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United Nations Workshop
on Improving the Integration of a Gender Perspective into Official Statistics
16 –19 April 2013
Chiba, Japan

Report of the Workshop [1]

Prepared by

United Nations Statistics Division

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I. Introduction

Background and objectives of the workshop

1. A regional workshop to strengthen the capacity of national statisticians to improve the integration of a gender perspective into official statistics was held from 16 to 19 April 2013 in Chiba, Japan. The workshop was organized by the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) and the Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific (SIAP), in collaboration with the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC), Government of Japan.

2. Representatives from the National Statistical Offices (NSOs) of 14 countries attended the workshop: Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Maldives, Myanmar, Mongolia, Nepal, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand and Viet Nam. Two types of statisticians were invited: experts in charge of gender statistics from all 14 countries; and experts on population censuses from six countries (China, India, Maldives, Mongolia, the Philippines, and Viet Nam). The workshop was also attended by resource persons from UNSD, UNFPA, the World Bank, SIAP, and MIC and observers from Japan. The list of participants is attached (Annex 1).

3. The workshop had three key objectives:

    a. Strengthen the capacity of statisticians in national statistical offices to apply international concepts and methods for gender statistics;
    b. Share good practices on producing gender statistics among national statistical offices and relevant government units;
    c. Promote the integration of a gender perspective into national statistical systems with the aim of improving the availability and quality of gender statistics.

Organization of the workshop

4. The workshop covered the following topics:

    Session 1: Develop a coherent and comprehensive plan for the production of gender statistics
    Session 2: Integrating a gender perspective into health statistics
    Session 3: Integrating a gender perspective into work statistics
    Session 4: Integrating a gender perspective into poverty statistics
    Session 5: Integrating a gender perspective into statistics on environment
    Session 6: Violence against Women surveys
    Session 7: Time Use surveys
    Session 8: Use of population census data for gender statistics and gender analysis
    Session 9: Analysis and presentation of gender statistics: an overview
    Session 10: Gender statistics in ESCAP

    The agenda of the meeting is attached in Annex 2.

5. The workshop consisted of:

a. Training presentations on the selected topics delivered by resource persons from UNSD, UNFPA and SIAP. Three manuals were used as supporting material: (1) the United Nations Manual on *Integrating a Gender Perspective into Statistics*; (2) the United Nations *Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women: Statistical Survey*; and (3) the UNFPA/UNSD/UN Women *Guide on Gender Analysis of Census Data*.

b. Country presentations on the selected topics, to facilitate the sharing of practices on producing gender statistics among national statistical offices.

c. Group exercises and discussions

All the presentations and exercises are available on the UNSD website[2]. A summary of presentations, exercises and the discussions during workshop are presented in part II below.

6. The workshop was chaired by UNSD and SIAP, who moderated the discussions and provided, at the end of each session, a summary of the main points addressed. These summaries are included in part III of the report.

Pre-workshop assignments

7. Participants from national statistical offices were requested to complete a pre-workshop assignment prior to the workshop itself. There were two types of pre-workshop assignments:

(a) for the NSO experts in charge of gender statistics.
Responses were received from 13 out of 14 countries: Bangladesh, China, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Maldives, Mongolia, Myanmar, Nepal, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Viet Nam.

(b) for the NSO experts on population censuses.
Responses were received from 4 out of 6 countries: China, India, Maldives, and the Philippines.

The two types of assignments are attached in Annex 3.

8. The assignments were designed to explore: (a) the degree of gender integration in national statistics systems of participating countries; (b) the participants' overall expertise and interest in gender statistics; (c) main challenges in producing gender statistics; and (d) plans for future development of gender statistics in the NSOs and personal involvement in those plans. The information provided by the participants was used as input for (a) tailoring the training presentations and exercises prepared by UNSD, SIAP and UNFPA; and (b) assigning country presentations on

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[2] See http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/meetings/wshops/Japan/2013/list_of_docs.htm

specific topics covered during the training. A summary of the pre-workshop assignments is presented below.

Summary of the results of pre-workshop assignments

9. There are different levels of development of gender statistics and integration of gender in the official statistics in the countries participating in the workshop. A great amount of sex-disaggregated data are produced in almost all countries, based on (a) household surveys, (b) population and housing censuses and (c) administrative sources. In many countries it is assumed that recording the characteristic "sex" during data collection and disseminating some of the data disaggregated by sex are sufficient for generating gender statistics. Only a few countries go a step further in making sure that gender statistics are developed in a systematic and coherent manner. Some of them have had a long-standing programme for gender statistics (the Philippines, for example), while others have started a programme only recently (Mongolia, for example). In countries such as Myanmar, where surveys on specific topics have not been conducted on a regular basis or not at all in more than 10 years, and administrative registers are incomplete, up-to-date gender statistics are not available due to a general lack of recent data.

10. The understanding of gender mainstreaming in data collection varies from simple recording of the characteristic "sex" for the household members to the careful consideration of gender in all stages and all operations of data collection. Two out of the four countries answering questions on the integration of gender in data collection in censuses reported specific activities of gender mainstreaming. In India, several steps were followed to ensure full mainstreaming of gender in the 2011 census operations. For example: (a) a gender specialist (external consultant) was included in the team coordinating the census implementation; (b) a workshop on gender mainstreaming was organized and involved a diversity of stakeholders; (c) data from previous censuses were analysed from a gender perspective; (d) administrative areas that would need special attention in the field were identified; (e) all training materials were made gender-sensitive; and (f) the publicity campaign targeted selected groups of women. Maldives also reported activities of gender integration in the census: (a) a gender specialist (external resource person) was used for training of the census staff; (b) gender aspects were considered in activities of advertising and awareness; (c) efforts were made to reduce underreporting of women's economic activity by including more detailed questions on economic characteristics in the census questionnaire.

11. With regard to gender mainstreaming in data collection, two important issues were suggested by the answers to the pre-workshop assignment:

> (a) For many countries, complying with international recommended methods is of paramount importance. Therefore there is a need to have gender fully integrated in the international guidelines on data collections.

> (b) Integration of gender in data collection instruments may lead to issues of comparability with past censuses or surveys, such as in the case of changing the formulation of the questions or the categories of answers. International guidance on such issues is also needed.

12. Data quality is recognized as an important attribute of official statistics and its assessment was reported by all countries completing the pre-workshop assignment on population censuses. However, sex-selective under-reporting or misreporting of demographic, social or economic characteristics in census data collection was either not systematically evaluated or reported as not being an issue. On one hand, the evaluation of sex distribution in the population, sometimes by comparison to other sources of data, is one of the common exercises. It is often conducted in combination with the evaluation of the age distribution. Based on countries' answers, no significant errors relative to the sex distribution in the population were so far identified. For example, the Philippines and China reported that although some coverage errors were detected in the most recent censuses they were not sex specific. India reported slightly higher omission rates of men in the urban areas and women in the rural areas, although an overall sex-selective underreporting was not concluded. On the other hand, errors relative to the reporting of social and economic characteristics were not mentioned as being evaluated in relationship with the sex of the persons, the sex of the persons answering the questionnaire, or the sex of the persons conducting the interview. Nevertheless, some issues such as the underreporting of women's economic activity in previous censuses came up in the assignments (in Maldives and India, for example).

13. The assessment of the availability of gender statistics is not a regular activity of the NSOs, with the exception of the Philippines. There, the National Statistical Coordination Board undertakes an annual assessment of gender statistics produced by various governmental agencies. The framework for the assessment takes into account areas of concern defined in accordance to the Beijing Platform for Action and it is constructed around a list of indicators from 16 socio-economic sectors and gender concerns. Other countries reported rather sporadic assessments of gender statistics, usually based on an identified list of indicators. In China, for example, the 2011 assessment of gender statistics was based on indicators requested by governmental agencies focused on women. In other instances, the assessment of data availability may take place at the beginning of setting out a programme on gender statistics. For example, one of the initial steps in the recent development of gender statistics in Mongolia was the 2012 assessment of data availability, which identified 238 gender indicators needed, of which 102 were available. In some countries, the preparation of statistical reports on women and men functions as an assessment of the availability of data. Finally, no assessment of gender statistics was reported by several countries participating in the workshop.

14. In many cases the production of gender statistics is driven by demands from women-focused government agencies and national plans. For example in China, the work on gender statistics is based on the national programme for development of Chinese women and children. Main partners of interactions are the National Working Committee on Children and Women under the State Council, the Research Institute of Women in China, and All-China Women's Federation. In Maldives, various ministries have been in charge of gender statistics: Ministry of Health and Planning at the beginning of the 2000s; Ministry of Gender, Family Development and Social Security during 2003-2008; Ministry of Health and Family during 2008-2012, and Ministry of Gender and Human Rights, after 2012. In Bangladesh, gender statistics have been used, for example, by the Ministry of Women and Children Affairs to prepare policies on women's development. In Viet Nam, two ministries are the main partners in gender statistics: (a) Ministry of Labour, Invalid People and Social Affairs, which is the managing agency of the Gender Equality Law and (b) the Ministry of Culture, Sport and

Tourism, which is the managing agency of domestic violence law. In Indonesia the Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection was mentioned as the main ministry responsible for gender issues and the main user of gender statistics for policies. The importance of several national plans were also pointed out by Indonesia, including: the 2002 National Plan of Action on Eradication of Child Commercial Sexual Exploitation; and the 2002 National Plan of Action on Eradication of Trafficking in Women and Children.

