

Genderizing the Census

Strategic approaches to capturing
the gender realities of a population



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the gender realities of a population**



FOREWORD

Some development experts consider gender stratification the root cause of all development challenges. Although this can be debated, the importance of gender statistics in formulating gender-sensitive policies and programmes cannot be overemphasized. Major United Nations conference outcomes, particularly the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) and the Beijing Conference on Women, emphatically urged the development of gender-sensitive policies and programme strategies.

Since the 2010 round of population and housing censuses, the United Nations Population Fund has significantly stepped up its support to census operations across the world. As 2014 draws nearer - the year when ICPD celebrates its twentieth anniversary - and as the 2015 deadline on the Millennium Development Goal promises approaches, the importance of census data to help assess our achievements becomes most acute.

A population and housing census is the largest statistical exercise undertaken by any government. It is considered the "mother of all statistics" because it collects data on every individual and household in a country or territory and is used as a reference for other statistical activities and provides denominators for many statistical indicators. Historically, census data have tended to be gender insensitive. The net result of this has been that important gender-based statistical insights derived from census data, such as female labour force participation, are often biased.

This document provides census managers with methods to strengthen the focus on gender in population and housing censuses and thereby improve the quality of census data. It covers every phase of a census undertaking, from planning to data analysis and dissemination, and describes how the gender dimension can be better represented at each stage. It does this with numerous examples from countries in South Asia, where several attempts at "genderizing" the census have been undertaken. Some of these attempts can be regarded as "good practice", while others, as less successful attempts, have resulted in useful "lessons learned". The document will impart both theoretical and practical knowledge in the collection and analysis of census data through a gender lens.

I convey sincere thanks to the authors of this guide, Dr Meena Acharya and Dr Rafiqul Chaudhury, who pioneered the genderizing census process and can be credited with its institutionalization among several national statistical offices in South Asia. Their tireless work on multiple versions of this document has taken them well beyond the typical duties of consultants. I also want to acknowledge the contributions of Eduard Jongstra, who as UNFPA technical adviser has persistently supported the production of this document over its long gestation period. The efforts of the editor, Karen Emmons, are much appreciated and have helped reshape the document into its final version. I acknowledge everyone who reviewed early versions of this document and would like to mention specifically Riet Groenen, Gender Adviser and Petra Righetti, Junior Professional Officer at UNFPA Asia and Pacific Regional Office, Jessica Gardner, retired ESCAP statistical adviser, Kim Robertson, consultant, and Ralph Hakkert, technical adviser at UNFPA Population and Development Branch. Wholehearted thanks are especially due to the staff of the various national statistical offices who have embraced the concept of genderizing the census and who have supplied information that made the writing of this manual possible.

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Acronyms

CBS	Central Bureau of Statistics (Nepal)
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women
CREHPA	Center for Research on Environment Health and Population Activities
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
FBS	Federal Bureau of Statistics (Pakistan)
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NLSS	Nepal Living Standards Survey (Nepal)
NPC	National Planning Commission (Nepal)
NSC	National Statistical Council (Nepal)
SNA	System of National Accounts
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

TERMINOLOGY

Gender is a social and cultural construct, which distinguishes differences in the attributes of men and women, girls and boys, and accordingly refers to the roles and responsibilities of men and women. Gender-based roles and other attributes, therefore, change over time and vary with different cultural contexts. The concept of gender includes the expectations held about the characteristics, aptitudes and likely behaviours of both women and men (femininity and masculinity). This concept is also useful in analysing how commonly shared practices legitimize discrepancies between sexes. (*Gender Equality, UN Coherence & You - Glossary, July 2010*)

Sex refers to the biological and physiological reality of being males or females

Gender statistics is a cross-cutting effort in statistics to describe and analyze the situation of women and men, girls and boys in a given society in a way that reflects gender differences, power relations and inequalities in all areas of life. Gender statistics are policy-oriented, aiming to support evidence-based policies by providing government and civil society actors with a set of crucial data and indicators that represent the social, economic and cultural conditions gender relations form and operate in.

Gender sensitive: being aware of the existing differences in opportunities and treatment between women and men and taking these differences into account when analysing/developing specific approaches/programmes

Sex-disaggregated data is data that is cross-classified by sex, presenting information separately for men and women, boys and girls. When data is not disaggregated by sex, it is more difficult to identify real and potential inequalities. Sex-disaggregated data is necessary for effective gender analysis (*Gender Equality, UN Coherence & You - Glossary, July 2010*)

Gender lens takes the existing differences between women and men into account when analysing a situation or when developing specific approaches or programmes.

Terminology of economic activity

The classification of employed persons is based on the distinction of jobs between those "paid" and "self-employed". Groups are defined with reference to one or more aspects of the economic risk and/or the type of authority, which the explicit or implicit employment contract gives the incumbents or to which it subjects them" (UN, 2008).

Paid employment jobs are those jobs with which the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts, which give them a basic remuneration that is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work (this unit can be a corporation, a non-profit institution, a government unit or a household).

Self-employment jobs are those jobs for which the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profit (or the potential for profits) derived from the goods and services produced (where own consumption is considered to be part of profits). The incumbents make the operational decisions affecting the enterprise or delegate such decisions while retaining responsibility for the welfare of the enterprise.

Employees include all those workers who hold paid employment jobs on contract (short or long term). That is, their wages/salaries are not related to the profit/loss of the establishment. They could be salaried regular employees (ministers to office boys) or daily wage earners working in the field.

Employers are those persons who employ other workers to work in establishments owned and operated, with final decision-making authority solely or partly by them, who may or may not work themselves in these establishments.

“An employer is a person who, working on his or her own economic account or with one or a few partners, holds a self-employment job and, in this capacity, has engaged on a continuous basis (including the reference period) one or more persons to work for him/her as employees” (UN, 2008).

An **own-account worker** is a person who works on his or her own enterprise alone or with one or a few partners and has engaged no employees on a continuous basis. Occasionally he/she may do so.

A **contributing family member** is a person who works part time in the family owned enterprises and cannot be considered as partner in terms of his commitment to the enterprise.

A **member of a producers' cooperative** is a person who holds a job in an establishment organized as a cooperative in which each member takes part on an equal footing with other members in determining the organization of production, sales and/or other work, investments and the distribution of proceeds among the members. Members of such cooperatives should be classified as “employers” or “own-account workers”, depending on whether or not they employ any employees on a continuous basis.

When delineating the categories of self-employed worker, employer, own-account worker and unpaid family worker, two factors must be kept in mind: whether the person has partial or full ownership of the enterprise or not and whether he/she makes all the decisions concerning the enterprise or not.

Occupation refers to the type of work done in a job by the person employed (or the type of work done previously, if the person is unemployed), irrespective of the industry or the status in employment in which the person should be classified. Type of work is described by the main tasks and duties of the work (UN census manual, 2008).

Industry is defined as “... the kind of production or activity of the establishment or similar unit in which the job(s) of the economically active person (whether employed or unemployed) was located during the time-reference period established for data on economic characteristics” (UN census manual, 2008).

I. INTRODUCTION

A census provides nationwide information on a population and on multiple aspects of the people who make up that population – their age, sex distribution, marital status, fertility, economic activity and occupational and industrial distribution, employment status (where and in what positions people work) among many other significant details. Such information, which must be captured equally for both men and women, is crucial for general analysis, as much as gender analysis.

The census provides the basis for shaping national policies, plans, programmes and legal systems. It is also important to have time-series data on various aspects of both men's and women's lives, such as education, health status, work status and empowerment, to review whether governments have fulfilled their various commitments, such as gender equality goals to which they have pledged under the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) 1979, the Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing 1995 (the Beijing Platform), the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and many other international conventions and covenants.

However, population censuses historically have been biased against women – from the definitions of categories used in census questions and collection methodology, to the analysis of census data. Because the information that is generated is often gender biased, the policies, plans, programmes and legal systems that rely on it can be gender biased – much to the disadvantage of women.

Due to the biases, women working outside the market economy historically have been made "invisible" in the national statistics and remain so in many countries.

The biases can occur consciously or even subconsciously. Long-standing cultural presumptions feed into the perceptions of census officials, analysts and respondents – both male and female. Men, for example, are largely still assumed to be the natural head of household in many surveys, and thus women's income is considered only supplementary to income provided by men.

Data on women's participation in economic activities may not truly reflect their degree of involvement because of the failure on the part of a proxy male respondent and/or male enumerator to report on women's work, particularly their non-marketable economic pursuits. This failure may arise out of an assumption that these activities are a part of women's domestic work. Women's reported lower participation in economic activity in some traditional societies may also arise out of reluctance on the part of a male proxy respondent to report on activities linked with a woman's contribution to the household economy that are considered dishonourable.

With increasing gender consciousness and an increasing direct income-earning role of women, the number of households jointly managed by a husband and wife is increasing. Information on this is important for measuring the progress on women's empowerment as well the realities of a society.

In terms of definitions, the System of National Accounts¹ (SNA) has systematically underestimated the contribution of women to gross domestic product by focusing primarily on market production and ignoring non-agricultural subsistence production. Revisions (as explained in

¹ Managed by the National Accounts Section of the United Nations Statistics Division, the System of National Accounts is the internationally agreed standard set of recommendations on how to compile measures of economic activity.

section 3) were made to the SNA definitions in 1993 and 2008 to more fairly reflect women's contributions to the economy.²

Population and housing censuses, at least those reviewed in South and West Asia (as the basis of this guide), have been biased not only because of the international definitions but also because of country-specific contexts and intensely gendered views of women's appropriate roles, work patterns and social status in general. These have impacted on both the formulation of questionnaires and manuals and the census-taking activities.

Confronting the bias

Gender bias in census data can be reduced by i) reviewing response categories from a gender perspective, ii) fielding more probing questions, iii) obtaining responses directly from the respondent in question instead of a proxy respondent and iv) having female enumerators interview women.

The role of women enumerators is paramount to obtain correct responses to many questions, particularly in patriarchal societies in which women occupy a subordinate position to men in every walk of life and are not expected to interact directly with men outside their own close relations. Most censuses in countries with a patriarchal society are conducted by male interviewers and supervisors, and they obtain information about women members of the household from male members, particularly a male head of the household.

In all countries, the population census is the most comprehensive and regular statistical exercise undertaken. Adapting it to produce gender-disaggregated analyses means changing entrenched perspectives of policymakers, statisticians and administrators and also educating the population as a whole about gender roles so that a census truly reflects the position of both women and men in a society.

This guide offers reasons and approaches for making those necessary adaptations. The analysis and examples largely emphasize the situations of women because they have thus far not been well captured or analysed in the census data.

1.1 Why sex disaggregation is not enough

There is a difference between sex-disaggregated and gender-disaggregated data. A sex-disaggregated survey (such as a census) asks questions to understand how a set of indicators break down by male and female, without paying particular attention to the content of the indicator. A gender-responsive census or survey asks questions that capture the gendered realities in the context of social and cultural norms and practices, and it uses both male and female enumerators to draw out more honest replies. Some respondents will answer differently to a man than to a woman. Social norms and cultural practices may prevent respondents from answering truthfully to an interviewer of the opposite sex for fear of shame or misunderstanding.

Any information pertaining to people can be sex disaggregated. For gender analysis, such information must be gender sensitive in the first place and then analysed to capture the gender dimensions. For example, while sex ratios are produced by all censuses in South and West Asia, it is usually not analysed to show in detail what factors are leading to imbalances,

² The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development produced a useful complementary document in 2002: *Measurement of the Non-Observed Economy: A Handbook*.

if any. Sex-disaggregated information has been produced routinely on economic activity, occupational distribution and employment status, but it has been of little use for gender analysis. Once the content of the information is made useful for gender analysis, sex disaggregation of this information is an important first step towards gender analysis. But it is not necessarily sufficient.

Data managers and statisticians in South and West Asia countries, for example, seem still confused between the concepts of sex and gender – between the female as a physical being and girls and women as social constructs. Often, they argue: i) gender sensitivity is already inherent in the statistics because sex-disaggregated data are collected and produced; ii) women and men in their country enjoy equality; and iii) female economic activity rates are expected to be lower than male activity rates because women do not like to work outside the home.

In a patriarchal society, as noted, a male member is invariably considered head of the household even in a situation in which a female member of the household is rendering the roles and duties that are typically attributed to a head of household. Similarly, data on marital status may be gender biased because men, as well as women, are reluctant to discuss issues around marriage, divorce, polygamy and dowry.

Conversely, many studies conducted from a woman's perspective do not collect data on men and thus are not adequate for gender analysis, which requires a comparative analysis of men's and women's lives, preferably with caste, class, region and other subgroup breakdowns.

Although the United Nations Statistical Division's manual on *Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Census* is generally recognized as the authoritative resource (hereafter the UN census manual, latest edition from 2008), the application of the guidelines on national accounts and population and housing censuses across countries is still very uneven.

This manual tries to show that census data collected in the past could be erroneous or even inaccurate, as illustrated by the economic activity information. As explained in chapter 3, the System of National Accounts definitions were widened in 1993 to include water and fuel collection and the processing of market purchased goods, which were outside its boundary before; however, these changes have not been reflected in some countries' census questionnaires. Vital in this regard is to determine and code locally relevant categories of economic activity or extended economic activity that capture women's (and men's) work. At other times, some census questionnaires do not ask adequate details to capture gender aspects. For example, even if a census collects and produces data on marital status, it does not include information on the kind of marriage – first marriage, second marriage, polygamous, single, etc.

Nor do most census questionnaires capture gender aspects of house and land ownership. For example, information is usually collected on household assets, but without any information on who controls or benefits from those assets. Sex-disaggregated data can be considered gender sensitive only when the statistics truly reflect men's and women's positions in society. Such information is then useful for policies that aim to further establish equality and equity between and for both sexes.

1.2 The census process and entry points for gender disaggregation

Funding mechanisms for population and housing censuses tend to be well in place, and national statistical offices have built up their infrastructure and human resources. Rather than instigate an additional survey, improving the quality of census data pertaining to women and

girls - who make up 50 percent of the population - is the most efficient way of strengthening a country's national statistical system.

The census process consists of three phases: i) pre-enumeration preparation, ii) enumeration and iii) post-enumeration data coding, tabulation and analysis. Capturing gender statistics and analysis requires a gender sensitizing of both the human and procedural elements in all three phases:

- The pre-enumeration activities entail: i) initial preparation, official approval, team formation and internal discussions on the work plan; ii) census mapping; iii) designing and preparing the questionnaires and manuals; iv) preparing the data entry procedures and programs; v) conducting a pilot census; vi) preparing the census tabulation and publication plan; vii) revising and finalizing the questionnaires and manuals; viii) recruiting supervisors and enumerators; ix) training the enumeration staff, including master trainers; and x) organizing publicity and media campaigns.
- The enumeration activities entail: i) household listing; ii) actual enumeration; iii) monitoring during the enumeration period; and iv) review and reflection.
- The post-enumeration activities entail: i) the post-enumeration survey; ii) data entry and processing iii) data analysis; and iv) publication and dissemination.

To alter a census process so that it seeks out gender-based realities requires more than additional questions. It requires interventions at every stage of the census process, from pre-census communication through final analysis and dissemination. This then necessitates that the administrators of the process and even the government leadership understand and agree on the need for it. During the preparation stage, it is thus important to sensitize the policymakers, senior management of the statistical offices and the technical staff within the census unit. Attuning the census process to gender realities works best when it is an inside initiative rather than an imposition from outside, although the assistance of gender experts working closely with national statistical office staff can be helpful.

1.3 Objective and limitations of this guide

The strategies included here are intended for national statistical office staff use in making census questionnaires and processes more gender sensitive so that the findings truly reflect the male and female dynamics of a society. This document focuses on the concept of gender and its relationship to the census process; it provides reasons why technical staff and administrators of national statistical offices need gender sensitizing. The recommendations draw on the latest version of the UN census manual and the 1993 System of National Accounts.

Because this document stems from research in South and West Asia, and mostly of the 2000 Round of Population and Housing censuses, it offers examples of what has been done in the area of gender and censuses in countries of that region, at that time. Census operations in South and West Asia take place in strongly male dominated societies and thus have typically been biased towards men. Consequently, this document focuses heavily on countering that bias. Some suggestions may be of limited value in other regions, although the principle of considering gender in a census as an integrated strategy with interlinked interventions remains universal.

1.4 Structure of this guide

This guide's recommendations for making a population census or any national survey responsive to gender-based dimensions follow the three phases of the census-taking process. As already noted, each chapter reflects what countries in South and West Asia have done (in boxes) as examples. Those examples derive from the 2001 censuses in India and Nepal and the 2006 censuses in the Islamic Republic of Iran and Maldives. The annex contains more details of those country-specific experiences as well.

II. PRE-ENUMERATION PREPARATION

Including a gender-sensitive dimension to the pre-enumeration phase can be achieved through the following order of elements, which this chapter highlights:

- i) **government commitment** in the form of policy statement and the allocation of funds and special units
- ii) **coordinated support from donors and NGOs**, where needed
- iii) **training of higher and mid-level officials in the statistical offices** on the concept of gender and its relationship to the census process
- iv) **gender sensitizing the census questionnaires and manuals**
- v) **recruitment of female enumerators** to ensure gender balance among the census field staff and to generate direct response from female respondents
- vi) **intensive training of census enumeration staff**, including master trainers, enumerators and supervisors, on gender issues relative to the census and how best to handle gender-sensitive questions
- vii) **intensive publicity and media campaigns.**

2.1 Government commitment

Proponents of gender statistics will face resistance, both within and outside a national statistical office, towards developing gender responsiveness in the census because not everyone is convinced of the need and importance of gender statistics. To overcome this resistance, there is a need to foster champions of gender statistics, both inside and outside the national statistical office, to develop a strategy for integrating gender into national, sector and subnational statistics. Alliances need to be built with subject specialists and statisticians working in ministries, non-government offices and the private sector.

As a first step towards building successful alliances, it is essential to provide training for the statisticians or other relevant experts working in ministries, non-government offices and the private sector on gender statistics, based on better understanding of the needs, requirements and expectations. A Web page-based list of supporters and potential supporters of gender statistics should be developed to encourage regular communication and stronger alliances. A platform for "gender statisticians" can be formed to organize regular meetings or seminars to keep members informed of the latest developments in the field and/or develop an advocacy strategy to promote the integration of gender responsiveness into the statistical system. Alliance building should not only be confined to data producers but also involve data users to generate demand for gender statistics by raising levels of awareness of statistical information that would help in policymaking.

Legal support

Governments are pledge bound under various United Nations conferences to promote gender equity, equality and women's empowerment with specific goals and targets. Formulating appropriate policies and programmes to achieve those goals and targets and monitoring their progress require gender statistics. Governments should be persuaded through strong advocacy to give legal coverage to the collection of gender statistics. There should be a clear policy statement, such as the one Nepal's National Planning Commission included in its Ninth Five-Year Plan when it mandated the Central Bureau of Statistics to make the 2001 population census gender responsive.³ Some countries have shown their commitment to integrating gender perspectives into their statistical system by way of their legal framework. Sweden and

³ To see that policy statement, go to: www.npc.gov.np/new/uploadedFiles/allFiles/ninth_eng.pdf See also: http://census.gov.np/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1&Itemid=6

Ukraine, for example, included a requirement for gender statistics in their gender equality laws while South Africa emphasized the need for gender-relevant data in its statistical law. Governments in South and West Africa have made various overtures as well.

Government support is quintessential to bring about any changes in the statistic-gathering systems so that the findings reflect the realities of life for men and women in any country. Such support likely will mean changing the mindset of the top management of statistical offices, which can be approached through advocacy and orientation meetings on the importance of gender statistics and analysis and the training of technical staff within the statistical offices on methods of collection. This also will involve additional allocation of resources for the data collection.

In [India](#), the Government set up a special unit within the office of the Census Commissioner to coordinate gender-sensitizing efforts.

In the [Islamic Republic of Iran](#), the Statistical Center asked the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) for assistance in building up its capacity in data collection, including gender statistics, and invited international consultants to work with its officials to integrate gender disaggregating capacity into the 2006 census.

In the [Maldives](#), the Ministry of Planning and National Development (MPND) invited international consultants to work with the census officials to integrate gender disaggregating capacity into its 2006 census. Two ministers, one in charge of the MNDP and the other heading the Ministry of Gender and Family Affairs, spoke during the inaugural training workshop for master trainers and remained interested in the progress.

The [Nepal](#) National Planning Commission (NPC) set out in the late 1990s to revise its statistical system, including the census, to reflect the actual economic roles of women and their contribution to gross domestic product. The National Statistical Council (NSC) provided guidelines for the census operations. A census technical committee, composed of experienced persons in census activities, was formed under the chair of the Director-General of the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) to discuss and advise the CBS on various technical matters of the census, including gender disaggregating. Other committees and subcommittees were formed to advise the CBS on specific issues related to gender disaggregating. The census committees and the NSC helped implement the gender-sensitizing programmes of the CBS. The prime minister participated in the inaugural session of the first workshop on sensitizing high-level officials on the importance of gender statistics. These steps were crucial for facilitating donor assistance, changing attitudes of the CBS senior staff and exchanging opinions between the data producers and the users.

2.2 Coordinated support from donors and NGOs

Acquiring gender-relevant data will require additional financial and technical support because it involves, among other things: i) intensive gender sensitizing of all personnel in the census process, from higher-level officials, master trainers and supervisors to the enumerators; ii) asking new questions, rewording of old questions and/or adding new categories of responses; iii) preparing gender-sensitized questionnaires and instruction manuals for the enumerators and supervisors and for the training of statistical office staff on the collection and analysis of gender statistics.

