

Using Gender-Sensitive Indicators

A Reference Manual for Governments and Other Stakeholders

Tony Beck



Commonwealth Secretariat

Gender Management System Series

Gender Management System Handbook
Using Gender-Sensitive Indicators: A Reference Manual for Governments and Other Stakeholders
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Preface

In 1996, Commonwealth Ministers Responsible for Women's Affairs mandated the Commonwealth Secretariat to develop the concept of the Gender Management System (GMS), a comprehensive network of structures, mechanisms and processes for bringing a gender perspective to bear in the mainstream of all government policies, programmes and projects. The success of the GMS depends upon a broad-based partnership in society in which government consults and acts co-operatively with the other key stakeholders, who include civil society and the private sector. The establishment and strengthening of gender management systems and of national women's machineries was the first of 15 government action points identified in the 1995 Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development.

This reference manual has been produced to assist member governments in meeting their commitment to implementing the Plan of Action. It is hoped that it will be used by development policy-makers, planners, field staff and others, in conjunction with other publications relating to the particular national context.

The manual is intended to assist readers in using a GMS to mainstream gender in national governments. It is part of the Gender Management System Series, which provides tools and sector-specific guidelines for gender mainstreaming. This manual is intended to be used in combination with the other documents in the series, particularly the *Gender Management System Handbook*, which presents the conceptual and methodological framework of the GMS. This manual is also available in an abridged form under the title *A Quick Guide to Using Gender-Sensitive Indicators*.

The development of the GMS Series has been a collaborative effort between the Commonwealth Secretariat's Gender and Youth Affairs Division and many individuals and groups. Their contributions to the thinking behind the GMS are gratefully acknowledged. In particular, I would like to thank the following: all those member governments who supported the development of the GMS and encouraged us to move the project forward; participants at the first GMS meeting in Britain in February 1997 and at the GMS Workshop in Malta in April 1998, who provided invaluable conceptual input and feedback; and the Steering Committee on the Plan of Action (SCOPA). I am also most grateful to: the consultants who worked on the manual, including Tony Beck, University of British Columbia, Canada, who wrote the text, and Daniel Woolford, Consultant Editor of the GMS Series, who revised and edited it for publication; and the staff of the Gender Affairs Department, Gender and Youth Affairs Division, Commonwealth Secretariat, particularly Ms Eleni Stamiris, former Director of the Division, who took the lead in formulating the GMS concept and mobilising the various stakeholders in its development, Dr Judith May-Parker who provided substantive editorial input, and Dr Rawwida Baksh-Soodeen, Project Co-ordinator of the GMS Series, who guided the project through to publication.

We hope that this resource series will be of genuine use to you in your efforts to mainstream gender.

Nancy Spence
Director
Gender and Youth Affairs Division
Commonwealth Secretariat

1

Introduction and Overview

What Are Gender-Sensitive Indicators and Why Are They Useful?

In efforts to advance equality and equity between women and men, there is a need to generate accurate and relevant data on the status of women, men and gender relations. This data helps make gender biases more visible and facilitates effective policy-making to bring about greater gender equality and equity.

The need for sex-disaggregated data has been stressed in numerous international conventions and declarations, including the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the 1985 Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women, the 1993 Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, the 1995 Platform for Action of the Fourth UN World Conference on Women in Beijing, and the 1995 Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development.

Statistics and indicators

An indicator is an item of data that summarises a large amount of information in a single figure, in such a way as to give an indication of change over time, and in comparison to a norm. Indicators differ from statistics in that, rather than merely presenting facts, indicators involve comparison to a norm in their interpretation.

A gender-sensitive indicator can be defined as an indicator that captures gender-related changes in society over time. Thus, whereas a gender statistic provides factual information about the status of women, a gender-sensitive indicator provides “direct evidence of the status of women, relative to some agreed normative standard or explicit reference group” (Johnson, 1985).

An example of a gender statistic would be: “60% of women in country X are literate, as opposed to 30% five years ago”. An example of a gender-sensitive indicator would be: “60% of women in country X are literate, as compared to 82% of men, and compared to 30% and 52% five years ago”. The norm or reference group in this example is men in the same country, but in other cases might be other groups of women.

National-level gender-sensitive indicators are among the key means by which planners and policy-makers measure gender inequality. They also provide information on the basis of which gender specialists advocate for policies likely to lead to greater gender equality. Gender-sensitive indicators support the gender and development approach which focuses on changing the gendered nature of society through the promotion of gender equity, rather than on women in isolation, which was the focus of the women in development model and is reflected in an emphasis on gender statistics.

Aim and Scope of this Manual

This reference manual is designed to assist the user in the selection, use and dissemination of gender-sensitive indicators at the national level. As a general introduction to an often complex subject, it aims to strike a balance between discussion of theoretical concepts and practical examples. References are provided where relevant.

This manual is designed to be of particular use to the following:

- ◆ Commonwealth governments that are establishing and using a Gender Management System, in line with the 1995 Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development;
- ◆ governments working to develop a national database on gender-sensitive indicators; and
- ◆ NGOs, women's groups, professional associations, the academic community and others interested in promoting gender equality and equity.

Gathering and Classifying Indicators

Classes of indicators

The gender-sensitive indicators discussed in this manual are classified into ten groups:

- 1 Population composition and change
- 2 Human settlements and geographical distribution
- 3 Households and families, marital status, fertility
- 4 Learning in formal and non-formal education
- 5 Health, health services, nutrition
- 6 Economic activity and labour force participation
- 7 Access to land, equipment and credit
- 8 Legal rights and political power
- 9 Violence against women
- 10 Macroeconomic policy and gender

This classification system has been adopted from Commonwealth government priorities, UN recommendations, and priority areas determined in the Beijing Platform for Action. Section 3 of this manual provides a detailed examination of specific indicators and related questions in each of these ten categories.

Sources of indicators

The three main data systems that produce indicators, some of which are gender-sensitive, are census surveys, the System of National Accounts, and sample surveys of the population. Censuses and similar surveys usually cover indicator groups 1-6. Indicators in groups 7-10 come from other sources, such as CEDAW and special surveys such as time use studies, and a revised System of National Accounts. All these sources are discussed in Section 2 of this manual.

Interpreting Indicators

Indicators, like any other methodological tool, have their limitations. Recognising these limitations is necessary for understanding what can and cannot be achieved by using them.

The major limitation of gender-sensitive indicators is that they do not provide information on wider social patterns: they will usually tell the analyst little about why gender relations have been shaped in a particular way and how these relations can be

changed. They point to key questions rather than provide answers. Indicator systems should therefore be complemented by gender analysis, which involves examining, often at a micro-level, the social relations between women and men, and the structural features of society which reinforce gender inequality and inequity.

Another limitation concerns the accuracy of data. Most indicator systems are developed from national censuses. However, much of the data in national censuses is subject to various problems, including infrequent collection, sex bias, poor enumeration, and imprecise definition of key terms. In addition, because of differences in definitions of terminology between nations, indicators are often not comparable internationally. Census data should therefore be considered a pointer towards a certain trend rather than definitive evidence of that trend.

A key element in the use of indicators is to interpret correctly the normative element that is inherent in their construction. The same indicator may be interpreted differently in different settings. For example, a falling birth rate may be considered a positive trend in a densely populated country, but a negative trend in a sparsely populated country.

Care must therefore be taken in defining the norm or benchmark implicit in any indicator and against which change is measured. For example, in examining the status of women, is the norm the situation of men in a particular country, or is it women in other countries? Care must also be taken to ensure that when using indicators to compare gender equity across countries, the indicators have been collected using similar definitions of, for example, economic activity or literacy.

A further problem can be a lack of participation and cross-cultural dimensions. Recommendations for indicator systems and data sets are often developed by specialists, with limited participation from governments, NGOs or the general population. Indicators may therefore reflect the interests of a few experts rather than a general consensus; for this reason, as widespread participation in the development of indicators as is feasible should be encouraged (see Sections 2 and 5).

Given these problems, caution should be exercised when using and interpreting indicators, especially when drawing cross-country conclusions.

2

Developing a National-Level Database of Gender-Sensitive Indicators

This section discusses the main sources for a national-level data base on the status of women and gender equality, and suggests ways of improving these sources so as to increase their gender sensitivity. It also provides information on training and methodological advice on gathering appropriate indicators.

Data Sources

There are three main data systems that produce indicators, which, if collected and interpreted correctly, can support national-level planning towards gender equality and equity. These are:

- ◆ census surveys;
- ◆ the System of National Accounts; and
- ◆ sample surveys of the population.

At present, census surveys and sample surveys of the population collect sex-disaggregated data, although often not in a consistent fashion. Recent changes to guidelines for the System of National Accounts means that this could be a potential future source for gender-sensitive indicators. No single source can provide all of the data needed by different countries and different users. Censuses, household surveys and registration and administrative data systems should be used to complement each other wherever possible.

Over the last ten years, serious efforts have been made to enhance the gender-sensitivity of these data systems. However, in some cases improvements to current practices may be necessary to ensure that they are fully engendered.

Censuses and labour force surveys¹

Censuses are the mainstay of the data gathering system and as such offer considerable opportunities for gathering gender-sensitive data. However, a UN review of the census and labour force survey practices of a number of developing countries, in terms of concepts and definitions selected, uncovered certain problems.

The review (UN, 1993), which covered the period 1970 to 1990, focused on gender differentials and included the Commonwealth countries of Botswana, Ghana, India, Jamaica, Lesotho, Malaysia, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Trinidad and Tobago, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, as well as St Helena and Hong Kong. The findings were as follows:

- ◆ In a number of censuses, interviewers are not sufficiently trained to identify women who are primarily housewives but who nevertheless work in activities related to the production of goods and services. The principle that participation in any economic activity should be counted, irrespective of any other activity, is often not applied.

- ◆ The concept of ‘usually active population’ is unclear and not effectively articulated in national censuses. This concept is important for the inclusion of women’s work which may be seasonal and only captured through use of a longer reference period.
- ◆ The ways in which questions about work are asked can significantly affect census results. Words such as ‘employment’, ‘job’, ‘work’ or ‘main activity’ can mean different things to different people. For example, a national sample survey in Kenya in 1974 revealed that activity rates for married women ages 20 to 49 varied from about 20 per cent to about 90 per cent depending on whether the key word in the questionnaire was ‘job’ or ‘work’. A ‘job’ was regarded as a paid wage or salary employment, whereas ‘work’ was more broadly interpreted to include virtually all time-consuming activities required for the family’s survival (see also the India case study in Section 5).

Over the last ten years extensive work has been done on making censuses and labour surveys more gender-sensitive, particularly in the area of women’s paid and unpaid work, which is a key area where governments can improve their performance. Questions in censuses and labour force surveys should be developed so that women’s contributions are included wherever possible. Questions regarding economic activity should be carefully phrased and follow UN and ILO recommendations. Questions related to women’s work should be carefully framed so as to include both paid and unpaid work. Extensive education for enumerators and the general population as to the meaning of the term ‘work’ may be necessary before women’s contributions can be fully captured.

These are some recommendations for improving census questions on economic activity so as to reduce gender bias (UN, 1993: 33-38²; the 1991 Indian census; and the India case study in Section 5):

- ◆ The experience with asking questions on women’s labour force participation illustrates the need for training and gender sensitisation of interviewers. Interviewers should receive consistent training, i.e., all trainers should transmit the same instructions to their trainees. Particular attention should be paid to the training of interviewers in asking the questions, since the possibility of introducing response and non-response biases is very strong when concepts are difficult to understand and/or interpret. For example, male interviewers may have difficulty with the concept that many of the activities carried out by women constitute work.
- ◆ Surveys need to be carried out in a participatory fashion or at least have a participatory element.
- ◆ The use is recommended of a building block approach where feasible, whereby a series of questions are asked so as to exclude those persons who do not qualify for inclusion in the particular topic, leaving those who, by definition, are entitled to be included.
- ◆ Language in the census should be non-sexist. For example, questions in the census should focus on additional questions to ‘main activity’ in societies where women’s place is considered to be in the home.
- ◆ Instruction manuals should be developed so as to adequately inform the interviewer which concepts should be applied.
- ◆ The seasonal patterns of women’s work should be taken into account.

Anker *et al* (1988) provide the following additional guidelines:

- ◆ Male interviewers may have particular problems interviewing women. In order to establish the nature of women’s participation, more women interviewers should be employed.
- ◆ Typical general key word questions, as used in censuses and labour force surveys around the world were found to be inadequate. More detailed key work questions

or preferably activity schedules should be used, and where this is not feasible in censuses (because of limitations on numbers of words), separate labour force surveys should be carried out.

- ◆ The collection of information on multiple labour force activities should be encouraged. Unless such data are collected, it is likely that the true extent of female labour force activity in rural areas of developing countries will continue to be grossly under-reported.
- ◆ Additional methodological work on the collection of time-use data should be encouraged.

In producing gender-sensitive indicators and using them for policy purposes, two other priority areas are women's work in agriculture and women's work in the informal sector. In both these areas there is serious under-reporting in official statistics of women's contributions. It is beyond the scope of this manual to discuss these two key areas in detail, but further information can be found in UN (1995a), UN (1993), UN (1990b) and Dixon-Mueller (1987). See also the Gender Management System publication *Gender Mainstreaming in Agriculture and Rural Development: A Reference Manual for Governments and Other Stakeholders*.

Household surveys

Due to the limits to the number of questions in censuses, their focus on a few topics, the ten-year time gap between many censuses and their formal mode, censuses and other national-level surveys usually provide very little information about household dynamics or gender relations. Censuses and other national level surveys must therefore be complemented by micro-level household surveys if a comprehensive picture relating to gender equality is to be built up.

Household surveys are surveys of a sample of the population (usually more than 2,000 households) focusing on a particular subject or subjects and with the household as the focus of investigation. They can be carried out at frequent intervals, and in some cases are carried out quarterly. The size of these surveys makes them useful instruments for the generation of gender-sensitive indicators. In developing national level data sets, household surveys should focus specifically on areas where there are serious gaps in data. In particular, they should examine gender roles, household dynamics and decision making, control of and access to economic and other resources, and violence against women.