15. Sometimes non-women focused government agencies are also involved in gender statistics. For example, in the Philippines, the National Statistical Coordination Board most often interacts with the Philippines Commission on Women, however, the users of gender statistics are more diverse and also include the National Economic and Development Authority; national and local governments; academia and research institutions; NGOs; and media partners.

16. Gender-related activities within the NSOs most often reported are: (a) compilation of gender indicators required by users whose mandate is focused on women and gender issues; (b) preparation of booklets/factsheets with compilations of statistics on women and men; (c) updating gender indicators in gender-dedicated or general development databases; and (d) preparation of analytical reports on women and men.

17. Gender units and gender specialists are rarely involved in gender mainstreaming in data collection and have the risk of being isolated from other departments. As reported by some countries, statisticians working in gender units or as gender focal points are commonly not involved in data collection in surveys or censuses, unless they work in the department in charge of data collection. They may also have limited involvement in training in gender statistics. In cases where training was provided to the staff, the training was rather specific to a topic of concern or a particular type of survey (such as the Violence against Women survey in Viet Nam), and external resource persons were used. One exception was the case of the Philippines, which reported regular activities of training for staff as well as for the users of statistics, with greater involvement of the inside specialists. Finally, the preparation on gender-focused publications sometimes is done by external collaborators rather than by the internal gender specialists.

18. Various challenges in producing gender statistics in the countries were reported. General issues referred to: manpower constraints; sustainability of activity undertaken; obtaining harmonized data in a decentralized statistical system; lack of mechanisms to obtain feedback from users; and lack of funding. More specific issues referred to:

   a. Limited awareness of importance of gender at the level of statisticians as well as at the leadership level;

   b. Challenges in extending data collection to include new emerging topics and new methodologies such as those on time use surveys and violence against women surveys;

   c. Difficulties in obtaining more disaggregated gender statistics, as requested by some users;

d. Concepts and methods not well developed for some topics approached from a gender perspective, such as income or social security;

e. Other concepts, such as head of household and polygamy, although used for some time in data collection, still need improvement and/or more guidance on how to be implemented;

f. Some issues specific to men not covered: either because some data collections such as DHS and MICS are based on samples of women only, or because risk factors more often associated with men than women – such as smoking and drinking - are not taken into account.

g. Lack of centralized databases on gender statistics and indicators, including maintained databases that cover trends of statistics over time.

19. Finally, countries indicated a general need for planners and data users to better translate gender statistics into programmes and policies. Regarding this specific concern, existing practices in some countries might be informative for others. In the Philippines, for instance, gender statistics have been used for: (a) conceptualizing development project proposals on women – such as the project aimed to support women's economic empowerment, particularly those in microenterprises; (b) raising awareness of governance issues and improving the communication of statistics, in partnership with the media; and (c) as information used/cited in enacted laws related to women such as Magna Carta of Women, Anti-Violence against Women and their children; and Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act. Bangladesh reported that gender statistics were used by the Planning Commission of the country to prepare a plan for gender mainstreaming in the ministries; and by the Ministry of Health to prepare a policy on improvement of nutrition for children and mothers. Viet Nam also reported that recent data collection and analysis on violence against women were used for policy making. Examples of using gender statistics in development, poverty or other more traditional areas of decision-making were not given by any country.

Opening session

20. Opening statements were delivered by Ms. Francesca Grum, on behalf of Mr. Stefan Schweinfest, the Acting Director of UNSD, and Ms. Margarita Guerrero, on behalf of SIAP.

21. Ms. Francesca Grum acknowledged the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, Government of Japan, for their support and kind hospitality; congratulated SIAP for an excellent job in preparing and hosting the meeting, and welcomed the participants. She reminded the participants that gender statistics are key for evidence-based policy making, for monitoring trends in reducing gender inequalities and progress in women's empowerment. However, there is still a lack of adequate data and an urgent need to improve statistical systems to ensure the full mainstreaming of gender into all stages of data production. In this context, and as mandated by the UN Statistical Commission, the UN Statistics Division has developed a manual on *Integrating a Gender Perspective into Statistics* to assist countries in their efforts to improve gender statistics. She pointed out that the workshop is going to be focused on three critical dimensions to obtain relevant and reliable gender statistics, as

underlined in the manual: (1) the need for a comprehensive coverage of gender issues in data production; (2) ensuring the integration of a gender perspective into all data collections; and (3) improvement of dissemination and presentation of gender statistics. Ms. Grum further introduced two additional publications to be used as support material during the workshop: the *Guidelines for the Production of Statistics on Violence against Women*, prepared by UNSD and the *Guide on Gender Analysis of Census Data* to be published shortly by UNFPA. Finally, she underlined that the workshop is an important opportunity to share and learn from each other's experiences and identify strategies to accelerate the process of mainstreaming gender into statistics.

22. Ms. Margarita Guerrero welcomed the participants on behalf of SIAP. She highlighted some of the gender issues we are witnessing today in some countries: high maternal mortality rates; sex ratios at birth suggesting selective abortion; high prevalence of violence against women; the overburden of unpaid work for women; and the disempowerment of women. She emphasized that statisticians have the mission to provide statistics for all these issues, and thus they have the greatest power to make a contribution in reflecting the real situation of women and men, and provide hard evidence for policy making. Statisticians, she noted, are already doing their job and provide gender statistics. However, an issue remains: how can the work be further improved in such a way that policies and laws are better informed.

23. Mr. Masaaki Nakagawa delivered a welcoming address on behalf of MIC, Government of Japan, and invited participants and resource persons to introduce themselves. He also introduced the observers from Japan to the workshop.

II. Summary of presentations and discussions

Session 1. Develop a coherent and comprehensive plan for the production of gender statistics

24. The first presentation in the session, given by <u>UNSD,</u> focused on *Gender Statistics Programmes* at global and national level. The first part was an overview of the Global Gender Statistics Programme implemented by UNSD. This programme is mandated by the UN Statistical Commission and coordinated by the Inter-Agency Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS). Its goal is to enhance the capacity of countries to collect, disseminate and use reliable statistics and indicators to assess the relative situation of women and men in gender-sensitive and policy-relevant areas. Recent methodological developments include the UN manual on *Integrating a Gender Perspective into Statistics*; the UN *Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women: Statistical Survey*; and ongoing work on the revision of the International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics (ICATUS). In addition, a minimum set of gender indicators was agreed by IAEG-GS in 2011 and adopted by the UN Statistical Commission in 2013, to be used as a platform for national production and international compilation of gender statistics. The set of indicators is organized in three tiers. Tier 1 comprises indicators for which international data and agreed international concepts and methods are available. For this tier, activities of international data compilation are planned. Tier 2 comprises indicators for which data are limited, although there are agreed international concepts and methods. Specific to this tier are activities of capacity building. Tier 3 comprises indicators with

limited availability of data and lack of internationally agreed concepts and methods. For this tier, methodologically-focused activities are developed within the EDGE project.

25. The second part of the presentation summarized results of the Global Review of Gender Statistics Programmes, carried out in 2011 by the UN Statistics Division in collaboration with the UN Regional Commissions. Three topics were covered in the presentation: gender mainstreaming in the national statistics; institutional arrangements; and production of gender statistics. For example, similar to countries in other regions, only a few ESCAP countries have defined and fully achieved the objective of gender mainstreaming in national statistics, while the majority of countries reported the objective as partially achieved. Most countries in the ESCAP region have no dedicated budget for gender statistics, but more than half of them benefit from ad-hoc funds. Furthermore, it was shown that the availability of gender statistics in the region varies by topic. In particular, gender statistics in emerging areas of interest, including on satellite accounts, violence against women, and entrepreneurship, are not produced on a regular basis. At the other end of the spectrum, gender statistics on labour force, unemployment and education, for example, are produce on a regular basis by most of the countries.

26. Participants in the workshop expressed their interest in the minimum set of gender indicators and the metadata that would help countries produce these indicators. Comments on partial availability of data in the countries were also made. Ms. Grum (UNSD) made the distinction between internationally comparable data compiled or estimated by international agencies and national data produced by countries. She indicated that current classification of gender indicators in tiers is based on availability of data and existing methodologies as provided by international organizations. An assessment of the capacity of countries to produce the set of indicators is to be conducted in one of the next stages.

27. The session continued with an *Overview of Gender Statistics*, an interactive exercise conducted by SIAP. The premise of the exercise was that all countries participating in the workshop have experience in gender statistics. Therefore, the collective knowledge of the participants was used to answer four key questions: (a) what are gender statistics? (and are there any key concepts that are not clear for statisticians or for users?); (b) why are we talking about gender statistics? (not in philosophical terms, but from the perspective of official statistics, including the purpose of participating in this workshop); (c) for whom are we producing gender statistics? (who are the users in each country specific context); and (d) how do we produce gender statistics?. Countries were invited to post cards with specific answers on four boards.