There is a shortage of gender specialists with expertise in census and survey statistics in most developing countries. Coordinated support from donors or NGOs likely can assist in covering any financial or technical gap. Donors can provide financial and/or technical support and NGOs

can provide technical support. Some countries in the region, particularly India, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Maldives and Nepal, received such coordinated support.

In **India**, UN Women and UNFPA assisted the Government to expand the capacity of the census to generate better gender analysis. Flyers explaining the need for a gender-sensitive census were distributed in all districts and a special gender training module was created for use in 262 gender-critical districts targeted by the Registrar General of India and Census Commissioner. UNFPA provided gender master trainer facilitators in those targeted 262 districts for gender training and for guidance during the census surveying.

In the **Maldives**, UNFPA provided financial assistance and an international technical expert throughout all three phases of the 2006 census process, up through production of the final census publications.

Nepal made changes to produce gender disaggregated findings in its 2001 census with assistance from the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and UNFPA. An inter-agency (UNDP, UNIFEM, UNFPA and UNICEF) donor group was established to pool resources and coordinate interventions that covered various aspects of the census process and to bring in gender expertise for amending the questionnaires, manuals and the overall census process.

Selection and hiring of gender experts

Certainly in South and West Asia and likely in other countries, most high-level census officials are men with statistical backgrounds. They may need repeated interactive gender training initially. They will likely need to be shown the impact of gender insensitivity on the information they collect. Thus, hiring gender experts is an essential step. Such gender experts should be hired at the beginning of the census process and should be consulted in every step of census taking. Preferably, such expertise should be provided from within the country, if available, because in-country experts are likely to have better knowledge of the situation of women there and may be able to establish better rapport with the statistical officials. In case of external experts, they should work with the statistical officials throughout the process rather than provide only periodic inputs.

The gender experts should be included in the technical committees and their advice sought in questionnaire formation, selection of supervisors and enumerators, sensitizing of training manuals, data analysis, etc. The gender expert ideally should be familiar with census statistics and should be able to interpret statistical data from a gender perspective. An interactive process and longer-term involvement of gender experts lead to better gender responsiveness of the census staff and better design of the questionnaires and manuals because only then can the expertise from the two fields, gender and census, be brought together. Usually, gender experts do not have the census experience and understanding while the statistical offices lack a gender perspective.

The expert should be involved in the supervision of the enumeration. The gender expert can advise on the publicity and campaign materials. All the leaflets and posters should be thoroughly scrutinized by the gender expert before publication.

In the **Islamic Republic of Iran**, UNFPA provided financial assistance and an international technical expert to gender sensitize central-level officials of the Statistical Center of Iran, adjusting census questionnaires and training master trainers on gender issues, particularly those related to census taking.

In Nepal, a gender expert from Sahavagi, a local NGO, assisted the Central Bureau of Statistics on an intermittent interactive process lasting up to the writing of the gender chapter in the Population Monograph of Nepal for the 2001 census.

Gender experts also should be involved in the piloting of the census questionnaires and manuals to ensure that those who are responsible for administering them in the field truly do so in a gender-sensitive way to solicit accurate information from respondents. This will minimize the chances of omitting questions on the pretext that the gender-sensitive questions are more difficult to ask or get responses from.

2.3 Gender sensitizing of higher- and mid-level officials in the statistical offices

Gender training should cover both top management and technical staff to gain their support and enhance their capacity in the production and analysis of gender statistics.

“Ownership” by and involvement of the census officials in the gender-sensitizing process ensures the quality of the census data, including the gender statistics. Those officials decide on the training needed. This means involvement from the beginning of the sensitizing process and overseeing most of the work. When done properly, it is a long continuous process of interaction between gender experts, data users, data collectors and processors and the officials of the statistical offices. Thus, the census officials should be the first to be gender trained.

Regular training workshops involving specialists and gender resource persons will help continuously update and refurbish officials’ understanding of the needs and requirements of gender statistics. The coverage of the training of data producers should go beyond central officials of the national statistical office to their counterparts at the subnational level, non-government offices and the private sector. Training of data producers should be detailed and technical in nature to enhance their competence to produce and analyse gender statistics. Budgetary allocation should enable training workshops on gender statistics on a yearly basis.⁴

In India, gender training was arranged for all levels of people involved in the census, from senior officers to the enumerators. This included the directors of census operations and other senior functionaries involved in census taking at the state level. Their training encompassed an in-depth discussion on gender issues in general and within the context of the census questionnaire, such as name, sex-ratio, age, literacy, marital status and female work participation in the context of their respective state, enabling them to understand and appreciate the problems with gender disaggregating from a relevant perspective (annex 1.1 for more detail).

In the Islamic Republic of Iran, training for senior technical officials focused more on highlighting gender insensitive questions in the census, how best to make those questions gender sensitive and the importance of gender statistics in creating gender-sensitive development policies and programmes.

⁴ “Gender budgeting” is not so much the allocation of budget components for collecting gender realities but rather the assessment of budget expenditures for their impact on women. Thus, the activities described throughout this document are in fact geared towards gender responsive use of the census budget. For a discussion on gender-responsive budgeting, see: <http://blog-pfm.imf.org/pfmblog/2009/05/post-for-tomorrow.html>.

In the [Maldives](#), a workshop was organized to review the census process to identify possible elements for change in the light of lessons from Nepal. The discussion covered all aspects – questionnaires, definitions, classification schedules, manuals, publicity, management, field staff, tabulation, analysis, dissemination plans and advocacy for policies. The next step involved a gender-sensitizing orientation workshop for senior officials of the Ministry of Planning and National Development and other government officers. Then a three-day gender training workshop for the trainers of the 2006 census covered gender-related issues in the questionnaire and manual. At the end of the training, a suggested gender manual and handouts were prepared for the training of the supervisors and enumerators, which were extensively discussed and supported by role playing (see annex 1.2 for more detail).

In [Nepal](#), the Central Bureau of Statistics organized with a local NGO two workshops for the top and mid-level officials on the concepts of gender, with the technical staff training being more intensive. The technical staff visited other countries to learn about integration of gender perspectives into the census process. Then another NGO organized for them two more workshops on gender issues relevant to Nepal's census (see annex 1.1 for more details), which involved writing papers in collaboration with national gender experts on what needed to be done for the census process, questionnaires, manuals, trainings, etc. to generate gender disaggregated information.

A prudent strategy would be to organize orientation training for the top management and detailed technical training and interactive workshops for the staff responsible for the census. Such trainings could be organized both in-country and abroad (see annex 1.1 for a description of the training that took place in four South and West Asian countries).

Training modules for top management and technical staff

Depending on the country situation, the orientation training workshop modules may include such topics as the concept of gender (the difference between gender and sex), gender relations, gender equality, women's empowerment, gender analysis, the importance of gender statistics and of census as a source of such statistics. There also should be focus on accurate data for gender monitoring of compliance with commitments, both national (the Constitutions, periodic development plans, etc.) and international commitments (CEDAW, the Beijing Platform, the MDGs and other instruments).

In the [Islamic Republic of Iran](#), the Statistical Center of Iran organized workshops at three levels: i) top management, with a four-day training that covered the need for gender statistics; ii) technical staff, including senior officials from central to provincial level staff (100 provincial officials), and iii) master trainers. The training session for technical staff and master trainers spanned five days.

In the [Maldives and Nepal](#), senior technical officials engaged in training (see annex 1.1), yielding substantial improvements in the census statistics on women's economic participation and other social variables (see later examples).

The orientation workshop should:

- enlighten participants on the importance of gender-sensitive data and the collection of accurate information for the better drafting of government policies and programmes
- further clarify the concept of gender and its impact on data collection and analysis
- clarify the concepts involved as per international definitions and standards and practice and relating them to the local context
- discuss specific issues relevant to gender-related questions in the census questionnaires and the training manual and develop the capability for preparing census questionnaires and manuals and the process of integrating gender perspectives into census taking.

In addition to such a contextual introduction, the technical staff need to be trained intensively on the gender issues that may arise at each stage of the census process and on those issues that may relate to each census question. This may be achieved by reviewing the draft questionnaires and manuals jointly with the technical staff in the context of the international manuals and definitions, such as the System of National Accounts, the UN Statistical Division's *Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Census* and relevant International Labour Organization documents.⁵

2.4 Adding gender elements to the questionnaires and manuals

The population census, of course, collects household and individual data by using both household and individual questionnaires. Data at the household level is generally collected by interviewing the head of the household or an informed household member, while individual data is collected from an individual member or a knowledgeable member of the household in case of a minor or absentee head of household. The questionnaires are the primary basis to assess the socio-economic and demographic condition of members of the household, composition of the population in terms of age, sex and ethnicity and geographic distribution of the population.

These questionnaires are designed to elicit general as well as sex-specific information. Data on individuals is by definition sex-specific, whereas data at the household level or at the level of the dwelling unit pertains to the household as a group. The challenge of "genderizing" the questionnaires is twofold: i) improve the quality of sex-specific data at the individual level and ii) capture the situation of male and female household members in terms of access to household assets. This must be done in response to specific country situations while adhering to UN guidelines on census data collection and maintaining historical as well as international comparability. Satisfying all these requirements is the overarching challenge.

It is also very important to prepare all training materials in a vernacular language rather than in English. This will produce a better understanding by removing any vagueness remaining in the interpretation of a foreign language.

As previously noted, the population and housing censuses, particularly in South and West Asia, have been biased against women not only because of the country-specific context and an intensely gendered view of women's appropriate roles, work patterns and social status but also because of the largely market economy-oriented nature of the international manuals produced by the United Nations and the ILO. The deficiency in the international definitions has now been corrected to a large extent, but these corrections are yet to be integrated fully into many countries' census questionnaires.

All census questionnaires and manuals should be gender responsive. Substantive issues, such as what to look for and how they may be made more useful for gender analysis, are discussed in the next chapter. On the basis of experiences in South and West Asian countries, this section focuses on how to do it and how to internalize the process within the statistical system to ensure ownership.

⁵ The primary goal of the ILO is to promote opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity. Thus, the ILO considers gender equality as a critical element in its vision of decent work for social and institutional change to bring about equity and growth. Two conventions have been adopted in the field of labour statistics, and they form part of the International Labour Code. The International Labour Conference also adopted Recommendation No. 170 in 1985, which is a non-binding instrument that provides guidance regarding the frequency of data collection, the recommended disaggregation of statistics as well as national statistical infrastructure. See www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/lang-en/index.htm

First, senior officials of the census team must be involved intensively in the process. Gender experts should work with them collaboratively and not “for them”. Gender experts can point out problem areas and advise on how to integrate fixes in the questionnaires and manuals, but it is up to the census team to follow through. As previously noted, the census team has the practical census-taking experience, which few gender experts have while only a few statisticians may be aware of gender issues.

Second, the process to systematize gender relevance is not a one-off experience but a continuous process. Continued interactions are needed to revise and update census questions and manuals to meet the changing needs of gender statistics.

Third, gender experts, particularly international experts, must be open to discussions on what is relevant and what is not relevant, and what is practical and what is not practical in a specific country context. A valid concern in this regard is the danger of overloading the census questionnaires.

The collection of gender-sensitive data hinges largely on how good the data collection instruments are for eliciting accurate and gender-oriented information from respondents. Where a gender perspective has been added to questionnaires and manuals, census authorities of South and West Asia countries have deployed some or all of the following initiatives:

- hire a gender expert to work with the census team
- set up a technical task force, consisting of senior officials from the statistical office and national and international gender experts, to review, identify gender-insensitive items or questions in the draft census questionnaires and manual and make strategic recommendations on how they can be more gender responsive by re-wording, using illustrative sketches and/or asking additional questions
- organize workshops or seminars for data users to review and adopt technical committee recommendations, based on mutual consent
- revise the census questionnaires in light of those recommendations
- pilot test the census questionnaires
- finalize the revised census questionnaires, based on results of the testing
- revise and finalize the manuals for enumerators and supervisors in light of the final recommendations
- develop pre-census communication strategies to enhance public understanding of the importance of collecting data, including gender-sensitive data.

Common revisions recommended and accepted have centred around:

- i) refining and improving the definition of the head of household and economic and non-economic activities
- ii) adding new options for answers to questions on marital status, education, migration and occupation to make them more gender sensitive
- iii) incorporating new questions on female ownership of landed property and livestock and the living arrangement of children younger than 16 (see the next chapter for details)
- iv) adding pictures and sketches of women’s work and clearer examples on all relevant questions in the manual, including a listing of women’s likely economic activity that often tends to be left out (see the annex).

In the process of revising the census questionnaires and manual, testing the changes and additions is crucial. When pre-testing, include gender experts to ensure that questions are asked in the most gender-sensitive manner. This is important for breaking any resistance to new questions also.

When confronted with resistance to collecting new data on the grounds that it is difficult culturally, it is important for gender advocates to listen to them and to provide rational arguments to counter their points.

In the [Maldives](#), there was strong resistance to asking girls younger than 18 their marital status because the minimum legal age for marriage is 18. The gender expert counter-argued that even to prove that the law is fully followed, it was important to ask boys and girls aged 15-18 the question. This convinced the director of the Department of Statistics to agree. The question about marriage was asked of anyone 15 years and older. It turned out that about 5 per cent of the girls and 1 per cent of boys were already married by the time they turned 19 years.

In [Nepal](#), the Central Bureau of Statistics staff strongly argued that it would be very difficult to ask women about their second and third marriages in Hindu communities. The gender expert proposed that this contention be tested, and if the team indeed found it difficult to ask the question (get a response) then it could be dropped. The pre-test in a village near Kathmandu, found that high caste Hindu women easily responded to the question on multiple marriages. This settled the issue.

Efforts to achieve more gender-responsive data should combine both i) changes in the original questionnaires and their categories and ii) development of appropriate instructions for supervisors and enumerators to correctly capture data that reflects the realities of men and women in a society. One without the other may not yield the desired results.

In [India](#), the population census was consistently undercounting the work done by women at the farm level in its decennial censuses. To correct that situation, the 2001 census authority instructed and trained the enumerators to properly capture women's farm work. But the request was not followed by necessary changes to the original questions on work and their categorization, resulting in no impressive increase in the recording of women's participation in agricultural work in 2001 compared with the 1991 census findings (Bhagat, 2005).

2.5 Recruitment of female supervisors and enumerators

There are certain questions in the census that are private in nature, such as those inquiring about fertility and polygamy, and if they are asked by a male interviewer to a male proxy respondent, they will by all likelihood produce incorrect information. The male interviewer may not be able to talk directly to the woman, or even if he does, he may find difficulty in probing deeper. The proxy respondent may not have the exact information. Thus, hiring female enumerators should be encouraged, even if it implies additional costs (to guarantee their security, for instance). There is no alternative to employing female interviewers and supervisors to canvass information that will generate more gender-sensitive and correct information. However, every caution should be made to avoid hiring women who are not qualified because doing so would impact the overall quality of data. The technical quality and cost-efficiency of the census operation should take precedence over any particular sex balance among enumerators.

In [India](#), special efforts were made to engage as many women enumerators and supervisors as possible. Whenever possible, Anganwadi workers (local women officials engaged in child and nutrition programmes) were trained to work as census enumerators. Ultimately, about 35-40 per cent of all enumerators were women. This effort helped in establishing better rapport with respondents, particularly women respondents, to come forward in giving information.

The [Islamic Republic of Iran](#) encountered no difficulty in hiring female enumerators. The proportion of female enumerators and supervisors for the census increased, from 40 per cent in 1996 to 64 per cent in 2006. An overwhelming majority (95 per cent) of the census staff in charge of reviewing census questionnaires in 2006 were women; and in general, the majority of employees at the Statistical Centre of Iran and its provincial offices who are involved in the analysis, reporting and other census-related activities are women.

In Nepal, women were given priority in recruiting for the census staff, with the goal of hiring as many women supervisors and enumerators as possible. However, the Central Bureau of Statistics was only able to increase the proportion of female supervisors to 10 per cent and enumerators to 20 per cent.

To manage the challenge of recruiting more female field supervisors and enumerators, educational qualifications could be relaxed if a woman has lengthy experience and proven skill in data collection. Another strategy would be to use local female government or NGO workers, teachers and health workers as enumerators and supervisors.

Difficulties encountered in employing female enumerators and strategies adopted to address them

According to experiences in South and West Asia, the following three major obstacles towards achieving gender parity among census field staff were encountered:

Cultural constraints: There are cultural restrictions on female mobility outside the home, particularly in Afghanistan and in some rural areas of Pakistan. Women are not allowed to move from house to house outside their own precincts, especially to canvass data from either men or women. They will be frowned upon if they are found engaged in activities outside the home, particularly those that will bring them in contact with men not related to them. They are typically not allowed to go out of the home unless accompanied by a male relation (father, brother, son or husband). One strategy to overcome this situation would be to involve religious and community leaders in the census planning and convince them through regular orientation training of the importance of female supervisors and enumerators.

Insufficient availability of female high school graduates in rural areas: For example, only 5.5 per cent of women aged 15 years or older had completed secondary or higher secondary education in rural Bangladesh in 2001. This figure further dropped in remote and hard-to-reach places, such as the Chittagong Hill Tracts and islands cut off from the mainland. This situation is not very different in other South and West Asia countries, with a few exceptions like Sri Lanka and the Islamic Republic of Iran. In fact, in the mountains and high hills of Afghanistan, Bhutan, Nepal and Pakistan it is even worse. In those places, enumerators and supervisors with a high school degree have to be brought in from other areas, although they are reportedly unwilling to travel long distances, particularly walking in the rugged mountains and hills. It is also difficult to find safe lodging for women in remote places. Educated young women from urban areas would be reluctant to work in rural areas due to the cultural restrictions on their movement.

Higher costs: The cost of hiring is reported to be higher for female than male enumerators largely for security reasons: a female may need to be accompanied by a male enumerator or supervisor who also has to be compensated, which then doubles the cost because they also have to be lodged in safe places, which may be more expensive. In some situations, female enumerators might require porters because it would be culturally unacceptable for them to be seen carrying their own supplies.

One strategy to overcome these constraints is to employ female NGO workers and government employees, such as female school teachers or health workers, who are already employed in rural areas, as was done in Nepal and India. The problem of having another male member to accompany a female enumerator may be addressed by establishing a male and female enumerator team and giving them double the work that one enumerator is tasked to do.

Efforts to increase female participation in census taking has not been successful everywhere. In Pakistan, for example, the Federal Bureau of Statistics (FBS) contacted around 190 NGOs to recruit female enumerators. The response rate was quite poor. Only 19 NGOs responded, but they made demands (in terms of male relatives as guardians and lodging and transport arrangements) that the FBS found impossible to accept. The FBS ultimately employed only 20 women to help fill the 125,000 enumerators needed for the 1998 population census. In Bangladesh, only about 20 per cent of the enumeration staff for the 2001 population census were women.

2.6 Gender sensitizing trainers, supervisors, enumerators, data coders and data editors

Once training materials are ready, the next issue is how to impart this knowledge to the master trainers and the large number of supervisors and enumerators who may only have a minimum education. They may have a rigid concept of gender roles for what women may or may not do, who should be the household head, etc. The training must redress these biases and relate them to the census process.⁶

It should be explained that women are not marginalized because of their sex but because of gender-based ideologies, values, mindsets, socialization, traditions and practices. Training should begin with explanations of government commitments to gender equality (CEDAW, the MDGs, the national constitution, development plans and policies), objectives and the importance of gender training for the census process.

Various strategies have been adopted to train enumerators to ask census questions in a gender-sensitive way in South and West Asia:

Integrating gender training into the training modules, schedules and processes

Gender training should be integrated in the general census training schedules and exercises at all levels. This is necessary for making the master trainers, supervisors and enumerators aware of their own gender biases, which could impact on the responses to the census questionnaires.

In the [Maldives and Nepal](#), the first session of the training at all levels underlined the importance of census in policymaking, planning and programming. The second session introduced the concepts of gender and sex, prompting participants to discuss gender issues with a statistical quiz and games that revealed their gender biases. The ensuing discussion turned to how these gender biases might impact on census data collection; case studies were found to be extremely useful in illustrating the issues. Participants then elaborated on their understanding of the concepts, such as household head and work, which was instrumental in clarifying the issues. These concepts were then discussed in the context of the census (see annex 1.2 for the modified schedules of the master trainers and enumerators training and training materials used in the Maldives).

Also in [Nepal](#), in-country gender experts were present during the training of supervisors on the manuals and questionnaires and preparing them to train the enumerators. These exercises were directed at orienting the enumerators to gender-sensitive questions in the questionnaire.

⁶ Census training is usually done in cascading fashion: master trainers (national statistical office staff) train supervisors who, in turn, train enumerators. Data coders and data editors may be trained separately, depending on the fieldwork arrangements.

Group work on the questionnaires is a must for training at all levels. Statistical officers in South and West Asia typically use the lecture method to explain the questionnaires and manuals. But it must be followed by a thorough reading of the questionnaires and manual by the trainees and group work on them.

In the *Maldives*, participants in the trainers training were asked to administer the questionnaire to their own neighbour or to each other overnight and present their experience. This exercise was dynamic in bringing out issues that required attention. The trainees then divided into groups to discuss different topics in the manual. Presentations of the group work were the most valuable input in finalizing the questionnaire. They produced a poster of definitions of economic and non-economic activities (see annex 1.4b). Detailed written instructions with illustrative examples (pictures, sketches, case studies and proverbs) to demystify the myth and facts and explain the gender-sensitive concepts and questions were integrated into the training manuals.