The following guidelines should be followed to ensure the successful implementation of a gender-sensitive household survey (UN, 1988a):

- ◆ There should be an existing household survey capability of some sort and hence a team with some practical experience of both field work and subsequent analysis.
- ◆ One or more persons with professional capacity and a personal interest in innovations to improve data on women should be involved.
- ◆ The possibility should be explored of carrying out small-scale pre-trial interviews to adapt suggestions to local conditions. Even 200 interviews, 50 each in an urban and three rural areas, could be sufficient.
- ◆ A final sample of at least 2,000 households (or possibly 1,500 in a very homogeneous society) is recommended.
- ◆ The planning committee should have a significant representation of women members representing different ethnic, class/caste and age groups (including some with rural backgrounds) and strong participation by persons who can be expected to use the data.
- ◆ There should be a possibility of providing training to the interviewers and of developing a core of female interviewers.

As well as those areas noted above, there are four other areas where survey data is likely to impact significantly on policy-making which will improve women's lives (UN, 1988a):

- ◆ female resources, for example education;
- ◆ female economic activity;
- ◆ female poverty; and
- ◆ female-headed households.

Time-use studies

Time-use studies can be included as part of a larger household survey or carried out as a separate study. They are a type of micro- or meso-level survey that is becoming increasingly useful in providing gender-sensitive indicators related to women's and men's contributions. Two main, interrelated sets of concerns are usually investigated in these studies (UN, 1990b). The first covers the utilisation of human resources in the household and the second, improvement in the measurement of employment, unemployment and underemployment. There are four main types of time-use survey, all of which have their strengths and limitations (UN, 1988):

- ◆ observation;
- ◆ random instant measurement (a schedule of random visits which record what household members were doing just before the arrival of the investigator);
- ◆ diaries; and
- ◆ recall (usually based on a recall period of 24 hours).

Extensive research was undertaken for the 1995 *Human Development Report* on the amount of time women and men spend on market and non-market activities. Time-use studies were collected for 14 industrial countries, 9 developing countries and 8 countries in Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States. This and much other similar research points to the disproportionate load women bear in almost all societies.

As with any other approach, time-use studies are limited methodologically in various ways:

- ◆ "Surveys that examine only the allocation of time by women and men *during workdays* tend to underestimate the contribution of women to economic activity because their work continues unabated during 'days off'. The same is true with surveys of economic activities *during the day*, since a significant portion of women's work occurs at night" (UNDP, 1995: 91).
- ◆ "In developing countries, people do not think of their activities in terms of clock time, nor can they be expected to keep diaries listing their daily activities ... Intensive observation and interview methods require well-trained and well-supervised interviewers and a great amount of interview time" (UN, 1990b: 57).
- ◆ There may be lack of participation in survey design by those being studied.

Despite these problems, time-use studies are particularly valuable in highlighting women's work and generating gender-sensitive indicators that can be used as part of a national database. They can also be useful in the generation of satellite accounts on unpaid work.

System of National Accounts and unpaid work

The United Nations System of National Accounts (SNA) is used to measure production and growth in most countries, and since 1945 the SNA has been one of the central tools used for policy-making related to the working of a country's economic system. Implementing changes to the SNA is a key area where governments can improve the way in which gender-disaggregated data is collected and used.

Measures such as the SNA and GDP, with their concentration on measuring paid employment, have been strongly criticised for having a gender bias, and in particular for ignoring women's overall contribution to the economy and to society as a whole.

Governments are advised to experiment with the formation of satellite accounts to the System of National Accounts, focusing initially on national time-use studies that measure the extent of unpaid work in the country. Methodologies for these national time-use studies should ideally be harmonised with international norms, where they exist. More information on satellite accounts on unpaid work is provided in Section 3.

CEDAW

States parties to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) are required to submit reports every four years on all articles of CEDAW. Reporting on CEDAW offers governments an excellent opportunity to synthesise available gender-related data, to measure advancements in the status of women, and to identify and fill data gaps. While census and other national level surveys deal mainly with demography, work, health, and education, CEDAW offers governments the opportunity to synthesise and produce gender-sensitive indicators on empowerment, violence against women, cultural issues and women's rights.

Methodological Advice

The following is a checklist of methodological points to bear in mind when using gender-sensitive indicators at the national level. An indicator or indicator system need not conform to all of the following, but the closer the conformity the more likely it is that it will be useful.

- ◆ **Comparison to a norm:** Use of gender-sensitive indicators should involve comparison to a norm, for example the situation of men in the same country or the situation of women in another country. In this way the indicator can focus on questions of gender equality and equity rather than only on the status of women.
- ◆ **Disaggregation:** Data should be disaggregated by sex. Wherever possible, national level indicators should also:
 - be disaggregated by age;
 - be disaggregated by socioeconomic grouping;
 - be disaggregated by national and/or regional origin;
 - note the time period;
 - note geographical coverage; and
 - note data sources.

This kind of information will help to inform a broader analysis of the social forces within a society which have brought about the particular status of women and men in that society.

- ◆ **Ease of access:** Data should be easy to use and understand. Indicators should be phrased in easily understandable language, and should be developed at a level relevant to the institutional capabilities of the country concerned.
- ◆ **Scope of availability:** Indicators should be available for the whole country.
- ◆ **Reliability:** Data should be relatively reliable. No data is absolutely reliable but reliability checks should be carried out. For example, findings from censuses should be compared to findings from micro-level studies for accuracy.
- ◆ **Measurability:** Indicators must be about something measurable. Concepts such as 'women's empowerment' or 'gender equity' may be difficult to define and measure. In this case proxy indicators, for example relating to greater choice for women in accessing health care or education, may have to stand as proxies for the less precise concepts.

- ◆ **Time-frames:** Gender-sensitive indicators should be reliable enough to use as a time series. The time span which the indicator covers should be clearly specified.
- ◆ **International comparability:** Gender-sensitive indicators should be collected using internationally accepted definitions. While these definitions are sometimes imprecise, they are usually the best terms available and allow for international comparison.
- ◆ **Measuring impact:** The indicator should, where feasible, measure the outcome or impact of a situation rather than the input. For example, women's literacy is often a better measure of women's educational status than female enrolment rates because literacy measures the impact of enrolment rates. Similarly, female mortality rates are a better measure of women's health status than access to health facilities.
- ◆ **Participation:** Indicators should be used and developed in as participatory a process as possible. This will involve setting up inter-departmental government committees but also holding focus group meetings with the public and eliciting public opinion from women and men wherever possible (see below).

Training for the Production of Gender-Sensitive Databases

Training related to gender-sensitive indicators is a key area for governments to pursue. This training needs to occur in two areas:

- ◆ training of statisticians, economists and others within the national level census and survey systems; and
- ◆ training of enumerators and researchers carrying out surveys at the local level.

In the first area, Ghana provides a useful example of advances that can be made:

“The Statistical Service recognises that the ability to produce reliable, timely and gender-sensitive statistics depends, to a large extent, on the availability of highly trained and experienced personnel ... Side by side with staff recruitment, a comprehensive staff training programme, involving regular in-service training, training in local institutions of higher education and external training, has been introduced for both graduate and non-graduate staff to upgrade their skills. The training programme, which covers a wide range of subjects and procedures, is geared towards strengthening the human resource capability for collection, processing, analysis and dissemination of statistical information.”

Boateng, 1994: 103

In the second area, the training of interviewers, Anker (1994: 71) provides two examples where the training of enumerators led to a significant increase in coverage of women's labour force activity in large-scale surveys. The first of these examples comes from Argentina and Paraguay, where labour force information was collected for over 1,000 women and men using two different interviewer training sessions, and where interviewer training (four sessions over two days) was found to have an important effect on the reporting of female labour force activity. The second example comes from Egypt, where training organised by the Egyptian statistical office provided significantly improved information on women's labour force activity.

Popular Participation in Indicator Collection and Use

Most work on gender-sensitive indicators continues to be non-participatory, in the sense that women in developing countries, and particularly poor and marginalised women, are not included in the process whereby knowledge is generated and translated into policy. Given the importance of finding out more about the status of women and gender equity, a key goal for governments should be to facilitate popular participation in the generation of gender-related information.

One means of achieving this goal is through the use of qualitative or phenomenological indicators. These indicators are not well understood but are essentially people's perceptions and views on a given subject. Two ways of distinguishing between quantitative and qualitative indicators are by the source of information and the way in which this information is interpreted and used. Quantitative indicators focus on areas that are easy to quantify, such as wage rates or education levels, usually drawn from censuses or administrative records. Because of their focus on formal surveys they are usually interpreted using statistical methods. Qualitative indicators are usually obtained from participant observation, attitude surveys or anthropological field work, i.e., less formal surveys, and are often analysed in a descriptive fashion (CIDA, 1996b). These indicators are also developed during gender analysis.

If used correctly, qualitative indicators can be an important means of facilitating popular participation in indicator use, because many surveys involving qualitative indicators are participatory in nature. Qualitative and quantitative indicators should complement each other and ensure the inclusion of different perspectives on a topic. In addition, a focus on qualitative indicators can help ensure that poor and marginalised women's views, which are often missed in formal surveys, can be taken into account. However, one danger to be avoided is equating qualitative indicators with women; if this occurs, there may be a tendency to continue to consider such indicators as part of the female terrain and therefore as subjective, given past cultural constructs of women as 'subjective' and men as 'objective'.

Recently, there have been remarkable developments in the use of participatory qualitative methods and indicators, so much so that these indicators are now being generated on a large scale for planning and policy purposes (Chambers, 1994). A good example are the participatory poverty assessments (PPAs) undertaken by the World Bank in 36 countries. The PPA undertaken in Kenya set out the following as key questions: "What are the perspectives of the poor on poverty? What are their indicators of poverty? ... Are female-headed households poorer? If so why? How do poor people cope with poverty?" (Narayan and Nyamwaya, 1996: 1) PPAs provide extensive information on poor people's views using large samples of interviewees, and provide data which is often missing in quantitative surveys. The challenge for researchers working with indicators is how to use quantitative and qualitative indicators together, either by combining or comparing their findings. A further challenge is to remember that indicators only provide a limited amount of information, and qualitative analysis such as gender analysis is also needed to explain the trends to which indicators point.

Notes

- 1 This section draws on CIDA (1996a, 1996b); World Bank (1994); Westerndorff and Ghai (1993); and various UN documents.
- 2 This UN document also provides recommendations relating to labour force and other surveys.

3

Gathering and Using Gender-Sensitive Indicators

This section examines a number of key areas for gender-sensitive indicators at the national level:

- 1 Population composition and change
- 2 Human settlements and geographical distribution
- 3 Households and families, marital status, fertility
- 4 Learning in formal and non-formal education
- 5 Health, health services, nutrition
- 6 Economic activity and labour force participation
- 7 Access to land, equipment and credit
- 8 Legal rights and political power
- 9 Violence against women
- 10 Macroeconomic policy and gender

These areas cover some of the most important indicators to be collected at the national level. They have been identified as international priorities in UN recommendations (UN 1995a; 1990; 1989; UNDP, 1995) and the Beijing Platform for Action (1995). The material in this section also draws from CIDA (1996a) and Commonwealth Secretariat (1996). UN (1990a) also provides listings of indicators under each of these classifications. These listings are reproduced in the Appendix. The following tables are indicative or a checklist, in that they provide broad guidelines within which specific indicators should be generated. The tables should be adapted for use by governments depending on the local context.

In addition to suggesting indicators, the tables also provide related indicator questions which deal with broader socio-economic questions related to the topic and to gender relations at the national level. The indicators noted in the first column of the tables are basic indicators which should be collected routinely in order to develop a basic database on questions of gender equity. The indicator questions complement the indicators by asking the kinds of questions that are usually addressed during gender analysis. Dealing with broader socioeconomic areas, these indicator questions ask why the situation that the indicator describes has come into being, what it tells us about gender relations, and how this situation can be changed. The indicators and indicator questions should therefore be read together, with the indicator questions being questions that need to be answered in the generation and analysis of gender-sensitive indicators.

Population Composition and Change¹

Indicators of population composition and change are important in determining the process of social and economic development in a country and hence for the planning of development policies. All such data should be collected on a sex-disaggregated basis. Collection and use of population composition indicators can assist with the prediction of the potential demand for and use of social and

other services in a gendered fashion. For example, a greater percentage of women under 15 in one region may identify the need for particular kinds of services relevant to younger women.

Population composition and change data is usually available from the national census and special studies.

Table 1 **Population Composition and Change**

Gender-Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1 Size of the population by sex, total and % under 15	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ What is the sex ratio in the country? Is there a reverse sex ratio? Does this vary by region? ◆ If there is a reverse sex ratio, what are the reasons for this? What are the means of changing this situation and how can women and men be involved in these changes? ◆ Does international and internal migration vary by sex? If this is the case, what are the reasons for this variation? ◆ Do migration patterns at regional and national levels adversely affect women? If this is the case, how can this situation change and what input can women and men make to these changes?
2 Sex ratio (number of females to males)	
3 Births and deaths by sex (numbers and rates per 1,000), annually	
4 Net international migration rates by sex	
5 Net internal migration rates by sex	

Two of the most important sets of indicators under this heading relate to the sex ratio and migration. The 'normal' sex ratio is approximately 1:1, or one woman to one man. However, economists using population composition data from national censuses have shown that in some parts of Asia the sex ratio is strongly biased against women (Dreze and Sen, 1989). The sex ratio is therefore a useful diagnostic indicator which can point to gender biases in a given country, and the reasons for these biases can be explored using gender analysis. The sex ratio can also be used as a measure of the movement of women towards full equality and equity. If population composition is collected by socio-economic group, then estimates can be made of the differential position of women by such a grouping. However, data is not always available by sex to enable the measurement of the sex ratio.

Migration is important in terms of gender because of the impact that both international and internal migration can have on the household, and because of opportunities that migration can offer to women. This impact is felt both when men migrate and women continue to work in the household, and when women themselves choose to migrate. Migrant women in particular are, however, often a disadvantaged group as they usually have little education or socially valued job skills, and have to adjust to a new environment.

