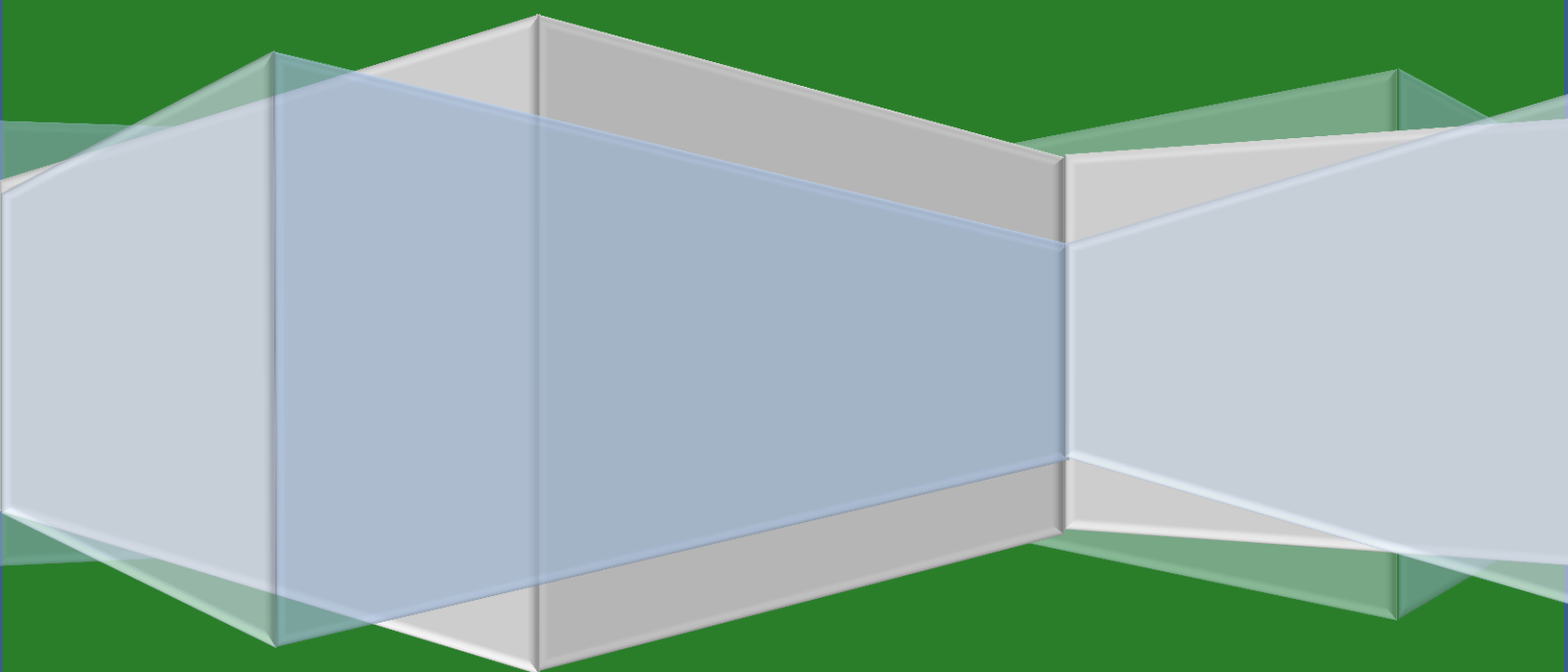


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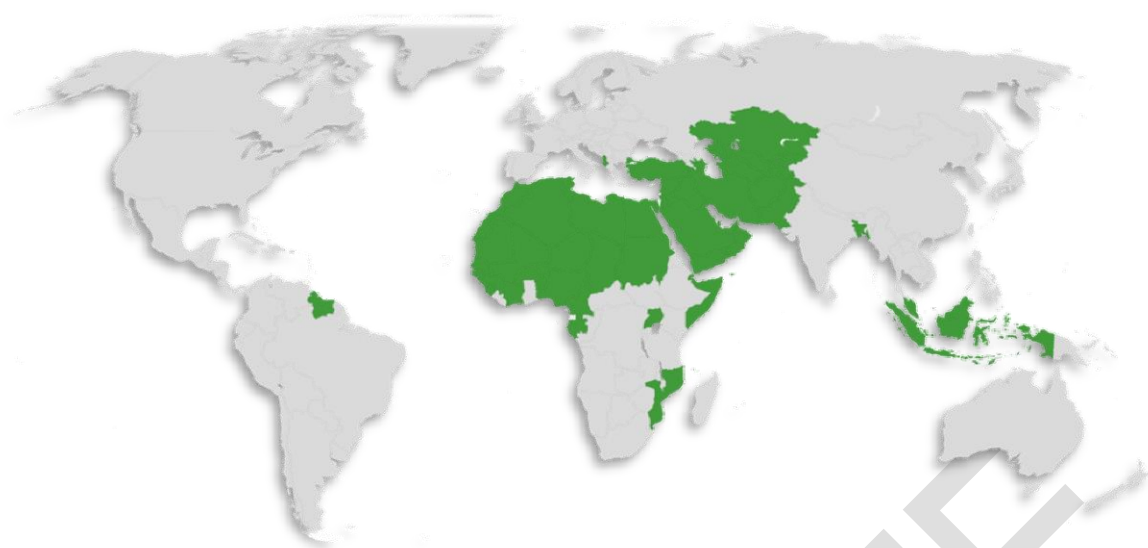
Introduction to Gender and special population groups statistics

TEXTBOOK



ORGANISATION OF ISLAMIC COOPERATION
STATISTICAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL RESEARCH
AND TRAINING CENTRE FOR ISLAMIC COUNTRIES





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TEXTBOOK

Manal SWEIDAN



ORGANISATION OF ISLAMIC COOPERATION

STATISTICAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL RESEARCH
AND TRAINING CENTRE FOR ISLAMIC COUNTRIES

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ACRONYMS

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
DOS	Department of Statistics
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
ILO	International Labor Organization
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNSTAT	United Nation Statistical Division
WHO	World Health Organization

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The present publication looked at the facts and trends surrounding the various dimensions of gender statistics in the context of the development process: although many women around the world continue to struggle with gender-based disadvantages, much has changed for the better and at a more rapid pace than ever before. But that progress needs to be expanded, protected, and deepened. While development has closed some gender gaps, other gaps persist, including excess deaths of girls and women, disparities in girls' schooling, unequal access to economic opportunities, and differences in voice within the household and in society.

It is hoped that the present publication will be used to advance an enabling social and economic environment that will ensure equal treatment of all women and men and significantly improve the status of women in the world. It should also help Governments, researchers, scholars, non-governmental organizations and concerned citizens around the world in their efforts to ensure that every single woman achieves her full potential.

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TEMPLATE

UNIT 1

Gender Statistics: an overview

This chapter deals with the concepts of gender statistics and special population groups for producers, stressing the importance of gender-sensitive statistics for policies targeting sustainable development and social equity.

Learning Objective for this chapter will be:

1. Define “gender statistics”
2. Introduce the importance of gender in statistics to the learner

1.1 Introduction

One of the concrete outcomes of the Fourth World Conference on Women has been an overwhelming demand for statistics and indicators on gender issues. Similarly there has been a growing recognition that statistics and indicators are needed for improving policy formulation and for monitoring progress towards targets. Moreover, the demand for statistical information by the media, policy makers and the scientific world has grown considerably together with the rapid and substantial changes that have characterized the lifestyles of men and women in the society. For this reason, the national statistical offices are facing a growing demand for more timely and detailed statistics.

Statistics and indicators that reflect the realities of the lives of women and men are needed to describe their role in the society, economy and family, formulate and monitor policies and plans, monitor changes, and inform the public. Gender statistics have the function of pointing out gender-related changes in society over time, and therefore to measure whether or to what extent gender equality is being achieved. The compilation of gender equality statistics relies on international monitoring initiatives and takes into account the existing demand for statistical information in this field at national and international levels.

1.2 What are gender statistics

Gender statistics are defined as statistics that adequately reflect differences and inequalities in the situation of women and men in all areas of life (United Nations, 2006). This definition closely follows the Beijing Platform for Action adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, which requested national, regional and international statistical services to “ensure that statistics related to individuals are collected, compiled, analysed and presented by

sex and age and reflect problems, issues and questions related to women and men in society” (United Nations, 1995, para 206 (a)). This means that gender statistics is not a discrete or isolated field of statistics, it cuts across the traditional fields to identify, produce and disseminate statistics that reflect the realities of the lives of women and men and policy issues relating to gender equality. Such information is vital to inform policy and decision-makers and to make advances towards achieving gender equality.

There are several requirements imbedded in the definition of gender statistics: First, gender statistics have to reflect gender issues - questions, problems and concerns related to all aspects of women’s and men’s lives, including their specific needs, opportunities, or contributions to society. In every society there are differences between what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman and what is expected allowed and valued in a man. These differences have a specific impact on women’s and men’s lives throughout all life stages, and determine, for example, differences in health, education, work, family life, or general well-being.

Producing gender statistics entails disaggregating individual data by sex and other characteristics to reveal those differences or inequalities, and collecting data on specific issues that affect one sex more than the other or relate to gender relations between women and men. Second, gender statistics should adequately reflect differences and inequalities in the situation of women and men. It means that concepts and definitions used in data collection are developed in such a way that the diversity of various groups of women and men, their specific activities and challenges are captured. Also, data collection should be based on methods that reduce gender bias, such as underreporting of women’s economic activity, underreporting of violence against women, or undercounting of girls, their births or their deaths.

In summary, gender statistics are defined by the sum of the following characteristics:

- a) Selection of topics to be investigated
- b) Identification of statistics to be collected to reflect the gender issues in society.
- c) Formulation of concepts and definitions that adequately reflect the diversities of women and men in society.
- d) Development of data collection methods that take into account stereotypes and social and cultural factors that might produce gender based biases.
- e) Development of analyses and presentation of data that can reach policy makers and the largest audience possible.

1.3 The importance of gender statistics

Similar to other statistics, gender statistics have to respond to the needs of policy makers, advocates, researchers, the media and the public. Gender statistics are important for the following reasons¹:

(a) Gender statistics promote understanding of the actual situation of women and men in society.

Gender statistics are about everybody and each of us, women or men. The production of gender statistics has the role of informing the public and the media, raise consciousness, encourage public debate, and promote change in society. Dissemination of gender statistics to a large audience is crucial in reducing gender stereotypes and misrepresentation of the roles of women and men and their contribution to society; and promoting a new gender balance in the distribution of roles within the family, at the workplace and in positions of decision-making.

(b) Gender statistics are crucial in advancing data-based gender analysis and research.

Gender statistics provide researchers and analysts with the quantitative evidence necessary to assess gender gaps in all areas of life; understand the interlinks between cultural, social and economic factors that are at the basis of gender inequality, and their dynamic over time; and evaluate the implications of unequal access of women and men to social and economic opportunities.

(c) Gender statistics are used in monitoring progress toward gender equality and full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental rights by women and girls.

Gender equality means equal opportunities, rights and responsibilities for women and men, girls and boys (United Nations, 2002). Equality does not mean that women and men are the same or have to do the same things, but that women's and men's opportunities, rights and responsibilities do not depend on whether they are born female or male; and it implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men should be taken into consideration (United Nations, 2002). Gender statistics can point out gender-related changes over time and thus measure whether the goal of gender equality is being achieved.

¹ <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/genderstatmanual/>

(d) Gender statistics provide an evidence base for developing and monitoring policies and programs oriented toward increased investments in human capital and labor force.

Gender statistics can show whether women and men have unequal access to education, health, or economic resources and orient policies toward improving the opportunities of the disadvantaged sex and a more effective use of both female and male human resources. Furthermore, gender statistics can help understanding the causes of gender inequality in access to all types of resources. This aspect is very important, because policies tend to be more effective when targeting the causes of gender inequality, the structures and practices that perpetuate inequalities, and not merely the outcome of gender inequality in an unjust and unsustainable development process (United Nations, 2002).

(e) Gender statistics have a crucial role in gender mainstreaming in development and poverty reduction policies.

Use of gender statistics can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the gender dimensions of poverty, which in turn, can significantly change priorities in policy and program interventions (World Bank, 2002). Gender statistics can address multiple dimensions of poverty and inequality, including gender-based asset inequality, intra-household allocation of resources, time poverty, or vulnerability to external shocks. Understanding the gendered nature of poverty will significantly improve both the equity and efficiency of poverty reduction strategies (World Bank, 2002).

(f) Gender statistics have an important role in developing and monitoring policies on reduction of violence against women

Violence against women is an obstacle to the achievement of the objectives of equality, development and peace (United Nations, 1995). Statistics on prevalence of various types of violence; causes and consequences of violence; and access to formal and informal support for victims of violence can lead to better focused and more efficient preventive and intervention efforts.

1.4 Intersection of gender with other social groups

The dissection of the population into men and women is usually cross-cut by other social groups. The nature and implications of these intersections always need to be considered when producing gender statistics. Women and men are not homogenous groups. There are significant differences between women and men depending on age, education, and other significant categories. It is important to be careful about generalizations about women or men that might be

misleading because of this diversity. There are also important gender differences associated with ethnicity, religion, disability and sexual orientation, as well as with migration and citizenship status. Further distinctions may be based on urban/rural residence. In some instances these intersections may simply lead to one form of disadvantage being added to another, while in other cases, there may be a multiplicative effect. Women in some population groups can face discriminatory behavior due to differing gender roles in their own community. For example, as shown in a study carried out by the United Nations Children's Fund UNICEF on early marriage in Jordan 2014 that the highest percentage of girls who married before age 18, (16 per cent) from men aged 15 or more years older than them were Syrian, compared to Palestinian and Iraqi girls (each at 6 per cent) and Jordanian girls (7 per cent). Therefore, It is important, wherever possible, to gather and present data disaggregated not only by sex but also by other social dimensions in order to assess the different situations.