In *Nepal*, a separate booklet was prepared to accompany the main census training manual. In hindsight, the officials thought it would have been better to integrate the content into the main manual because the field officials gave less importance to a separate booklet.

It is hard to counter the “we know what to do” psyche of field officials in statistical offices who have been conducting censuses and surveys for years. Methods must be found to break such resistance. Role plays, case discussions and group work on the questionnaires are most helpful to counter such resistance. It is good to have role-playing that focuses on lecture delivery and questionnaires and manual explanation and conduct training for the trainers. Role-playing with supervisors must focus on understanding the concepts and methods, troubleshooting and supervising the enumerators. Role-playing with enumerators must focus on their first introduction to household respondents, observation of the household situation and its likely impact on the interviewer and the interview itself, in addition to understanding the questionnaires and their ability to explain the questionnaires as per the manual. It is important to show how their own behaviour and the way of asking questions might influence the responses. The census-taking behaviour of the supervisors and the enumerators illustrate how unconsciously their own and respondents’ gender biases may impact on the information collected.

Enumerators’ checklist

Trainers should have a list of gender-sensitive questions that they pay more attention to in training and alert the enumerators to pay specific attention to during the interviews. This checklist can contain tips on how to conduct interviews, how to build rapport with the respondents by being polite and approachable, how to counter resistance from a household and a reminder that terminology used, body language and attire influence how a household responds.

The checklist must emphasize that enumerators have to thoroughly read the questionnaires and manual. The checklist could highlight gender-related or sensitive issues in the questionnaires or manual. Enumerators should be instructed to consult the comprehensive list with examples of economic and non-economic activities, which should form a part of the manual. Clear and simple definitions (on posters, if need be) of economic and non-economic activities will be useful (see annex 1.4b and c for details). Similarly, the importance of probing questions on sensitive issues, such as divorce, polygamy and remarriage, should be highlighted.

Use of posters, pictures, audio-visual materials and games

Trainers should bring pictures and posters (and hand-outs) depicting women in various economic activities and provide examples of proverbs, practices, myths and facts in the country that illustrate the gender gap; these can be put on the wall and used during the

training. They should use audio-visual materials from the country and the region on the types of work women do that are typically not recognized as work (such as a widely used poster of a woman carrying a baby, a load of firewood and herding cattle that asks: Is she working?). A quiz game can reveal gender gaps in various fields. The quiz must be related to the census information to discuss gender and sex concepts, with emphasis on how it is reflected in their own understanding about gender roles (see annex 1.2c).

2.7 Publicity and media campaigns

In South and West Asian countries, various pre-census communication strategies were used to enhance public appreciation of census data, including gender-sensitive statistics. These included: i) establishing a technical subcommittee to develop a communication strategy and campaign guidelines, selection of critical communication messages, publicity materials and a publicity campaign; ii) creation of a core media group, consisting of representatives of the major newspapers, news agencies, radio and television stations and the information ministries (or equivalent) and other relevant agencies to advise on publicity materials and on the choice of the appropriate media; iii) launching of a multimedia campaign (radio, television, posters, sketches/pictures to clarify concepts, newspaper articles in vernacular languages and audio and video spots); and iv) launching of a census logo (see annex 1.4 for country-specific examples of pre-census communication strategies).

In Nepal, the publicity materials focused on sensitizing the respondents to gender-related issues, such as women as household heads and women performing various non-marketed economic activities, such as food processing, farming, weaving clothes, fetching water, fuel collection and tutoring children. In India, Maldives and Pakistan, materials showed how women perform economic work in the informal sector and household enterprises. These print and audio-visual materials were widely distributed (in India they were translated into 16 languages) across the country and displayed throughout the enumeration period.

Gender training of data coders and data editors

Persons responsible for coding and resolving data consistency checks should be included in all trainings to make them more gender sensitive. In the process of verification and coding, men are typically left in the labour force but women are classified as housewives and out of the labour force. In the process of imputing value for non-response categories, females are more likely to be moved to a category of "don't have" or "no" or "not stated", whereas more efforts will be made to give males a valid code. These practices mostly arise from gender stereotyping.

III. ENUMERATION

Census enumeration activities include two important elements: i) household listing and ii) the actual enumeration. A household listing covers 100 per cent of a country's households. It collects information on the name of the household head, address and number of male and female members in the household. Some countries may collect more information in this listing. A few gender-related issues that need specific attention at this stage are definition of the household and household head. The number of households and household heads, once recorded at the listing stage, may not be easy to amend afterwards. Therefore, clear and, most importantly, consistent definitions of household and the household head should be incorporated into the listing instructions. Also, there must be scope for making corrections if needed while filling in the questionnaire. Monitoring is an essential part of the census taking process. Support, coaching and confidence building of enumerators are necessary for the right kind of probing. Similarly, review and reflection is necessary after the enumeration activity.

The first objective of this chapter is to point out areas of census statistics that are likely to be gender insensitive – they do not truly reflect men's and women's position in society. The second purpose is to offer methods and examples on how to make those areas more gender sensitive and useful. The discussion dwells on what to look for, questions that may need to be added or changed and typical response categories and how they capture the gender realities.

Careful review of census data in South and West Asian countries revealed a significant number of topics that required specific attention from a gender perspective. Common among them:

1. Head count and the sex ratio
2. Definition of the head of household
3. Structure and composition of the households – relationship of the household members to the head
4. Age at first marriage and at first child's birth
5. Marriage and marital status
6. Economic activity and labour force participation rates
7. Occupational and industrial distribution of the labour force
8. Employment status
9. Migration
10. Citizenship, caste and ethnicity
11. (Ownership of) household assets
12. Literacy and educational achievement.

The chapter structure follows those 12 items.

3.1 Head count and the sex distribution of the population

The primary task of the census is the counting of people (UN, 2008). The census should provide a reliable basis for an accurate count of the population of a country at a specified point in time. Each and every individual, from a new born to the elderly, has to be counted by sex and age. Typically, they are counted at places where they slept during the night of the census interview. Some countries, however, count the population at their usual residence. Nepal, for example, has adopted the latter modality.

Accurate counting of the total population, particularly the female population, is suspect in some South Asian countries (such as Afghanistan, Bangladesh and Pakistan). This is reflected in the sex distribution of the population. The male/female distribution of the total population of a country is expected to be 100 (equal numbers of males and females). The male/female distribution in many South Asian countries, however, shows a larger number of males than

females, resulting in sex ratios that are much higher than 100. This may result from such factors as higher female child mortality, sex-selective abortion, direct/indirect infanticide of girls, differential male/female immigration and emigration, and undercounting of female children. The relative impact of the various factors on a higher-than-expected sex ratio is often not investigated in detail in the census analysis (see section 4:2 for more discussion). What is important here is that data is necessary as evidence for looking in depth at the cause for the imbalance.

3.2 Head of household

The UN census manual states that the head of household is based on the assumption that most households are family households and consist of persons related by blood, marriage or adoption and that one person in such family household has primary authority and responsibility for household affairs and is, in the majority of cases, its chief economic support. This person is then designated as the head of household. Two criteria seem to be inherent in this practice: that the person has the primary authority in household matters and he/she is the chief economic support (although the primary authority and the chief economic support could be different people).

Statistical offices may choose to use head of household or a household reference person in relation to whom household members will be identified. However, the UN census manual cautions against the applicability of a household reference person in relation to whom household members will be distinguished, particularly in situations of polygamous, multi-family and other households, such as those composed only of siblings without a parent or those composed entirely of unrelated persons. In these situations, the selection criteria of household reference person should be clearly spelled out. And this information should be included in the training manuals of instructors to enumerators (UN Statistical Division, 2008).

The manual also emphasizes paying specific attention to joint-authority households in which both spouses are income earners and manage the household together. No uniform definition is proposed, however. It does specify that whatever definition is used must be stated in the tabulations. Nevertheless, the concept of household head is used for many social policy decisions, often assuming that female-headed households are by definition poor households. This introduces a gender bias in social policies.

The value of the concept of head of household lies in its function as reference point against which other household members are identified. Without it, many essential data quality control checks would not be possible. It must be considered a gender-neutral element in the census questionnaires.

A review of the definition of household head adopted in South and West Asian countries in recent censuses reveals a common thread – that the household head makes the final decision in all matters, including household expenditure. However, Bangladesh, India and Sri Lanka seem to put emphasis on recognition by the household members, while the Maldives and Nepal do not; instead, the emphasis is on finding the actual manager of the household. None of the definitions, except the one used in the Islamic Republic of Iran, emphasize the role of the income earner. The Iranian census includes responsibility for all or a major part of household expenditures as one of the criteria of the head of household and thus is closer to the UN definition. Except in the Maldives and Sri Lanka, other definitions state that the head of household can be a male or female. In Bangladesh, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Nepal children younger than 10 years are not accepted as the household head. The Nepal manual especially cautions that an older, incapacitated or long-term sick person could be accepted as

the head. This was thought important because respect for the older persons, especially men, even though incapacitated, does not allow household members to overlook that person.

Whether the household heads are reported correctly depends also on the clarity of the definition of the household. This definition should be clearly laid out in the manual as per the international standards, clarifying that living quarters and households are separate entities. In South and West Asia, brothers or a father and son often live in the same quarters but constitute separate households. In such cases, the household members may report to the eldest male of the lineage residing in the same quarter as the household head. Sometimes, underage sons or brothers may be reported as household heads, even if women manage the household. The manuals should clearly explain these things.

In addition to the confusion in the definition of the concept itself, the information on the female head of the household in the region has been impacted upon by cultural factors. In South and West Asia, there is a tendency (among both males and females) to automatically consider a senior male member of the household as the head; many enumerators neglect to check whether he is truly performing the role and responsibilities typically attributed to the head, resulting in an undercounting of households headed by women. This common sex-based stereotype reflects circumstances that may have been true in the past but are true no longer because the household and economic roles of women are changing. Both conceptual confusion and biased application of the concepts by enumerators may lead to underestimation of households headed by women. For example, with large-scale migration of male members for work to Gulf countries from Pakistan, it is hard to believe that only 8 per cent of the households were headed by women, as reported in the 1998 census.

According to the UN Statistical Division (2008), "It is therefore important that clear instructions be provided as to who is to be treated as the head of household so as to avoid the complications on the subject. The procedure to follow in identifying a head when the members of the household are unable to do so should be clear and unambiguous and should avoid sex-based bias."

New dimensions of the problem

Male and female migration for work within and outside the country is taking place on a large scale in South Asia. These migrants send money for the household and have a substantial say in the management and maintenance of the household. In many cases, the information on the female-headed households may not be sufficient to analyse the real difference in the socio-economic status of the male- and female-headed households. Female-headed households may even be economically better off than male-headed households with no migrant income. Some reporting of this situation would be helpful to locate female-headed households that need special attention in poverty programmes.

As noted previously, the number of households jointly managed by husbands and wives is increasing, and information on this is needed to measure progress on women's empowerment.

Additionally, adding a question on the main income earner should be considered. This will facilitate more meaningful comparisons of the economic characteristics of male-headed and female-headed households. It also would be useful in poverty analysis, considering that data from countries within and outside South Asia show a greater concentration of poor people among female-headed households than male-headed households.

3.3 Household structure - relation to the household head

People in different parts of the world have different living arrangements. Some of them may live singly, while most of them live together with one or more related or unrelated persons, creating a multi-person household. In multi-person households, a group of two or more persons live together, making common provision of food or other essentials. The persons in the group also may pool their resources and have a common budget.

Such living arrangements change over time and are considered important in the evolution of societies because households and families have important social functions. Depending on the nature of the household, its members may have different obligations and rights. Historically, households and families have overlapped; but with the decline of agriculture and land as sources of livelihood, the nature of the household has changed. For example, in industrialized countries, single nuclear-family households (father, mother and children) have been the rule, while in developing countries multi-family households are still the rule. Households may be intergenerational, containing grandparents and several couples with their children. Such households have been fulfilling several social welfare functions, which shift to the State once families and households become more nuclear.

The concept of family used by the UN census manual does not conform to the traditional concept of the family, which encompasses both intergenerational and lateral relations in non-Western parts of the world. For a census, it should be made clear that "household" and "family" are different categories. A household may consist of only one person but a family must contain at least two members. A household can contain more than one family or one or more families together with one or more non-related persons, or it can consist entirely of non-related persons. However, the existence of polygamous families in some countries as well as shared child custody and support arrangements in others means that the statistical authorities should decide how best to derive and report on families. The kind of household also has different implications for the women who live in it. On one hand, women have more decision-making roles in a nuclear household, while on the other they also lose support in household care work and in personal matters. Thus, it is important to record the relationship to the household head correctly. However, the listing of likely responses specifying the relation itself may be biased because of the social perceptions about household composition, and this needs to be checked.

The UN census manual lists the following relationships to the reference person:

- spouse or partner in consensual union (cohabiting partner)
- child
- spouse of child
- grandchild or great grandchild
- parent (or parent of spouse)
- other relative
- domestic employee
- other person not related to the head or other reference member.

The listed relationships to the household head in South and West Asian countries are similar to those the UN census manual cites. But they miss important categories, such as brother or sister and their children, which are quite common in the households of South and West Asia. In those countries, an older brother or sister takes care of younger siblings if the parents are not surviving. The oldest brother will tend to be reported as household head. In this case, all his brothers and sisters and their spouses will be in the category of "other relatives", which will also include distant relatives. This is not very useful for analysis of the family structure. In

some countries the practice of adoption is common; to capture this, the category of “adopted child” would be important. It has implications for vulnerability analysis and is also important for the accurate estimation of fertility, using the so-called “own children method”.

Although the English word “child” denotes both son and daughter, there is no corresponding word for “child” in most languages of South and West Asian countries (what is common are separate terms for son and daughter, each with strong social and cultural connotations). Also, embedded in the typical list of categories of household members is an assumption that sons take care of their parents; so a wife’s parents or a married daughter’s spouse are missing from the list. With reduced fertility rates and social changes in the region, many married daughters are emerging as caretakers of their parents, living with their husbands as well as their own parents. This information needs to be recorded and analysed properly to dispel the myth that only sons take care of their parents in old age.

Consideration should also be given to include a separate category for “single-person households” because this is an increasing phenomenon.

In [India](#), the instructions for the 2011 census required enumerators to describe actual relationships rather than ticking from a list of relationships and instructed them on how the relationships should be written; for example, not as aunt, niece or nephew but as mother’s sister, father’s sister, sister’s sons, brother’s son, etc., which allowed for a detailed analysis of the household structure.

In [Nepal](#), many categories are listed, but many important ones, such as father-in-law or mother-in-law, son-in-law, etc. are missing.

3.4 Age at first marriage and at first child’s birth

A person’s age at his/her first marriage and first child’s birth is important information, both from gender and demographic perspectives. But the UN census manual elaborates only on the demographic importance. From a gender perspective, child marriages and the practice of marrying off young girls to much older men by their parents are symbols of women’s subordination. Child marriage impinges on a young person’s freedom to choose a life partner and forces her (or him) into sexual activity too soon and possibly into parenthood too soon. Women in these situations eventually risk having to live with co-wives because ageing men want self-chosen partners while women have very little choice, particularly in Hindu high-caste communities. Early motherhood also puts both the mother and child at high risk of mortality. Marrying young girls to much older men is likely to force them into widowhood at a young age and its potentially adverse consequences.

It is important to record this information correctly so as to measure both the empowerment and the vulnerability of women. But countries may have a fixed minimum age of marriage and so refuse to record marriages of anyone younger than the legal age.

In the [Maldives](#), the age at marriage was a hotly debated issue. The argument was that because the legal age of marriage is 18, the census should record information on marital status only for women 18 or older. It had to be argued strongly with the authorities that even to follow up on enforcement of the legal age and evaluate the impact of the law, a lower age limit should be fixed for reporting marital status. Finally, the authorities agreed to lower the limit to 15.

The UN census manual recommends⁷ that information on marital status be collected and processed for persons of all ages because the population of a country at the time of census may include persons who were married in another country with a different minimum marriage age and because there may be some population groups who are granted exemption from the law. However, even if there is a law, it is not followed by all the population, particularly in remote areas of the country where the State has little presence. To permit international comparisons, any tabulations of marital status not cross-classified by detailed age should at least distinguish between persons younger than 15 years and those who are 15 and older. Unfortunately, countries in South and West Asia, except the Maldives and Nepal, do not ask information on age at first marriage. Given the importance of this information, consideration should be given to collect the information at least in the long census questionnaire, which is administered to a nationally representative sample population.

3.5 Marital status

Censuses in South and West Asia routinely collect data on marital status by sex by asking each household member aged 10 years and older whether he or she is currently married, widowed, divorced, separated or single. This information is typically collected for demographic analysis because the age at marriage is an important proximate determinant of fertility as well as other social and economic characteristics, especially of women.

In the UN definition, marital status is the personal status of each individual in relation to the marriage laws or customs of the country. Its standard classifications are:

- single (never married)
- married
- widowed and not remarried
- divorced and not remarried
- married but separated.

The list should contain "remarried" but as yet it is not included.

These categories relate to the personal and demographic status of the individual. But in South and West Asia, marriage is both a matter of personal status and a social obligation, determining a woman's options throughout her life. Child marriage, polygamy, customary marriages and informal separation are quite common. Thus, it is important to generate more detailed information on these aspects of marriage.

The UN census manual recognizes that these categories may require subdivisions to capture the specific country situation. In South and West Asia, customary marriage is the predominant form of marriage in rural areas. Urban youth may have a customary marriage that is legally registered. The classification of married category in two subgroups, registered and not registered, should be considered because it is an important instrument for ensuring women's security and access to resources if they are ever abandoned or divorced.

In some South and West Asian countries, young girls may be contractually married but not yet living as husband and wife; no data is collected regarding such a situation. This, too, may require a separate category. With time and increasing age of marriage, the number of such people may decline. Still, some proportion of girls is married before age 15, and some of them may be only contractually married. Even though 1.3 per cent of boys and 3.4 per cent of girls aged 10–14 years were reported as married in Bangladesh in its 2001 census (Bangladesh

⁷ See UN Statistical Division: *Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing censuses Revision 2*, paragraph 2.149.

Bureau of Statistics, 2007) and 1.8 per cent of girls aged 10-14 years were married in 2001 (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2003), no follow-up questions were asked to determine whether the partners lived apart for an extended period after marrying. A separate marital category, "currently married but living apart for an extended period after marrying", should be added to the census questionnaire. This information would help in determining the extent of marriages that are not immediately consummated and also the socio-demographic characteristics of those girls (by cross-checking with their individual and household information obtained in the census) during the interview. The information then would be helpful in drawing a representative sample of women who are contractually married but do not live as husband and wife for an extended period for an in-depth study of this less understood, but gender-relevant, phenomenon (delayed consummation of child marriage).

It is widely believed in the region that widowed Hindu women do not remarry. Studies of Hindu communities in Nepal found that poor working class women may remarry but high-caste Hindu women may not. Generally in the region, older women with children have difficulty in remarrying. Censuses typically do not ask about remarriage, but the phenomenon is of considerable relevance – not only in Hindu societies but in Muslim societies as well. Widowed women tend to be vulnerable to descend into poverty. Some evidence suggests that young widows in Hindu communities experience multiple discrimination and atrocities, and even though this problem may not be as widespread as is assumed, data on the prevalence of remarriage can be important in this regard.

Although widowhood generates one kind of problem for women, remarriages possibly can create survival problems for children, particularly girls. Women's and men's remarriage puts children at risk of neglect in terms of food, education or violence, or leads to their running away and becoming street children, thus placing themselves at risk of exploitation. Systematic studies, based on qualitative and quantitative data, are needed to better understand the consequences of remarriages for children because there is little or no well-conceptualized studies on the subject. Adding a question on the number of times a person is married, as in the Islamic Republic of Iran and the Maldives, should be considered. This information can be used to estimate the number of children at risk and encourage research.

In Nepal until recently, a daughter had the right to property in her parental household only if she remained unmarried. After marriage, she could only inherit the property of her spouse's family; but if she divorced, she received a maintenance payment only for two years and/or until she remarried, giving her limited economic security. Although the law has been changed to provide for equal inheritance rights to property for both sons and daughters, there is still no mechanism to enforce the law. Women have no resources and social support to fight such cases. Once married, women are not socially appreciated in their parental household, especially when there are no parents alive.

Polygamy is another phenomenon in South and West Asia that is likely to have adverse impacts on women's and children's lives. The *International Journal of Social Psychiatry* published (2006) the findings of a study that "reveal differences between women in polygamous and monogamous marriages. Women in polygamous marriages showed significantly higher psychological distress, and higher levels of somatization, phobia and other psychological problems. They also had significantly more problems in family functioning, marital relationships and life satisfaction." Although legally banned in some countries, it is still practised widely; in Muslim countries and communities of the region, it remains legal.

More systematic and in-depth studies are needed in different cultural contexts to assess the impact of polygamy; focus group discussions and case studies with women in a polygamous union would be insightful. A careful assessment of such study results could point out what use

(if any) census data has for investigating this kind of relationship. Data on polygamy should be collected with utmost care because it is sensitive in some Asian countries, with male respondents reluctant to discuss it with interviewers.

A larger proportion of women in failed marriages may be living apart from their husbands without formal divorce or separation because of economic reasons, old age, children, social norms, stigma, etc. Thus, divorcees and separated groups should be recorded separately. There could be a "legally separated" category in some cases. A "separated" category should consist of both the legally and the de facto separated, which should be made clear in the manual. The UN census manual states that couples who are separated may be considered to be married (because they are not free to remarry), and neither subcategory of the separated should be included in the category of the married. This is important for women in South and West Asia because legally, socially and economically, separated women typically experience much hardship.