Human Settlements and Geographical Distribution

Recently there have been serious concerns expressed about the conditions in which people, and particularly women, are living. The generation of socioeconomic and

demographic indicators by geographical area can be used to differentiate between living conditions in specified areas and to develop policies for reducing disparities. Indicators of housing conditions and facilities available to households reveal where poor housing conditions, and insufficient water and energy supplies, impact most heavily on women as the main providers of reproductive labour in many countries.

Table 2 Human Settlements and Geographical Distribution

Gender-Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1 Number, % distribution and density of population by sex, geographical area and urban/rural	♦ Is there a pattern of concentration of women and men in particular regions or in urban or rural areas as a result of migration or other factors? If so, does this impact negatively on women? Is there discrimination against rural women and if so, what policies can be implemented to reverse this situation?
2 Degree of discrimination against rural women: Rural and urban mortality rates, life expectancy and nutritional status	♦ Do the characteristics of housing differ by male- and female-headed household? Are living conditions worse for female-headed households, and by what degree? How can policy improve this situation?
3 Stock and characteristics of housing (materials used in construction of outer walls, floors and roofs; number of rooms; kitchen and bathroom facilities; availability of water and bathroom facilities), by region and by female- and male-headed households	♦ Are there constitutional, legal or administrative impediments to women's access to and ownership of land and housing?
4 Tenure of household, by region and by female- and male-headed households	♦ Is there gender bias between different kinds of households concerning energy consumption? If so, how does this affect women? How can policy improve the situation?
5 Domestic household energy consumption by region and by female- and male-headed households	♦ Are women spending more time on household-related activities than men? If so, what are the implications for gender relations within the household and how can these relations be made more equal by policy intervention?
6 Time-use in connection with household activities (collection of water, fuel, food), by region and by female- and male-headed households	

It should be noted that human settlements and geographical distribution indicators are among the indicators least amenable to differentiation by sex. One means of making these indicators more gender-sensitive is to disaggregate data by female and male head of household in order to establish if female-headed households are discriminated against in terms of housing conditions and access to facilities. If the definition of the term 'female-headed households' by governments is internationally comparable, then comparison could be made across countries to provide an international picture of the relative status of female-headed households.

One key element of CEDAW (see Section 2) is to report on discrimination against rural women, and collecting data on geographical distribution will enable such reporting. Much of the information on human settlements and geographical distribution is available in population censuses and from time-use surveys.

Households and Families, Marital Status, Fertility

The position of women within the household or family is often a key element in relation to gender inequality and to women's participation in society as a whole. Defining the household or family in such a way as to allow for the variety of living arrangements is complex, but flexible definitions of household and family will facilitate a greater understanding of women's role as well as the distribution of intra-household resources. A wider definition of the household which recognises women's role and does not presume that the household is a single co-operative unit has been a key lobbying point for women's organisations over the last decade (Nelson, 1996). It is particularly important to define the concept of 'household head' in a fashion which recognises the role played by many women as main household provider.

The main sources of data in this area are censuses and demographic surveys.

Table 3 **Households and Families, Marital Status, Fertility**

Gender-Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1 Number and % distribution of households	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ How is household head defined? Is the definition broad enough to include women's role within the household? ◆ What is the significance of the extent of male/female heads of household? Are more female-headed households poor, and if so, what are the reasons for this? ◆ Do women and men living in the same household as a married couple or otherwise have the same rights and responsibilities? ◆ Is divorce available to men and women on the same grounds? ◆ How are household decisions made concerning the number and spacing of children?
2 % distribution of population in households by size	
3 % of households headed by women/men	
4 % of poor households headed by women/men	
5 Crude birth rate, per 1,000 women in specified age group ²	

Learning in Formal and Non-Formal Education

Education indicators are among the most important for measuring the status of women and gender equity, and one of the better reported areas, mainly in censuses and administrative records. Educational indicators can also be found in UNESCO's *Statistical Yearbooks*. Several international studies have also focused recently on the key role education of the girl child and women can play in improving women's status (World Bank, 1995b).

With regard to education indicators, two main sectors have been distinguished, and when developing a national level database this typology can be used. The first sector relates to indicators of educational characteristics of the population, including literacy, educational attainment, access to education and school attendance. The second relates to indicators of the educational system, including enrolment, retention, educational resources and curricula.

Even in areas where data collection is better developed there are often differing views as to which indicators best reflect gender inequity. Developing education indicators also shows that the use of gender-sensitive indicators involves trade-offs of various kinds, for example between accuracy of data and relevance to women. Enrolment

rates, which, along with literacy, are among the education indicators most commonly used to measure the status of women, are a good example of this.³

The standard enrolment indicator, *the number of children enrolled in primary or secondary school as a percentage of total number of children in the relevant age group for that level*, otherwise known as ‘gross enrolment’, is problematic because it assumes an orderly and simple relationship between age group and level of education. “In many countries, the figures for primary school enrolment in fact reach more than 100 per cent, because many children of secondary school age attend primary school” (Anderson, 1991: 56). Anderson suggests instead as an indicator *net enrolment ratios showing the total number of children enrolled in a schooling level who belong to the relevant age group*, expressed as a percentage of the total number of children in that age group, otherwise known as ‘net enrolment’. Anderson also suggests that the net enrolment ratio for primary schools is the most suitable educational indicator, as secondary school net enrolment ratios may reflect whether or not a country has a compulsory stage of secondary education (1991: 56).

Table 4 Education

Gender-Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1 Numbers and percentages of literate persons, by sex and age	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Is there equal access to education in practice? If not, which factors cause differential access to education by women and men? If there is discrimination, how can this be changed and how can women and men take part in this process of change? ◆ What uses do women and men make of their education? Does the social context allow women to make full use of their education? ◆ Do women and men enrol in university subjects according to gender stereotypes? Can the government intervene to challenge such gender stereotyping? ◆ Are women and men stereotyped in school curricula? How can these curricula be changed to eliminate gender stereotyping and present in a positive light women, men and generations? ◆ Have legislative or other measures been taken to ensure equal access to education for women and men?
2 Years of schooling completed, by level and sex	
3 Access to specialised training programmes (vocational, technical and professional) at the secondary level and above, by sex	
4 % of women/men graduating in the fields of law/sciences/medicine	
5 Gross primary and secondary school enrolment ratio for girls/boys	
6 Enrolment ratios of women and men in tertiary education and university	
7 Female/male dropout rates at primary, secondary and tertiary levels	
8 % of female/male teachers at primary, secondary and tertiary levels	
9 % of female/male school principals and university heads of departments	

One problem with net enrolment ratios is that data for them may be less readily accessible than for gross enrolment rates. In addition:

“Although enrolment rates may be associated with literacy levels among girls and may be used as current bench-marks so that future progress may be measured, enrolment at the elementary level is not the most significant figure. In societies where parents feel it is

important to invest in the education of boys but not girls, it is likely that few girls will attain secondary levels of education, let alone a university education. Thus, it is important to obtain not only enrolment statistics, but to obtain enrolment statistics by level, and, at the higher levels, by the field of study, which may indicate the different types of educational pyramids which exist for girls and boys and also the changes in the shape of the pyramids over time.”

UN, 1984a: 35

The trade-off involved in choosing one or the other of the indicators above is illustrated in Figure 1, which puts the indicators into high or low categories. It is apparent from the figure that there is no perfect indicator to measure gendered enrolment.

Figure 1 Strengths and Weaknesses of Educational Indicators from a Gender Perspective

Indicator	Relevance to Women	Availability of Data	Precision of Measurement
Gross enrolment at primary level	Low	High	Low
Gross enrolment at secondary level	High	High	Low
Net enrolment at primary level	Low	Low	High
Net enrolment at secondary level	High	Low	High

There are three further points to make about enrolment ratios:

- 1 Enrolment ratios reveal how many people enrol but not how many attend. “Because censuses do not provide data which permit an examination of absences and dropouts, except by inference over long periods, it is important to supplement census data with other material which will provide information on this pattern of attendance” (UN, 1984a: 35). However, data on dropout rates for developing countries is not readily accessible.
- 2 Enrolment ratios do not cover the qualitative area of the make-up of the curriculum. “Even when girls are attending school, they may be experiencing a very different type of educational training than are boys. In many societies the curriculum deemed appropriate for girls may be totally unrelated to potential later employment” (UN 1984a: 36). One of the key areas raised at international fora has been gender stereotyping within school and university curricula. This is a complex area and it is difficult to narrow down into specific indicators. School and university curricula should therefore be examined through the use of special studies and surveys to determine their gender content.
- 3 Enrolment ratios are indicators of process rather than of outcome. Outcome indicators can be literacy rates, and these are usually considered more significant than enrolment ratios because they represent the outcome of schooling. However, there is also a trade off in the choice of indicators of literacy. Basic literacy rates, as defined by UNESCO, measure the ability to both read and write a short simple statement on one’s everyday life. Some documents (e.g., UN, 1989) suggest that functional literacy (i.e. the ability to read a newspaper) is a better outcome indicator; however, functional literacy rates are not usually collected for developing countries.

There are also constraints with the use of literacy as an indicator. Literacy reflects the functioning of the education system over a number of years. “The average age of the developing world population over 15 is 36, therefore adult education measures reflect the average social effort for education about 20 to 35 years ago ... Such prevalence measures are relatively insensitive to the current social investment in educating youth” (Murray, 1993: 46).

Table 5 **Health, Health Services, Nutrition**

Gender-Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1 % of government expenditure devoted to women's health needs in a) productive and b) non-productive areas	♦ Are women and girls discriminated against in terms of access to health care? If so, what are the reasons for this and how can this discrimination be overcome?
2 Number of/access to primary health care centres by sex	♦ What % of health personnel are women, at the different levels of the health system?
3 Number of visits to and number of bed-nights spent in hospital by women/men; number of hospital beds as % of population	♦ If mortality and morbidity rates differ between men and women, what is the reason for this? What are the major causes of infant and child morbidity in girls and boys?
4 Proportion of girls and boys immunised against specific diseases	♦ What cultural and other obstacles are there to women and girls receiving health care and family planning services?
5 Proportion of births attended by a physician, midwife or trained auxiliary	♦ Is abortion legal, and if so, are services available in practice?
6 Mortality and length of life, by sex	♦ Have any programmes been introduced to combat AIDS, and have any of these programmes been developed with a focus on women?
7 Maternal mortality rates (per 1,000 live births)	♦ Is intra-household distribution of food biased against women and girls? If so, what are the reasons for this?
8 Infant mortality rates and female/male ratio	♦ Do women spend more on food than men? If so, what are the implications of this?
9 Number and/or incidence of selected communicable diseases of public health importance, including AIDS, by sex	♦ Does access to sanitation and clean water differ by sex? If so, what are the implications of this for women's health?
10 Calorie consumption as a % of minimum requirements, by sex	
11 % of women's/men's incomes spent on food	
12 Access to sanitation and clean water, by sex	

Health, Health Services, Nutrition

Indicators of health are particularly important for the determination of changes in women's status over time. Health indicators should be carefully selected. Indicators on health services and health conditions are weak in most developing countries. Health indicators tend to be found in administrative records and special surveys. The following are key areas where data should be collected (UN, 1990):

- ◆ the state of health of the population;
- ◆ availability and accessibility of resources;
- ◆ use of health resources (hospitals, etc.);
- ◆ environmental data (e.g. related to pollution); and
- ◆ outcomes of preventive and curative measures.

Life expectancy and infant mortality are two indirect health indicators most commonly used for the measurement of the status of women.

Gender-sensitive health indicators do present a number of methodological problems.⁴ Life expectancy at birth, for example, may be problematic because whether or not a person dies in a given year depends on factors over their whole lives and may not reflect present circumstances.

“Whether someone who is 70 years old will survive to 71 or not depends on a large set of factors over the whole of their lives. There is therefore a built-in time-lag, of the order of 35 years, between cause and effect ... The only way round this problem ... is to take the shortest gap between death and birth, which must be the youngest age group ... This information is provided by the infant mortality rate, which is defined as the number of deaths under one year of age during a year, per thousand live births during that year.”

Anderson, 1991: 62

The infant mortality rate reflects infants' and mothers' health, environmental health, and general socio-economic development, and is closely related to literacy. However, the infant mortality rate, like all indicators, presents problems. Accurate infant mortality data may not be available; for example, nearly every African county has data on the number of hospital beds, but “hardly have any complete and reliable infant mortality rates” (McGranahan *et al* 1985: 9). Also, the infant mortality rate may be a poor predictor of life expectancy: “With the widespread application in developing countries of health technologies targeted to infants and children ... the link between child mortality and mortality at other ages has been further weakened” (Murray, 1993: 42).

Methodological problems with indicators already discussed mean that gender-sensitive indicators should be used with caution and policy-related conclusions should be drawn from their findings with care.

Economic Activity and Labour Force Participation

It is generally agreed that women's economic activity is under-represented in most censuses and national level surveys, and that the contribution of women to economic development is an area where lack of data is most acute. The following gender-sensitive indicators and indicator questions are designed to allow the user to develop a basic data set on women and economic activity.

Measurement of economic activity and labour force participation is a complex but key area for the advancement of women's status and gender equality and equity.

There are two key areas to be considered in the formation of a national level data base on women. The first is the inclusion of gender-sensitive questions that are fully understood by all participating, including enumerators, in censuses and similar surveys. The second is a reconsideration of the concepts used in the UN System of National Accounts (SNA) as far as work is concerned.