EXERCISES

Answer the following multiple choice questions. For each question, choose the correct answer from among the five choices².

- 1) Gender statistics are important for:
 - a) Monitoring progress toward gender equality.
 - b) Developing and monitoring policies on reduction of violence against women.
 - c) Understanding of the actual situation of women and men in society.
 - d) All of the options given are correct.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.
- 2) Gender Equality means:
 - a) Equal opportunities, rights and responsibilities for women and men, girls and boys.
 - b) Women's and men's opportunities do not depend on whether they are born female or male.
 - c) Interests, needs and priorities of both women and men should be taken into consideration.
 - d) None of the answers given are correct.
 - e) All of the options given are correct.
- 3) Gender statistics are defined as:
 - a) Statistics that adequately reflect differences and inequalities in the situation of women and men in all areas of life.
 - b) It cuts across the traditional fields of statistics to identify, produce and disseminate statistics.
 - c) Gender statistics is a discrete and isolated field of statistics.
 - d) Answer (a) plus answer (b).
 - e) Answer (a) plus answer (c).
- 4) Which of the following statements regarding producing gender statistics is correct?:
 - a) Gender statistics entails disaggregating individual data by sex.
 - b) Concepts and definitions used in data collection are developed so that the diversity of various groups of women and men, their activities and challenges are captured.
 - c) Data collection should be based on methods that reduce gender bias.

² Correct answers are provided in Annex 2

- d) None of the answers given are correct.
 - e) All of the options given are correct
- 5) Gender statistics have to respond to the needs of:
- a) Policy makers.
 - b) Advocates.
 - c) Media and the public.
 - d) All of the options given are correct.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.
- 6) Intersection of gender with other social groups means:
- a) Gender differences are associated with ethnicity, religion, disability and sexual orientation.
 - b) The dissection of the population into men and women is usually cross-cut by other social groups.
 - c) Women and men are homogenous groups therefore generalizations about women or men might be acceptable.
 - d) All of the options given are correct.
 - e) Answer (a) plus answer (b).

UNIT 2

Gender Statistics in the policy-making process

This chapter discusses the growing importance of gender issues in development policy-making and planning. It emphasizes the essential need for better statistics in this domain. It calls for clear identification of men's and women's specific situations and a quantification of their economic and social contributions, both women and men production units make a vital contribution to the societies and economies of countries.

Learning objective for this chapter will be:

- To increase awareness of gender-related issues through the understanding and interpretation of gender-sensitive statistics that will help inspiring policy makers in the lead to promoting gender equality and women's empowerment.

2.1 Gender statistics from international perspective

For several years now, governments and development agencies have given top priority to gender issues in development planning and policies. Gender equity, concerning resource access and allocation as well as opportunities for social and economic advancement, has been a prominent item on the agendas of all recent international meetings, which have also investigated the basic link between gender equity and sustainable development, defining specific mechanisms and objectives for international cooperation.

At the international level, a series of United Nations intergovernmental resolutions provide a mandate for the development of policies on the advancement of women and gender equality, as well as for the statistics required for the development of these policies. These include the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1979 and the Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995.

The 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing, focused on the importance Gender issues, drawing up an agenda to strengthen the status of women and adopting a declaration and platform for action aimed at overcoming the barriers to gender equity and guaranteeing women's active participation in all spheres of life. Governments, the international

community and civil society, including NGOs and the private sector, were called upon to take strategic action in the following critical areas of concern³ :

- a. The persistent and increasing burden of poverty on women;
- b. Inequalities and inadequacies in, and unequal access to, education and training;
- c. Inequalities and inadequacies in, and unequal access to, health care and related services;
- d. Violence against women;
- e. The effects of armed or other kinds of conflict on women, including those living under foreign occupation;
- f. Inequality in economic structures and policies, in all forms of productive activities and in access to resources;
- g. Inequality between men and women in the sharing of power and decision-making, at all levels;
- h. Insufficient mechanisms, at all levels, to promote the advancement of women;
- i. Lack of respect for, and inadequate promotion and protection of, the human rights of women;
- j. Stereotyping of women and inequality in women's access to, and participation in, all communication systems, especially the media;
- k. Gender inequalities in the management of natural resources and the safeguarding of the environment;
- l. Persistent discrimination against and violation of the rights of, the girl-child.

Governments and international organizations were urged to promote the search for, and the dissemination of, information on the main aspects of gender issues, and to encourage the production and dissemination of gender-specific statistics for programme planning and evaluation.

Specific recommendations concerning statistics were formulated. Strategic objective H.34 of the Platform for Action states that all statistics concerning individuals should be gathered, compiled, analyzed and presented as gender-disaggregated data, mirroring the concerns and issues of women in society. Data should, therefore⁴:

- Measure the full contributions of women and men to the economy;

³ UN. 1995. Critical areas of concern. In Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4-15 September 1995, Chapter III, Item 44, p. 23, United Nations A7CONF.177/20.

⁴ Ibid, p. 106, Strategic Objective H3: Generate and disseminate gender-disaggregated data and information for planning and evaluation.

- Measure unpaid work in agriculture, particularly subsistence agriculture, and other types of non-market production activities included in the UN System of National Accounts;
- Develop methods for the quantitative measurement of unremunerated work that is outside the UN System of National Accounts, such as caring for dependents and preparing food, for possible inclusion in satellite or other official accounts that may be produced separately from the National Accounts;
- Develop an international classification of unremunerated work activities for measurement in time-use studies;
- Measure underemployment of men and women;
- Define concepts and methods to measure poverty and access to resources;
- Strengthen systems for gathering essential statistics and incorporate gender analysis;
- Develop data on morbidity and access to health services;
- Develop improved data on all forms of violence against women;
- Develop data collection on women and men with disabilities, including data on their access to resources

The Platform also formulated specific recommendations concerning national statistics. Governments were urged to review their statistics systems' coverage of gender considerations, disseminate statistics periodically in appropriate published forms for a wide range of users and utilize gender-specific data in the formulation of sustainable development policies and programmes.

Gender equality is also a fundamental component of the Millennium Declaration (UN, 2000), adopted by all Member States of the United Nations in 2000⁵ (See Box 1). The eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) provide a framework for measuring progress towards fulfilling the commitments of the Millennium Declaration. Goal 3 explicitly calls for gender equality and the empowerment of women, with the associated indicators relating to education, employment and decision-making. However, ensuring gender equality is essential for achieving all the other goals and countries are asked to provide sex-disaggregated data wherever applicable when reporting on progress.

It is important to mention that as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) reach their deadline at the end of this year, new global targets are now under construction to replace them. The upcoming Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which will take effect in 2016 and last until 2030 will include 17 new goals, which cover the broad themes of the MDGs; ending

⁵ <http://www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.htm>

poverty and hunger, and improving health, education, and gender equality. However, they also include specific goals to reduce inequality, make cities safe, address climate change and promote peaceful societies. This new set of goals will be universal; all countries will be required to consider them when making their national policies.

Box 1: UN Millennium Development Goals

Goal 1 Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Goal 2 Achieve universal primary education

Goal 3 Promote gender equality and empower women

Goal 4 Reduce child mortality

Goal 5 Improve maternal health

Goal 6 Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

Goal 7 Ensure environmental sustainability

Goal 8 Develop a global partnership for development

In the new development agenda, UN Women has advocated for a stand-alone goal to achieve gender equality (see table one), women's rights, and women's empowerment. Moreover they also called for the integration of gender equality throughout the other goals and priorities in the post-2015 agenda, with clear targets and indicators. This has been achieved. SDG number 5 is to achieve gender equality and to empower all women and girls. The goal includes violence against women, harmful practices, social protection, shared household work, equal opportunities for leadership roles, economic resources, ownership to land and property, inheritance, and policy and legislations for the promotion of gender equality.

Table 1: Suggested SDG Indicators for Goal 5⁶
Goal 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls
Indicators
Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote equality and nondiscrimination on the basis of sex.
Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15-49) subjected to physical and/or sexual violence by a current or former intimate partner, in the last 12 months.
Proportion of women and girls (aged 15-49) subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner, since age 15.
Percentage of women aged 20-24 who were married or in a union before age 18 (i.e. child marriage).
Percentage of girls and women aged 15-49 years who have undergone FGM/C, by age group (for relevant countries only).

⁶ Based on the summary of inputs provided by Members of the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goal Indicators (IAEG-SDGs) in the 'List of Proposals' from 11 August 2015 and the comments received during the Open Consultation of Members and Observers contained in the document "Summary of Comments

Table 1: Suggested SDG Indicators for Goal 5⁶
Goal 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls
Indicators
Average daily (24 hours) spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location (for individuals five years and above).
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments.
Proportion of seats held by women in local governments.
Proportion of women (aged 15-49) who make their own sexual and reproductive decisions.
Proportion of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee all women and adolescents access to sexual and reproductive health services, information and education (official records).
Share of women among agricultural land owners by age and location (U/R).
The legal framework includes special measures to guarantee women's equal rights to land ownership and control.
Proportion of individuals who own a mobile, telephone, by sex.
Percentage of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment.

Furthermore, following the recommendations by the United Nations Statistical Commission (decision 42/102), and as reported to its forty-fourth session (E/CN.3/2013/10), the Inter-agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics through its Advisory Group on Global Gender Statistics and Indicators Database, including experts from national statistical systems and international agencies, identified a minimum set of gender indicators composed of 52 quantitative indicators grouped into three tiers and 11 qualitative indicators covering national norms and laws on gender equality.

The selection of the 52 quantitative indicators was guided by the primary criterion that indicators should address key policy concerns as identified in the Beijing Platform for Action and other more recent international commitments. The 52 indicators were agreed by the Commission as a guide for the national production and international compilation of gender statistics through its decision 44/109 (see annex 1).

In addition, the selected 52 indicators were further classified into the following tiers:

- Tier 1. Indicators conceptually clear, with an agreed international definition and regularly produced by countries.
- Tier 2. Indicators conceptually clear, with an agreed international definition, but not yet regularly produced by countries.
- Tier 3. Indicators for which international standards need still to be developed and not regularly produced by countries.

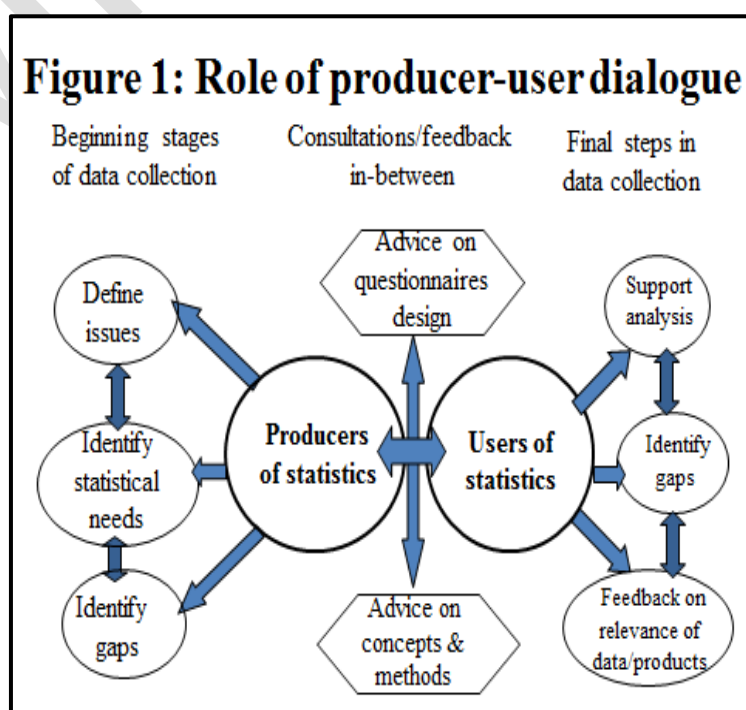
Moreover, the gender indicators were distributed by the following domains

- Gender indicators:
 - I. Economic structures, participation in productive activities and access to resources
 - II. Education
 - III. Health and related services
 - IV. Public life and decision-making
 - V. Human rights of women and the girl child
- Gender indicators related to national norms:
 - I. Economic structures, participation in productive activities and access to resources
 - IV. Public life and decision-making
 - V. Human rights of women and the girl child

2.2 Gender statistics in the public and policy-making spheres

As gender issues move forward in national and global agendas, new demands are created for statistics. Policy makers, researchers and advocates request additional data and argue, more generally, that the gender perspective should be a basic assumption guiding which data to collect and to analyze. In this way, gender statistics raise consciousness and provide the impetus for public debate and change. In addition, gender statistics have uses in areas of policy. In many instances, social and economic policies are affected by gender dimensions. In these cases, the availability of the evidence base to support gender analysis is important to the investigation, since without an understanding of the differences in the operation and effects of the policy on different population groups, such as on women and men, the full implications of the policy may not be understood and its objectives may not be fulfilled.