28. As summarized by SIAP, a first glance at the answers posted indicated that the question on "why" (are we talking about /do we need gender statistics) was well covered by comprehensive answers formulated in terms of promoting gender equality, rights and empowerment of women; raising awareness; effective allocation of resources; and helping gender mainstreaming in all policies. The other three questions needed further reflection. For example, gender issues and the relevance of statistics for policy making were identified, in some answers, as key elements of gender statistics, however, in other answers, gender statistics were narrowly perceived as data disaggregated by sex. Similarly, disaggregation of data by sex, gender issues and gender-sensitive analysis of data were identified as important in the production of gender statistics. However, other important elements

were not mentioned at all: assessments of data availability; use of gender-sensitive data collection tools; or gender-sensitive training. The exercise concluded with some clarifications of concepts, including the distinction between sex and gender. Participants were invited to further think about the questions posted during the next presentations on specific topics of gender statistics, and were encouraged to keep adding ideas to the boards.

29. The last part of the session was covered by country presentations. India's overview of the *Integration of Gender Perspective in National Statistics* introduced the Indian Statistical System and highlighted the three elements of integration of a gender perspective into official statistics in India: (i) production of data disaggregated by sex; (ii) coverage of gender-sensitive topics – such as female foeticide, infanticide, child marriage, maternal mortality, infant mortality, time use, entrepreneurship and asset ownership; and (iii) producing data at the level of vulnerable groups such as domestic workers, workers in sectors that are not formally organized, migrant workers, women and child workers in hazardous industries. Other topics of interest, such as poverty, crime or trafficking in women, although of interest, were indicated as difficult to cover.

30. The presentation further introduced a wide range of censuses, surveys, and administrative sources that are used to generate gender statistics in India. A few of these sources of data stand out from a gender perspective. For example, in addition to traditional data sources such as population censuses, agricultural censuses and economic establishment censuses, India conducts a census on micro, small, and medium enterprises. Those enterprises, where women tend to be more concentrated, are usually missed in common establishment censuses. Of particular importance are also a number of surveys: (i) the National Family Health Survey, which provides data on family welfare, maternal and child health, and nutrition. It also covers topics such as domestic violence, access to and control over resources, freedom of movement, and participation in decision-making; (ii) the Socio-Economic Surveys focused on employment, unemployment, education, and migration; (iii) the Sample Registration System, the largest demographic survey in the country, mandated to provide annual estimates of fertility, mortality, including by cause of death at the State and National level; and (iv) district-level surveys such as the annual health survey and the household and facility survey, designed to provide comprehensive health data at the district level.

31. A second presentation based on India's experience in producing gender statistics highlighted the *Gender Perspective in the 2011 Census*. The Indian Census has been traditionally presenting data separately by sex on various socio-cultural, economic and demographic aspects of the population. Also traditionally, census's approach on data collection has been "gender neutral". However, low and declining gender parity ratios and low female work participation rates, particularly in some geographic and administrative units of the country, suggested that there may be some sex-bias in data collection that may influence the results obtained. It has been argued that, due to gender biases, women and especially female infants, infirm, separated and elderly are likely to be missed at the time of counting; and women's economic activity is not reported adequately. The 1991 census was able to provide some evidence for that. It was observed that the introduction of additional questions on work done in family farms and enterprises led to an increase in the overall female work participation (compared to the previous census). The 2001 census was the first to integrate a gender perspective in designing the census questionnaire and the instruction manuals; training; publicity campaign; and data dissemination. The efforts resulted in decreased sex-selective underreporting and smaller real

gender gaps on selected indicators. However, the results obtained suggested that there was still sex bias in data collection in some districts.

32. The 2011 Census in India adopted gender mainstreaming as a cross cutting strategy in all census processes and operations. The effort was supported by UN Women, UNFPA and UNICEF. A consultative process based on national and regional workshops on gender mainstreaming involved the key stakeholders. Several steps were taken. (a) Efforts were dedicated to ensure the counting of groups of women more likely to go unreported such as girls, older women, women with disabilities, and divorced or separated women. (b) Instruction manuals were revised to include gender sensitive examples and photographs, especially on issues related to women's economic activity (in particular those unremunerated economic activities that may be confused with unpaid housework) and women head of household. (c) Gender sensitization was also included in the training and in the training materials. (d) Gender master trainer facilitators provided training and support during the fieldwork in gender critical districts (districts with low proportion of women literate, low proportion of female work participation, and low gender parity in population in the previous census). And, finally, (e) media campaigns were designed to be gender-sensitive and encourage reporting of women and their economic activities.

33. The Philippines presented the legislative and institutional framework for the production of official gender statistics in the country. The development of a gender statistics programme in the country, beginning in the second half of the 1990s, responded to the need of having improved access to gender statistics, and improved availability of gender statistics in a format that was friendly for users. A strong legislative framework has supported the production of gender statistics in the country. Part of this framework is related to gender mainstreaming in policy making and creation of gender focal points in governmental agencies. The legislative framework includes (a) the Constitution of the country; (b) the Philippine Development Plan for Women; (c) Women in Development and Nation-Building Act; (d) Magna Carta on Women; and international conventions – the Beijing Platform for Action, and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. In terms of statistics, the 1994 NSCB (National Statistical Coordination Board) Resolution promoted the integration of gender concerns in the generation of statistics. In an effort to improve statistics on gender issues, a Gender and Development Indicators System was developed as a core set of indicators for monitoring the situation of women as compared to men and approved in 2001. This statistical framework is intended to serve as reference for monitoring gender and development activities implemented by government and non-government organizations, and it is used by all government agencies whose responsibilities is the production of statistics. An Interagency Committee on Gender Statistics ensures the continuation of efforts to generate gender statistics. The committee is an inclusive group that brings together the Philippine Commission on Women (chair of the group); the NSO (co-chair); the National Statistical Coordination Board (vice-chair); and Gender and Development focal points in 17 governmental agencies. The Philippines Statistical Development Programme serves as guiding support in coordinating the production of gender statistics activities. Gender represents a special chapter in this Programme, under the cluster of "Social development". The areas covered with regard to gender are similar to the areas of concern outlined in the Beijing Platform for Action.

34. Nevertheless, there are still challenges in the production of gender statistics. Currently, the Philippines is trying to address issues such as: (a) responding to new emerging demands of gender statistics and covering data gaps such as those on time use and safety of women; (b) use of methodological research for areas with no agreed international standards, such as poverty; (c) prioritizing among the needs for additional gender statistics; (d) improvement in the dissemination and communication of gender statistics, with great focus on engaging the media; (e) assessing the use of gender statistics in the policy-making and policy monitoring; (f) building statistical capacity at the level of users; and (g) increased investment of the Government in statistics and gender statistics.

35. Japan gave a presentation on the *Role of statistics for realizing a gender-equal society*. It was shown that gender equality in Japan is supported by a strong legal and institutional framework, involving the state, local governments, and citizens. Since the 1980s, a series of national laws, acts and plans as well as international conventions and conferences have focused on gender equality. The national machinery for forming a gender-equal society is structured to include the highest levels of decision-making bodies in the country (starting with the prime minister and cabinet members), dedicated governmental institutions to gender equality, specialized committees and working groups, and coordination and cooperation among all stakeholders. This legal and institutional framework has important implications for gender statistics. For example, the Third Basic Plan for Gender Equality, adopted in 2010, included an updated set of priority areas and specific objectives on gender equality, which have been used to define objectives, strategies and priorities for gender statistics in the country. The overall development of gender statistics takes place in accordance to the Basic Plan Concerning the Development of Official Statistics and takes into consideration international developments in gender statistics, including the Beijing Platform for Action, the UN Statistical Commission and the Global Gender Programme coordinated by IAEG-GS. Various sources of data, produced by different ministries and the Cabinet Office of Japan, are used to generate gender statistics. Using these sources, the presentation highlighted the situation of women and men in Japan as reflected by gender indicators of the minimum set. Last, but not the least, the presentation included details on measurement of caring responsibilities of women and men in Japan, showing the main surveys integrating this new emerging topic and some of the results obtained.

Session 2. Integrating a gender perspective into health statistics

36. The presentation on *Integrating a gender perspective into health statistics* by UNSD covered gender and biological issues, sources of data, and data quality for four health-related topics: health and nutrition of children; maternal health; mortality and causes and death; and HIV and AIDS. The first part of the presentation illustrated sex differences in health indicators for the countries in the ESCAP region and in the world. Several points were made: (a) generally, men have a greater biological vulnerability and higher rates of mortality than women; (b) the magnitude and direction of female-male differences in mortality vary from country to country and reflect a mix of biological and social factors; (c) the health gap between women and men is higher in countries with lower levels of mortality and it is to the disadvantage of men; and (d) for a few countries in the ESCAP region, the values observed for infant and child mortality and for treatment of diarrhea in children suggest a discrimination against girls. The presentation also showed that it is important to further disaggregate national-level data, as gender discrimination may become visible only when the analysis is done at the level of smaller administrative units or population groups.

