes, editing and imputation and analysis in each of the domain areas. *The advocates of gender statistics need to convince those working in different domains to cooperate with them and with each other on improving the processes from a gender statistics perspective.*

One other way to build alliances within the statistical office is to make certain that the data products resulting from the integration are not simply produced as gender statistics products. All the domain areas must receive internal and external credit for these products. *This demonstration of how this process of integration can enhance the work and prestige of each domain is vital to the success of the plan.* This need to build alliances within the statistical office is not diminished by relying only on new integrated surveys.

The statistical expertise in each of the traditional domain areas will be required in the collection, processing and dissemination of data from integrated surveys and the ability to use data from existing surveys will richly enhance information from integrated surveys. A powerful argument is that producing integrated gender statistics products provides a richer analysis of existing data and also improves the data collection processes, editing, and imputation and analysis in each of the domain area.

This enhances the work prestige of each domain. Thus, training on gender statistics of statisticians working on different domains is essential to build successful alliance.

Outside the statistical office...

Alliance building should not be restricted to the statistical office. Alliances need to be built with subject matter experts in ministries, parliament, non-governmental offices, as well as international agencies and the private sector who are or can be seen to be advocates. A list of those who do or could share the goals of a gender statistics program should be developed in order to facilitate regular communication and alliance building. It is important that the statisticians listen carefully to the requirements of the external allies. As we discussed above alliance building must be based on mutual understanding and respect if it is to be more than an understanding of convenience. In fact, as with any relationship, regular attention must be paid to it to ensure that the foundations of the relationship are sound. This means that statisticians and external partners need to listen to each other's needs and develop a common appreciation of the relevant issues. Just as with the internal domains in the statistical office the first step is to understand the needs and expectations of potential partners. While it is not possible or necessary to meet all these expectations, it is important that there are as few misunderstandings as possible as to the commitments of each side. It is also important that the promises that are made by statisticians are able to be delivered.

In addition to partners there should also be a list of customers or clients. While customers may share in some of the goals of the program, their need is more pragmatic and immediate. For example, a legislative committee or a regional planning commission may support the gender statistics program not simply as a "good thing", but because the data coming from the program will allow them to do their work more efficiently. The program should have achievable and realistic promises made to its customers. There will be a tendency to have overambitious promises to the customers as to ensure approval for a new program or an expansion. It is important to resist this, at all costs.

5.3 Top management

Gender mainstreaming will not happen effectively if there is not firm commitment from top management within a National Statistical System (NSS). Such commitment will usually only be found if top management has a good basic understanding of gender issues, as well as an understanding of the role that gender statistics plays in ensuring policy making that promotes gender equality and that is effective more generally. It is for this reason that this manual stresses the need for briefings and other information sessions for top decision makers, alongside the more technical and detailed training which needs to be provided to those who actually produce and use the data. An example of a country that continually briefs its top decision makers and statisticians on gender statistics is Sweden. Statistics Sweden conducts training as needed for both users and producers of data to ensure that decision makers as well as producers of data are aware of relevant issues related to the needs of gender statistics. By providing briefings and informational sessions for top decision makers in Sweden, gender statistics act as a link between the decision makers, users and producers.

Who has the power to change statistical products...

The discussion above stresses the importance of commitment and understanding from top management. Often in gender training, participants from middle and lower levels in an organization will state that they fully support changes to promote gender equality and improvement the measurement of gender statistics, but that training them is pointless as they do not have the necessary decision-making power to implement what they have learnt. This argument has an element of truth, but is far from the whole story as middle and lower level actors usually have far more power than they acknowledge or use.

High-level management determines the overall direction of the NSS and the agencies which constitute it. Top management does not, however, make many of the decisions that are needed to improve gender statistics in the NSS. The decision to introduce a new instrument, such as a time use or gender-based violence survey, may require top management's approval because of the substantial time and expense involved. However, the decision on changes to a questionnaire or administrative form does not generally require top management's approval. Further, even with the decision to introduce a new instrument, most of the discussions and planning will be done by middle level management and those who work with them. Whether these proposals get through depends, in part, on the success of the communication strategy.

Accountability

In general, governments need to be accountable for their actions. The national statistical system thus needs to ensure accountability. Accountability in the area of gender statistics means that the NSS office needs to be responsible for the provision of statistical data relevant from a gender perspective and responsive to the needs of the constituents as well as fulfilling international mandates such as the Beijing Platform. It is necessary to have an adequate staff available for all aspects of production, analysis, and dissemination of data. Gender-responsive budgeting is one tool that has been developed to measure the priorities of the government's policies and their impact on women and men (See chapter 6 for more information on gender-responsive budgeting).

5.4 Develop funding

The funding situation for almost all statistical offices is a zero-sum game. At best funding grows with inflation and more often than not it does not even keep pace with inflation. At the same time, there are growing pressures on statistical offices to provide more data and information more rapidly. Advocating a gender statistics program requires competing with both existing programs, such as national accounts, household surveys, and business surveys, and with potential new ones. There are several potential sources of funding for gender statistics programs:

- National government
- International and non-governmental
- Market based

Governmental funding is usually the gold standard for funding as it usually has a greater chance of becoming a regular source of funding. To obtain new funding

will require convincing the parliament or the relevant ministries of the necessity of this funding. One mechanism to accomplish this step is advocacy by a statistical council or board. International and non-governmental organizations could also influence the government to allocate funding for this purpose. Regardless of the advocate, the presentation for a new or revised gender statistics program should be realistic in the benefits of and deliverables from the program and the cost should not be underestimated. It is worth repeating that there is a tendency, particularly in arguing for new programs to down play the costs and underestimate the required inputs of program. It is advisable to avoid this, since the reality will quickly arrive. By being realistic, the credibility of the statistical office and its advocates will be remain intact.

International and non-governmental organizations themselves are another possible source of funding . While this is encouraging, it must be remembered that this type of funding is often not stable or long term. What is needed are funds that can be used for periodic collection and regular processing and analysis of data and subsequent dissemination. International and non-governmental funding is not usually suitable for these purposes. This type of funding can be very useful for other purposes. It can be helpful in the initial development of a program and can be used to develop new analytical and dissemination systems. The UNECE/UNDP reports of 2004 on the Status of Official Statistics related to Gender Equality revealed that more than half the countries in Eastern Europe and the CIS had used external funding assistance for work in respect of gender statistics. Most of this funding came from bilateral and multilateral donors. The statistical office, however, should be able to maintain the new system from its own resources. Moreover, international and non-governmental organizations have objectives that may not be congruent with those of the statistical office. Therefore, care must be taken in using this type of funding to assure that distortions in the program of the statistical office do not occur.

A possible source of funding that has been used in some countries is the revenue from the marketing and sale of statistical products. In this case, the products from the gender statistics program can be recycled to fund the continuation of the program. This may appear to be a fruitful source – if allowed by the laws and regulations of the country - but in reality few if any agencies have been able to fund their programs based solely on revenue. One reason is the high cost of producing official statistics. It is difficult, if not impossible, to provide for sufficient revenue from the sale of publications to support the infrastructure needed to collect, process and disseminate statistical products.

The statistical office should examine its situation to determine if it alone has the necessary access to parliamentary leaders and others to arrange for additional funding needed to start or maintain a gender statistics program. If the answer is no, and in many statistical offices this is likely to be the case, then an external champion must be found. This could be the head of a non-governmental organization or an influential member of the Prime Minister's office. The champion must have access to the senior levels of the parliament, be credible and should believe in the need and benefits of the program for gender statistics.

5.5 Legislation

Some countries have shown their commitment to ensuring that a gender perspective is integrated into their national statistical system by including the need for this within the legal framework. For example, Sweden and Ukraine promote gender statistics in their gender equality law. South Africa refers to the need for gender relevant data in their statistical law. Other countries refer to the need for gender statistics in their national statistical plans. The level of detail covered in these provisions differs across countries.

Specific laws can also be developed for gender statistics. An example is a draft law, which is to be considered in 2007 by the Italian parliament. This draft law aims to make gender disparities visible and to ensure equal readability of data relative to both sexes (See Box on Italian Draft Law on Gender). It contains detailed requirements for gender statistics in different areas as well as the need for all official statistics to be sex-disaggregated. It details some sources, which need to produce sex-disaggregated data such as population census, business registers, agriculture, industry and services censuses. It also outlines the frequency and the domains where sex-disaggregated data are needed, including areas where data from a gender statistics perspective are more relevant, such as violence, unpaid work, and health status and behavior. The law also specifies the establishment of a Consultative Committee for gender statistics.

Box: Italian Draft Law on Gender

The type of details that a law on gender statistics should contain are present in the Italian draft law, which was approved by the previous Government and re-proposed to be considered by the current Parliament. This draft law aims to make visible gender disparities and to ensure equal readability of data relative to both sexes. The provisions of the draft law provide precise indications and directives to producers of statistics as well as identify the areas of interest, the surveys and their periodicity in order to produce sex-disaggregated data.

The text of the draft law states:

- The population census data shall always be sex-disaggregated, including the data on households and institutionalized persons, and data shall be provided on different household typologies.
- Agriculture, industry, and services censuses will provide sex-disaggregated data on individuals, by occupational status.
- Sex-disaggregated data shall be produced yearly on: household typologies, fertility, mortality by cause, morbidity, education and training, employment and unemployment, poverty, social and political participation, and use of public services.
- Sex-disaggregated data shall be periodically produced on: health status, disability, citizen's security, violence and abuse, time-use, informal social networks and caregivers, social mobility, and quality of life.
- Business registers kept by the Chamber of Commerce shall be organized such that all information on individuals will be sex-specific.
- The National Statistical Institute shall provide estimates of non-paid work by sex.

Another example of incorporating gender into legislation is the Statistical Act of South Africa, Act 6 of 1999, which includes a number of statistical principles one of which is that official statistics must protect the confidentiality of the identity of, and the information provided by, respondents and be “sensitive to distribution by gender, disability, region and similar socioeconomic features” (See Box on South Africa).

BOX: South Africa: Clause 3(2) of the Statistics Act of South Africa (Act 6 of 1999) states the statistical principles of official statistics as follows:

Official statistics must protect the confidentiality of the identity of, and the information provided by, respondents and be:

- a) Relevant, accurate, reliable and timeous;
- b) Objective and comprehensive;
- c) Compiled reported and documented in a scientific and transparent manner;
- d) Disseminated impartially;
- e) Accessible;
- f) In accordance with appropriate national and international standards and classifications; and
- g) Sensitive to distribution by gender, disability, region and similar socioeconomic features.

In the European context, legislation on the gender equality has been around since the creation of the European Community (EC) in 1957. The EC Treaty includes legislation on gender mainstreaming (Articles 2 and 3), equality between women and men in matters of employment and occupation (Article 141), and sex discrimination within and outside the work place (Article 13). Currently, there are 13 Directives in the areas of employment, social security and goods and services covered by EU-level legislation. These Articles and Directives layout the legislative basis for programs and policies leading to more equal involvement of women and men in the all parts of society in EU countries. As these are obligatory legislature for EU Member States, a unit exists tasked with monitoring the implementation of the legislation in all member states. Additionally, this unit is responsible for developing legislation to cover emerging issues relevant to gender equality.

5.6 Defining program

While it may seem obvious, it is important to be clear as to the nature and extent of the gender statistics program. This clarity is important in the national government with customers and to some extent to the international community. A leading cause of failure to build alliances, find funding and to meet customer needs derives from not only disagreements about the gender statistics but fundamental misunderstandings among the parties about what the program is intended to be. Unlike the System of National Accounts, which has been adopted by the United Nations Statistical Commission, there is no agreed upon international definition as to what gender statistics means. It is imperative then, that the statistical office (or other sponsor of the program) is clear about what the program is intended to be. One way to

do this is to have continuous dialogue between the all producers and users of the statistics to ensure that all needs are being met (See box on Finland's experience).

BOX Expert group and network on gender equality statistics – the Finnish example

In the Fall of 2006, Statistics Finland set up an expert group to develop the way in which gender equality is depicted in statistics, to facilitate the use of Statistics Finland's data, and to strengthen collaboration between the producers and users of data. The main objective of the network is to exchange information. The expert group includes members from Statistics Finland, various ministries, universities, research institutions, women's associations, trade organisations and employers' organisations. The network is unofficial, and was established by the gender team themselves. It meets twice a year. In the meetings, the group reviews the current situation of gender equality statistics and exchanges the latest information from various administrative branches. Another target is to point out the importance of taking the gender perspective into account in publications and internet pages of different statistical areas. Each meeting also includes a presentation on some specific theme and a general discussion based on it. The network makes a crucial contribution to the flow of information at Statistics Finland, and operates mainly via e-mail with meetings as necessary.

In defining what gender statistics means to the country, there is a basic level at which statistics, such as wages and life expectancy, are disaggregated by male and female. While such classifications are necessary, mere classification is not sufficient. At an intermediate level, one could build on simple disaggregation to also consider the use of surveys and administrative data – such as time use surveys -- that illuminate the lives of males and females in society.

At a more advanced level one could include the development of “new statistics”. For example, the production boundary of the System of National Accounts does not include the outputs of domestic work such as cooking, cleaning and care of one's own children. The System of National Accounts definition of the production is not likely to change. But, it is possible for countries to develop their own satellite accounts to understand the dynamics and importance of domestic production. Ultimately, how each country defines their gender statistics program will determine the type of detailed analysis they can carryout. However, it is important to include other key players in these decisions (see the section building alliances for more).

