GENDER AND STATISTICAL PROCESSES

HANDBOOK FOR GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN AFRICAN OFFICIAL STATISTICS

United Nations
Economic Commission
for Africa

UNFPA

Contents

Foreword

Gender statistics provide an accurate picture of the socioeconomic situation of women and men, and girls and boys. They are an essential tool for raising awareness about gender issues and highlighting concerns and gaps. In addition, developing gender statistics brings benefits to the national statistical system. The process of mainstreaming gender in statistics improves the quality of data by ensuring that they accurately cover the whole population, are based on harmonized concepts and the latest international standards and reach and meet the needs of data users.

The importance of gender is reflected in international instruments such as the Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, the Beijing Platform for Action, the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Millennium Declaration. These instruments call upon countries to produce and use gender statistics to develop policies and monitor progress towards their development goals.

The crucial nature of gender statistics has been emphasized by national, regional and international bodies. In recent years, the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), in collaboration with other pan-African organizations and partners such as the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN-Women), has been leading initiatives to develop gender statistics across the African region. This has raised awareness among the statistical community. A working group on gender statistics, the African Group on Gender Statistics, set up under the auspices of the African Statistical Commission, has developed a gender statistics programme for the region. The African Programme on Gender Statistics identifies the strategies for improving gender statistics and includes a five-year action plan (2012–2016) for achieving those goals.

One of the products of the African Programme on Gender Statistics is the present handbook on mainstreaming gender in statistics. It aims to provide statisticians with a starting point for understanding the importance of gender in the development context and the crucial nature of gender statistics. The handbook combines guidance from existing manuals and resources for gender mainstreaming in statistics, and provides examples and issues relevant to African countries. It is accompanied by the African Glossary of Gender Statistics, developed to ensure a common understanding of key concepts and terms.

About this publication

Gender statistics give an accurate picture of the lives of women and men and provide the basis for policies and initiatives designed to redress inequalities. In recent years, the importance of these statistics has been widely recognized by development practitioners at international, regional and national levels. Recognizing that national statistical systems need help to understand gender issues and produce statistics that are relevant, ECA, UNFPA, UN-Women and others have been striving to augment the capacity of countries across the region to produce and use these much-needed data.

Purpose

An essential component of developing capacity is the provision of consistent and practical guidance. This handbook aims to provide data producers and users across Africa with a common understanding of gender statistics and how to produce them. It outlines issues, challenges and solutions aimed at helping statisticians integrate gender concerns in all phases of the statistical production process, from collection to dissemination. It is also a useful reference for users of gender statistics to improve their understanding of how data are produced.

Structure

While the international statistical community already has at its disposal a wide range of literature on mainstreaming gender in official statistics, this handbook draws on existing resources and tailors them to the needs and context of the Africa region. It is structured in three parts:

Gender and statistics: this explains the relationship between gender, development and statistics and makes the case for gender-related data. It also outlines some of the typical challenges faced and recommends solutions.

How to mainstream gender in statistics: this is the main part of the handbook, and provides practical guidance on changing current methods of data collection, analysis and dissemination, to ensure that the information produced accurately reflects the lives of women and men, and girls and boys. This section also explains how policies could be introduced to achieve gender equality. It includes examples and case studies from around the region.

Implementation: this focuses on the actions to be taken at the regional and national levels. It also provides a basis for developing a practical and achievable work plan for mainstreaming gender in the collection, production and dissemination of statistics.

Target audience

The handbook is designed for producers of official statistics in the African region, including national statistics offices and government ministries responsible for collecting, producing and publishing data. It will also be made valuable to users of gender statistics to help them understand data production methods and lobby for better mainstreaming of gender concerns in official statistics.

Acknowledgements

I. Gender and statistics

Gender equality has been widely recognized as a prerequisite for achieving national and international development goals. As such, it is a high priority area for African countries and is reflected in their national goals and plans.

In addition to being a basic right, gender equality brings economic benefits. Studies have demonstrated the link between empowering women, gender equality and economic growth. Using econometric models to simulate different scenarios, the findings of such studies suggest that sub-Saharan and North Africa would probably have had appreciably more economic growth since 1960 had they achieved higher levels of gender equality in education.[1]

"Gender equality is more than a goal in itself. It is a precondition for meeting the challenge of reducing poverty, promoting sustainable development and building good governance."

Kofi Annan
Former United Nations Secretary-General

Gender statistics play a crucial role in measuring gender equality and informing policy and decision makers on progress and gaps. Without gender-sensitive statistics, the data collection process is often gender-biased, having been designed without taking gender concerns into account. Introducing a gender perspective in statistics involves removing gender bias from existing collections, developing new collections to inform on gender issues (e.g. time use and asset ownership), conducting gender-focused analysis of data and disseminating information.

A. Key concepts

The mainstreaming of gender in statistics requires a clear and common understanding of what is meant by terms such as "gender". The *African Glossary of Gender Statistics* has been developed to accompany this handbook. It provides definitions that are consistent with international standards. Some of the key terms are explained below.

While the term "gender" is often used synonymously with "sex", it actually refers to the changing roles that women and men play in society. Sex and gender mean different things:

Sex	**Relatively fixed biological and physiological** characteristics that define men and women (i.e., female and male)
Gender	**Changing social norms** for roles, behaviours, activities and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women (i.e., feminine and masculine)

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[1] J. Ward and others (2010). Evidence for Action: Gender Equality and Economic Growth. The Royal Institute of International Affairs: London.

Producing gender-sensitive statistics involves mainstreaming gender concerns in statistical production:

Gender mainstreaming	The process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes…[2]
Gender mainstreaming in national statistics	Gender issues and gender-based biases are taken into account systematically in the production of all official statistics and at all stages of data production.[3]

Gender mainstreaming in statistics requires data producers and data users to work together to develop a good understanding of data needs, uses and limitations. This involves a wide range of stakeholders:

National statistical system	The national statistical system (NSS) is the ensemble of statistical organizations and units within a country that jointly collect, process and disseminate official statistics on behalf of national Government.[4]
National women's machinery	This is the central policy coordination unit inside Government. Its main task is to support government-wide mainstreaming of a gender-equality perspective in all policy areas.[5]
National mechanisms for gender equality	The term "national mechanisms for gender equality" is understood to include those bodies and institutions within different branches of the State (legislative, executive and judicial branches) as well as independent, accountability and advisory bodies that, together, are recognized as "national mechanisms for gender equality" by all stakeholders. They may include, but not be limited to: • The national mechanisms for the advancement of women within Government • Interministerial bodies (e.g. task forces, working groups, commissions or similar arrangements)

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[2] United Nations Statistics Division (2013). Gender Statistics Manual: Integrating a gender perspective into Statistics: Glossary of Terms. http://unstats.un.org/unsd/genderstatmanual/Glossary.ashx.

[3] United Nations Statistics Division (2013). Gender Statistics Manual: Integrating a gender perspective into Statistics: Glossary of Terms.

[4] Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2002). *Measuring the Non-Observed Economy: A Handbook.*

[5] United Nations (1995). *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.* Available at http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/pdf/BDPfA%20E.pdf.

- Advisory or consultative bodies, with multi-stakeholder participation
- Gender equality Ombud
- Gender equality observatory
- Parliamentary committee.[6]

What are the main gender issues in Africa?

Many of the gender concerns are shared by all African countries and other regions. A report on an assessment of trends in national mechanisms for gender equality explored these concerns and the mechanisms being put in place to tackle them. The report identified the continent's longstanding and emerging gender-related priorities as follows:

- The **persistence of gender-related poverty**, deriving from women's lack of access to resources, and the gender biases in economic policies and outcomes
- The **political representation** of women
- The rights and development of **the girl child**
- **Gender-based violence**, in particular domestic violence
- Health, in particular **sexual and reproductive health**, with special reference to maternal mortality and morbidity
- The **impact of HIV/AIDS** on women
- The **rights of women and children during conflict** and post-conflict reconstruction
- The **impact of climate change** on women's livelihoods

Source: UNECA. 2012. Recent Trends in National Mechanisms for Gender Equality. http://www.uneca.org/sites/default/files/publications/report-cwd.pdf

B.   What are gender statistics?

Gender statistics is an area that cuts across all fields of statistical measurement – social, economic and environmental. It involves producing information that reflects the reality of life for women and men, and girls and boys. Mainstreaming gender in statistics is not just about ensuring that data are sex-disaggregated; it also involves:

- Reviewing statistical methods to eliminate sources of gender bias (e.g. questions that lead to under-reporting of women's role in economic production

- Developing new methods for collecting data needed to measure pertinent issues, such as gender-based violence, the informal economy and women's participation in decision-making

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[6] United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN-Women) (2013). Directory of National Mechanisms for Gender Equality, July. Available at www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/documents/National-Mechanisms-Web.pdf.

- Raising awareness among subject-matter statisticians about gender concerns and the importance of gender equality for national development

- Building relationships with users of gender-related data, so as to better understand their needs and provide responsive and relevant data

- Conducting gender-focused data analysis

- Publishing and disseminating gender statistics in regular statistical releases and reports, and producing dedicated gender statistics publications

While the field of gender statistics is still relatively new, much has already been done to develop standards and methods for measuring gender-related concerns. International and regional manuals, such as this handbook, have been developed to provide consistent guidance, share experiences and promote international comparability of data. Methodologies for conducting time-use surveys and measuring gender-based violence provide statisticians with the tools to efficiently collect data on these hard-to-measure issues.

"Gender statistics should do more than simply have male and female categories: they should focus on the issues of particular relevance to women and men and girls and boys and their different roles in society"

ECA, 2012. *Recent trends in national mechanisms for gender equality*

Gender is relevant, not to social statistics alone, but also to economic collections. For example, data on the labour force, businesses and national accounts have an important impact on how women's contribution to economic production is counted and valued. Engendering statistics should involve the whole statistics office and system, not only social statisticians.

C. Why are gender statistics important?

The concept of "gender" was initiated by feminist movements and has become an essential tool for assessing the contribution of women to the development process. In 1972, the United Nations Committee on the Status of Women organized one of the first expert meetings on women's affairs. Since then, tremendous progress has been made in agreeing on standards for gender equality and mechanisms for reporting on gender-related goals and commitments. These processes have generated increased demand for data and highlighted gaps in data quality.

Sub-Saharan and North Africa are lagging behind other developing regions in achieving gender quality. The 'continent's slow progress towards the Millennium Development Goals has raised major concerns. Data show that African women are much more likely to be in vulnerable employment than men, more girls than boys are not attending primary school, and in all regions, except for North Africa, many people, predominantly women, are infected with HIV.[7] These and other gender disparities highlight the importance of eliminating discrimination against women and the role played by gender statistics in informing decision makers on progress.

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[7] United Nations (2012). The Millennium Development Goals Report: Gender Chart 2012.

Donors and development partners understand that gender equality is a prerequisite for development, and have made this explicit in many of the projects and programmes that they fund. This is true across all other sectors, including statistics. In 2011, more than half (52 per cent) of the $53 million in official development assistance targeted at statistical capacity-building in Africa had gender as the primary or a significant focus. In addition, gender was a major focus of one fourth (25 per cent) of all official development assistance to the region ($43 billion), generating a high demand for gender-related statistics, as donors require activities to be monitored and evaluated.[8]

D.   Demand for gender statistics

The demand for gender-related data stems from a variety of sources, such as legislation and policies, national planning and monitoring mechanisms and international commitments to human rights conventions and development goals. Demand is grounded in the extensive efforts made in recent decades to set and monitor goals for achieving gender equality. Key among these are the African Gender and Development Index, the Millennium Development Goals and the Convention for the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women.

National data needs

The primary source of data demand should be national legislative and policy frameworks. These reflect the issues of most importance to the national context and should include the goals, targets and indicators to be monitored.

Few countries have enacted specific legislation on gender equality. Most often, regulations are embedded in the laws for each sector, such as education, health and employment. These are used as a basis for national planning and policymaking. The national women's machinery ensures that gender is mainstreamed in these plans.

National development plans require the agreement and monitoring of measurable goals. Data producers should be familiar with national and sectoral plans and how they translate into data needs. Some may explicitly list the indicators required for monitoring progress. Other data needs may be implicit in the goals that policymakers are aiming to achieve, such as education for all or increased opportunities for small business owners. Data used to monitor national development goals should always be disaggregated by sex and other relevant characteristics such as age and location, wherever possible.

Attempting to align national frameworks with international demands for statistics will lead to more efficient and consistent reporting. For example, incorporating Millennium Development Goal indicators into national monitoring and evaluation systems has been a priority for countries in Africa. The data are extremely useful for national decision-making and also as a reporting requirement under commitments to internationally agreed goals.

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[8] OECD StatExtracts Database on Aid projects targeting gender equality and women's empowerment. http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=GENDER.

Beijing Platform for Action

One significant step in defining the relationship between gender and development was the Beijing Platform for Action, which was the outcome of the Fourth World Conference on Women, held in 1995.[9] The mainstreaming of gender in statistics was a strategic objective of this platform, which calls on Governments to collect, compile, analyse and publish statistics on issues related to women and men in society. Priority areas include data on the informal sector, work and employment, time use, sexual and reproductive health, gender-based violence and the participation of women and men with disabilities.

The 15-year review of the Beijing Platform, conducted in 2010, revealed that **the shortage or total lack of data was hampering the possibility of measuring progress in many areas**. Despite efforts to improve gender statistics, many gaps remain, and there is a clear need to increase investment in data collection and analysis.[10]

The Beijing Platform is often used as a basis for national gender equality plans and policies. Statisticians should be familiar with the priorities that it identifies and the processes that countries follow to implement and monitor the platform.

Convention for the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women

The Convention for the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women is a key driver of demand for gender statistics. Signatory countries are required to report to the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women regularly, using data as evidence of their progress and areas of concern. The Committee requires statistics to substantiate any claims made,[11] and also requires countries to quote the latest data across a broad spectrum of areas. To illustrate the breadth of data required, the most recent report from the region – Guinea's combined seventh and eighth report to the Committee[12] – quotes disaggregated statistics on:

- Women in political and public life
- School enrolment
- Number of teachers and students
- Employment rates and status

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[9] United Nations (1995). *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*. Available at
http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/pdf/BDPfA%20E.pdf.

[10] United Nations (2010). Commission on the Status of Women: Report on the fifty-fourth session (13 March and 14 October 2009 and 1–12 March 2010). Economic and Social Council E/2010/27, E/CN.6/2010/11.

[11] According to the guidelines: "the Convention-specific document should include specific data and statistics disaggregated by sex which are relevant to the implementation of each article of the Convention and the general recommendations of the Committee in order to enable the Committee to assess progress in the implementation of the Convention." (United Nations (2009). International Human Rights Instruments: *Compilation of guidelines on the form and content of reports to be submitted by States parties to the international human rights treaties* – HRI/GEN/2/Rev.6).

[12] United Nations (2013). Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women: Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women – Combined seventh and eighth periodic reports of States parties, Guinea.

- Occupations of employed persons
- Education attainment of employed women
- Workers in businesses and paid employment
- Public service employees
- Maternal and reproductive health

Such reporting requires regular collection and production of gender statistics. These need to be readily accessible to the people responsible for tackling and monitoring gender concerns and reporting progress to the Committee. The process will be most efficient when data are maintained in a central location, with updates made whenever new survey or census data are released, and new data drawn annually (or more frequently) from administrative sources. The national statistics offices are the logical custodians of these data, given their role as the main producers of official statistics. They should be aware of the national processes around the Convention and play a key role in producing the reports.

Millennium Development Goals

The Millennium Development Goals put the spotlight on official statistics by focusing development efforts on clear goals, with quantifiable targets and indicators. In addition to the gender equality goal (Goal 3: Promote gender equality and women's empowerment) and the goals related to child and reproductive health, all relevant indicators are required to be disaggregated by sex and other characteristics such as urban or rural location. The Millennium Development Goals have been another key driver of demand for gender statistics.

E. Evolution of gender and development

Methods for achieving equitable and sustainable development have been the focus of various theoretical studies on development. In order to ensure a gender dimension in the development process, several paradigms have been developed, namely:

- Women in development (WID)
- Women and development (WAD) and gender mainstreaming in development (GMD)
- Gender and development (GAD)

These models are designed as intervention strategies for public policy and have helped to clarify and increase understanding of the concept of gender.