Table 6 Economic Activity and Labour Force Participation

Gender-Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1 % of female/male labour force in agriculture, industry and services (ages 15 and over)	♦ Are there areas where men or women predominantly work? Does sex-stereotyping in employment exist? If so, what are the consequences of this?
2 % of female/male labour force in managerial and professional occupations	♦ What provisions exist to eliminate discrimination against women in employment? How are these provisions enforced?
3 % of female/male labour force who are unpaid family workers or are working in the informal sector (ages 15 and over)	♦ Are women moving to better or worse paid employment? What are the consequences of this for women?
4 Employment/unemployment rate of women/men, urban/rural	♦ Are there professions which, by law or custom, tend to be filled predominantly by or are closed to women?
5 Time use in selected activities (including unpaid housework and child care)	♦ Is there a bias against women in terms of employment because of a lack of child-care facilities?
6 Incidence of part time/full time work of women and men	♦ Do women receive equal pay as men for equal work or work of equal value?
7 Right to maternity leave/number of weeks/% of women who avail of right	♦ What legislation exists to ensure women's equality in terms of employment? How is this legislation enforced in practice?
8 % of available credit and financial and technical support going to women/men from government and non-government sources	♦ Is work done by women in the home counted in national statistics? Do national statistics reflect the role of women in the economic sector? What means are being taken to ensure that censuses and other surveys accurately reflect the economic role of women within and outside of the household?
9 Salary/wage differentials of women/men, by class of workers	
10 % of employers providing child care and % of children aged 0-3 and 3-6 in child care	

Definitions of economic activity

Economic activity is perhaps the most difficult of the concepts used in censuses (see good practices case study on India, Section 5). The generally used term 'economically active population' is problematic because it represents a number of disparate components. The main work-related categories used are:

- ♦ **activity status** (currently active, usually active, and economically active sometime during the year);
- ♦ **employment status** (employed, unemployed, not economically active);
- ♦ **employment characteristics** (occupation, industry, status in employment, and sector of employment);
- ♦ **duration of employment** (hours worked last week, weeks worked last year).

As UN (1993) states, the term 'economically active population' "...combines the employed with the unemployed population; full time with part-time activity; the activity of the worker who is paid for one hour's work in a specified reference period with that of another working full-time throughout the same period; seasonal activities in some instances and current or usual activities in others." However, advances have been made over the last 15 years particularly in the improvement of definitions of terminology related to economic activity.

It has been widely noted that the focus of SNA and ILO definitions of work relate to economic activity. But as Anker *et al* (1988) have pointed out, 'economic activity' is often defined in an unclear or ambiguous fashion. For example, according to the SNA, processing of food for preservation, husking of rice and grinding of grain are considered economic activities, while cooking is not, but the dividing line between these activities is a very thin one. Anker *et al* (1988) point out several similar anomalies, and in response suggest a useful four-part typology to measure labour force activity:

- ◆ paid labour force, that is, persons in wage or salary employment for which they are paid in cash or kind;
- ◆ market-oriented labour force, that is, persons in 'paid labour force' plus persons engaged in an activity on a family farm or in a family enterprise that sells some or all of its products;
- ◆ ILO labour force, that is, persons engaged in the production of economic goods and services, whether these goods and services are sold or not. This includes all activities associated with primary products, such as food production and food processing;
- ◆ extended labour force, including all of the above and activities such as gathering and preparing fuel and water fetching.

This typology is useful in that it extends the definition in the SNA and covers many of the activities carried out by women. Unpaid work such as housework and child-care are not included, and these are discussed next.

Unpaid work and the System of National Accounts

As a tool for economic policy-making, the SNA is a key area where governments can improve the way in which gender-disaggregated data is collected and used.

With a concentration on measuring paid employment, measures such as the SNA and GDP have been heavily criticised for their gender bias, in particular ignoring women's contribution to the economy, and to society as a whole.

There has over the last ten years been extensive methodological debate related to the valuation of unpaid work, in particular in relation to definitions of different kinds of unpaid work and imputation of value (e.g., through replacement or opportunity costs, or both).⁵ Detailed discussion of this debate is beyond the scope of this manual, which focuses on specific gender-sensitive indicators that could be employed in parallel to the SNA.

The 1993 SNA divides unpaid work into three types:

- 1 Housework, child-care and other family-related services (mainly carried out by women), which are not recognised by SNA as economic activity.
- 2 Subsistence and non-market activities such as agricultural production for household consumption (much of which is carried out by women), to be valued in the SNA from 1993 on the basis of market values of similar services that are sold.
- 3 Household enterprises producing for the market for which more than one household member provides unpaid labour. The income and production of these enterprises are quantified in SNA using transaction values.

Much of the recent discussion about unpaid housework, including child-care, caring for dependants and providing voluntary services, has been in relation to developing a parallel or satellite account to the SNA. The World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen noted: "Efforts are needed to acknowledge the social and economic importance and value of unremunerated work ... including by developing methods for reflecting its value ... in accounts that may be produced separately from, but consistent with core national accounts" (UN, 1995a: para 46). Similar recommendations can be found in the Beijing Platform for Action.

The 1993 SNA gives detailed instructions for the setting up of satellite accounts, which should be developed in the same way as main accounts (Inter-Secretariat Working Group, 1993). However, the sections on satellite accounts in the SNA do not provide examples related to unpaid work, so guidance on this matter has to be sought from other references.

At present several OECD countries, including two Commonwealth countries, Australia and Canada, have developed satellite accounts in relation to unpaid housework. Other countries such as Germany, Norway, Sweden, and Finland are developing national time-use surveys: "Most of these countries have used or will use these data to produce estimates of household work or of total unpaid work, or, as in the case of Germany, to establish a satellite account for the household sector, including household production, or, like Australia, to develop an input-output table for the non-market household sphere" (Chadeau, 1993: 66). At present much of this work is at an early stage and although it has been recognised that there is a need to harmonise approaches to allow international comparison, it has also been recognised that because of methodological disputes and data differences between countries, some flexibility is required (Statistics Canada, 1993).

There is some agreement that the first step in terms of measuring unpaid housework and related aspects of unpaid work is to measure the amount of time spent on these activities. This is the approach taken, for example, in questions on unpaid work in the 1996 Canadian census (see good practices case study, Section 5). Once the time spent on activities is calculated a value can be given to this time. Time-use studies are thus particularly important for this area of the development of gender-sensitive indicators.

There is also some consensus as to what is to be included as important unpaid work, even if not as to how to estimate its value. The key areas are:

- ◆ domestic work, including meal preparation, cleaning up after food or meal preparation; cleaning inside and outside the house; clothing care, including laundry, ironing and clothes and shoe repair; and repairs and maintenance, including home repairs, gardening and grounds maintenance;
- ◆ help and child-care, including physical care of children, education and medical care of children; and adult-care, including personal and medical care;
- ◆ management and shopping including household administration and shopping for goods and services;
- ◆ transportation and travel;
- ◆ volunteer work, including fundraising, attending meetings and research; and
- ◆ unpaid work in the labour force.

Specific indicators, as illustrative examples related to domestic work that could be included in national time-use studies, are as follows. An example of a straightforward question would be (taken from 1996 Canadian census): "Number of hours per week spent by household members doing unpaid housework, yard work or home maintenance for members of this household, or others". Alternatively, this question could be asked in the following way (Statistics Canada, 1993: 117, reporting on a study in the US):

"Now let's talk about housework, including cooking and cleaning and doing other work around the house:

- 1 *Do you prepare food for meals or wash dishes?*
- 2 *Do you do grocery shopping?*
- 3 *Do you clean and vacuum?*
- 4 *Do you do laundry?*
- 5 *Do you sew and mend?*

Altogether, about how many hours do you spend doing these things in an average week?"

Similar lines of enquiry could be pursued for the other areas of unpaid work noted above, with all data being sex-disaggregated to determine women and men's contributions. The next stage, about which there is still methodological disagreement, would be to place a value on each of these areas of unpaid work so that the satellite national account could be developed.

As discussion on the valuation and importance of unpaid work becomes more sophisticated, the development of satellite accounts related to unpaid work through time-use and other studies offers an opportunity for governments to make significant progress on the development of a national level database of gender-sensitive indicators. However, "very few time-use surveys have been conducted at the national level in developing countries" (Harvey, 1993). So the first step in this area for governments who have not yet done so would be to design national level time-use studies concentrating on unpaid work and to experiment with different forms of imputation of value for this work. INSTRAW has been co-ordinating a number of studies in this area in developing countries, including Tanzania (Harvey, 1993).

Access to Land, Equipment and Credit

Women's land ownership rights differ from country to country, but it is clear that generally land is under male ownership and control. There has been little systematic focus on the question on women's access to and control over land, despite the potential importance of land to the improvement of women's status and gender equity (Agarwal, 1994). Agarwal notes that while in law women have the right to own land in South Asia, in practice women's ownership and control is rare (1994: 468). Key questions in this area therefore include whether legislation exists at the country level that ensures gender equality in both access to and control over land.

The World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD), which requires member countries of the FAO to report on various aspects of agrarian development (see Section 4), has suggested indicators for access to land, water and other natural resources (Dey-Abbas and Gaiha, 1993: 250-1).

In addition, States Parties of CEDAW are required to report on Article 14 on discrimination against rural women, Section (g) of which states that women have the right: "to have access to agricultural credit and loans, marketing facilities, appropriate technology and equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes".

Some gender-sensitive indicators may be available from agricultural censuses, or such censuses could be adapted to ensure that gender-sensitive indicators are available from this source.

An important differentiation between indicators of access and control over rural resources occurs in the case of credit. In one of the best known cases of women's access to credit, the Grameen Bank in Bangladesh, there is evidence that while loans are made to and have to be repaid by women, it may be men who made key decisions over how the loan is used (Goetz and Sen Gupta, 1996). This highlights the importance of using indicators in combination with qualitative analysis such as gender analysis or related questions such as those given in the tables in this section. To stop at the level of use of gender-sensitive indicators in this case would have shown greater gender equality, but analysis of intra-household decision making may have revealed a more complex pattern of gender discrimination.

Table 7 Access to Land, Equipment and Credit

Gender-Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1 % of property owned or accessible by women (land, houses, livestock), across income groups	◆ Is land mainly under the control of men or women? What are the consequences of this for gender relations decisions about land sales and cropping patterns?
2 % of women who have access to credit, vis-à-vis men	◆ What are the inheritance practices in the country concerning land? If women can legally inherit land, do they do this in practice?
3 % of rural households where female/male head is the main household earner	◆ If women own land does this also mean that they make decisions concerning crop selection and marketing?
4 % of female/male headed households without land	◆ Has land reform benefited men and women equally?
5 % average wage rates for agricultural labourers, by sex	◆ Do women have equal access to credit facilities: Does such access translate into control over credit in terms of decision-making?
6 % of women/men who have received land titles under land reform schemes	◆ Is there a difference between women and men's agricultural labour wages?

Legal Rights and Political Power⁶

There has been increasing focus on women's legal rights and political power over the last ten years, a focus that work on indicators is only beginning to reflect. However, a number of indicators can be extrapolated from the literature related to this area. For example the UNDP Gender Empowerment Matrix employs as one of its indicators the commonly used "share of parliamentary seats going to women and men". *The World's Women* (UN, 1995a) uses as indicators: "Countries where more than 15% of ministers or subministers are women", "% of women in decision-making positions in government by field", and "women in broadcasting and the press". A number of similar indicators could be employed, dependent on data availability, but again with the caveat that indicators will only paint the broad picture of women's and men's participation.

Indicators of empowerment and participation in CEDAW reporting

This section focuses on the reporting requirements of states parties as far as developing a national database on gender-sensitive indicators is concerned, with particular focus on indicators of participation and empowerment. A more comprehensive discussion of CEDAW, including discussion of reporting to the Committee, non-signatories, reservations of states parties and impact of the Convention, can be found in Commonwealth Secretariat (1996), and CEDAW (1995a and 1995b).

Reporting requirements under CEDAW often result in the first comprehensive review of the situation of women in a particular country (CEDAW, 1995). But CEDAW is also a key convention in relation to gender-sensitive indicators because it requires reporting on cultural, legal and political areas which are not covered in any of the standard mechanisms from which gender-sensitive indicators can be taken, for example censuses. These areas are:

- ◆ sex roles and stereotyping (Article 5);
- ◆ suppression of the exploitation of women (Article 6);
- ◆ political and public life (Article 7);
- ◆ international representation and participation (Article 8);
- ◆ equality before the law and in civil matters (Article 15);
- ◆ equality in marriage and family law (Article 16).

Table 8 Political and Public Life

Gender-Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1 % of seats held by women and men in national parliaments and local government/decision-making bodies	♦ What are the obstacles that prevent women from gaining decision-making positions in government or the civil service?
2 % of women and men in decision-making positions in government	♦ What are the obstacles that prevent women from gaining decision-making positions in the judicial system and the police force?
3 % of women and men electoral candidates/officers in political parties	♦ Do courts or other tribunals promote and protect the rights of women?
4 % of women in the civil service, at four highest levels of office	♦ Is one socio-economic group dominant as far as holding decision-making positions is concerned?
5 % of women employed in the public sector, at administrative and managerial levels	♦ How many cases of gender discrimination were brought before the courts or other government bodies in the last four years? How were they decided?
6 % of women/men registered as voters/% of eligible women/men who vote	♦ What input do women make to changes in the political system?
7 % of women in senior/junior decision-making positions within unions	
8 % of women judges, justices and prosecutors	
9 % of women in the police force, by rank	

In addition, General Recommendations 12 and 14 of CEDAW require states parties to include information relating to all forms of violence against women, including female circumcision. As such the Convention reflects recent changes in understanding as to the means by which to progress towards gender equality, and in particular a focus on women's rights (CEDAW, 1995b). CEDAW requires not only the listing of laws related to gender equality but also statistical reporting on the effects of implementation of these laws.

However, the reports of states parties are often weak in areas relating to women's rights, empowerment and participation. While the reports may contain extensive documentation and indicators relating to health and education, the sections relating to, for example, Articles 5 and 7 are often quite short.

Overall, CEDAW is an excellent mechanism for collecting gender-sensitive data in areas such as empowerment, participation and violence not covered in many other national level surveys. Such data will need to be generated from specially commissioned surveys.

Violence against Women

As with political power, there has also been increasing attention paid in the last ten years to violence against women. Discussion of violence against women is also included in the focus on women's rights as human rights (Amnesty International, 1995). *The World's Women* notes:

“Currently the only quantitative data that most governments collect on violence against women are reported crime statistics on rape, assault and various other sexual crimes. These have serious limitations and should be complemented with data from other sources. Questions related to intimate assault and rape can be added to population-based surveys... or crime victimisation surveys ... Experience has shown that disclosure of violence is greatly influenced by the content of the questions, (and) the context of the questioning ... questions and questionnaires must be carefully planned and interviewers carefully selected and trained to ask direct questions about violence.”