37. A great emphasis was given to the quality of data and interpretation of the results. It was explained that all sources of data have limitations and such limitations can have an impact on identifying whether the sex differences observed reflect actual gender issues or just poor quality of data, especially in the cases where the reporting is affected by sex bias. Examples of data quality issues were given with regard to reporting of deaths in civil registers and population censuses, and registration of births. It was also shown that difficulties in interpreting data in general and sex-disaggregated data in particular may come from: content errors due to imputation of data; ignoring the confidence intervals; and having different sources estimating different levels for the indicators of interest.

38. In addition, when assessing gender differences in health, the interpretation of data needs to take into account the mix of biological and social factors that may determine the observed sex differences. Overall, women have a greater biological advantage, therefore similar values for female and male mortality rates do not imply gender equality in health, but rather suggest an overall social disadvantage or discrimination against girls and women. Also, it is important to see whether differences in mortality by cause of death or disease by type of disease can be associated with gender specific roles and responsibilities or harmful habits. The presentation concluded by showing three ways to identify the gender gap in health and nutrition of children, while keeping under control, as much as possible, the biological factors: (a) use child mortality instead of infant or under-five mortality; (b) use indicators of nutrition between ages 2 to 5 instead of 0 to 5; and (c) use benchmarking showing the expected sex ratios in child mortality, for a given level of mortality, in countries without gender discrimination.

39. The presentation of Bangladesh, *Gender dimensions in health statistics*, indicated that the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics has a full-fledged Health and Demographic Wing responsible for collecting and disseminating health-related statistics. A number of surveys have been conducted, including the Health and Demographic Survey, Sample Vital Registration System, Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, and Child and Mother Nutrition Survey. Additional health-related statistics are collected through the Household Income and Expenditure Survey, and the Socio-Economic and Demographic Survey conducted post census. Many health topics have been covered by the statistics produced in the country, including, for example: child health and nutrition, maternal health, mortality, and access to health service. In the second part of the presentation, some of these topics were illustrated with data. Main dissemination products for gender statistics on health, and the main national and international users of data were also shown. It was pointed out that some measures have been taken to improve the adequacy of gender health statistics: (a) periodic review of the questionnaires used in data collection; (b) training for staff involved in the fieldwork; (c) increased supervision for quality control; and (d) engagement of women in data collection in the field (as interviewers and supervisors). Nevertheless, there are still challenges, such as: (a) inadequate coordination between data producers and users; (b) limited awareness of gender issues; (c) inappropriate training for interviewers in the field; (d) inadequate disaggregation of data at sub-national level; (e) inadequate analysis of data; and (f) lack of economic and trained human resources dedicated to gender.

40. Myanmar's presentation focused on the sources of health statistics in the country: the National Mortality Survey (latest conducted in 1999) and the Vital Registration System (set up in 1965,

developed over time, and modified at the beginning of the 2000s); the Population Census (to be conducted in 2014); and other demographic and health surveys such as the Multiple Indicator and Cluster Survey. Examples of sex-disaggregated statistics on health related topics were shown, based on the National Mortality Survey and the Vital Registration System. The presentation indicated that sex-disaggregated health statistics are disseminated in the Statistical Yearbooks and the Vital Statistics Report. Finally, the presentation identified challenges in producing quality health statistics and overall statistics in Myanmar. In terms of the quality of health statistics, one important issue is the underreporting of vital events in the registration system. Efforts to address the issue include revising the legal framework and raising awareness. General efforts in improving the production of statistics in Myanmar are related to organizational changes and coverage of multiple data gaps.

Session 3. Integrating a gender perspective into work statistics

41. The presentation *Integrating a gender perspective into work statistics* by UNSD highlighted three main strategies for making work statistics more gender relevant. First, it is important to ensure comprehensive coverage of gender issues related to work by extending data collection and dissemination from labour force participation, employment and unemployment, to detailed employment conditions, family-work balance, and time use. Second, the presentation emphasized the need for improvement of quality of gender statistics and statistics on work in general, by preventing underreporting and misclassification of economic activities and employment conditions. For example, special attention should be given to work activities that are atypical, casual, unremunerated, carried out at home or close to home, which are often confused with unpaid domestic activities. These activities are more often associated with women, and their underreporting leads to sex bias in the data collected and misrepresentation of women's participation in the force participation. The presentation further showed that different sources of data on the labour force have different capacity of generating work statistics both in terms of coverage and prevention of sex bias in underreporting. Third, it was pointed out that more disaggregated gender statistics are needed to facilitate the understanding of gender differences in work, including by individual characteristics such as educational attainment; family characteristics or other variables indicative of the life cycle; household characteristics and contextual variables. Some examples of data analysis were given. Finally, the presentation covered suggested activities for gender units and gender focal points to improve the availability and quality of gender statistics on work in the official statistics.

42. Malaysia's presentation introduced, in the first part, the general framework for gender statistics within the Department of Statistics Malaysia, including: the main areas of concern in gender statistics; indicators used to analyse those areas; and main sources of data. Two main publications disseminating gender statistics were also introduced: the regularly produced Social Statistics Bulletin (covering population, education, health and employment); and the newly issued Gender Statistics Malaysia, which used the UN flagship report *World's Women 2010* as a framework. The second part of the presentation focused on gender statistics on work. The presentation pointed out that gender issues on work are important on the policy agenda of the country: the Tenth Malaysia Plan 2011-2015 recognizes that women remain a source of untapped labour in the country and measures to increase their labour force participation should be taken. Two sections of the Department of Statistics Malaysia are involved in the production of statistics that can answer policy-relevant questions on work: (a) the Labour Force Section, which conducts Labour Force Surveys, Informal Sector Surveys,

Salaries and Wages Surveys, and Migration surveys; and (b) the Social Section, which is compiling data produced by other sections for dissemination on specific cross-cutting issues such as the Millennium Development Goals and Gender Statistics. The Labour Force Survey and the Population Censuses are the two most important sources of data for work statistics in Malaysia. The Labour Force Survey has been focused on employment and unemployment and has been conducted on a regular monthly basis for a long time. Efforts have been made to increase the quality of data and prevent the underreporting of women's economic activity, through the use of probing questions and activity lists, in line with ILO recommendations.

Session 4. Integrating a gender perspective into poverty statistics

43. At the beginning of the session, Ms. Guerrero (SIAP) summarized some of the key concepts underlined in the previous sessions of the workshop. She also reminded the participants that some statistics and indicators in the areas of poverty and work can be used to address women's economic empowerment, one of the key issues in gender analysis.

44. The presentation on *Integrating a Gender perspective in poverty statistics* by UNSD was structured around three strategies to improve the availability and quality of gender statistics in the area of poverty. First, it was stressed the importance of using detailed types of female- and male-headed households in obtaining more relevant household-level statistics on poverty. It was shown that female-headed households and male-headed households are heterogeneous categories, varying widely in terms of demographic and economic composition, and a higher vulnerability of female-headed households cannot be generalized. By comparison, when analysis is focused on more homogeneous categories of female- and male-headed households, there is a clearer pattern of higher poverty associated with certain types of female-headed households, such as lone mothers with children and women living in one-person households. The need to use clear criteria in identifying the head of household – during data collection and at the stage of data analysis - was also highlighted.

45. Furthermore, it was explained that disaggregation of household-level poverty data by sex of the household members gives only a poor measure of gender gap in poverty, mainly because intrahousehold inequality is not taken into account. Some differences in poverty counts might appear in households with higher share of women, especially older women, because earnings per capita tend to be lower due to women's lower participation in the labour market and women's lower level of earnings during work or after retirement. Therefore it is expected that resulted sex differences are heavily influenced by country-specific living arrangements and ageing factors. As a result, countries with greater sex differences by this standard, would be countries from the more developed region.

46. Second, it was acknowledged that a broader concept of poverty is more effective in highlighting issues of gender-based intrahousehold inequality and economic dependency of women on men. This approach corresponds to a shift in thinking poverty, from poverty as economic resources to avoid deprivation to poverty as actual level of deprivation, not only in terms of food and clothing, but also in areas such as education and health. In this case, the statistics needed are measured at individual level and may refer to education, health, time use, participation in intrahousehold decision-making, social exclusion, or subjective evaluation of access to food and clothing. Furthermore, individual-

level statistics on access to income and especially cash income, property ownership, and access to credit, can illustrate the economic autonomy of women (or lack of).

47. Third, it was shown that individual-level social statistics disaggregated by sex and poverty or wealth status can be used to highlight the gendered experience of poverty. Poverty affects women and men in different ways, as illustrated by data on school attendance, violence against women, or participation of women in intrahousehold decision-making. It was shown that gender disparities, overburden of women with work or violence, and lack of decision-making power tend to be more severe in the poorer segments of the population.

48. Nepal's presentation on gender statistics in poverty covered four aspects: sources of data for poverty statistics; efforts made to improve statistics from a gender perspective; examples of gender statistics in poverty; and examples of gender-responsive reforms by the government. In Nepal, gender statistics on poverty are mainly collected in the Nepal Living Standard Survey and the Nepal Labour Force Surveys. Additional poverty-related data are obtained from the Population and Housing Census and the District Poverty Monitoring and Analysis System. Efforts have been made to improve statistics from a gender perspective, including (a) introducing institutional changes such as the formation of a Gender and social inclusive committee that brings together relevant stakeholders; and (b) improving the quality of data collected through involvement of relevant stakeholders in the preparation of data collection tools; revisions of the instruction manuals; training of the staff; and increased representation of women among interviewers. One of the remaining challenges is the production of gender statistics at more disaggregated levels of administrative units/geographical areas and population groups.