1. WID approach

International concern about gender inequality, which had been building over many years, led to the formation of the Commission on the Status of Women in 1946. It was not until the 1960s that the claims for women's rights and the wave of women's movements led to the development of the WID approach. With women at the centre of debate, the WID approach ensured that sustainable development was conducted with full and equal participation by men and women. This was derived from the study by economist Ester Boserup in her 1970 book "Women's Role in Economic Development", which also drew attention to the lack of data for

assessing the contribution of women in development.[13] The goal at the time was to integrate women into existing structures and meet their practical needs (food, reducing tasks, etc.) in order to improve their livelihoods.

WID remained an important approach, following the first World Conference on Women in Mexico in 1975. During that period, women's issues became increasingly important, leading to the declaration of the International Women's Year (1975) and the United Nations Decade for Women (1976–1985).

2.   WAD approach

In the late 1970s, based on the lessons from WID, WAD strove to highlight the status of women worldwide. The WAD approach highlighted the fact that, while women had always participated in development activities, they still remained disadvantaged compared to men. To correct those disparities, economic projects were designed, taking women into account. That, however, was not enough to reduce the gap between men and women, particularly in terms of access to resources. The situation clearly had to do with the research objectives of that era. Guidelines arising from that approach have been quite restrictive. Instead of analysing the phenomenon in terms of contribution, and considering women as fully fledged development actors, they tended to focus on matters that were already well understood, made observations, such as the social organizations existing in Africa.

There were other studies, however, which highlighted some basic concerns, including the well-being, the personal development (education, training) and the place of women in the economic organization of their society. These studies provide information on the basic needs of women in development. Once they became aware of the critical role that women played in economic development, researchers and feminists made concerted efforts to ensure that women were recognized as full actors in development. Those efforts were, however, thwarted by the lack of appropriate data collection that would allow quantification of gender disparities.

3.   GAD approach

The GAD approach was developed in the mid-1980s.[14] Taking into account the concept of equity, gender was considered in terms of equality only. The study of biological differences led to the analysis of social roles, gender relations and the factors behind those disparities. Thus, people were interested not only in the status of women, but also in their environment and livelihoods.

Under the GAD approach, women, who had hitherto played a secondary role, were better recognized as adding value to development. GAD projects focused on welfare, equality, anti-poverty, efficiency and empowerment.[15] Based on studies on social development, gender

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[13] Boserup, Ester (1970). "La Femme face au développement économique" (with Marie-Catherine Marache), coll. Sociologie d'aujourd'hui, Puf, 2001, 315 pp., Original.

[14] Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era (DAWN) (1986). Development, Crises, and Alternative Visions. Third World Women's Perspectives. Canadian Woman Studies/Les Cahiers de la Femme, 7 (1/2), 53–59.
[15] Moser, Caroline (1993). "Gender Planning and Development.

was seen as a way of assessing the issue of division of labour, allocation of resources and time. That view captured gender-specific situations vis-à-vis political, economic and social actions. In terms of efficiency, the argument was that women were untapped human resources in the development process. The approach encouraged greater economic participation by women, which should in turn give them a higher status and lead to their equality with men.[16] The approach, however, was flawed in that it focused on the productive role of women, to the detriment of the unpaid work that they perform in the household and, while the GAD approach recognized that women were an integral part of any development strategy, a continuing lack of data made it difficult to assess the level of their integration.

Table 1
Comparing WID and GAD approaches

Women in development	Gender and development
Women are marginalized	Women are development actors
Focus: women	Focus: gender relations
Problem: exclusion of women from development	Problem: inequality in power relationship
Goal: ensure more equality in development	Goal: ensure more equity, sustainability and more participation in development
Solution: integrate women in development process	Solution: empower women
Strategy: positive discrimination	Strategy: taking gender relations into account

Source: Ntamag-Ndjebet, 2008. "SOWAMED training session, October 2008, Rabat, Morocco. Introduction to Gender and Development approach, pp. 3–4.

The current trend is towards a radical change of paradigm, transcending the WID, WAD-GMD and GAD approaches and setting a course for equitable development that takes full account of gender imbalances. Economic globalization and market liberalization have made this new direction an imperative. With the inability of Governments, in particular in Africa, to overcome development issues, informal employment has developed rapidly in terms of production, resource allocation and job creation.[17] Gender mainstreaming in official statistics in developing countries is increasingly becoming of major concern to policymakers, researchers and other development stakeholders.

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[16] Bisilliat, J. (dir.), Verschuur, C. (dir.) (2001). Genre et économie: un premier éclairage. Paris: l'Harmattan, 482 p. (Cahiers genre et développement).

[17] United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2009). "Etude sur la mesure du secteur informel et de l'emploi informel en Afrique", Commission Economique pour l'Afrique, Centre africain pour la statistique (CEA), July 2009, 76 pp.

F.   Gender statistics in the African region

The compilation of gender statistics is not a new undertaking for the countries of Africa o. Efforts have been under way for some time to develop gender statistics capacity and improve the availability and use of gender-related data. The timeline below shows some of the latest milestones in the development of gender statistics in Africa:[18]

Table 2:
Milestones in the development of gender statistics in Africa

Date	Milestone
2004	African Gender Development Index – methodology manual published
2008	Regional Workshop on Gender Statistics Addis Ababa
	Statistics Commission for Africa Working Group on Gender Statistics
	High-level Policy Dialogue on Gender Statistics for Socioeconomic Development Kampala
2009	Kampala City group on gender statistics was formed African Gender Statistics Programme
	African Gender Statistical System
	Gender Statistics Network: provides a mechanism for knowledge sharing, peer learning and networking among stakeholders dealing with gender statistics issues
2011	Report on AGDI pilot
	African Women's Rights Observatory established
2012	United Nations workshop on integrating a gender perspective into statistics Kampala

Despite this considerable progress, capacity is still being developed and mainstreaming a gender perspective in the statistical system remains a challenge for many African countries. In 2011, the United Nations Statistics Division conducted the Global Review of Gender Statistics Programmes. Reponses were received from 33 countries in Africa and the results revealed some common issues and constraints. Most African countries lacked a dedicated budget for gender statistics and only some benefited from ad hoc funds. Gender focal points or units were primarily tasked with answering requests for gender statistics and the compilation and dissemination of the data. [19] Only a few countries had established interministerial coordination mechanisms for overseeing the production of gender statistics at the national level.

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[18] Sanga, D. Economic Commission for Africa (2009). African Experiences on Capacity Building for the Production of Gender Statistics. Paper presented at the Global Forum for Gender Statistics held in Accra, 26–28 January 2009.

[19] United Nations Statistics Division (2013). United Nations Workshop on Integrating a Gender Perspective into Statistics, 4–7 December, Kampala: Report of the Workshop. ESA/STAT/441/2/41A/L.3.

Only half of them had set in place permanent arrangements for user-producer dialogue, with a view to guiding the formulation of concepts and definitions and facilitating data collection programmes.

To date, very few countries have managed to achieve their objectives of mainstreaming gender into their statistics. The common reasons for this include lack of financial and human resources, and of political will.[20] The African Group on Gender Statistics hopes to address these gaps. The Group's specific objectives, as articulated in its terms of reference, are to:

(a)   Promote mainstreaming of gender into national statistical systems and the StatCom-Africa specialized working groups;

(b)   Provide a forum for discussion between key users and producers of statistics;

(c)   Promote coordination of initiatives and activities on gender statistics;

(d)   Promote exchange of experiences and foster best practices on gender statistics;

(e)   Advocate the development of a regional strategy on mainstreaming gender in national statistical systems.[21]

G.   Common challenges

1.   Convincing senior management and subject matter statisticians

Convincing senior management and subject matter statisticians of the importance and benefits of gender mainstreaming is often a challenge. Resources tend to be scarce and requests to focus on gender may be seen as an additional burden and a distraction from the core work of data production. Developing strategies to convince colleagues to incorporate a gender perspective in their work is essential. This is a continuing task that will require several interventions.

2.   Securing senior management support

Only with the support of the highest decision makers in the organization will the task of mainstreaming gender in statistics be possible. Senior managers need to be briefed on the importance of producing gender statistics and their benefits to the organization. Their full commitment is needed to secure resources and motivate staff to conduct the work involved.

Finding a senior manager of a statistics office who could champion the effort would be a good strategy for obtaining buy-in at the highest levels. This should be someone who

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[20] Economic Commission for Africa (2012). Global Review of Gender Statistics: Preliminary results for Africa region – a few highlights. Presentation given at the Global Forum on Gender Statistics, 27–29 March 2012, Dead Sea, Jordan.

[21] Economic Commission for Africa (2011). Report of the African Group on Gender Statistics. Paper submitted to the Third Meeting of the Statistical Commission for Africa (StatCom Africa - III) held in Cape Town, South Africa, 18–23 January 2012.

appreciates the value of a gender perspective in statistics and can advocate it strongly among other senior managers and agencies in the national statistical system.

3.   Lack of resources

Mainstreaming gender in statistics involves a number of steps: strategic planning, user consultation, harmonization of concepts, development of working methods, conduct of gender analysis and changes to dissemination practices. In the initial stages, the work involved in building capacity and implementing a gender statistics programme is detailed and time-consuming. It may entail taking decisions to introduce new collections on time use and gender-based violence, for instance. All this requires the allocation of considerable resources to the national statistics office and other data-producing agencies. It also calls for the involvement of data users within the national women's machinery.

Experience has shown that allocating a gender focal point within the agency does lead to considerable progress towards gender-mainstreamed statistics. The processes involved require more significant and sustained investment. The staff have to be dedicated, while the gender experts and those specializing in survey design, analysis and dissemination must be fully involved.

Once the initial awareness raising and detailed work to mainstream gender are completed, the workload associated with producing gender-relevant statistics becomes part of normal statistical processes and therefore less resource-intensive. Gender statistics programmes can be designed to receive more resources during the initial phases, the length of which will depend on the objectives and scope of the programme.

4.   Limited capacity to use gender statistics

The limited knowledge that government officials and policymakers may have of gender concerns and statistics poses a major challenge to the mainstreaming of gender in statistics. Government policy typically requires all ministries and agencies to mainstream gender in their work. National statistics are a key resource for this, as they provide evidence of gender disparities and a method for measuring progress. Policymakers are often not familiar with statistics, however, and lack the skills needed to retrieve, interpret and apply them in their work. Besides, as gender equality is a misunderstood or little-known concept, mainstreaming it effectively requires knowledge, skills and tools in this area. The mainstreaming of gender in national statistics, therefore, usually also involves developing the skills of data users.

Strategies may include:

- Increasing statistical literacy through specially designed training programmes on gender analysis and statistics

- Working with the national women's machinery to develop methods for mainstreaming statistics in gender programmes

- Developing statistical products that are tailored to the needs of specific audiences and are easy to access and use (e.g. factsheets, databases)

H. Good reasons to mainstream gender in statistics

1. Improved data quality

Focusing on gender statistics provides an opportunity for data-producing agencies not only to improve the availability of gender-related information, but also to improve overall data quality. As the work of mainstreaming gender in statistics cuts across different subject areas and various stages of the production process, the systems, processes and lessons learned through it can be applied to benefit other areas of data production.

For example, mainstreaming gender in statistics might involve producing an annual compendium of gender-related data. This requires coordination across a range of government agencies, and also setting up processes to collect, validate, analyse and present the information. The experience of developing a product that combines survey, census and administrative data and communicating it to a broad audience of gender and development practitioners can provide far-reaching benefits for the national statistics system, such as:

- Building relationships between data users and data producers, increasing understanding of data needs, how statistics are interpreted for policymaking, how data are produced, and their limitations
- Bringing producers of data closer together, by harmonizing concepts, thus leading to more efficient data production processes
- Developing skills in data analysis and presentation

Figure 1
Nigeria's Gender Statistics Newsletter
Bringing gender statistics to users involves experimenting with different ways of presenting and communicating information. Nigeria's Gender Statistics newsletter, released twice a year, is a good example of an innovative approach.

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria. www.nigerianstat.com

2. Building demand and attracting funding

Gender is a priority in many development initiatives and can attract significant attention. As mentioned above, most official development assistance funding for statistics in Africa has

been linked to gender concerns. Improving the production and use of gender statistics enhances user appreciation of national statistics, and leads to increased demand for data and additional statistics resources.

Mainstreaming a gender perspective in statistics should be seen as an opportunity to unlock the potential of data already being produced and build the reputation of the statistical system for providing an excellent information service.

I.   Underlying principles

The 10 Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics, adopted by the United Nations Statistical Commission in 1994 and reaffirmed in 2013,[22] highlight the importance of a gender perspective in statistics. Principle 1 calls on data producers to serve the Government, economy and public with relevant data that meet the test of practical utility. As outlined above, there is typically a high demand for gender-related data within Governments, from non-governmental organizations and other development partners.

Principle 8 highlights the important role of coordination among statistical agencies, which is an essential element of incorporating a gender perspective in the statistical system. Taking steps to mainstream gender across administrative, survey and census collections provides an opportunity to demonstrate how working together improves efficiency and the quality of official statistics.

Principle 9 affirms the importance of using international concepts and methods to promote consistent and efficient systems. Gender statistics is a field for which such standards have been defined, and the African Statistical Commission is seeing to it that national statistical systems adot them.

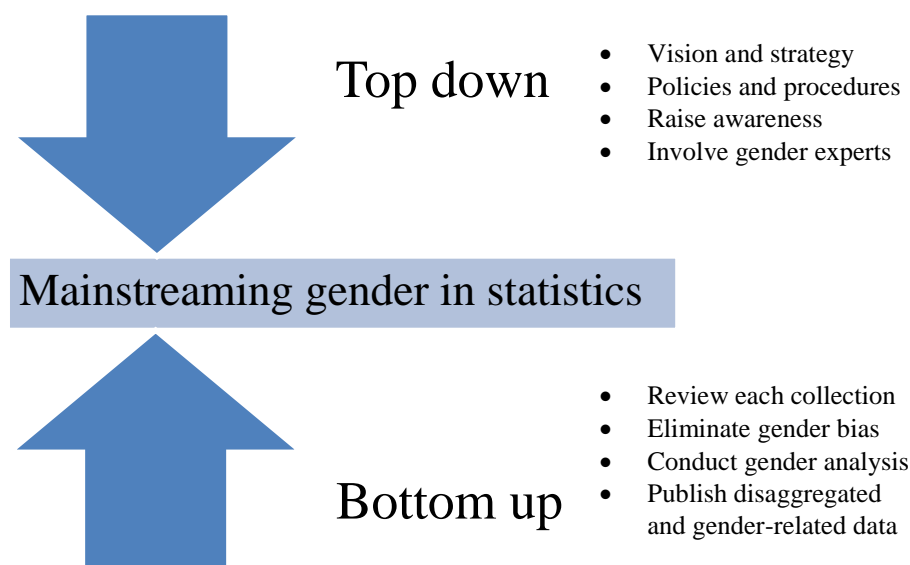# II.   How to mainstream gender in statistics

The task of mainstreaming gender in statistics is multifaceted and needs to be approached from different angles (figure 2). This involves working from the top down to convince senior managers, develop a strategic vision for gender statistics, agree on and document policies, raise awareness, and introduce coordination and accountability mechanisms.

With the right policies and procedures in place, most of the work to mainstream gender in statistics takes place from the bottom up and involves, ensuring that gender concerns are taken into account at each phase of the statistical production process, and reviewing the data collected to detect and address gender bias. The work also entails ensuring that gender analysis is conducted and data are appropriately disaggregated in each statistical product.

[22] United Nations (2013). Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics.
 http://unstats.un.org/unsd/dnss/gp/FP-New-E.pdf.

Figure 2
Activities involved in mainstreaming gender in statistics

Top down
- Vision and strategy
- Policies and procedures
- Raise awareness
- Involve gender experts

Mainstreaming gender in statistics

- Review each collection
- Eliminate gender bias
- Conduct gender analysis
- Publish disaggregated and gender-related data

Bottom up

Data production

Data production typically refers to the entire cycle of steps taken to produce statistics, from establishing the initial need for data, to designing the collection instrument, collecting, processing, analysing and disseminating results. The Generic Statistical Business Process Model (figure 3) provides common terms to describe the steps involved. This can be used to illustrate the stage at which interventions are needed to introduce a gender perspective in statistics.