Consideration may also be given to include cohabitation and other forms (non-marital) of partnership relevant to other regions, including Asia and the Pacific.

3.6 Economic activity and occupational information

Defining economic activity

The definitions of economic and non-economic activities are based on definitions of economic and non-economic production by the System of National Accounts, published by the United Nations. According to the UN census manual, "The economically active population comprises persons of either sex who provide the supply of labour during a specified time reference period, as employed or as unemployed, for the production of economic goods and services, where the concept of economic production is established with respect to the System of National Accounts (SNA)."⁸

A person is thus considered economically active on the basis of whether he or she is engaged in production of economic goods and services – as defined by the SNA.

As previously noted, the SNA was revised in 1993 and then again in 2008. The pre-1993 SNA systematically underestimated the contribution of women to GDP, focusing primarily on market production and mostly ignoring subsistence production other than in the agriculture sector. For example, production for household use, except for primary farm products, was not within the SNA production boundary until 1993. The primary focus of the SNA on the wage or earning activities performed directly in the marketplace and the production of goods for sale left out many activities performed by women in the household for the enhancement of the household resources.

Consequently, population censuses classified people engaged in the non-market production of goods and services as economically not active. In developing countries, particularly in South and West Asian countries, activities that are traded in the marketplace and are directly paid for, are mostly performed by men. Even when women are engaged in a household enterprise as unpaid family members, they remain invisible because the trading is done primarily by men. Because of this and other practical problems (discussed further on), a large segment of the female population, particularly in developing countries dominated by subsistence production, appear as if not making significant economic contribution to the household resources, even if they work from dawn to dusk adding to the household resources in various ways.

⁸ United Nations: *Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses* (Revision 2) 2008.

In 1993 the United Nations with other international agencies extensively revised the *Manual on the System of National Accounts*, defining all work as productive. Activities are now grouped into two major categories: SNA and non-SNA. The SNA activities are further divided into market and non-market production and the non-SNA activities into household and personal maintenance. All activities listed in the first, second and third boxes are defined as "productive". Only activities in the first and second boxes are within the SNA and currently counted as economic due to the lack of a uniform methodology to measure those in the third box.

System of National Accounts classification framework, 1993

SNA activities		Non-SNA activities	
<p>Market production Paid work = engagement in production of goods & services for sale by the households</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Financial corporation - Non-financial corporation - Government - NPISH* 	<p>Non-market production By households</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Production and processing of primary products for own use (including collecting water and fuel) - Production of other goods for own use <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Production of fixed assets for own use <p>Other institutional Non-financial corporation's production for own use Government and NPISH goods supplied free or at non-significant prices</p>	<p>Household maintenance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Meal preparation - Housework - Shopping - Repair services - Financial services - Related travel <p>Caring</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Child care - Elder care - Others - Related travel <p>Volunteering</p>	<p>Personal maintenance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sleep - Eat - Wash, toilet - Medical care of self - Related travel <p>Personal recreation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Media - Games - Socializing - Sports - Walking - Attending events - Related travel <p>Personal development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Education - Skill development - Related travel

* NPISH=non-profit institutions serving households, based on the 1993 SNA

The market sector as defined in the 1993 SNA consists of all goods and services transacted regardless of the institutional unit producing them. Non-market activities indicated in the second column reflects the non-market activity, which should be captured in the SNA. These activities, although facing numerous measurement problems, are conceptually within the current SNA boundary. They include activities for producing goods for consumption in kind. As a result of the 1993 revision - all goods production, whether sold or not in the market (including value addition by producing goods at home with elements bought from a market, such as making a dress for household members or self-use from cloth purchased in a market) are included. This covers fetching water and collecting firewood.

The non-SNA side also consists of two distinct sets of activities. One set entails service activities that cannot be delegated to another person but must be done for oneself. The other set covers services that can be relegated to others and could be traded in the marketplace. Housekeeping and child care are defined as services for home consumption and fall beyond the current SNA boundary. Such work includes all domestic and people-related (caring) activities carried out in the household: meal preparation, cleaning, child care, care of those who are sick or elderly and various other services; repair services relating to fixing things or taking things to a repair shop to get them fixed; and financial services, such as banking, paying bills and legal services.

The provision of non-paid services to other households and to voluntary, non-profit organizations is outside the current SNA production boundary. Such persons should be classified as

unemployed or not economically active, depending upon their current availability for work and recent job search activity.

However, the SNA still states that "... production of a good for own final use within households should be recorded only if the amount of the good produced by households for their own final use is believed to be quantitatively important in relation to the total supply of that good in a country".

According to the ILO,⁹ for practical purposes, "... persons engaged in the production of goods for own final use within the same household should be considered as economically active only if such production comprises an important contribution to the total consumption of the household".

However, many censuses still use the pre-1993 SNA classification. Although the 1993 SNA revision was revolutionary and the 2008 revision more evolutionary, the SNA includes categories that are difficult to define. Some government statistics officials fear that including the new categories will affect the comparability of data. For example, including many women in the labour force who were not previously included will boost the female employment rates, which some politicians may find undesirable.

Each national statistical office thus must decide for itself where to draw the boundary between SNA and non-SNA activities. Such decisions must be based on prior extensive studies on work patterns and economic contribution. Census authorities should first decide the extent of economic activities to be covered and then devise appropriate categories to capture them. It is advisable, when making a census gender sensitive, to follow both the SNA and ILO definitions to cover all activities in the first and second columns of the chart. These activities must be elaborately and properly explained in the manual, with pictures and adequate examples to capture women's work.

Questionnaire design and cultural perceptions

Women's economic activity rates in the past tended to be underreported not only because of the definitions but also the design of questions and the cultural perceptions about women's roles. Such factors influenced the way enumerators posed questions to women and the way they interpreted a respondent's answers.

Gender issues may arise because women engaged in the production and processing of primary products (including collecting water and fuel) and other goods for their own use may still not be included as economically active, even though the products (for example, the agricultural crops and animal products) are counted in GDP. The problems have been compounded in many developing countries, particularly in South and West Asia, by such additional factors as i) people's perceptions about "economic work" as only the activity that brings direct income (cash or kind) to the household; ii) the widely held concept of male head of household as the income earner; and iii) the sense of honour that is supposedly damaged if a woman works outside the household economy as a wage earner.

⁹ ILO, 2010. *Measuring the Economically Active in Population Censuses: A Handbook*. Available at: http://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/seriesf/Seriesf_102e.pdf See also: Ralf Hussmanns, *Measurement of employment, unemployment and underemployment - Current international standards and issues in their application*. Available at: www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/-dgreports/-stat/documents/publication/wcms_088394.pdf

Often, the first question asked on economic activity is either “Do you work?”¹⁰ or “Are you employed?” This way of asking the question, coupled with the traditional conception that only activities that generate cash income directly may be defined as “work” or “employment”, leaves most women who work in the family farm (field work and animal care), inter-household exchange or other family enterprise likely to be reported as not working or not employed. Particularly in South and West Asian countries, with the purdha (veiling) system as a symbol of honour and the traditional concept of male honour, men do not like to report women as economic contributors. Even the wage work of women may not be reported fully unless probed intensively. For example, women participate widely in rice planting and harvesting in South Asia even as wage labourers. But the payment is often made in kind during harvesting on the basis of crops harvested by the family, and the household head receives the payment. Such activities may not be taken into account in classifying women as economically active.

Part-time help or unpaid work in the family enterprises, which is mostly done by women, is also likely to be missed. For example, men who have food stalls, shops or restaurants may be selling food produced by female members of the household at home. Even though men selling such products will be reported as economically active, women are likely to be reported as not so.

In Pakistan, the first question on economic activity in the 1998 census was whether the person was employed or not. “Are you employed” is generally understood as referring to paid employment. This question acts as a barrier to recording women’s work, even economic work. In South Asia, women are usually engaged in subsistence agriculture or work as family helpers. The question further sought information on whether the person was a “family helper” as a separate category – as if he/she is not employed. There was a category for housekeeping, which was amplified further in another column with five possibilities, which were: i) made or sold things, ii) helped in farming products, iii) helped in business, iv) worked against payment and v) did not work. The covering question for both the family helper and the housekeeping columns was “major activity” during the past year. Classifying those five activities under “housekeeping” does not conform to the SNA definitions and excludes many women from being counted as economically active.

In South and West Asia, women’s economic work is rarely perceived as the “major activity” unless it is paid full-time work. A more appropriate question would be, “What did you do most of the time in the reference period?”, with three response options:

- Subsistence work – farming or production/processing of other goods, including water and fuel collection for household use.
- Family help – in a household-operated enterprise, including agriculture, which produces goods for the market.
- Paid work.

These subcategories may better facilitate representation of women’s subsistence and paid/unpaid work and also free the category of family helper from the implication that he/she is not employed. Nobody should be asked whether he/she is employed or works. Rather, the question should be phrased around the kind of activities one spends time doing.

¹⁰ The first question asked in Nepal until 1981 was “Do you work?”; in Pakistan as late as 1998, the first question asked was “Are you employed?”.

In **India**, the definition of economic activity was not revised in 2001 as per the 1993 SNA, but an extensive pre-census campaign was launched with pictures of women working on various tasks, farming, taking care of animals, weaving, manufacturing various products for sale or performing other economic tasks. The census manual for 2011 used symbols with the text in the questions that enumerators knew could draw responses that were gender biased and thus prompted them to probe further.

In the **Islamic Republic of Iran**, the focus in the 2001 census was on capturing unpaid economic activities, which were performed by women within the precinct of the household or outside but were not previously captured in the census. This was done through intensive training of the supervisors and enumerators, with visuals and pictures/sketches of paid and unpaid work in the census manual and raising awareness of the respondents on women's work, using posters depicting women's work (see annex 1.1)

In the **Maldives**, the focus was on capturing work in the informal non-agriculture sector. But women's subsistence agricultural activities were captured under a question on use of time, which formed an integral part of the census questionnaire.

In **Nepal** in the 2001 census, attempts were made to minimize economic activity problems by redesigning the questions. The first question asked, "What kind of work did you do most of the time in the past 12 months?", with the following list of responses:

1. Work on one's own land/animal keeping
2. Wage/salary work
3. One's own household enterprise
4. Extended economic activities [activities such as water and fuel collection and processing of both primary products and products purchased from the market for self-use]
5. Search for employment
6. Household work
7. Study
8. No work.

Each activity was explained with examples and pictures. This helped to generate more accurate information on women's economic activity rates. In this classification, extended activities were those added to the 1993 SNA, which are within the current ILO definition of economic activities, as well as the processing of primary and market-purchased goods and the production of goods for household use (which has been left to the discretion of a country). The new category has been coded and processed as a separate category. This allows for exclusion of this category to retain comparability with economic activity rates from past censuses while also showing the number of women whose contributions are equally important for the household economy.

Reference period

The category of economically active population covers all persons who were economically active in the reference period and those seeking work. There are two categories of economically active population, usually "economically active" and "currently active". Different countries use different timeframes. The timeframe under "usually economically active" is a major gender issue in developing countries. The shorter the timeframe, the larger the risk of women being excluded because many women may work in visible economic activities, such as farming, only during the planting and harvesting season but look after the animals and animal shade throughout the year. Often, the census takes place in off-agricultural seasons, and in a short timeframe, they may not be engaged in any field activity. A balance must be found.

Nepal adopted a very liberal definition by saying that a person is economically active if she/he is engaged in an economic activity at least an hour a day and at least 15 days a month. However, the information was recorded in terms of number of months in the past year that the respondent worked, worked in extended economic activities, looked for work or did not work. Using this liberal approach, more persons were categorized as economically active and seasonal influence was largely eliminated.

Minimum age for recording economic activity

In principle, the information on activity status should cover the entire population. In practice, it is collected for each person older than a certain age, in accordance with the conditions in a country. In many developing countries, many children perform both economic and non-economic tasks for their own and their family's survival. Thus, these working children should not be left out from work-related statistics just because there is a compulsory schooling provision up to a certain age. Children may be studying and also working part time. In countries with a predominance of subsistence agriculture and informal sector work, girls and boys work along with their parents in the field and household enterprises. With the addition of water and firewood collection to the list of economic activities, more children are eligible to be counted in the workforce. Girls carry much heavier work burden than boys in all this, and the gender analysis of their work burden is crucial for ensuring their access to education, keeping their work burden within some maximum limit and generally for their welfare. Preferably, the first question on the activity status should be collected for the population aged 5 years and older. This is because in poor households, children, especially girls, by 5 years of age may be taking care of younger siblings. Additional questions may be asked to seek information for a subcategory of household work.

The UN census manual does not recommend a maximum age limit for measuring the economically active population because many people continue to be engaged in economic activities beyond the normal retirement age.

In **India**, the information on labour force participation was collected for the population aged 5 years and older in the 2001 population and housing census.

In the **Islamic Republic of Iran**, data on participation in economic activity was collected for the population aged 15 years and older.

In the **Maldives**, economic activity information was collected only for the population aged 15 years and older because of the legal provision of compulsory schooling. But in discussions during the preparation phase in 2006, it became clear there were live-in children and relatives or non-relatives in many households in the capital city of Male who were sent to school but had to work for the household for their lodging and food. An attempt was made to capture this information partially by putting a category of domestic servants in relationship to the household head. This information, however, was not processed or analysed.

In **Nepal**, economic activity information is collected for the population aged 10 years and older. In 2001, about 10 per cent of boys and 13 per cent of girls between the ages of 10 and 14 years were found economically active.

3.7 Occupational and industrial distribution

Occupations are classified on the basis of the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) and updated by the ILO from time to time, the latest being in 2008. The ISCO

manual advises countries to develop their own occupational classifications within the broader ISCO framework and the industrial classification, which follows the International Standard Definition of Industry. Responses on occupations and industry should be recorded in detail. To facilitate such detailed information, it is necessary to ask each economically active person for both the occupational title and a brief description of the main tasks and duties performed on the job. On the industry side, information should be sought from each respondent on the main products and services produced or the main functions carried out at the establishment or enterprise in which their job is located and the institutional status of the establishment.

Countries in South and West Asia collect information on occupation and industry in detail. But often they are coded and classified only in one digit, which is too broad. There are two gender issues involved in such aggregated coding. First, many of the activities performed by rural women, although recognized as economic, may be coded wrongly as subsistence agriculture under occupation. This could be a result of going by the names of the occupation in the ISCO or some preconceived ideas about women's work.

Second, one digit classifications fail to distinguish between dignified and undignified occupations and also mask gender differences in the occupation composition. For example, one of the occupational classifications used by the censuses of South and West Asian countries, as per international classification, is "professional and technicians". This category includes doctors, engineers, professors/teachers, nurses and village health workers, among other technical workers. But all these persons do not enjoy the same social status in South and West Asian societies, and representation of men and women varies in these occupations. For example, nurses and village health workers occupy "inferior" positions, compared with doctors and engineers. Women predominate among such "inferior" positions, while men outnumber women among dignified positions, as partial information from smaller studies reveals.

These findings call for developing occupational and industrial classifications that reflect the specific country situation and have at least two digit classifications for an analysis of women's actual occupational status and hence the progress of their empowerment. Empowerment does not mean political representation only; its definition encompasses representation in all decision-making positions. This information can be captured to some extent by more detailed classifications of occupations. With only one-digit classification, the actual gender differences in the professional achievements and intra-sector distribution of the male and female labour force are blurred. More detailed industrial classification can show whether women as a group are able to access more advanced and better-paying branches of industry.¹¹

Such classification should also identify the institutional status of the establishments: private corporate, household, government, semi-government, voluntary NGO or cooperative.

3.8 Employment status

According to the 2008 UN census manual, employment status is "the type of explicit or implicit contract of employment with other persons or organizations that the economically active person has in his/her job".

¹¹ It is sometimes asserted that Labour Force Surveys provide more detailed information on occupation and industry; thus there is no need to collect details in population censuses. But Labour Force Surveys are based on a smaller sample and may not allow for much disaggregated analysis, by region, ethnicity, caste and gender. It is up to each government to decide what details it needs for monitoring women's empowerment progress.

Along with occupation, employment status is one of the basic indicators measuring women's status in work. Under this classification, all economically active persons are classified in the following six groups:

1. Employees (may be regular, contractual or wage earners)
2. Employers
3. Own-account workers
4. Contributing family workers
5. Members of producers' cooperatives
6. Persons not classifiable by status.

Despite the importance of ownership and management decisions underlying the status classification as mentioned in its definition, the censuses in South and West Asia primarily use the criteria of whether a person is working full time or part time in the family enterprise, irrespective of who in the family owns and makes the decisions in the enterprise. Consequently, an overwhelming majority of the economically active population, both men and women, is recorded as own-account (self-employed), including unpaid family workers (ILO, 1992; ILO, 1993; UN, 2008).

The primary gender issue here is that the majority of the unpaid family women members, working full time in the enterprise, may be recorded as self-employed without any reference to ownership or decision-making role. A similar definitional problem is inherent in the category of employers. The concept that all members of the family have equal ownership of this enterprise is maintained in these definitions, which is not useful for gender analysis. A clear demarcation line is needed based on ownership and role in management to separate the categories of employers and unpaid own-account family workers.

Time put into the enterprise should not be criteria for defining own-account and unpaid family workers, as is currently done. The category of own-account¹² should be further classified into two subgroups: i) those who own jointly or singly and operate the enterprise and ii) those who are full-time family workers only. For example, a spouse or a daughter/daughter-in-law could be working in an enterprise full time that is managed and operated by her husband, father or father-in-law. Currently, they will report as working in their own "family enterprise" full time and be classified as self-employed. But from a gender perspective, it is not a very useful category because neither of them may have much claim on the income nor a say in decisions on this enterprise. From a gender perspective, they are unpaid family workers.

In industrialized countries with a predominance of nuclear families, such situations may not arise; but in South and West Asian countries, joint families are common, and women in such households have little say in such matters. Similarly, only those employers of household enterprises who own and make the decisions and employ outside workers should be classified as employers.

It would be useful to have two categories under employee: "wage worker" and "salaried worker" because they carry different social status and risk. Women are often concentrated in casual work, which carries much higher risk than salaried work.

¹² Own-account workers are self-employed without employees. For further discussion of the different categories, see also: <http://laborsta.ilo.org/applv8/data/icsee.html>

Causes of inactivity

Persons who are recorded as not performing any economic activity as per the census definition during the reference period are asked to indicate the reason for why they were not doing so. Response categories listed by the UN census manual include:

- student
- homemaker
- pension or capital income recipient
- other, none of the above or economically active.

South and West Asian countries follow these recommendations, with some variation.

Nepal has added sick, elderly and physically challenged to the four categories. Those in the category of “other” are asked to specify.

A substantial proportion of women are confined to household work because of social and reproductive reasons. Even if the homemaking activities, such as household maintenance and child care, do not fall within the production boundary defined by the SNA currently, they are necessary for human reproduction; no economy can survive without them, and they should somehow be counted (see chapter 4). In Nepal, Acharya (1998) found that valuing such services, even at minimum prices, would yield an amount equivalent to GDP. According to HealthBridge (2010), the value of unpaid household work performed by housewives is approximately US\$70–\$91 billion per year in Bangladesh, depending on the economic value assigned to the tasks women perform daily; that value in India is upwards of US\$613 billion. The total value of unpaid household work performed by women in Nepal is slightly more than US\$11 billion, or about 91 per cent of the country's GDP.

Acharya (2003) suggested a new category for workforce analysis, which includes the entire working population, irrespective of the kind of work they do; thus, any person engaged solely in homemaking is considered as working. “Work” is then defined as any activity that a second person could do for you, such as cooking, taking care of children, cleaning and washing. Only activities that a second person could not do for you (sleeping, taking care of oneself, watching television, studying) are excluded from the definition of work.

The category of homemakers should not be listed in the reasons for non-economic activity, as it is currently done in the UN census manual. It should be a separate category, identifying the specific kind of activity, such as household maintenance, child care, sick care, etc. Only those who do nothing at home due to pregnancy, breastfeeding and old age should be listed as inactive, with the mention of the specific reason. Currently, it looks as if a large number of women spend their time doing nothing, even though their activities and work constitute the foundation of the household's survival.

Definition and issues of paid and unpaid work

Often paid and unpaid work categories are used by women's advocates, without defining them. It is very important to distinguish between the three categories of unpaid work – household maintenance and care, subsistence farming and work in a household enterprise. While the first category, household maintenance and care, is outside the SNA boundary, the other two categories are within it. Accordingly in a census, workers who are engaged only in housekeeping are included in the category of economically not active, while the other two kinds of workers, own account and family helper, are considered economically active.

3.9 Migration

Censuses of South and West Asian countries collect data on internal and international migration and reasons for migration. The UN census manual recommends including immigrants. There are no instructions for recording out-migration (emigration) however, and it is more difficult to collect this information. In the context of increasing migration in search of employment, particularly in South Asia, an attempt should be made to collect this information by asking about members of the family not living in the household.

In South Asia, the international mobility of women for employment has become a regular phenomenon. But there are no comprehensive records of such migratory movements. Much of this type of migration may be illegal and thus may go unrecorded. Such migrants face great risk in the receiving countries. A series of probing questions is needed to explore this mobility. Recording the existence of absentee household members in the household roster, collecting their information in the questionnaire for individuals, and asking about remittances in the household module could add important information on the role of (male and female) migrants to the household economy.

The UN census manual makes no recommendation on the reasons for migration. In South and West Asia, questions on internal or external migration do not include domestic violence and marriage as reasons, although this information will further add to gender analysis of the causes of female mobility and the changing roles in a household.