49. The presentation further indicated that gender statistics on poverty are disseminated both in regular reports and gender-specific publication. Their users are diverse and include both women's organizations and traditional government agencies and line ministries. The examples of gender statistics on poverty shown in the presentation focused on (a) household-level indicators on poverty and food security disaggregated by sex of the head of household; and (b) individual-level indicators disaggregated by sex on child nutrition; school attendance, time use for work, access to income, and participation in intra-household decision-making. Finally, the presentation showed a few examples of policy initiatives focusing on gender equality that can be monitored based on the gender statistics produced by the Central Bureau of Statistics. Such initiatives refer to improving the representation of women among (a) parliamentarians; (b) primary school teachers; (c) owners of property; (d) civil service employees; (e) foreign employment; and (f) army.

Session 5. Integrating a gender perspective into statistics on environment

50. The presentation *Integrating a gender perspective into environment statistics* by UNSD summarized the relations between gender and environment and focused on types of statistics needed to illustrate the impact of the environment on the lives of women and men. Participants were reminded that environmental conditions have a differentiated impact on the lives of women and men due to existing gender inequality and gender-specific roles and expectations. Data needed to illustrate this gender-environment interaction have to cover two dimensions: (1) the environmental conditions creating a burden on the lives of people (such as poor infrastructure, periods of droughts, floods, or

areas affected by deforestation or desertification); and (2) the social impact at the individual level of women and men, such as involvement in and time use for specific work activities affected by the environment; and diseases and deaths due to unsafe environmental conditions and events. Examples of sources of data, statistics, and their analysis and presentation were given for three topics: (a) water and firewood collection; (b) indoor smoke from solid fuels; and (c) natural disasters. The presentation also highlighted the unique role of time use surveys in revealing women and men's time burden associated with poor infrastructure and natural environmental conditions.

51. Sri Lanka gave a presentation on statistics on gender and environment produced in the country. The first part of the presentation focused on the Sri Lanka Census on the Persons and Buildings in the coastal districts affected by the 2004 tsunami. Data disaggregated by sex and age were collected on (a) persons living in damaged housing units; and (b) persons injured due to the tsunami and living in damaged housing units. The distribution of dead and missing persons by sex and age was also estimated. It was shown that more men than women were living in the damaged units after the tsunami; men were the majority among the injured, with the exception of two out of 13 districts covered by the census; while women were the majority of dead and missing.

52. The second part of the presentation showed that natural disasters (such as floods, droughts, lightening, cyclone and landslides) are a major concern in Sri Lanka and they are addressed by national policies. Data on the environment are provided by a variety of administrative sources that are maintained by governmental agencies, as well as by household surveys and censuses implemented by the statistical agency. However, little data are disaggregated by sex. In addition to the post-tsunami census highlighted before, administrative health sources are used to compile sex-disaggregated data on diseases and deaths that can be associated with environmental factors. Sex-disaggregated data on deaths due to natural disasters remains an unsolved challenge. Nevertheless, it was pointed out that some of the administrative sources and household surveys may be further exploited to obtain additional statistics on the involvement of women and men in the management of the environment and on the environmental conditions with gender differentiated impact.

53. Following the session on the environment, the participants, divided in five groups, worked on two exercises. Three groups focused on the topic "Child work", and two groups focused on the topic "Management of the environment". For each topic, the groups identified gender issues, data needed to address those gender issues and the sources of data. The outcome of the exercises are available on the UNSD website[3].

Session 6. Violence against Women surveys

54. The presentation *Measuring violence against women*, by UNSD, focused on obtaining data on violence against women through dedicated surveys. The new manual produced by UNSD, *Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women: Statistical Surveys,* was introduced. The manual, mandated by the UN Statistical Commission, covers at length data collection through population-based surveys, and takes stock of the work undertaken by the Friends of the Chair group

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[3] See http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/meetings/wshops/Japan/2013/list_of_docs.htm

for indicators on Violence against Women. The core indicators on violence against women were explained in detail. Their construction, for instance, takes into account the most common forms of violence against women (physical, sexual, psychological, and economic), the recall period (in the past 12 months and during lifetime), and the relationship with the perpetrator (intimate partner or other relationships). Severity of violence and frequency of violence are also recommended to be taken into consideration for indicators on physical and sexual violence.

55. The presentation further highlighted the definition and operationalization of the most common forms of violence measured through sample surveys. It illustrated the set of questions covering specific acts of violence, for each type of violence, needed to adequately capture the extent of violence. It also showed the role of introductory questions, specific wording, and specific sequencing of questions in facilitating the disclosure of sensitive information. Moreover, training of the interviewers and ethical considerations in violence against women surveys were stressed as key elements in ensuring the safety of respondents and interviewers, as well as in obtaining reliable statistics. For example, an important issue in training is raising awareness with regard to (a) the topic of violence and its extreme sensitivity; (b) impact of violence on victims; and (c) gender issues at personal and community level. Strategies for facilitation of disclosure and addressing confidentiality and safety issues are also important and include: (a) encouraging participation in the survey and creating a climate that promotes disclosures of sensitive survey questions; (b) using specific interviewing techniques for building rapport with respondents; (c) developing skills to detect when respondents are at risk of being overheard and re-schedule interviews accordingly; (d) identifying and responding appropriately to emotional trauma by referring respondents to resources in the local community; (e) identifying emotional reactions in interviewers themselves that result from working on this topic; and (f) developing skills to manage and reduce stress.

56. Participants expressed their interest in the new manual on violence against women prepared by UNSD. During the discussions it was pointed out that the new manual is aligned with the WHO guidelines that some of the countries in the region have used in the past. More clarifications on ethical issues were given, and aspects of safety, confidentiality and support for the victims were highlighted as key features that can be more easily implemented in a dedicated survey on violence against women. Clarifications were also given with regard to the need for the countries to adapt the model questionnaire provided in the Guidelines and the list of additional variables to their own context. It was mentioned that some types of violence, such as economic violence, could be measured through population-based surveys but are still under research, while other types of violence, such as trafficking, need to be measured based on alternative sources of data (such as administrative sources of data). Finally, it was pointed out that a dedicated survey on violence against women is an expensive exercise, recommended to be conducted every seven years or so in order to capture the effects of policies implemented.

57. Indonesia presented the module of violence against women and children integrated into the 2006 National Socio-Economic Survey and the plans for the 2014 dedicated survey on violence against women. The presentation emphasized that the attachment of a module on violence to the 2006 socio-economic survey was associated with several problems: (a) more than one woman in the same household was selected to answer the questions related to violence (therefore confidentiality of the participation in the survey and safety of the respondents were compromised); (b) interviewers

were those usually employed by socio-economic surveys, and the majority of them were men; (c) out of the four days of training, only one day was dedicated to issues related to violence; (d) only one direct question per type of violence was formulated, often containing some sensitive words such as "rape" and "torture"; and (e) minimal consideration were given to the safety and support of the victims. All these issues impacted negatively on the disclosure of violence and as a result, the rates of violence against women were estimated at extremely low values. For women reporting acts of violence, however, patterns similar to other countries were observed: most of the violence against women takes place at home, at the hands of the husband and never gets reported. The presentation concluded with lessons learned and details on the upcoming survey on violence against women in Indonesia. The survey, planned for 2014, is going to be a dedicated survey with strong emphasis on training, ethical issues, use of women only as interviewers and use of samples based on selection of one woman only from each household.

58. Viet Nam presented the 2009-2010 Study on Domestic Violence against Women. It was shown that gender equality and violence against women are considered obstacles against development in Viet Nam and they have been addressed, since 1992, in several legislative and policy documents. Until recently, however, data on violence against women have had limited reliability, being obtained only from administrative sources or small-scale studies. The 2009-2010 Study on Domestic Violence against Women was initiated in 2009 to provide data on prevalence, causes, coping strategies and risk factors at national level. The study had a quantitative component, designed as a population-based survey covering only one woman per household, and a qualitative component covering in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. Data collection tools based on the WHO Multi-country study on violence against women were adapted to the country context in a collaborative effort with relevant experts and stakeholders. The questionnaire was designed to cover four types of violence – physical, sexual, emotional and economic – and to include a set of questions on specific acts of violence for each type of violence covered, as showed in detail in the presentation. The presentation also detailed the safety and ethical principles applied, the selection of the all-female team of interviewers, and the training schedule. The last part of the presentation illustrated key findings of the study, including, for example, data on prevalence of current and lifetime violence by intimate partner by type of violence; prevalence of physical violence by severity of violence; data on non-partner perpetrators; and data on seeking help from official agencies.