Figure 3
Generic Statistical Business Process Model (GSBPM)
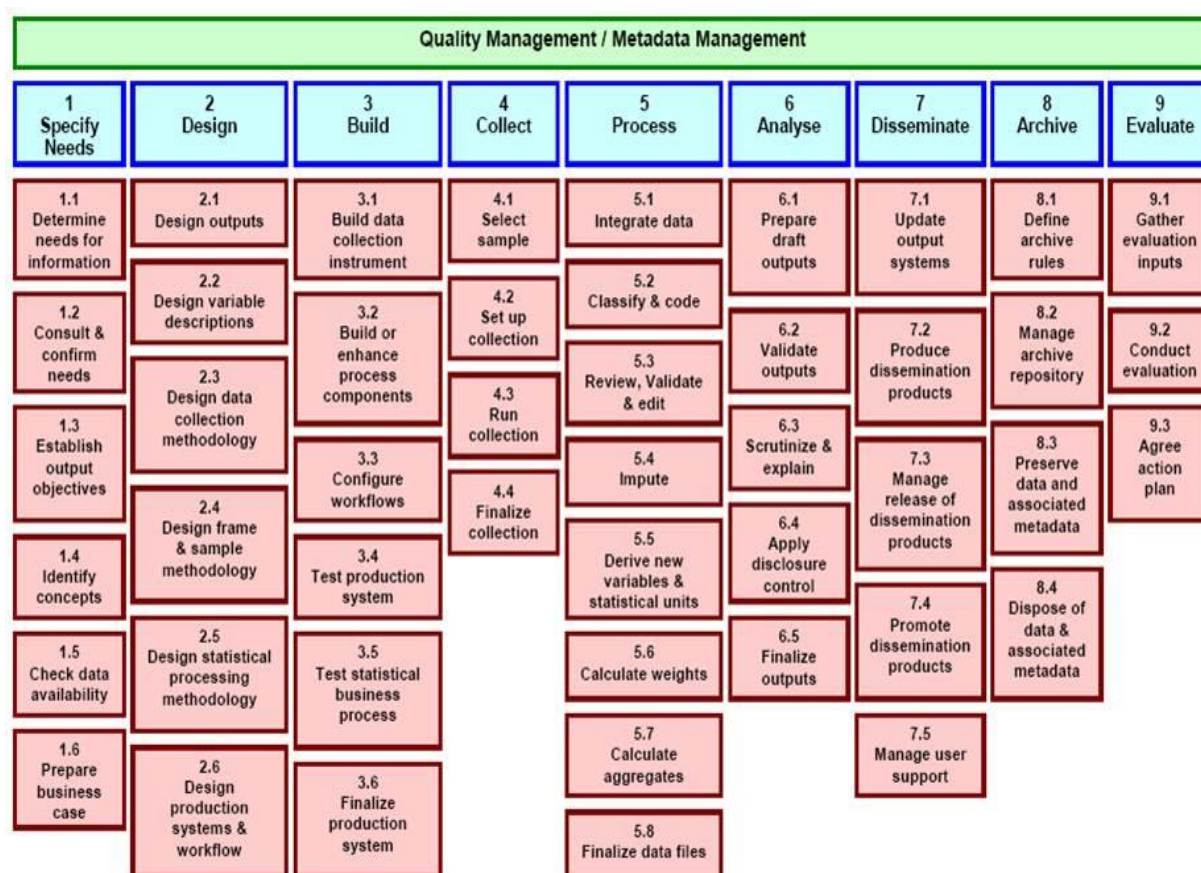
Source: Economic Commission for Europe (ECE), April 2009.

Generic Statistical Business Process Model

The Generic Statistical Business Process Model, based on work done by Statistics New Zealand and Statistics Canada, was originally developed to provide common terminology for the statistical production process among metadata experts in the ECE region. It is intended to outline the steps involved in the production of any type of official statistics. The nine blue boxes towards the top of the diagram represent the main phases from the initial request for data, to archiving and evaluating the effectiveness of the collection. The red boxes that follow underneath represent the steps involved in each phase. Quality management and metadata management are relevant during all phases and steps of statistical production.

The model is not linear, meaning that a selection of phases and steps may be different from collection to collection, and may not necessarily follow from left to right. For example, repeating a labour force survey for the tenth time may not involve the first three phases to specify needs, redesign or rebuild the collection instrument, as this would have been done and presumably refined, from earlier collections.

Ensuring that official statistics are gender-sensitive requires action at various stages of the production process. For example, table 3 below outlines the types of steps that might be taken to mainstream gender in a business activity survey.

Table 3
Selected steps involved in developing a business activity survey

Phase	*Step*	*Example of action to mainstream gender in the survey*
1: Specify needs	1.1: Consult and confirm needs	Meet with Department of Women's Affairs, UN-Women (and other actors in the national women's machinery) to inform them of the survey and discuss the potential uses for the data. This discussion should focus on the gender policy issues in the business sector, their data needs and the type of information that the survey could produce to meet those needs.
2: Design	2.1: Design outputs	Determine which tables will be produced from the results to meet gender-related data needs. Ensure that outputs are sex-disaggregated and cross-referenced to produce gender-related information, such as average wages, education attainment and level of employees, by sex.
2: Design	2.4: Design sample frame and sample methodology	Design the survey sample to be representative of formal and informal sector businesses and cover industries that tend to be male or female dominated, e.g. clerical work, automotive industry, market stalls, and retail sales.
6: Analyse	6.3: Scrutinize and explain	Conduct analysis of the data from a gender perspective. Based on the issues raised through consultation in phase 1, examine the data to reveal differences and similarities based on sex and individual characteristics. For example, the proportions of businesses owned by women and by men; the relative education level and pay of female and male employees.
7: Disseminate	7.2: Produce dissemination products	Ensure that products related to the survey results include data disaggregated by sex wherever practicable and that there is a section or dedicated product that provides a gender-related analysis of the results.
9: Evaluate	9.2: Conduct evaluation	Consult with the Department of Women's Affairs, UN-Women (and other actors in the national women's machinery) to discuss the survey results and whether the data meet their needs. Document the outcomes of the discussion and ensure that these are taken into account during the initial phases of the survey process when it is repeated.

The task of mainstreaming gender in statistics depends to a significant extent on the country and the context within which the data collection takes place. This handbook, therefore, does not attempt to cover every step in the statistical production process. It gives practical guidance on ensuring that data needs are clear and on ensuring that the collection, analysis and dissemination of data are gender-sensitive. These are the main areas where rapid gains can be made in mainstreaming gender in statistics.

A.   Gender mainstreaming in statistics from the top down

Prior to tackling the detailed work of mainstreaming gender in different subject matter areas, the following are some key overarching initiatives that will help ensure that the efforts made are effective and sustainable.

### 1.   Agree on a vision and strategy

A programme to mainstream gender in statistics should be clear about what it is aiming to achieve. Thoughtful planning is needed to agree on the vision, align with the strategy for statistics and national development plans, and determine the objectives. Identifying priorities and agreeing on a step-by-step approach will enable the work to be broken down into achievable pieces. The strategy should be endorsed by the chief statistician and the top managers of other data-producing and user agencies. It should contain:

- The vision and objectives for mainstreaming gender in statistics

- Key stakeholders involved and their roles and responsibilities

- Budget and other resources allocated to implement the strategy

- Monitoring framework (i.e., how will the strategy and objectives be monitored for progress?); and performance indicators (i.e., what will success look like?)

An example is the Rwandan Gender Statistics Framework, developed by the National Institute for Statistics of Rwanda and the Gender Monitoring Office. Together with the National Strategy for the Development of Statistics, it provides a clear basis for collecting, producing and disseminating gender-related data.

Figure 4:
Rwanda's national strategy for the development of statistics considers gender as a priority area
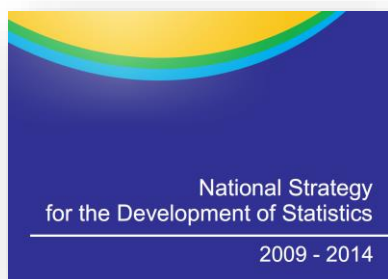
Policy: Include geographical and other forms of disaggregation, such as gender and age, in the design of data-collection activities and in data processing and increase the volume of disaggregated data on poverty levels, etc.

Source: National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda, National Strategy for the Development of Statistics 2009–2014 http://statistics.gov.rw/publications/first-national-strategy-development-statistics-2009-2014

2. Develop policies and procedures

The task of mainstreaming gender in statistics will be facilitated through mandatory directives from top management. Staff should be accountable for applying a gender-relevant approach at each step of the production process. This requires policies and procedures to instruct them on how to ensure that gender concerns are taken into account in a meaningful way.

3. Raise awareness

Securing buy-in from the statistics office and multiple data-producing agencies (e.g. ministries of health, education, justice, labour and agriculture) is key to success in mainstreaming gender in statistics. A common approach to raising awareness among different stakeholders provides a consistent message and a good basis for implementing plans for reviewing and changing statistical production processes.

4. Work closely with gender experts

Working with experts in the national mechanisms for gender equality and civil society will inform data producers of the main gender concerns in the country and policy issues. Combining this with knowledge of how statistics are produced, statisticians should be able to anticipate the data needed to establish and monitor policies and programmes. Producers and users should also explore the effectiveness of different dissemination methods to make the products useful.

To ensure effective collaboration among stakeholders, mechanisms have to be put in place and roles and responsibilities defined. Action is often necessary at two levels:

(a) **Collection-specific:** Conducting a survey or census typically involves establishing a steering committee comprising representatives from each of the major agencies involved. These committees should always include representatives of the national women's machinery to ensure that gender issues are taken into account at each step of the process;

(b)   **Overarching:** A dedicated gender statistics coordination mechanism will provide a consistent approach to managing all gender-related data. The group can be tasked with coordinating production of a regular (e.g. annual) compendium of gender statistics that brings together data from a range of sources.

B.   Mainstreaming gender in statistics from the bottom up

1.   Data collection

Ensuring that gender concerns are taken into consideration in data collection is the logical starting point for the mainstreaming of gender in statistics. As shown in figure 3, there are many steps involved in planning and designing a collection, prior to taking it to the field and starting the collection per se. Mainstreaming gender in statistics involves ensuring that new collections take gender concerns into account, and revising existing collections to eliminate sources of gender bias. The following steps should be taken for all collections.

Determine gender concerns

Central to mainstreaming gender in statistical collection is a clear understanding of gender concerns in the specific sector (e.g. the labour force, health, or education). This requires research and close collaboration with experts and policymakers throughout the statistical production process, first to ascertain the main concerns and gender disparities, and then to test new methods and evaluate the quality of results.

Information on gender concerns in each sector can usually be found in:

- National development plans
- State and shadow reports submitted to the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and the Committee's concluding observations on the action required to address issues in the country
- Country gender assessments and situational analyses on women conducted by the Government or development partners
- Reports by non-governmental and international organizations
- Discussions with stakeholders in the Government, civil society, international organizations and donors

Example: Ghana

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) recently produced a report entitled "Gender inequalities in rural employment in Ghana: legislation and policies". The document lists frameworks such as the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and the African Charter on Human and People's

Rights as those most relevant to the issue of gender inequality in rural Ghana. It also summarizes the national legislation and policies relevant to the issue.

The 20-page report is an excellent resource for data producers in Ghana working on data collection that may be relevant to rural men and women, as it points out areas where gender statistics are lacking or are of poor quality.

Source: FAO, 2012. Gender Inequalities in Rural Employment in Ghana: Legislation and Policies.

Country reports to the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and the concluding observations given by the Committee typically provide a good indication of national gender issues and data gaps. For example, the Committee's response to Burkina Faso's fourth and fifth combined report (2005) included instructions for further action to improve gender statistics:

"The Committee calls upon the State party to put in place a comprehensive system of data collection and assessment of trends in the situation of women" (para. 32)

"The Committee is also concerned about the absence of statistical information related to the situation of rural women" (para. 33)

"The Committee calls upon the State party to provide in its next report detailed statistical and analytical information on measures taken to improve women's access to health-related services" (para. 36)[23]

Sample design

Data producers must take the requirement to collect gender-sensitive data into account when designing survey samples. For a survey to produce reliable data on females and males, using key characteristics such as age, geographical location, ethnic group or education level, the sample must be carefully designed to produce results within acceptable confidence ranges. The measurement objectives of the survey must therefore be clearly established in the initial stages of the survey design. For example, sample designers working on the American Time Use Survey included a stratification cell for the presence and age of children in the household. If this important characteristic had not been taken into account at the design stage, it is unlikely that the relatively small sample in the survey would have allowed results to be classified by this dimension[24].

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[23] United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2005). Concluding comments: Burkina Faso (CEDAW/C/BFA/CO/4-5), 22 July 2005.

[24] Economic Commission for Europe and the World Bank Institute. 2010. *Developing Gender Statistics: A Practical Tool*. United Nations: Geneva.

Questionnaire design

Gender bias may be introduced into a collection instrument by a range of factors. Typical sources of gender bias[25] in questionnaire design include:

- **Inadequate definitions and concepts:** Conventional definitions and concepts may fail to accurately reflect gender differentiations in the target population.

- **Erroneous wording of questions:** A question or series of questions may be worded in such a way that relevant data on one or other gender are not captured. For example, questions on work have been worded in a way that excludes contributing family workers, who are often women.

- **Selecting the wrong respondent:** In some cases the respondent selected may not be in a position to accurately report on other members of the household. For example, in many societies, women are typically the primary care providers for children; and selecting a male, rather than a female respondent to provide data on the health status and health history of children may lead to inaccurate results.

- **Communication problems:** If questions are too technical or complex they can be difficult to understand, especially for women, who in some societies tend to be less educated than men, and therefore less likely to provide the accurate data needed.

- **Obscuring the truth:** Respondents may deliberately give a wrong answer because of social norms or because they are fearful of the consequences of providing the correct information. For example, a man may not reveal that his wife works on an agricultural holding as it goes against accepted social practices.

The gender concerns must be determined and understood before the sources of bias in the questionnaire design can be considered and eliminated. Once the collection instrument has been redesigned to address these sources of bias, data producers must ensure that enumerators are appropriately recruited and trained, and questionnaires and collection methods tested.

Recruiting and training enumerators

The selection and training of enumerators is central to any successful data collection. Aside from the skills and attributes needed to complete the work, the sex and age of the enumerator may also play an important role. For example, women tend to be better enumerators for surveys on sensitive topics, such as violence and sexual assault. Conversely, in locations where women tend to be discriminated against, men may be more successful in gathering data through face-to-face interviews.[26]

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[25] ECE and WBI. 2010. *Developing Gender Statistics: A Practical Tool*. United Nations: Geneva.

[26] Economic Commission for Europe and World Bank Institute (2010). *Developing Gender Statistics: A Practical Tool*. United Nations: Geneva.

The perceptions and attitudes of enumerators can be another important source of gender bias. Enumerators should be carefully selected and trained to ensure that their own opinions and biases do not influence the accuracy of the data being collected. Clear procedures and instructions are needed to ensure that enumerators follow a standard approach in every interview. Gender awareness and concerns should be an important feature of any enumerator training programme.

Testing collection instruments

Statisticians and survey methodologists know the importance of testing questionnaires before collection begins. Various approaches may be used to test collection instruments and ensure that: the right respondents are selected; the questions are consistently understood and the information needed is gathered; enumerators take a uniform approach to conducting the interview; and the data collected will be sufficient to produce the required statistics.

The testing plan should take the gender dimension into account. For example, if questions have been designed to gather information on secondary activities, they ought to be tested in order to get a more accurate measurement of women's economic contribution. This could involve testing labour force-related questions on both women and men and, after obtaining their responses, discussing the type of work that they do within and outside the home, in order to gauge whether the questions worked as intended.

There are many steps involved in processing data after their collection and before their analysis. Provided that gender concerns were adequately taken into account during the planning, design and collection phases, the work to mainstream gender in the statistics should flow through the processing stage. Once the data are produced and ready to be analysed, efforts should be made to ensure that the analysis is gender-focused.

2.   Data analysis

Data producers are responsible for the initial analysis of the results of a survey or census to determine data quality and prepare products for dissemination. They will need to scrutinize and explain the data, drawing out the key findings and relating these to the policy issues in the sector. This analysis should include an examination of gender differences and similarities. It should go beyond basic sex-disaggregation of data, to include a multivariate analysis on dimensions that relate to gender roles, such as education levels, type of employment, number of children, age and marital status.

Researchers and gender analysts can combine their knowledge of gender concerns to examine the data in more detail. To facilitate this, data-producing agencies should release anonymized microdata whenever possible. Products such as the Retrieval of Data for Small Areas by Microcomputer (REDATAM) software developed through the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) allow very large data sets, such as population and housing census unit record files, to be disseminated easily, while protecting the confidentiality of respondents. This kind of software allows researchers to cross-tabulate data to explore the results, with particular questions and concerns in mind. The following considerations and models should be borne in mind in data analysis:

What is gender analysis?