BOX: Developing a Gender Statistics Program

In developing a Gender Statistics Program, it is important to be clear as to the nature and extent of the program. Some steps that should be included in developing a gender statistics program are:

- Develop and maintain dialogue between users and producers of gender statistics to ensure users needs are met
- Expansion of the use of existing sources to include the collection of gender-relevant information
- Development of new data collections encompassing areas relevant from a gender perspective

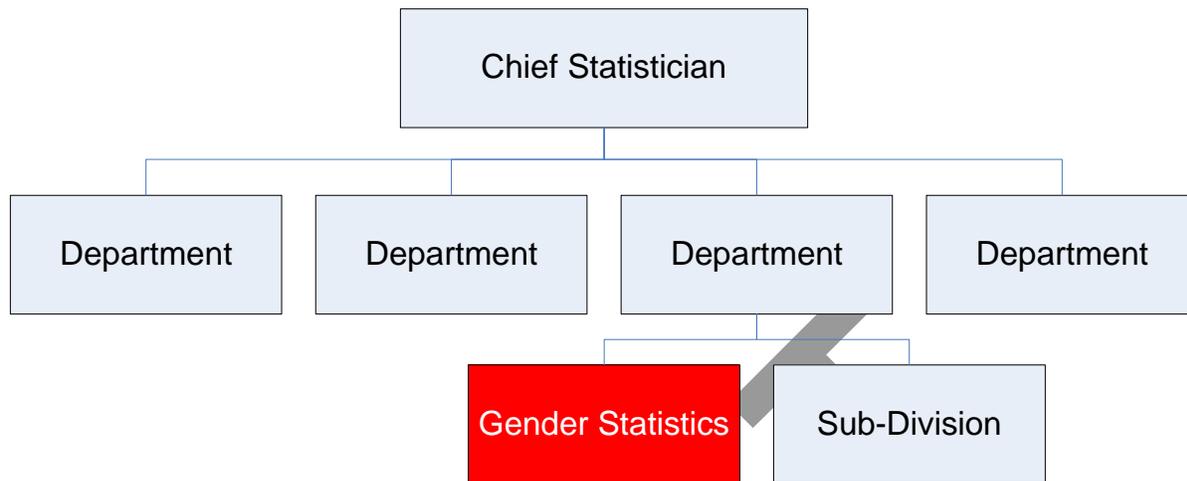
- Improvement of existing methodology and definitions to make them more relevant from a gender perspective
- Bringing together data from different existing sources to develop a gender portrait of a country
- Development of a marketing plan

5.7 Organization of the Gender Statistics program

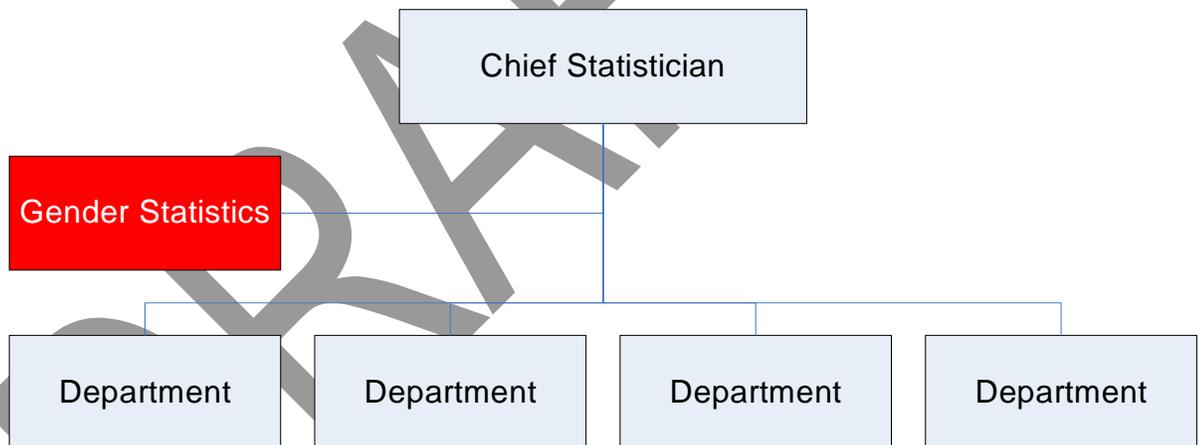
There are different ways to integrate gender statistics into the national statistical system. As seen in the organigram, where the gender statistics is located in the organization has an impact on the reporting lines and on the influence the unit has on the overall structure. Traditionally, gender statistics is often inside a small and confined part of the system. Adapting the system and bringing the gender perspective to a higher level where the gender statisticians and staff report to the chief statistician of the statistical system allow for there to be a broader mandate for the gender perspective and gender mainstreaming⁹⁶.

⁹⁶ For more information on gender mainstreaming, please see *Gender Mainstreaming in practice: A handbook* by UNDP Regional Centre in Bratislava 2005.

From this structure...



... to this structure



Appointing Gender Statistics Focal Points or gender statistic units can be a good way to start a new gender statistics program in countries where no other gender focus exists in the national statistical system. In this case, the GSFP or gender statistics unit will play an active initiating role for the overall gender program. But, as the gender perspective is integrated into the system, the role of the GSFP or the gender statistics unit can change from initiator of activities to overseeing work.

Gender statistics as a Sub-division (top graphic)

In many statistical systems, gender statistics has been included as a sub unit of another division, typically the social and demographic area. By confining gender statistics to this one area, it is likely that gender statistics will be viewed by the rest of the system as only a social and demographic issue. A key person in the development of a gender statistics perspective and program can be the gender statistics focal point.

Gender Statistics Focal Point

Since all data producers and users are not aware of the necessity and importance of including a gender perspective, one way is to ensure data is relevant for gender analysis is to have Gender Statistics Focal Points (GSFPs) located within the national statistical office. Most countries in the UNECE Region have a Gender Statistics Focal Point.

The Gender Statistics Focal Point is a person who is responsible to ensure the gender perspective is taken into consideration in all steps in the production, analysis, and dissemination of all statistics by the National Statistical Office. The GSFP should work with all fields of statistics to include sex in the production and dissemination of statistics and consider the impact of women and men in every step of statistical production. The expertise and experiences of the GSFP would be available for other departments within the NSS.

In the national statistical offices, Gender Statistics Focal Points are also mostly located in the social and demographic area. According to an assessment carried out by ECE and UNDP in 2004 in CIS and SEE countries, less than a third of the gender statistics focal points interact on a regular basis with other statistical departments outside the social and demographic area (see BOX). The lack of interaction indicates that, in many countries, the gender statistics program could be limited to cover only social and demographic statistics.

BOX. The organization of gender-related statistics in the ECE region: An Assessment carried out between 2003 and 2004

Between 2003 and 2004 UNECE and UNDP undertook a range of activities aimed at evaluating the quality and availability of gender statistics in the different parts of Europe and North America. The assessment included a questionnaire sent to NSOs on the nature of their gender statistics programs. The two reports produced as a result of this exercise detail, among others, the situation in respect of how gender statistics is organized within national statistical organizations.

The report on Eastern Europe and the CIS countries found that only three of the 27 countries had a Gender Statistics Unit. Further, less than a third of the Gender Focal Points interacted on a regular basis with other statistical departments outside the social and demographic field where most of the Focal Points are located. Twelve out of 27 countries did not have any regulation or law governing the production of gender statistics. Where such laws existed, they were often unspecific. In terms of outputs and programs, three countries had never produced gender-specific publications and did not have any specific program on gender statistics.

Of the 22 countries covered in the report on Western Europe and North America, only two had a permanent gender unit. As with their Eastern colleagues, most of the Gender Focal Points were located in the units dealing with social and demographic statistics and their interaction with other departments was weak. Only six of the countries included gender in their statistical regulations (4 in a law, 4 in regulations, and 3 in action plans) while 10 mentioned statistics in gender-equality regulations. Three countries had not produced any gender-related publications over the preceding five years.

Source: UNECE Statistical Division and UNDP Bratislava Regional Center. 2004. *Report on the status of official statistics related to gender equality in Eastern Europe and the CIS Countries.*

UNECE Statistical Division. 2004. *Report on the status of official statistics related to gender equality in Western Europe and North America.*

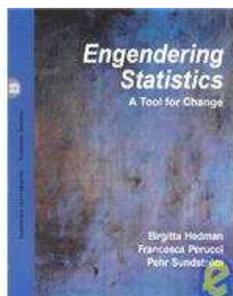
Gender statistics unit

Another way to integrate gender statistics into the system is to have a dedicated Gender Statistics Units, as is the case in Sweden (See BOX). A small number of countries have established gender statistics units, but these again tend to be located in the social and demographic area with little influence in other areas such as economic statistics.

Yet, another way of organizing the gender statistics program is to establish a specific gender committee inside the statistical office or the statistical system. The advantage of committees is that all areas of statistics can be covered and statisticians in all areas of statistics have full ownership of the programme. The disadvantage is that there is a danger that no responsibility will be taken. This can be overcome with clear terms of reference endorsed by top management. Regular reporting to top management of success and issues of gender statistics programs is an essential requirement for success. Russia has formalized this idea of a team by constituting a committee of key players.

BOX The Evolvement of the Gender Statistics Unit in Statistics Sweden: An Example of a Success Story

In 1980, Sweden established an Equal Opportunity Act and created a Minister for Equal Opportunity Affairs. Out of this, a unit was created in Statistics Sweden to monitor and compile statistics illustrating gender equality in Sweden. Some statistics were easily found, but many issues could not be addressed because of the lack of statistics. In order to make progress in this area, an in-depth discussion of the gender equality problem in Sweden followed. It focused above all on how adequate statistics on women and men in Sweden could be produced. This work gave birth to the idea of a booklet on gender statistics. Through collaborative efforts, *Women and Men in Sweden* was launched in 1984. It has been a major success, and continues to be published annually. The initiative in Sweden and the fact book have been the starting point for many countries that want to set up similar gender equality projects. The Swedish external agency, SIDA, has supported and continues to support the development and production of many fact book projects in developing countries. Another publication from the Gender Statistics Unit is the 1996 *Engendering Statistics, a tool for change handbook* which has been sold in over 65 countries.



A key tool in the development of gender statistics has been the publication, *Engendering Statistics: A Tool for Change*.

Organizational support for gender statistics

Regardless of the location, Gender Statistics Focal Points or staff of gender statistics units should have technical skills rather than simply administrative ones. It is unrealistic to expect a single person or a small unit to have the necessary knowledge and skills about gender issue. Therefore, organizational support and cooperation is required from the whole national statistical office to ensure that gender statistics are adequately produced.

In order for the Gender Statistics Focal Points to be effective in all areas of statistics, he or she needs to report to a senior manager of the organization. The GSFP needs to be at a sufficiently high level in the organization to have decision making powers and to be taken seriously by other decision makers as well as technicians. The person also needs to participate in senior management meetings so that they become aware at an early stage of all planned developments and can ensure that gender gets thought about from the start. The terms of reference of the Gender Focal Points or unit needs to be clearly understood and promulgated through out the whole organization. A viable gender statistics program will integrate data and provide information across domains.

In a decentralized system where there are multiple agencies responsible for generating statistics, the development of a gender statistics programme could be more complex. The existence of a coordinating body for the decentralized system is important as it can organize and operate an inter-ministerial group to run a gender statistics programme.

5.8 Further reading

Corner , Lorraine. *From Margins to Mainstream From Gender Statistics to Engendering Statistical Systems*. UNFPA.

Hedman, Birgitta, Fransesca Perucci, and Pehr Sundstrom, *Engendering Statistics. A Tool for Change*, Statistics Sweden, 1996

United Nations. 2001. *The Handbook of Statistical Organization, Third Edition: The Operation and Organization of a Statistical Agency*. ST/ESA/STAT/SER.F/88.

United Nations. 1997. *Handbook fro Producing National Statistical Reports on Women and Men*. ST/ESA/STAT/SER.K/14.

UNDP RBEC. 2005. *Gender Mainstreaming In Practice: A Handbook*. Bratislava.

UNECE Statistical Division. 2004. *Report on the status of official statistics related to gender equality in Western Europe and North America*.

UNECE Statistical Division and UNDP Bratislava Regional Center. 2004. *Report on the status of official statistics related to gender equality in Eastern Europe and the CIS Countries.*

Chapter 6 Improving the Use of Gender Statistics

6.1 Special applications and analysis

6.1.1 Gender Budgeting

6.1.2 National accounts

6.1.3 Gender Pay Gap

6.2 Marketing

What it is

Marketing of statistics are the activities conducted to improve the awareness and use of data.

To develop and then market any product or service, the first step is to determine who the customers are and what their needs are. Once the product is ready to be shared, outreach and marketing activities are used to let customers know it is available and explain why the product is useful to them, in other words, how it meets their needs.

In the case of gender statistics, the same overall principles apply. However, gender statistics has an audience beyond government and this wider audience needs to be considered when developing marketing strategies

Why it is important

Gender statistics are valuable only if they are used to assist in the understanding of gender issues. Marketing is needed to encourage their use and illustrate their value to different users of statistics.

National Statistical Offices are often characterised as being product oriented rather than client oriented. This view applies equally to gender statistics as to other statistical areas. For example, if a National Statistical Office released a publication on “Women and Men” and then stopped there, thinking their obligations to gender statistics were met, they would be limiting the value of this work and their response to this issue.

While most data producers would agree that the data they produce is not utilised as fully and effectively as they could be; the problem is in some ways even more acute in respect to gender. This is because gender related data are sometimes not published at all or at least in an accessible and attractive form. Given the importance of understanding gender differences, special efforts are needed to ensure gender statistics are used.