UN, 1995a: 164

The World's Women (UN 1995a) uses, among others, as key indicators:

- ◆ % of adult women who have been physically assaulted by an intimate partner;
- ◆ % of women in selected large cities who were sexually assaulted in a five-year period;
- ◆ numbers of NGOs working on violence against women;
- ◆ rape reform laws passed;
- ◆ domestic violence reforms passed;
- ◆ government body responsible for anti-violence programming.

Table 9 Indicators of Gender-Related Violence

Gender-Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1 Number of reported cases of domestic violence	◆ Has the country followed CEDAW recommendations and reported on laws enacted to protect women from violence?
2 Number of reported cases of sexual assault and rape	◆ How effective is legislation banning different forms of violence against women?
3 Number of reported cases of sexual harassment	◆ Are the representations of women in the media, in advertising or in school curricula likely to lead to violence against women?
4 Conviction rates of accused violent offenders against women	◆ In what ways have women organised to combat violence? What has been the result of this organisation?
5 Number of immediate protective measures taken to assist abused women (legal aid, financial assistance, housing assistance, shelters, police action, NGO efforts)	◆ Does the country enforce the UN Convention prohibiting the slave trade and exploitation through prostitution? What measures does the country have to address the commercial sexual exploitation of the girl-child?
6 Increase/decrease of violence against women during armed conflict	◆ Are women refugees protected during periods of armed conflict?

Table 9 contains indicators that could be used for the development of gender-sensitive indicators at the national level in the key area of violence against women. These indicators will need to be generated through the use of specially commissioned surveys.

Macroeconomic Policy and Gender

The final priority area to be covered here is macro-economic policy and gender. Integrating gender into national budgetary processes has become an important focus for many countries. This can be done in particular by examining national budgets for

gender-sensitivity and estimating budgetary expenditure going towards priority areas as they affect women and men.

The Commonwealth Secretariat is developing a series of policy options for integrating gender into national budgetary policies in the context of economic reform. The policy options centre on six possible tools :

- ◆ **sex-disaggregated beneficiary assessments** – a research technique whereby groups of women are asked how, if they were the Finance Minister, they would slice the national budgetary pie; the results are compared with the existing budget to see how closely it reflects women’s priorities;
- ◆ **sex-disaggregated public expenditure incidence analysis** – this involves analysing public expenditures in such areas as health, education and agriculture to see how such expenditures benefit women and men, girls and boys to differing degrees;
- ◆ **gender-aware policy evaluation of public expenditure** – evaluating the policy assumptions that underlie budgetary appropriations, to identify their likely impact on current patterns and degrees of gender differences;
- ◆ **gender-aware budget statement** – a modification of the Women’s Budget; this is a statement from each sectoral ministry or line department on the gender implications of the budget within that sector;
- ◆ **sex-disaggregated analysis of the impact of the budget on time-use** – this looks at the relationship between the national budget and the way time is used in households, so as to reveal the macroeconomic implications of unpaid work such as caring for the family, the sick and community members, collecting fuel and water, cooking, cleaning, teaching children and so on;
- ◆ **gender-aware medium-term economic policy framework** – medium-term macroeconomic policy frameworks are currently formulated using a variety of economy-wide models which are usually ‘gender-blind’. Approaches for integrating gender could include: disaggregating variables by gender where applicable; introducing new variables incorporating a gender perspective; constructing new models that incorporate both national income accounts and household income accounts reflecting unpaid work; and changing underlying assumptions about the social and institutional set-up for economic planning.

At present, indicators in the area of national level budgeting are patchy and usually not internationally comparable. The indicators given in Table 10 are therefore illustrative of key areas where governments should refine budgetary planning to ensure that gender-sensitive data is available. Some areas of national level budgetary expenditure have already been covered in Tables 4 and 5, and other relevant discussion of national level accounts and labour force activity can be found in the discussion of the System of National Accounts in Section 3. Further details of related indicators can be found in the Appendix, Section F.

Table 10 **Macroeconomic Policy and Gender**

Gender-Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1 Private consumption expenditure of households	◆ How much of the household's expenditure is directed towards the purchase of food, and education and health related matters?
2 Total government expenditure and as percentage of GDP	Who controls the household budget, and what say do women have in expenditure?
3 Breakdown of government expenditure by sector	◆ How far is government expenditure directed towards priority areas for women such as education and health? What role do women have in national level budgetary planning?
4 Proportion of persons and households at risk covered by social security and similar schemes	◆ Are health and education systems privatised and if so, what are the gender implications of this?
5 Proportion of potentially eligible persons and households receiving social insurance, social assistance and similar benefits	◆ Are women adequately covered by social security and other schemes? Are such schemes sufficiently gender-sensitive? Is sufficient attention being paid during national level budgetary planning to groups at risk, such as poor single mothers and female-headed households?

Notes

- 1 Sections 3.1-3.3 are drawn from UN (1990a; 1989).
- 2 The crude birth rate is obtained by dividing the average number of women of childbearing age in the population in one year, by the number of live births occurring during the same period.
- 3 The following section is adapted from CIDA (1996a; 1996b) and UN (1990a).
- 4 The following section is adapted from CIDA (1996a; 1996b) and UN (1990a).
- 5 Much of this debate is summarised in Statistics Canada (1995a; 1993) and Goldschmidt-Clermont (1987).
- 6 This and the following section draw on CIDA (1996a; 1996b).

4

Gender-Sensitive Indicators: The State of the Art

Extensive work has been undertaken in the last five to ten years on indicators at the national level. This section reviews some of the main work specifically on gender-sensitive indicators that have been carried out by the UN and donors.

UNDP 1995 Human Development Report

Since 1990 the UNDP has produced an influential Human Development Report which has included a discussion of development related issues and a composite index of human development, the Human Development Index (HDI). This composite index is made up of three areas: purchasing power parity, adult literacy and years of schooling, and life expectancy. While there have been a number of criticisms of the HDI, mainly related to technical aspects of indicator use and the HDI's conceptual underpinnings, the *Human Development Report* is at present the most widely quoted and widely used report on indicators at the national and regional levels.

Some Commonwealth countries, including Bangladesh, Ghana and India, have prepared human development reports based on the UNDP methodology. Few of these reports, however, have included a gender focus.

In preparation for the 1995 UN World Conference on Women, the 1995 UNDP *Human Development Report* focused on gender, by introducing two composite indexes to measure gender equity (the GDI) and women's empowerment (the GEM). These two composite indexes are likely to be very important indexes in future discussions on the measurement of gender inequality and gendered country level planning, and deserve the attention of governments.

Gender-related development index (GDI)

The GDI utilises country level achievements in the same areas as the HDI, that is income, education and life expectancy. The greater the gender disparity within a country in these areas, the lower a country's GDI becomes as compared to its HDI. The reference group in this index and the GEM is men. The methodology used for the GDI imposes a penalty for inequality, so that the GDI achievement of a country falls when the achievement levels of both women and men in a country go down, or when the disparity between their achievements increases. Calculation of the GDI involves the use of complex econometric techniques which will not be discussed here, but which may hinder the widespread use and understanding of such indexes. The GDI was developed to show that no society treats its women as well as its men and that gender equality does not depend on the income level in a society.

Some countries' HDI ranking changes considerably when gender inequality is factored in. Figure 2 gives the GDI rank of selected countries from the 130 countries included in the *Human Development Report*. It also gives the HDI rank minus the GDI rank, showing the extent to which countries improve or worsen their global ranking once gender inequality has been factored in to the HDI calculation (the higher the figure, the greater the improvement; a worsening is indicated by a negative figure).

Figure 2 Gender-Related Development of Selected Countries

Country	GDI Rank	HDI Rank Minus GDI Rank
Sweden	1	8
Canada	9	-8
Malaysia	38	11
Jamaica	52	14
Botswana	55	4
Sri Lanka	58	11
India	99	-3

The GDI is a useful methodological tool which can capture changes in gender relations over time both within a country and between countries, as measured by a small number of important indicators of the quality of life.

Gender empowerment measure (GEM)

The GEM examines whether women and men are able to participate actively in economic and political life. To do so, it uses easily accessible data to measure 'empowerment' in the spheres of economic and political participation. It uses three indicators:

- ◆ per capita income in purchasing power parity in US dollars;
- ◆ the share of jobs classified as professional and technical, and administrative and managerial, going to men and women;
- ◆ the share of parliamentary seats going to women and men.

The three dimensions of empowerment are valued equally in the measure, and as with the GDI a complex econometric analysis is performed to determine the GEM for the 116 countries for which data is considered reliable.

The *Human Development Report* draws various conclusions by comparing the GEM and HDI, the GEM and GDI, and the GEM and income per capita. Such comparisons are useful for countries to make in order to determine how progressive countries are in achieving gender equality. Among the findings which can be extrapolated are:

- ◆ Some developing countries outperform much richer industrial countries in gender equality in political, economic and professional activities.
- ◆ Some countries have low GEM values as compared to their GDI ranking, which means that they are achieving more in terms of education and literacy than in terms of employment and political participation.

- ◆ Several countries in East and South East Asia that have followed an East Asian development model have low GEM values, pointing to the marginal participation of women in high-level decision-making in politics and management, despite widespread participation in economic activity which has contributed to economic growth.

Limitations of the GDI and GEM

Countries could attempt to improve gender-related reporting by using composite indexes such as those in the Human Development Report. But if they are to be used it should be recognised that both the GDI and GEM are limited. Some of the limitations include:

- ◆ **Choice of indicators:** As in all composite indexes the choice of indicators is to a certain extent arbitrary. For example, if the GEM had chosen as one of its indicators 'membership of unions', rankings would also have been quite different.
- ◆ **Weighting of indicators:** This is a problem with all composite indexes, as there is no objective reason why, for example, education should be weighted equally with life expectancy.
- ◆ **Lack of participation in indicator choice:** This is one of the main problems with the GDI and GEM, as well as the HDI. They have been developed with very little public participation, with indicators chosen by specialists. In addition, the calculation of the GDI and GEM can be understood only by specialists because of the complexity of the calculations involved, making it difficult to facilitate public participation.

UN Publications

The World's Women 1995: Trends and Statistics (UN: New York, 1995a. Social Statistics and Indicators, Series K, No. 12):

This is probably the most comprehensive source of data on the situation and status of women at the national level. It was developed from the UN *Women's Indicators and Statistics Database* (WISTAT) which is available on CD-ROM. WISTAT is taken mainly from official national sources, that is from national population and housing censuses and household sample surveys, or estimates based on these.

The World's Women covers five main areas: population; health; education and training; work; and power, influence and violence against women. Its comprehensive nature and sectoral organisation makes this document a very useful guide for governments looking to summarise data concerning gender at the national level. Several gaps, however, remain in *The World's Women*, particularly as far as availability and reliability of data is concerned. These gaps include lack of up-to-date data in some areas, lack of data to allow comparison to the situation of men, and lack of data from some countries.

In addition, the UN has published a number of guides and handbooks on gender-sensitive indicators (see References), which were used for the production of this guide:

Gender Indicators of Developing Asian and Pacific Countries (Manila: Asian Development Bank, 1993).

This document was produced by the Centre for International Research of the US Bureau of the Census, with the aim of grouping and disseminating statistics that were scattered among sectoral statistics and publications. Indicators are organised by sector and by country. Commonwealth countries covered in the document are Bangladesh, Hong Kong, India, Kiribati, Malaysia, The Maldives, Singapore, The Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Samoa, Tonga, and Vanuatu.

The document includes indicators on:

- ◆ population size and age characteristics, including sex ratios by age;
- ◆ fertility, mortality, and population change, including crude birth and death rates, maternal mortality at delivery, and infant mortality rates;
- ◆ contraceptive use;
- ◆ marriage and households, including average household size and women heads of households;
- ◆ literacy and education, including literacy rates by age and enrolment rates;
- ◆ labour force participation, including labour force distribution of employment and unpaid female employment.

This is a very useful source for quality of life indicators. However, the focus of the document is somewhat limited as it does not include areas related to women's empowerment and participation, such as political participation or violence against women.

FAO's socioeconomic indicator programme following from the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD)

At the 1979 WCARRD, FAO member countries agreed to collect on a regular basis quantitative data on a range of indicators pertinent to agrarian reform and rural development, and to "establish bench-marks on a range of socio-economic indicators ... for the year 1980 and to report changes in the levels of these indicators at every other FAO conference, i.e., 1983 and every four years afterwards" (Dey-Abbas and Gaiha, 1993: 235).

WCARRD guidelines stress the need to disaggregate data by socio-economic grouping, age and sex. WCARRD is developing, in collaboration with other UN agencies, a database on women in agriculture, which will be incorporated into the main WCARRD database. Country reports on progress in agrarian reform and rural development are generally prepared by the Ministry of Agriculture in FAO member countries. Ensuring that these country reports are prepared by countries on a regular basis and contain relevant gender-disaggregated data would be one means of identifying relative changes in the status of women over time in the area of rural development. Commonwealth countries which have provided Country Reports to the FAO to date are: Bangladesh, The Gambia, Kenya, Jamaica, Malawi, Malaysia, Nigeria, Seychelles, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, Vanuatu and Zimbabwe.

Yearbook of International Labour Statistics

Produced by the ILO, this includes gender-sensitive indicators on: total and economically active population, employment and unemployment, hours of work, and wages.

The ILO has also published a seven-volume series entitled *Sources and Methods: Labour Statistics*, the following of which are of particular relevance:

- ◆ Volume 2: Employment, wages and hours of work (establishment surveys) (Geneva, 1987)
- ◆ Volume 3: Economically active population, employment, unemployment, wages and hours of work (household surveys) (Geneva, 1990)
- ◆ Volume 4: Employment, unemployment, wages and hours of work (household surveys) (Geneva, 1989)
- ◆ Volume 5: Total and economically active population, employment and unemployment (population censuses) (Geneva, 1990)
- ◆ Volume 6: Household income and expenditure surveys (Geneva, 1994)

World Bank

The World Bank publishes *Social Indicators of Development* on an annual basis. This publication provides sex-disaggregated indicators on: population, labour, education, enrolment ratios, life expectancy and maternal mortality. The main sources are the UN Statistical Office, ILO, and WHO, supplemented by national databases.