The Islamic Republic of Iran and Nepal list marriage as one of the reasons for both external and internal migration and have found that a large proportion of women migrate because of marriage. Traditionally, women in South and West Asia have to move to their affinal household (the home of blood relatives of the spouse) upon marriage and often to a different village or district or even country. This cuts them off from the parental household support system, often making them helpless in the affinal household. Men have seldom moved because of marriage. But with urbanization and modernization, the situation may be changing somewhat. The generation of data on marriage as an impetus for migration of men and women would provide an information base for studies of the changing social scenarios.

Listing domestic violence as one of the reasons for migration would generate some information on gender-based violence, which is hard to collect otherwise. Such violence takes place within the so-called "safe haven of home", and women do not or cannot talk about such incidents if they have no place to go and intend to stay in the household. Women who have left this "safe haven" may be more forthcoming.

3.10 Citizenship, caste and ethnicity

Some countries in the region collect information on citizenship, language, religion, caste and ethnicity (ethnic origin). The Nepal census has included such questions for the past two decades. India collected such information in its 2011 census. These types of questions should be included in the short census questionnaire designed to collect information from all households. This is important because ethnic and religious minorities are particularly vulnerable, and in India and Nepal, the so-called "low castes" are typically found at the bottom of the socio-economic hierarchy. Cross-classifying such data by various socio-economic variables would enable policymakers to formulate targeted programmes for those sections of the population who are really economically, socially and politically disadvantaged.

With increasing mobility of populations within and across nations for employment and other reasons, the information on a foreign population has acquired both political and socio-economic significance. Such information is also required for providing housing facilities, public services and social security programmes. Migrant women may encounter more difficulties than migrant men when accessing various services and safe housing. There are also issues around CEDAW and citizenship of women and their legal rights, and the information from the census would be useful for a preliminary analysis of affected women.

3.11 Asset ownership

Some countries in South and West Asia collect information on household amenities, such as sources of water, sanitation, cooking fuel, source of lighting, quality of housing (as symbolized by construction materials) and ownership of modern household assets (refrigerators, televisions, washing machines, cars, bicycles, motorbikes/scooters, telephones, computers, etc.). The measurement of household assets may provide some indication of household wealth but it does not tell which household members use or own those assets. To remedy this to some extent, the 2001 Nepal census added questions on ownership of property by any woman in the household. It was a compromise, and ideally questions on ownership of certain assets should be asked of individual respondents; but this may not be possible due to space limitations in the questionnaires.

3.12 Literacy and educational achievement

Censuses in South and West Asian countries collect information on literacy and educational qualifications. However, the census is not the ideal source of literacy information because ability to read and comprehend and write and do simple calculation (which is the formal definition used for the census) is invariably not tested in the census interview. It is not possible to test respondents about their literacy competency. Census takers simply rely on the judgement of the respondents as to whether they are literate or not. To assess the quality of census data on literacy, a module on testing one's ability to read and write and do simple calculation should be developed and administered to the post-census survey enumeration, which is based on a small but representative sample of households. On the question of educational achievement, information on the number of years completed, highest qualifications, etc. should be asked because they are very important for gender analysis. A question on whether a person is currently attending any educational institution or not should be asked; if yes, asking for the grade attending and the age of the respondent would provide valuable information on the net enrolment ratio.

3.13 Examples of new pieces of information that could be useful in gender analysis and related policymaking

Population censuses typically do not collect information on ownership of movable or immovable property. The ownership information is generated only for the living quarters. That does not give direct information on the wealth status of households. In some countries, such as in Nepal, the census generates information on the farm land cultivated and animals kept by the household within the district where the household is located.

In Nepal, three questions were inserted in the 2001 census seeking information on women's ownership of house, land and animals. That information was processed to show that few women owned property (about 82 per cent of women had none of the three listed types of property). This helped gender advocates to demand and to achieve the changes in the inheritance law granting equal inheritance rights for daughters and sons to the parental property. Previously, a married woman had a joint share in the inheritance of property (equal coparcenary) only in the affinal household.

For the empowerment of women, equal economic rights form the foundation on which women can fight battles for social and formal and informal equality within the household. Long-term time trends analysis and historical perspectives on ownership of property by males and females would provide a robust additional indicator to assess progress in women's empowerment.

In the [Maldives](#), all land is under government ownership and families are given land as per their need. The census asks whether the house they are living in was owned by a male or female member. This information is used for analysing the relative property ownership of men and women.

IV. POST-ENUMERATION ANALYSIS

To facilitate analysis of data from a gender perspective, analysts need access to detailed primary data. This will give them more autonomy in generating cross-tabulations that they need for deciphering the gender dimensions. For example, access to data will allow cross-classification of occupational and industrial distribution of the male and female labour force by employment status and reveal the types of jobs women have and their relative strength among institutional and non-institutional employment. With the inclusion of fuel and water collection for household use as economic activity by the SNA, a census is likely to show an abrupt increase in female employment. Yet this may entirely be because of the change in the definition of the sector rather than an increase of women employees in the organized gas, water and electricity sectors. Similar issues arise in the case of processing goods purchased from the market for household consumption, which will be reflected in manufacturing sector employment. The data can be released to the public by means of the REDATAM¹³ software program.

Data dissemination seminars should be organized by statistical offices to increase awareness of all concerned of the availability of gender-disaggregated data and its use in formulating gender-sensitive policies and programmes.

4.1 Sex-disaggregated tabulations versus gender analysis

The analysis of the data must not only be disaggregated on the basis of sex but should also expose biases in the economic, historical and socio-cultural construct and ambience on the gender dimension. This will lead to more meaningful applications of the data and enhance their usefulness for policy formulation and implementation. To promote analysis of data from a gender perspective, the national capacity must be strengthened. This will require, among other things, incorporation of gender analysis into social science research methodology courses and other relevant courses of universities. Strong lobbying and advocacy should seek higher-level teaching and/or research institutions to organize short-term courses on gender statistics and analysis of data from gender perspectives by drawing on the support of technical experts in the field. Governments should be encouraged and aided to make necessary budgetary allocations for training and research on collection and analysis of data from a gender perspective.

Decennial data

Decennial census (inter-census) data provide valuable long-term time trends and historical perspectives on many social issues, including gender biases. Sex-disaggregated census data can throw light on gender issues when they are examined and interpreted with a gender perspective in the larger economic, social-cultural and historical perspectives, preferably in conjunction with other sources of data. These other sources of data may include large-sample surveys, such as the Demographic and Health Survey, the Labour Force Survey, the Living Standard Survey, the Household Income and Expenditure Survey, time-use information and case studies with intensive analysis of the socio-economic situation. Many of these surveys, which are smaller and go in depth (in contrast to the census), are large enough to be nationally representative. The results, based on sample surveys, are expected to be better than the census results because the former are smaller in size and data can be collected with more attention by reducing the interviewee/interviewer ratio than in the census. However, care should be taken that the sample is nationally representative and drawn on scientific principles, and

¹³ Retrieval of data for small areas by microcomputer, or REDATAM, is a user-friendly package that gives organizations a simple means of storing and accessing large amounts of census or other data on a microcomputer. It was developed by the United Nations Latin American Demographic Centre in Chile.

that survey questionnaires are comparable to those of the census questionnaires. The findings from such surveys have to be mapped to comparable census information for more detailed gender disaggregated analysis at the regional, subregional and local levels.

Visaria (2004) highlights the importance of using other data sources not only to increase the robustness of census findings but also to examine their reliability. She discusses how information from the National Sample Survey and the Labor Force Survey used in India by gender advocates to illustrate how the census undercounted women workers, partly due to the definition of work used. This led to a refinement of the census definition of work to capture women's economic activity more accurately, particularly in the informal sector.

A few examples of the types of gender analysis that needs to be made are shown here for age-specific sex ratios, relative socio-economic status of the female- and male-headed households, economic activity, occupational distribution and employment status, reasons for non-economic activity, educational and marital status, type of marriage, age of marriage, children living with employers and many others.

4.2 Sex ratios (number of men per 100 women)

Sex ratios are derived from a cross-classification of total population enumerated in the census by sex. Sex ratios can reflect overall survival chances of women in relation to men as well as differential rates of male/female immigration and out-migration. If a society discriminates against the female population, in relation to men, in fulfilment of their basic physical needs or even has a high preference for male children, there will be more surviving men than women at a particular moment of time. More male than female babies are born, and the sex ratio at birth varies, generally between 104 and 107, with a mean at around 106. But the overall sex ratio of a population is not expected to exceed the threshold level of the sex ratio at birth because more boys than girls tend to die in the first years of life. In industrialized countries, the balance is tipped against men, while in the majority of South and West Asian countries the balance is tipped against women. An adverse situation in which the overall sex ratio of a population exceeds the sex ratio at birth has to be explained in terms of a differential count of the male and female population, differential male and female mortality and/or male and female international migration. Applying the global male/female ratio to sex ratio reported in the censuses of some South and West Asian countries, particularly Bangladesh, India and Pakistan, reveals a significant deficit of women. According to the *Asia-Pacific Human Development Report* (UNDP, 2010, p. 34), close to 100 million women in Asia are "missing". China and India together account for 85.3 million of them.

Such a deficit of women may be attributed, among other factors, to sex-selective abortion, indirect/direct infanticide and undercounting of female members of households. This also reflects general apathy – social and cultural insensitivity on gender issues. Discrimination starts even before birth, when a female foetus is selectively aborted. The discrimination against girls and women continues through life in feeding practices, neglect in health care, work burden, etc. (UNFPA, 2012).

The phenomenon of "missing women" is very specific for South and West Asia and some East Asia countries, such as China and Viet Nam. In the rest of the world, overall sex ratios are usually only slightly higher than 100 or higher in favour of women due to a different set of risks that men experience. For example, in the Commonwealth of Independent States countries, there is excess mortality of men, with differences between female and male life expectancy of more than ten years in some countries. This is also reflected in sex ratios lower than 100,

indicating more women than men in the population. This excess male mortality is attributed, among other factors, to rising unemployment, poverty, alcoholism and drug use.

Sex selection would need more than the decennial census to be well captured, although it is the only reliable source for tracking emerging trends in countries like Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan that do not have a functioning birth registration system. The absence of birth registration statistics prevents governments from monitoring changes in social phenomena, such as prenatal sex selection.

Exploring the causes of persistent and growing deficit of girls in India's population, the sex ratio declining from 102.5 in 1961 to 107.9 in 2001, Visaria (2004) discussed how detailed analysis of census data combined with data from other sources, such as micro-level studies and in-depth surveys, demonstrated that the growing deficit of girls could partly be attributed to the increasing use of female-selective abortion rather than an undercounting of girls and higher mortality rates for girls than boys, which until then was the prevailing explanation.

In the Maldives, consistent with the general perception that more men migrate to Male, the capital city, in search of work, the city's sex ratio should be higher than that of the country's atolls. This was supported by the 2000 census; but in 2006, the sex ratio turned out to be higher in the atolls. This may be attributed, among other factors, to changes in the pattern of male migration from Male to the atolls or a higher rate of female migration to Male, an interesting question from a gender perspective, which also needs further investigation.

Nepal's sex ratio at 99.8 showed a balanced distribution of population by sex. Analysis of the Demographic and Health Survey data (DHS, 1996–2001) on sex ratios at birth also did not indicate the practice of sex-selective abortion because the sex ratios at birth were within the biologically expected limit of 106 (UNFPA and CREHPA, 2007). However, the census figures on the sex ratios for the population younger than 1 year exceeded the expected bounds for six Terai districts and one hill district. Such imbalance in some districts provided the basis for a UNFPA-sponsored study of possible sex-selective abortion in those seven districts (UNFPA and CREHPA, 2007). The study, however, did not find the practice of prenatal sex determination and sex-selective abortion in the study population. In the survey, only 3 per cent (74 women) of the ever-pregnant women had sought prenatal sex-determination tests and only 14 per cent of the women who ever had an induced abortion had done so following prenatal sex determination. Nonetheless, other factors must be investigated to explain the sex imbalance among the population aged 0–1 year. Such factors could be direct or indirect feticide (less care for female babies). On the basis of this study, among other things, it was recommended that the census should report sex ratios at birth for better monitoring abortion behaviour because the finding from smaller studies could only be indicative.

4.3 Socio-economic status of households, by head

A cross-classification of the data on household heads with other information collected by the census, such as education, occupation, employment, marital status, ownership of asset and household amenities, that is then analysed from a gender perspective would provide valuable information on the social and economic status of female-headed households. The general analysis of the average figures may not show the real socio-economic situation of female-headed households; in-depth analysis of the information is required.

The following extended examples describe the latest census findings in three countries in terms of how they have or have not influenced gender analysis.

In the Islamic Republic of Iran, data from the 2006 census indicate that the proportion of female-headed households increases with age of the household head and surpasses the proportion of male-headed households in the 50-54 age group. This trend continues with advancing age and reaches its highest level in the 75 and older age group. At this age, there are about four female-headed households for every one male-headed household. These findings indicate that excess male adult mortality is an important determinant of female household headship.

Female-headed households encompassing one or two persons account for nearly 57 per cent of the total female-headed households. At older ages, such small female-headed households are more likely to be vulnerable, compared with their male counterparts, given Iranian cultural practices. This is suggested by additional data from the 2006 census, which attest to the marital status (mostly widows), economic dependency and lower educational achievement of female heads of households.

The role of additional data in assessing vulnerability of households is critical; the 2006 census also revealed increasing numbers of not-married, educated, cohabiting or single women as in dependent heads of households.

The data also showed a higher illiteracy rate among members of the households headed by women than men. In 2006, the literacy rate of the population aged 6 years and older was 72 per cent for female-headed households and nearly 96 per cent for households headed by men. This situation, at a general glance, may mean that members in the male-headed households have better access to educational facilities than those in the female-headed households. The higher illiteracy among members of female headed households may also be because female heads of household tend to be more elderly, in conjunction with the smaller size of female-headed households, as already noted.

The census data from 2006 also shows that 63 per cent of the male one-person households were employed and 21 per cent were income recipients, while 60 per cent of female one-person households were income recipients (money from pension, dividends, rent or social security); less than 10 per cent were employed. However, from these findings it cannot be firmly concluded that single-person female-headed households are economically more dependent unless it is known whether the income received by them is dividend/interest from an investment, house rent, pension or subsidies given by the government or gifts from relatives or friends. This requires analysis of the data on the sources of income. The proportion of single-person households who are income recipients increased from 1996 to 2006, by 16 percentage points for men and 9 percentage points for women.

The Maldives is a country of small islands and men typically migrate to other resort islands for employment and remit money home. In the census, the household head is considered as the person who makes the day-to-day decisions and should be present in the household at the time of the census interview. These two facts explain why in the 2006 census, an unusually large proportion of households - 42 per cent - were headed by women, even though men were the primary earners in the family.

There was not much difference between male-headed and female-headed households in access to quality housing and household amenities, possession of consumer durables, such as refrigerators, washing machines, motorcycle or bicycle or access to electronic media. This may be because many of the female-headed households had men working in other atolls and may have been receiving remittances. Because the population census did not ask a question on whether the household receives any remittance, further analysis of the issue requires data from other sources, such as a specialized household survey covering both male- and female-headed households receiving remittances.

Households headed by women were also analysed as a separate group to determine if any subgroup was more disadvantaged. Of the female-headed households, 23 per cent were headed by widows or divorced women. A cross-classification of asset and amenities information with marital status of the female heads showed that a generally smaller proportion of households with widowed or divorced women heads had access to quality housing and consumer durables.

In Nepal, the 2001 census found around 15 per cent of the households were female headed, 17 per cent of them in urban areas and 14.5 per cent in rural areas. There was little difference between male-headed and female-headed households in access to modern amenities and ownership of modern household appliances, transport vehicles and means of communication. This may be due to remittance income. However, female-headed households were clearly disadvantaged in the ownership of land, literacy and education. They also had a higher dependency ratio and a larger proportion of school-age children who were not attending school (Acharya, 2004). They had only 0.50 hectares of operational land compared with 0.78 hectares of male-headed households. Land is still the primary means of livelihood for the majority of the Nepalese population and a major indicator of social status. Having small land holdings means both social and economic disadvantage.

The analyst must be cautious in interpreting these findings; they do not necessarily mean that women have less access to farmland. For example, differential ownership of land may occur because more female-headed households are located in urban areas. Not only would this be associated with less land ownership, the value of such land would be quite different. The data must be disaggregated on ownership of farmland by rural/urban residence and by sex of the household head. Similarly, female-headed households may be smaller than male-headed households. Thus, land per adult household member by sex of household head should be calculated.

Also to be considered are the marital status and age of female heads of households. Statistically, they are more likely to be widows and are disproportionately concentrated at the older ages. Widows at an older age often are economically more dependent than widowers. It would thus be helpful if data were disaggregated by age and marital status of the head of household. The differential ownership of farmland by sex of the household also can be attributed to unequal land inheritance practices. Despite cultural diversity and differences between the Indo-Aryan and the Tibeto-Burman groups, for example, farmland traditionally is inherited in almost all communities from father to son and this puts women in a disadvantaged position in comparison to men (Acharya and Bennett, 1981; Gurung, 1999).

4.4 Marital status and fertility

Censuses in South and West Asia regularly collect data on marital status and fertility. These can be used to analyse the social status of women in detail. The questions on marital status provide data on the gender dimension of child marriage, opportunities for remarriage and widowhood and separation. Overall and age-specific fertility data may be used for analysis, if women are able to use modern facilities to lighten their burden of child bearing early on in marriage. In South and West Asia, traditionally marriage and children are considered the first priority for women. These social expectations interfere greatly with women's educational and professional advancement. A comparative analysis relating to the proportion of married girls aged 10–19 by school enrolment could show the role of marriage as a factor in access of girls to education.

Again, the following extended examples from three countries provide details on how census data can be used for gender analysis.

Visaria (2004) provides two examples from India to illustrate how census data on marriage can be used for gender analysis. Analysing data on marriage and the proportion of the population that is married, she showed that although marriage remains nearly universal for Indian women, the singulate mean age at marriage of women had been steadily increasing over time. By the 1991 census, 60 per cent of girls aged 15-19 remained unmarried, and the proportion of unmarried young women in the 20-24 age group was also increasing. Among other factors, she suggested it could be linked to increasing educational and employment opportunities and to urbanization.

After analysing the data from the 1991 census for India, Visaria reported that only about 15 per cent of men older than 60 were widowed, while 54 per cent of women of that age were widows, reflecting the prevailing social customs and practices that reduce opportunities for women to remarry. Given India's discriminatory cultural practices in access to education and family assets, Visaria interpreted this information as indicating that elderly widows are forced to depend on other family members for their survival. The point to highlight is that analysis of marital status can draw attention to a possible inequality in rights.

In the Islamic Republic of Iran, the vulnerability of widows is well demonstrated by the 2006 census findings. The data indicate that only about 10 per cent of men older than 60 were widowed, while nearly half of women of that age were widowed. This may be attributed, among other factors, to a greater chance for remarriage among men than women in Iranian culture and society. The 2006 census data showed that 4 per cent of men, in contrast with 2.4 per cent of women, were remarried. The proportion of ever-married men and women who married two times or more increased, from less than 2 per cent for men and less than 1 per cent for women at age 15-19 to about 13 per cent among men and 8 per cent among women at age 75 and older. Husbands of older women were usually three to four years older on average than the wife, who had a greater chance of survival beyond her husband.

That there are more widows than widowers at older ages is a cause for concern in terms of whether each is accorded the same rights. Given the Iranian cultural practices, Sharia law restricting women's access to family property* and older women's lower educational status, as in India, this finding could indicate their high economic dependency on other family members in old age. Because of this, they may also suffer from physical and mental stress.

* According to Islamic inheritance law, a widow is entitled to inherit one eighth of her deceased husband's property if he leaves any agnatic descendant. However, if the deceased husband does not leave any agnatic descendant, the wife will inherit a quarter of his estate.

In Nepal, Acharya (2003) found that the singulate mean ages of marriage* were increasing both for men and women and that the proportion of married girls aged 10–25 had come down substantially since 1981. Still, about 2 per cent of girls aged 10–14 and 33 per cent of girls aged 15–19 were already married. Based on in-depth studies of rural villages in 1977–1978 and in 2005, Acharya concluded that, despite cultural differences, marriage is still a major cause for not sending adolescent girls to school. In her intensive study of a southern village in 2005, the major reasons given by household members for not sending older female children to school was the difficulty of marrying girls with a higher education, in addition to the usual concerns of their eventual transfer to the husband's house on marriage reducing the possibility of their economic contribution to the parental household and the help needed at home (Acharya and Bennett, 1981; Acharya, 2008).

In Nepal's Hindu communities, parents traditionally give a dowry or tilak** in a daughter's marriage. This practice seems to be increasing in magnitude and spreading even to communities that did not practise it previously. In all communities, daughters transfer to the husband's household on marriage, where her options for education are few; the parental household may not claim any part of her earnings, and she has no responsibility to them nor could she have any claim on their property and resources, before the Interim Constitution 2007 came into effect.

Women's limited access to education can also be attributed to other reasons, such as lack of schools, particularly a girls' school within proximity to home, lack of school facilities (such as separate washroom and lavatory for girls), lack of female employment opportunities, the absence of female teachers, the absence of the mother in the family and fear of travelling a long distance.

That marriage is a constraint for girls pursuing higher education is also demonstrated in their educational attainment beyond the primary level. The data show that although there was significant progress in female literacy and primary education in the past two decades, the progress beyond the primary level, particularly at secondary and tertiary levels, was slow.