Target groups

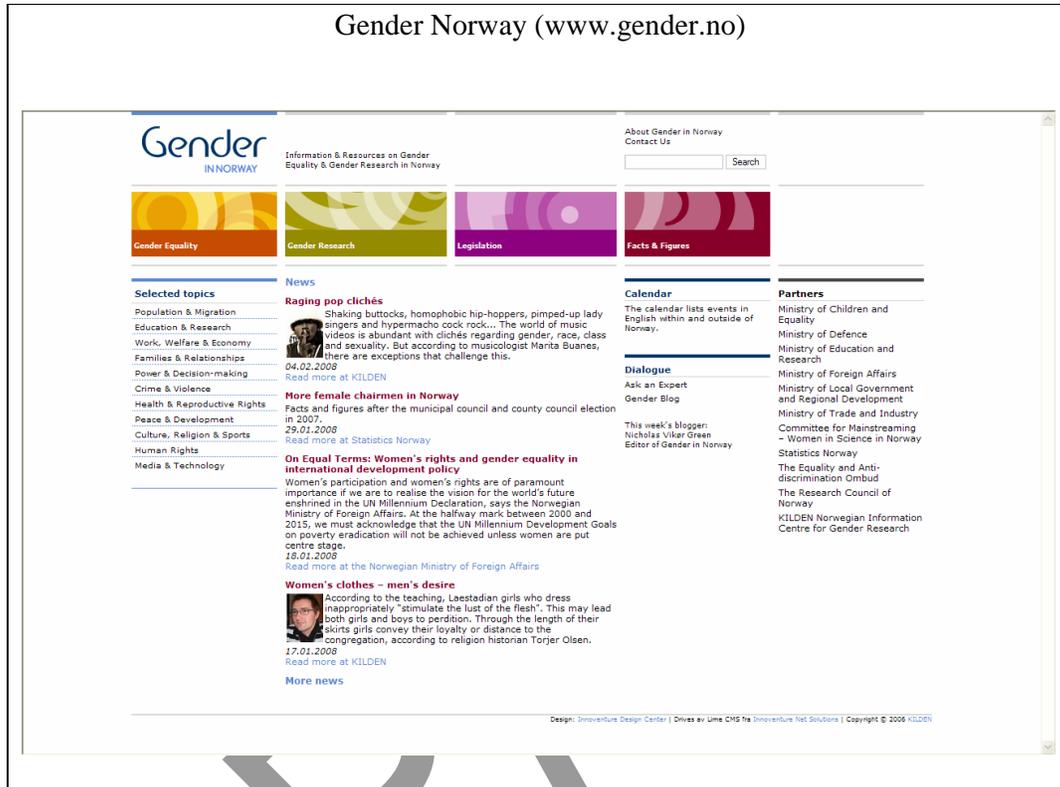
For the marketing of gender statistics, it is important to identify the different target groups of the message. The following are the core target groups:

- Government bodies promoting equal opportunities
- Other government bodies (ministries of labour, social protection, education, ...)
- Women’s organizations, feminist organizations as separate Non Government Organisations or within political parties, trade unions, parliaments, regional and municipal decision bodies
- Networks, faculties and libraries in universities and other parts of research environments focussing on questions of equality, equal opportunities, feminism and other gender related issues
- Public libraries
- Women’s magazines, publications and information centres
- Support centres fighting against harassment or violence against women, centres for young mothers and other gender oriented social institutions.
- Media
- International organizations

Getting the message out

Each country has their own methods for alerting their customers of the availability of ongoing and new products. With the growing accessibility of the internet, National Statistical Offices often use their websites to inform the public of data availability. Mainstreaming gender efforts should include ensuring there is a specific data link on the website that will take data users directly to tables and analysis on gender. This is particularly important as gender cuts across many subjects and can be easily overlooked as a heading in its own right.

An example of how to make gender issues and gender statistics more visible is provided by Norway where a number of government organizations, including Statistics Norway, developed a Gender Website. This website includes information on the different gender aspects in Norway together with gender statistics, analysis and information on what is gender statistics and how it can be used.



Conferences and meetings represent an excellent opportunity to market gender statistics. Wherever possible, presentations and exhibits should alert potential users of the availability of gender statistics.

(insert here the ECE brochure prepared for Rome)

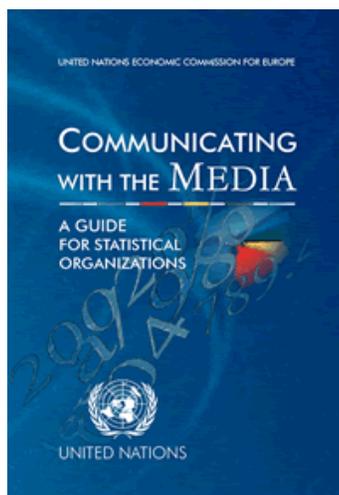
Sometimes novel ideas are used. For example, in the Czech Republic, a gender statistics brochure was produced and handed to all households who were selected in household surveys.

The media is an important channel for marketing and different strategies are needed to maximise its value. For example, timing the release of a gender publication can affect the extent to which it is used. Greater effect can be achieved if the publication is released to coincide with International Women's Day (8 March) or national events.

To increase the likelihood of gender statistics being used by the media, some journalists may appreciate National Statistical Office staff "ghost writing" the story. This has the added advantage of ensuring that statistics are correctly represented as there is not always a high degree of numeracy amongst journalists (see Making data Meaningful in section 6.3).

Communicating with the media

“Communicating with the Media: a Guide for Statistical Organizations” draws from the experience of statistical organizations in dealing with the media and communicating the complex issues often associated with statistics



“The first thing to understand about journalists is that most are uncomfortable with numbers. Many journalists are unable to calculate a percentage increase. Many more would find it difficult to explain the difference between a percentage decline and a percentage point decline. Most also find data boring.

At the same time, however, journalists know that there are stories somewhere in the data. And they are becoming more aware that there are stories that cannot be told properly without resorting to statistics of one kind or another.

As a rule, it's fair to say that journalists and statisticians have little in common. Yet, journalists and national statistical agencies are virtually inseparable. Why? Because the general public is an important audience for national statistical agencies, and the news media is a powerful tool for reaching this audience.

The challenge for a national statistical organization is to help journalists understand the data. Putting it simply, tell them a story. Tell them about the world they live in. Tell them how their numbers help

the public understand what they see around them as they drive to work every morning and watch the news on television every night.

Done poorly, a news release may never reach the public, or its contents may be misinterpreted. Done well, however, a news release provides a unique opportunity for the organization to speak directly to its audience, to inform them on vital issues, and to demonstrate the value and importance of its programmes for society.

This material is intended as a practical guide to assist countries that are setting up a national statistical organization to communicate effectively with the media, and in turn, with the general public. It does not pretend to solve every problem that a national statistical organization will face. However, it offers the best advice from those statistical agencies that have been doing the job for years, to those who may be just starting out. “

Source <http://www.unece.org/stats/documents/media/guide/Welcome.html>

When developing new users for gender statistics, it is important to consider those customers that already exist. Mailing or contact lists of those interested in gender-related statistics or even in particular topics are worth developing. If email addresses are known, it is possible to send out messages about publications, events etc with minimal cost. Opportunities should be used to enhance mailing lists over time by adding persons who, for example, attend gender training courses or order gender publications. The National Statistical Office can also use their website to invite interested users to have their names added to mailing lists.

Marketing plan

Most countries do not have a separate marketing plan for gender statistics, but incorporate the marketing of gender statistics within the overall marketing plan for the National Statistical Office. Gender programs often have to compete for scarce resources, so it is important that they have an overall action plan. The ideal is to embed a specific marketing plan within this overall plan.

The marketing plan should include the following elements:

- Identifying key partners and customers
- Developing the Message
- Assigning responsibilities for communications
- Developing media contacts
- Analyzing feedback

It is important to define key partners and customers first because for different target groups the message, the responsibility and the information content may differ significantly.

DRAFT

6.3 Dissemination

What it is

Dissemination of statistical data includes the methods of getting collected information to those who need it.

In the case of gender statistics dissemination can be via specific “Women and Men” publications as well as by presenting sex disaggregated data wherever possible in all publications. Gender statistical data can also be disseminated via the internet or in other electronic forms.

Some countries have chosen to focus the dissemination of gender information putting women in the centre while others consider women and men on an equal basis. For example, Canada and Germany title their gender publications as “Women in Canada” and “In the Spotlight Women in Germany” (publication title to be checked). This does not mean that statistics are presented only for women, but it reflects a vision that the main target for providing the statistics is women. Other countries’ approach is that there should be a gender-balanced and neutral vision in providing gender statistics where all data are presented for both women and men. This approach supports the view that the fundamental role of gender analysis is to measure the differences between women and men.

The data can be presented in the form of tables, indicators, or as an analysis of the gender data. In some cases, micro data at the individual level is disseminated so that individual researchers can do their own analysis.

Why it is important

Marketing and dissemination are closely related and intertwined subjects. While in the marketing section the focus of discussion was on ways of encouraging use of gender statistics, the dissemination discussion centres around the various forms of data provision. It is therefore a critically important step in the process of ensuring gender statistics are fully utilised.

Different forms for disseminating Gender Statistics

There are different forms for disseminating gender statistics, through specialized gender-related products and through the regular dissemination of statistics. This last approach is implemented by making sure that all data related to persons are sex-disaggregated and that data on specific issues affecting one sex more than the other or relate to gender relations between women and men are regularly disseminated. Often there are different products inside a national statistical system which can provide a

wealth of gender statistics but it may be difficult for users to easily navigate across all the products. A good example of how users can be enhanced in their capacity to access all the gender-relevant data can be found in Canada where a publication on “Funding Data on Women: a Guide to major sources at Statistics Canada” was produced in 2007. This publication provides different users with a comprehensive overview of the scope and diversity of data available on Canadian women and men, as well as an indication of the ways in which these data can be used⁹⁷.

The United Nations has also provided a publication which uniquely focuses on national reporting of sex disaggregated statistics **The World's Women 2005: Progress in Statistics** (see below). This publication provides an overview of the availability and quality of gender statistics around the world.

The screenshot shows the United Nations Statistics Division website. The main heading is "Statistics and indicators on women and men". Below this, there is a section for "The World's Women 2005: Progress in Statistics". The text describes the report's focus on national reporting of sex disaggregated statistics in areas like demographics, health, education, work, violence against women, poverty, human rights, and decision-making. It notes that this is the fourth report since 1990 and emphasizes the need for improved national statistical capacity. A "Media resources" box contains links for "Book launch", "Press release", and "Fact sheets (multiple languages)". At the bottom, there is a table of download options for the complete report and by section, with links in English, Arabic, Chinese, French, Russian, and Spanish.

“Women and Men” publications

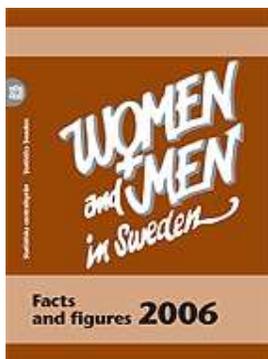
Sex disaggregated data are often presented in “Women and Men” publications. The first country that issued such publication was Sweden in 1984. Sweden’s production of Women and Men booklets, and their assistance to other countries to do likewise has led to one of the most popular publications produced by National Statistical Offices.

⁹⁷ http://www.swc-cfc.gc.ca/pubs/pubspr/0662498377/index_e.html.



Statistiska centralbyrån
Statistics Sweden

Women and Men in Sweden - Facts and Figures 2006



Gender equality is one of the priority subject areas that Sweden is actively pushing within the EU. In order to facilitate this, the lifestyles of both women and men must be made visible and put on the top of our agenda. What are the good and bad aspects? Statistics is an important tool to find out more about problems. The well-known booklet *Women and Men in Sweden. Facts and Figures*, presents actual facts, figures and statistics in many different areas.

To add more on the history of how the publication started (Statistics Sweden had provided the

description of history)

See

<http://www.scb.se/templates/PlanerPublicerat/ViewInfo.aspx?publobjid=26>

The wide appeal of these publications is their small size, attractive appearance, mix of tables and graphics and level of relative simplicity. It is important that these publications contain information about where the reader can go to find more complicated or detailed statistics.

In 1997, the UN published a handbook “for Producing National Statistical Reports on Women and Men” to support the countries in their efforts to produce these national publications (see below).

**Handbook for Producing National Statistical Reports
on Women and Men**

This handbook describes the institutional arrangements and resource requirements for the development of a gender statistics publication and explains how to prepare and use available data and generate indicators.

It also provides details on tools for presentation of statistics and indicators and how they are combined to produce a user-oriented publication.

National statistical offices and gender programmes interested in conducting statistical analysis on women and men will find this operational guide invaluable.



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Other official statistical publications

While gender specific publications are important, it is equally important that sex disaggregated statistics are shown in standard publications wherever possible. It is important to reinforce the idea that showing “gender statistics” is simply a part of normal “good practice” so that those who use the statistics in the standard publications will start reproducing the disaggregated data in their own work as a matter of course.

National Statistics Offices often use regular table reports to track trends over time on a given measure. Templates for these measures should be designed with a gender perspective wherever possible. Key measures of social and economic trends, such as employment rates, migration estimates or literacy rates are examples of where data should be presented by sex in an effort to mainstream gender statistics. Often National Statistics Offices include sex in the main tables, but not when other classifications are considered. Sex should be included in all data presented for women and men regardless of the number of other classifications considered.

Analytical articles/reports

Wherever possible, information should go beyond sex disaggregated data to provide analysis that sheds light on the reasons for gender differences and the factors that lie behind them. Differences that emerge when data are disseminated cross tabulated by sex often raises policy related questions that require statistical expertise. Increasingly,

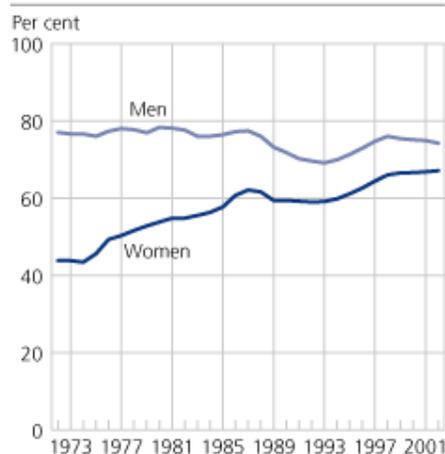
statistical offices are developing expertise that enables them to help answer these questions by thoughtful development of in depth analytical products.

The gender-divided labour market – Norway – an example of a gender analysis

Extract:

In an international context, Norway is often regarded as a leader in gender equality. The employment level for women is approaching the same level as for men. However Norway still has an extremely gender-divided labour market. Statistics show systematic differences between men and women.

Employed women and men aged 16-74. 1972-2002. Per cent



Source: Labour Force Survey.