Underlying all of these uses for gender statistics is their role in improving statistical systems. It is important to have a dialogue between producers and users of gender statistics (see figure 1). For example, gender specialists bring their own demands for data and in doing so identify deficiencies in the



data currently available to them. They push for improvements in the concepts, methods, topics and data series to reflect better the activities and contributions made by women as well as by men. While responding to the demands of data users, it is important that statisticians take into account stereotypes and social, cultural factors that might produce gender bias. The result of such efforts is often not simply better information on women and men, but improvements in measuring the realities of economic and social life

2.3 Integrating gender statistics in the policy- making process

The availability and accessibility of gender-sensitive data are instrumental to the development and implementation of policies that can facilitate the achievement of national and international objectives. Policy-makers represent strategic users of gender statistical data. There are certain steps in the policy-making process where gender data producers should interact quite closely with policy makers so the role and responsibilities of both actors are clear and respected. Those steps are:

- **Use of gender analysis for policy actions:**

From a gender perspective, the hope is that policies will promote movement towards gender equality. It would, of course, be immature to assume that policy is often based mainly on facts and figures. Many different forces influence policy. However, the existence of reliable facts and figures strengthens the hand of any policy proponent. It also promotes the development of 'evidence-based' policy, rather than policy that is driven by supposition or ideology. Further, it promotes sensible debate among policy makers on the different options.

- **Identification of gaps and formulation of new questions:**

Ideally, governments should be monitoring policy implementation in respect of both outputs (deliverables) and outcomes (impact on the society). Other actors might be monitoring the impact of policies seen to have potential to address gender issues. For example, an organization working in the area of women's health might monitor the impact of a new policy approach in respect of contraception, while an NGO providing services for battered women might monitor the impact of the introduction of interdicts, such as removing a violent partner from the family home. This monitoring process might lead back to the beginning of the chain by establishing that there are areas where knowledge is lacking.

EXERCISES

Answer the following multiple choice questions. For each question, choose the correct answer from among the five choices⁷.

- 1) The 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing, focused on critical areas of concern among them :
 - a) The persistent and increasing burden of poverty on women.
 - b) Inequalities and inadequacies in, and unequal access to, education and training.
 - c) Persistent discrimination against and violation of the rights of, the girl-child.
 - d) All of the options given are correct.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.

- 2) The Millennium Development Goal (MDG) that explicitly calls for gender equality and the empowerment of women was :
 - a) Goal one.
 - b) Goal eight.
 - c) Goal three.
 - d) All of the options given are correct.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.

- 3) The upcoming Sustainable Development Goal (SDG), which cover gender equality and empowering all women and girls is :
 - a) Goal five.
 - b) Goal eight.
 - c) Goal three.
 - d) Goal one.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.

- 4) Integrating gender statistics in the policy- making process requires:
 - a) The use of gender analysis for policy actions.
 - b) Having data at the aggregate level .
 - c) Identification of gaps and formulation of new questions.
 - d) Answer (a) plus answer (c).
 - e) Answer (a) plus answer (b).

⁷ Correct answers are provided in Annex 2

- 5) A dialogue between producers and users of gender statistics will improve the statistical systems in the following areas :
- a) Identify deficiencies in the data currently available.
 - b) Push for improvements in the concepts, methods, topics and data series.
 - c) Better information for measuring the realities of men and women in economic and social life.
 - d) All of the options given are correct.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.
- 6) Which of the following statements are correct?:
- a) While responding to the demands of data users, statisticians should take into account stereotypes, social and cultural factors that might produce gender bias.
 - b) Policy-makers do not represent strategic users of gender statistical data.
 - c) Statisticians should ignore stereotypes, social and cultural factors that might produce gender bias.
 - d) All of the options given are correct.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.

UNIT 3

Gender Statistics to improve national statistical systems

This chapter shed light on the fact that gender-specific statistics represent a new field of research that far outstrips the simple breakdown of data by sex. Involving various stages of production, it is based on concepts and definitions which mirror the full diversity of gender differentiation in society, as well as gender interaction. The design stage is complemented by the utilization of data collection, processing and dissemination methods that have effectively neutralize the underlying stereotyping and cultural factors that promote gender bias and foster erroneous policies.

Learning objective for this chapter will be:

- To inspire the learner of the importance of collecting adequate and relevant sex-disaggregated baseline information, and use gender responsive indicators and monitoring processes as a minimum standard for activity design, implementation and monitoring.

3.1. Making gender statistics visible in statistics

Until a few years ago, the demand for specific data and indicators incorporating a gender perspective was limited to advocates of the rights of women and disadvantaged groups. Nowadays, the user audience has expanded to include decision-makers at every level and in every area of social and economic development. There is greater general awareness of the need for a gender perspective in development policy formulation, and of the corresponding need for pertinent statistics. At the same time, as reliable data become available, they help to promote and justify change and to dissipate doubts and skepticism with respect to the relevance of innovative approaches such as the gender perspective.

In short, statistics incorporating a gender perspective are now essential for:

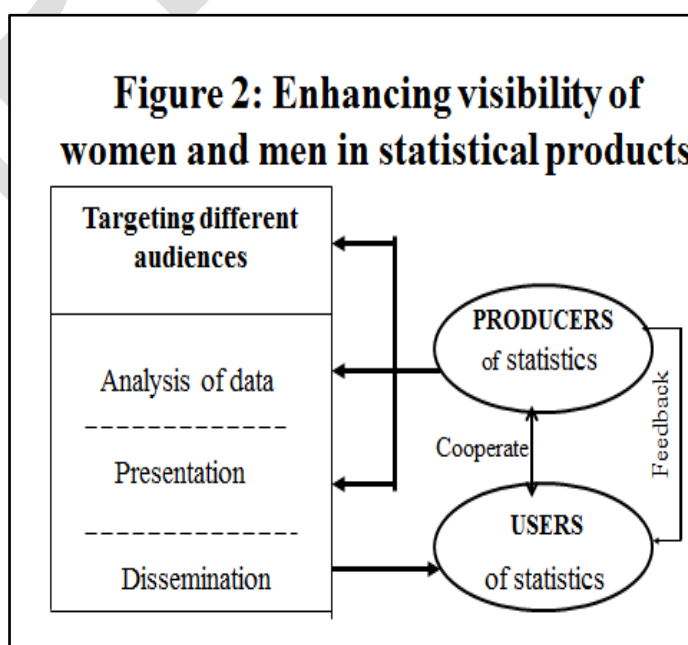
- Advocates of gender equity, who want them to boost awareness of their concerns;
- Planners, who want them for economic and social policy formulation, implementation and monitoring;
- Development experts, who want to review and analyse gender aspects and interactions;
- International, government and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), who use them in project and programme design, implementation and evaluation;
- The general public, who wants them for a better understanding of society.

However, certain important frameworks and methods traditionally used in official statistics are biased against women or men and thus women's or men's activities and preferences are not fully covered in statistics. One example of bias in statistical concepts is in the definition of what the term 'economic' refers to. In a world in which economic value is counted in purely monetary terms, women's work, which is often unpaid, is not considered to be productive work. So, although women are the pillars of subsistence economies and pivotal to food security, their activities tend to be excluded from economic accounts. Agricultural statistics therefore tend to under-represent, or even omit, variables that are essential to a clear understanding of rural sector activities and rural development. This severely limits planners' grasp of the real situation in rural economies which, in turn, constrains their potential to act.

Another example of bias in statistical concepts which made women invisible in statistics is the use of "head of household." Often the characteristics of the entire household have been identified as those of the head, and the head has been assumed the oldest man in the household. This practice complicates a series of gender issues. For example, comparing 'heads of households' may well not be a comparison between male earners: the highest earning of a two-earner household may be the woman; the woman may be the main earner and the man the main carer. Using the concept of the 'household reference person' allows the advantages of a single point of enquiry, without the disadvantages of making false gender assumptions.

Therefore, the process of making gender visible in areas where it was previously thought not relevant lies at the heart of the development of gender statistics. The national statistical systems responsible for the production and dissemination of official data should consider gender-specific data collection, compilation, analysis and presentation as an integral part of their work, not a separate task (see figure 2). The production and improvement of gender-

specific indicators should be written into existing data collection programmes, censuses, periodic surveys and sampling, in close collaboration with users, in order to make the best use possible of existing statistical systems and data.



3.2. The priority domains of gender specific statistics

Planners and policy-makers must be mindful of the major aspects of socially ascribed gender functions and the specific needs of men and women. If development policies are to be sustainable, they must consider existing gender disparities in employment, poverty, family life, health, education, the environment, public life and decision-making bodies, violence against women and migration.

3.2.1 Work

Households in all societies differentiate various household activities and responsibilities by gender. For women, production and reproduction are two interlinked activities, and much of the work women do, although productive, is unpaid. Men have always played a minor role in domestic work; societies tending to assume that they have paid work outside the home.

Gender disparities in access to economic resources, including credit, land and economic power-sharing, directly affect women's potential for achieving the kind of economic autonomy they need to provide a better quality of life for themselves and their dependents. Limited access to agricultural inputs, especially for food crops, severely curtails women's potential productivity. Discrimination against women in employment is also frequent outside the agricultural sector, and has an impact on the kinds of work, careers and career advancement that women can expect. One of the key findings stated in UN publication "The world's women 2015: At a glance brochure were listed as following

Women remain disadvantaged; Half of the world's women join the labour force, compared to three quarters of men; their work tends to be concentrated in certain economic sectors and occupations and they still earn less than men. When both paid and unpaid work such as household chores and caring for children are taken into account, women work longer hours than men. Women spend an average of 3 hours more per day than men on unpaid work in developing countries, and 2 hours more in developed countries. In terms of paid work, women in developing countries spend 2 hours less per day than men on average; in developed countries, they spend 1.5 hour less than men. Women are more likely than men to be unemployed, and when they are employed they have different types of jobs than men.

Women are more often found in jobs with low pay and no social protection, including as workers in private households (of which 78 per cent are women) and contributing family workers (63 per cent). Women are also better represented in jobs with shorter or more flexible hours, including as part-time workers (63 per cent) and in services related to education, health and social work (68 per cent), which offer opportunities for balancing work and family

responsibilities but lower income and fewer options for career advancement Women earn less than men across all sectors and occupations, with women working full-time earning between 70 per cent and 90 per cent of what men earn, in most countries. Moreover, men benefit more than women in terms of higher pay from higher levels of education and seniority. Most developed countries show a long-term decline in the gender pay gap, but the trend is mixed in recent years.

Furthermore, Economic hardship may add to the barriers faced by women. For example, the recent economic crisis has had a disproportionate impact on the employment of women in developing countries, owing to tougher competition and gender-based discrimination (ILO, 2011). In developed countries, however, the impact on the employment of women could not be attributed to discrimination. In some countries men lost more jobs than women and there was a greater decline in the employment rates for men than for women.

3.2.2 Poverty

Poverty is a multi-dimensional phenomenon. The Beijing Platform for Action recognized that “poverty has various manifestations, including lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments; and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by a lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social and cultural life”⁸

Thus, while the economic dimension remains central, other factors such as lack of opportunities, vulnerabilities and social exclusion are recognized as important in defining poverty. The use of a broad concept of poverty is considered essential for integrating gender into countries’ poverty reduction strategies as well as for monitoring, from a gender perspective, progress towards achieving the first Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of eradicating extreme poverty and hunger decision-making on spending, particularly in African countries and in poorer households.

Studies have revealed an increasing feminization of poverty. The key findings of the UN publication for 2010 "The World's Women 2010 Trends and Statistics" revealed that in some parts of the world, women and girls are often more burdened by the poverty of their household and their environment than men and boys. At the household level, data show that certain types of female-headed households are more likely to be poor than male-headed households of the same type. In Latin America and the Caribbean and the more developed regions households of

⁸ United Nations, 1995a, para. 47. This characterization of poverty was first stated in the Copenhagen Programme of Action of the World Summit for Social Development (United Nations, 1995b, Annex II, para. 19).

lone mothers with children have higher poverty rates than those of lone fathers with children. In the same regions, poverty rates are higher for women than for men when living in one-person households.

At the individual level, women's lack of access to and control over resources limits their economic autonomy and increases their vulnerability to economic or environmental shocks. Compared to men, lower proportions of women have cash income in the less developed regions. Existing statutory and customary laws still restrict women's access to land and other types of property in most countries in Africa and about half the countries in Asia. Moreover, significant proportions of married women from the less developed regions have no control over household spending, including spending their own cash earnings, particularly in countries from sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia.

Another reason for the persistence of female poverty is gender vulnerability within the home. When poor families cannot afford to send all of their children to school, parents favor investing in the boy-children, keeping the girls at home to help with domestic work or some income-generating activity.

3.2.3 Family life

Family life rests solidly on the shoulders of women in all areas of the world. As spouses, parents and caregivers, they take on the primary responsibility for ensuring the proper functioning of families and the provision of everyday care and maintenance. Preparing family meals, maintaining hygiene, caring for other family members and a myriad of other chores related to children consume a good part of the day for women in the world. While men are increasingly getting involved in the daily functioning of families, it is still predominantly women's responsibility. Time use survey results point to the fact that, as a rule, the number of hours that women spend on housework and community and volunteer work exceeds those spent by men for the same purposes. The average number of hours per day used for these activities by women ranges from around three (in Denmark) to over six (in Turkey, for example). At the same time, in several countries, men spend less than one hour on these activities – for example, in Cambodia and Pakistan⁹.