Nepal's 2001 census showed that 559,250 women were living in polygamous marriages, even though polygamy has been illegal in Nepal (except in special circumstances) for almost half a century. The 2001 census for the first time solicited information on polygamy by asking a married person, "Number of spouses you are currently living with?" and married persons were classified into three groups: i) married and living with one spouse, ii) married and living with more than one spouse and iii) remarried. The number of women in polygamous marriages was estimated by multiplying the number of men in polygamous marriages by two, in the absence of data on the frequency distribution of polygamous men by number of spouses. Because these men may have more than two wives, the number could be larger. Polygamous marriage is considered a vulnerable situation for many women and has been linked with gender-based violence (New Era, 1998; Sathi et al., 1997); thus its prevalence calls for further investigation.

* Mean age at marriage is calculated indirectly using Hajnal technique, called Singulate Mean Age at Marriage in the absence of data on age at first marriage in census. This is an estimate of the mean number of years lived by a person before his/her first marriage. It is an approximate indicator that can be used at the aggregate level in order to get a sense of the typical age at which people marry. But it cannot be computed at the individual level therefore it cannot be correlated with other information collected individually in the census. For details, see: Hajnal, John. "Age at Marriage and Proportions Marrying", In *Population Studies*, 7(2): 115, November 1953.

** Dowry is given to daughters; in principal it is her property. This practice prevails in the Hill communities. Tilak is given to the bridegroom or his family, on which the girl has no claim even in principal. In Terai communities, both dowry and tilak prevail.

4.5 Living arrangements of children

The information on living arrangements of children could be quite useful in identifying specific groups of children at risk. Most censuses in the region do not ask direct information related to this topic, but analysis of the household roster in conjunction with data on relationship to the head of household by age and sex can help reveal the absence of one or both parents. A gender perspective can help identify the greater vulnerabilities of girls.

In the *Maldives*, given the frequency of remarriages and other reasons, many children have to live with people other than both parents. About one third of children lived in such arrangements. Thus, it was considered important to generate information about the situation in the 2006 census. The findings revealed that few children, boys or girls, lived with their father only. A much larger proportion lived with their mother only. A significant proportion of boys aged 16–17 (11 per cent) and girls (12 per cent) lived with other relatives and unrelated families, and thus emerged the presumption they worked as family helpers. Economic activity rates of children aged 15–17 by living arrangement should be examined to cover this aspect.

In *Nepal*, the 2001 census included a question on the living arrangement of school-age children (aged 10–16). Overall, 80 per cent of the boys and 68 per cent the girls at that age were going to school. Various reasons for the difference were cited, with greater work burden of female children being one of them. The data showed that the proportion of children going to school was lowest among those living with employers; this applied to both boys and girls. The largest group not going to school were girls living with their biological mother and a stepfather. Boys living with other relatives were the second-largest group not going to school. Male–female differences in the school-going proportion of children hovered at around 9–11 percentage points among the various living arrangements other than employers and other relatives. The largest proportion of girls and boys who went to school were those living with the biological mother. Next in the ranking were children living with both biological parents. Generally, the larger the working proportion, the lower the proportion of children going to school.

4.6 Economic activity and work status

Information on economic activities, reasons for inactivity, occupational and industrial distributions and employment status can be used to illustrate the gendered nature of the division of work, occupational distribution and employment status, which results in a disproportionate burden of household work on women and their occupational and industrial concentration in low-paying jobs and low-productivity sectors of work.

The following extended examples illustrate how a gender perspective of this analysis reveals structural disadvantages for women. Such analyses in developing countries and on the basis of census data are not common.

In the *Islamic Republic of Iran*, the female labour force participation rate nearly doubled in 2006, at 16 per cent, from 1996, at 9 per cent. This increase was attributed, to a large extent, to the impact of adding a gender perspective to the census process – improved capturing of women’s work by clearly delineating and defining the concept of work, particularly non-market economic activities, and a better understanding among enumerators and respondents of women’s non-market activities that should be considered economic according to the 1993 SNA definition. Rigorous training of the enumerators and a massive awareness-raising campaign targeting respondents generated the expanded awareness. The census findings regarding female labour force participation were also corroborated by the findings from the 2006 Labour Force Survey, which reported a female participation rate of 16.6 per cent.

In the [Maldives](#), the major focus of the efforts to add a gender perspective to the census in 2006 was on capturing women's economic activities in the informal sector. The results were substantial, and its impact is clearly visible in the increased economic activity rate for women. Without adjusting for the unemployed population (who were included in the group of economically not active in 2000), the economic activity rate for women increased from 45 per cent in 2000 to 52 per cent in 2006. Some 10 per cent of women were active in subsistence activities, spending more than three hours daily, on average. This included processing food and other goods for domestic use not covered otherwise in the definition of economic activity, as currently used in the Maldives. Those activities, however, are also economic as per the 1993 SNA and subsequent ILO manuals. Expanding the definition according to SNA and ILO recommendations resulted in 62 per cent of women aged 15 years and older who were economically active in 2006, a notable increase from the 52 per cent reported previously for 2006. The female economic activity rate was highest among women aged 20–24. For men, the peak was found in the 40–44 age group, suggesting that many women withdraw from the active labour force upon marrying. This is supported by information on reasons for economic inactivity.

The largest proportion (38 per cent) of economically inactive women cited housework as their reason for not being economically active. The proportion of women not economically active because of housework was 76 per cent among the 25–34 age group and hovered around 70 per cent for those aged 35–49. In contrast, 62 per cent of inactive men cited studying as their reason. Only 32 per cent of inactive women mentioned study as the reason for their inactivity. Among respondents aged 24–34, 41 per cent of men were studying while only 7 per cent of women were doing so. Health seemed to be a major reason for inactivity, after study and housework for both women and men, and more so for women among the 50-plus age group.

While women constituted 39 per cent of the total labour force, they held only 14 per cent of the more prestigious and powerful decision-making jobs.

By institution, women workers constituted about 48 per cent of the labour force working in their living quarters or having no fixed space of work. They constituted 40 per cent of the government sector workers, which is quite high by South Asian standards. However, the proportion of women in the private sector workforce was much smaller, at 22 per cent. The proportion of women working as employees increased from 43 per cent in 1995 to 48 per cent in 2006, but it also increased for men, from 40 to 64 per cent. A large majority of economically active women (about 50 per cent) were working as own-account workers and family helpers. The proportion of men employed as own-account and family workers declined drastically, from 54 per cent in 1995 to 20 per cent in 2006, while for women it declined only slightly, from about 55 per cent to 50 per cent. Although 5 per cent of economically active men were an owner/ employer, only 1 per cent of women were in this category.

These analyses have contributed to the National Gender Equality Strategy and informed ministerial and donor programmes.

In Nepal, the definitions, questionnaires and manuals were revised to better capture women's economic activity in the 2001 census, which then found an increase in women's economic activity rate to 55 per cent (among females aged 10 years and older). Compared with the 1991 census findings, this was an increase of 11 percentage points, attributed to three factors: i) an increase in the actual participation, defined as economic; ii) the redefinition of the activities; and iii) more detailed and specific description of activities in the census manual and training. Those factors are positive from a gender perspective because they contribute to making women's work visible. The economic activity rate, combined with the occupational distribution and employment status, showed that the majority of economically active women were concentrated in low-paid occupations and low-status employment as well as self-employment (Acharya, 2003).

This statement was supported with the data showing that women constituted 48 per cent of the agricultural and 34 per cent of the non-agricultural labour force. This also underscored that the subsistence agricultural sector was becoming feminized. Women's proportion in non-agricultural wage and salary employment was only 18 per cent, compared with 51 per cent in the agricultural wage labour. Even in non-agricultural wage employment, women were found to be concentrated at low-paying and less productive jobs, classified as elementary occupations. But further disaggregation of elementary occupations showed them to be handicraft workers. The National Living Standard Survey data then showed that women earned about three fourths of what men earned, in both the agriculture and non-agriculture sectors (NLSS, 2003–2004). The female–male wage ratios in both sectors had declined from the 1995–1996 levels. Women constituted only 14 per cent among the high-level administrators, managers, politicians, judges, lawyers, etc. and 19 per cent among professionals and technicians.

Acharya (2003) also demonstrated how combining the information on economically active women with information on those who cite homemaking as the reason for inactivity can be used to illustrate gender bias of the current definition of economic and non-economic work. Although the majority of both economically active men and women are engaged in conventionally defined economic activities, a larger proportion of women are devoting their time to extended economic activity and household chores, which are equally important for the survival of the household members and hence support the national economy. As pointed out in chapter 3, household maintenance and care work (cooking, taking care of children and the sick, cleaning and washing, financial management, etc.), which were previously described as tasks performed within women's "reproductive" roles, are now within the production boundary set by the 1993 SNA. Defining work in this way reveals larger proportions of women working; in the 2001 census more women (72 per cent) worked than men (67 per cent). The only difference was the kind of work they did. Slightly more than 63 per cent of men and 38 per cent of women engaged in activities conventionally defined as economic. A substantial proportion (29 per cent) of women, in contrast to a negligible proportion of men (1.6 per cent) was engaged in household work due to social and reproductive reasons. Women also outnumbered men (6.1 per cent compared with 1.4 per cent) in performing extended economic activities, such as water and fuel collection and processing of products for self-use.

From the analysis of the census information on reasons of economic inactivity of men and women, it was clear that although most women were not active in the labour force because of household responsibilities, the majority of inactive men were inactive because they were engaged in studies (Acharya, 2003). This information was useful to show that household responsibilities constrain women's education.

4.7 Use of census information as indicators of empowerment

Property ownership is one of the most important indicators of empowerment and economic well-being in the modern capitalist world. Similarly, literacy, educational attainments and professional access and presence in decision-making positions are important indicators of empowerment for individuals. Along with income levels, UNDP uses these as components in its gender empowerment measure. Such information should be generated and analysed by gender as well as by ethnicity, caste and religion.

The following examples illustrate how the indicators of property ownership and a combined index of literacy, educational attainments, professional access and presence in decision-making positions derived from the census can be used for social and gender analysis. These findings are useful in illustrating women's relative economic status and reasons for lobbying for a change.

In the [Maldives](#), a question on ownership of the house in the 2006 census found that only 31 per cent of the houses were owned by women, compared with the 66 per cent owned by men (all land and most industries are government owned). The remaining 3 per cent were owned jointly. The proportion of owner-occupied households was slightly more than 76 per cent.

In [Nepal](#), the 2001 census collected information on women's ownership of land, house and animals in addition to women's work, occupation, employment status and other social variables. The findings showed that only about 11 per cent of households reported some land under female legal ownership, and only 5.5 per cent of households had the house in a woman's name. Only 7.2 per cent of households reported female livestock ownership, despite many credit institutions targeting and funding this activity for women. Only 0.8 per cent of households had all three (house, land and livestock) under female ownership. Almost 83 per cent of households had no property whatsoever under any female legal ownership. This contrasted sharply with the 88 per cent of households owning their own house and nearly 71 per cent owning animals. Similarly, 76 per cent of the households had their own farm in the district of residence (Acharya, 2004).

Also in [Nepal](#), the 1991 and 2001 censuses provided information on ethnicity, caste and religion of the population, along with literacy, educational attainments and professional access. This was used to analyse the inclusion or exclusion and empowerment aspects of Nepal's development efforts by cross-classifying the educational and occupational information with sex, caste and ethnicity (Tanka Prasad Acharya Memorial Foundation, 2008). The literacy rates of the various groups of the population, proportions with graduate and higher degrees and proportions among the combined group of administrators, legislators and politicians, professional and technical workers were used as common indicators of empowerment. A scoring system was developed combining the three indicators.

The findings showed that Brahmin-Chhetri women had better opportunities than men from many other castes and ethnicities but had far less opportunities than men of their own caste or ethnicity. Female scores were much lower than similar male scores in all communities. Women's access to literacy, education and decision-making roles as administrators, legislators, professionals and technicians was far below that of men throughout. There were also wider differences between male and female indices among the Tarai groups in general (10-12 points) and Hill Brahmins, Chhetris and Thakalis, in particular. The differences were highest for the Hill Brahmins (14 points) and lowest for Mushars, with both women and men of this community having low scores. Men from ruling castes/ethnicities were able to take advantage of new openings rapidly, but women were hampered by patriarchal cultural traditions and social responsibilities binding them to the home, and thus the gender disparity tended to widen.

In recent years, there has been a danger with issues of ethnicity, caste and religious discrimination overshadowing the issues of gender discrimination in Nepal. This census analysis proved that although rural/urban/regional divides and caste/ethnicity are major factors in poor access to education and higher-value occupations, gender biases had an equally discriminatory role in all communities.

Composite index of empowerment

According to a UNDP website, the 1995 Human Development Report introduced two measures that highlight the status of women. The first, Gender-Related Development Index (GDI), measures achievement in the same basic capabilities as the Human Development Index (HDI) does, but includes inequality in achievement between women and men. The

methodology used imposes a penalty for inequality: the GDI falls when the achievement levels of both women and men in a country go down or when the disparity between their achievements increases. The greater the gender disparity in basic capabilities, the lower a country's GDI, compared with its HDI. The GDI is not a measure of gender inequality. It is the HDI adjusted for gender disparities in its basic components. The difference or the ratio of two indicators should be used to obtain a measure of gender inequality.¹⁴

The second, the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), looks at agency by evaluating progress in advancing women's standing in political and economic forums. It examines the extent to which women and men participate in economic and political life and take part in decision-making processes. Although the GDI focuses on expansion of capabilities, the GEM is concerned with the use of those capabilities to take advantage of opportunities.¹⁵

Neither the GDI nor the GEM can be calculated exclusively on the basis of typical census data, but typical census data can provide several important components of these composite indices.

For the GDI, the components that are typically available from a census are:

- female life expectancy at birth
- male life expectancy at birth
- female adult literacy rate
- male adult literacy rate
- female gross enrolment ratio
- male gross enrolment ratio.

This leaves "male and female estimated earned income" as components that need to be obtained from other sources.

For calculating the GEM, the available components from census data are:

- female and male shares of positions as legislators, senior officials and managers
- female and male shares of professional and technical positions.

What remains are "female and male shares of parliamentary seats" and "male and female estimated earned income" as components that need to be obtained from other sources.

¹⁴ See UNDP at: http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/indices/gdi_gem/

¹⁵ *ibid.* Details and examples on the actual calculation of the composite indices are available on the UNDP Human Development Report website, at: http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_20072008_Tech_Note_1.pdf

V. TRANSLATING CENSUS RESULTS INTO POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

Census results provide a basis for formulating evidence-based gender-sensitive policies and programmes, provided the data are relevant to gender issues and reflect both women's and men's lives accurately. Additionally, they need to be analysed by social, economic, religious groups or other population subgroups.

Economic activity rates, when correctly reported, can provide valuable input for policy formulation on employment and labour force deployment, social security and labour relations. They also provide the basis for the appropriate design of development programmes to respond to women's and men's needs in a gender-sensitive manner. When women are perceived as not economically active, labour policies fail to address the needs of working women. They are considered as not contributing significantly to the national income, and social security policies fail to reflect their needs. It is important to have extensive, accurate data on economic activity, employment status and occupational distribution. This information typically reveals the gendered nature of the division of work, which forces women into unpaid work in the household. This concluding chapter presents examples from South and West Asia on the usefulness of census results, particularly gender statistics as an advocacy tool in formulating gender-sensitive policies and strategies or to monitor MDG progress as well as other international commitments.

5.1 Policy impact in India

Critical analysis of the growing deficit of girls in the Indian population census resulting from strong societal preference for sons has led to policy changes nationwide. The finding of a substantial decline in the child sex ratio – in the 0–6 years age group – in the 2001 census compared with earlier censuses demonstrated a grim picture of the status of girls in India. The finding was picked up in the media, sparking a major Save the Girl Child campaign to control and monitor female feticide and sex-selective abortion, which resulted in some remedial measures. New legislation further amending the 1997 Act on Regulations of Misuse of Prenatal Diagnostic Techniques was promulgated in 2003 to address existing loopholes and further restrict the use of technology for detecting the sex of the foetus. Instructions were issued to the chief registrar of births and deaths in all states to monitor the monthly sex ratio at birth and to disseminate the data back to the public and government. Individual states developed their own remedial measures, including a publicity campaign to increase awareness against systematic girl feticide.

The census and other national surveys have enabled the Government to formulate gender-sensitive policies and programmes. Gender budgeting also has been vetted by the Parliament and has been made mandatory.

5.2 Policy impact in Nepal

Analysis of the 2001 census data provided evidence of systematic gender and social discrimination in the country, thereby creating a political climate in which gender and inclusion activists and advocates could advance their agenda, which directly or indirectly prompted affirmative actions. For example:

- The information on negligible property ownership of women was a powerful tool in advocacy for changes in the inheritance laws, by which a married woman had no inheritance rights in her parental household. Evidence-based advocacy against discriminatory inheritance practices created some legitimacy to make a strong case with the constitutional experts for inclusion of a clause in the Interim Constitution that daughters will have equal inheritance rights in parental property. Women were

granted 20 per cent rebate on land and property registration. Such rebate has been increased since 2010.

- The analysis of information from the census on the occupational distribution of various caste and ethnic groups and women proved a valuable tool for showing the non-inclusive nature of the Nepalese Civil Service and the small proportion of women's representation in government services, which was an issue of much concern and contention in the early 2000s (TPAMF, 2008; Gurung, 2007; MWCSW/MGEP/UNDP and Sahavagi, 2001). These findings provided a solid basis for government decision-makers to amend the Civil Service Act in 2008 to increase the entry of women and disadvantaged groups in civil service by reservation. A total of 45 per cent of openings filled by open competition are now reserved for inclusion of excluded and marginalized groups¹⁶ and of that, 33 per cent is for women.
- Gender advocates used the data on the low representation of women among high-level administrators, managers, politicians, judges, etc., coupled with other direct information, to demand reservation in the Parliament and constitutional bodies, which led to a 33 per cent reservation in the current Constituent Assembly and Parliament and other political institutions and state organs.
- The information on widows, of which the census is the only statistical source, coupled with intensive studies on the plight of widows, provided an advocacy tool for gender advocates demanding economic support for them. Their advocacy led to the institution of special social security measures for needy widows, such as cash grants and free access to primary health services.
- The census finding of educational disadvantage of various groups within the population and women provided a strong basis for the Interim Constitution to recognize the right to basic education without discrimination. Several education policy initiatives followed and scholarships were vastly expanded.
- Since the early 1980s, the use of census information combined with other intensive studies on women's economic activity rates that illustrate women's contribution to agricultural work (see Acharya, 1979) led to substantive changes in approaches to rural development programmes (UNFPA, 2007) along with reforms in the census definitions and methodology from 1991 onwards.

5.3 Demographic and socio-economic indicators that can be compiled from census data

The following indicators can be compiled from census data disaggregated by sex, age, population groups at national, regional, sub-regional and local levels, many of which cannot be obtained from other smaller surveys and studies for sub-regional and local levels because of the limitations of the sample size.

¹⁶ Other groups for which the seats are reserved are i) Indigenous and ethnic groups (27 per cent), ii) Madeshi (22 per cent), iii) Dalit (9 per cent), iv) differently abled (5 per cent) and v) Backward community (4 per cent). The Backward community includes nine districts from the Mid-Western and Far Western regions.

Demographic

- Mortality rate (crude death rate, age-specific death rate, infant/under-5 and maternal mortality rate), by sex. These parameters can be obtained if special questions are asked in the census.
- Fertility rates (crude birth rate, age-specific fertility rate, child-woman ratio, total fertility rate and marital fertility).
- Marriage patterns (proportion of household members aged 10 years and older currently married, widowed, divorced, separated and single, by age group and sex; proportion of ever-married men and women married more than once; and proportion of currently married men living with more than one spouse and singulate mean age at marriage).
- Migration (internal) rate, destination of internal migrants and reasons for internal migration.
- Dependency ratio (proportion of population younger than 15 years and aged 60 years or older to population aged 15–59 years).

Education

- Gross enrolment ratio at primary level (percentage of pupils, regardless of age, enrolled at the primary level to the number of eligible school-age population at the same level of education), by sex.
- Net enrolment ratio (percentage of primary school-age children enrolled at the primary level. More specifically, this is defined as the number of students in the officially specified age group for a given level of education (such as primary level), expressed as a percentage of the population in the corresponding age group), by sex.
- Enrolment rates of school-age children in different grades.
- Percentage of the population aged 6 years and older who completed primary, secondary, higher secondary and post-secondary levels of education, by sex.

Economic

- Economic activity rate (proportion of population economically active, by sex and age group).
- Percent distribution of economically inactive population, by causes of inactivity.
- Employment status – percentage employed and unemployed.
- Occupational and industrial distribution (percentage) of economically active population.
- Percentage distribution of workers, by status of employment (employer, employee, own account and family workers).

5.4 Use of census data to monitor progress towards the Millennium Development Goals

Census data also can be used to monitor progress towards achieving national and international development goals, including the MDGs. The following are examples of how various indicators that can be obtained from census data may be useful for monitoring progress towards the MDGs (based on data collected by the 1998 census in Pakistan, the 2001 census in Nepal and the 2006 census in the Islamic Republic of Iran).