Gender analysis is a critical examination of how differences in gender roles, activities, needs, opportunities, rights and entitlements affect women, men, girls and boys in certain situations or contexts. Gender analysis examines the relationships between females and males and their access to and control of resources and the constraints that they face relative to one another. It may be conducted on the basis of qualitative information and methods and/or quantitative information provided by gender statistics.[27]

An understanding of how gender analysts approach the task of examining gender roles can help data producers to conduct preliminary analysis and disseminate data in a way that best meets user needs. Various analytical frameworks have been developed specifically for gender analysis. These include:

- World Bank conceptual framework for gender analysis
- Harvard analytical framework
- Gender analysis matrix
- Women's empowerment framework.

Conceptual framework

The 2012 World Development Report[28] focuses on gender equality and development with analysis that demonstrates the impact of equality on national progress. The report is structured around a conceptual framework that provides the basis for gender analysis. It focuses on the interrelated roles that economic growth, households, markets and institutions play in shaping gender disparities in education and health, power and access to economic opportunities:

1. **Households** – made up of individuals: these are where decisions are made about issues such as how many children to have, how much to spend on education and health, who does what work in the house and other matters that determine gender roles and outcomes.

2. **Markets** – these define economic supply and demand that influence the types of work available, wages and working conditions paid and returns on investment in education, for example.

3. **Institutions**

   – Formal institutions include laws, infrastructure and public service delivery (e.g. laws on compulsory education, costs of schooling, number of schools)

   – Informal institutions are the roles, networks, social norms and values that influence decision-making (e.g. the preference for sons)

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[27] United Nations Statistics Division (May 2013). Gender Statistics Manual: Integrating a gender perspective into Statistics: Glossary of Terms.

[28] International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank) (2011). *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development*. World Bank: Washington D.C.

The framework is based on the premise that household decisions are influenced by markets and institutions; and these in turn are influenced by individuals (households are the sum of individuals). The framework "captures how households make decisions, how they interact with markets and institutions to determine gender outcomes, and how policy can affect these interactions and ultimately gender outcomes".[29] It can be a powerful tool for examining and explaining trends in data and developing policy interventions that can lead to better gender outcomes.

For example, one of the Millennium Development Goals is the achievement of gender parity in primary school education enrolments. While global trends have shown that parity is being achieved in many developing countries, a number of countries in Africa are lagging behind. Using the conceptual framework to consider factors at the household, market and institutional level allows the drivers of change to be identified and analysed. The World Development Report explains that progress in achieving gender parity is related to:

- **Market factors: increasing returns to education:** For example, more employment opportunities for women provide the incentives and means to encourage more girls to attend school.

- **Formal institutions: lower direct, indirect and opportunity costs:** These establish the costs of education. For example, government initiatives to abolish fees for attending primary school can lead to rapid increases in enrolment levels. Indirect costs, such as distance to schools, have also been shown to be a factor in keeping girls from school. Removing these barriers can speed up progress. Opportunity costs from forgone child labour are another common barrier to primary school enrolment, which, in many societies, affect boys more than girls.

- **Household: more stable incomes:** Increasing household income from sources less vulnerable to external shocks has a positive effect on primary school enrolments. For example, conditional cash transfers to assist families with school-age children can stimulate enrolment rates. Improving household income addresses some of the factors above by allowing costs to be met without resorting to keeping children out of school to engage in work.

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[29] Ibid., p. 99.

Figure 5
Example of World Development Report framework
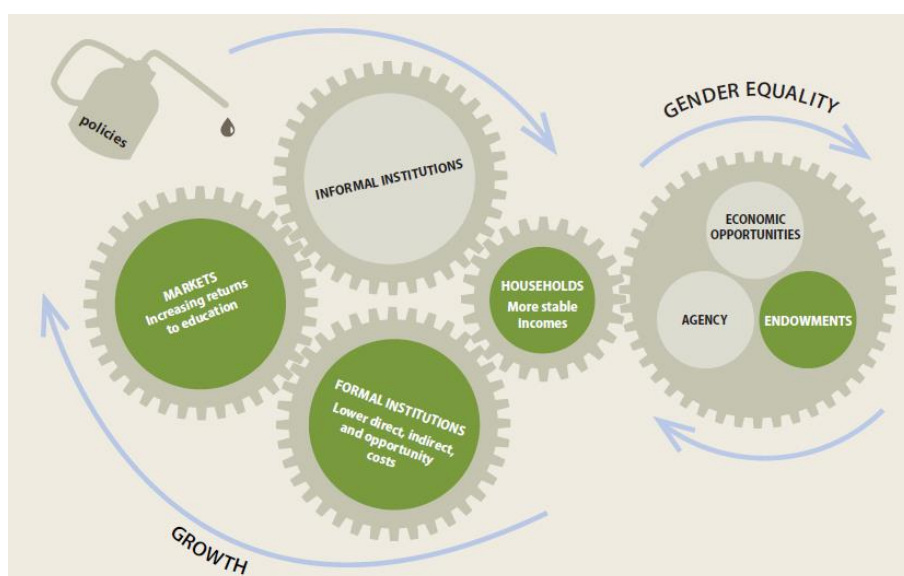
Source: IBRD/World Bank. 2011. *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development*. World Bank: Washington D.C.

To conduct a thorough gender analysis of school enrolment patterns, a wide range of data are needed. In addition to statistics on school enrolments by sex, age and location, other data sources include:

- Data on household income and expenditure, to examine how much is spent on education and to compare children's school attendance with income levels and other characteristics

- Time-use data to show differences in how much time women and men, and boys and girls spend in paid and unpaid work. This may reveal that work responsibilities are keeping girls or boys away from school, and also the impact that the household income has on school enrolment

- Nutrition and health statistics to examine whether primary school enrolments are being affected by lack of food or poor health status of children

- Data from the education systems on:
  - Academic achievement by sex, level of education (Grade 1, etc.), location and other characteristics can show if underperformance is high among boys or girls, and whether the quality of the education system is an issue preventing children from being in school
  - School attendance, drop-out and repetition rates

－ Number and location of schools and teachers to determine pupil-teacher ratios and distances to school

－ Quality of school infrastructure such as whether adequate water and sanitation facilities are available to pupils

- Number and characteristics of recipients of cash transfer payments, to determine if these are reaching people in need and whether they are sufficient.

Depending on the national context, there may be other data sources relevant to understanding school enrolment patterns. Clearly, researchers and gender analysts require access to disaggregated data to be able to examine these issues. Their work is facilitated by the availability of data in electronic forms, such as databases or spreadsheets. This allows them to manipulate the data without retyping, saving time and preventing errors. Most valuable for researchers is having access to microdata records, which allows them to cross-tabulate and generate their own tables, and explore different scenarios depending on the issues that they wish to examine and what the data show.

An appreciation of gender analysis frameworks is essential for statisticians and data producers. It enables them to better understand and anticipate data needs and produce relevant, accessible and timely information for their users. Some further examples of gender-related analytical frameworks are provided in appendix 1.

Once data have been tabulated and analysed, keeping in mind these conceptual frameworks, a wealth of information will be available for publication and wide dissemination. Statistical systems are increasingly paying attention to data dissemination and communication, as they recognize that, without an effective dissemination system, data will not reach those in need and the return on investment in collecting and producing the statistics will not be realized.

3. Data dissemination

Disseminating and communicating gender statistics is an area where rapid gains can be made. Most countries collect a wealth of data, but much of it does not reach potential users because insufficient investment is made in analysing and publishing the statistics. This is particularly true of gender statistics, with many statistical collections released without sex-disaggregation or cross-tabulation of variables to reveal important gender disparities, even though this is possible.

The strategy for mainstreaming gender in statistics should include a two-pronged approach to improving dissemination:

- Including sex-disaggregated and gender-related data in all relevant statistical releases
- Producing dedicated publications of gender statistics and analysis.

Incorporate gender in statistical releases and publications

Mainstreaming gender in statistics involves adding a gender focus to all relevant statistical releases and publications. Data should be sex-disaggregated wherever practicable. In addition, a section on gender issues in each product will draw users to the valuable information that exists.

Detailed gender analysis and statistics can be produced whenever new data sources, such as the population census or a household survey, become available. The thematic analysis of census results is an initiative that has been widely implemented, for example. In response to concerns that census data are often underused, statistics offices have prepared detailed data analyses on gender issues, education, disability, agriculture and youth. These publications serve as important summaries of the statistics that can be produced from the census, making the results more accessible and meaningful to different user groups. Such analytical products can be prepared for other statistical collections, such as labour force surveys or education statistics.

Dedicated statistical products on gender

Many national statistical systems prepare a regular (e.g. annual) compendium of gender statistics from multiple sources. They serve as a summary of statistics available from a range of sources. Often published in pocketbook form, they provide a ready reference to the main gender indicators.

Example: South Africa

In 2013, Statistics South Africa published a report of available gender statistics. This was to demonstrate the extent of gender-related statistics that are produced in the country.

Statistics South Africa collects data on gender-relevant issues in all their household surveys and censuses. This information is spread across a large number of reports. The gender statistics publication brings the key information together in one document to make it easy for users to access the data.

Source: Statistics South Africa. 2013.
http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/Report-03-10-05/Report-03-10-052011.pdf

Creating a web page or dedicated area on the national statistics office website that outlines the policy on gender statistics and contains links to the latest gender-related information is another good strategy.

C. Guidance on specific data collections

Gender statistics are produced from a range of collections or sources. This handbook focuses on population surveys and censuses as key data sources. Gender is relevant to almost all statistical collections, but key among them are:

- Population and housing censuses
- Agricultural censuses
- Demographic and health surveys
- Labour force surveys
- Time-use surveys
- Gender-based violence or domestic violence surveys.

Administrative data are also an important and often underused source of gender statistics. Methods used and experiences gained in mainstreaming gender in administrative data are not covered in this handbook. Guidance on approaches and principles that can be applied to administrative data sources, such as those relating to education, health, migration and the labour force, are available in other resources, such as *Developing Gender Statistics: A Practical Tool*.[30]

In addition, the classic household surveys known as "1-2-3 type surveys" in French-speaking Africa are a useful source of gender-relevant data. To remedy imbalances in these sources a project has been launched by the International Household Survey Network. Details of these data sources and initiatives are provided in the following sections.

1. Population and housing censuses

In Africa, population censuses are the main sources of information on the status and structure of the population in a country. Information is gathered on every individual in the country, including their sex, age and other social and demographic characteristics (e.g. marital status, education, employment, income). These censuses represent one of the most important sources of gender statistics, providing more sex-disaggregated information than any other single data source, in addition to the ability to conduct analysis at local levels.[31] The census answers questions such as:

- How many people are in the country and what are the ages?
- In which areas is the population increasing the most and in which areas is it shrinking?
- Are there more men or women, boys or girls?
- How many children do women have?
- What is the education level of women and girls compared to men and boys?
- What kind of work do women do, as compared to men?
- How do work and education levels differ around the country?

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[30] Economic Commission for Europe and World Bank Institute (2010). *Developing Gender Statistics: A Practical Tool*. United Nations: Geneva.

[31] United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Statistics Division (2006). *The World's Women 2005: Progress in Statistics*. United Nations: New York.

- What kinds of materials are the houses built from?
- What type of assets does each household own?

As this collection is usually the largest and most costly for a country, the population and housing census should not be hampered by gender bias. Gender bias occurs because of: the way questions are formulated and asked; social taboos that discourage reporting the type of work women do; the interviewer's personal stereotypes; and the person who responds to the questions on behalf of other household members.

The United Nations recommendations on the 2010 round of population and housing censuses provide some guidance on how to incorporate a gender perspective in both census content and operations. The steps involved include identifying census topics that are essential to understanding gender relations in the country, and reviewing the concepts and definitions used and the extent to which they are subject to social taboos and stereotypes. Gender mainstreaming also relates to how field operations are conducted, with both women and men recruited as interviewers and supervisors, and training given in how to avoid common sources of gender bias.[32]

Gender mainstreaming also comes into play during the analysis and dissemination phase of census operations. Data tabulations should be disaggregated by sex and other key characteristics, such as age, geographical location, disability, education level and work status. National statistics offices should seize the opportunity to produce quality gender statistics and make it a priority to include gender analysis in all census products.

> **Example: Kenya**
>
> The Kenyan Bureau of Statistics took steps to ensure that the 2008 population and housing census was gender-sensitive. The main focus was to ensure that the collection accurately measured the types of work typically done by women and that steps were taken to improve the dissemination and communication of gender analysis.
>
> The steps taken to mainstream gender include **modifying questions in the labour force module** to include economic activity and main occupation; and **collecting data on unpaid work and household production** for an accurate picture of women's contribution to the economy and national development.
>
> A **gender dimension monograph** was produced, based on the census results, to provide detailed gender analysis. In addition, in disseminating census products, including the monograph, at national, provincial and district levels, **key findings on the burden of work on women were highlighted**.[33]

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[32] United Nations Statistics Division (2008). Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses, Revision 2. United Nations: New York.

[33] Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2009). Incorporating Gender Perspective in National Censuses and Surveys. Paper presented at the Global Forum for Gender Statistics held in Accra, 26–28 January 2009.

The limitations of census data for gender analysis should be noted. As they cover the entire population, census questions and topics are typically quite limited and the information gathered relates to only one point in time or a short period of time (e.g. the week preceding the census). The census is not a vehicle for asking questions such as "Who does what, when and how?" "Who is responsible for what?" "Who is entitled to what?" or "Who decides?" Such detailed information required to understand gender relations should be gathered from surveys and qualitative studies.

2. Agriculture censuses

Agriculture is central to the development of countries in the Africa region, and the strong presence of women in this sector attests to the great potential value of agricultural statistics. Although women make up 50 per cent of the agricultural workforce, they have less access than men to productive resources and opportunities. [34] Gender data in agriculture allow the integration of women into the development process to be monitored and analysed.

Agricultural censuses, typically conducted every 5–10 years, are an essential source of data for monitoring gender dimensions in this key sector. Questionnaires have tended to focus on production: harvest, livestock, inputs and agricultural inputs. In many countries, labour and human resources are not taken into account, or are marginalized. In 1995, FAO highlighted the need to better capture data on the activities of household members involved in farming. This new approach was a milestone in the history of agricultural censuses, as it expanded the emphasis on production factors to include the labour force involved.

Recognizing the shortage of sex-disaggregated data in agricultural statistics production, the World Census of Agriculture (a programme overseen by FAO) has supported African countries in mainstreaming gender in this collection. Experiences across the region have shown that:

- Incorporating gender into the scope and objectives of the census provides justification for collecting gender-related data and the analysis and dissemination of the results.

- Gender bias can be reduced by highlighting common pitfalls during enumerator training and raising respondents' awareness of the importance of both men's and women's contribution to agricultural production.

- Revising concepts and definitions and introducing such notions as "sub-holder" and "plot manager" to the data-collection instrument help to provide richer information on who actually contributes to working the agricultural holding.

- Strengthening the capacity of statisticians to understand gender concepts and issues is key to effective gender mainstreaming.

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[34] Food and Agriculture Organization (2011). The State of Food and Agriculture 2010-2011: Women in Agriculture – Closing the gender gap for development. FAO: Rome.

- Integrating gender in agricultural censuses has revealed the roles and responsibilities of male and female farmers, particularly at subnational levels, enabling policies to be better targeted.

- Considerable amounts of gender-related data from past censuses are available, but require re-tabulation, analysis and dissemination.

- Data user capacity needs to be strengthened to increase the use of gender-related data in decisions, policies and programmes.[35]

Example: Malawi

In Malawi, as in many countries in Africa, most of the population live in rural areas and smallholder agriculture is a major contributor to the economy. Recognizing the importance of gender in agriculture, the national statistics office took steps to mainstream gender in the agriculture census by:

- Discussing gender issues and priorities with data users during the planning phase
- Collecting information on each household member, including their sex, for the gender analysis
- Incorporating gender issues into each of the eight modules (i.e., household composition, parcel details, plot details, food security and HIV/AIDS, marketing, welfare monitoring survey, livestock survey, village facilities)
- Creating a common identification system so that all modules may be linked and data disaggregated by characteristics of household members
- Producing a thematic report on the gender dimension of agriculture
- Ensuring that the production of sex-disaggregated data on agriculture becomes an integral part of regular data collection.[36]

A limitation common to agricultural censuses is the exclusion of small farms, owing to technical factors and the objectives of agricultural censuses. The exclusion of smaller units reduces costs and simplifies the counting. In the past, the main objective was to identify the features of larger units where production is concentrated, but since poverty, food insecurity and environmental degradation are emerging priority areas, information on smallholdings is fundamental.