Session 7. Time Use Surveys

59. The presentation *Integrating a gender perspective into time use statistics* by SIAP covered data collection tools in time use surveys, the classification of time use activities, and the use of time use data for measuring unpaid work and estimating household production in satellite accounts. In the introduction to the topic, it was shown that statistics reflecting the actual contribution of women and men to the economy are among the least produced gender statistics in the world, as only a limited number of countries have conducted time use surveys. The participants were invited to fill in a time diary, a key data collection instrument used in time use surveys. During this exercise, elements important for gender statistics – such as recording of simultaneous activities and use of contextual variables – were emphasized. The presentation further explained the distinction between a 24-hour diary where all activities are recorded, with the possibility of recording simultaneous activities, and a stylized diary, where the information is collected only for specific activities; as well as the pros and

cons in using one or another. It was pointed out that although a diary-based survey involves higher financial cost and technical requirements, it represents an improved tool for data collection on time use, including from a gender perspective. The use of household and individual questionnaires to interpret time use data in the diary was also discussed.

60. The presentation further indicated how time use data – data showing the activities individuals are engaged in, how much time is spent in each of those activities, and the context in which an activity takes place – can be summarized and analysed based on indicators of participation and average time use. These indicators can be calculated for different types of activities as identified by a classification of activities. It was pointed out that classifications of time use activities may vary depending on the purpose of analysis. ICATUS, the International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics, developed by UN as a trial version in 2005, and currently in progress toward finalization, takes into account the SNA production boundary framework. Thus, it can be used to measure unpaid work, by women and by men, and to set up satellite accounts that would supplement the national accounts and make the measurement of domestic production more complete and comparable across countries. The presentation explained the SNA framework-based distinction between productive or work activities (including SNA and non-SNA work) and non-productive or personal activities. Examples of unpaid work activities (work outside the operational boundary of SNA, or non-SNA work) were given. It was shown that women, more often than men, tend to be involved and spend a great amount of time in unpaid work in the home and community. When only cash transactions are taken into account in measuring the economic production, a large portion of women's work remains unaccounted for. Thus, measuring time use in unpaid work, not only reveals one area of great inequality between women and men, but also changes the more traditionally estimated contribution of women to the GDP. The presentation concluded by comparing existing approaches in estimating the value of unpaid work: based on input versus based on output; opportunity cost; and replacement cost (with the specialist versus generalist cost options).

61. China presented the methodology and main results obtained in the 2008 Time Use Survey. There were two 24-hour diaries used, for weekdays and for the weekend, based on a 10-minute fixed interval. The period covered was seven days. The respondents were all household members between ages 15 and 74. The activities recorded were based on a classification, similar to ICATUS, which consisted of nine major categories, further divided in 61 divisions and 113 groups of activities. The diary recorded both a primary activity (the only or the most important activity among several activities that occurred at a specific time period simultaneously) and a secondary activity (occurred simultaneously with the primary activity). Other information recorded was contextual, such as the place of activity; means of transportation; and with whom the activity was performed. Information on basic individual characteristics of the household members was also collected. The results obtained, disseminated in dedicated publications on Time Use in China, showed important differences in time use, included for unpaid work, between women and men, across age cohorts and geographic areas. For example, in both urban and rural areas, women spent more time than men on non-SNA productive activities, while men spent more time than women on SNA activities. The main type of unpaid work in China is cooking for both women and men, although women spend more time on it. And, although the time use for each type of unpaid work varies by age, the time spent on caring for other family members has the most distinct pattern.

62. Thailand presented the methodology and main results from the 2009 Time Use Survey. The survey used a 24-hour diary filled in by respondents aged 10 years and older (one respondent per household).

The diary allowed for recording of two simultaneous activities: a primary activity (activity that people answering the questionnaire were most concerned with or wanted to do the most) and a secondary activity (done at the same time with the primary activity and given lower priority). The classification of activities comprised 15 categories and allowed for the distinction of SNA work, categories of unpaid (non-SNA) work and non-productive (personal) activities. The results obtained showed, for example, that women spend more time than men in taking care of family members, while men spend more time than women in SNA work; men also spent more time than women in maintenance and management of the household, repairing goods and volunteer work.

Session 8. Use of census data for gender statistics and gender analysis

63. The presentation *Use of census data for gender statistics and gender analysis* by <u>UNFPA</u> introduced the new manual on gender analysis produced by UNFPA and focused on four elements for improving the capacity of countries to produce more analytical gender census monographs: (1) production of non-standard tabulations; (2) construction of more elaborated indicators that can be used in policy making; (3) combination of census data with data from other sources, such as poverty surveys; and (4) multivariate analysis of census data using techniques such as linear or logistic regressions.

64. The presentation covered, at the beginning, concepts and definitions related to gender, focusing on those not yet addressed by previous sessions of the workshop. For instance, gender analysis was defined as an intellectual effort involving a wide range of aspects: sex-disaggregated data; multivariate analysis; gender-specific indicators; in-depth examination and interpretation of data; identifying areas where new data need to be collected; and translating data into policy and planning.

Advantages, limitations and problems in using census data for gender analysis

65. Main advantages and limitations in using census as a source of data for gender statistics and gender analysis were highlighted. For example, one of the advantages of using censuses is the possibility of obtaining data by sex at the most disaggregated level possible, thus providing basic information for local advocacy and policy. Censuses can also provide essential background information allowing for further research on women and men, as well as girls and boys. Limitations were also noted. Census data are often limited in scope and depth. Sensitive topics, topics requiring specific skills of the interviewers and more specialized training, as well as topics that would increase greatly the burden of respondents are preferred to be left for other data collection programmes. Examples of topics included in the censuses only by some countries but interesting from a gender perspective were also given. Such examples are: the matrix of family relationships between household members; age at first marriage; age at first live birth for women; polygamous unions; maternal mortality; reasons for migration; remittances; and individual-level ownership of land and housing.

66. While censuses offer many opportunities for gender analysis, common problems are often identified, such as reducing the gender analysis to simple disaggregation of data by sex or presenting data for women only; using indicators that are not adequate for the objectives of analysis; data not standardized, or not disaggregated enough to uncover gender dimensions; disaggregation of data without a master plan on what, why (for what purposes) and how data should be disaggregated; and

not controlling for a variety of co-factors that may explain a given result. As an interactive exercise, the participants were given a list of examples of statistics and were required to come up with possible disaggregations/standardizations that would show whether gender or other factors (such as age, residence in urban/rural areas, migration status, or receiving remittances) were responsible for the observed sex differences.

Combining census data with data from sample surveys

67. Census data may be combined with data from sample surveys in order to estimate indicators related to topics that are not covered in the census (such as poverty, for example) at a level of disaggregation that is not possible in the sample surveys (small geographic areas, for example). Two strategies of combining census data with data from surveys were covered in the presentation: construction of proxy variables and statistical matching. The construction of proxy variables consists of developing regression or other multivariate models based on survey data and using explanatory variables that are common to the survey and the census, to predict the value of the variable to be included in the census database. The census value of the variable is then constructed by using the same equation on the explanatory variables as found in the census. In the statistical matching or "data borrowing" approach, one uses the variables that are common to the census and the survey to construct a measure of similarity or distance between individual cases of the census or survey files. Each individual case found in the census is then matched to its closer neighbor in the survey file.

Indicators, tabulations, and analysis

68. Furthermore, the presentation explained and illustrated the processing and analysis of census data that would result in more in-depth analytical gender monographs. Examples given dealt with five topics out of the twelve covered in the new UNFPA manual. These selected topics were: fertility, sex ratios, marital status, households and families and disability.

69. Two aspects concerning indicators were emphasized: (a) the distinction between standardized and non-standardized indicators and (b) choosing the indicators based on the objective of analysis and the planning/policy concerns. For example, with regard to disability, it was shown how standardizing for differences in age structure between female and male population can change sex differences in disability indicators and lead to more meaningful analysis. Disability-free life expectancy was also showcased as addressing the interrelationships between ageing, gender and disability. The disability-free life expectancy can be calculated with or without adjusting for sex differences in life tables, depending whether specific policy questions require either estimating the prevalence of disability by sex or estimating the need for care for each sex, respectively. As an exercise, the participants were requested to come up with an indicator that would show the differential impact of disabilities on the school attendance of girls and boys. The data given were the numbers of girls and boys disaggregated by disability status and school attendance status.

70. With regard to fertility, the participants were reminded the basic fertility indicators. It was further shown that most national statistical offices prepare tabulations on the average number of children by age category of the mother. These data are necessary for estimating fertility levels and patterns

(ASFRs/TFRs). A step further would be to disaggregate data by sex of the children born thus allowing for the computation of sex ratios at birth, an important indicator of discrimination of girls, especially in Asian countries. Also, giving more details on the distribution by number of children ever born would allow the analysis of childlessness by age category and preferably by marital status category. This is a major gender issue in many parts of the world. Finally, the combination of information on children ever born and children born in the last twelve months by sex allows for analysis of sex selection (a major gender issue in some Asian countries) in relationship with birth order and the sex of the previously born children. In particular, the issue of sex ratio at birth was extensively covered, based on examples of statistics from Viet Nam, India and China. An exercise on fertility required participants to identify the problem/issue in showing a correlation between total fertility rate and the female/male ratio of the population with at least secondary education among countries from all regions of the world. It was shown that although there is a statistical correlation between the two variables, a causality between gender inequality and the level of fertility should not be inferred. A third variable, in this case, based on the level of educational attainment for women only, strongly correlated with the female/male ratio of the population with at least secondary education, can also explain the level of fertility, and has a stronger theoretical and empirical support.