Census-based indicators to monitor Millennium Development Goals and targets or other similar international commitments

Goals for 2015	Indicators based on census data
<p>Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. Target 1A: Halve the proportion of people with income less than one dollar (at purchasing-power parity) a day and those suffering from hunger from 1990 levels.</p> <p>Target 1B: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young population</p>	<p>1A Proportion of households having the following facilities/amenities, by sex of the household:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • independent kitchen • electricity for light • gas for cooking fuel • bathroom facility • persons living per room, by sex of household head • an independent bedroom • permanent structure (brick, cement/corrugated iron roof and cement, brick or stone) • with thatched roofs and mud floors • consumer durables (radio, television, refrigerator, table/chair, etc.), by sex of household head <p>1B</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refined activity (proportion of population aged 15 years and older who are economically active - persons engaged or intent to engage in the production of goods and services included within the SNA boundary), rate by sex • Unemployment (proportion of labour force who are currently (usually during a reference period) out of work but are available for work and also seeking work), rate by sex • Employment-to-economically active population ratio
<p>Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Net enrolment ratio in primary education, by sex • Literacy rate of 15- to 24-year-olds, by sex • Adult literacy rate (literacy rate of those aged 15 and older), by sex
<p>Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empowerment of women. Target: Eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and to all levels of education no later than 2015.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education (gender parity index=girls/boys) • Ratio of literate women to men among 15- to 24-year-olds • Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (percentage)

<p>Goal 4: Reduce child mortality. Target: Reduce by 2/3 the under-5 mortality rate.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Infant mortality rate • Under-5 mortality rate
<p>Goal 5: Improve maternal health. Target 5.A: Reduce by two thirds the maternal mortality ratio. Target 5.B: Achieve universal access to reproductive health by 2015.</p>	<p>Target 5A</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births) <p>Target 5B</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adolescent (15-19 years) birth rate per 1,000 women
<p>Goal 6: Combat HIV, AIDS, malaria and other diseases. Target 6A: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV. Target 6B: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases.</p>	
<p>Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability. Target 7A: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources. Target 7B: Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss. Target 7C: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation.</p> <p>Target 7D: By 2020 achieve a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers.</p>	<p>7C</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proportion of households with access to safe drinking water source • Proportion of households with access to improved sanitation facility • Average annual population growth rate • Population density <p>7D</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proportion of urban population living in slums

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ANNEX 1.1: EXPERIENCES IN TRAINING OF CENSUS OFFICIALS IN SOUTH AND WEST ASIA

Training census officials in the Islamic Republic of Iran

Training of top-level management: The Statistical Centre of Iran (SCI) organized a four-day gender-sensitizing workshop for senior and mid-level officials on the need for gender statistics, including census data, for gender-sensitive policy formulation and programme planning, with support from UNFPA and technical assistance from an international gender expert. Topics such as the need for gender statistics, gender concepts, gender equality, women's empowerment, gender analysis, gender issues in general and their relevance to census taking and policymaking were included in the training. Two central-level SCI officials went to India and Nepal to learn firsthand from the census and gender experiences there.

Training of technical staff: Training was conducted at different levels, ranging from central-level senior officials at the SCI to provincial staff, master trainers, census enumerators and supervisors. Nine master trainers were trained on various aspects of census and gender, with the help of an international gender expert. The training covered gender issues in general and their relevance to census taking in the Iran context, the importance of gender statistics, concepts, the definition of work and other gender-related topics that could be incorporated into the 2006 Population and Housing Census. Training also involved mock interview sessions in which trainees were divided into interviewers and interviewees and practised questions and answers related to gender concerns in census data. A similar short-term (five days) sensitizing workshop was organized for 100 provincial officials of SCI. The master trainers provided the training at the provincial level.

Training of census enumerators and supervisors: A joint team of central and provincial staff, including master trainers, provided training separately for the census enumerators and supervisors on the concepts and definitions of all topics, particularly gender issues within the context of the census questionnaires and interview methods. Eventually, 65,000 enumerators who would conduct the census around the country were trained. The enumerators and supervisors as well as interviewees were highly sensitized to gender issues; keen to be involved, a Member of the Parliament became a census supervisor in his constituency at the time.

Training census officials in India

A decision was made at the very beginning of planning for the 2001 census to pay adequate attention to gender responsiveness, and a special unit was created at the Office of the Registrar General in 1999 to coordinate the efforts. The possible reasons for gender bias in different parts of the country were explored and appropriate methodologies to cope with them were developed. Interactions with other relevant agencies and NGOs in the field worked towards effective implementation. Sensitization was imparted through training at all levels, from senior officers involved in the census to the enumerators. The directors of census operations and other senior functionaries involved in census taking at the state level were sensitized through in-depth discussions on gender issues in general and within the context of the census questionnaires, such as name, sex ratio, age, literacy, marital status and female work participation for their own states, enabling them to understand and appreciate the problems in proper perspective. Census advisors recruited from retired government officers were deployed to 200 critical districts with poor gender statistics, such as low sex ratios, low female literacy rates and low female labour force participation rates in the 1991 census, to train the field workers and master trainers on gender issues.

Training census officials in the Maldives

Gender-responsive exercises for the 2006 census began in July 2005 – the first-ever attempt to take gender issues into consideration in the census process. The gender process was funded by UNFPA and executed jointly by the Ministry of Planning and National Development and the Ministry of Women's Affairs and Social Security. The exercises focused on raising awareness of ministry officials on the need for gender statistics, capacity building of the census officials, revision of the questionnaires and manual to make them more gender sensitive and training of trainers and enumerators on gender-related issues in the census.

The activities included: A two-day consultative meeting in July 2005 in Kathmandu, which included participants from Bhutan and Afghanistan. Technical support for the meeting was provided by UNFPA advisers for gender and population and development. The workshop aimed at working through the census preparation process, identifying and defining the specific gender-related inputs that were required at each stage of the census operation for the Maldives and reviewing the Maldives' census questionnaires for possible revisions from a gender perspective. Discussions focused on the review of the current situation and options for change. A review of the census questionnaires was done to clarify:

- which culture, gender and human rights issues were covered
- existing data gaps on gender and social exclusion issues, and methods of addressing them
- lessons learned from previous censuses regarding the usefulness of census data to address gender and social development issues.

A review of the census process was conducted to find possible elements for change in light of lessons from the Kathmandu workshop. Discussions covered the questionnaires, definitions, classification schedules, manuals, publicity, management, field staff, tabulation, analysis, dissemination plans and advocacy for policy formulation.

The workshop participants prepared an agreed upon implementing plan to incorporate the required changes. The existing work plan was revised and a new plan agreed upon for activities. This workshop also identified the need for additional support from consultants, the UNFPA Country Support Team and others, technical inputs by gender and population and development experts and the required or desired institutional arrangements.

The next step was a two-day gender sensitizing orientation workshop for senior officials of the Ministry of Planning and National Development and other government officials (August 2005). A resource person from the UNFPA Country Support Team provided the main conceptual input. The Ministers of Planning and National Development and Gender and Family participated in some of the sessions. Participants were mainly from the Ministry of Planning and National Development. The workshop objectives were to:

- increase awareness on gender roles and positions among stakeholders
- develop skills in assessing gender-related projects
- develop skills in determining gender-related needs in developing tools for population census
- develop skills in mainstreaming gender needs into government programmes.

Presentations and discussions centred on clarifying the concept of gender and sensitizing the participants to various gender issues. Topics discussed included gender stereotyping, gender relations, gender roles and their implications for women and men, socially allocated gender-specific tasks and the need to balance them, women's work and employment patterns, the lack of their presence in decision-making roles, issues of empowerment and concepts of basic and strategic needs, etc. At the end of the workshop, plans to integrate gender into

government policies and programmes were developed and important gender-related issues to be explored in the census specified.

Finally, a gender training workshop for the trainers of the 2006 census was organized in Male (November 2006). The main focus of the lectures and discussions were the gender-related issues involved in the questionnaires and manual. Two international experts, sponsored each by UNFPA and UNIFEM, acted as resource persons and led the discussions. This workshop aimed to:

- Make the participants aware of the importance of gender-sensitive data and collection of correct information for government policies and programmes, to further clarify the concept of gender and its impact on data collection and analysis and to discuss specific issues related to the questions in the census instruments and the training manual.
- Introduce a separate gender manual and hand-outs.
- Develop skills of the master trainers for training supervisors and enumerators.
- Review and discuss and get inputs from the participants to finalize the training materials for the supervisors and enumerators' training.

Topics of discussion included gender-related commitments and policies of the Maldives, the importance of data for policies and programmes, the division of labour, social perceptions about them and realities on the ground and the invisibility of women in economic statistics. United Nations and ILO-defined concepts of economic and non-economic activities formed the basis on which discussions were focused. These issues were discussed in the context of the questionnaires and manual developed for the 2006 census.

The methodology of training was participatory, focusing on necessary lectures, exercises, hand-outs and group work on various related issues. These were supported by documentary films and posters from India, Maldives and Nepal and role playing to improve the participants' training skills. Use of posters was extensively discussed, specifically for work-related issues, and a draft poster was developed by the participant that was used in the 2006 census process.

At the end of the training, a suggested gender manual and hand-outs were prepared by the consultants for the training of supervisors and enumerators. Discussions on how to administer the gender training were also part of the training, which focused on:

- understanding where probing questions were needed
- understanding the kind of gender sensitivity demanded by the questionnaires.

Hand-outs distributed in the training related to:

- reasons for making a census gender responsive
- concepts of gender and sex and their social implications
- definition of economic and non-economic activities
- census questionnaires and manual
- a list of proverbs and a list of women's likely economic activities specific to the Maldives
- a module for the training of supervisors and enumerators with more simplified hand-outs on the above topics and instructions on how to administer the questions and likely gender-related issues that needed specific attention while asking the questions.

Training census officials in Nepal

The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) organized two workshops on gender concepts: one for senior officers and the other for mid-level officers. The focus of the training was to create

awareness on gender issues. A local NGO conducted the gender training. The first workshop was inaugurated by the prime minister, which had huge positive impact on generating support for the exercise. In addition to training, senior CBS staff were sent abroad to learn from the census and gender experiences in India and Pakistan.

The training of other census staff was conducted at three levels. At the central level, the training was given to master trainers and the district census officers who in turn trained area and district supervisors. An NGO supplied gender expertise in these trainings, focusing inputs on a supplementary training manual on gender-related issues.

The supplementary manual incorporated a short introduction to the Government's national and international commitments to gender equality, the need for authentic information for government policy and programme formulation and monitoring, and the role of census as a source of such information. Other topics covered included United Nations and ILO definitions of economic and non-economic activities, household heads, etc.; the concepts of gender and sex; and the impact of gender ideology and value systems on social behaviour, including those of the census officials, enumerators and respondents and their likely impact on the census information collection, processing and analysis. A total of 26,000 manuals were distributed to supervisors and the enumerators alongside the main manual.

Area and district supervisors trained enumerators at the sub-district level, with help from gender experts, particularly in Tarai areas. About 25,000 personnel were trained in sessions ranging from one to three weeks. The main objective of the training was to maintain uniformity in the use of census concepts and definitions and to systematize the enumeration work.

ANNEX 1.2: EXAMPLE OF A TRAINING PACKAGE ADAPTED FROM MALDIVES 2006 CENSUS

Annex 1.2a: Draft outline for a three-day training of senior officers and master trainers

Day 1	Objectives	Content	Methodology	Materials
Opening session	To understand the importance of gender-sensitive data collection for government policies and programmes	Importance of gender training for the census officials Commitment of the Government for gender and development	Address senior government officials from the Planning and Gender Ministries	Hand-outs on commitment of the Government
	To inform master trainers on the workshop and gender training objectives	Training and workshop outline	Presentation by the Statistical Office	
Theme 1 Session I	Getting into the subject matter - statistics on women	Quiz - to update on the status of women in the country	Quiz hand-outs and facilitation of understanding of gender issues in the country	Quiz and answers and MDG hand-outs Other relevant materials
Theme 1 Session II	To enable participants to understand the importance of correct data collection for policies and programmes	Concept of gender and likely impact of gender roles on data collection Importance of data for policies and programmes	PPP - presentation by gender and census expert	Hand-outs on gender and why the need for gender-responsive census
Theme 1 Session III	To clarify concepts of gender and its impact on data collection and analysis	Social perceptions on the divisions of labour	Exercise	Hand-outs on the concept of gender and sex and their implications for census
Theme 2 Session I	To understand the current situation of data generation	Invisibility of women in conventional statistics	PPP presentation followed by discussion/Q&A - by gender and census expert	

Day 2	Objectives	Content	Methodology	Materials
Review previous day's sessions	To recall important issues discussed	Concepts of gender, issues of women's invisibility in statistics and how they relate to the census	Presentation by two participants	
Theme 3 Session I	To understand gender concerns in the questionnaires and the regulation	Presentation on other country experiences on making the census gender responsive and results obtained	Experience sharing and discussion - led by the gender and census expert	Census 2001 and IEC materials from Maldives 2006 census and other countries
Theme 3 Session II	To discuss the questionnaires and manual	Opening discussion on the questionnaires and the manual	Group work	Census questionnaires and manual
Tea break, audio-visual shows				
Theme 3 Session III	Group work, presentation and discussions			

Day 3	Objectives	Content	Methodology	Materials
Review of previous day's session	To clarify key issues	Review of previous day's session	To clarify key issues	Review of previous day's session
Theme 4	To introduce the suggested gender manual and hand-outs for the supervisors and the enumerators' training To develop skills of the master trainers for effective training of the supervisors and enumerators	Contents of the manual for supervisors and enumerators training will follow the discussions in preceding sessions - to understand where probing questions are needed - to understand the kind of sensitivity the questions demand - to understand the importance of rapport building	Discussion on how to administer the gender training	Draft outline of the one-day training and related materials distributed Hand-outs, list of proverbs, list of women's activities
Practical session I	To experience and learn from practical work	Finalization of the gender training manual for supervisors and enumerators	Group work on practical gender training by three groups	Gender training checklist, hand-outs, materials
Cont. practical session II	To clarify problems and finalize sessions on gender training manual for supervisors and enumerators' training	Discussion on the gender training manual and methodology of training delivery	Presentation by the groups as trainers - (role-play) discussions	Gender training, checklist, hand-outs and materials
Concluding session	To summarize the workshop feedback of the training and workshop	Summary presentation and discussions	Experts from the Statistical Office	

Annex 1.2b: Draft schedule for one-day gender training of the supervisors and the enumerators adapted from Maldives 2006 census

Sessions	Objectives	Content	Methodology	Materials	Remarks
Thematic session I	To enable supervisors and enumerators to understand the importance of gender-sensitive and correct data collection for policies and programmes	Commitments of the Government for gender equality	Lecture	Gender and development Policy and MDG challenges for gender and development	Contents of the presentation of the Minister and other High-level officials
	Getting into the subject matter statistics on women To clarify concepts of gender and its impact on data collection	Quiz to update on gender-related information Concepts of gender and the importance of gender training for the census	Exercise Presentation	Quiz on status of women Hand-outs on gender and importance of gender training for the census (first part of the Annex 1.2 e)	Use checklist
Thematic session II	To clarify the concepts of economic and non-economic activities in a gender perspective	Social perceptions on the division of labour, the invisibility of women's work and the concept of economic and non-economic activities	Brief presentation	Note on concept of economic activity (Annex 1.4b and c)	
			Q&A	Exercise on the divisions of labour Check list on kinds of economic work usually performed by women (to be developed specifically as per the country situation).	
Working session	To understand gender concerns in the questionnaires and the regulation To develop the skills required for gender-sensitive enumeration	Gender-sensitive issues in the questionnaires and the manual and the role of the supervisors and enumerators	Presentation	Questionnaires and the manual of Maldives 2006 census	Follow checklist
		Practice on getting proper responses on gender-sensitive issues	Role-play on employment and marriage Discussion and clarifications	Notes on the gender-sensitive questions relevant for the country concerned	Observations on role-play can be further discussed to clarify issues

Annex 1.2c: Potential issues for a quiz

1. Sex ratio of the population
2. Percentage of female-headed household
3. Percentage of households with mothers out of the region or country for work
4. Out of a totalseats of the parliament, women holdof them
5. Percentage of women in the Cabinet
6. The country's gender-related MDGs

True or false questions

1. All male-headed household have higher income than female-headed households.
2. More women are poorer than men.
3. Few women contribute to household income.
4. The majority of women do not work.
5. The majority of working women work in the formal sector.
6. There are almost equal proportion of women in the professional categories - government high-level positions, doctors, engineers and professionals.
7. There is equal access to education for men and women.
8. Literacy rates for men and women are equal.
9. Women are technically well trained human resources.
10. More women have higher educational attainments than men.
11. More female children are affected by malnutrition.
12. More female children lack access to resources for health care.
13. Women live longer than men.
14. Similar to women all over the world, women here experience gender-based violence within their homes, public spaces, in the workplace and within the community in general.
15. The country is a signatory of CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action.

Annex 1.2d: Training of trainers PowerPoint

Training of Trainers

Handout

Dr. Meena Acharya

Statistical Section-MPND
Male' Republic of Maldives

2011/05

Social Perception about Male / Female qualities

Women	Men
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Weak, tender, needing protection - Embodiment of love and kindness - To be traveled to husband' house on marriage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strong, brave - Less kind and loving - Heading the household - Earner to suppo family members

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Have to be economically supported by others. - Not expected to attack back even when attacked 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expected to defend himself and his interest when attacked. - Owner of property and some time women as well patriarchs
--	--

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Not able to manage property - Nor expected to talk loudly, nor assert. - Lack capacity to manage social relation. - Weakling, always ready to weep on small things. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expected to make himself herd assertive. - Able to protect, family, self and the nation. - Can to ternate pain no weeping
--	---

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Not patient - No able to keep secrets, nor intelligent or wisdom. - Responsibility to manage house. - Not able to plough, to operate machines. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Patient - Wiser than women intelligent - Allowed to marry as many times as desires. - Able to control technology.
---	--

Concepts of Gender and Sex and their Social Implications

```

    graph TD
      Gender[Gender: Changeable with time, As per different Traditional & Culture] --> Male[Male: Female dress, malehood, Social Behavioral expectation, Qualities expected]
      Gender --> Female[Female: Female dress, femalehood, Social Behavioral expectation, Qualities expected]
      Sex[Sex: Natural, Not changeable, No imports of tradition culture] --> Male
      Sex --> Female
      Male --> Concepts[Concepts of 'men' and 'women' - difficult per time/culture/tradition/environment]
      Female --> Concepts
      Concepts --> Labor[Division of Labor: Males expected to work in public area, It is a matter of honor not to send women to work in public area]
      Concepts --> Perception[Social perception about male/female qualities and capacities]
  
```

Dimensions of Differentiation & Behavioral Expectations

```

    graph TD
      Sex[Sex] --- Gender[GENDER]
      Region[Region / Location / Island] --- Gender
      Class[Class] --- Gender
  
```

Annex 1.2e: Why make a census gender-sensitive and how PowerPoint¹⁷

Why Engendering Census and How

Lecture 2
Dr.Meena Acharya

Statistical Section-MPND
Male', Republic of Maldives

21/11/05

Why Engendering Census

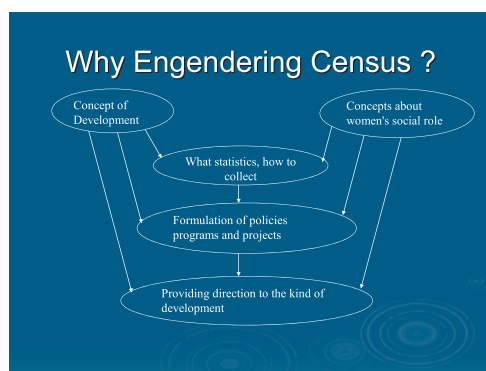
- Census provides basic information for all kinds of measurements -social and economic development
- Such information forms the basis for all social and economic policies
- Because of western/social concepts about women's work and the traditional practice of their real economic roles and contributions to family income and well being ignored.

- Because statistics influence social conceptions in their turn and need to change those perceptions as per reality
- Incorrect statistics can lead to wrong decisions - e.g. women's traditional development projects.
- Incorrect statistics may lead to wrong policies an employment technology, credit training and other inputs in agriculture, (Please give Maldives examples).

Kinds of Statistics

1. Population – head count by sex, age structure, residence etc.
2. Education---access, literacy, levels and kinds of education etc.
3. Health --- access, morbidity, mortality, disease, life expectancy etc.

4. Economic assets and opportunities
-Ownership of house, land, credit, other resources, economic work and employment, poverty etc.
5. Social Status – Marriage age, kind of marriage, violence, crime, education etc.
6. Political status- share in decision making roles at all levels in public arena
7. Other.



¹⁷ The use of the term "engendering" in the context of strengthening the gender relevance of census operations was discontinued several years ago after its misuse was pointed out. It was replaced by the term "genderizing", which is more correct linguistically, although some people regard it as an odd, jargon term not found in dictionaries.

Engendering Process

- Having all statistics sex disaggregated
- Collecting new kinds of statistics relevant to women, e. g. polygamy, unpaid and household economic activities etc
- Making the tools and instruments of data / information collection more gender sensitive – Population Census 2006.

- Redefining the concepts and categories to make them more gender sensitive to reflect both Male and Female Realities by:
 - Content
 - Processes of data collection
 - Methods of data collection – quantitative / qualitative, e.g. economic activity rates, household work etc.

- How we present them – inherent gender issues: in methodology of presentation itself. Are they useful for gender analysis? Do they capture social dimensions and incorporate gender perspective?
Examples - Education, household income, nutritional status, disease, IMR, Nutrition status of children etc.

- How do we collect them:
 - The enumerators – gender balance
 - Training of the trainers
 - The questionnaires -gender sensitivity
 - Whether the preconceptions – enumerators and the respondents classified?

Concluding Remarks

- This exercise is not for improving a few questions in census, but for changing the character of census itself to make it more gender sensitive.
 - Changing our own perspective on the information we collect and analyze.
- This is not only for changing the census – but for gender sensitizing everything Statistical Section does.