In some countries, operations in urban areas are excluded because of difficulties in identifying them and limited data collection resources. The argument is that the production of

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[35] Food and Agricultural Organization (2005). Agricultural Censuses and Gender: Lessons Learned in Africa.

[36] Moyo, G.I. (2009). *Engendering Agricultural Censuses: The case of Malawi*. Paper presented at the Global Forum for Gender Statistics held in Accra, 26–28 January 2009.

these farms is not significant for the country's overall agricultural production and is the result of minor or secondary activities. Excluding urban areas can lead, however, to an underestimation of women's contribution to agricultural production, particularly in developing countries. Furthermore, the production of these units is vital for the survival of many households. Data on the characteristics of the activities should inform policy and programme formulation.

A well-designed, gender-based agricultural census questionnaire could be very informative. That said, however, it is easier to enable surveys to capture gender inequality in order to assess their implications for policy and sustainable development programmes. Specific surveys generally offer more flexibility for capturing the relationships between men and women.

3. Demographic and health surveys

Demographic and health surveys collect data on issues such as marriage, fertility and reproductive health, men's health, family planning, sexual health, and the health and nutrition status of children, which are central to understanding gender roles. These issues determine the extent of reproductive work and are key factors in the shaping of gender roles in the home. In addition, the demographic and health survey can be used to measure issues such as domestic violence, female genital mutilation and women's role in decision-making, by way of additional modules that can be tacked on to the survey.

Figure 6
Example of findings from the Nigeria 2013 DHS

Figure 16.1 Specific forms of physical and sexual violence committed by spouse
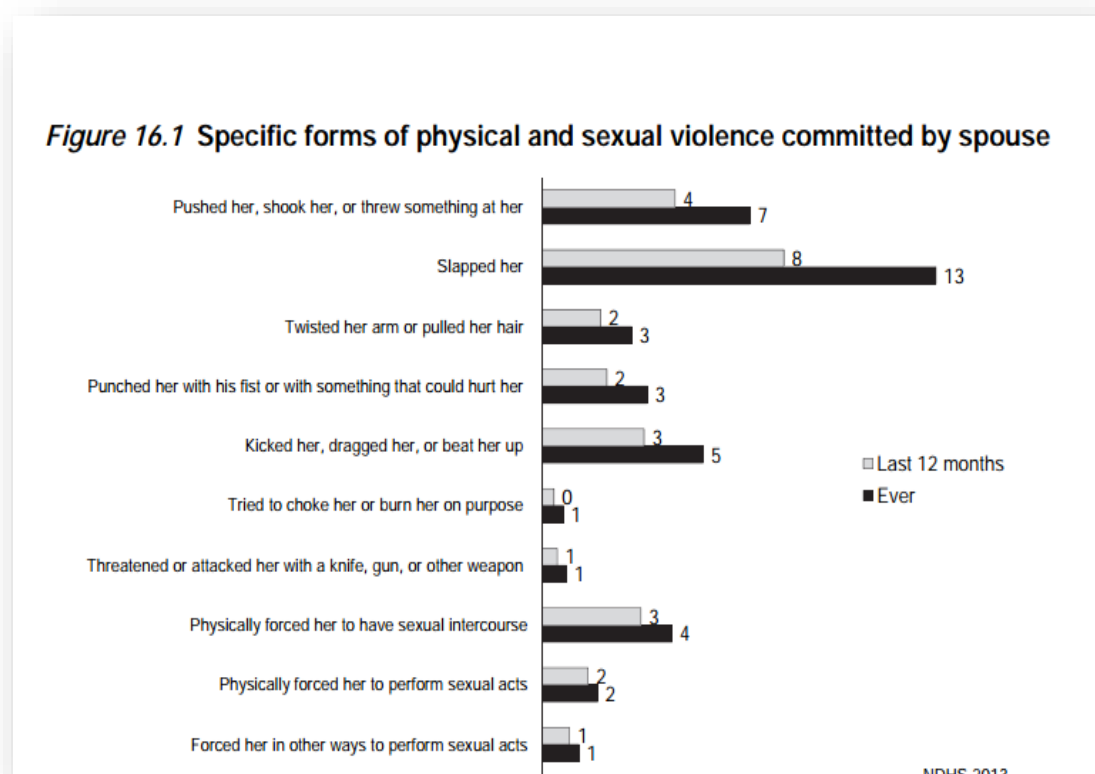
Source: National Population Commission of Nigeria and ICF International (2014). Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey (2013).

Based on well designed and tested data-collection instruments and methods developed by the firm ICF International, gender concerns are central to the objectives of the demographic and health survey. Separate questionnaires for women and men allow questions to be tailored to individuals within the household, producing high quality, nationally representative data that can be disaggregated and analysed by sex.

Example: Measuring women's status in Egypt

The first attempt to measure the status of women was undertaken during the 1995 Egypt demographic and health survey, which produced an extensive analysis of household decision-making, employment and control over earnings, ownership and control of assets, and the acceptability and prevalence of the violent treatment of women in the home.

The data found that Egyptian women at that time had limited control over important aspects of their lives. Three quarters of women did not select their spouse themselves and most did not have the final say on household decisions,

such as seeking medical treatment for children. Violent treatment within marriages was common, with around one third of women having been beaten at least once in their marriage, most often by their husbands. Very few women worked for a cash income, while two out of three of those that did handed over all their earnings to the family.[37]

These data and findings have paved the way for the further development of survey instruments to measure such gender concerns, and also provided data to support the case for women's empowerment.[38]

Demographic and health survey data constitute a powerful tool for gender analysis. The datasets are available for researchers to download and explore according to their topics of interest.[39] This is a good example of increasing the availability of data to enable wider use and value to be generated from this public good.

4. Labour force surveys

The labour force is an extremely important area of measurement for monitoring gender equality. Labour force surveys, population censuses and other household surveys that include questions on activity in the labour force typically provide information on employment, unemployment, reasons for economic activity, occupations and status of employment. In many countries, population surveys and censuses are the main source of information on employment, the informal economy and unemployment.

The work that women and men do inside and outside the home is influenced by gender roles. That is why monitoring the types of work and time use is essential to understanding gender-related issues and trends. The measurement of work and employment is complex and national definitions of work are based on resolutions and guidelines developed through the International Conference of Labour Statisticians. There are many forms of work, both paid and unpaid:

1. **Productive work:** Work done for pay in cash or kind. This includes market production with an exchange value, and subsistence/home production with actual use value and potential exchange-value. For women in agricultural production, this includes work as independent farmers, farmers' wives and wage workers.

2. **Reproductive work:** Work such as childbearing and child-rearing responsibilities and the domestic tasks required to guarantee the

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[37] El-Zanaty, F., and others (1996). Egypt Demographic and Health Survey 1995. Calverton: Maryland (USA): National Population Council, Egypt and Macro International Inc.

[38] Kishor, S. (no date). MEASURE DHS. Demographic and Health Surveys: Reflections on Gender, International Women's Day. Video interview published at www.measuredhs.com/Topics/Gender-Corner/.

[39] Refer to the DHS website at http://www.dhsprogram.com/ for more information.

maintenance and reproduction of the labour force. This includes not only biological reproduction but also the care and maintenance of the workforce (male partner and working children) and the future workforce (infants and school-age children).

3. **Community work:** Activities undertaken at the community level that benefit a collective of households. These include voluntary unpaid activities to ensure the provision and maintenance of scarce resources of collective consumption, such as water, health care and education. In addition, community work covers activities at the formal political level, often within the framework of national politics (usually paid work, either directly or indirectly, through status or power).

4. **Non-productive activities:** Basic human activities that cannot be conducted by a third person on an individual's behalf (e.g. eating, sleeping) and activities without outputs (e.g. begging and stealing).[40]

Reproductive work is typically the role of women, although some societies are experiencing a shift towards men playing an increased role in childcare and domestic duties. Women tend to play multiple roles, simultaneously balancing reproductive, productive and community work. Changes in social norms, technologies and work opportunities are seeing the traditional breadwinner and homemaker roles being adapted to suit the needs of different households. This highlights the crucial need for surveys of time use, as recommended by the International Labour Organization (ILO), ensuring a gender perspective in the way in which employment and work are measured and producing gender analysis of labour force statistics.[41]

Measuring work and employment

Because of the way work is defined and measured, only certain activities count towards economic production. Mainstreaming gender in labour statistics ensures that the contributions of those primarily occupied with reproductive roles are not excluded. Many women who are homemakers also spend time on chores such as producing food for the family and fetching water, and should therefore be considered as economically active. Yet official statistics often underrepresent women in the workforce, owing to bias in data collection and production. Rewording questions, changing activity classifications and collecting data on secondary activities are methods for removing such gender bias.

Labour statistics, in terms of who is counted as employed, unemployed or outside the labour force, are based on some key concepts, as defined by the 2013 International Conference

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[40] Adapted from the International Labour Organization (1998). Unit 1: A conceptual framework for gender analysis and planning. www.ilo.org/public/english/region/asro/mdtmanila/training/unit1/groles.htm and the African Development Bank (2012). *Labour Force Data Analysis: Guidelines with African Specificities*. African Development Bank, Tunis.

[41] International Labour Organization (2003). Checklist of good practices for mainstreaming gender in labour statistics www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/dgreports/stat/documents/normativeinstrument/wcms_087632.pdf.

of Labour Statisticians resolution on the statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization and in the System of National Accounts 2008:[42]

Work: This comprises any activity performed by persons of any sex and age to produce goods or to provide services for use by others or for own use.

System of national accounts (SNA) general production boundary: This determines the economic activities that are to be taken into account in the estimation of measures such as employment and the gross domestic product (GDP). As such, it contains a subset of all the goods and services produced within a country, including some that are generated through unpaid activities, such as producing food for own consumption. Table 4 shows examples of unpaid activities that are included and excluded in the SNA production boundary. Figure 7 shows how different forms of work relate to SNA.

Figure 7
Relationship between different forms of work and the SNA production boundary

Source: ICLS. 2013. Resolution I: Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization.

Table 4
Examples of unpaid activities included in and excluded from the SNA production boundary

Included (If the activity represents a significant proportion of the production for own consumption of that good in the country and if close market parallels exist)	Excluded (If provided by unpaid household members or volunteers)
Growing or gathering field crops, fruits, vegetables Producing eggs, milk and other food Hunting animals and birds Catching fish, crabs and shellfish Gathering firewood Cutting firewood and building poles Collecting thatching and weaving materials Burning charcoal Mining slate Cutting peat Fetching and carrying water Threshing and milling grain Making butter, ghee and cheese Slaughtering livestock Curing hides and skins Preserving meat and fish Making beer, wine and spirits Crushing oil seeds Weaving baskets, mats, textiles Making clay pots, plates, and furniture Dressmaking and tailoring Handicrafts made from non-primary products Constructing dwellings, farm buildings Building boats and canoes Clearing land for cultivation	**Unpaid care work:** Cleaning, decorating and maintaining, dwelling including small repairs Cleaning or repairing household durables, vehicles or other goods Preparing and serving meals Caring for, training and instructing children Caring for the sick, infirm or elderly people Transporting household members or their goods **Volunteer work:** Buying groceries for an elderly neighbour Volunteering as a teacher in a public school Serving on a grievance committee for a labour union Serving on a neighbourhood clean-up committee Giving assistance at a shelter for the homeless Serving as a deacon or usher at a church Providing legal advice without compensation Serving as a coach for a children's football league Making clothes for disadvantaged children Constructing housing for homeless families Helping a non-profit environmental organization gather water samples.

Source: ECE and WBI. 2010. Developing Gender Statistics: A Practical Tool. United Nations: Geneva.

Each national statistical system defines employment and related concepts based on the national context, and determines which activities are considered economically productive. For example, in South Africa, production for own consumption is considered "non-market production". Owing to the complexities of determining the extent to which each person is engaged in non-market production and whether this is counted as employment, Statistics South Africa identifies these respondents separately. The questionnaire asks all respondents aged 15

years and above about their involvement in non-market production, and is designed to classify them as employed, unemployed or outside the labour force according to national definitions.[43]

Figure 8
Questions on producing goods for own consumption in the 2011 First Quarter Labour Force Survey of South Africa

Source: Statistics South Africa Quarterly Labour Force Survey
(available from the ILO Bureau of Library and Information Services at
www.ilo.org/dyn/lfsurvey/lfsurvey.list?p_lang=en&p_country=ZA).

Methods for measuring the labour force are constantly evolving. Following a major international review, a new approach was adopted by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians at its nineteenth meeting, held in October 2013. Concerned that the scope of employment is resulting in too broad a classification to be useful for policymaking, the new standard redefines employment and provides for five mutually exclusive forms of work:

1. **Own-use production work,** comprising production of goods and services for own final use
2. **Employment work,** comprising work performed for others in exchange for pay or profit

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[43] Statistics South Africa (2008). Guide to the Quarterly Labour Force Survey, August.

3. **Unpaid trainee work,** comprising work performed for others without pay to acquire workplace experience or skills

4. **Volunteer work,** comprising non-compulsory work performed for others without pay

5. **Other work activities** (not defined in the resolution)[44]

The resolution replaces previous ones (1982 and 2008) relating to the measurement of employment. It represents a major milestone in the recognition of unpaid household and care work with gender concerns and the importance of gender analysis also integrated in the resolution. The full report of the review and recommended approach is available online.[45]

Measuring unpaid work

Women tend to perform the bulk of unpaid care work, often spending less time in employment as a result, with the opposite being true of men.[46] As outlined in table 4, unpaid domestic work and volunteer work are not counted towards economic production. They provide a significant contribution to the effective functioning of society, however, and should be measured. Changes in gender dimensions and relationships between unpaid work and economic activities provide important information for policymakers. For example, as an economy strengthens and incomes increase, some households may choose to outsource domestic work, such as cleaning or childcare, to free up time to participate in paid work, increasing the size of the labour force in the process. Labour and time-use statistics can be designed and analysed to reveal these types of trends.[47]

The main data source for measuring unpaid work is time-use surveys (discussed below). Questions on time use may also be included in labour force surveys to reveal patterns in the extent of unpaid work.

ILO has produced a manual on volunteer work that can be used to develop a labour force survey module to measure this type of unpaid work.[48]

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[44] International Conference of Labour Statisticians (2013). Resolution I: Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization.

[45] International Labour Organization (2013). Report II: Statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization (ICLS/19/2013/2). www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/-dgreports/stat/documents/publication/wcms_220535.pdf

[46] United Nations, Economic Commission for Europe and World Bank Institute (2010). *Developing Gender Statistics: A Practical Tool*. United Nations: Geneva.

[47] African Development Bank (2012). *Labour Force Data Analysis: Guidelines with African Specificities*. African Development Bank, Tunis.

[48] International Labour Organization (2011). Manual on the measurement of volunteer work. ILO, Geneva.

More details on collecting and analysing labour force data may be found at:

- African Development Bank. 2012. *Labour Force Data Analysis: Guidelines with African Specificities* www.africaneconomicoutlook.org/fileadmin/uploads/aeo/PDF/Labour%20 Force%20Data%20Analysis_WEB.pdf

- ILO standards and guidelines on labour statistics www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/

Gender and labour statistics

ILO has produced a number of valuable resources and guidelines on how to incorporate gender into labour statistics. These include a checklist of good practices for gender mainstreaming:[49]

- Production of labour statistics should be based on political will at all levels.
- Topics relevant to gender should be included in regular data collection as far as possible. Such topics may cover employment in the informal economy, non-SNA work, employment by detailed occupations and status in employment categories, income from paid and self-employment, lifelong learning and working time.
- Definitions and methods should adequately cover and describe all workers and work situations in the level of detail required for making gender comparisons.
- Household and establishment surveys, as well as administrative sources are valuable and periodical time-use surveys are crucial.
- Labour statistics are always presented in regular publications in a way that clearly reveals similarities and differences between women and men in the labour market and the factors that influence their situations.

In addition to employment and unemployment per se, other factors are central to gender analysis because of the disparities that exist between women and men. These include:

Informal employment – Many workers, particularly in less regulated countries, are in informal jobs. The informal sector is an important driver for economic growth, but workers can be more at risk of exploitation.