Increasing numbers of women in employment

Despite employment levels of women increasing in all age groups, most of the levelling out between the sexes is due to the entry of mothers into the labour market. It seems that women with young children under 3 now work to a greater extent than before. However, not surprisingly, women with one child work to a greater extent than women with two or more children. This demonstrates that it is also fully possible for women to combine family life with employment. Welfare schemes such as maternity leave, and the gradual transfer of care work from the private family arena to the public sector, have made this possible to a greater extent than before. Women stated that they now spend less time on housework than 30 years ago, whilst men said they spent longer.

...but women work less than men

A total of 4 out of 10 women have employment contracts that entail part-time working, whereas only 1 out of 10 men have the same. Therefore, despite the substantial increase in the employment level of women, and the fact that it is approaching the male employment level, women still have shorter working hours than men

Published 8 February 2005 © [Statistics Norway](#)

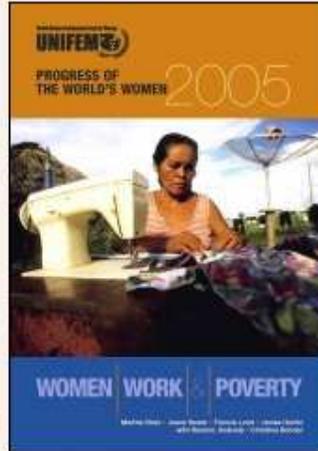
Examples of analytical publications produced at international level to present data on gender and analysis include *The World's Women 2000* (this is the third of a series of analytical reports produced by the United Nations Statistics Division) and *Progress of the World's Women 2005* (published by UNIFEM in 2005). **Include a box with picture of the two publications and references.**

[UNIFEM / Resources / Publications](#)

Progress of the World's Women 2005: Women, Work & Poverty

Author/Editor(s): Martha Chen, Joann Vanek, Francie Lund, James Heintz, with Renana Jhabvala and Christine Bonner

This report marks the fifth anniversary of the UN Millennium Declaration and the tenth anniversary of the Beijing Platform for Action. It argues that unless governments and policymakers pay more attention to employment, and its links to poverty, the campaign to make poverty history will not succeed, and the hope for gender equality will founder on the reality of women's growing economic insecurity.



“Progress of the World's Women 2005: Women, Work and Poverty” makes the case for an increased focus on women's informal employment as a key pathway to reducing poverty and strengthening women's economic security. It provides the latest available data on the size and composition of the informal economy and compares national data on average earnings and poverty risk across different segments of the informal and formal workforces in six developing countries and one developed country to show the links between employment, gender and poverty. It looks at the costs and benefits of informal work and their consequences for women's economic security. Finally, it provides a strategic framework — with good practice examples — for how to promote decent work for women informal workers, and shows why strong organizations of workers in the informal economy are vital to effective policy reforms.

This report can and should be used as a call to action to help advocates, policy makers, governments and the international community “make poverty history.”

http://www.unifem.org/resources/item_detail.php?ProductID=48

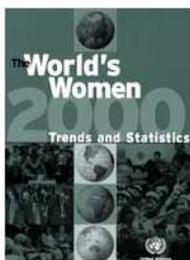
A UNECE guide on “Making Data Meaningful” can provide some tips on how bring data to life by presenting statistics through effective story-lines.

The World's Women 2000 Trends and Statistics

This revealing book remains the most complete documentation and description to-date of women's conditions and contributions worldwide. *The World's Women 2000* is the third in a series of reports that have broken new ground and the data presented here provides a "snapshot" of the salient statistical findings since 1995, while also drawing recent changes and long-term trends. It stresses that new data is needed on issues unique to women - such as violence against women and maternal health. Using innovative techniques in a form non-specialists can readily understand, this book is an academically sound blend of facts and interpretation.

Table of Contents:

- 1. Population**
 - Demographic changes
 - Where women and men live
 - Housing conditions in rural and urban areas
- 2. Women and men in the family**
 - Marriage
 - The dissolution of unions
 - Parenthood
 - Living arrangements
- 3. Health**
 - Life expectancy
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 - Working conditions and opportunities
- 6. Politics and Rights**
 - Women's rights as human rights
 - Political decision-making
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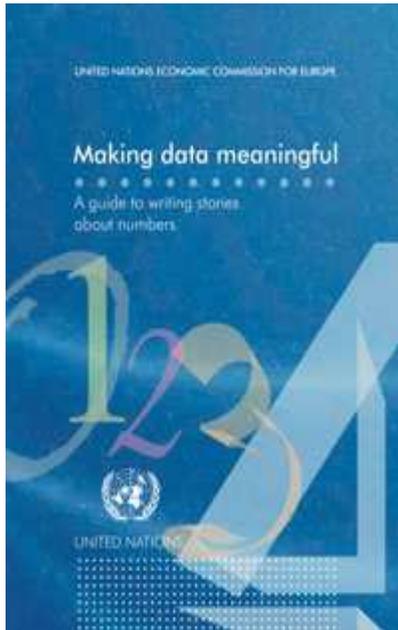
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<http://www.un.org/Pubs/whatsnew/e00137.htm>

Making Data Meaningful

Making Data Meaningful: A guide to writing stories about numbers was prepared within the framework of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) Work Session on Statistical Dissemination and Communication, under the programme of work of the Conference of European Statisticians.



The guide is intended as a practical tool to help managers, statisticians and media relations officers use text, tables, graphics and other information to bring statistics to life.

It contains suggestions, guidelines and examples of how to use effective writing techniques to make data meaningful.

This guide is designed as a practical tool to help managers, statisticians and media relations officers use text, tables, graphics and other information to bring statistics to life using effective writing techniques.

It contains suggestions, guidelines and examples – but not golden rules.

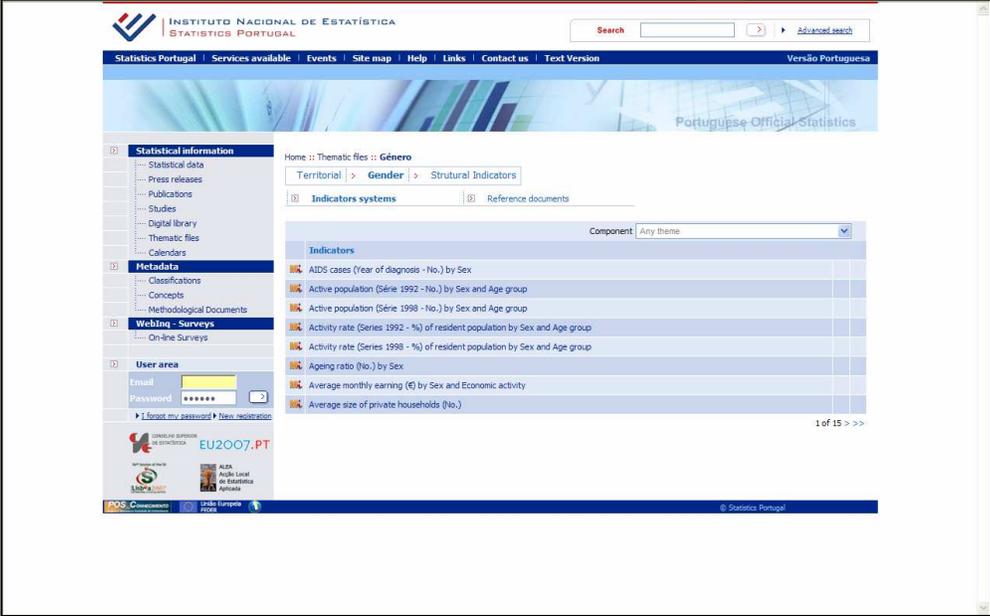
This document recognizes that there are many practical and cultural differences among statistical offices, and that approaches vary from country to country.

<http://www.unece.org/stats/documents/writing/>

Electronic provision of data

The National Statistical Office will often include on their website much more detailed information than would be shown in publications. These data bases often have a gender dimension. In some cases offices have created a gender specific data base. Portugal provides an example of this.

PORTUGAL - THE GENDER DATABASE



Portugal developed a database on gender statistics, which integrates the information of different sources and provides the gender relevant data from official statistics. This database includes a set of indicators in eight domains: Population, Family, Education and Training, Activity Employment and Unemployment, Conciliation employment and family responsibilities, Health, Decision making, and Crime and Violence.

The majority of indicators are updated annually. Data has been analysed back to 1970. The database is available free of charge.

See www.ine.pt

Other countries incorporate gender into the regular data dissemination on their websites and therefore do not have a specific gender page. In the case of Statistics Sweden they have taken the issue of gender one step further by showing social and demographic statistics only for male and female separately, without presenting totals. This includes fertility where data on male and female fertility are presented. Those users who wish to look at percentages or ratios would need to calculate the totals for themselves.

New tools on the internet are being used to assist with gender issues. For example, the OECD Development Centre released “Wikigender” which is an online resource on gender equality (see www.wikigender.org) in March 2008. Wikigender provides an interactive platform to share and discuss information on gender equality. It covers a broad range of issues, including theoretical concepts, empirical evidence and policy aspects of gender equality. Wikigender particularly focuses on statistics and measurement tools. Because a wiki is special software that allows users to easily build, edit and link web pages, they are frequently used to create collaborative websites whose content is continuously modified by the input of users.

Statistically savvy users including academics often require more detailed data than is available in publications. At the most detailed level, they require micro data often at the individual level. A limiting factor for National Statistics Offices is the important requirement that they must protect individual confidentiality. The provision of micro data to academic institutions and policy research groups is a growing area of statistics. If the micro data are too sensitive to release, then it is important that whatever is able to be released at least contains information by sex wherever possible.

6.4 UNECE Gender Statistics data base and website

What are they?:

UNECE Gender Statistics website

The United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, in collaboration with National Statistical Offices in the region developed a website on Gender statistics which incorporates comprehensive information on how to make and use gender statistics. The website also includes the gender statistics database. (see <http://www.unece.org/stats/gender/>).

The screenshot shows the homepage of the UNECE Gender Statistics Website for Europe & North America. The header includes the UNECE logo and navigation links like HOME, PROGRAMMES, MEETINGS, INFORMATION RESOURCES, ABOUT UNECE, and CONTACT UNECE. A search bar and SITE MAP are also present. The main content area is titled "Welcome to UNECE's Gender Statistics Website ..." and features a quote from the Beijing Platform of Action: "empowerment of women and equality between women and men are prerequisites for achieving political, social, economic, cultural and environmental security among all peoples". Below this, it asks "Why a Gender Statistics Website?" and "Who is the site for?". The right sidebar contains "More about us" and "Quick links" sections.

Gender statistics is a relatively new field the gender website has been created to provide general information about gender statistics in order to give a clearer picture of the subject. It covers the following topics:

- *what is gender statistics* - an introduction to the concept of gender statistics, and reasons why gender statistics are needed, including a short historical overview on gender statistics .
- *Producing gender statistics* - the main steps needed to compile gender statistics.
- *Presenting gender statistics* - appropriate visualization of gender statistics including practical information on what to consider when producing tables and graphs.
- *Disseminating gender statistics* - discusses various approaches used to ensure a wide dissemination of gender statistics.
- *international standards and guidelines* - compiles relevant methodological information in the field of gender statistics to enable international comparability

The website provides detailed information on Time use surveys (TUS). TUS offer a detailed portrait of how individuals spend their time, illustrating which activities people engage in and for how long.

In gender statistics, TUS represent a useful source of information for investigating the gender share of:

In gender statistics, TUS represent a useful source of information for investigating the gender share of:

- paid work
- housework
- personal care
- family tasks
- leisure activities

The website presents relevant information on methods and practices of TUS, at both national and international level and is intended to be a valuable resource for countries planning a TUS.

The website which was first released in 2002 is a product of the UNDP/UNECE project on "Gender statistics website for monitoring change". The aim of this project was to improve the production, quality and use of gender statistics in countries across the ECE region through strengthening national statistical capacity.

UNECE Gender Statistics Database

Why is it important

The UNECE's Gender Statistics Database is unique in terms of presenting sex-disaggregated data for a variety of subject areas for the countries in the region. It is distinctive because the user can find all the data on gender issues in one place. The Gender Statistics Database is easy to use and navigate. This database is exceptional in that it presents data not only for Western Europe but also for the countries of Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States. The database is also presented in both English and Russian, which increase its utility for Russian-speaking countries.

The content of the Gender Statistics database reflects the main indicators of the critical gender statistics areas, stipulated in the Beijing Conference Platform for Action (1995). Data are available for all countries of Europe (including Turkey), North America, and Central Asia. The Gender Statistics Database serves as a reference platform for improving gender statistics and contributing to inform policy debate and decision-making on gender issues. The data is relevant for anyone concerned with gender questions in Europe, Central Asia and North America: public authorities, non-government organisations, scientists, students, women-organisations, journalists, and international organizations.

Content of the Gender Statistics Database

The Gender Statistics Database is disseminated through a PC-Axis platform, organised in a tree structure according to the following domains:

- Population
- families and households
- work and economy
- education
- public life and decision-making
- crime and violence.

For each of these domains the user can develop multiple tables extracting data on a variety of indicators. For each indicator or area of concern, data are presented on totals related to women and men, sex-ratios and percentages of women and men in different sub-population groups. These different presentations are meant to help the users to fully understand the gender disparities.

The database consists of data from 51 of the 56 UNECE countries (see http://www.unece.org/press/pr2007/07stat_p02e.htm for information about the 56 countries). Andorra, Lichtenstein, Monaco and San Marino have no data included. Also, the average data available differs from country to country. At the end of 2007, The Netherlands was the country with the highest number of statistics available, (about 70 percent), while Bosnia and Herzegovina was the one with the lowest number of statistics available (about 14 percent).

Nearly all data are sex disaggregated. In some cases, sex-disaggregated data are presented by age, education level, and household types. Data are available for the following years: 1980, 1990, and 1995 (Beijing) and 2000-2005. When a country was unable to provide the data for a specific year they provided data for a year close to that year if that was possible.

Metadata are provided to interpret the data. The metadata consists of general information about the data, the source, the definitions, and specific country information regarding the data.

The Gender Statistics Database is easy to use. A user can quickly learn how to navigate the website. Data can also be downloaded without difficulty.