The World Bank has recently explored the extension of the use of what it has termed Key Performance Indicators at the sectoral level as a part of improving its monitoring and evaluation systems. It has, as part of its 'Next Steps' indicator programme, developed a series of sectoral indicators, including indicators of population, education, agriculture, poverty and housing (World Bank, 1995a). While there is little gender-specific information in these publications there is an extensive discussion of use of different kinds of indicators. The section on indicators of poverty (also published separately as Carvalho and White, 1994) is a good source for a general discussion of indicators.

Other Donors

Developing Baseline Gender Indicators and Analysis for Country Program Planning: A Resource Guide (Hull: CIDA, Asia Branch, 1996):

The Asia Branch at CIDA is in the process of producing a comprehensive Resource Guide to the use of gender-sensitive indicators at the country level. This Resource Guide is intended for use in the production of country-level planning documents at CIDA. It includes:

- ◆ a general discussion of the use of indicators at the country level;
- ◆ indicator tables relating to political, economic, social and environmental gender-sensitive indicators at the country level;
- ◆ factors which are likely to cause changes in indicators over time; and
- ◆ the availability of indicators by country, including data availability tables.

Commonwealth countries covered in this Resource Guide are: Bangladesh, The Cook Islands, India, Kiribati, Malaysia, Samoa, Singapore, The Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu.

This Resource Guide is one of the most useful documents to be produced by the donors on gender-sensitive indicators at the country level. Although its focus is on the Asia-Pacific its contents are of relevance to both developed and developing countries from other regions as well.

Notes

- 1 This draws on CIDA (1996a).

5

Good Practice Case Studies in the Development of Gender-Sensitive Indicators

Overview and Lessons Learned from Case Studies

This chapter presents four case studies of good practice in the use of gender-sensitive indicators, in three Commonwealth countries (Canada, Ghana and India) and one non-Commonwealth country (the Philippines). The four case studies evidence a variety of experiences with the use, analysis and dissemination of gender-sensitive indicators. Lessons learned from these case studies are as follows:

Methodological lessons

Government agencies must devise a workable methodology for the use of gender-sensitive indicators, whether this involves the status of women as a whole or individual components of this. The discussion around and testing of questions related to unpaid work in the Canadian census is a good example of the way in which it can take several years for questions that are key to the status of women to be included in national data collection instruments.

A further methodological lesson provided by the case studies is that governments should collect gender-sensitive indicators from as wide a range of sources as possible, and in particular that censuses should be complemented by household surveys and smaller research projects focusing specifically on questions of women's status and gender equality.

Lessons related to focus

The case studies make it clear that while there is now considerable data available on the more traditional indicator areas, such as employment, health and education, most countries need to direct greater attention to the collection of gender-sensitive indicators on political participation, empowerment, violence against women and women's work.

Co-ordination lessons

The cases of the Philippines, Ghana and Canada show that intergovernmental co-ordination is vital for the development of a comprehensive database on the status of women. They also show that there remains an enormous amount of work to be done in promoting the use of gender-sensitive indicators.

Political lessons

The case studies show that political commitment to gender equality and the use of gender-sensitive indicators are closely connected. Use of gender-sensitive indicators may increase political commitment, but some prior political commitment is necessary for gender-sensitive indicators to be used productively.

Targeting lessons

Governments must be clear about why they are using gender-sensitive indicators. In other words, discussion about gender-sensitive indicators should make specific reference to their policy uses and the ways in which they will be used to work towards gender equity. In addition, governments must be clear about the resources devoted to the collection of gender-sensitive indicators and the practical outputs and impact involved in their use.

Public participation

Public participation is one key to developing gender-sensitive indicators that are relevant to gender concerns. Public participation here means consultation on the part of governments with the public, including agencies in the public domain which deal with gender issues, such as women's organisations.

Case Study: Ghana

Availability of indicators in Ghana¹

Ghana has a long history of statistical data collection in censuses, sample surveys and administrative records. This dates back to the pre-colonial period when traditional rulers conducted periodic counts of the population on a sex-differentiated basis. The colonial period saw six population censuses between 1891 and 1948. Independent Ghana has witnessed three censuses, in 1960, 1970 and 1984. Sample surveys of the population, for example anthropological and sociological studies, have been carried out since the 1930s. Administrative records and vital registration were introduced in 1888. And various ministries such as the Ministries of Education, Health and Labour collect and compile records on a regular basis.

Gender-sensitive indicators and the census in Ghana

A National Committee of Users and Producers was established in 1988 to identify user needs and co-ordinate the production of statistics. This Committee has set up fourteen sectoral working groups, including a Gender-Specific Statistics Working Group. The Gender Working Group includes representatives from the National Council on Women and Development and other women's groups, and emphasises the importance of improving the production and dissemination of basic data on women's activities.

An effort was made to make the publications of the 1984 population census more gender-sensitive. Population data in the quarterly gazetteer produced by the Statistical Service was presented in sex-disaggregated form for the first time in 1987. A series of 11 volumes on the demographic and economic characteristics of the country was also published in 1987, and almost all the tables contained in these volumes are disaggregated by sex.

Gender-sensitive indicators and sample surveys

A good example of a gender-sensitive sample survey is the 1988 Ghana Demographic and Health Survey (GDHS). The GDHS was carried out by the Ghana Statistical Service within a nationally representative sample of 4,488 women, aged 15-49. The core questionnaire collected data on family planning, fertility, maternal and child health. There was also a module on women's work, including details on time use, pay, and child-care arrangements. This module reveals some of the difficulties involved with the collection of detailed gender-sensitive indicators. As Blanc and Lloyd note:

“An important decision made during the development of the employment module was to limit the type of productive work recorded to work for cash, other than on a family farm or in a family business ... [One reason for this was that] in many developing countries, particularly in rural areas, the distinction between housework and productive work may be unclear. To the extent that this is true, sample surveys are likely to under-remunerate women’s participation in productive roles ... unless these surveys collect detailed time-use data or spend considerable time educating respondents as to what to consider part of ‘housework’ and what part of ‘employment’. Neither of these alternatives seemed feasible in the GDHS since the employment module was a short supplement to the core questionnaire and not the main focus of the survey.”

1994: 114

This survey was therefore likely to under-report women’s paid employment, partly through a lack of focus on this and partly because of the conceptual focus. There are parallels here with the Indian good practices case study where conceptual factors and lack of knowledge on the part of enumerators also led to an under-enumeration of women’s employment.

Ghana and CEDAW

Ghana signed and ratified CEDAW in February 1986. In 1991 it provided its first periodic report to CEDAW. While the report notes the difficulties of obtaining some data, it provides a clear picture of the status of women in Ghana vis-à-vis the provisions of the Convention. Information for the report comes from various documents of the Ghana Statistical Service, the Ghana Living Standards Survey, and several other studies and surveys.

The first periodic report provides sex-disaggregated data on:

- ◆ age distribution of the population by locality and sex;
- ◆ percentage of women in the work-force;
- ◆ percentage of women in public bodies and trade unions;
- ◆ enrolment in primary, middle, secondary, teaching, commercial, technical schools and universities;
- ◆ literacy rate by age group, sex and locality;
- ◆ work-force participation by age, sex and region;
- ◆ percentage of females in selected occupations;
- ◆ distribution of active population by employment status and sex; day-care centres;
- ◆ prenatal care for mothers;
- ◆ infant and childhood mortality by sex and demographic characteristics;
- ◆ percentage distribution of currently married women by contraceptive method used; and
- ◆ married females by form of marriage.

As might be expected, particularly as the periodic report was made in 1991, most of the information in the periodic report refers to education, health and employment. There is little data on violence against women including female circumcision, women’s rights in practice, or women’s political participation (except at a very basic level). As these issues became increasingly prominent in the late 1980s and early 1990s it is presumed that they will be dealt with in more detail in subsequent periodic reports.

In sum, the census, sample surveys and CEDAW reporting provide a useful picture of the status of women in Ghana that can be used by policy-makers as both a base-line from which to measure progress and a tool to develop gender-sensitive planning. This case study shows that a wide range of sources are necessary for there to be comprehensive data on gender issues available within a country.

Case Study: The Indian Census and Women's Work²

Background

Censuses have been undertaken in India since 1881. Sex disaggregated data, for example on the sex ratio, has been available since 1901 and has been extensively used by planners and policy makers to investigate trends in gender discrimination over time.

With a population estimated at close to 850 million in 1991, 15 national and regional languages and a large rural population, the Indian census offers enormous challenges. For example, the total number of volumes published from the 1961 census was around 1,500; and for the 1991 census 1.7 million enumerators were appointed to conduct census activities throughout the country. However, partly as a result of the strong tradition in the social sciences in India, for several decades the Indian census has been innovative in its approach, and recently has attempted to take on a more gender-sensitive approach.

Since 1951, Indian censuses have provided detailed sex-disaggregated data on population make-up and employment. The 1961 census included a household schedule, which was a unique document at the time for any census in the world. This schedule was based on the assumption that enterprise in the subsistence sector, particularly in cultivation and household industry, is centred not on the individual but the household as a whole. Respondents were therefore requested to respond to questions related to the input of family labour in cultivation and in household industry, with a breakdown of household by sex. This was the first attempt in India at the national level to examine sex-disaggregated input to the subsistence sector.

The labour force questions in the 1961, 1971 and 1981 Indian censuses did ask questions about work and main activity, although not about unpaid work. However, because of biases in questionnaire content and organisation, "female labour force participation rates (for ages 5 or above) displayed abrupt and unlikely fluctuations – from 31% in 1961 to 16% in 1971 and to 24% in 1981. Most of these fluctuations were found to be concentrated among owner-cultivators, an activity category which is not always considered to be 'work' by respondents and even less likely to be the 'main activity' of Indian women who have the major responsibility for domestic activities" (Anker *et al*, 1988: 139).

The 1991 Indian census

It was not until the 1991 census that a more detailed examination of female employment was considered. It was recognised that:

"in the 1981 and 1971 censuses, only a few selected tables were prepared for 'marginal' workers [i.e., people who were economically active for less than six months in the reference year] ... This has one undesirable consequence. Most of the marginal workers were females. In view of this the census could not bring out a complete picture of the total workforce in general and female workforce in particular ... With the modifications proposed in the 1991 census relating to tabulation of marginal workers on a 100 per cent basis, a number of tables would be generated for marginal workers also. This, it is felt, would enhance the utility of 1991 census data on workforce."

Nanda, 1995: 3229

In order to capture women's work more fully, the census organisers took the following steps:

- ◆ Enumerators were educated to the fact that many activities carried out by women form part of general economic activities.

- ◆ In the instructions to the enumerators special emphasis was laid on what constitutes work. A list of activities in which women are normally engaged was included in the instruction booklet for enumerators (see the Annex for details).
- ◆ Suggestions made by women's organisations were taken into consideration when drafting the instructions to enumerators and designing the training modules for them.
- ◆ The instructions to enumerators laid emphasis, with reference to women's activities, on the need to ask probing questions regarding the work done at any time during the last year or any seasons in the reference period.
- ◆ The question in the census 'Worked any time last year?' was supplemented by the phrase 'including unpaid work in farm or family enterprise'. The inclusion of this clause was the first such occurrence in Asia, and was considered a model to be followed by UNIFEM.
- ◆ There was extensive publicity about the different types of activities carried out by women; this included 1.6 million posters and a documentary prepared by UNIFEM which was shown on the national TV network.

Problems with the 1991 census

Despite this attempt to capture the extent of women's unpaid work, it has been recognised that women's work was not fully represented in the 1991 census. A survey of enumerators found that the most problematic area for them related to economic activity, and particularly justifying the inclusion of unpaid work. Although there were 26 pages of instruction as to what constitutes economic activity in the manual for enumerators, women's work appears to have been systematically excluded from the 1991 census.

A further gender-related problem with the 1991 Indian census concerned the possible under-enumeration of women. This census reported a decline in population growth, and an increase in population masculinity, between 1981 and 1991. Demographers, however, have suggested that there appears to have been a general under-enumeration of the population and particularly of females. It is unlikely that population growth has declined, or that there has been a deterioration in the relative mortality experienced by females (Srinivasan, 1994; Dyson, 1994).

While Indian censuses have been innovative and progressive as far as attention to questions of gender are concerned, there is still extensive work to be done to ensure that sex-disaggregated data is collected in a systematic fashion at the national level. Part of this work, and a challenge for the 2001 census, has to be relevant and intensive training and education of enumerators as to the importance of unpaid work.

Case Study: Canada³

Gender planning by the Federal Government

In 1995 the Canadian Government published *Setting the Stage for the Next Century: The Federal Plan for Gender Equality*. This document, produced by Status of Women Canada, was adopted in response to the request from the UN to formulate a national plan to advance the situation of women, both within its own borders and globally. The Federal Plan centres on government commitments to eight objectives:

- ◆ implementing gender-based analysis throughout federal departments and agencies;
- ◆ improving women's economic autonomy and well-being;
- ◆ improving women's physical and psychological well-being;
- ◆ reducing violence in society, particularly violence against women and children;

- ◆ promoting gender equality in all aspects of Canada's cultural life;
- ◆ incorporating women's perspectives in governance;
- ◆ promoting and supporting global gender equity; and
- ◆ advancing gender equality for employees of federal departments and agencies.

Overall the *Federal Plan* amounts to a comprehensive platform for improving the status of women in Canada, and as such will be of interest to Commonwealth governments which are formulating or updating similar plans.

Gender-sensitive indicators at the country level

As part of its programme to implement gender-based analysis throughout federal departments and agencies, the government is committed to: "the development of indicators to assess progress made toward gender equality" and "the collection and use of gender-disaggregated data as appropriate" (1995a: 17).

The *Federal Plan* contains a number of specific proposals on the future use of gender-sensitive indicators, by sector. The section on the economy notes:

"The federal government, through consultations with women's organisations where appropriate, will continue to improve its development, collection and analysis of data (including gender-disaggregated data) to enhance the understanding of issues of concern to women and to provide better information for socio-economic legislation, policy and program development and innovation. The federal government is committed to:

- ◆ enhancing production of the statistical compendium *Women in Canada*, to provide a wide array of data on demographic and socioeconomic indicators;
- ◆ enhancing and undertaking new development of data collection, analysis and publications on women's paid and unpaid contributions to society and the national economy and on more general activity patterns including leisure, family and community activities" (1995a: 31).