Vulnerable employment – Own-account workers and contributing family workers are considered to be in vulnerable forms of employment because their incomes are less reliable, putting their livelihoods at greater risk of external shocks, and because they lack decent work conditions, such as sick leave and maternity leave.

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[49] International Labour Organization (2003). *Checklist of good practices for mainstreaming gender in labour statistics* www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/dgreports/stat/documents/normativeinstrument/wcms_087632.pdf.

Occupational segregation – Women and men tend to choose different types of work, based on social norms and areas of interest. Whether a particular occupation is male or female-dominated may also stem from sex discrimination, while policy interventions can lead to better gender equality. Monitoring trends in occupational segregation provide important data for policymakers.

Figure 9
Data on occupation segregation in the United Republic of Tanzania

Decent Work Indicator	1990/91**		2000/01		2006	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Occupational segregation by sex (distribution of employment within TASCO major groups), in %[1]						
Total employment	50.1	49.9	49.0	51.0	48.9	51.1
1 Legislators, administrators and managers	79.0*	21.0*	50.8*	49.2*	83.5	16.5
2 Professionals	89.8	10.2	73.6	26.4	65.0	35.0
3 Technicians and associate professionals	69.9	30.1	67.6	32.4	60.9	39.1
4 Clerks	53.2	46.8	47.0	53.0	49.3	50.7
5 Service workers and shop sales workers	55.5	44.5	49.0	51.0	52.3	47.7
6 Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	46.2	53.8	46.6	53.4	46.2	53.8
7 Craft and related workers	90.1	9.9	81.3	18.7	77.0	23.0
8 Plant and machine operators and assemblers	89.2	11.8	91.7	8.3	87.1	12.9
9 Elementary occupations	57.5	42.5	52.2	47.8	41.5	58.5

Notes:

[1] Male and female share in Tanzania Standard Classification of Occupations (TASCO) major groups, in %; refers to main activity of population currently employed under the standard definition and aged 15 years and above. Figures for different years are not strictly comparable due to differences in coding of questionnaire responses. Subsistence farmers are included in major group 6.

* Note that an unusually large number of respondents were coded in this category in 1990/91 and 2000/01 (2.0 per cent and 2.5 per cent of the total employed population, respectively), compared to 0.17 % of the total employed population in 2006. This was due to the inclusion of owner-operators of small businesses in 1990/91 and 2000/01.

** Refers to currently employed population aged 10 years and above.

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, ILFS 1990/91 2000/01 and 2006. Indicators were recalculated on the basis table 3.3 of the 1990/91 ILFS report and the micro-data for 2000/01 and 2006.

Source: International Labour Organization (2010). Decent work country profile Tanzania (mainland).

Wage differentials and gender pay gap – Women worldwide earn less than men as a result of holding a minor share of highest paid jobs, working fewer hours and being less likely to participate in paid employment.

Balancing work and family life – Work and domestic responsibilities make it a challenge for women and men to balance work and family life. The availability and use of childcare facilities and part-time work could alleviate this situation.

Share of women in high-level and decision-making positions – This indicator measures the extent to which women occupy a much smaller share of high-level positions such as chief executive officer, senior government official, manager, judge and elected politician.

Entrepreneurship – This concept relates to the ability to start a business or organization. The measurement of women and men's participation in entrepreneurship involves indicators such as the percentage of firms owned by women, the proportion of

employers who are women, and the possibility to access credit such as microfinance to fund business start-ups.

National data producers should explore the value and need for statistics on these topics. Data should be analysed based on characteristics, such as educational attainment, marital status and the number and age of dependent children, that are relevant to gender roles. In addition to integrating gender into mainstream labour statistics publications, dedicated gender analysis of labour force survey results can be of great value to policymakers and decision-makers. The example below (figure 10) shows the relationship between educational attainment and participation by men and women in the labour force.

Figure 10
Example of gender analysis of labour statistics

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE OF MEN AND WOMEN BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT
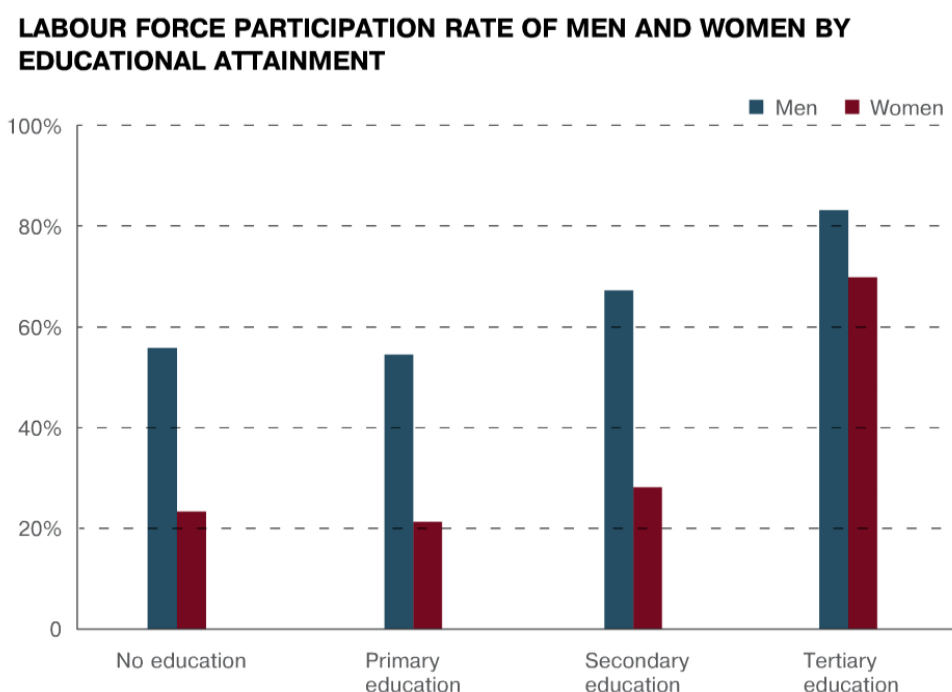
Source: African Development Bank. 2012. Labour Force Data Analysis: Guidelines with African Specificities*.

5.   Time-use surveys

Surveys on how women and men use their time provide an extremely important source of gender statistics. Methods for measuring work and production are based on systems that count only certain types of work as contributing to the economy. Unpaid work to care for children and other family members, cooking, cleaning and washing clothes – all essential for the effective functioning of a household – are not considered as employment.

Time use surveys provide a mechanism for capturing data on the number of hours spent daily on all types of work, and also on leisure activities and self-care (e.g. grooming, sleeping). Such surveys often reveal significant disparities between how men and women, and boys and

girls spend their time. It would be useful to conduct such surveys frequently, to observe the changes in gender roles within the home and across communities.

Time use can be measured through a dedicated survey or a module attached to another appropriate survey, such as one on household income and expenditure. While dedicated surveys provide the most accurate results, they are challenging and costly to conduct as, for instance, they may require respondents to complete a detailed diary of how they spend their time over a period of two weeks or more. The United Nations Statistics Division has published guidelines on measuring time use that provide more information on methodological approaches.[50]

Dedicated time-use surveys could be of immeasurable importance in the Africa region, where they seem to be the best way of assessing the contribution of men and women to economic and non-economic activities. They are also ideal for studying the sexual division of labour within the household. Despite the importance of time-use surveys, only a few African countries have used them. They include Benin (1998), Chad (1995), Djibouti (2012), Ghana (2009), Lesotho (2002–2003), Madagascar (2001), Mauritius (2003), Morocco (2011–2012), Nigeria (1998), South Africa (2000) and the United Republic of Tanzania (2005)[51]. The experience of Statistics South Africa in conducting a dedicated survey on time use is explored further in the case study on page 53.

6.   Gender-based violence and domestic violence surveys

Gender-based violence, as defined by UN-Women, is "Acts of physical, mental or social abuse (including sexual violence) that is attempted or threatened, with some type of force (such us violence, threats, coercion, manipulation, deception, cultural expectations, weapons or economic circumstances) and is directed against a person because of his or her gender roles and expectations in a society or culture. A person facing gender-based violence has no choice to refuse or pursue other options without severe social, physical, or psychological consequences."[52] Although gender-based violence may also affect men, women make up the majority of victims and tend to suffer more severe injuries or worse. Forms of gender-based violence include:

- Violence by a spouse or intimate partner: in South Africa, a woman is killed every six hours by her partner
- Sexual violence: this includes rape and forced early marriage
- Sexual violence in conflict: in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, approximately 1,100 rapes are reported each month, an average of 36 women and girls every day

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[50] United Nations Statistics Division (2005). Guide to Producing Statistics on Time Use: Measuring Paid and Unpaid Work.

[51] United Nations Statistics Division (2014). Allocation of time and time use (http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/sconcerns/tuse/tu3.aspx).

[52] UN-Women. Glossary of Terms from Programming Essentials and Monitoring and Evaluation Sections.

- Female genital mutilation or genital cutting: an estimated 130–140 million women and girls alive today have undergone genital mutilation, mainly in Africa and some Middle Eastern countries.[53]

Eliminating gender-based violence is a goal central to women's empowerment. Violence comes at a significant cost, which includes medical and support services for victims; the human cost of pain and suffering; and the lost productivity due to the physical or psychological effects of such violence.

Gender-based violence is an extremely sensitive topic, and many acts of sexual, physical and psychological violence are not reported to the authorities. The failure to report may be for reasons such as fear of the consequences, economic dependence on the perpetrator or lack of confidence in the police or justice system. Given this situation, the only way in which the prevalence of gender-based violence can be estimated is through household surveys, provided that they are carried out in line with best practices.

Measuring violence is a challenging task, requiring the highest ethical standards. Ethics require that survey respondents be protected, using methods such as avoiding explicit reference to violence in the survey title or questions, selecting only one woman per household, only revealing the nature of the interview to the respondent and conducting the interview in a private and safe environment. This is done to ensure confidentiality and protect the woman against other members of the household who may, for example, be perpetrators of violence. The World Health Organization (WHO) provides more complete guidance on this.

At least 21 countries in the Africa region have conducted national surveys on the prevalence of gender-based violence,[54] the results of which show that violence is widespread. The proportion of women who have been physically abused by their spouse or intimate partner ranges from 12.5 per cent of women in South Africa (1998) to 56.9 per cent in the Demographic Republic of the Congo (2007). The rates are also high in Uganda (48 per cent in 2006), Zambia (46.5 per cent in 2007), Cameroon (38.6 per cent in 2004), Kenya (37 per cent in 2003), and Egypt (33.2 per dent in 2005). Survey data on sexual violence show that 35.5 per cent of women in Uganda (2006) have experienced sexual violence by an intimate partner in their lifetime and 35.3 per cent in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (2007).[55]

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[53] United Nations (2011). Violence against women: the situation.
http://endviolence.un.org/pdf/pressmaterials/unite_the_situation_en.pdf.

[54] According to a list of surveys of the prevalence of violence against women compiled by UN-Women in June 2013, national surveys have been conducted by Burkina Faso (2010–2011), Cameroon (2004 and 2011), Cabo Verde (2005), Côte d'Ivoire (2005), Democratic Republic of the Congo (2007), Egypt (2005), Ghana (2008), Kenya (2003 and 2008–2009), Liberia (2007), Malawi (2004 and 2010), Morocco (2009–2010), Mozambique (2004 and 2011), Nigeria (2008), Rwanda (2005 and 2010–2011), Sao Tome and Principe (2008–2009), South Africa (1998), Tunisia (2010), Uganda (2006 and 2011),United Republic of Tanzania (2009–2010), Zambia (2001–2002 and 2007) and Zimbabwe (2005–2006 and 2010–2011). In addition, surveys of specific provinces or cities have been conducted in Ethiopia (2002), Namibia (2002) and the United Republic of Tanzania (2002).

[55] UN-Women (2011). Violence against Women Prevalence Data: Surveys by Country. March.

Most countries used the demographic and health survey module on domestic violence to measure gender-based violence.[56] The module is an optional addition to the survey and involves questioning one eligible woman per household in an appropriate setting. The questionnaire includes questions on specific types of behaviour that would give an indication on the prevalence of different forms of violence and their severity. For example, questions on physical violence may include:

- Did your husband (or partner) ever slap you?
- Did your husband (or partner) ever kick you, drag you, or beat you up?

The survey also collects information on any violence experienced by another person and the identity of the perpetrator (e.g. mother, father, sister or brother, in-law, teacher, police officer or soldier). For all violence reported, data on the injuries sustained are recorded and it is noted whether the incident was reported to anyone.

Figure 11
Data from demographic and health surveys on gender-based violence conducted across sub-Saharan Africa
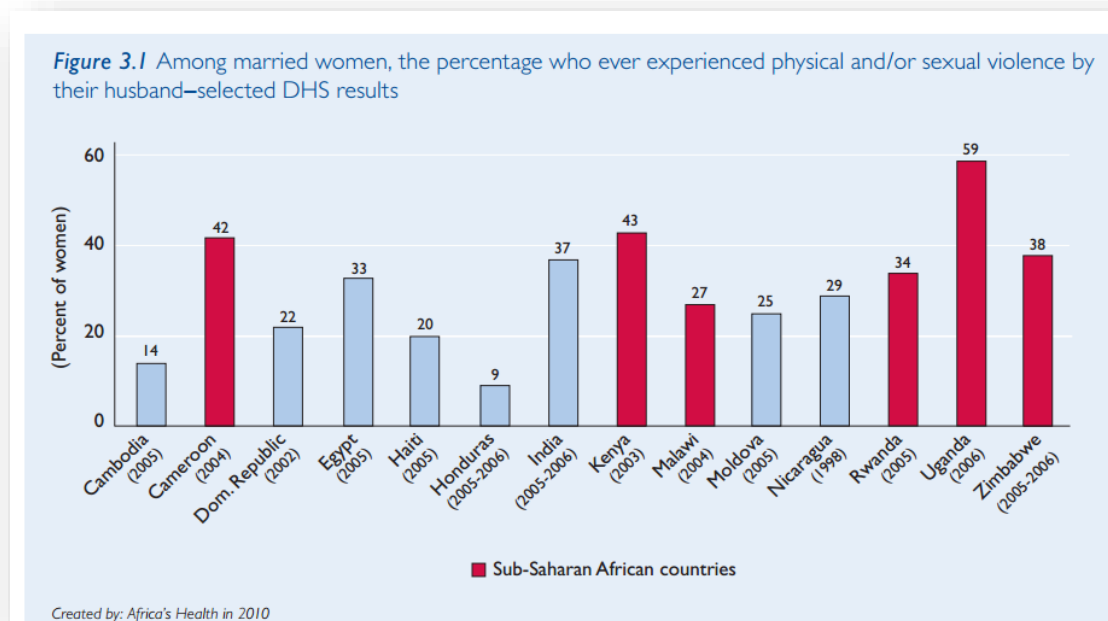
Source: Borwankar R., Diallo R., and Sommerfelt A.E. (2008). Gender-based violence in sub-Saharan Africa: A review of demographic and health survey findings and their use in national planning.

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[56] MEASURE DHS/ICF International (2013). Domestic Violence Module. USAID. March.
www.measuredhs.com/pubs/pdf/DHSQM/DHS6_Module_Domestic_Violence_28March2013_DHSQM.pdf

The United Nations Statistical Commission has adopted a core set of statistical indicators for measuring violence against women. [57] They include measures of physical violence, sexual violence, psychological violence, economic violence and female genital mutilation. These are disaggregated by various characteristics, including relationship to the perpetrator, frequency and severity of violence. The official list of indicators is provided in Appendix 2.

There are many resources to assist countries in surveying gender-based violence. The United Nations Statistical Division has also just published a manual on measuring violence against women to assist countries in collecting such data. [58] In addition to the demographic and health survey module, a model questionnaire has been designed to produce the standard set of gender-based violence indicators endorsed by the Statistical Commission. Developed through the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE), it has been tested in several countries, including South Africa. It has been recommended for use as a standard tool for collecting data on violence against women. Further information and copies of the questionnaire and accompanying manuals can be downloaded from the ECE website. [59]

7.   1-2-3 type survey

The purpose of the research on gender issues is to track the involvement of women in the development process and monitor gender disparities. Gender research has made women's contribution to economic development more visible, especially in Africa, where most societies are patriarchal. Women generally work in the home or in the informal sector, both of which play an important role in the economies of African countries, but are often excluded from traditional statistical collections.