The Gender Statistics Database is maintained by the UNECE Statistical Division. Data are collected from international organizations and national statistical offices. A network of Statisticians (*Gender Statistics Focal Points*) from national statistical offices facilitates the updating. It is largely thanks to their commitment and work that the Gender Statistics Database exists and is kept updated.

Proposals for improvement of the Gender Statistics Database

Efforts are ongoing to increase the data content of existing tables and to ensure that they are updated and maintained. There are also ongoing efforts to make it easier to update the data as well as improving the usability of the site. The questionnaire used to collect information has been redesigned and higher frequency of updating is now

possible. Use is being made of available sources including international and national official publications and websites to reduce the burden of questionnaire completion.

There are proposals to increase the range of tables in each of the domains. A small number of tables for which it has been difficult to obtain data are likely to be removed. In addition two new domains are to be added to the data base. These cover the topics of “Life balance” and “Science and technology”. Life balance will initially focus on working patterns, child care arrangements for young children and time use data. Science and technology will focus on the use of computers and the internet. (see annex for list of indicators)

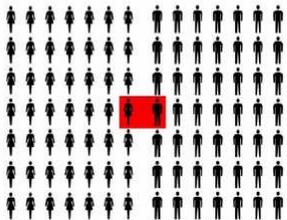
Data base use

Efforts have been made to improve awareness of the data base by producing brochures (see example below) and highlighting information from the data base wherever possible. References to the UNECE Gender Statistics Database on various web pages of various organisations and universities also show its relevance within users of gender data.

ABOUT THE DATABASE

The Gender Statistics database presents sex-disaggregated social data.

Most of the available data have been supplied by National Statistical Offices through the network of Gender Statistics Focal Points.



For more information about gender issues and statistics, please also refer to the **Gender Statistics Website**.

www.unece.org/stats/gender/

ABOUT GENDER STATISTICS

Gender statistics is a field of statistics which cuts across the traditional fields to identify, produce and disseminate statistics that reflect the realities of the lives of women and men and policy issues relating to gender.



United Nations Economic Commission for Europe

Gender Statistics Database

DATA HIGHLIGHTS





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Statistics for informed decisions

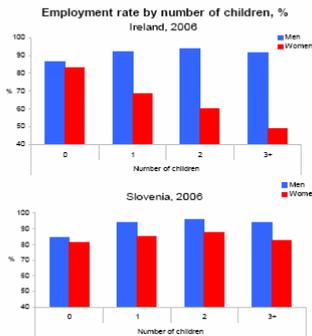
www.unece.org/stats/data

**NEW DATA FROM UNECE
GENDER STATISTICS
DATABASE**

The UNECE Gender Statistics database provides country profiles on gender aspect for population, family and households, work and economy, education, public life and decision making, health, crime and violence. **New data and indicators** covering additional topics (life balance, science and ITC, time use) **will be available in spring 2008.**

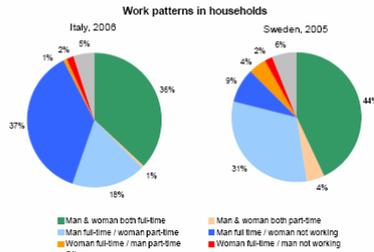
**NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND
FEMALE EMPLOYMENT RATE**

In most countries in the UNECE region, the male employment rate remains stable regardless of the number of children, but for women it decreases significantly as the number of children increases. There are however some notable exceptions, such as Slovenia, where the female employment rate does not change with an increasing number of children.



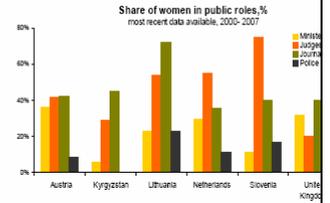
**WORK PATTERNS OF COUPLES IN
HOUSEHOLDS**

Traditional households where men work full-time and women work part-time or not at all still prevail in about one half of the UNECE countries. In many other countries, like in Sweden, couples where both men and women are working equally either full-time or part-time account for about half of the households.



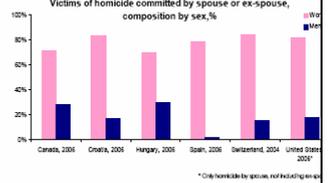
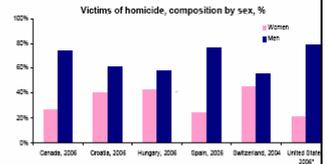
**FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN
PUBLIC LIFE**

Only in a few UNECE countries gender parity prevails in defined areas of public life. The share of women among government ministers, judges, journalists, police staff, and their participation in some other important domains remains well below 50 per cent in the majority of countries.



VICTIMS OF HOMICIDE

The vast majority of all homicide victims are males. However, the victims of homicide committed by the spouse or ex-spouse are mainly women.

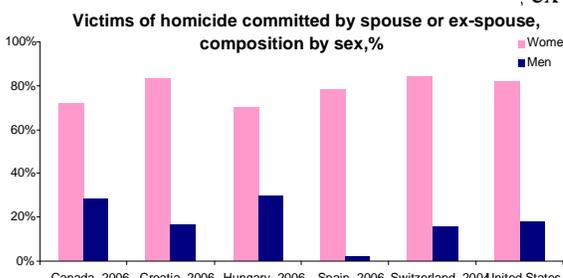
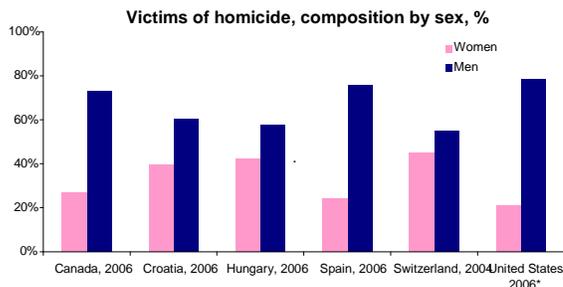


There is no need to repeat the graphs presented in the brochure in the text.

Examples of published data from the data base are shown below.

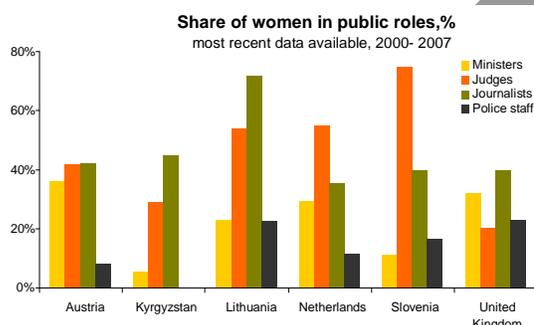
Victims of homicide

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Female participation in public life

Only in a few UNECE countries gender parity prevails in defined areas of public life. The share of women among government ministers, judges, journalists, police staff, and their participation in some other important domains remains well below 50 per cent in the majority of countries.



Examples of how the UNECE Gender Statistics has been used by countries and international organizations are the following:

1. The Federal Statistics office of Switzerland published in 1997 a document “Equal Opportunities for Women and Men: Switzerland in international comparison Selected indicators on equal opportunities in the areas of education, work and politics” (Order number: 907-0700) see

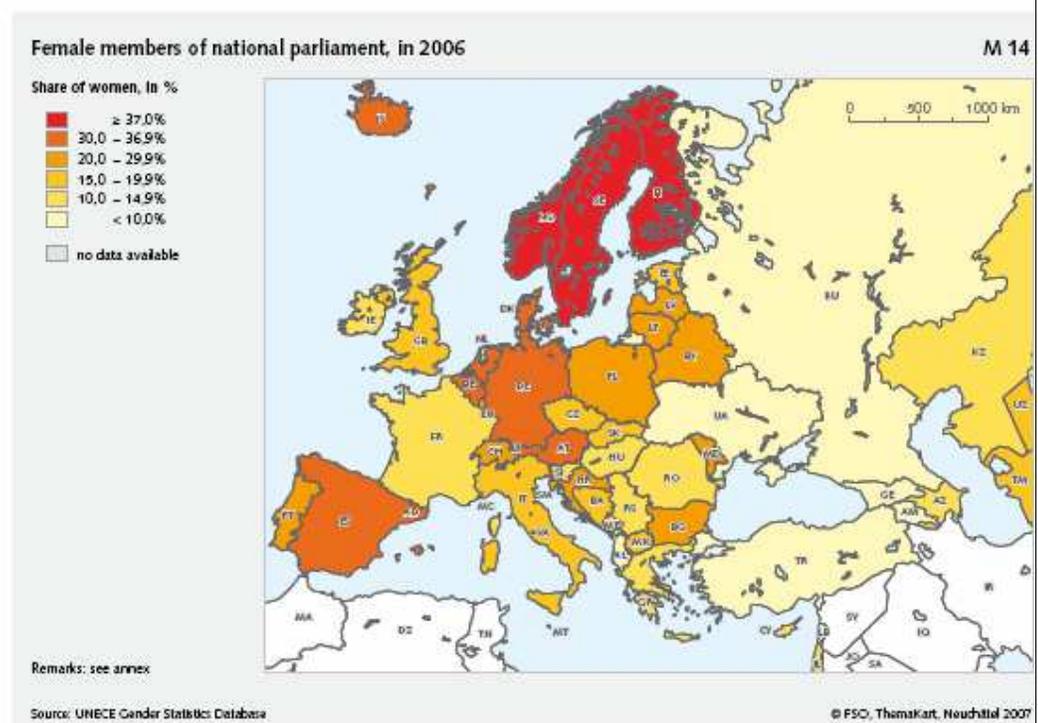
<http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/en/index/infothek/publ.html?publicationID=3030>

The UNECE Gender Statistics Database was used as the source of the report. Selected gender equality indicators were used to shed light on the position of women in certain areas of life, and the situation in Switzerland was compared with that in other countries. Below is an extract of results from the publication.

Political representation

The representation of women in national parliaments indicates how far they are able to participate in the decision-making processes of a country. However, the proportion of women in parliament and the related trend depend in part on whether there are legally imposed quotas in the country concerned. In none of the countries under review are women equally represented in the

national parliaments, let alone in the majority. Women are best represented in the Scandinavian countries, with around 38% of seats. Sweden has the highest proportion of women in parliament, with 45.3% in 2006. In international comparison, Switzerland belongs to the upper middle range, with 26% of seats held by women¹⁰. Its neighbours Germany and Austria have more women



¹⁰ This proportion rose further following the national elections at the end of October 2007 settling at 29.5%.

2. The United Nations Fund for Women (UNIFEM) also utilised the gender database as a substantial input for its publication “The Story Behind the Numbers: Women and Employment in Central and Eastern Europe and the Western Commonwealth of Independent States”

AnnexUNECE Gender Database: list of indicators

Existing areas

Gender country profiles

Gender and demographic overview by Country, Sex, Year and Indicator.

Population

Population, 5-year age groups, by Country, Age, Sex and Year.

Population, selected age groups, by Country, Age, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Sex ratio for population aged 80 and over by Country and Year.

Population, 5-year age groups, by Country, Marital status, Age, Sex and Year.

Population, selected age groups, by Country, Marital status, Age, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Families & households

Adolescent fertility rate by Country and Year.

Total fertility rate by Country and Year.

Mean age of women at the birth of the first child by Country and Year.

Live births by Country, Mothers age and Year.

Mean age at first marriage by Country, Sex and Year.

Legal abortions by Country, Year and Measurement.

One parent households and children by Country, Sex of parent, Year and Measurement.

Private households by Country, Households, Year and Measurement.

One person households by Age, Sex, Country and Year

New tables

Percentage of first marriages in the age group 15-19 out of the total number of first marriages, by sex

<i>Work & the economy</i>

Labour force by Country, Age, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Employment by Country, Sector of activity, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Employment by Country, Occupation, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Employment in public and private sector by Country, Sector of activity, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Employment status by Country, Status of employment, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Part-time employment by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Unemployment by Country, Age, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Youth unemployment by Sex, Measurement, Country and Year

Long term unemployment by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Gender pay gap By Level of education, Country and Year (see proposal under 'New tables')

New tables

Employment by occupation, sectors of activity and sex

Employment by occupation and educational attainment and sex

* Employment rate by marital status, sex and age group (15-24, 25-49, 50-64, 65+, 15+)

* Employment rate of population 25-49 by sex and number of children up to 16 (0,1,2,3+)

* Employment rate of population 25-49 by sex and age of youngest child (0-2; 3-5; 6-16; more than 16; no child, Total)

* Inactive persons by reason of inactivity (study, retirement, homemaking, other), sex and age group (15-24, 25-49, 50-64, 65+, 15+)

Gender pay gap based on employment-related income (under study, including disaggregation by occupation and educational attainment)

* These tables would also be included under the section 'Life balance'

Tables to be removed

Time spent in paid and unpaid work by Country, Work, Sex, Year and Measurement (more analytical tables in the section Life balance).

Education

Upper and post secondary pupils by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Net enrolment ratio at secondary level by Country, Sex and Year.

Educational attainment by Country, Level of education, Age, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Graduates by Country, Level of education, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Tertiary students by Country, Field of study, Level of education, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Teachers by Country, Level of education, Sex, Year and Measurement.

New tables

Life-long learning by sex and age group

Public life & decision making

Members of national parliament by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Government ministers by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Members of municipal councils or other local area governing bodies by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Judges by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Central bank board members by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Journalists by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Heads of universities by Sex, Measurement, Country and Year

Senior level civil servants by Sex, Measurement, Country and Year

New tables

Members of executive boards of the 20 top firms publicly quoted in the national stock exchange, by sex

Ministers of core ministries (Prime minister, Home affairs, Foreign affairs, Finance, Defence, Justice) by sex
 Members of constitutional court by sex
 Ambassadors by sex
 Police staff by sex

Tables to be removed

Chief editors of national newspapers by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement.

Health

Life expectancy by Country, Age, Sex and Year.
 Infant deaths per 1000 live births by Country and Year.
 Smokers by Country, Age, Sex and Year.
 Deaths to children aged 1-4 per 1000 children aged 1-4 by Country, Sex and Year.
 Population by level of Body Mass Index by Country, Weight, Age, Sex and Year.