Alongside these activities the Canadian government is also committed to more extensive examination of the relation between women's work force participation and women's long-term welfare, women and housing, and gender, immigration and integration. All of these areas will require detailed research carried out by government funding agencies, with a specific focus on gender. Similar commitments are also made in the areas of women's health and violence against women. However, it would have been useful for the *Federal Plan* to be more specific about outputs to be achieved in terms of use of gender-sensitive indicators as well as resources to be devoted towards this area.

The Canadian census and unpaid work

Background

Statistics Canada has been working on the measurement of unpaid work since the early 1970s. In 1978 Statistics Canada published a discussion paper which covered several of the main methodological questions around women's work as well as actual empirical estimates for 1971. Several other publications appeared during the 1970s and 1980s on the value of household production, volunteerism, time-use and the nature of social support. In December 1995 Statistics Canada published a comprehensive report and state of the art literature review entitled *Households' Unpaid Work: Measurement and Valuation*. The ongoing and in-depth discussion of unpaid work over more than two decades was a major contributing factor to the increased recognition of its importance.

Testing of questions

Prior to the 1981 and 1991 censuses, questions were tested relating to unpaid work. However, these questions were not included in the census prior to 1996 for several reasons, which highlight some of the main methodological difficulties relating to the measurement of unpaid work:

- ◆ the questions were considered too complex;
- ◆ there was a concern about respondent burden, that is asking too many questions;
- ◆ more than one question was required. There is an upper limit to the numbers of questions that can be asked in the census, and if questions on unpaid work were included other questions would have to be dropped;
- ◆ respondents had difficulty responding because of the lack of a uniform understanding of what should be included as unpaid work; and
- ◆ respondents had difficulty calculating the number of hours spent on unpaid work.

Questions on unpaid work were further tested in 1993. In this case questions on unpaid work were asked before other employment questions and three simply worded questions were included.

Public consultations

Public consultations were held concerning the inclusion of unpaid work in census questions prior to 1991 and in 1994. The relevant Statistics Canada document (1995b: 43) notes: “Generally, the consultation process revealed considerable confusion regarding the census’s role in the measurement and evaluation of unpaid work. As noted, other sources, such as time-use surveys, are already providing estimates of the volume of unpaid work.” This document goes on to discuss the public consultation process and notes: “advocates for inclusion were in agreement that trying to collect such data would be a difficult task; some suggested a series of seven questions would be a minimum necessary for even rudimentary data, and there was considerable disagreement on the appropriate terminology to use” (1995b: 44).

At the same time an interdepartmental committee with representation from several government department such as Status of Women Canada, Labour Canada and Agriculture Canada was set up to consider this and other gender-related matters.

Out of these consultations, Statistics Canada included questions on unpaid work in the National Census Test of 1993: “in response to the requests made by users during the consultations and incorporates the experience gained in previous rounds of testing ... the discussion at the International Conference on the Measurement and Valuation of Unpaid Work and 11 focus group sessions on various question formats” (1995, 46).

Questions in the 1996 census

Despite the methodological difficulties involved, Statistics Canada decided to include the following questions in the 1996 census:

Last week, how many hours did this person spend doing the following activities:

- ◆ doing unpaid housework, yard work or home maintenance for members of this household, or others;
- ◆ looking after one or more of this person’s own children, or the children of others, without pay;
- ◆ providing unpaid care or assistance to one or more seniors.

While other areas, for example concerning voluntary work, still need to be included, the inclusion of these questions involves a major step forward for the Canadian census and could have an important policy impact related to the status of women.

Lessons learned regarding the Canadian census and unpaid work

- 1 The first lesson of this case study is the attention which should be paid to the methodological approach. For example, sequencing and phrasing of questions must be clearly thought out. Careful testing of questions prior to the census required.
- 2 The second lesson relates to public participation. There was considerable public interest related to the subject of unpaid work, and there were inputs from within and outside government that contributed to the debate around this issue.
- 3 The third lesson relates to the wider issue of social and cultural change in society. Changing ideas about women's roles, the increased participation of women in the workforce and of men in child-care, meant that there is now an increased social understanding of the extent, nature and importance of unpaid work.

Case Study: The Philippines⁴

Background

The Philippines is a good example of a developing country that has made serious attempts to improve its collection, dissemination and use of gender-sensitive indicators, and from which Commonwealth governments can take guidance. The process through which the Philippines established systems for the generation of gender-sensitive indicators is of particular interest.

Statistics in the Philippines

Statistics in the Philippines are collected in the standard fashion, that is through population and housing censuses, household surveys and administrative reporting systems. The demand for gender-related statistics increased after the UN Decade for Women (1975-85). The National Commission on the Role of the Filipino Women (NCRFW) was created in 1975 to give impetus to women's concerns. The need for gender-sensitive indicators increased with the preparation of the Philippine Development Plan for Women (PDPW)(1989-92) and the enactment of the "Women and Development and Nation Building Act" in 1992, which provides women equal rights and opportunities under the law. One of the provisions of this law is the collection of sex-disaggregated data.

Unusually for a Filipino organisation, there is a disproportionate representation of women in key positions in the major statistical agencies of the Philippine Statistical Service. Of the key positions, 34 are held by women and 33 by men. This is not reflective of the national executive government service, where men outnumber women in managerial positions with a ratio of 233 men for every 100 women. This probably had a significant impact on the ability of the NCRFW to carry out its mandate.

The process of identification and collection of gender-sensitive indicators

As a part of the PDPW, the NCRFW created an Interagency Committee on Women and Statistics with membership from relevant executive departments and statistical agencies. A series of briefing sessions was held where each agency representative made a presentation on the kinds of data being generated regularly as well as data which was collected but not processed. These briefings were followed by a workshop, attended by representatives from government agencies, NGOs and academia, which aimed to identify the most appropriate indicators to collect as far as the PDPW was concerned.

NCRFW then initiated a project entitled "Development of Gender-Based Indicator System. Data Assessment and Improvement Plan". This project was carried out by the

Statistical Research and Training Centre of the Philippine Statistical System and had widespread government participation from all major government departments as well as the National Police Commission and the Civil Service Commission. Such widespread participation was seen as crucial in allowing a broad focus on women's status and integrating gender concerns more fully into various departments. This project has established a database at the NCRFW, with relevant information provided by government agencies. The main outputs of this plan were:

- ◆ a listing of gender-sensitive indicators;
- ◆ assessment of gender-specific data requirements and availability; and
- ◆ a data improvement plan.

This has led to the publication of a document entitled *Statistics on the Filipino Woman*, which synthesises available data from different government offices. This document covers the following areas: demography; education, health and housing; labour force and unemployment; government service; politics and public order, safety and justice. It is a comprehensive and well produced document that provides an extensive overview of the status of women in the Philippines.

The NCRFW has also produced a document entitled *Gender-Based Indicators: A Preliminary List* which prioritises a wide range of gender-sensitive indicators that should be collected and analysed relating to demography, economic participation, education and health, community participation and leadership, and crime and violence, including potential sources for this data.

Through these and other related projects the NCRFW has been able to isolate key priority areas where there is insufficient data available on the status of women, for example data on unpaid work, participation in community organisations, violence against women and prostitution and sex trafficking. It is recognised that although the NCRFW has made some advances, a considerable amount of advocacy work still needs to be carried out so that other government departments continue their focus on gender-sensitive indicators.

The effort of the Philippine government is notable in this field because:

- ◆ it has included widespread government participation;
- ◆ it developed a coherent working plan; and
- ◆ it has focused on a wide range of indicators of not only of employment and health and education, but also of empowerment, including political participation.

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Appendix

Illustrative Listing of Indicators in Priority Areas (from UN, 1990a)

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
A Population Composition and Change			
1 Size of the population (annually) and % distributions (infrequently)	Sex, age according to: National or ethnic origin Socioeconomic group	Size of the population Total and % under 15 National or ethnic origin Socioeconomic groups as % of total population	Annual estimates derived from vital registration records or demographic surveys; population census benchmarks
2 Population flows, numbers and rates per 1,000 persons:			
(a) Net changes in population annual estimates; classification for benchmark years only	Sex, age according to: National or ethnic group	Numbers and rates of net changes in population: under age 15, over age 15 and total	Population census supplemented by demographic surveys, annual estimates
(b) Births (annually)	Sex by age of mother according to: National or ethnic origin	Rates of live births in the total population and per 1,000 females of childbearing age Gross or net reproduction rate	Civil registration data; demographic surveys; population census benchmarks
(c) Deaths (annually)	Sex, age according to: National or ethnic origin	Number and rate of deaths in the population.	
(d) Net international migration (annual estimates; classifications infrequently)	Sex, age according to: National or ethnic origin Socioeconomic group (selected categories)	Numbers and rates of net international migration in the total population	Administrative data on migration; sample surveys of in-out migrants; demographic surveys; benchmark estimates from population census data
(e) Net internal migration (benchmark or more frequent estimates)	Sex, age according to: Urban, rural Geographical area Size and type of place	Number and rate of net internal migration of population: Between rural, urban; Out of and into selected geographical areas; Into large places	Internal migration surveys; benchmark estimates from population census data
B Human Settlements and Geographical Distribution			
1 Geographical Distribution of Population and Changes in Distribution			
1 Number, % distribution and densities of population (annual estimates; detailed classification in benchmark years)	Sex, age and socio-economic group or national or ethnic group according to: Urban, rural Geographical area Size and type of place	Number, percentage distribution and density of the population Urban, rural and total Geographical areas Large places	Population censuses; annual estimates derived from civil registration data, demographic surveys, internal migration surveys

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
B Human Settlements and Geographical Distribution			
1 Geographical Distribution of Population and Changes in Distribution <i>continued</i>			
2 Size of the population (annually) and percentage distributions (infrequently)	Size and type of household	Size of the population Total and % under 15.	Population censuses; demographic surveys; annual estimates
3 Population flows, numbers and rates per 1,000 persons (annual estimates or benchmark years):			
(a) Net changes in population	Sex, age and socio-economic group or national or ethnic group according to: Urban, rural Geographical area Size and type of place	Number and rate of net changes in population: Urban, rural and total Geographical area Large places	Population censuses; annual estimates derived from civil registration data, demographic surveys
(b) Births	Adjusted for age of mother in: Urban, rural Geographical area	Gross reproduction: Urban, rural Geographical areas	Annual population estimates; civil registration data
(c) Deaths	Sex, adjusted for age in: Urban, rural Geographical area	Urban, rural Geographical areas	Annual population estimates; civil registration data
B Human Settlements and Geographical Distribution			
2 Housing and its Environment			
1 Stock and characteristics of living quarters (benchmark, and more frequent estimates)	Urban, rural Geographical area Characteristics of living quarters	% of living quarters with one room only: Urban, rural % of living quarters with electric lighting: Urban, rural	Population census data; housing surveys Housing censuses; special studies
2 Number and gross rate of additions to stock of conventional dwellings (annually or less frequently)	Urban, rural Geographical area Size and type of place (lower priority) Characteristics of living quarters (lower priority)	Gross rate of additions to stock of conventional dwellings: Urban, rural and total Large places Geographical areas	Housing censuses; special surveys or studies
3 Ratio of family nuclei to households and dwelling units (infrequently)	Urban, rural Geographical area	Ratio of family nuclei to households (infrequently): Urban, rural and total	Population censuses; special studies

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
B Human Settlements and Geographical Distribution			
2 Housing and its Environment <i>continued</i>			
4 Personal consumption expenditure on housing in current and preferably constant prices (annually or less frequently)	Urban, rural Socioeconomic group Percentile distribution of households according to total household income Size and type of household	Household consumption expenditure on housing as a % of total household consumption expenditure Urban, rural Geographical area Ratio of household consumption expenditure for housing to total consumption expenditure of the population for housing	Household budget surveys; national accounting estimates Household budget surveys, national accounting estimates
5 Gross fixed capital formation in residential buildings (annually or less frequently)	Urban, rural or geographical area Institutional sector	Gross fixed capital formation in residential buildings as a % of gross fixed capital formation	Special studies; national accounting estimates
6 Distribution of population according to characteristics of occupied living quarters (every five or ten years; selected estimates more frequently)	Characteristics of living quarters by selected cross-classifications according to: Urban, rural Geographical area Socioeconomic group Size and type of household	Gross fixed capital formation in residential holdings as a % of gross fixed capital formation % of persons living in squatter or shanty housing (annually/less frequently): Urban, rural and total Large places Percentage of the population homeless: Urban, rural and total Large places % of the population occupying living quarters at densities of 3 or more persons per room: Urban, rural and total Large places Geographical areas % of the population with indoor piped water supply or with access to a piped water supply within 100 metres: Urban, rural Large places % of the population occupying living quarters with toilets: Urban, rural Large places Exclusive/shared	Special studies Population censuses; household surveys; special studies

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
B Human Settlements and Geographical Distribution			
2 Housing and its Environment <i>continued</i>			
		% of the urban population occupying living quarters with flush toilets: Urban, rural and total Geographical areas	Population censuses; household surveys; special studies
		% of the population in living quarters with electric lighting: Urban, rural and total Geographical areas	
7 Households according to type of tenure in living quarters (every five to ten years)	Urban, rural Geographical area Socio-economic group Percentile distribution of households according to total household income	% of households in owner-occupied living quarters: Urban, rural and total Geographical area	Population censuses; housing surveys; special studies
8 Domestic household energy consumption per household and per capita, specified periods (annually)	Urban, rural Geographical area Energy source	Domestic household energy consumption per capita:	Population censuses; energy-use surveys; special studies
9 Per capita time-use or journey to work and travel in connection with household activities specified periods (infrequently)	Sex, age Urban, rural Size and type of place Type of activity Time-use Socioeconomic group	Urban, rural and total Large places	Time-use surveys
C Households and Families, Marital Status, Fertility			
1 Household Size and Composition			
1 Number and % distribution of households (less than annually)	Urban, rural Size and type of household Size and type of family nuclei National or ethnic origin	Number and % of multiperson households with one member only over age 20: Urban, rural and total	Population censuses; demographic surveys; special studies
		% of households with more than two children: Urban, rural and total	Population censuses; demographic surveys; special studies
2 % distribution of population in households by size	Sex and urban/rural according to: Size and type of household Age of members of household	Number and % of households with children under 15 years: Male and female heads Urban rural and total	Population censuses; demographic surveys; special studies