Women's lives are greatly affected by reproduction, which has an incisive and direct impact on their health and on their educational, employment and earning opportunities. Nevertheless, recent studies indicate that early marriage has declined in all regions of the world, yet many brides are at the age of childhood or adolescence (United Nations, 2010a; United Nations, Economic and Social Council 2011; UNICEF, 2011). Particularly in the less developed

⁹ The World's Women 2010 Trends and Statistics

regions, girls' marriage occurs at young ages, increasing their health risks and preventing them from remaining in school and acquiring the skills necessary for the labour market. Most countries have established minimum ages of marriage for both women and men. However, exceptions are generally granted with parental approval and laws are not necessarily enforced (United Nations, 2011d, 2011f). Marriage among very young men is rare in most societies (UNICEF, 2011; United Nations, 2011e). Besides, early childbearing continues to be widespread in certain parts of the world. Very early childbearing brings with it heightened risks of complications or even death. In developing countries, complications relating to pregnancy and childbirth are the leading causes of death among 15- to 19-year-old women (WHO, 2009). In addition, babies of very young mothers have a higher risk of perinatal death than babies born to older mothers (WHO, 2009). Furthermore, many adolescent mothers cannot continue school, diminishing their chances of having skilled jobs in the formal labor market.

Growing male migration in search of work has combined with unstable conjugal arrangements to increase the number of female-headed households. There are also more widows than widowers because women tend to live longer and men are more likely to remarry or seek alternative living arrangements. The differences between female- and male-headed households usually have a bearing on all aspects of family life: the size and composition of the family and how it is run; nutrition; raising children; and available income.

A key finding from the "World Development Report 2012, Gender Equality and Development" show that female-headed households are less likely to have received credit in the past 12 months than male-headed households (24 percent, compared with 28 percent), with smaller gaps for female-headed households with at least one male of working age (26 percent). Another important fact is that on average, female-headed households are less likely to own and operate land than male-headed households (55 percent of female-headed households own land, compared with 64 percent of male-headed households).

Likewise, female-headed households are also less likely to operate land than their male counterparts—on average, 83 percent of female-headed households operate land (86 percent among those with male presence), compared with 89 percent among male-headed households. Besides, Female-headed households own and operate smaller plots than male-headed households. In particular, land holdings among female-headed households are 22 percent smaller than those of male-headed households. The differences for female-headed households with a male presence are 21 percent for owned plots and 26 percent for operated plots.

3.2.4 Health

The health status of women and men is known to be different during their life courses. This can be partly explained by their biological and physical differences. At the same time, gender norms and values in a given culture, coupled with the resulting socio-economic status and behavioral choices of women and men, can also give rise to gender inequalities in health and access to health care.

Over the last 20 years, the lives of women around the world have improved in many areas. Life expectancy has continued to rise – reaching 72 years for women and 68 years for men¹⁰. There are a number of hypothetical explanations for this phenomenon, ranging from genetics and biology to environmental and social causes, but no definitive consensus has yet emerged.

Despite the generally poor provision of health services, particularly in rural areas, there has been a flow of interest in the family planning, maternal and child health care services offered by NGOs, which have benefited mothers, children of both sexes and adult women in general. This was translated in A growing share of women are using contraceptives and the demand for family planning is increasingly being satisfied. Sub-Saharan Africa, however, lags behind. In this region, only 5 out of 10 women with a stated desire to avoid pregnancy are using contraceptives. This is also the region with the highest share of unsafe abortions and levels of maternal mortality. Nevertheless, maternal health has improved considerably over the years. Worldwide, the number of maternal deaths declined by 45 per cent between 1990 and 2013. In 2012, 83 per cent of pregnant women had at least one antenatal care visit in developing regions, an improvement of 18 percentage points since 1990. However, only 52 per cent of pregnant women had the recommended minimum of four antenatal care visits

Custom, social constraints and lack of resources also give rise to gender disparities among children in terms of nutrition, morbidity and mortality. The two sexes do not receive equal attention and care; the tendency being to favour boy-children. Males are also fed more and better. Studies show that Mortality in children under age 5 has declined dramatically in all regions for both girls and boys. However, it remains high in sub-Saharan Africa, at 92 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2013. Communicable diseases remain a leading concern in developing regions and account for 70 per cent of mortality in children under age 5 when deaths in the first month of life are excluded. Lower respiratory infections, HIV/ AIDS and diarrhea diseases are three of the most deadly communicable diseases at all ages often the result of unsafe water and sanitation, poor hygiene and inadequate health services.

¹⁰ UN publication "The world's women 2015: At a glance brochure

In terms of unhealthy habits and risk factors for non-communicable diseases, men smoke tobacco and drink alcohol to a much greater extent than women. Thirty-three per cent of men aged 15 and over smoke and 48 per cent drink, compared to 13 per cent and 29 per cent of women, respectively. However, large numbers of women have adopted tobacco smoking in developed regions and their numbers are increasing in Oceania. The prevalence of obesity has increased for both sexes, with current levels of obesity higher for women than men (14 per cent of women aged 20 and over are obese compared to 10 per cent of men).

Non-communicable diseases are the dominant cause of death at older ages – worldwide they are responsible for 85 per cent of all deaths among people aged 60 and over. Cardiovascular disease (stroke and ischemic heart disease) is, by a large margin, the most common cause of death in both older women and men. Men have a higher risk of dying from cardiovascular disease than women of the same age, with the risk being 1.6 times higher for men than women among those aged 60 to 69. Despite this, more older women than older men die from the disease – 7.8 million women compared to 6.8 million men in 2012 – because women represent the majority of older persons.

All cancers combined are the second leading cause of death among women and men aged 60 and older, and they are also a major cause of disability. In 2012, for all ages, over 14 million new cases of cancer were diagnosed, 32.6 million people were living with cancer, and 8.2 million people died from the disease, according to latest estimates. The incidence rate for all cancers is 24 per cent higher for men than for women, and the global mortality rate for men is 52 per cent higher. For women, cancers of the breast, lung, colon and cervix are most common; for men, cancers of the lung, prostate, colon, stomach and liver predominate. Dementia, one of the major causes of disability in later life, results in the loss of the mental skills that enable a person to live independently. Older women are particularly affected by dementia because of their greater longevity and the typically late onset of the condition. The number of years of healthy life lost globally due to Alzheimer's disease and other forms of dementias is 14 per cent higher for women than for men in the age group 60 to 69 years and is 38 per cent higher in the age group 70 and over.

3.2.5 Education

Education has long been recognized as a fundamental right with far-reaching consequences for human development and societal progress. The right to education is proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and various international covenants. Investing in girls and women's education in particular produces exceptionally high social and economic returns. Educated women invest more in their children and contribute to the welfare of

the next generation. They are more likely to participate in the labour force, allowing them to earn an income, know and claim their rights, and attain greater influence in the household and public life. Education is essential for empowering women and for closing the gap between women and men in respect of socio-economic opportunities; it can reduce inequalities based on gender and alter the historical legacy of disadvantage faced by women.

According to the results of the UN publication "The world's women 2015: At a glance brochure; enrolment in primary education is now nearly universal. The gender gap has also narrowed and in some regions girls tend to perform better than boys at this level and progress more rapidly. However as education level increases, enrolment decline and gender disparities widen. Gender disparity is particularly prevalent in developing regions, to the advantage of boys in primary and secondary education in many countries and in favor of girls in tertiary education in others.

Young women in developed regions clearly outnumber their male peers in tertiary education. In terms of the educational outcomes, girls and boys aged 15 years perform differently, with girls outperforming boys in reading skills in every country for which data are available. Boys perform slightly better in mathematics, but the gender gap is insignificant in most countries.

Despite improvements, 58 million children of primary school age are not in school. More than half of these children are girls and nearly three quarters live in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia. Nearly one in five (63 million) adolescents of lower secondary school age are out of school, with girls accounting for half of this total. Female participation in tertiary education has increased globally and now surpasses male participation in many countries. However, women continue to be underrepresented in the most advanced degree programmes, especially in science-related fields of study, resulting in fewer women than men in research. Women account for 30 per cent of all scientific researchers – an increase compared to previous decades but still far from parity.

3.2.6 The environment

The impact of environmental degradation is gender-differentiated in terms of workloads and the quality of life; women are the first to be affected by the depletion of natural resources. In rural areas in most developing countries, women are responsible for the daily management and use of natural resources, as well as providing for the family by raising food crops, gathering forest products and fetching wood and water. Widespread and growing deforestation and the drying-up of water sources force women to range ever further afield, spending more time and

energy in producing and finding essential commodities and making it even harder for them to engage in more productive, more lucrative activities.

Environmental degradation caused by poorly managed and utilized waste products and pollutants can have a disproportionate impact on women, who seem to be more susceptible to the toxic effects of certain chemicals. The health risk is even higher among the lower-income strata of the population, who tend to live near industrial urban areas, or among rural people living near fields that are sprayed from the air.

In many countries the lives of rural people are wholly dependent on the availability of natural resources. Both men and women overexploit natural resources in a struggle for survival in which soils are depleted, wildlife, plant and marine resources destroyed, and the quality of water downgraded. Environmental degradation is most keenly felt by the most vulnerable members of the community and those who rely heavily on nature's bounty. For this reason, gender disparities in natural resource management and participation in policy-making must be clearly understood.

There are also concerns that climate change may deepen environment-related gender inequality, particularly in the less developed regions¹¹. The rise in temperature, the increasing risk of heat waves, droughts and floods, and the more frequent and more intense storms and tropical cyclones that are all part of climate change are expected to have an overall negative impact on agricultural livelihoods, availability of food and human health and survival¹². Women are considered among the most vulnerable groups, as they tend to be more dependent on the natural resources threatened by climate change and have fewer assets to cope with the change¹³.

Based on the findings of The World's Women 2010 Trends and Statistics report ; More than half of rural households and about a quarter of urban households in sub-Saharan Africa lack easy access to sources of drinking water, and most of the burden of water collection falls on women. Likewise; the majority of households in sub-Saharan Africa and in Southern and South-Eastern Asia use solid fuels for cooking on open fires or traditional stoves with no chimney or hood, disproportionately affecting the health of women and fewer women than men participate in high-level decision-making related to the environment

3.2.7 Power and decision-making

Around the world, a lack of gender balance in decision-making positions in government persists. Women continue to be underrepresented in national parliaments, where on average only 17 percent of seats are occupied by women. The share of women among ministers also averages

¹¹ See, for example, UNDP, 2009; Commission on the Status of Women, 2008; Masika, 2002

¹² IPCC, 2007.

¹³ UN Women Watch, 2009.

17 percent. The highest positions are even more elusive: only 7 of 150 elected Heads of State in the world are women, and only 11 of 192 Heads of Government. The situation is similar at the level of local government: female elected councilors are underrepresented in all regions of the world and female mayors even more so.

Few women occupy key positions in large companies, and it is still rare to find a woman heading one. Although, women are on most boards of directors of large companies but their number remains low compared to men. Furthermore, the “glass ceiling” has hindered women’s access to leadership positions in private companies. This is especially notable in the largest corporations, which remain male-dominated. Of the 500 largest corporations in the world, only 13 have a female chief executive officer. Ministries of finance and budget and the central banks are mostly headed by men, with very few administrative or management positions filled by women.

Gender gaps in women’s role in unions often mirror the gaps in political bodies. The proportion of women who work full time and belong to a labor union is almost the same as that of men (around 30 percent in developed countries, 20 percent in Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and Europe and Central Asia, and 10 percent in East Asia and Pacific), and their overall lower participation simply reflects their lower labor force participation. Accordingly, the number of women leaders at the local level is fairly high but falls dramatically for high-level leadership. Women represent 44 percent of members of a group of European unions with 50 million members, but less than 10 percent of their presidents, 20 percent of their secretaries general, and a third of their vice presidents¹⁴.

3.2.8 Violence against Women

Physical, sexual, and psychological violence against women is endemic across the world. A flagrant violation of basic human rights and fundamental freedoms, violence can take many forms. International statistics are not always comparable, yet incontrovertible evidence shows that violence against women is a global concern¹⁵. Women are at far greater risk than men of violence by an intimate partner or somebody they know than from violence by other people.

The prevalence of domestic violence varies greatly across countries, with no clear relationship to incomes; while incidence tends to rise with socioeconomic deprivation, violence knows no boundaries. Yet in many nations, violence against women is perceived as acceptable or justifiable. On average, 29 percent of women in countries with data concurred that wife beating was justified for arguing with the husband, 25 percent for refusing to have sex, and 21 percent for burning food. In Guinea, 60 percent of women found it permissible to be beaten for

¹⁴ "World Development Report 2012, Gender Equality and Development "

¹⁵ <http://www.populationmedia.org/where/vietnam>

refusing to have sex with their spouses. In Ethiopia, 81 percent of women say that it is justified for a husband to beat his wife for at least one of the reasons listed in the Demographic and Health Surveys; 61 percent reported violence to be appropriate for burning food and 59 percent for arguing with their husbands.

The prevalence of domestic violence varies greatly across rich and poor countries. Physical or sexual abuse by an intimate partner within the last 12 months was most prevalent in Ethiopia (Butajira) and Peru (Cusco), involving 54 and 34 percent of women respectively. At the other extreme, Japan (Yokohama) and Serbia (Belgrade) are below the 4 percent mark. In many instances, the violence can be grave. In Peru (Cusco), almost 50 percent of women are victims of severe physical violence during their lifetime¹⁶. And even with low incidence, the numbers are unacceptably high. A three percent domestic abuse incidence rate for Poland is equivalent to 534,000 women in one year, or 1,463 new women a day¹⁷.