The rising prominence of the informal economy is the result of slow economic growth and limited job opportunities. High unemployment, particularly in urban areas, has led to a proliferation of small economic entities. Lack of support from public authorities has compelled citizens to develop survival strategies, such as subsistence production, petty trading and street vending. These small-scale activities are characterized by low level technology, very little formal accounting and an absence of official identification. Women are extensively engaged in informal work, often as dependent or domestic workers without decent work conditions or contractual arrangements. It is therefore very important to understand employment relations and working conditions before analysing gender issues.

Structure of the survey

Three types of questionnaires are used for this type of survey: (a) household, (b) informal production unit and (c) consumption. The household questionnaire identifies all

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[57] United Nations Economic and Social Council (2011). Follow up to the recommendations of the Friends of the Chair of the United Nations Statistical Commission on statistical indicators for measuring violence against women (E/CN.3/2012/20). United Nations Statistical Commission, Forty-third session. 5 December.

[58] United Nations Statistics Division (2013). *Guidelines for Producing Data on Violence against Women*. United Nations: New York. http://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/docs/GuidelinesVaW_editted_NOTformatted.pdf.

[59] www1.unece.org/stat/platform/display/VAW/Survey+module+for+measuring+violence+against+women.

household members, their socio-demographic and economic characteristics, such as activities and sources of income of the household, current job, main activity, secondary activity and unemployment.

The informal production unit questionnaire is for private activity holders, identified from the household questionnaire, who meet the criteria pertaining to the informal sector. This component of the survey goes beyond the identification and characterization of the activity to examine the activity status and the issue of strain at work, after which information such as the mode of access to employment, the type of contract, the nature and level of remuneration, the pace of work (workload, hours of work, etc.) and the working conditions are entered.

The consumption questionnaire looks at the livelihoods of households in order to determine the level and structure of household consumption.

The 1-2-3 survey provides data on various gender-related topics:

- Gender inequalities in access to employment: It is possible to identify the inequalities between men and women on the job market, which are still very significant for all sectors. Gender inequalities are an obstacle to women's development and empowerment. This statistical indicator forms the basis for the formulation of recommendations, including on vocational training projects.

- Gender specialization by sector of activity: The survey captures information on jobs in the informal sector. It allows analysts to assess the differentiated activities of men and women in this sector and their employment status. This may reveal the fact that more women are employed as domestic workers, unpaid apprentices or are simply self-employed. Men may more likely be employers, employees or apprentices receiving remuneration. The data allow analysis by different sectors and occupation, which may reveal that women tend to work in catering, sales and manufacturing, while men are more widely engaged in construction, transport and industry.

- Income disparity by sex: Women working in the informal sector may receive, on average, lower incomes than men. While their jobs are often precarious, they are prone to income discrimination, despite being just as qualified as their male counterparts. Informal sector women, who work as hawkers or deal in petty trading from home or in makeshift markets, often lack access to appropriate venues to ply their trade. Because of the low turnover and their lack of proper identification, the work of women in this sector is often categorized as "marginal".

- Consumer behaviour by sex: The "consumption budget" from the third questionnaire provides valuable data on the level and structure of household consumption and consumer behaviour.

Most of the information collected in 1-2-3 type surveys can be sex-disaggregated. The major limitation is the under-reporting of women's contribution to economic production, and

the lack of information on the allocation of time between different activities (which can be measured through time-use surveys). It is recognized that women often perform essential, but unpaid tasks and their concentration on domestic and parental work in addition to productive activities generally reflects an inequality in gender relations. The content of the questionnaires should take into account this concern, along with access to decent and paid work.

8.   International Household Survey Network: gender project

As thorough as the surveys may seem, they still have limitations for gender analysis purposes. In household income and expenditure surveys, for instance, issues relating to resources and assets are not captured at the individual level, making it difficult to disaggregate them by sex. In some cases, even where individual information is gathered, such as in the population and housing census, the data are extremely limited because only the one person interviewed responds on behalf of all the household members. The analysis may therefore be biased as it is based on the sex of the head of family.

More work should be done to review and revise the approaches to the gender mainstreaming of household surveys and censuses. Some of this work is already being carried out through the International Household Survey Network, which has launched a project to assess the extent to which gender has been mainstreamed in a range of different household surveys and censuses.

The project team has developed a questionnaire to identify the variables obtained by different surveys, to determine how they can measure gender concerns. A large collection of household survey instruments will be evaluated, including a selection from 46 African countries. The results will be compiled into a metadata-base and used to prepare a report on how effectively gender issues are measured in surveys and censuses. More information on this project, including the assessment questionnaire and list of surveys to be evaluated, is available at the website of the International Household Survey Network (www.ihsn.org/home/node/186).

D.   Case studies

Case studies demonstrate specific country examples of dealing with gender statistics. Brief examples are provided throughout this handbook. This section closely examines the approaches to mainstreaming gender in the official statistics of three countries:

1.   Senegal: Agriculture census
2.   Ghana: Women and men in Ghana – a statistical compendium
3.   South Africa: Time-use survey

1.   Senegal: Agriculture census

Most of Africa's population lives in rural areas and the agriculture census offers an ideal opportunity for collecting evidence on the multifaceted nature of gender inequality, and its impact on social and economic development. Just like the population census, the agriculture census comprises questionnaire modules that are common across most African countries. Data are collected on fundamental gender issues, including access to productive resources (land, equipment and inputs, livestock, labour, training, education), roles in the organization of

households and access to and control of income. It is important to design these questionnaires in a manner that resists gender bias and produces accurate and useful statistics for decision-making.

In 2009, Senegal, in collaboration with FAO, evaluated the questionnaires of the 1998–1999 national census on agriculture. The census comprised six questionnaires, including modules on: farm population, agricultural labour force, agricultural equipment and operating facilities, livestock, input quantities, plot characteristics, plot size and crop cultivated, and yield, as detailed below:

- Farm population: this includes variables related to the socio-demographic characteristics of populations (sex, age, education, ethnicity, etc.), economic activity (main and secondary) and a few demographic events in their life (fertility and mortality).

- Agricultural labour force: this deals with the size, distribution, type and status of human resources involved in agricultural operations.

- Agricultural equipment and operating facilities: this takes an inventory of the equipment and fixtures used on the farm (condition of equipment, method and date of acquisition).

- Livestock: this takes an inventory of the livestock and assesses the stock of each farm and the type and characteristics of animals held.

- Input quantities: this is essential to distinguishing crop categories and the types of inputs used. It also records the quantities, the period of acquisition and the mode of acquisition of each type of input.

- Plot characteristics: this identifies the mode of acquisition or occupancy, operating conditions (availability of seed, fertilizer, livestock parking, land improvement, crop rotation, fallowing), plot size and crop cultivated.

- Yield: this is reserved for the assessment of crop production by harvesting and weighing the production of random sample in yield squares.

Identifying data needs for gender analysis

The data gathered in the agriculture census are highly relevant for gender analysis purposes. The level and type of land access are fundamental to developing policy strategies for equity in agriculture. Land capital is a resource that often determines the degree of economic empowerment. To implement evidence-based policies and programmes, decision makers need to understand the current situation in order to appropriately allocate resources for additional production (access to credit, training, equipment, inputs, etc.).

To highlight the disparities between men and women where land is concerned, indicators on land access, farm size and tenure are needed at the individual level, rather than only at the agricultural holding level. These indicators highlight inequalities in access to and control over production factors such as land, labour, credit, information, and inputs. It can be useful to use these variables to answer specific questions for the purposes of analysis: Average number of hectares of land owned -, distribution of plots by tenure or acquisition, by sex (inheritance, loan or share-cropping, gift, etc.) and land tenure (individual and collective).

Data on land tenure by the sex of the holder can provide information on the control of land assets through ownership (decision-making right), tenancy (with compensation), and loan (without compensation). The proportion of land used, by sex and tenure, illustrates the differences in access to agricultural resources. Decision-making in relation to farm management depends on the status of tenure. This analysis must, however, be nuanced as far as women are concerned, since this status does not necessarily indicate control or decision-making power – a responsibility more likely to be assumed by the husband or the head of family, regardless who actually owns the land.

As part of the national census on agriculture, other parameters were used to investigate gender inequalities in control over the means and the benefits of production. Data on access to water, agricultural equipment, farm labour force, seeds and other inputs should be sex-disaggregated, as should indicators on access to the income being generated. Specifically, we differentiate the assets used by sex and sector of activity, occupation and earnings, type of crop (subsistence crops vs. cash crop) and the level of agricultural production by product type (cash crop or otherwise), and the capacity of the producer (head of family, individual producer or group of producers).

Access to and management of pastoral resources are also important. The indicators listed here raise the same concerns as those raised in agriculture. They deal with inequities in access to factors and means of production but also control of income and profits. It would be useful to analyse the place of men and women in the livestock sector. It is equally important, however, to focus here on gender relations in the processing and marketing of livestock products (meat, skins and milk in particular).

Review and revision of data collection tools

The evaluation of the 1998–1999 Senegal national census on agriculture showed that, while some gender analysis was possible, improvements were needed. The emphasis placed on "head of family" as the entrance point, and "farm manager" was useful in providing information to support the gender analysis, although the approach tended to underestimate the contribution of women in agriculture, who were identified more as "plot owners". The review revealed the following issues:

Share of women in associations: The questionnaire does not gather data on the actions of women's associations in the agricultural sector.

Plot owner: The questions on access to inputs, labour and equipment excluded the variable "plot owner".

Time spent on activities: Time spent on various cultural operations by category of participant (status) and the scheduling of work activities of women and men have not been taken into account.

Access to water: The issue of access to water was not taken into account even when the type of crop was treated (rain-fed agriculture, irrigated agriculture, flood recession cultivation, culture bottoms).

Ownership of livestock: Questions on livestock did not allow comparison of the share of women and men who owned certain species of animals. Indeed, the information collected provided the number of each species possessed by men and women, but gave no indication of co-ownership between multiple men and women.

Status of activity: In order to better understand the farming population, a question on the status in the activity should be added to the questionnaire (employee, house-help, etc.).

Control of resources and benefits: The 1998–1999 National Census on Agriculture did not gather data on this indicator.

From these observations, collection tools were reviewed and the gaps filled. It is still important to include issues related to power relations, organization of work (time use, community-based organizations, in particular) or gather data on them in separate, specific surveys.

Figure 12
Cover of the FAO publication on gender mainstreaming in agricultural censuses

The FAO publication, Agricultural Censuses and Gender: Lessons learned in Africa (2005), provides more detailed information and case studies to guide African countries in gender mainstreaming for this important data source.
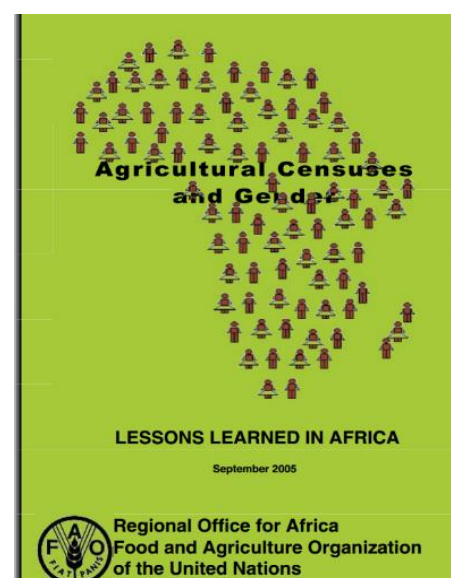
2. Ghana: Women and Men in Ghana – a statistical compendium

In 2006, for the first time, the Government Statistician of Ghana published a statistical compendium on women and men,[60] in response to the first national gender statistics workshop in Ghana, held in 2005.

The 37-page compendium presents integrated statistics about women and men, and identifies the key gender concerns based on available statistics. The areas covered are:

- Population structure
- Population distribution across regions

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[60] http://www.statsghana.gov.gh/docfiles/Gender%20Statistics%20%20(Women%20&%20Men).pdf.

- Health
- Economics
- Education
- Industrial distribution
- Work and employment
- Crime
- Power and influence

Data for this publication were derived from censuses and surveys conducted by the Ghana Statistical Service, together with administrative records of ministries, departments and agencies. Results are presented as easy-to-read tables, charts and graphs that highlight the similarities and differences between men and women in Ghana. No attempt is made to interpret or analyse the data presented.

In 2013, the Ghana national statistics office released a report on Women and Men in Ghana[61] as one of six monographs based on data from the 2010 population and housing census. The report assesses the situation of women and men in education, employment, health, household arrangements and other social characteristics and attempts to explain differences in data between men and women, where possible.

Figure 13

Example of data presented in Women and Men in Ghana

Table 3.2: Total Fertility Rates by Level of Education (1988-2003)

Level of Educa-tion	1988 GDHS	1993 GDHS	1998 GDHS	2000 Census	2003 GDHS
No Education	6.77	6.67	5.83	4.64	6.0
Primary	6.09	6.10	4.94	4.37	5.3
Middle/JSS	5.87	4.71	3.78	3.54	3.5
SSS/Tech/Voc or Higher	3.55	2.90	2.80	3.02	2.5
Total	6.43	5.50	4.55	3.99	4.4

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (GDHS 1988, 1993, 1998 and 2003). Ghana Statistical Service, 2000 Population and Housing Census

Fig. 3.2: Total Fertility Rate by Level of Education (1988-2000)

Source: Ghana National Statistics Office (2006). Women and Men in Ghana.

3.   South Africa 2000 time-use survey

Time-use surveys are of particular importance in exploring gender issues as they examine how men and women use their time. In 2000, South Africa conducted one of the first time-use surveys in the developing world. According to the survey publication, "the study was intended to provide new information on the division of both paid and unpaid labour between   women and men, and greater insight into less well understood productive activities such as subsistence work, casual work and work in the informal sector."[62]

Time-use surveys are complex to design, administer and process. In the case of the South African survey, information was collected in three separate time frames in 2000 to ensure that seasonal variation was taken into account (February, June and October). The sample of over 8,500 households covered all provinces of the country and included formal and informal urban
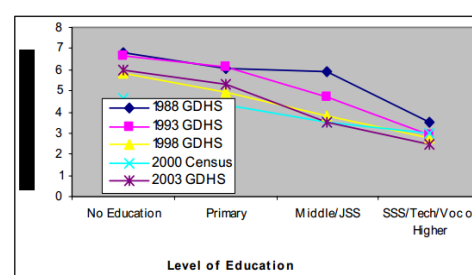
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[61] http://www.statsghana.gov.gh/docfiles/publications/2010phc_monograph_women_&_men_in_Gh.pdf.

[62]   Statistics South Africa (2001). *A Survey of   Time   Use: How   South   Africans   spend   their   time*. http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/TimeUse/TimeUse2000.pdf.

areas, commercial farms and rural settlements. Two respondents aged 10 or above were selected from each household in the sample, with a total of 14,553 responses.

The survey involved the completion of a 24-hour diary that was divided into 30-minute time slots. The diary was completed by a trained interviewer, and respondents were able to record up to three activities for each time slot. Activities were coded using a trial classification developed by the United Nations Statistics Division. This trial classification was designed to be more suitable for developing countries. In addition to the diary, a detailed questionnaire, which recorded household characteristics, was also completed.

Figure 14
Questionnaire used in the South African time-use survey 2000

Source: World Bank Central Microdata Catalog.
http://microdata.worldbank.org/index.php/catalog/914

Results from the time-use survey provide base data for the compilation of satellite national accounts that take into account goods and services produced outside of the paid economy. This is important from a gender perspective, because women are more likely to do the work of rearing and caring for children and attending to the needs of other household members, cooking, cleaning, and fetching water and fuel – activities that are not included in national accounts and calculations of the gross domestic product (GDP).

The survey found significant differences between how men and women spent their time, along with considerable variations between urban and rural areas. Activities were broadly categorized into SNA production, non-SNA production, and non-productive activities. When SNA and non-SNA production was combined, the results showed that, both men and women spent the majority of their time on non-productive activities. For men, this was 81 per cent of their day and for women 77 per cent. The results provide a rich source of data for analysing

work, such as collecting water and firewood, that had previously gone unmeasured. As shown, the survey quantified the amount of time women spent on such tasks in comparison to men.