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
C Households and Families, Marital Status, Fertility			
2 Marital and Family Status, Marriages and Divorces			
1 Numbers (annually) and rates (infrequently) of marriages and divorces	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural National or ethnic origin	Average age at first marriage: Male, female Urban, rural and total Proportion of the population ever married, selected ages: Male, female Urban, rural and total	Administrative records; fertility surveys Administrative records; fertility surveys; population censuses
2 Numbers and % of persons not currently married	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural National or ethnic origin	Proportion of the population not married, selected ages: Male, female Urban, rural and total	Administrative records; fertility surveys; population censuses
C Households and Families, Marital Status, Fertility			
3 Fertility			
1 Fertility levels and rates	Total and age specific according to: Urban, rural	Fertility rates: Urban, rural and total	Vital registration records; fertility surveys
D Learning and Educational Services			
1 Educational Attainments and Educational Achievements of the Population			
1 Years of schooling completed (benchmark)	Sex according to: Age Urban, rural Geographical area National or ethnic origin Socioeconomic group	Median years of schooling completed: Ages 15-24, 25+ Urban, rural Geographical areas Selected national or ethnic groups	Population censuses; special surveys or studies
2 Numbers and percentages of literates (less than annually)	Sex according to: Age Urban, rural Geographical area National or ethnic origin Socioeconomic group	Percentage of literates: Ages 15-24, 25+ Urban, rural Geographical area Selected national or ethnic groups	Literacy surveys; population censuses
3 Numbers and proportions of population according to levels of schooling completed (benchmark)	Level of education and sex according to: Age Geographical area Kind of economic activity (where applicable) Occupation (if applicable)	Proportions who have attained specific levels of schooling: first level, second level, third level Ages 15-24, 25+ Urban, rural and total Geographical areas	Population censuses

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
D Learning and Educational Services			
2 Use and Distribution of Educational Services			
1 Numbers and proportions enrolled in regular education (annually, some classifications less frequently)	Level, field of education, type of education and sex according to: Age Urban, rural Geographical area National or ethnic origin Socioeconomic group Institutional sector	Ages 5-9, 10-14, 15-19, 20-24 Urban, rural and total Proportions of population participating in formal and non-formal adult education Age 15+ Male, female Urban, rural	Administrative records from educational institutions
2 Expectation of completed attainment (benchmark estimates)	Sex according to: Age Urban, rural National or ethnic origin	Expectation of level or grade of attainment at school entrance age: Male, female Urban, rural, total	Enrolment data from administrative records from educational institutions; population by age group from life-table estimates of the population derived from population census estimates and civil registration data
3 Time spent on educational activities specified periods (benchmark)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural Level and type of education Time-use	Per capita time spent on formal educational activities: Male, female Urban, rural Ages 5-14, 15-24, 25+	Administrative data from educational institutions; time-use surveys
4 Distance of population from educational institutions (benchmark)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural Level and type of education	Average distance of households from educational institutions: First level, second level Urban, rural	Special surveys or studies
E Health And Health Services, Nutrition			
1 State of Health			
1 Mortality and length of life (a) Mortality and rates of deaths (annually; some classifications less frequently) (b) Expectation of years of life, selected ages (annually or less frequently)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural Geographical area Socioeconomic group Causes of death (broad groups) Sex, age Urban, rural National or ethnic origin Socioeconomic group	Proportions among live deaths of intenal and maternal deaths: Urban, rural and total Geographical areas Rates of death: Male, female Ages 1-4, 5-14, 15-24, 25-44 Urban, rural and total Expectation of life: Ages 0, 1, 15, 45 Urban, rural and total	Health service records; demographic surveys; special studies Population censuses; vital registration records; life table estimates

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
E Health And Health Services, Nutrition			
1 State of Health <i>continued</i>			
2 Morbidity impairments and handicaps			
(a) Number and/or incidence of selected communicable diseases of public health importance (annually)	Sex, age Urban, rural Geographical area Selected diseases	Number and/or incidence in the population of selected communicable diseases of public health importance	Health service records; special studies Population censuses; special surveys and registers where applicable
(b) Number and proportion of persons with selected chronic function disabilities specified periods (infrequently)	Sex, age Rural, urban Impairments and handicaps	Rate in the population of blindness, one or more limbs missing etc.: Male, female Urban, rural and total	
E Health And Health Services, Nutrition			
2 Nutrition			
1 Per capita energy (calories) intake and food consumption, specified periods (infrequently)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural Geographical area Classification of population according to energy requirements Classification of food according to energy values Percentile groups of households according to total household incomes	Percentage of the population with adequate energy (calories) intakes: Age 0-1, 1-4, 15+, 5-14, 15+ Pregnant and nursing mothers Urban, rural and total Geographical area	Food balance sheets
2 Per capita intake of protein, specified periods (infrequently)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural Geographical area Classification of population according to energy requirements Classification of food according to energy values		Food consumption surveys and estimates
3 Total and per capita supply of energy (calories), specified periods (annually)	Geographical area Classification of foods according to energy values	Per capita supply of energy (calories), specified periods Urban, rural and total Geographical area Quantity index of food consumption of food supplies per capita: Urban, rural and total Geographical area	Food balance sheets Food consumption surveys and estimates
4 Rate of subclinical protein-calorie malnutrition among children (infrequently)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural Geographical area Nutrition standards Classification of anthropometric standards Socioeconomic group	Percentage of children with subclinical protein-calories malnutrition: Ages 0-4, 5-14 Urban, rural and total Geographical areas	Health surveys, special studies

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
E Health And Health Services, Nutrition			
3 Availability, Use and Performance of Health Services			
1 Proportion of births attended by physicians or trained auxiliary personnel (annually)	Urban, rural Geographical area Socioeconomic group	Proportion of births so attended: Urban, rural and total Geographical area	Hospital records; health surveys; special studies
2 Number and ratio in the population of health services personnel (annually or less frequently)	Geographical area Educational Attainment Services	Ratio per 100,000 persons of health services personnel: Geographical area	Hospital records; population censuses; health surveys; special studies
3 Number and ratio to the population of hospital beds (annually)	Geographical area Services Institutional sector		Hospital records; population estimates
4 Number and rate in the population of hospital beds (annually)	Geographical area Classification of diseases(broad groups) Socioeconomic group		Hospital records
5 Percentage of the population served by and number and rate of visits of the population to primary health services posts (infrequently)	Urban, rural Geographical area Classification of diseases (broad categories)	Proportion of the population visiting trained health personnel (annually or less frequently); Urban, rural and total Geographical area	Hospital records; health surveys
6 Total and per capita total consumption expenditures on health services (annually or less frequently)	Geographical area Goods and services Institutional sector	Total annual consumption expenditure on health services as a percentage of GDP	Household budget surveys; national accounting estimates
7 Proportions of children immunised against specified diseases (less than annually)	Age Urban, rural or geographical area Classification of diseases	Proportion aged 5-14 immunised against diphtheria, pertussis, tetanus, poliomyelitis, measles (examples): Urban, rural and total Geographical area	Health service records; health surveys
F Economic Activity and Population not Economically Active			
1 Labour Force Participation			
1 Numbers and rates of labour force participation, specified periods (annually or more frequently)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural Geographical area National or ethnic origin Socioeconomic group Educational attainment Occupation	Rates of labour-force participation: Male, female Ages 15-19, 10-24, 25+ Urban, rural and total	Population censuses; households surveys
2 Numbers and proportions labour force who are first-time entrants (annual estimates)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural or geographical area Educational attainment	Proportions of labour force who are first-time entrants: Male, female Ages 15-24, 25-44 Urban, rural and total	Population censuses; households surveys

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
F Economic Activity and Population not Economically Active			
1 Labour Force Participation <i>continued</i>			
3 Numbers and proportions of labour force who die, retire or emigrate per year (benchmark estimates)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural or geographical area Socioeconomic group	Proportions of labour force who die or retire: Male, female	Establishment censuses and surveys; immigration records; special studies
4 Numbers and proportions of population not in the labour force, specified periods (annually)	Sex and age according to: Type of activity Urban, rural Geographic area National or ethnic origin Size and type of household	Proportion of the population inactive: Male, female Ages 15-24, 25+ Urban only Proportion of labour force who emigrate: Male, female Selected socio-economic groups	Population censuses; household surveys
5 Numbers and proportion of persons devoting time to, and average amounts of their time spent on work and work-related activities, specified periods (annually or less frequently)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural Time-use Socio-economic group Size and type of household Type of activity	Average number of weeks worked during year, all members of the labour force (annually or less frequently): Male, female Ages 10-14, 15-19, 20+ Urban, rural and total	Population censuses; household surveys; time-use surveys
F Economic Activity and Population not Economically Active			
2 Employment Opportunities and Mobility			
1 Number and proportion of the labour force unemployed, specified periods (annually or more frequently)	Sex according to: Age Urban, rural or geographical area Size and types of place Educational attainment Socio-economic group Size and type of household	Proportion of labour force unemployed: Male, female Ages 15-24, 25+ Urban only Proportion of married men unemployed Ages 15-24, 25-29 Urban and rural	Population censuses; household surveys, labour exchange records; social security registers
F Economic Activity and Population not Economically Active			
3 Employment Compensation			
1 Total and per employee wages and salaries in current and constant prices, specified periods (annually or more frequently)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural Geographical area National or ethnic origin Occupation In cash, kind Kind of economic activity	Mean or median weekly or monthly wages and salaries: Male, female Total and selected occupations Urban, rural and total Geographical areas	Establishment surveys; household surveys, national accounting estimates
2 Primary income, total and per recipient in current and constant prices, specified periods (annually or more frequently)	Sex and age according to: Urban, rural Geographical area Kind of economic activity	Mean or median monthly primary income: Urban, rural and total Geographical areas	Household surveys; population censuses; special studies

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
F Economic Activity and Population not Economically Active			
3 Employment Compensation <i>continued</i>			
3 Mean or median hourly wage or salary rate at current and constant prices, specified periods (annually or more frequently)	Sex, age Urban, rural or geographical area Level of education completed Kind of economic activity Occupation	Mean or median hourly wage rate: Male, female Urban, rural and total Total and selected categories of economic activity Geographical areas	Establishment censuses or surveys; household surveys; population censuses; special studies
F Economic Activity and Population not Economically Active			
4 Working Conditions			
1 Average hours of work, specified periods (annually or more frequently)	Sex, age Urban rural Seasonal and part-time workers Socioeconomic group Time-use	Average hours worked per week: Male, female Urban only Total and selected categories of economic activity	Establishment surveys; household surveys; time-use surveys; special studies
2 Rate per 100,000 work-hours, permanently disabling injuries and deaths annually	Sex, age Urban, rural Occupation Causes of death Impairments and handicaps	Rate per 100,000 work-hours: Permanently disabling injuries and deaths Selected categories of economic activity	Administrative records; establishment censuses or surveys; special studies
G Economic Indicators			
1 National Accounts			
1 Gross domestic products and per capita GDP	Industry group at current and constant prices Per capita at current and constant prices	Total and per capita GDP by industry group at: Current and constant prices	National accounting estimates
2 Compensation of employees	Industry group at current and constant prices	Compensation of employees by industry group at current and constant prices	National accounting estimates
3 Gross accumulation	Total and gross fixed capital formation	Gross fixed capital formation at current and constant prices	National accounting estimates
4 Financing of gross accumulation	Total and saving	Financing of gross accumulation Savings	National accounting estimates
5 Private consumption expenditure of households	Expenditure groups Current and constant prices	Private consumption expenditure at current and constant prices according to: Expenditure groups	National accounting estimates

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
G Economic Indicators			
1 National Accounts <i>continued</i>			
6 Income and outlay of households	Current receipts = disbursements	Current receipts by types: Compensation of employees Operating surplus Property income receivable Current transfers Current transfers: (a) From government: -Social assistance grants -Social security benefits -Unfunded employee welfare benefits -Other	National accounting estimates
G Economic Indicators			
2 Government Expenditure (a) Allocation of Government Expenditure			
1 Total government expenditure and as percentage of GDP	Type	Allocation on: Administrative services Social services (education, health, housing, security, other) Economic services	Government expenditure statements
G Economic Indicators			
2 Government Expenditure (b) Social Security and Welfare Services			
1 Proportion of persons and households at risk covered by social security and similar schemes by types (annually or less frequently)	Sex, age (where applicable) according to: Urban, rural or geographical area Type of benefit Type of activity Socioeconomic group	Percentage of the labour force covered by old-age insurance of similar pension schemes: Male, female Urban only	Social security records; households surveys; special studies
2 Proportion of potentially eligible persons and households receiving social insurance social assistance and similar benefits, by types of programme and average benefits per person and per households in current or, preferably, constant prices (annually or less frequently)	Sex and age (where applicable) according to: Urban, rural or geographical area Type of benefit Socioeconomic group	Percentage of the labour force receiving unemployment or similar benefits: Male, female Urban only Percentage of the population age 65+ receiving old age pensions or similar assistance: Male, female Urban, rural	Social security records; household surveys; special studies Social security records; households surveys; special studies

Field of Social Concerns and Series	Classification	Social and Economic Indicators	Sources of Data
G Economic Indicators			
3 Public and Private Debt			
1 Stock of debt, total and as percentage of GDP	Stock of debt according to: Public and private	Total and as percentage of GDP Private debt as percentage of total debt	Government financial records; national accounting estimates
2 Debt payments, interest and repayments	Public and private debt payments according to: Interest payments Repayments	Percentage annual expenditure by Government spent on: Interest payments Repayments Percentage of government expenditure including/excluding debt payments on: Social services	Government financial records Balance of payments estimates
3 Balance of payments for goods and services	Exports and imports of goods and services	Total recurrent debt payments as percentage of balance-of payments surplus (deficit)	Balance-of-payments estimates; government financial records
G Economic Indicators			
4 Price Statistics			
1 Consumer price indices	Expenditure groups	Indices of consumer prices by expenditure groups; Urban, rural and total	Estimate of the movement of consumer prices