Tables to be removed

Probability of dying between age 15 and 59 by Country, Sex and Year.

Crime & violence

Persons convicted by Country, Age, Sex, Year and Measurement.
 Victims of crime by Country, Type of crime, Sex, Year and Measurement.
 Prisoners by Country, Recidivist status, Sex, Year and Measurement.
 Type of conviction by Country, Conviction type, Sex, Year and Measurement.

New tables

Prisoners by national/foreign citizenship, sex and status (Citizenship: Nationals, Foreigners ; Status: Awaiting trial, Charged; Total)
 Victims of homicides by sex and by relationship between victim and perpetrator (Perpetrators: Spouse, Other relative. Other person) Possible extension: partner or ex-partner including spouse or ex-spouse
 Convictions by conviction type and sex, absolute values and incidence rates of total population. (The following conviction types will be added to existing table on convicted: Homicide, Robbery, Rape, Other crimes)

Tables to be removed

Men convicted for rape and attempted rape as a percent of all convicted men by Country and Year.
 Clear up rate for rape and attempted rape by Country and Year.
 Foreign prisoners by Country, Sex, Year and Measurement

New areas

Life balance

Work patterns in couple households (couples classified by different combinations of full-time, part-time, no paid work respectively of male and female: both working full-time, man full-time/woman part-time, man part-time/woman full-time, etc.)

Number of available places at pre-schools (3-5 year olds), per 1,000 children of the same age

Number of available places at day-care centre (0-2 year olds), per 1,000 children of the same age

Time use structure by sex (Gainful work and study, Domestic work, Travel, Sleep, Meals, Personal care, Free time, Total)

Time spent for domestic work by sex: (Food preparation, Dish washing; Cleaning and other upkeep; Laundry, Ironing, Handicrafts and prod. Textiles; Gardening, Construction and repairs; Shopping and services; Childcare; Total of activities)

Time spent on 'free time' activities by sex: (TV and video; Socializing; Reading; Sports; Hobbies and Games; Volunteer work and help; Total of activities)

Science and technology

Percentage of individuals who used a computer in the last year, by sex and age group (16-24, 25-54, 55-74)

Percentage of individuals who used the Internet in the last year, by sex and age group (16-24, 25-54, 55-74)

Percentage of individuals who accessed Internet, on average, at least once a week, by sex and age group (16-24, 25-54, 55-74)

Researchers by sex and sector (Business enterprise, Government, Higher education, Private non-profit)

Annex 1. UNECE -WBI Case study on participatory training approaches used in Gender Statistics Program for Eastern Europe and Central Asia countries



I. Introduction

1. Using participatory approaches: In this chapter of the manual we will look at the comparative advantages of participatory methods of training vs. conventional, based on the experiences of the Gender Statistics program for Europe and Central Asia countries administered by the UNECE and the World Bank Institute⁹⁸. The philosophy of this program is the usage of innovative participatory approaches in adult education and training, including interactive, adaptive and proactive methods, and as such, development of the ownership of the project and active participation in it of the direct beneficiaries – National Statistical Offices (NSOs) from recipient countries.

1a. The main objective of the program is to build capacity of the National Statistical Offices in the target countries (Bosnia & Herzegovina, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Moldova, Russian Federation, Serbia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan) to improve production, analysis, and dissemination of sex-disaggregated statistics for the purpose of social and economic analysis. Within the UNECE-WBI program, self-sustainable Community of Practice (CoP) of trainers on gender statistics was created, which connected statisticians and policymakers from all the target countries. The CoP contributed to attaining the main objective of the program, especially in recognizing the importance of mainstreaming gender in all areas of statistics and making sure that data collection and dissemination take proper consideration of gender-related issues in all fields.

1b. Gender Statistics program is based on the premises that adults generally assimilate only what they find useful and that they want to be able to apply their new knowledge and skills. Therefore, our program differentiates between traditional conventional

⁹⁸ In 2007, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) and the World Bank Institute (WBI) launched an innovative 3-year project (2007-2009) on Gender Statistics in Europe and Central Asia. The target audience for the program is a mix of middle to high-level statisticians from regional and national statistical offices, policy makers, researchers and academia from central, federal and municipal levels. Gender Statistics program focuses on the following issues: advocacy; gender budgeting; gender and minorities; decision-making in: public institutions, large enterprises, small enterprises; gender and labor statistics: informal employment, entrepreneurship, work/family life reconciliation; time use surveys; outreach and marketing.

training which views the trainee “as an empty vessel to be filled with knowledge” and participatory training which is based, instead, on an active dialogue between trainer and trainee and constitutes a learning process for both.

Participatory approaches are recognized to be among the most effective when delivering gender sensitization training. They help to promote dialogue and the exchange of information and skills among participants, planning future actions, monitoring and evaluating gender statistics issues in NSOs. But most importantly, participatory training is lot of fun, and is very helpful in developing interest in diverse stakeholders.

1c. Participatory training is best distinguished from non-participatory in terms of the way it is designed and led. Non-participatory trainings are often top-down, using ‘chalk-and-talk’ approach, - or a series of PowerPoint presentations, with the chairperson deciding on the flow of the training. Often the speaking time is directly proportional to the rank and power of the speaker. Participatory training, in turn, is planned and conducted in such a way that it ensures everyone has the opportunity to participate on an equal level. In addition, if learners participate actively in the learning process, they are more likely to learn, and training is more likely to be effective. Trainees will have more ownership in the training as their needs will have been identified and they will have been involved in deciding how their needs can be met.

Let us go through some major steps in organizing participatory training on gender sensitization of the National Statistical Offices.

II. Preparation Phase of the Participatory Training



1. Identifying the key actors: There is a range of actors with whom you will need to interact when you plan a gender training. These will differ depending on the type of training planned, but we can take the example of a training targeted at high- and middle- level statisticians as these constitute the main intended audience of the training discussed in this manual.

2. Building communication with key actors: First, you would need to find a way of convincing potential participants and those who have authority over them that the issue of gender statistics is important enough to spend time on.

2a. For the *senior staff and decision makers*, the message must be short but powerful. Perhaps the strongest message to be conveyed is that having staff capable of ensuring that the NSS’s outputs are gender-sensitive will improve the quality of the products, make the data more useful to policy makers, and this will enhance the reputation of the NSS. In some cases, there might also be an obligation to produce gender-sensitive statistics. For example, in terms of a European Union agreement, or for reporting in respect to international obligations and standards, such as the Convention on the

Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), or within the framework of the Gender Action Plan, like Bosnia & Herzegovina.

2b. At the practical level, senior decision makers will need to know that the training and any subsequent activity will not place a large burden on the organization. It is therefore important to stress whether financial or other support will be available. It must also be emphasized that for the most part production of gender-sensitive statistics is not a separate and additional task, but rather a new way of doing tasks that are already being performed. The additional resource requirements should therefore be limited.

2c. When targeting staff, it is important that the invitation to participate in the gender training does not come across as a criticism of either their current products and way of working, or their own competence. The message needs to be that it is because of the importance and usefulness of the statistics that are being produced that there is value added in incorporating the gender angle.

2d. One of your key messages will probably be that gender statistics is not a 'special interest group' issue. More specifically, they are not a 'women's issue'. Instead, these actors need to see how enhanced gender statistics can assist them and others in carrying out their responsibilities more effectively and more knowledgeably.

Frequently used arguments against producing gender-sensitive statistics

Argument: Adding gender will cost too much

For the most part, there is a minimal cost attached to adding gender to existing instruments. In some cases, it simply involves the addition of an extra question or column specifying sex. In other cases it might involve the addition of several other questions. At analysis time, the main cost would be the time involved in running additional tabulations, but in many cases sex can simply be added to existing tabulations. Significant cost is generally only incurred when a completely new investigation (such as a survey) is envisaged.

Adding gender will adversely affect the quality of the data

On the contrary, the addition of gender will enrich the information becoming available from the investigation and increase its explanatory value. The addition of gender also often provides the basis for more thorough checking of the accuracy of data collection and recording in that it allows for additional logical checks

Women and men in this country already enjoy equality

During some of the seminars on Gender Statistics in Central Asia this issue has been raised at the beginning of the seminar (during the Needs assessment activity). Gender statistics are needed to illustrate both the respects in which male and female differ, as well as those in which they are similar. It is only on the basis of this information that government can make sensible policy. And it is only with ongoing production of this information that government can be sure that its policies with respect to gender equity are succeeding.

Gender related issues are not relevant to our country

During the 2007 "Gender-Based Violence" training in Kazakhstan male participants were reluctant to admit that domestic violence exists in their country and even more that it is wide- spread in the households.

2e. **Naming the event:** In communication, and in thinking about what to do, ‘training’ might not always be the appropriate word. In particular, higher level managers and policy makers will usually not be comfortable with the idea that they must be ‘trained’. For them, a more appropriate word might be ‘briefing’ or ‘consultation.’ Therefore, we recommend that the training be called a ‘round table,’ ‘conference’, or a ‘seminar.’

3. Identification of clear objectives: In some cases a very general gender training is offered, exposing participants to basic concepts and frameworks for understanding gender. Such training is often referred to as gender awareness or gender sensitization training. The training envisaged in this manual is different in that it is intended to result in a change in the activities undertaken by participants and their institutions. It is thus more practically oriented than general awareness-raising.

3a. The fact that the training is practical also means that it needs to be clearly focused on particular issues. This could be a particular type of statistics (such as agricultural), or a particular instrument (such as a household survey or business register), or a particular product (a ‘Women and Men’ publication).

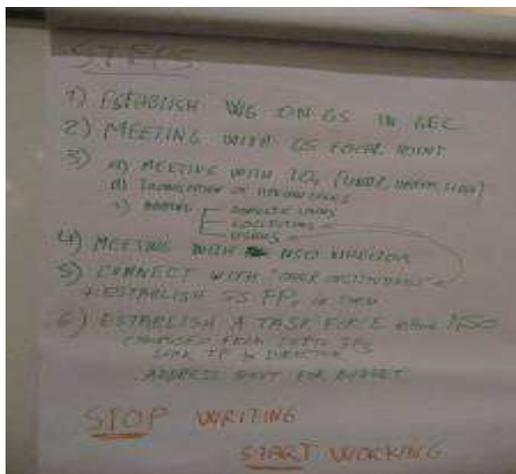
3b. **Follow-up objectives:** Ideally, there should also be a follow-up objective to the workshop in the form of some action that the organizers hope will be undertaken after the workshop has ended. This could be:

Example 1., *Design of a new survey to investigate gender-based violence.*

Gender-based violence training conducted in Kazakhstan in 2007 is a great illustration of this. One of the outputs of the training was a sample survey on gender-based violence and a system of indicators on violence against women to be included in the national statistical classification.

Example 2. *Development of gender - disaggregated indicators.*

Kyrgyz Republic national training course on Gender Statistics for Statisticians (2007) focused on identifying a group of indicators that need to be disaggregated by gender.



Example 3. *Developing action plans and further steps.*

One of the closing participatory activities (brainstorming in a small group) of the Training of Trainers (TOT) workshop held in Almaty, Kazakhstan in 2007⁹⁹ aimed at developing action plans and further steps in advancing gender statistics at the national level. (See picture) This activity summed up the suggested options, discussed feasibility of proposed actions and developed an action plan for the next two years. In other words, it determined clear follow-up objectives for the workshop.

Having a clear follow-up objective makes it easier to determine what needs to be covered in the workshop. It also increases the chances that participants use what they have learned in the near future. This, in turn, increases the chances that the lessons learned are fully entrenched.

Kyrgyz Republic has also proposed a 3 year plan of action which will include a coordinated effort from the line ministries and municipal administrations, especially the Committee on Migration, as the issue of external migration “labor migrants” currently appears to be one of the most pertinent for the country.

Kazakhstan training on Gender Statistics and Informal Employment could be another example of how well-developed objectives of the event could lead to a follow-up activity. Based on Gender Statistics and Informal employment training Kazakhstan NSO developed a project proposal for a 3 year program aimed at studying Gender and Labor Market issues, including informal employment, migration, correlation between women’s education and employment, and access to assets.

⁹⁹ In April 2007, a 5-day regional Training of Trainers (ToT) workshop was held in Almaty, Kazakhstan. Twenty-nine statisticians from 9 countries attended the training. In addition, the ToT was attended by colleagues from UNDP, UNIFEM, UNSD, WBI, and UNECE. Please see the following UNECE website for more information: <http://www.unece.org/stats/documents/2007.04.gender.htm> The Almaty TOT course was the first of the series of learning events planned for the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region for 2007-2010. The project team used participatory, adaptive, user friendly modules, customized to individual country realities and needs. The course was based 90% on interactive activities, where participants worked themselves in teams to review case studies, pre-tabulated data or analysis, questionnaires, and other materials. Outputs of these activities included national action plans related to the improvement of the coordination/organization of gender statistics, the modification of existing data collection or dissemination tools to improve the quality or availability of gender statistics, the identification of new processes for the collection of gender relevant data. Participants also produced advocacy material for gender statistics (such as logos, slogans) and exercised in improving mass media articles to be written to present gender analysis and graphs highlighting gender differences. Other activities included videos with interviews of the famous opinion leaders from the participating countries, multimedia presentations and lectures.

Example 4. *Integrating gender into NSO operations.* See Box 1.

Box 1. Gender Statistics follow-up objectives for 2008 -2009 Bosnia & Herzegovina
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review the labor force survey by identifying areas where gender can be further incorporated into the methodology of the LFS • Develop training modules on the following topics: reconciliation between work and family life; informal employment ; gender pay gap • Provide training for enumerators • Write good storylines for public releases • Review and follow up of the Questionnaire in 2008 from the gender perspective and work on redesigning of LFS for 2009 • Preparation of the Questionnaire for 2009 where the gender component will be included in close cooperation with the Gender institutions in accordance with EU/Eurostat requirements • Inclusion of the gender component in questionnaires and surveys conducted by the Statistical institutions, wherever possible

Explaining the very specific and practical objectives of the training should help with your communication strategy to the different actors.