71. Participants were reminded marriage-related types of indicators based on census data, such as the singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) and age at first marriage. The presentation also highlighted the need to include in census tabulations important covariates that can explain some of the differences observed between women and men. For example, differences in marital status for women and men with disabilities may be explain by differences in the age structure of female and male population. Women tend to live longer than men, therefore they are more likely to become disabled at older ages and, also, more likely to be widowed. In this case, it is important that the variable age category is taken into account in the tabulations. As an exercise, the participants were required to propose an investigative strategy of non-marriage among women based on census data, whether it is related to taking care of their parents or to some other issues. Some of the disaggregations proposed by the participants for the marital status referred to living arrangements, economic and educational characteristics, presence of domestic workers in the household, and the availability of services for elderly in the community.

72. Furthermore, the presentation reviewed the concept of "head of household" and exemplified the role of multivariate analysis in understanding the links between poverty, female- and male-headship, and the composition of a household. It was pointed out that at least five different concepts of head of household have been applied in censuses: (a) main breadwinner; (b) householder; (c) main authority; (d) reference person; and (e) questionnaire respondent. Moreover, focusing on female- and male-headed households in poverty analysis may limit or mislead the gender analysis. Gender inequality taking place at the intra-household level is not taken into account. Also, due to lack of uniformity in defining the head of the household, there are limited possibilities for cross-country comparisons and analysis. Furthermore, focusing on female-headed households may lead to narrowed and biased policy priorities that may fail to affect and reshape the embedded structures of gender inequality. The presentation reiterated the conclusions of the earlier session on poverty, with regard to the use of clear criteria in identifying the head of the household and the need for further disaggregation of female- and male-headed households by characteristics of the household members. An example from

the 2008 census in Cambodia was shown to illustrate the wide range of household compositions found under the labels of female- and male-headed households. Finally, it was pointed out that gender analysis remains limited when only tabulations are used. Different characteristics can co-vary with the phenomenon under observation and tabulations alone cannot give a measure of the influence of each characteristic when controlling for the others. The direction of the relationship between the explaining variable and the variable to be explained may also change when controlling for other characteristics.

Country presentations

73. The session included three country presentations. The first presentation, by Lao PDR, covered three aspects: (a) the legislative context of gender equality in the country; (b) examples of gender statistics on education based on the 2005 population census; and (c) integration of gender into administrative sources. In Lao, gender equality is promoted by the 1991 Constitution of the country and the 1990 Family law. However, results of the 2005 Population Census showed that gender inequality continues to be an issue, as suggested by the data on literacy and school attendance. Literacy rates are lower for women than for men in both urban and rural areas; and a considerably higher proportion of girls than boys have never been to school. Nevertheless, efforts have been recently made to integrate the use of sex-disaggregated data in policies and programmes to better address the issue of gender inequality. In this regard, the production of gender statistics itself has to be further improved, as gender is not yet systematically integrated in all sources of data.

74. In Maldives, the 2010 National Strategy for Development of Statistics specifically aims to promote gender statistics across all sectors and develop indicators for monitoring and evaluation of development policies in the country. Maldives gave a strong emphasis to gender in the 2006 Population and Housing Census. A gender perspective was incorporated in all census operations, including the review of the questionnaire, sensitizing the census officials, training of the supervisors and enumerators and public awareness campaign. In terms of content, special attention was given to capturing information related to the economic activity of women, especially those engaged in small income generating activities and those based at home. Also, information on ownership of house was collected at the individual level. In terms of data dissemination, a chapter on gender, covering a wide range of topics, was included in the census report and contributed to raising awareness of women's situation in the country. Some of the census results and the analysis used were illustrated in the presentation. For example, with regard to the two topics emphasized above, it was shown that the underreporting of women's economic activity was reduced drastically compared to the previous censuses. Nevertheless, the actual gender gap in labour force participation, to the disadvantage of women, remains substantial. Household work and child caring are reasons for inactivity for a considerable proportion of women, but not for men. With regard to house ownership, it was revealed that the proportion of houses owned by men is twice the proportion of houses owned by women and only a small fraction of houses are owned jointly. However, the presentation showed that there are areas where women and girls performed as well as men and boys, such as in literacy and educational participation.

75. <u>Mongolia</u> presented the Gender Equality Monograph, one of the 14 monographs prepared based on the 2010 Population and Housing Census. This was the second monograph on gender equality based on census results prepared in the country and had two objectives: (a) monitor and assess the implementation of the National Programme for Gender Equality and (b) capture gender disparities on several demographic and socio-economic dimensions. The presentation itself highlighted gender differences in four areas: (i) age and sex composition of the population; (ii) households and families; (iii) internal migration; and (iv) education. For example, compared to the previous censuses, women increasingly outnumber men in urban areas, while men increasingly outnumber women in the rural areas of the country, as more adult women are migrating from rural to urban areas. The proportion of female-headed households has increased, especially the one-person households and the households of single mothers with children. More boys are dropping out of school in all regions of the country, and more women than men have post-secondary education, especially in the younger cohorts.

Session 9. Analysis and presentation of gender statistics: an overview

76. The presentation *From raw data to easily understood gender statistics* by <u>UNSD</u> focused on several points. First, it summarized key concepts presented in the previous days, including the distinction between "sex" and "gender" in the area of statistics, and the distinction between "sex-disaggregated data" and "gender statistics". Second, the participants were reminded the structure of a basic table for analysis of gender statistics and the two basic types of distributions relevant for gender statistics: (a) distribution of each sex by selected characteristic; and (b) sex distribution within the selected characteristic. For each type of distribution it was shown (a) the use in calculating certain gender indicators, and (b) specific charts to present the data. Third, the presentation illustrated the use of graphs and tables in conveying main messages resulted from data analysis. The examples given highlighted the importance of focusing on a limited number of messages for each chart or table (usually related to a gender issue); design elements to facilitate comparisons between women and men; clarity and simplicity of the visual presentation; and consistency in presenting statistics on women and men.

Session 10. Gender Statistics in ESCAP

77. In the last session of the workshop, <u>SIAP</u> informed the participants about the work of ESCAP Committee on Statistics and actions taken by the secretariat in developing a Regional Programme on Gender Statistics in Asia and the Pacific, including: (a) establishing a working group on gender statistics co-chaired by ESCAP and UN Women, and holding regional consultation; (b) regional review of gender statistics; and (c) in-country needs assessments (such as in Bhutan and Indonesia). The link to global initiatives was also highlighted, including the minimum set of indicators, the global review of gender statistics, the EDGE initiative and recent developed manuals.

78. The participants were reminded the first-day assignment on posting answers to four key questions on gender statistics: what are gender statistics?; why do we need them and why are we discussing about them?; for whom are gender statistics produced?; and how are gender statistics produced? In this context, SIAP introduced the last exercise of the workshop, focused on the last question, on "How" gender statistics should be produced. The participants, organized in four groups, were given the task to develop a 12-month national plan for mainstreaming a gender perspective into all

statistical activities, from the perspective of: (i) decision-makers; (ii) coordinators; (iii) data production groups; and (iv) data analysis and dissemination groups. The participants discussed objectives and specific strategies to achieve those objectives. For example, the main objective stated by the group of decision-makers was to include the production of gender statistics in the NSO action plans for statistics. Strategies discussed included the creation of an inter-agency committee on gender; sensitization of line-agencies, including the ministry of budget; assessment of availability of gender statistics, and ensuring the production of gender-focused publications. The group of coordinators focused on adapting global initiatives to the national context and addressing emerging concerns on gender through the work of a technical group and user-producer consultations. The data production specialists made sure that gender issues and data needed to address those gender issues are incorporated in the data sources developed. Finally, the group in charge with data analysis and data dissemination focused on several aspects: production and dissemination of a set of gender indicators following as much as possible the minimum set developed at global level; analysis of data, including multivariate analysis to underline gender issues; and communication and dissemination of statistics that underline gender inequality, including through graphical presentation, to all data users.

III. Conclusions

79. Conclusions of the workshop were presented, discussed and agreed upon at the end of the meeting. These conclusions are attached below.

General

80. The workshop expressed its appreciation to MIC, the Government of Japan, for its hospitality as well as to UNSD and SIAP for organizing and conducting the workshop.

81. The workshop took note of the objectives and main components of the Global Gender Statistics Programme, mandated by the UN Statistical Commission and implemented by UNSD in collaboration with members of the Inter-agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS).

82. Participants were informed of the Minimum Set of Gender Indicators identified by the IAEG-GS and agreed by the UN Statistical Commission at its 44th session in February 2013 as a basic set for national production and international compilation of gender statistics. Participants welcomed this initiative and recognized that the Minimum Set of Gender Indicators will be a guiding framework for countries that are producing key gender statistics.