- On the whole, it is for prompting you to think a little bit differently about our social structure, our behavior pattern and our outlook.
- The Information Revolution and the reality of “Information Power”.
 - Increased information processing capability but what we put in the computer is still human responsibility.

Annex 1.2f: Training of trainers PowerPoint

Training of Trainers

Lecture 3

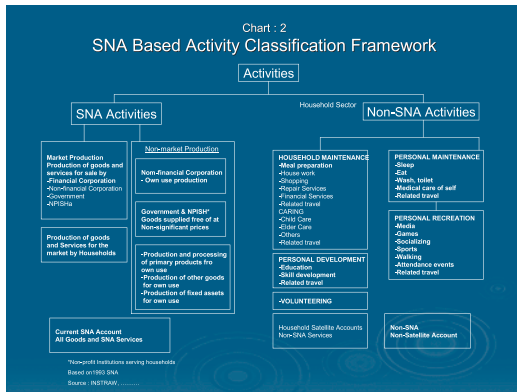
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Male', Republic of Maldives

20/11/05

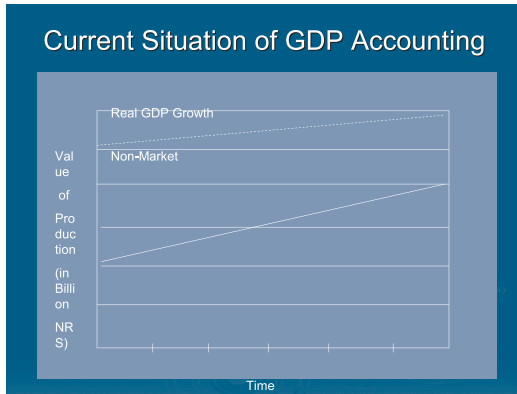
Definition of Economic / non-economic activities

- Realities of developing countries changing concepts 1929, 1969 & 2003.
- Capitalist production system & market oriented definitions.
- Not matching to developing country realities
- Learning out the production economic work within the household.



The concept of product & service accounting

GDP Sectors	SECTORS				
	Agriculture Y1 P1	Industry Y2P2	Services Y3P3	Trade, ... etc. Y4P4	Total output $\sum Y_i P_i$
Agriculture (xi)					
Industry					
Services					
Trade, ... etc.					
(Xm)					
Total Inputs					
Labors (Ln)	L1				
	L2				
	...				
	Ln				
Total labor Inputs					
Amortization					
Grand Total					



Why we need to know about all work

- More accurate data on human production activities- employment, unemployment, underemployment.
- More accurate estimates of gross domestic product / national income etc.
- More accurate picture of growth process and an unbiased picture of development.

- Measuring voluntary and community services.
- For making appropriate policies on women's and children's employment, education, investment decisions (e.g. transportation-Nepal case) etc.
- Issues of work burden & leisure time distribution

ANNEX 1.3: EXPERIENCES IN GENDER SENSITIZING CENSUS QUESTIONNAIRES AND MANUALS

Nepal's experience

Nepal exercise is considered one of the most successful in the region in terms of the gender-sensitive outputs it produced and in terms of the knowledge that is retained in the statistical office. As a consequence of the long drawn-out exercise extending over two years, officials of the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) in Nepal were also greatly gender sensitized. The draft manual and questionnaires produced by the statistical office for the 2011 census were a much improved version of 2001 manual in terms of explanations and clarifications on the gender-related issues.

The first big step was to hire gender experts by the Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare, UNDP and the Mainstreaming Gender Equity Programme to assist the CBS in the gendering-sensitizing exercise. When Sahavagi, an NGO, was requested to review and rewrite the questionnaires and the manual for the CBS, the staff disagreed with the modality of support and made a counter proposal that involved longer-term involvement of its gender experts with CBS to review the 1991 census questionnaires and manuals and identify gender issues for the questionnaires and manual for the 2001 census. The CBS agreed and consequently the CBS officials prepared the questionnaires and the manuals with continuous input from the Sahavagi gender expert. This interactive process enriched the questionnaires and manuals and helped CBS officials to comprehend and integrate gender perspectives.

The process of determining gender gaps in the census and concepts was intensely interactive. The idea was to not only make the outcome gender responsive but also to genderize the whole process of preparation, implementation and final data processing and to gender sensitize the CBS as an institution. Determining the gender-related gaps in the questionnaires (November–December 1998) and manuals involved two workshops and the writing of a series of theme papers by joint teams of CBS and gender experts.

The first workshop was devoted to gender orientation of the statisticians working on GDP and census, particularly to clarify the new concepts of GDP and labour as expounded by the 1993 SNA and the ILO's Employment Manual (1992) and to constitute teams for writing the theme papers. Officials from India and Pakistan were invited to share their experiences. The gender experts had opportunity through the workshop to orient themselves on the concepts involved in the census and its processes. After a presentation and discussion on theoretical concepts, such as production boundary and SNA boundaries set by the SNA and their relevance for the population census, four teams of two persons each, consisting of one subject matter specialist from the CBS and one gender expert, were selected to write four papers, reviewing the 1991 questionnaires and manuals and recommending necessary reforms for the 2001 census. The topics selected for the four papers were: i) social aspects and the household rostrum, ii) agriculture, iii) manufacturing and iv) services. These papers were discussed intensively in the next two-day workshop that took place a month later and involving the whole CBS census staff.

The papers took the questionnaire forms, manuals and publicity materials used in the 1991 census as the basis for their study, discussions and recommendations on refinements, additions and reforms in the census procedures, definitions, concepts and instruments for the 2001 census. The 2001 questionnaires and manuals were prepared, incorporating many of those recommendations.

The major focus was on improving the quality of data by better explanations, clarifications on the concepts of head of the households, economic and non-economic activities, ethnicity/caste, language; better examples to illustrate women performing economic activities, women

heads of the household, caste of the children from inter-caste marriage, death records and causes of death; better publicity on gender-related issues; intensive training, etc. Particular attention was devoted to expanding the concept of economic activity to cover "new" activities, such as water and fuel collection and processing of the market purchased goods for household use as per the 1993 SNA, and making the concept of economic activities and sector demarcations much clearer. Management and training needs were also extensively discussed. The need for female enumerators was emphasized.

On the basis of the recommendations, an internal committee of CBS personnel on the census prepared the first draft of the questionnaires and the associated manual. The draft questionnaires and the manual were reviewed several times by the Sahavagi gender expert and amendments recommended. The questionnaires and the manual were amended accordingly several times. After the first draft was ready, a meeting was organized by CBS involving the collaborating UN agencies, the gender expert and the CBS personnel. These instruments were further revised to incorporate the comments and the recommendations received in that meeting. They were further revised after the pilot field testing in which gender experts also participated.

Results of the process to sensitize the census questionnaires and manuals:

- Clear instruction and examples of women-headed households.
- Causes of death and clear instruction to record all deaths.
- Importance of identifying house, land and livestock in female ownership.
- Migration information with examples, clear instructions to avoid double counting.
- Clear instruction to record destination of the absentees.
- Additional response categories and explanations and illustrations on issues of polyandry, polygyny, stepchildren and orphans.
- Expanded definitions of economic activities as per the SNA 1993
- Examples of women enterprise owners/operators, with explanation that they need not be men only.
- More examples with women and children's likely economic, extended economic and non-economic activities. A list of likely activities and occupations were thoroughly revised to include activities typical to Nepal, such as liquor making, sweets making, food processing for local sale (halawaii, roadside liquor seller, food seller, etc.), porters, bullock cart operators, rickshaw pullers, dhobi (clothes washer), domestic worker, rather than copying the ILO list in totality, which focuses on occupations mostly found in industrialized countries.¹⁸
- Clearer instructions on recording occupations and sectors of work. The manual was made clearer on the basis of occupational classification or sectors of work, dropping the work or income explanations, as in the 1991 manual. Examples were given to avoid any misunderstanding, such as between trading vegetables and growing the same vegetable.
- Clearer definitions and explanations. For example in the 1991 census, service was expected to be performed for "service charge" (sewa sulka). It was not explained that service charge can be both in cash and kind. Such confusions were clarified.

¹⁸ For example, in earlier occupational lists in Nepal the category of halwaii, or porters, was mentioned nowhere, while bakery and railway station master figured prominently. As a consequence in the 1981 census, only 600 bakers were registered. It is clear that halwais were not included in this category because every village has at least one halwaii and there are thousands of such villages. Generically, they should have been included in the category of backers. Similarly, Nepal has thousands of people working as porters and only one railway station master. Porters should have been classified among the transport workers, while the station master could have been included in the category of managers. Such inconsistencies are expected to have been resolved now.

- More probing questions. For example, in the definition of “older person” in the 1991 manual, if a person older than 60 received a pension and declared herself/himself economically not active, she/he was considered economically inactive automatically. In 2001, further probing was required to find out whether she/he looked after household agriculture, business, etc.
- Many of the explanations were illustrated with pictures.

Maldives' experience

Initial drafts of the questionnaires and manual were sent to Meena Acharya in Nepal. Before she went to Maldives, she sent her initial comments on them. After the initial input by Dr Acharya, second draft questionnaires emerged. This second draft was intensely discussed by the participants in the trainers' training, after Dr Acharya's lecture on the conceptual clarifications on SNA production boundaries; ILO definitions and a review of experience from other countries of the region and their relevance to Maldives situation. It emerged that some of the issues from Nepal or India were relevant to Maldives but others were not. For example, because in Maldives, agriculture (excluding fishing, considered a separate industry) contributed only 2.5-3 per cent of GDP, the questions on economic activity could be limited to market work and work in informal household enterprises in which women were perceived to be concentrated but underreported in the census. Similarly, carrying water and fuel was not a substantial activity in Maldives, while it took a big chunk of time of Nepal's rural women.

Intra-country migration of males for work was a bigger problem in Maldives than in Nepal, giving rise to an imbalance in the male-female distribution of the population.

The questionnaires were thoroughly revised as a consequence of intensive interaction between the consultants and the statistical team to:

- add a question on women's ownership of house
- to clarify the questions on household heads
- collecting more detailed information on relationship to the household head
- to clarify the questions on the concept of economic activities so that women's informal work could be captured better – the original question asked about paid and unpaid work, which was not clarified very well; the revised questionnaires, instead of asking paid or unpaid work, asked about the kind of work women did during the previous week
- to collect information on subsistence agricultural activities of the households
- to lower the age limit for collection of information on marital status of women from 18 and above to 15 and above
- to add pictures to the manual
- to add many gender-sensitive responses to many questions with instructions for deeper probing
- to clarify many of the migration questions and add marriage as a cause of migration, also specification of other causes that may include domestic violence.

Further gender-sensitizing activities included:

- Preparing a gender training module and training materials for the enumerators.
- Preparing a poster on activities, separating clearly their economic and non-economic classifications.
- Making the overall report on the population more gender sensitive in terms of sex-disaggregated analysis and gender issues covered. For example, analysing the ownership of house, household amenities and possession of consumer durables by head of the household.

- Adding a gender chapter to the report to bring out the greater economic activity of the women but their concentration in low-paying jobs and gender issues, such as household chores, as the major cause for women in withdrawal from labour force in contrast to the study for men.

Islamic Republic of Iran's experience

A former UNFPA Country Support Team Adviser on Population and Development, based in Kathmandu, prepared a set of recommendations for improving the quality of the 2006 Population and Housing Census data in general and making the census data more gender responsive, in full cognizance of a series of discussions conducted with various experts in the field of population and related areas at the Statistical Centre of Iran (SCI). During the consultation period, the adviser met the SCI-based experts' group to review and discuss gender dimension of each question, sub-question and its response categories stipulated in the 2006 Population and Housing Census. Discussions were engaged to identify a minimum number of additional questions and revisions in manuals of enumerators and supervisors that would be required to further gender sensitize the 2006 census data. In those deliberations, the adviser highlighted experiences and lessons from other countries and examined their relevance in the socio-cultural context of the Islamic Republic of Iran, with all experts present in the discussion meetings. Appropriate recommendations for modifications of the census questionnaires emerged. On the final day of discussion, the recommendations were reviewed by the experts' group, word for word, to ensure that they truly reflected the opinion of all experts present. The recommendations were finally adopted through that consensus process.

The recommendations related to: i) modifications of the proposed pilot census questions on household head, property ownership, housing quality, marital pattern, age at first marriage, internal migration and reason for migration, literacy, number of children ever born and surviving and labour force participation status; ii) additional questions, such as living arrangement of children younger than 16 years, by sex and number of deaths, and causes of death, by sex in the past 12 months; and iii) revision of enumerators' and supervisors' manuals, particularly those related to definitions of household head, economic activity, economically active and extended economic activities.

Results of altering the census questionnaires and manuals in Iran:

- Revised definition of work in line with the 1993 SNA to capture paid and unpaid as well as part-time work. Women usually work on the farm, family enterprise formally and/or informally within the precinct of the household or outside but had remained unaccounted for in the census and Labour Force Survey.
- Work was defined as participation in any economically productive activities with or without compensation, wages or profit and it was specified that such participation may be physical and/or managerial in nature. It includes as well part-time help or unpaid work on farm, family enterprises or any other economic activities, which are produced for household consumption, such as production of milk, even solely for self or domestic consumption, food processing, water and fuel collection, production of primary agricultural goods,¹⁹ such as grains, fruits, vegetables, milk, meat, butter, sweets making, preservation, vegetables and pickles and goods produced for the market, such as preparation of basket and related work, making handicraft from wood and related materials and weaving. Domestic services, such as cooking, cleaning,

¹⁹ This was a SNA activity by 1968 and recommended in The UN Statistical Division's Manual on Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Census (2008) but was not included in Iran so far.

childcare, teaching own children, transporting self/family members, were not considered economically productive.

- A list of paid and unpaid economic activities, which women were likely to do formally or informally within the precinct of the household or outside but were not captured in the census, was prepared and included in the enumerator's and supervisor's manual to help them to correctly recording women's participation in economic activities by asking probing questions.
- Visuals (pictures/sketches) of paid and unpaid economic activities, which women do formally or informally within the precinct of the household or outside, was prepared and included in the census manual. Posters using these visuals portraying women's work were produced and distributed to create awareness among public on women's work and encourage women to mention their work.
- The answer category to the question on marital status was expanded to include frequency (number) of marriages to capture polygamy.
- Definition of head of household was well delineated with clear instructions to supervisors/enumerators to avoid the tendency to automatically considering a senior male member of the household as head of the household without checking his/her role and responsibilities as head of the household. It was specifically mentioned that a female member can also be head of the household if she performs the expected roles and responsibilities pertaining to the position.
- A new question on reasons for migration was recommended, which included gender-based violence and marriage as possible reasons.
- A new question on presence of the mother in the household was recommended to examine the effect of mother's presence in the household on children's school enrolment; particularly girls' school enrolment and continuation.
- The questions on live births and their living arrangements were reworded and reclassified to further improve upon the quality of information on children ever born and surviving by ensuring no lapses occur in counting these children by asking separately their present living arrangement by sex of the child - son and daughter. This will minimize undercounting of children, particularly female children to arrive at reliable estimate of number of children ever born and surviving by sex.
- A new question on living arrangement of children was recommended for inclusion in the questionnaire.
- The instruction manuals for enumerators and supervisors were revised to incorporate gender dimensions in census data collection.

ANNEX 1.4: PRE-CENSUS COMMUNICATION EXPERIENCES

Nepal

The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) made intensive efforts on pre-census communication. These included: i) constitution of a media group consisting of representatives of major newspapers in the Government and private sector, the news agency, Radio Nepal, Nepal Television and Ministry of Information, under the chair of its director-general, to provide technical guidance to CBS in the preparation of pre-census communication strategies, publicity materials and in the choice of appropriate media. The Media Group met several times before finally deciding on media campaign strategy and census publicity materials based on recommendations of various expert and officials' meetings, as outlined below. ii) organizing a one-day brainstorming seminar with different representatives from the Government, national and international NGOs and the media, with the focus on integrating gender concerns into the 2001 census. The seminar participants reviewed the publicity campaigns of earlier censuses and outlined a media campaign strategy. iii) a two-day high-level national workshop, consisting of senior CBS officials, media representatives, senior officials of other related government agencies, experts and representatives of the United Nations, including experts from India and Pakistan, was organized to prepare guidelines for developing the census publicity material at the national, district and local levels. The workshop provided practical guidelines for developing appropriate census publicity materials concerning gender issues and recommended for constitution of technical subcommittees for publicity material development.

Finally, technical subcommittees were formed to prepare publicity materials and develop a publicity programme for the census. The programme focused on creating public awareness about the census and on soliciting respondents' cooperation and understanding in answering the census questions, including those gender-related concerns such as work. To help enumerators and respondents grasp difficult concepts, like work, used in the census, sketches were prepared and included in the enumerator's manual for the first time. This is believed to have greatly improved the data quality.

Gender-specific publicity material, particularly posters (see annex 1.4a), showing women as household heads and women performing various non-marketed economic activities like food processing, agricultural cropping, weaving clothes, fetching water, fuel wood collection and tutoring other's children were produced. These materials were widely distributed across the country and displayed throughout the enumeration period.

A TV spot called "Tatha-Chetna" was made to raise awareness among the general public on gender-specific concepts, like household head and non-marketed economic activities. The TV spot was frequently replayed during the census period and as a video was shown to rural people in public places. As part of raising greater public awareness and understanding of census topics, including concepts like household and work, census questionnaires were published twice in the Gorkhapatra, the leading national daily, just ahead of the census enumeration phase. This brought about wider publicity of the census questionnaires due to the huge newspaper coverage. In addition, census-related articles, sponsored by the CBS, were published in various leading national daily, weekly, quarterly and monthly newspapers and magazines, beginning almost a year before the census.

India²⁰

Steps were taken to sensitize the public to gender-related issues through a publicity campaign focused on women's contribution in various economic activities. Special posters illustrating

²⁰ For a detailed account on the preparations for India's 2001 census, see: www.paris21.org/sites/default/files/180.doc

unpaid work done by women were prepared and widely displayed to create awareness. Thirty-two such illustrative sketches were prepared in 16 languages to show women engaged in different activities, formally or informally, within the precincts of the household or outside, by lending a helping hand to their male counterparts or by themselves.

A number of audio and video spots and jingles appealing to women to come forward and report their economic activity were produced and relayed through the radio and television networks. These audio-visual advertisements were anchored by several well-known women personalities. A number of articles dedicated to women's issues, paying special attention to counting women and girls, and the unpaid work women do were published in regional vernacular languages as well as in English.

A special census 2001 logo figured prominently to focus attention on this effort towards making the census gender responsive. The logo was conceived as the flag-bearer for the census of India and contained four figures – two females and two males – symbolizing the ideal family size, gender-balanced sex composition and a woman in front, leading the march into the twenty-first century. The gender-sensitive logo was extensively used for all official stationery and publicity material. A special census postage stamp was released using the logo.

The president of India, the first lady and family, were enumerated by a woman enumerator. The photograph, published extensively by the media, had a positive impact not only in boosting people's participation in the census exercise but also in symbolizing the importance of women – as workers and as respondents – in the census process

Islamic Republic of Iran

The Statistical Center of Iran organized brainstorming sessions with the media representatives on the efforts to make the census more gender responsive to garner their support. Advocacy workshops were organized with policymakers and members of Parliament to inform them on the importance of census data in general and gender responsiveness and rally their support. This yielded results, such as the Parliament member who became a census supervisor in his constituency.

Pakistan

Television and radio were used for advocacy to deliver census messages to the general public, respondents and enumerators to elicit their cooperation in accurate reporting. Women were invited to participate in a series of panel discussions on television covering concepts, definitions, sensitivity of questions and the art of probing. Media messages from important personalities were also broadcast, as were jingles and TV spots about women's paid and unpaid work. A ten-second poster detailing women's economic activities was developed and displayed on television.

Substantive materials were developed to train the enumerators and to raise public awareness on gender issues and gender concerns in the census, with a particular focus on different types of women's work and their significance. Posters and stickers concerning the census were displayed. These covered domestic work, unpaid economic work and home based economic work. Pamphlets were produced depicting examples of economic activity, unpaid labour and domestic work to enable the enumerators and respondents to distinguish one from the other.

Annex 1.4a: Sample posters from Nepal's 2001 census process



Annex 1.4 (c): Clarifying the concept of economic activity for the enumerators in Maldives

Definition of economic activity should make it clear that it is not the product or services themselves but their end use which is the basis of classification of activities into economic and non-economic. Goods may be produced for the household use only also; in that case it is extended economic activity, excepting in the case of domestic services which include cooking, cleaning, child care, teaching children, transporting self/family members etc. Note that the criteria for this division are whether it is paid or not.

Similar work can be in all three categories depending on for whom, for the household, produced for sale or in the factory etc. If the product of that activity is for **household use only, the activity will fall in the extended economic activity, if for sale in economic activity.** The poster should also make it clear. All services for house which include cooking, cleaning, child care, teaching children, transporting self/family members etc, are non-economic activities.

To explain, as an example, cooking which produces cooked food can be in the category of non-economic work, if the cooked food is for the household use; but if it is sold in the family shop or in the market (street vending, restaurants, hotels etc), then it is economic work. Similarly, cooking for the household by a paid domestic worker is economic. The main criteria is whether it is paid or unpaid. Payments can be in cash or kind e.g. food and lodging, land for cultivation etc. Teaching household children is not an economic activity but for somebody else for which the teacher gets paid it is an economic activity.

On the other hand, garment production, which results in clothing items will be extended economic work, even if the product is for the household members/self. There should be probing questions for the destination of the product.



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