III. Delivery Phase: Content of the Participatory Training, Key Facilitation Methods Used



1. Content of the training: The content of the training must relate to the objective. In broad terms the training envisaged in this manual is intended to ‘engender the National Statistical System (NSS)’. This, in turn, involves introducing a ‘gender lens’ to all aspects of the NSS, including survey design, design of instruments, interviewers, collection, analysis and presentation of data, among others. At a practical level, the objective is to provide training that assists statisticians in producing gender sensitive statistics. The ultimate goal is to facilitate the production of statistics that can be used for gender-sensitive policy making and for meeting the increasing demand for gender-related statistics coming from international mandates, policy makers, gender advocates and other users.

1a. Policy orientation of the training suggests the need for content that focuses on how to present and disseminate information in a way that is most likely to be used by policy makers and those who influence them. It also suggests the need for content that determines what the likely policy issues are.

1b. Training should not be seen only as a general awareness raising exercise, every gender statistics workshop should find ways of continually confronting their own barriers of gender blindness.

2. Facilitation: The term ‘facilitator’ implies that participants already have knowledge, and that the process involves sharing that knowledge, as well as adding new skills and information. The term ‘facilitate’ also relates to a style which promotes dialogue and exchange of information and skills among participants.

2a. As important as particular skills and knowledge, is the attitude of the facilitator. The participants in most of the trainings envisaged in this manual will be professionals. They will generally have detailed knowledge of the workings of their organization, including in relation to the particular statistics being considered. The facilitator needs to acknowledge openly that the participants have more expertise than they do on some aspects, and take their inputs into consideration. The facilitator also needs to take into account that as far as the participants are experts in different areas of statistics it might be more interesting for them to share their opinion with their peers than just listen. Therefore, it is important not to constrain the participant in expressing their thoughts (of course minding the time). The facilitator needs to think in advance on the size of the group(s) so everyone has a chance to talk. See Box 2.

Box 2.	
How the Size of Meetings Impacts Participation	
3-6 people:	Everyone speaks
7-10 people:	Almost everyone speaks - Quieter people speak less - One or two may not speak at all
11-18 people:	5 or 6 people speak a lot, 3 or 4 join in occasionally
19-30 people:	3 or 4 people dominate
30+ people:	Little participation in a discussion is possible
Source: Pretty et. al., 1995	

Here are some other general tips on how to facilitate training, including what the facilitator should and should not do. (See Box 3.)

Box 3. Dos and Don'ts

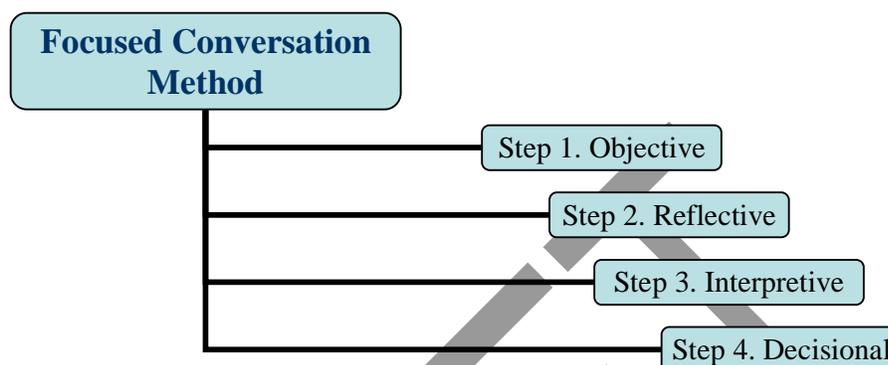
Do	Don't
Use you own best judgment at all times	Be late, Rush
Introduce yourself, establish rapport	Lecture
Respect, be nice to people, be sensitive	Criticize
Share, listen, watch, relax	Interrupt
Embrace error, learn from mistakes	Dominate, monopolize
Abandon preconceptions	Present too much
Be self aware, be self critical	Take yourself too seriously
Be optimally prepared and flexible	
Have fun, enjoy	

3. Methodology and approach: Participatory methods of facilitation which have been used during the Gender Statistics program, and which we recommend to apply, are: lectures and presentations; demonstrations; case studies; role plays; games and competitions, small group discussions; small group exercises; and brainstorming sessions. It is usually recommended to include a mix of methods that help to optimize learning experience and keep the participants engaged in the learning process. Further, methods which encourage active participation also generally result in better retention of learning.

Here are some examples of participatory learning methods that we have used to deliver our workshops: 1) Focused Conversation Method, 2) Brainstorming session, 3) Role-Play, and 4) Ranking and Scoring method.

1. Focused Conversation Method (also known as a structured discussion) is a technique that helps training/workshop participants to reflect on a commonly shared experience such as presentation, article, movie etc. There are four steps of the focused conversation that can lead a group to an in-depth discussion on the topic and in some cases to a plan of action and concrete decisions. Figure 1.

Figure 1. Focused Conversation Method



Source: Adapted from Spencer, Winning through Participation, 1989.

One of the illustrations of a Focused Conversation method used in the Gender Statistics program is a set of four activities on Gender-Based Violence. See Table 1.

Table 1. Gender-Based Violence Focused Conversation

Steps	Content	Type of question
Objective 	Activity 3.4a Gender- Based Violence – Quick Survey & Competition Participants are introduced to the subject of gender-based violence and its relevance to their country. Participants also share their knowledge on the subject matter, existing data and facts	Do you think there is gender-based violence in your country? How open is your culture for a debate of this issue? How would you rate the quality of the data regarding this issue in your country?
Reflective 	Activity 3.4 b Video clip on domestic violence The purpose of this activity is to see participants' personal feelings to the subject matter	What struck you most in the situation of the women portrayed? What implication has the given information on your work?
Interpretive 	This activity analyzes the meaning and significance that participants attach to the subject	What is the significance of the problem? What are the consequences of not handling gender-based violence issues in your country?
Decisional 	Activity 3.4 c Gender- Based Violence – Advocacy Participants learn about and discuss what is necessary to put gender- based violence on the agenda of decision- makers in national statistical offices.	Think of ways to convince your manager of the importance of this topic. What stakeholders would you involve in the dialogue to guarantee a successful roll-out of the survey?
Closing	Activity 3.4 d	1. Include reporting on domestic violence

	<p>Multimedia presentation “Gender-Based Violence – Action Plan” Participants learn different approaches that can be taken by a national statistical office and develop a country-based action plan. Based on 3 case studies presented, participants in teams choose one of three alternative improvement actions for their country.</p>	<p>in the national registration system 2. Include a module on violence against women in an ongoing survey 3. Develop a new, specialized survey on violence against women</p>
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2. Brainstorming method is another participatory approach widely used during training events and workshops. It can be used in both small and large groups to initiate discussion. The goal of brainstorming is to acquire from the group as much objective information as possible.

There are four main steps in the brainstorming process:

1. The facilitator poses the question and explains the objective of the discussion
2. Participants brainstorm either individually or in small groups of 3-6 people
3. Facilitator collects ideas and posts them either on the flipchart or participants read them out loud
4. Representatives from the groups with the help of facilitator draw conclusions and possibly continue discussion on possible solutions to the proposed issue etc.

One of the illustrations of the brainstorming method is the Gender Pay Gap - Data Analysis activity, which encourages trust- building trust among the participants and helped in developing a common goal. See Table 2.

Table 2. Brainstorming: Gender Pay Gap –Data analysis

Activity 3.2b Gender Pay Gap –Data analysis	
OBJECTIVE	Participants will understand how gender pay gap is calculated. They will develop arguments to convince skeptical people/statisticians on the importance of gender pay data for policy making
PARTICIPANTS	8 – 40
TIME 	60 minutes: - 5 minutes - group set-up and briefing - 30 minutes - group work on gender pay within countries using data from imaginary company, developing arguments on importance of gender issues in wages data - 25 minutes - reporting out
FLOW  	- The facilitator forms teams of 4-6 persons per team which are randomly put together. - The facilitator explains the objective of the session and hands out a data sheet of a fictitious company and gives the following guiding questions and tasks: - What is the effect of different data on hourly, monthly, annual wages and explain the reason for differences? - Which data is better from a gender perspective? - Some people believe that differences in wages for men and women are related to different choices rather than gender roles, discrediting the use of this indicator for gender equality. Participants are asked to develop convincing arguments on the need to use this indicator for

	<p>policy making.</p> <p>- The teams note their findings on flipcharts and report out to the rest of the group.</p>
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3. Role - Play method is considered to be an excellent tool for analysis, simulation, feedback, and communication among the participants. Role-plays, in general, have a comparative advantage when considering other methods: by acting out situations, participants can uncover and discover aspects otherwise overlooked or unknown. In addition, role - plays facilitate the inclusion of all group members and also encourage participation of introverted and silent participants. Role -plays are especially recommended for heterogeneous groups.

The Almaty Training of Trainers (TOT) activity made use of the role - play method as one of the opening activities, which helped to loosen up the participants and involve everyone in the discussion. This was especially helpful in the beginning of TOT. (See Activity i.3. Table 3) Participants were asked to argue in support of gender statistics or against it, in the roles of an NSO Budget Officer, NSO Statistician, National Committee for Women Representative, and a NGO Representative.

Table 3. Role- Play

Activity i.3 Role – Play	
OBJECTIVE	To convince the NSO to organize gender sensitization statistical training for their staff and to gain a better understanding of the different players and their specific objectives and agendas.
PARTICIPANTS	8 – 40
TIME 	<p>90 minutes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 5 minutes – facilitator creates and briefs four teams - 25 minutes – team role play - 5 minutes – new groups formed out of representatives of each roles - 25 minutes – discussion in teams of representatives - 10 minutes – group discussion and summary
FLOW 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The participants are placed into one of the following four teams: 1) NSO Budget officer; 2) NSO statistician; 3) National Committee for Women Representative; 4) NGO representative. - The facilitator briefs the four teams by explaining what their specific role is. - Each team looks at the issue from their own perspective. The teams are asked to work out arguments supporting their role. - The facilitator hands out a number to the representatives of each group/role. (If there are 5 team members, the numbers 1-5 get handed out at each table, etc.). - Each role member with a certain number joins a table and meets together with the other role players to discuss the topic. Now the representatives have the objective to best defend their role by giving the arguments they have previously developed. - The facilitator asks each table to report on the process, arguments and outcomes of the discussion.

4) Ranking and Scoring Methods are usually used in conjunction with other methods (for instance, combined with brainstorming or case studies) when different issues, options or data are identified and variously counted, estimated, scored or ranked.

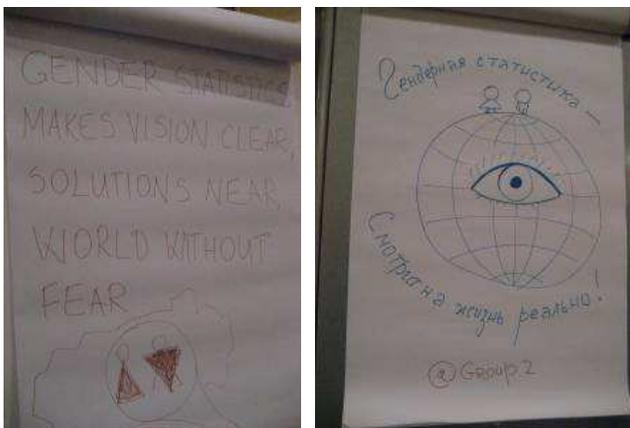
Both methods can be used in small and large groups to quickly determine the degree of importance that the participants attribute to a particular issue. Almaty TOT used ranking and scoring methods to introduce a sensitive subject of gender-based violence

and, thus release the initial strain towards this topic, especially among male participants. (See table 4)

Table 4. Ranking: Gender Based Violence –Quick Survey & Competition

Activity 3.4a Gender -Based Violence –Quick Survey & Competition	
OBJECTIVE	Ice-breaker activity to introduce the sensitive subject of gender based violence and violence against women. At the end of the activity the facilitator and the participants get a feel of the group’s general thoughts on the subject matter and its relevance for the specific country context.
PARTICIPANTS	8 – 40
TIME	45 minutes: - 15 minutes per question + debrief
FLOW	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The facilitator forms teams of 4-6 persons per team which are randomly put together (or, if it is worth exploring, divided by gender). - The facilitator asks a question to the group and asks them to rate it on the scale from 1 to 10 (1= not relevant/bad, 10= very important/good): <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Do you think there is gender-based violence in your country?” 2. “How open is your culture for a debate on this issue?” 3. “How would you rate the quality of the data regarding this issue in your country?” <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The facilitator asks a volunteer from the group to be the assistant for this activity. - The participants write a number on a piece of paper and the facilitator collects the papers and hands them to the assistant to calculate the group’s average (e.g. a group of ten participants rates question 1. as: 3,6,4,8,2,9,1,4,5,7. The group average is = sum of the ratings/n. of participants, therefore ratings = $49/10 = 4,9$ - The facilitator asks the group to guess the result and to write it down in bold letters on a letter size (A4) paper and then asks all participants to hold up the number they wrote down. - The assistant goes through the group and determines the participant with the number closest to the mean. <p>The participant with the closest number to the mean “wins”. The facilitator hands out a prize to the winner.</p> <p>The facilitator thanks the assistant for doing a great job and gives her/him a prize as well.</p>

The choice of one of these methods or a combination of some of them will depend in part on the objectives of the workshop. For example, a practical workshop intended to impart skills is likely to include more hands-on exercises in small groups or individually. The methods chosen also depend on the audience. For example, a higher- level audience might consider some ‘games’ to be beneath them. In practice, however, one sometimes finds that even high-level audiences appreciate being given some time to have ‘fun’.



Here is an example from the Almaty TOT, how high-level statisticians can appreciate the fun of some of the activities (particularly developing “Why do we need Gender Statistics” slogan) and come up with several creative ideas.