Although violence peaks in women's reproductive years, it persists as women age. For example, across countries of the European Union, the proportion of women who experienced physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months was 6 per cent for women between the ages of 18 and 29, decreasing to 3 per cent for women aged 60 and over.

3.3. Data sources

There are different types of data sources for gender statistics mainly: Population and housing censuses, Agricultural censuses and surveys, Labor force surveys, Time-use surveys and Administrative records. Each is a major source of gender statistics. While the information they provide is generally complementary, they are based on different methodologies which affect the type, range and quality of gender information they can provide.

3.3.1 Population and housing censuses

Population censuses are a rich source of information for examining differences between females and males across many dimensions of life. For many countries, the population and housing census is an important source of data for gender statistics. For example it can serve as the primary source of benchmark gender statistics, covering not only the settled population but also the homeless population, nomadic groups and the population living in institutions. Additionally, population censuses provide benchmark information on living arrangements for older women and older men, the composition of immigrant stock by sex and other

¹⁶ Rural Income Generating Activities (RIGA) database

¹⁷ Bruhn 2009; Hallward-Driemeier 2011a; Sabarwal, Terrell, and Bardasi 2009; Costa and Rijkers 2011

characteristics, lifetime fertility for older cohorts of women, educational attainment for women and men and gender segregation in occupations.

A unique feature of the census is its ability to generate statistics on small areas and small population groups with no or minimum sampling errors. This feature is important for gender statistics because a meaningful gender analysis often requires the disaggregation of statistics by various characteristics. For example, a gender gap in educational or economic characteristics may appear to be modest at the national level, but significant at the level of some population groups or some geographic areas. Census data can easily be disaggregated by various background variables: age, religion, language, ethnicity, indigenous people, place of usual residence, marital status or wealth status of the household. For certain population groups or geographical areas, a population census may be the only source of information. For example, women and men belonging to minority groups, such as indigenous groups, migrants or older populations in remote areas, tend to represent a relatively small proportion of the population and tend to be harder to reach in household surveys. As a result, those groups of women and men are often not present in large enough numbers in survey samples to allow for calculations and analysis.

Likewise, in countries where civil registration systems have incomplete coverage, population censuses, along with household surveys, have a crucial role in providing gender statistics on fertility, mortality, marriages and migration. Compared to household surveys, population censuses have the advantage of eliminating sampling errors. This is an important feature, especially when measuring rare events such as maternal mortality, because it allows for the analysis of trends over time and in between various groups of population by eliminating the issue of large confidence intervals.

Housing censuses are also very important source for gender statistics because they furnish data on types of living quarters in which people live and the services they enjoy. In many countries, population and housing census are the only source of gender statistics for populations living in certain types of living quarters, such as retirement homes and homes for elderly, orphanages, refugee camps and camps for internally displaced people. It is important that population data disaggregated by sex, age and other characteristics be provided for each of these types of living quarters. The data can show, for example, whether more women than men are in retirement homes and homes for elderly, and their marital status. Data on population in orphanages disaggregated by sex, age and school attendance can show whether girls or boys are more likely to be found in this type of institution and whether there is a gender gap in educational participation.

Housing censuses can be used to improve the knowledge of women's and men's ownership of housing property. In some countries with available data, it has been shown that women are less likely than men to be owners of property. Most of the time, however, data are collected at household level, without taking into account a joint ownership. Still, some countries have inquired in their censuses about property ownership by sex. (UNFPA, Country Technical Services Team for South and West Asia, 2004). Moreover, some of the questions covered in the housing census provide important background information for understanding some of the work burden of women and men. Census data on the water supply system and main source of drinking water will provide information on the number of households with lack of access to water within the building or within 200 metres. In many countries, these are households where mainly women have an additional burden of work, as women are in charge of water collection more often than men (United Nations, 2010).

Housing census questions on fuels used for cooking provide important background information on issues of gender and environmental health. Members of households using solid fuels are exposed to indoor smoke, and women are more likely to develop acute respiratory infections, obstructive pulmonary disease and lung cancer, because they spend more time cooking and near fire (United Nations, 2010).

3.3.2 Agricultural censuses and surveys

Agricultural censuses and surveys can serve as a vehicle for collecting data on the type and amount of work contributed by women and men to agricultural production. These censuses and surveys cover four main areas of gender statistics. First, information on the composition of farm labour can be provided by recording sex and other characteristics of the household members and hired labourers working on the agricultural holding. Second, information on gender differences in the management of agricultural holdings, and on decision-making within the holding, can be provided by collecting data on the characteristics of the agricultural holders and sub-holders and combining those data with other data at the level of holding or sub-holding on, for example, the size and types of crops, the size and types of livestock or agricultural services used.

Third, information on gender differences in ownership of agricultural assets can be provided by collecting data on land tenure, livestock and agricultural machinery. These data may be collected at the holding level, the level of parcels/plots or herds or the level of household members. Fourth, information on gender differences in access to agricultural services and agricultural practices can be provided by collecting data on the use of formal credit, extension

services, veterinary services, irrigation or agricultural machinery. These data may be collected at the level of holding or sub-holding.

3.3.3 Labor force survey

The labor force survey is a household sample survey designed to collect data on the labor force and its characteristics (Husmanns, Mehran and Verma, 1990). It is conducted in many countries and is particularly important when administrative records are non-existent or incomplete and where establishment surveys are expensive and difficult to conduct.

Household sample surveys are the most flexible of all data collection instruments on the labour force and its characteristics and are the most valuable from a gender perspective (Husmanns, Mehran and Verma, 1990; Mata-Greenwood 2003). They can cover a wide range of topics. Information on employment, unemployment, occupation or status in employment can be collected at the same time as information on education and training, income or household and family. This combined information is useful for understanding the participation of women and men in the labour force.

Furthermore, the surveys can accommodate more questions for each topic, enabling a more precise measurement of economic characteristics, based on international standards for concepts, definitions and classifications. In fact, some of the criteria specified in the international standards that are crucial for correct reporting of women's and men's economic activity can only be implemented through household surveys (Husmanns, Mehran and Verma, 1990; Mata-Greenwood, 2003).

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The coverage of employment or labour force surveys varies, and they are usually based on probability sample surveys. Some countries include only the major cities, others only urban areas. Such surveys may even be designed to cover the total population with no subdivision such as rural/urban, or any sort of area differentiation. Employment surveys can supply data on people living and working in rural areas (including unpaid family workers), people working in small production units or day workers on large establishments, provided that they have been specifically designed for this purpose. Seasonal changes are captured through periodic surveys.

3.3.4 Time-use surveys

Time-use data are the basis for obtaining gender statistics related to several topics: time allocation patterns; unpaid work; participation in all forms of paid work; working time, work

locations and the scheduling of economic activities; work-family balance; the investment of time in education and health; welfare and quality of life; and intra household inequality. It is the best tool for evaluating gender contributions to economic and non-economic activities is the time-use survey, which is ideal for examining the gender division of both paid and unpaid labour within the household.

Time-use data can show differences between women and men in time-allocation patterns (types of activities and their schedule during a specified period of time), reflecting differences in roles and expectations with regard to family, domestic life and participation in work and social activities outside the home. Women, for example, tend to spend more time than men taking care of children and less time than men working for payment outside of their homes. Gender differences extend beyond the traditional distribution of roles in paid and unpaid work. Different patterns of leisure activities may be described for women and for men. In some societies, for example, men may spend more time than women doing sports and fitness activities.

Time-use data are essential in estimating the participation of women and men in unpaid work (activities unaccompanied by remuneration) and the value of this unpaid work for the economy. Unpaid work referring to own-account production of services is outside the general boundary of the System of National Accounts and therefore not covered at all in conventional labour force statistics. Examples of unpaid work include cleaning dwellings, performing small repairs, preparing and serving meals, caring for and instructing children, caring for other persons in the household and certain types of volunteer community services. Data on time use for those types of activity are typically obtained in time-use surveys or time-use modules attached to labour force surveys, living standard surveys or other multi-topic surveys.

The data obtained can be used to estimate household production in satellite accounts that extend measurement of gross domestic product (GDP) to include non-System of National Accounts production, making the national accounts more complete and comparable across countries. At the same time, time-use data on unpaid work is crucial to making the contribution of women to the economy and society more visible. Women, more often than men, tend to be involved and spend a great amount of time in unpaid work in the home and community. When only cash transactions are taken into account in the measurement of economic production, a large portion of women's work remains unaccounted for.

Time-use data have an important role in improving estimates of employment and labour force participation through more extensive capturing of the participation in non-market activities that are within the general production boundary of the System of National Accounts. These activities refer to the production of goods for own consumption, such as agricultural work, fishing, hunting, cutting firewood, carrying water, threshing and milling grain, making butter

and cheese and slaughtering livestock. Such activities are taken into account by current concepts of labour force and employment and should be covered by conventional labour statistics. As a result of bias in data collection, however, these activities are often underreported in labour force surveys or censuses.

Women in particular tend to have their participation in labour force underreported, because they tend to be more often involved in non-market economic activities and because it is often assumed (by interviewers or respondents themselves) that women's activities are limited to the domestic area. Time-use surveys are more suited for capturing the involvement of women and men in atypical cases of non-market activities that should be considered within the general production boundary of the System of National Accounts, and for obtaining a measure of the amount of time allocated to those activities

3.3.5 Administrative records

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

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

One of the advantages of administrative records is that they represent a full enumeration of the relevant entities, rather than a sample. For this reason, they may have the potential to provide more reliable and finely disaggregated data than sample surveys. However, their usefulness may be limited by other factors. In particular, their coverage will reflect only those entities of interest for the administrative function being performed, the details recorded may not be current, and definitions and classifications may be inconsistent with those required for statistical purposes. For example, some administrative records in the labour field may only cover employees of formal businesses. Some might cover only permanent (ongoing) workers. Other

records may only cover the situation of citizens, or of legal immigrants, because it is only these people who are entitled to particular benefits.

3.4. Statistical production process

A starting point in the discussion of producing gender statistics is the distinction between two terms which are often confused: sex and gender. The difficulty of translating the term gender into languages other than English further contributes to the confusion in the use of these terms. Sometimes the simple categories of sex (male and female) and gender (masculine and feminine) are treated as if they were the same thing. They are not.

The concept of gender places focus not only on women, but on both women and men. This is important because policies and programmes affect women and men differently and because men's position in society is an important context for understanding women's position and vice versa. However, a focus on either men or women may also be appropriate in some cases. For example, some issues pertain to women but not to men, such as maternal mortality, while there are some health issues that are specific to men such as testicular cancer.

Sex is a reference to the relatively fixed biological and physiological characteristics that define men and women. Gender is a reference to the relatively fluid socially constructed roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women. The policy and research interest is almost always in gender, not sex, but examination of data by sex is the means to making gender-based analyses. (See figure 3)

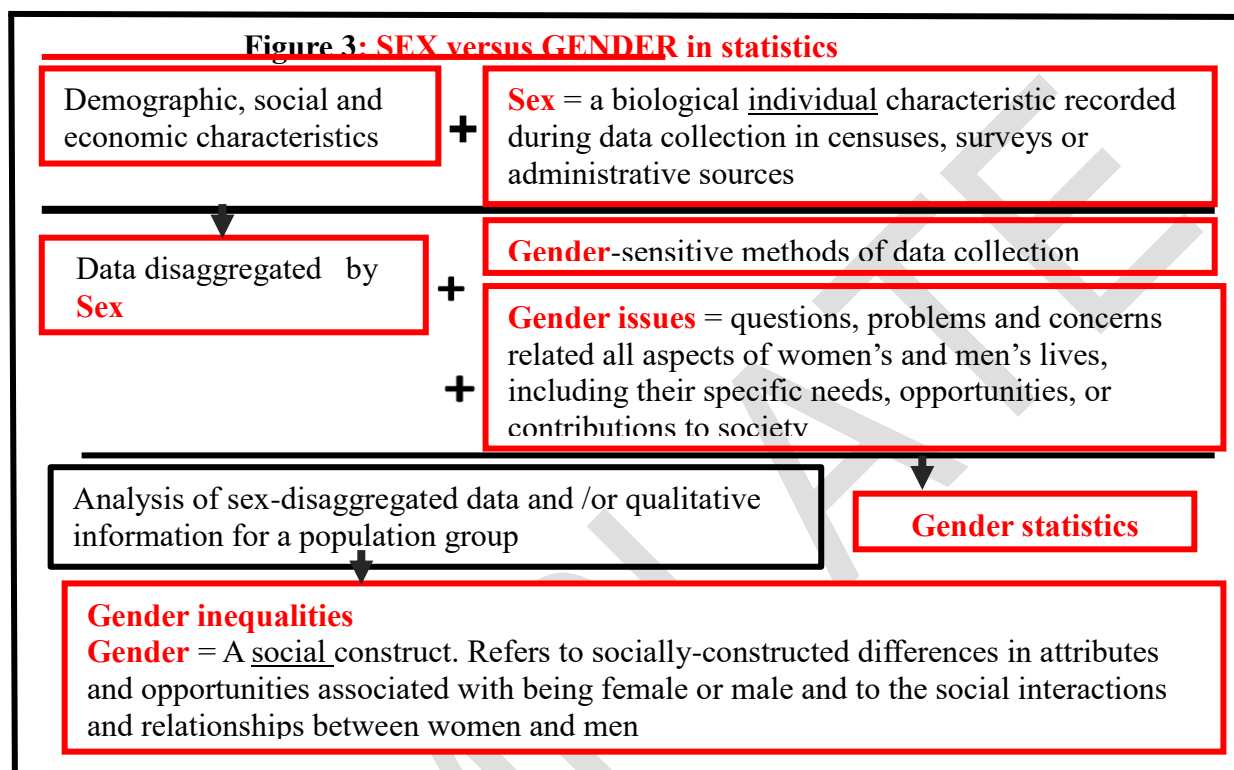
Sex-disaggregated data are needed to show the differences that exist between women and men in a given society. Data must be disaggregated by sex in order to analyze gender issues. However, this alone is not always sufficient for gender analysis. For example, the disaggregation of victims of homicide by sex has some value, but information on the perpetrator and their relationship to the victim is also needed to understand if the homicide was committed in a family context or by someone unknown to the victim.