Figure 15
Findings from the South African survey on time use, 2000

Figure 7: Usual collectors of water and mean minutes per day spent on this activity, by distance from the source and sex
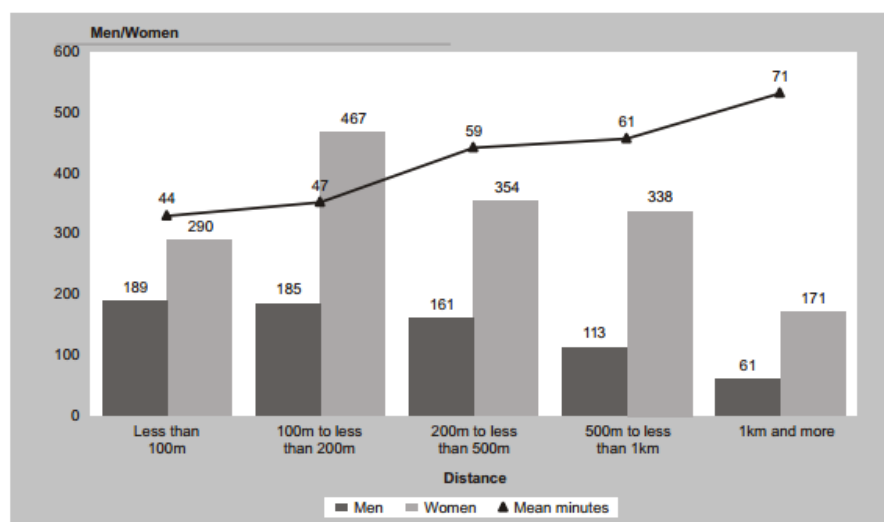
Source: Statistics South Africa (2001). A Survey of Time Use: How South Africans Spend Their Time.

The experience of South Africa in conducting this time-use survey proved that such a survey was feasible in developing countries with high levels of illiteracy. Statistics South Africa produced a report containing an initial analysis of the survey results, and encourages researchers to use the data for further analysis.[63]

III. Implementation

1. National level

Taking action to mainstream gender in statistics entails developing a strategy, objectives and a plan. It should involve top management and staff from across the national statistical system, in all subject areas and at all steps of the statistical production process. Efforts to mainstream gender in statistics should be part and parcel of the overall strategic direction of the national statistics office and system, and an explicit feature in strategy documents, such as the national strategy for the development of statistics.

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[63] Statistics South Africa (2001). A Survey of Time Use: How South Africans spend their time.

Action at the national level may comprise the following steps:

1. Preparing a strategy for gender statistics and obtaining top management support

2. Developing statisticians' awareness of gender statistics

3. Reviewing and enhancing the institutional arrangements for mainstreaming gender in the production of all statistics

4. Reviewing existing collections to eliminate gender bias

5. Developing skills and processes for gender-focused analysis, dissemination and communication of statistics

6. Ensuring that staff are familiar with the relevant international standards and guidelines

7. Creating mechanisms for coordination with other data producers and with users of gender statistics

8. Participating in and contributing to the further development of gender statistics at regional and international levels

2. Regional level

Actions at the national level should be supported and aligned with regional initiatives. Regional coordination works to the benefit of national systems by pooling resources and expertise to develop common frameworks, methods, tools and training programmes. Regional mechanisms also provide a valuable opportunity for sharing information and experiences, allowing country representatives to network, learn ideas from one another and gain support that will assist them in taking action in their own country.

The African Group on Gender Statistics, under the Statistical Commission for Africa, provides the platform for regional action on gender statistics. It has developed a plan of action on gender statistics in Africa (2012–2016) that identifies five priority areas:

1. Regional partnership and coordination mechanism for the development of gender statistics. To this end:

(a) The Group is to establish a core working group;

(b) The United Nations Statistics Division has conducted a global review on gender statistics and has reported the results (summarized in the present handbook);

(c) ECA is preparing a compendium of gender statistics to summarize existing institutional arrangements at the national and regional levels;

(d)   The Gender Statistics Network (GeSNet) provides an online platform for information sharing;

(e)   The Kampala City Group is to be revived.

2.   Building capacity in programme and research. To this end:

(a)   The present handbook on mainstreaming gender in statistical processes is to serve as a useful reference document;

(b)   An online training toolkit on gender statistics is to be developed and pilot tested;

(c)   Gender statistics will be integrated in the work of the Africa Group on Statistical Training and Human Resources;

(d)   The development of new collections will be supported through guidelines and manuals, and also a training workshop;

(e)   A manual specifically on developing a national gender statistics programme could provide example plans, activities and monitoring and evaluation frameworks;

(f)   A pool of experts in gender statistics is to be established;

(g)   Workshops and study visits are to be conducted;

(h)   Training and research institutions are to be encouraged to conduct thematic research on gender issues.

3.   Creation of a mechanism for efficient reporting, storage and dissemination of gender statistics. To this end:

(a)   Gender is to be included as a separate section in the African Statistical Yearbook;

(b)   Sections on gender are to be maintained in regional databases;

(c)   The core gender statistics indicators being developed at the global level are to be implemented;

(d)   A monitoring and evaluation framework is to be developed;

(e)   The core working group of the African Group on Gender Statistics will establish a monitoring framework for reporting purposes;

(f)   Independent agencies or consultants will conduct mid-term and end-term evaluations of the programme;

(g)   The African Group on Gender Statistics will prepare a final report on the basis of these evaluations.

4. Continued effort to advocate and raise awareness among member States of the need to develop and implement a gender statistics programme in their countries. To this end:

    (a)   Development of gender statistics shall be promoted;

    (b)   Annual thematic evidence on gender issues will be gathered through dialogue between gender experts, statisticians, economists, policymakers and academics;

    (c)   Advocacy materials will be produced for new collections;

    (d)   Advocacy materials on the importance of gender statistics to various target groups will be disseminated;

    (e)   Existing data will be analysed from a gender perspective and issues highlighted through simple messages and articles;

    (f)   A publication on women and men in Africa, with country profiles, will be prepared;

    (g)   The 2012 African Statistics Day will be celebrated with gender statistics as its theme.

This action plan provides a solid basis for mainstreaming gender in statistical production. Progress in its implementation will be evaluated, with a view to identifying successes and challenges in time for the development of the next phase of planning beyond 2016.

Appendix 1
Frameworks for gender analysis

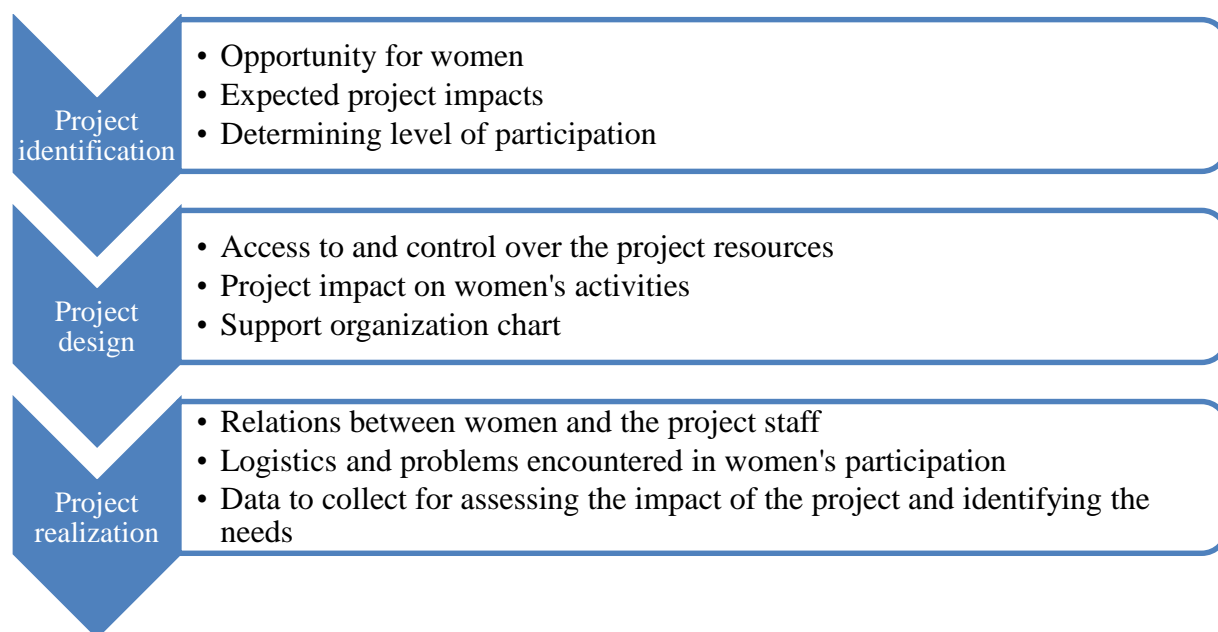## 1.   Harvard analytical framework

Developed in the 1980s by the Harvard Institute for International Development, the Harvard gender analysis framework was designed to facilitate integration of a gender perspective in the analysis of projects, in particular in the agriculture sector. It was developed in collaboration with the Women and Development Unit of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). It relies on a set of tools for collecting and analysing information to shed light on the roles of women and men in a community. Conducting such analysis facilitates gender mainstreaming in development projects.

The framework defines gender roles and focuses on the study of the division of productive and reproductive work between men and women within the household and the community, disaggregated by sex and age and possibly by other factors. It thus promotes the collection of baseline data for understanding the levels of access to and control over resources. This is therefore a powerful tool for diagnosis and project design available to the planners.

Specifically, the Harvard analytical framework emphasizes the following four components:

1.   **Activity profile**: which answers the questions, "Who does what?", "How?", "Where" and "For how long?" by identifying the productive and reproductive tasks performed by men and women. This will provide contextual information leading to a detailed study on production and reproduction roles;

2.   **Access and control profile**: to identify the resources and benefits associated with production and reproduction roles over which men or women have control and profit. More specifically, it can address the benefits and resources (land, equipment, roles, etc.) provided to men and women in order to carry out their work, gain access to and exercise control over resources;

3.   **Influencing factors**: these refer to the dynamic factors that explain gender differences in the division of labour and in access to and control over resources. These factors include community norms, institutional factors, and demographic, economic and political factors. The impact of any intervention can be determined by taking these factors into account;

4.   **Project cycle analysis** (figure 16): specifies the project's purpose and the way forward in terms of activities, resources to be mobilized, results to be achieved and factors to be taken into account in order to explain any differences (influencing factors). The project cycle analysis is in three stages:

Figure 16
Project cycle analysis

Project identification
- Opportunity for women
- Expected project impacts
- Determining level of participation

Project design
- Access to and control over the project resources
- Project impact on women's activities
- Support organization chart

Project realization
- Relations between women and the project staff
- Logistics and problems encountered in women's participation
- Data to collect for assessing the impact of the project and identifying the needs

The advantage of the Harvard approach is that it explains who does what, when and with which resources, thereby identifying, with precision, the role of women in the labour organization and the level of resource appropriation.

3. Planning framework or triple roles framework

With the advent of the market ideology and the structural adjustment programmes of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, it became necessary to revise the Harvard framework. The first proposals for improvement were made in the studies by researchers from the Development Planning Unit of London University. Moser and Levy, in particular, presented a new dimension to the Harvard analytical framework, including a community aspect, hence the name "Triple roles framework: productive, reproductive and community."

The Levy and Moser framework has a major advantage since it facilitates the planning of gender issues. This approach highlighted three basic concerns in gender-based analysis, namely the triple role played by women: reproductive, productive and community or social. Their reproductive role often outweighs the other two. These gender-specific roles are:

1. The productive role: this relates to the work done by men and women for remuneration in cash or in kind;

2. The reproductive role: this is the reproductive behaviour to ensure the renewal of society (women), domestic roles and roles performed in support of health and education (broadly defined);

3. The community role: this is any community action to develop the community as a whole. Women play a very important but often unrecognized role in household activities, associations and charities.

The key issues that arise here are:

- Who does what in relation to the reproductive role?

- Who does what in relation to labour production?

- Who does what in relation to community work (community management or community policy)?

- What are the strategic and practical gender-related needs of women? Distinguishing between and juxtaposing these types of needs with the stereotyped roles of both sexes will help in identifying ways of remedying imbalances in this regard.

Using this framework gives more visibility to the work of women in their reproductive, productive and community roles. The limitation of this approach is that it masks the issue of power relations between women and men, and therefore hinders change.

3.   Social relations framework

This framework, which is proposed by Naila Kabeer, a researcher from the Institute of Development Studies at the University of Sussex, United Kingdom, focuses on social relations, institutions and social relations dimensions. It questions the previous approaches, which were based on the theory of social roles and focused on the separation between women and men as categories or individuals.

Kabeer believes that people should not see the relationships between men and women only in terms of conflict. Indeed, potentially conflicting cooperation and relationship of interdependence can lead to negotiations and fruitful exchanges. [64] In her vision of the relationship between men and women, Kabeer emphasizes the need to include well-being as the main goal of growth and economic development. As such, she recommends the use of institutional analysis, taking into account the social networks and rights of individuals. This framework suggests that women are the agents of their own development. From this it is clear that Kabeer deviates from the WID approach, which considers women as a specific category. Unlike the framework put forward by Kabeer, the WID approach does not envisage any association between women and the family, between economic development and welfare, and between production and social reproduction.

Kabeer's approach is very useful for project and policy planning, both nationally and internationally. It can capture the gender approach inequalities in the distribution of resources,

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[64] Kabeer, Naila, and Catherine Ego (2005). "Intégration de la dimension genre à la lutte contre la pauvreté et les objectifs du millénaire pour le développement : Manuel à l'intention des instances de décision et d'intervention", L'Harmattan, Paris, 2005.

Kabeer, Naila (1994). "Reversed Realities: Gender Hierarchies in Development Thought", London, UK: Verso.

responsibilities and power. It also shows how institutional gender inequalities are produced and reproduced. Kabeer indicates that gender inequalities do not occur in households alone, but also within the community (villages, informal networks, non-governmental organizations), the State (legal, administrative organizations, etc.) and in the market (enterprises, companies, etc.).

4. Gender analysis matrix

The gender analysis matrix (GAM), developed by Rani Parker in the early 1990s, recommends that gender-based analysis should be performed by community members themselves for change to be effective. It suggests participatory methods so that people realize for themselves the inequalities that women face. In the framework of a project, the effects are measured at four levels:

- In the tasks assigned to women, men, household, community
- In the time required for women, men, households and the community to perform their respective tasks
- In access to and control over resources by women, men, households or communities
- At the level of social and cultural aspects

GAM is an assessment tool at different levels (micro and meso-economic) of gender-based differences. The collection must therefore ensure that gender-based data can be adapted to multiple levels of analysis.

5. Women's empowerment framework

This framework addresses women's empowerment in terms of equal control over means of production by men and women. Developed by Sarah Longwe, it makes for a gender-based analysis that presents the improvement of equality and women's empowerment at five levels of equality:

1. Control
2. Participation
3. Awareness
4. Access
5. Welfare

This framework suggests that improving these factors can contribute to women's empowerment. Classified hierarchically from most powerful to least powerful, it advocates that, to achieve women's empowerment, it is more important to establish equality in resource control than equal access or participation. It indicates the importance of collecting data to better assess women's decision-making power.

Appendix 2:
Indicators for measuring violence against women

The following indicators for measuring violence against women were developed by the international statistical community through the Friends of the Chair of the United Nations Statistical Commission:

(a)   Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to physical violence in the last 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency;

(b)   Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to physical violence during their lifetime by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency;

(c)   Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to sexual violence in the last 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency;

(d)   Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to sexual violence during their lifetime by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency;

(e)   Total and age-specific rate of ever-partnered women[65] subjected to sexual or physical violence or both by current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months by frequency;

(f)   Total and age-specific rate of ever-partnered women subjected to sexual or physical violence or both by current or former intimate partner during lifetime by frequency;

(g)   Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to psychological violence in the past 12 months by the intimate partner;

(h)   Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to economic violence in the past 12 months by the intimate partner;

(i)   Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to female genital mutilation.

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[65] "Ever-partnered women" – generally defined as referring to women who have ever been married, ever lived with a man, or are currently with a regular male sexual partner.

Note: the denominator for indicators (a)–(d) and (i) should be the total number of women aged 15 and above, and for indicators (e)–(h) the total number of ever-partnered women. Methodological guidelines and a model questionnaire, together with training and interviewer manuals are being produced by the United Nations. More information is available on the following websites:

- United Nations Statistics Division – Violence against Women meetings
  http://unstats.un.org/unsd/Demographic/meetings/vaw/default.htm

- Economic Commission for Europe– model questionnaire for measuring violence against women
  http://www1.unece.org/stat/platform/display/VAW/Survey+module+for+measuring+violence+against+women

Source: United Nations Economic and Social Council, 5 December 2011. Follow-up to the recommendations of the Friends of the Chair of the United Nations Statistical Commission on statistical indicators for measuring violence against women (E/CN.3/2012/20). United Nations Statistical Commission, forty-third session.