4. Composition of group: The above discussion might suggest that the group of participants in the training will be relatively homogeneous. In practice, this is often not the case. In some cases heterogeneity is unavoidable or even desirable. For example, above we suggest that the group be gender balanced if at all possible. This in itself will tend to bring with it different levels of understanding and perception of gender issues.



+



= gender balanced group

IV. Sustaining Learning through Communities of Practice

To ensure the sustainability of the training program, where possible, trainers and participants should be included into the Community of Practice (CoP).

Box 4. Community of Practice

The term “Community of Practice” is relatively recent, even though the concept it refers to is very old. The concept provides a useful perspective of knowing and learning. A growing number of people and organizations in various sectors and countries are now focusing on communities of practice as a key to improving their performance and connecting people.

Communities of Practice are groups of people who share a common concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do better as they interact regularly. In pursuing their interest in their domain (in our case it is statistics), members engage in joint activities and discussions, help each other, and share information. They build relationships that enable them to learn from each other.

This type of the CoP was created within the UNECE-WBI program on Gender Statistics. During the first Regional Training of Trainers workshop, UNECE and WBI connected the trainers from several countries in a community, and, by engaging them into interactive learning during the workshop, built trust among them. All of the participants of this Regional TOT workshop were invited to become a member of the Community of Practice of trainers on gender statistics, a kind of a network of practitioners actively involved into collection, production, analysis and dissemination

of sex-disaggregated data in their respective countries, statisticians, staff from the Ministries, NGOs, think tanks, and international organizations.

New technologies such as the Internet have extended the reach of our interactions beyond the geographical limitations. To better facilitate day-to-day communication and regular connection, an interactive web-portal was created specially for this CoP, where the members can hold electronic discussions, pose questions to well-known gender experts from international organizations and Task Force Group on Gender Statistics (who are also members of this CoP); post announcements about upcoming events and trainings on related topics in their countries; get recent and reliable data from Gender Statistics databases from the UNECE and the World Bank; read and study any of the modules taught during the Regional Workshop and national courses organized in each of the countries; download multi-media self running presentations; share their training and teaching experiences with peers from other countries or video interviews with influential opinion leaders for advocacy of gender statistics; learn about the advocacy and facilitation techniques; get information about international conferences and Expert Group Meetings on the subject of gender statistics; and simply communicate on a daily basis with colleagues from other countries and the experts. In addition to this interactive web-portal, regular Regional Meetings were held twice a year, and between-countries cross fertilization, exchange of experts/trainers and field trips were conducted on a regular basis.

A website in itself is not a community of practice... Having the same job or the same job title does not make for a community of practice unless members interact and learn together. These interactions were essential to making them a community of practice. Members of a CoP are practitioners who develop a shared repertoire of resources: experiences, stories, tools, ways of addressing recurring problems – in short a shared practice. The practice of a community is dynamic and involves learning on the part of everyone. And this takes time and sustained interaction...

Elements of the CoP include: problem solving, requests for information, seeking experience, reusing assets, coordination and synergy, discussing developments, collective responsibility for managing the knowledge they need.

Training on gender statistics can be very successful and rewarding if an opportunity for sustaining such a community of practice exists. UNECE and WBI established a recognition structure: more active training teams are selected for participation in global conferences and Expert Group Meetings (e.g. UNECE Annual Conference of European Statisticians in Geneva, Switzerland, or Global Conferences on Gender Statistics (New York 2006; Rome, Italy- 2007). Peer recognition, community-based feedback and acknowledgement mechanisms are important to celebrate community participation. Sharing knowledge is a source of power and growing reputation. Incentives should be given to the community members for their active involvement.

This initiative of UNECE and WBI proved to be a great success. Statisticians, trainers from all countries covered by the program became active members of the Community of Practice (enthusiastic trainers who organize and teach themselves national courses in their respective countries.) They belong to one family, one team connected by a common interest: gender sensitization and training on gender statistics. They learn by doing and share the tacit knowledge with each other.

Wikipedia describes tacit knowledge as “know-how” which involves learning and skill but not in a way that can be written down. The knowledge how to ride a bike is an example: one cannot learn to ride a bike by reading a textbook, it takes personal experimentation and practice to gain the necessary skills“.

V. Lessons Learned

Based on the experiences of planning and preparing the Gender Statistics program, we would recommend:

1. Try to get information on the participants’ organization expectations of the meeting. Or, use a Needs Assessment exercise (See Annex 1).

Sample questions to be used:

- What are your expectations for this workshop?
- How can this workshop be beneficial to your current work?
- What areas of gender statistics are of more importance to your NSO at the moment (if any), and what other areas would you like to study?

2. Prepare a detailed draft agenda including:

- the objectives (*e.g. building gender competence; helping statisticians and users to define on how to change the statistics; making them more gender-relevant. The final objective of the training is to change NSSs in order to produce better statistics that enable policy makers to design, monitor and evaluate policies toward a positive impact on the life of women and men, girls and boys, and on sub-groups of these groups*), expected results, format, duration, etc. of each item or session.

However, it might not be necessary to do if the target audience is predominantly senior staff and is reluctant to engage in some of the participatory methods.

3. Build communication within the NSO and with external users and who one regards as ‘users’;

4. Select the right trainer (see criteria above) or (facilitator) that can put the questions to statisticians, to open the mind of statisticians. If you are planning to use an outside neutral facilitator, make sure that you involve him/her as early as possible in the planning process;

5. State the importance of gender balance in the selection of trainers and facilitators, and participants;

6. Check if all the logistical issues are resolved before the event. Visit the meeting location ahead of time in order to ensure adequate space, appropriate seating arrangements, and the necessary for the meeting (such as name tags, flip-charts, paper, pens, markers and handouts).

2. We would also recommend paying attention to **five key aspects of planning and conducting successful participatory events**, such as:

Space: It is important to find an appropriate venue for the event as it usually affects the quality of the learning experience. Attention should also be paid to seating arrangements, light, temperature, equipment, location, etc.

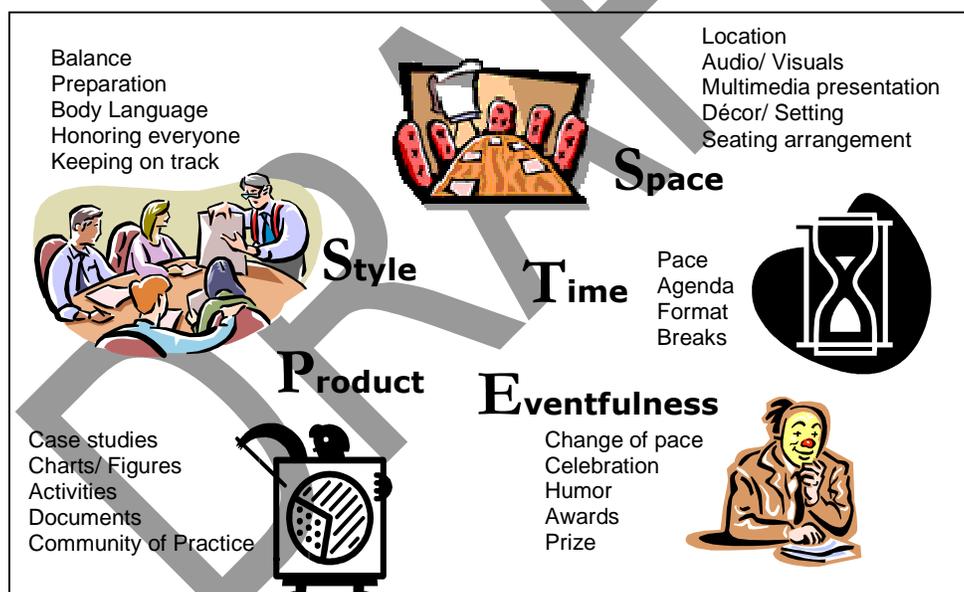
Time: Time management is essential for a successful training. However, be advised that you might need to adjust pace to the agenda items. Be constantly aware of the timeframe and do not allow participants to spend more time on some of the activities.

Eventfulness: Be sure to create an event that emotionally connects, engages and challenges the participants. It is important to break the formality of the event, especially among senior officials. It could be very helpful to use ice-breaking exercises, humor, change in pace, awards, prizes, etc. to put people at ease and sustain their personal involvement.

Product: In the beginning of the training identify the main goal or expected outputs of the training and keep participants focused on it throughout the event.

Style: Try to adapt your personal style according to the type of activity and formality of the event (e.g. mostly senior officials present).

S.T.E.P.S. for Successful Participatory Meetings



Source: Spencer, *Winning through Participation*, 1989.

3. The facilitator for the gender sensitization training is also suggested to follow four basic planning steps designed to determine the **purpose, outputs, operational plan, and monitoring** of the training¹⁰⁰ (See table 5):

Table 5. Gender Statistics Participatory Training Matrix

¹⁰⁰ Source: *Participatory Methods for Situation Analysis and Planning of Project Activities*. Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin. Berlin. 1994.

Gender Statistics Participatory Training Matrix		
Step	Activity Content	Questions
Opening 	The participants are divided into 6 groups: - In each group, participants introduce themselves and explain the meaning of their name. - The facilitator asks each group to report on the most interesting or fun name / personal presentation to all the participants	What is the most interesting or fun name?
1. Purpose (Why are we doing this activity?)	Activity i.2 Needs Assessment	What are your expectations for this workshop? How can this workshop be beneficial to your current work?
2. Output (What do we want to achieve in a certain time?) 	Activity i.3 Role Play The ultimate goal of the training is to overcome reluctance of the NSOs and convince them to organize gender sensitization statistical training for their staff and to gain a better understanding of the different players and their specific objectives and agendas. Participants in four teams argue the case for organizing statistical training for gender sensitization of NSO staff from a different perspective. The four different perspectives are NSO budget officer, NSO Statistician, National committee for women representative, NGO representative. Activity 1.1 Why do we need gender statistics? - Group discussion	What do we want to achieve in a certain time? Who could be helpful in promoting the idea of gender statistics?
3. Operational plan (Who is going to do what, when, and where? What materials, resources are necessary?) 	Activity i. 4. Facilitation Techniques Activity 1.2 Advocacy: Why do we need gender statistics? Slogan Activity 2.1 Making it Happen - Case Studies Activity 3.1 a. Reconciliation between work and family life Activity 3.1 b. Informal Employment Activity 3.2 a. Gender Pay Gap Activity 3.2 b. Gender Pay Gap - Data Analysis Activity 3.4 a -d Gender- Based Violence Activity 3.5 - Entrepreneurship Activity 3.6a-c - Decision making in the economy Activity 3.7 - Minorities Activity 3.8. Gender budgeting -poster design Activity 4.2. - Dissemination and Marketing: principles of good chart design	What worked well and what could have been improved in the trainings that you participated in before?
4. Monitoring	Constantly check if you are focused on the goal and expected outputs of the training and keep participants focused on it throughout the event	Are we following the plan?
Closing	Activity i.5 Hitting the Nerve: Targeting	Please identify barriers

	<p>Participants Activity 2.2 Making It Happen - Building Commitment and Partnerships Activity 4.1 Fix the article</p>	<p>and challenges in mainstreaming gender in your organizations. How to overcome these barriers?</p>
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Conclusion

To summarize:

Designing training programs for participatory learning on gender statistics is not a simple matter. These training activities do not involve old-style, lecture based transfers of information from trainer to learner. Participatory training requires a participatory training context and involves the beneficiaries from the early stages of planning throughout the implementation and completion of the training. Planners who design training programs should be prepared to ask and answer questions about the nature and expected outcomes of their initiatives. They must be prepared to engage in consultations with diverse groups of stakeholders and be ready to respond to the needs and views of those stakeholders. Most importantly, planners must work hard to identify and explore on a day-to-day basis relevant communication activities, systems, tools and mechanisms. It is within these communication activities that the planner of training programs on gender statistics has the empowering opportunity to become a learner and an active member of the Community of Practice.

The experience of the UNECE-WBI program appears to be very effective in organizing gender sensitization training. It allowed the participants to be very much involved in the whole process, thus, practically, owing their respective national program and belonging to the Regional Community of Practice at the same time. Establishment of the Community of Practice ensures long-term engagement and sustainable capacity in the National Statistical Offices. Practitioners established a special connection with each other as they share actual experiences. They understand each other's stories, difficulties and insights. This allows them to learn from each other and build on each other's expertise.

It is imperative to involve statisticians and trainers into the full cycle of program's planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. It is important that they feel ownership of the program activities and participate in their design; reflect program's positive results into their work; and exchange knowledge with their peers. Unless the direct beneficiaries are engaged into this learning cycle, there will be no true learning.

Annex 1. Needs Assessment Exercise

FACILITATION GUIDELINES: DEVELOPING GENDER STATISTICS¹⁰¹

Activity i.2

Needs Assessment

OBJECTIVE	To ascertain the expectation of the participants of the training
PARTICIPANTS	8 – 40 – in teams of 5-6 participants
TIME	60 minutes: - 5 minutes facilitator creates and brief's 6 teams - 20 minutes group work - 20 minutes representative team discussion - 15 minutes group discussion and summary
ROOM SET-UP	- Tables with 5-6 chairs/table.
SUPPLIES	One flipchart per team, alternatively poster-size papers that can be attached to a wall, calculator for each team
PREPARATION	Nil by participants. Presenter to make copies of the handouts to each team

FLOW

- The facilitator divides participants into 4 or 5 groups.
- The facilitator asks each group to come up with ideas on their “topic” and write them on a flip chart
- Each group presents their ideas in a short presentation
- The flip charts serve as the guide line for the course. (The facilitator needs to make sure he/she covers all expectations.)

- General questions for **national workshops**:

- “What are your expectations for this workshop?”
- “What are your previous experiences in training?”
- “Irresolvable issues: What will this training not able to address?”
- “How can this workshop be beneficial to your current work?”

¹⁰¹ Materials used for facilitation of the Gender Statistics program participatory activities.

- Questions for **ToT**:

“What are your expectations for this workshop?”

“How can this workshop help you to become a better trainer?”

“What are the content areas in which you need more support?
(obstacles and challenges)”

“What are your previous experiences in training and as a trainer?”

DRAFT