The process of producing gender statistics, like other statistics, involves a range of highly interrelated activities. Each of these activities, and the way they are linked together, can have a significant impact on the quality of the final product. It is therefore important to view the process holistically to ensure that all the activities are linked efficiently and that they form a well-integrated package.

The Key stages are:

Stage one: Identification of gender issues and their implications for social improvement

The identification of gender issues for statistical treatment requires ongoing and permanent dialogue between statistical data producers and users such as policy-makers or planners. One major gender issue is women's lack of access to inputs. Commonly held biases result in procedures that bar women's access to land and credit. Discrimination, caused by prevailing social and cultural patterns, also affects the division of household labour and the levels of education.



The lack of equality in these domains has major implications for women, including greater poverty, precarious nutritional status, heavier workloads and reduced bargaining power. An in-depth review of the whole issue is needed to identify and analyze causes, effects and interactions. Gender experts, leaders and other users need reliable, appropriate statistics and indicators from which they can reach conclusions, tackle the issues and adopt the appropriate measures to mitigate, if not solve them.

Stage 2: Identification of gender relevant data

The second phase identifies the data and indicators that are required. Statistical data producers and users work together to determine what data and indicators are needed for policy formulation, monitoring and evaluation from a gender perspective.

Stage 3: Reviewing existing sources of data

This stage assumes that the available data are periodically reviewed by users to evaluate whether their expectations are being met. Such reviews can be used to upgrade existing methods of data collection, develop new programmes and rectify problems concerning omissions, quality

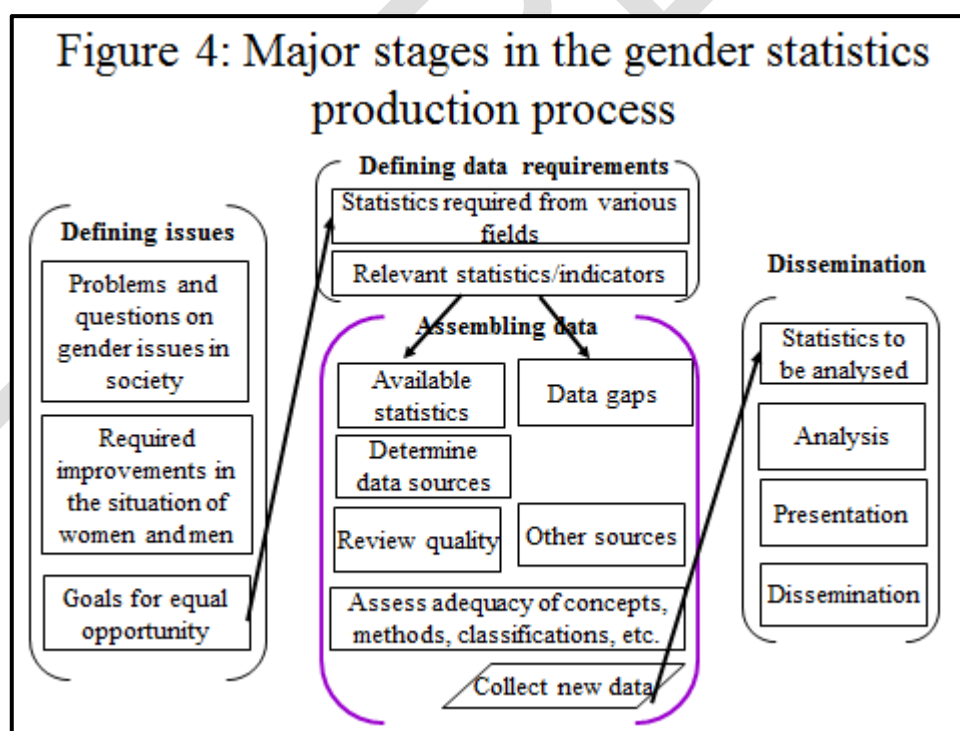
and relevance. Implicit in any review of existing sources is an analysis of questionnaire concepts and definitions and consideration of the criteria for coding and grouping the data to ensure that they mirror gender realities. Reorientation requires an in-depth review of data collection methods, from the design of questionnaires and sampling to the selection and training of enumerators.

Stage 4: Improving existing sources and developing new data collection programmes

Reorienting existing sources automatically reveals any gaps. The concepts and methods used in periodic programmes to acquire, reprocess and disseminate data can then be rectified, and a decision made as to whether or not additional data need to be collected. At this stage, statistical data producers can determine future needs with regard to providing reliable data to meet users' requirements.

Stage 5: Data compilation, analysis, presentation and dissemination of results

Data compilation, analysis, presentation and dissemination are crucial to obtaining gender-specific data, because such data often touch on sensitive issues about which little is known or which call for new thinking. When data are well presented, they reach a wider audience of specialized and unspecialized users, while the correct and appropriate analysis of available statistics can help to avoid user bias concerning gender. (See figure 4)



EXERCISES

Answer the following multiple choice questions. For each question, choose the correct answer from among the five choices¹⁸.

- 1) All of the following statements regarding the visibility of gender in statistical system are correct, except:
 - a) The national statistical systems should consider gender-specific data collection, compilation, analysis and presentation as an integral part of their work.
 - b) Gender-specific indicators should be written into existing data collection programmes, censuses, periodic surveys and sampling, in close collaboration with data users.
 - c) Statistics incorporating a gender perspective are essential for Development experts as well as for the planners.
 - d) Gender-specific data collection, compilation, analysis and presentation is seen as a separate task not integrated in the statistical system.
 - e) The process of making gender visible lies at the heart of the development of gender statistics.

- 2) Which of these statements regarding Gender Statistics is **not** correct?
 - a) Sex is a reference to the relatively fixed biological and physiological characteristics that define men and women.
 - b) Gender is a reference to the relatively fluid socially constructed roles, behaviors, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women..
 - c) Data must be disaggregated by sex in order to analyze gender issues .
 - d) The simple categories of sex (male and female) and gender (masculine and feminine) are treated as if they were the same thing.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.

- 3) An example of bias in statistical concepts which made women invisible in statistics is :
 - a) “Head of household.”.
 - b) ‘Household reference person’.
 - c) The definition of what the term ‘economic’ refers to.
 - d) Answer (a) plus answer (c).
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.

¹⁸ Correct answers are provided in Annex 2

- 4) What are the data sources for gender statistics?
- a) Population and housing censuses.
 - b) Agricultural censuses and surveys.
 - c) Administrative records.
 - d) None of the answers given are correct.
 - e) All of the options given are correct.
- 5) The data source for collecting gender statistics on the type and amount of work contributed by women and men to agricultural production is:
- a) Population and housing censuses.
 - b) Agricultural censuses and surveys.
 - c) Administrative records.
 - d) All of the options given are correct.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.
- 6) What are the priority domains of gender specific statistics?
- a) Poverty.
 - b) Family life.
 - c) Health.
 - d) None of the answers given are correct.
 - e) All of the options given are correct.
- 7) The priority domain of gender statistics that shed light on the discrimination against women in employment is:
- a) Poverty.
 - b) Family life.
 - c) Work.
 - d) None of the answers given are correct.
 - e) All of the options given are correct.
- 8) Gender gaps in women's role in unions often mirror the gaps in:
- a) Political bodies.
 - b) Family life.
 - c) Economic participation of women.
 - d) None of the answers given are correct.

- e) All of the options given are correct.
- 9) All of the following statements regarding Domestic Violence are correct, except:
- a) Women are at far greater risk than men of violence by an intimate partner.
 - b) Physical, sexual, and psychological violence against women is endemic across the world.
 - c) Men are at far greater risk than Women of violence by an intimate partner.
 - d) Although violence peaks in women's reproductive years, it persists as women age.
 - e) The prevalence of domestic violence varies greatly across rich and poor countries.
- 10) The population and housing census is an important source of data for gender statistics because :
- a) It is a cost-effective approach to provide frequent data at both national and sub-national levels.
 - b) In some countries, population and housing census represent the only source of gender statistics for populations living in certain types of living quarters, such as retirement homes and homes for elderly.
 - c) A unique feature of the population census is its ability to generate statistics on small areas and small population groups with no or minimum sampling errors.
 - d) Answer (a) plus answer (b).
 - e) Answer (b) plus answer (c).
- 11) Time-use data are the basis for obtaining gender statistics related to several topics among them are:
- a) Unpaid work.
 - b) Working time.
 - c) Welfare and quality of life.
 - d) None of the answers given are correct.
 - e) All of the options given are correct.
- 12) All of the following statements regarding the administrative records are correct, except::
- a) One of the advantages of administrative records is that they represent a full enumeration of the relevant entities, rather than a sample.
 - b) Using Administrative records to produce needed statistics is not a cost-effective approach.

- c) A wide range of statistics can be produced from data held in administrative records, including statistics relating to education, health, criminal justice, birth, death.
- d) In cases where an administrative record system operates effectively throughout a country, it can provide frequent data at both national and sub-national levels.
- e) All of the options given are correct.

13) The key stages for producing gender statistics are:

- a) Identification of gender issues and their implications for social improvement.
- b) Reviewing existing sources of data.
- c) Data compilation, analysis, presentation and dissemination of results.
- d) None of the answers given are correct.
- e) All of the options given are correct.

UNIT 4

Presentation and dissemination of gender statistics

Many countries who seek a more faithful mirror of reality have begun incorporating a gender perspective into statistics production and developed new strategies to improve data presentation and dissemination. This chapter introduces best practices in data presentation and accessibility for the users.

Learning objective:

1. To understand the difference between types of presentation tools for gender statistics
2. To explore the different forms of disseminating gender statistics

4.1. Presentation of Gender statistics in graphs¹⁹

Data can be presented in several different forms, such as tables, charts or maps and can be accompanied by some textual description and analysis. The purpose of putting results of statistics into graphs, charts and tables is two-fold. First, it is a visual way to look at the data and see what happened and make interpretations. Second, it is usually the best way to show the data to others.

Graphs (or charts) can be extremely effective in expressing key results, or illustrating a presentation. An effective graph has a clear, visual message, with an analytical heading. Good statistical graphics:

- Show the big picture by presenting many data points;
- Are “paragraphs” of data that convey one finding or a single concept;
- Highlight the data by avoiding extra information and distractions, sometimes called “non-data ink” and “chart-junk”;
- Present logical visual patterns.

When creating graphics, the data determine the type of graph. For example, a line graph is used for data over time, or a bar graph for categorical data, a topic sentence for the graph can be written to ensure not loading too many things into a graph. Clarity in the graphics can be achieved by:

- Using solids rather than patterns for line styles and fills;
- Avoiding data point markers on line graphs;

¹⁹ http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/stats/documents/writing/MDM_Part1_English.pdf

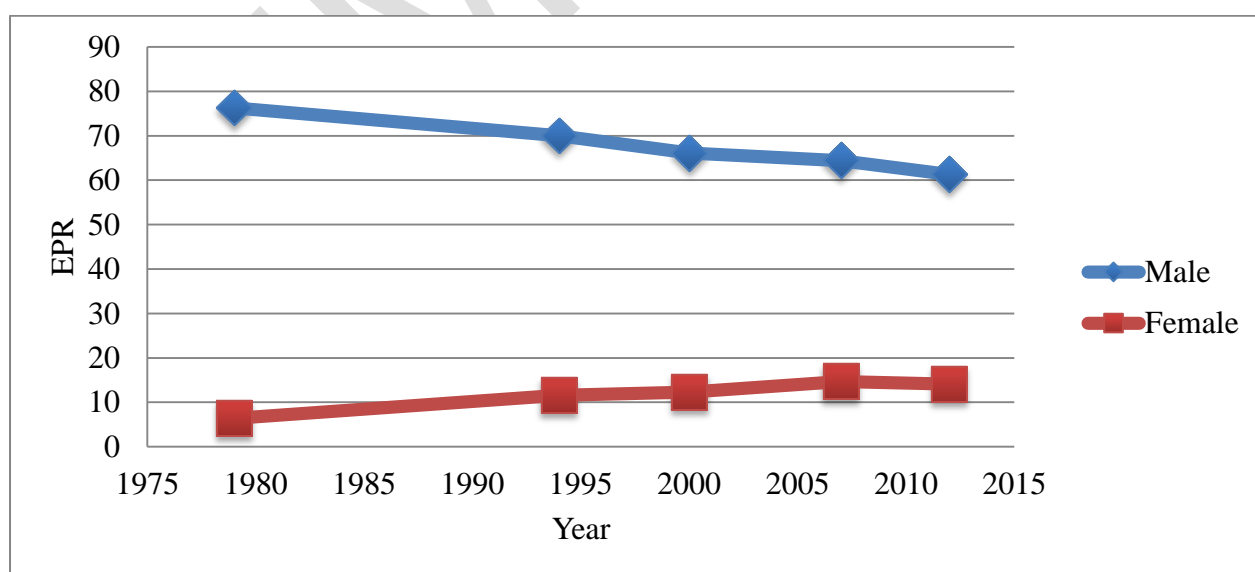
- Using data values on a graph only if they don't interfere with the reader's ability to see the big picture;
- Starting the Y axis scale at zero;
- Using only one unit of measurement per graphic; • Using two-dimensional designs for two-dimensional data;
- Making all text on the graph easy to understand by;
 - ☒ Not using abbreviations;
 - ☒ Avoiding acronyms;
 - ☒ Writing labels from left to right;
 - ☒ Using proper grammar;
 - ☒ Avoiding legends except on maps

Types of Charts

Line charts: Line charts provide a clear picture of changes over time or over age cohorts that cannot easily be discovered in data tables. Time-series data that are often presented in line charts include life expectancies at birth, infant mortality, literacy rates and labour force participation rates. Chart 1, for example, shows trends in Economic participation rate for women and men in Jordan.

Chart 1

Economic participation rate by sex, 1975-2015



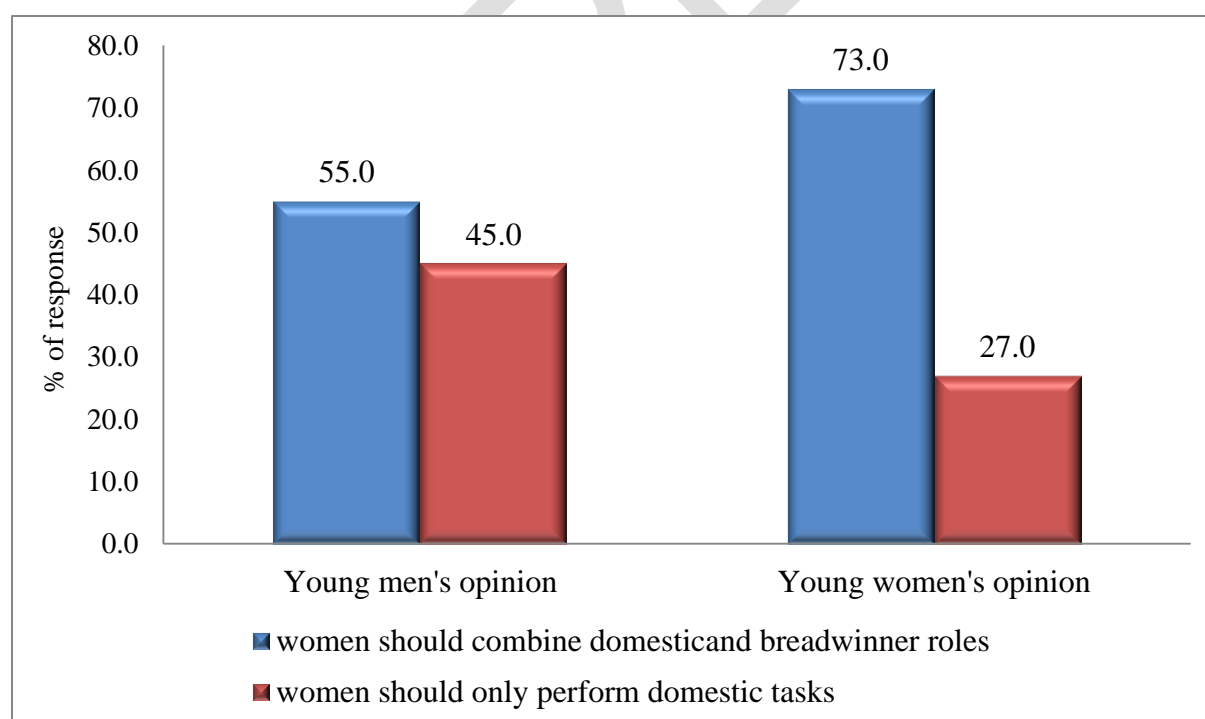
Source: DOS, Employment & unemployment survey, Jordan, 1975-2015

Vertical bar charts: Bar charts are common in the presentation of gender statistics. One of the axes, usually the x-axis, is formed by a qualitative variable with distinct categories. This variable can be sex or another breakdown variable such as urban/rural area, region, or wealth quintile. The other axis can represent absolute frequencies or percentages, sums or averages. Bar charts can be used to illustrate data that do not vary too greatly in magnitude.

Examples of simple bar charts may include total fertility rate by region, antenatal care by urban/rural area, or proportion of women married before the age of 18 by level of education. Other examples of a bar charts are the grouped (or clustered) one which present the same characteristic for two or more categories of population at the same time, thereby facilitating comparisons. Often, the values of a characteristic for women and men are shown as two sets of differently colored or shaded bars side by side for each category. For example, in chart 2, data on Adolescents' opinions on women's roles is presented for young men and young women side by side within two categories of population. It is shown that while young men have a more traditional view of the role of women in the household, girls aspire to a different life from their mothers and want to combine productive and reproductive tasks.

Chart 2

Views on women's roles by sex, A Multi-Country Assessment" (dataset), 2012



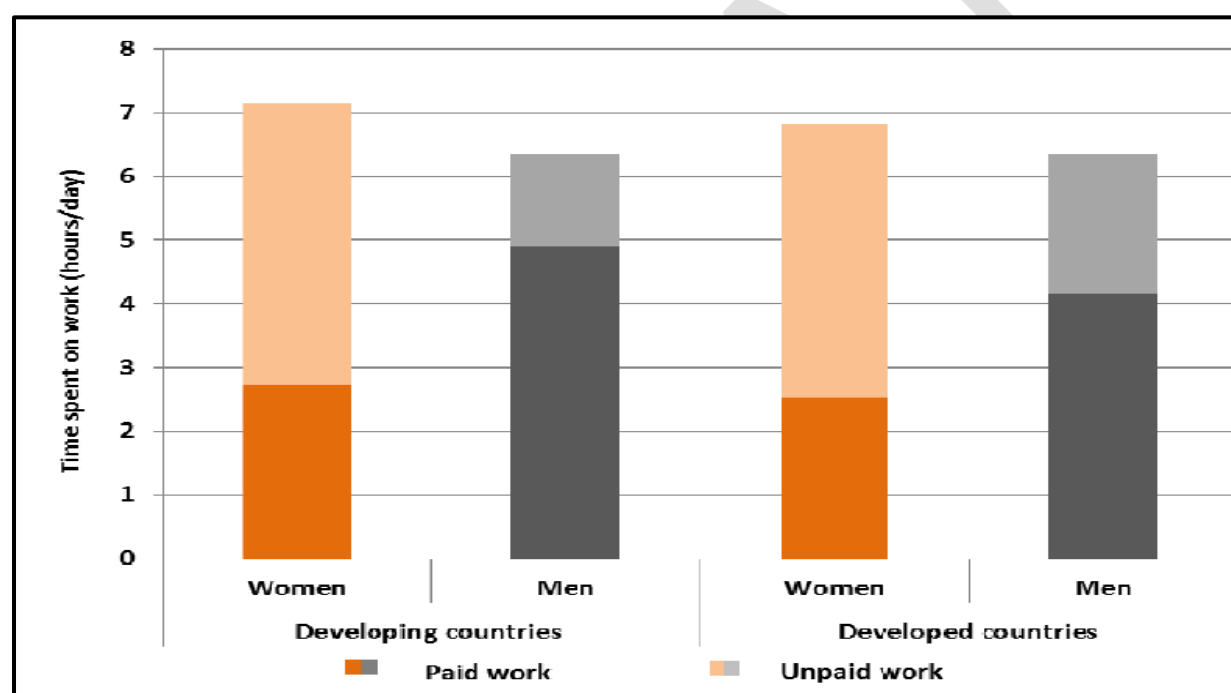
Source: WDR 2012 team calculations, based on "Defining Gender in the 21st Century: A Multi-Country Assessment" (dataset).

Stacked bar charts: Similar to the grouped bar charts, stacked bar charts illustrate data sets consisting of two or more categories. Stacked bar charts can be used for most kinds of data, but they are most effective for categories that add up to 100 per cent. A common problem with stacked bar charts is that one or more segments are too short to be visible on the scale. Another problem is that using more than three segments of the bar can make it difficult to compare one bar to another.

Some stacked charts illustrate the percentage distribution by sex within various categories of variables, such as the share of women and men among categories of occupations. Chart 3 is one example of this type of stacked chart, and it shows that, women work longer hours than men when unpaid work is factored.

Chart 3

Time spent on paid and unpaid work by sex, developing and developed countries, 2005 – 2013 (latest available)



Source: UNSD based on country-level data from Eurostat, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE), the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (UNECLAC) and national statistical offices (as of November 2014). Note: The graph is based on available data from 29 countries from developing regions and 24 countries from developed regions.

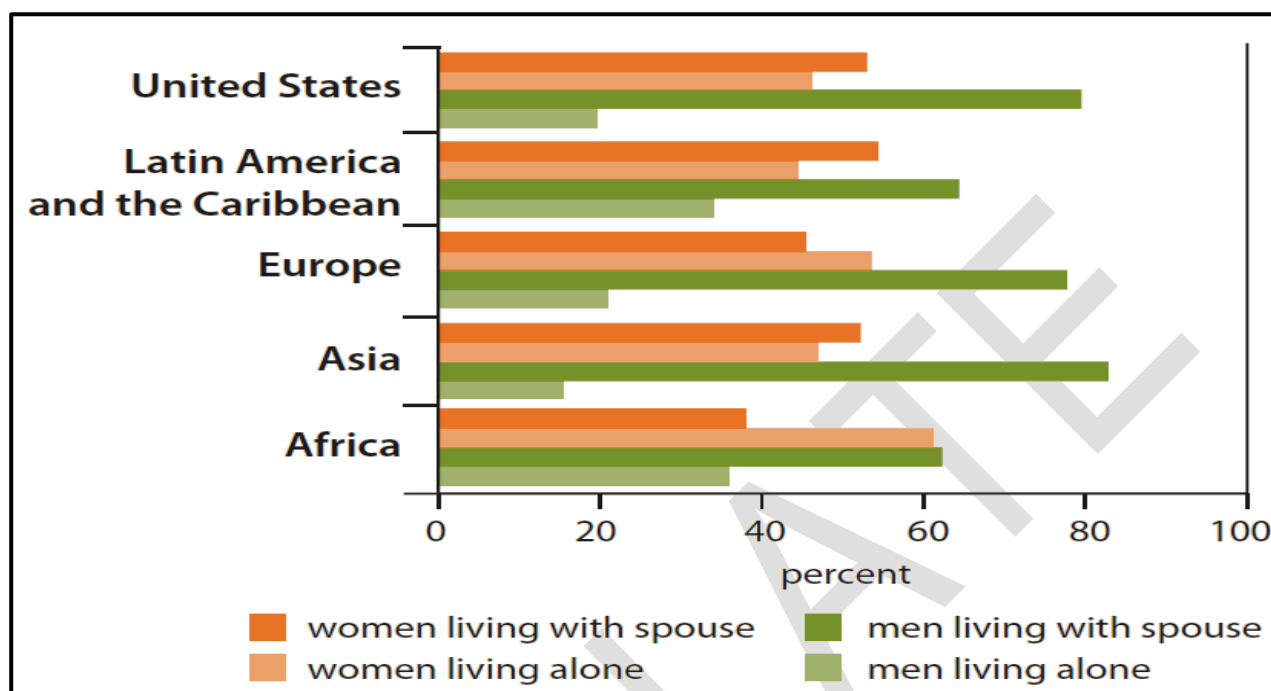
Horizontal bar charts

Bar charts can also be presented horizontally. They are often used when many categories need to be presented, or when the categories presented have long labels. Men and women can be presented side by side for each category, as in chart 4. Similar to vertical bar charts, when a

graph needs to display the sex distribution within a category and the values for women and men add up to 100 per cent, a stacked bar chart should be considered.

Chart 4

Percentage of elderly persons living alone or with spouses by sex, 2012



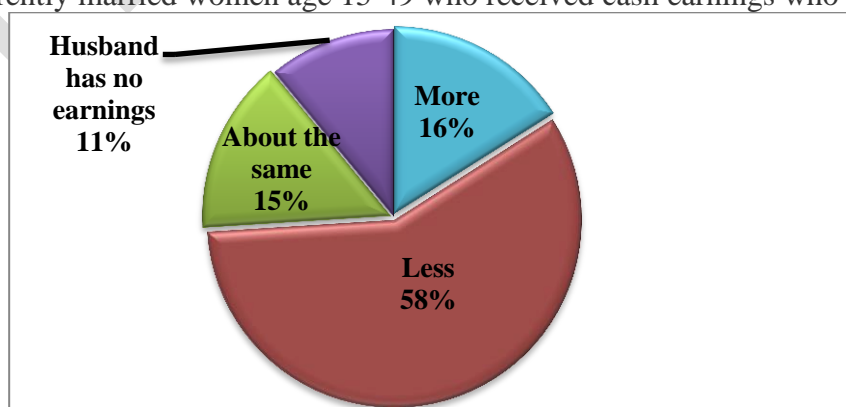
Source: WDR 2012 team estimates based on Table II.7 in United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2005). Note: Sample excludes elderly living in extended households

Pie charts

Pie charts are suitable for illustrating the percentage distribution of qualitative variable and are an alternative to bar charts. Pie charts must always show shares that total 100 percent. Pie charts are best used when only one or two shares of the whole are shown for different years, different population groups or different related groups. Chart 5 shows a comparison of women's and partner's earnings.

Chart 5

Percent of currently married women age 15-49 who received cash earnings who make:



Source: 2012 Jordan Population and Family Health Survey

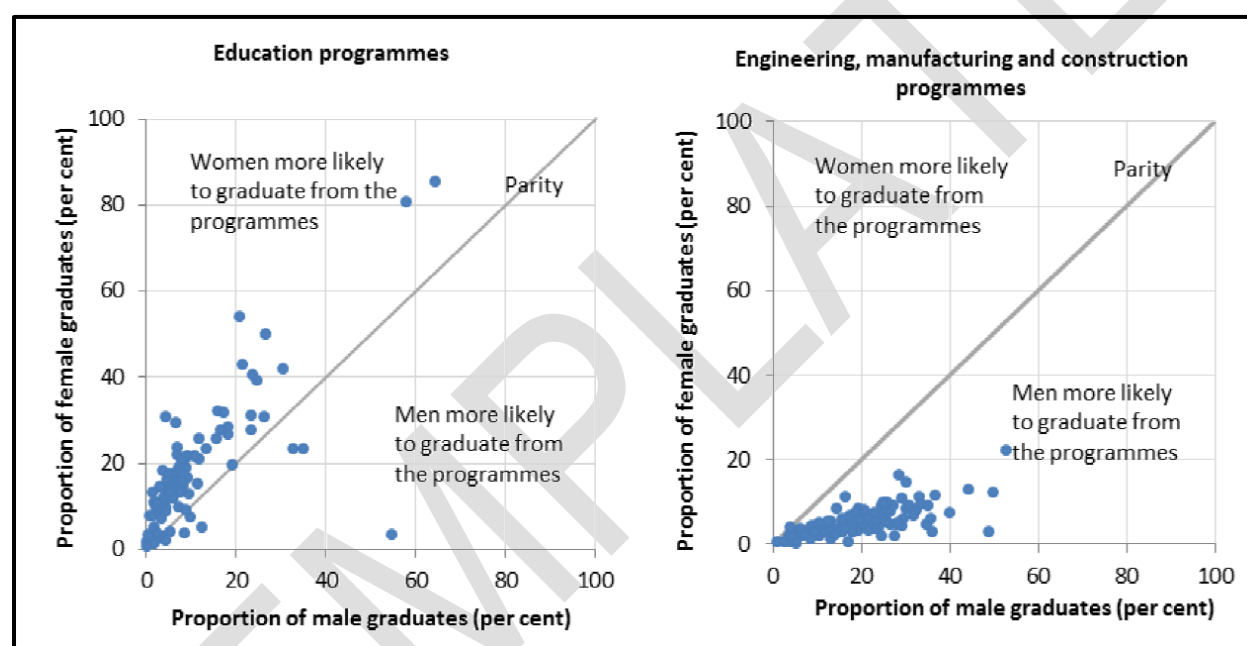
Scatter plots

Scatter plots are often used to show the relationship between two variables. The two variables are plotted against each other in order to show the patterns of their grouping. Scatter plots are also used to identify and analyze outliers in the data.

Chart 6, for example, shows women continue to be over represented in education programmes while it is still underrepresented in the most advanced degree programmes, especially in science-related fields of study, resulting in fewer women than men in engineering, manufacturing and construction programmes

Chart 6

Proportion of tertiary graduates in education and engineering, manufacturing and construction programmes, women and men, 2005—2013 (latest available)



Source: UNSD based on data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (accessed February 2015).

4.2. Presentation of gender statistics in tables²⁰

Good tables complement text. They should present numbers in a concise, well organized fashion to support the analysis. Tables help minimize numbers in the statistical story. They also eliminate the need to discuss insignificant variables that are not essential to the story line and make it easy for readers to find and understand numbers. Standard presentation tables are generally small. One decimal place will be adequate for most data. In specific cases, however, two or more decimal places may be required to illustrate subtle differences in a distribution.

²⁰ http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/stats/documents/writing/MDM_Part1_English.pdf

Presentation tables rank data by order or other hierarchies to make the numbers easily digestible. They also show the figures that are highest and the lowest, as well as other outliers. Furthermore, some of the data that need to be presented may be more easily conveyed by a table than in a graph. Most often, when data do not vary much across categories of a characteristic, or when they vary too much, tables are a better choice of presentation than graphs. List tables (tables with only one column of data) can be used, for example, to present data that does not have much variation between categories. List tables can show, for example, the regions of a country that have the minimum values observed for fertility rates or the lowest proportion of women married before the age of 18.

4.3. Dissemination- What it is and why it is important

Dissemination of statistical data includes the methods of getting information to those who need it. In the case of gender statistics, dissemination can be via specific “Women and Men” publications, as well as by presenting sex disaggregated data wherever possible in all publications. Statistical data on gender issues can also be disseminated via databases on the Internet or in other electronic forms.

Governments and international organizations were urged to promote the search for, and the dissemination of, information on the main aspects of gender issues, and to encourage the dissemination of gender-specific statistics for programme planning and evaluation. As a result, some countries have chosen to focus on women, while others consider women and men on an equal basis. Other countries are neutral in providing gender statistics, where all data are presented for both women and men. This approach supports the view that the fundamental role of gender analysis is to measure the differences between women and men.

The dissemination of gender statistics to a large audience is crucial in reducing both gender stereotypes and the misrepresentation of the roles of women and men and their contribution to society and in promoting a new gender balance in the distribution of roles within the family, at the workplace and in positions of decision-making.

Moreover, producers and users need to take a joint look at strategies for disseminating findings. This means tailoring the product specifically in terms of needs, demand and level of expertise (written, visual and electronic publications), and putting together data dissemination campaigns for both established and potential markets.

4.4. Forms for disseminating gender statistics

There are different forms for disseminating gender statistics, through specialized gender-related products and through the regular dissemination of statistics. This last approach is

implemented by making sure that all data related to persons are sex-disaggregated, and that data on specific issues affecting one sex more than the other, or that relate to gender relations between women and men, are regularly disseminated. Often there are different products inside a national statistical system which can provide a wealth of gender statistics, but it may be difficult for users to easily navigate across them.

Forms for disseminating gender statistics can be listed as following:

1. “Women and Men” publications

Sex-disaggregated data are often presented in “Women and Men” publications. The wide appeal of these publications is their small size, attractive appearance, mix of tables and graphics and level of relative simplicity.

2. Other official statistical publications

National Statistical Offices often use regular table reports to track trends over time on a given measure. Templates for these measures should be designed with a gender perspective wherever possible. Key measures of social and economic trends, such as employment rates, migration estimates or literacy rates are examples of where data should be presented by sex in an effort to mainstream gender statistics.

Often National Statistical Offices include sex in the main tables, but not when other classifications are considered. Sex should be included in all data presented for women and men regardless of the number of other classifications considered.

3. Analytical articles/reports

Wherever possible, information should go beyond sex-disaggregated data to provide analysis that sheds light on the reasons for gender differences and the factors that lie behind them. Differences that emerge when data are disseminated cross tabulated by sex often raise policy-related questions that require statistical expertise. Increasingly, statistical offices are developing expertise that enables them to help answer these questions by thoughtful development of in-depth analytical products

4. Electronic provision of data

National Statistical Offices often include on their website much more detailed information than is shown in publications. These databases often have a gender dimension. In some cases offices have created a gender-specific database. Others incorporate gender into the regular data dissemination on their websites and therefore do not have a specific gender page.

EXERCISES

Answer the following multiple choice questions. For each question, choose the correct answer from among the five choices²¹.

- 1) Data can be presented in several different forms, such as :
 - a) Tables
 - b) Maps
 - c) Charts.
 - d) All of the answers given are correct.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.
- 2) The best type of chart that provide a clear picture of changes over time or over age cohorts:
 - a) Line charts
 - b) Scatter plots
 - c) Pie charts.
 - d) All of the answers given are correct.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.
- 3) All of the following statements regarding Pie charts are correct, except:
 - a) Pie charts illustrate the percentage distribution of qualitative variable.
 - b) Pie charts must always show shares that total 100 percent.
 - c) Pie charts are used when only one or two shares of the whole are shown for different years, different population groups or different related groups.
 - d) Pie charts can be used as an alternative to bar charts.
 - e) Pie charts must not show shares that total 100 percent.
- 4) Forms for disseminating gender statistics can be:
 - a) “Women and Men” publications
 - b) Analytical articles/reports
 - c) Electronic provision of data
 - d) All of the answers given are correct.
 - e) None of the answers given are correct.

²¹ Correct answers are provided in Annex 2

5) Data presented in “Women and Men” publications are often:

- a) Sex-disaggregated data.
- b) Aggregated data.
- c) Electronic provision of data.
- d) All of the answers given are correct.
- e) None of the answers given are correct.

TEMPLATE

READING LIST

- Agricultural Censuses and Gender Considerations book. FAO publication, 2001
- UNDP Learning and Information Pack, Gender and Development Programme, United Nations Development Programme (GIDP/UNDP): -- Gender Mainstreaming, June

Annex 1

Minimum set of gender indicators, by domain*

List of gender indicators, by domain

Indicator number	Indicator
I.	Economic structures, participation in productive activities and access to resources
1	Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic work, by sex Note: separate housework and child care if possible
2	Average number of hours spent on paid and unpaid work combined (total work burden), by sex
3.a	Labour force participation rates for persons aged 15-24 and 15+, by sex
3.b	Labour force participation rates for persons aged 15+, by sex
4	Proportion of employed who are own-account workers, by sex
5	Proportion of employed who are working as contributing family workers, by sex
6	Proportion of employed who are employers, by sex
7	Percentage of firms owned by women
8.a	Percentage distribution of employed population in agricultural sector, by sex
8.b	Percentage distribution of employed population in industrial sector, by sex
8.c	Percentage distribution of employed population in service sector, by sex
9	Informal employment as a percentage of total non-agricultural employment, by sex
10	Youth unemployment rate for persons aged 15-24, by sex
11	Proportion of population with access to credit, by sex
12	Proportion of adult population owning land, by sex
13	Gender gap in wages
14	Proportion of employed working part-time, by sex
15	Employment rate of persons aged 25-49 with a child under 3 living in a household and with no children living in the household, by sex
16	Proportion of children under age 3 in formal care
17	Proportion of population using the Internet, by sex
18	Proportion of population using mobile/cellular telephones, by sex
19	Proportion of households with access to mass media (radio, TV, Internet) by sex of household
II.	Education
20	Youth literacy rate of persons aged 15-24 years old, by sex
21	Adjusted net enrolment ratio in primary education, by sex
22	Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, by sex

23	Gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education, by sex
24.a	Gender parity index of the gross enrolment ratio in primary education
24.b	Gender parity index of the gross enrolment ratio in secondary education
24.c	Gender parity index of the gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education
25	Share of female science, engineering, manufacturing and construction graduates at tertiary level
26	Proportion of females among tertiary education teachers or professors
27	Adjusted net intake to the first grade of primary education, by sex
28	Primary education completion rate (proxy), by sex
29	Gross graduates from lower secondary education, by sex
30	Effective transition rate from primary to secondary education (general programmes), by sex
31.a	Educational attainment (primary) of the population aged 25 and older, by sex
31.b	Educational attainment (lower secondary) of the population aged 25 and older, by sex
31.c	Educational attainment (upper secondary) of the population aged 25 and older, by sex
31.d	Educational attainment (post secondary) of the population aged 25 and older, by sex
31.e	Educational attainment (tertiary) of the population aged 25 and older, by sex
III.	Health and related services
32	Contraceptive prevalence among women who are married or in a union, aged 15-49
33	Under-5 mortality rate, by sex
34	Maternal mortality ratio
35.a	Antenatal care coverage, at least one visit
35.b	Antenatal care coverage, at least four visits
36	Proportion of births attended by skilled health professional
37	Smoking prevalence among persons aged 15 and over, by sex
38	Proportion of adults who are obese, by sex
39	Women's share of population aged 15-49 living with HIV/AIDS
40	Access to anti-retroviral drug, by sex
41	Life expectancy at age 60, by sex
42.a	Adult mortality 15-34 years by cause
42.b	Adult mortality 35-59 years by cause
IV	Public life and decision-making
43	Women's share of government ministerial positions
44	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
45	Women's share of managerial positions
46	Percentage of female police officers
47	Percentage of female judges
V.	Human rights of women and the girl child
48	Proportion of ever-partnered women (aged 15-49) subjected to physical and /or sexual violence by a current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months
49	Proportion of women (aged 15-49) subjected to sexual violence in past 12 months by persons other than an intimate partner, since age 15
50	Prevalence of female genital mutilation/cutting (for relevant countries only)
51	Percentage of women aged 20-24 years old who were married or in a union before age 18
52	Adolescent birth rate

Annex 2

Correct answers for the multiple questions are:

Unit 1

Q.1. (d)

Q.2. (e)

Q.3. (d)

Q.4. (e)

Q.5. (d)

Q.6. (e)

Unit 2

Q.1. (d)

Q.2. (c)

Q.3. (a)

Q.4. (d)

Q.5. (d)

Q.6. (a)

Unit 3

Q.1. (d)

Q.2. (d)

Q.3. (d)

Q.4. (e)

Q.5. (b)

Q.6. (e)

Q.7. (c)

Q.8. (a)

Q.9. (c)

Q.10. (e)

Q.11. (e)

Q.12. (b)

Q.13. (e)

Unit 4

Q.1. (d)

Q.2. (a)

Q.3. (e)

Q.4. (d)

Q.5. (a)

TEMPLATE

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