83. The workshop acknowledged the importance of establishing inter-agency/advisory committees for gender statistics, composed of all stakeholders with an interest on gender, including women's advocates and other data users to ensure: (a) proper collaboration and coordination; (b) the production of policy relevant statistics; and (c) the use of the statistics produced. The experiences of Japan and the Philippines were praised as good examples of how cooperation among all stakeholders contributes to the development of gender statistics in a country.

84. Other elements of production of gender statistics were discussed, including: (a) the importance of identifying key gender issues and policy questions that statistics should be produced for, and

prioritizing according to a plan agreed by stakeholders; (b) relying as much as possible on regular government budget for the production of gender statistics, rather than ad-hoc financial support, to ensure continuity of gender programmes; (c) disseminating gender statistics in regular publications in addition to dedicated monographs/publications on the status of women and men; and (d) improving the use of gender statistics for the formulation, implementation and monitoring of national policies.

85. The importance of involving the media was also emphasized to ensure they do not misunderstand and misinterpret key results thus misleading data users.

86. The Workshop recognized that integrating gender perspective into statistics entails: (a) identifying the gender issues relevant for policy making and ensuring their coverage in the national production of statistics, (b) integrating a gender perspective into all data collections, including the use of gender-sensitive methods in data collection to avoid gender bias and increase the quality of statistics; (c) improving analysis, presentation and dissemination of gender statistics.

87. The workshop recognized the usefulness and timeliness of the publications presented: (a) the new UNSD Manual on *Integrating a Gender Perspective into Statistics*, (b) the UNSD *Guidelines for the Production of Statistics on Violence against Women*, and (c) the UNFPA/UNSD/UN Women *Guide on Gender Analysis of Census Data* as reference material covering harmonized concepts, definitions and methods on their respective areas, addressing current methodological needs of NSOs and ensuring the production of internationally comparable gender statistics.

88. Participants were informed about the work of ESCAP Committee on Statistics and actions taken by the secretariat in support of developing a regional programme for improving gender statistics in Asia and the Pacific, including regional review of gender statistics, in-country needs assessments, and holding regional consultations for developing a regional programme. It was recognized that countries in the region need to make use of global and regional initiatives to mainstream a gender perspective into the programme of work of national statistical offices.

89. In general the workshop proposed to: (1) strengthen the relationship between NSOs and users, including social science research institutes to ensure proper exploitation of their available data from a gender perspective; and (2) to build statistical capacity of NSOs and users on gender relevant data analysis, including from census data.

Identifying gender issues

90. Identifying gender issues relevant for policy making is one important aspect of integrating a gender perspective into statistics. Results of the global review of gender statistics programmes in the ESCAP region showed that some areas of gender statistics remain less developed than others. With regard to the production of gender relevant statistics on work, already well covered in the region, participants were reminded of the importance of considering additional information such as on work conditions, opportunities for career and equal payment.

91. The workshop noted that the production of gender relevant statistics on environmental issues such as the impact of environment on the lives of women and men is still a complex task for NSOs.

Participants highlighted the importance of accelerating efforts to integrate a gender perspective into environment statistics.

Integrating a gender perspective into data sources

92. The importance of integrating a gender perspective into data collection in surveys and censuses was highlighted. The Indian experience demonstrated how gender was integrated into all census operations, including: census advertising campaigns targeting specifically women; training enumerators on gender issues; hiring female enumerators; and ensuring no gender-based bias was included in the census questionnaire. Use of gender-sensitive methods in data collection on specific topics was also discussed during the workshop, such as in reducing underreporting and misclassification of women's economic activities, providing details on marital status, and using specific criteria for identifying the household head.

93. The workshop discussed two types of surveys of particular importance from a gender perspective: violence against women surveys and time use surveys.

94. With regard to the measurement of violence against women, the workshop recognized the importance of undertaking dedicated surveys rather than a module attached to other surveys to ensure that all the special features, such as questionnaire design, training of interviewers and ethical considerations, are taken into account and respected. The workshop was informed of the new Guidelines for the Production of Statistics on Violence against Women that provides detailed information on how to measure sexual, physical, psychological and economic violence from population-based surveys.

95. The workshop took note of the experiences gained on measuring violence against women in some countries in the Asian region, and praised them for the results they achieved (Vietnam) and their future plans for improvement (Indonesia). The workshop also noted that some countries are collecting data on violence against women through the DHS module (India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Mongolia, Philippines, and Sri Lanka). The workshop was informed that Bangladesh has recently finalized a dedicated survey on the topic and results should be disseminated shortly. The workshop was also informed of the ongoing plans for dedicated surveys on violence against women (Lao PDR, Mongolia and Myanmar).

96. The workshop recognized the importance and usefulness of Time Use Surveys (TUS) to provide evidence to answer many policies questions, particularly on gender issues, including on work-family life balance, time spent on unpaid work and on the total contribution of women to the economy. The workshop discussed the diary component of a time use survey, its advantage of collecting simultaneous activities, and the need for contextual variables. The workshop was also informed of different types of valuation techniques used to calculate satellite accounts for unpaid work.

97. The workshop took note that some countries represented at the workshop have conducted a TUS. While some countries have conducted a dedicated TUS (eg, China in 2008, Mongolia in 2011, Thailand in 2001, 2004 and 2009; Bangladesh in 2012), others have used a module on time use attached to a Household Expenditure and Consumption Survey (e.g. Laos). Having noted that ICATUS, the UN Trial International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics, is the

classification used in the region, the workshop was informed by UNSD about its revision and expected completion in 2013.

Analysis of gender statistics

98. The workshop took note of the importance of properly analyzing gender statistics to address gender issues. Some of the aspects that need to be taken into consideration include: (a) assessing data quality to avoid mis-interpretation of results; (b) using appropriate indicators/tabulations that reflect gender issues; (c) using multivariate analysis to ensure a proper understanding of gender inequality in its many dimensions; and (d) interpreting results of the analysis with careful consideration of other confounding factors (such as distinguishing the impact of "socio-economic" and "biological" factors on health outcomes).

99. Techniques to combine census data with sample surveys data were presented and discussed during the workshop. The importance of these techniques for detailed analysis at lower geographical levels or for sub-population (for example in the field of poverty), was acknowledged by the group.

100.   With regard to the analysis of gender gap in poverty, the workshop noted that poverty in Asia is mainly measured at the household level and gender is addressed mainly through comparisons between female- and male- headed households. As a result, gender differences in poverty levels and related risk factors are difficult to assess. In this context, the workshop emphasized the need to disaggregate the female- and male- headed households, including by relevant characteristics of the household, in order to explain the relationship between the characteristics of the head of household and the overall risk of poverty.

101.   In addition, participants were reminded to properly define the concept of "head of household" based on factual considerations and to make sure enumerators/interviewers understand it, to ensure consistency and comparability of household data collected.

102.   The workshop further discussed the importance of using individual-level data in addition to household-level data in gender-related poverty analysis, to ensure that gender inequality within the household is taken into account. The participants also discussed possible non-consumption indicators for various poverty dimensions, such as: (1) education (e.g. school attendance), (2) time use (e.g. time spent on leisure activities, time spent on household chores), (3) health (e.g. immunization, expenditure on health, subjective health status), (4) social exclusion (e.g. political participation, social network), (5) participation in intra household decision making (on how income is used), and (6) subjective evaluation of access to food and clothing (such as measures of food insecurity).

The way forward: 12-month

103.   The participants developed a 12-month national plan for mainstreaming a gender perspective into all statistical activities from the view point of decision makers, coordinators, data producers, and data analysts. Participants discussed in four different groups and proposed specific strategies that contribute to achieving four objectives: (a) to include in action plan of NSOs, the production of gender statistics; (b) to come up with a working national plan integrating global initiatives and

adopting it to the national context; (c) to make objective sex-disaggregated data available; and (d) to produce and disseminate a feasible set of indicators on gender statistics.

Annex 1. List of Participants

No.	Country / Organization		Contact Person Information
1.	BANGLADESH	1.	Ms. Aziza PARVIN Director Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
		2.	Md Eidtazul ISLAM Senior Assistant Secretary Statistics and Informatics Division (SID) Bangladesh
2.	CHINA	3.	Ms. Shaojun GONG Director National Bureau of Statistics
		4.	Mr. Rui LI Senior Program Officer National Bureau of Statistics
3.	INDIA	5.	Mr. Deepak RASTOGI Additional Registration General Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner Ministry of Home Affairs
		6.	Ms. Sekhar JEYALAKSHMI Additional Director General Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation Government of India
4.	INDONESIA	7.	Ms. Dwi Retno Wilujeng WAHYU UTAMI Division Chief of Region Resilience Statistics BPS-Statistics Indonesia
5.	JAPAN	8.	Ms. Shizuka Takamura Former Counselor for Gender Equality Analysis Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office
		9.	Ms. Yukiko KATSUMATA Director Department of Information Collection and Analysis National Institute of Population and Social Security Research Hibiya Kokusai Building 6th Floor 2-2-3 Uchisaiwaicyo, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 100-0011
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		11.	Ms. Reiko HAYASHI Director Department of International Research and Cooperation National Institute of Population and Social Security Research Hibiya Kokusai Building 6th Floor

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6.	LAO, DPR	12.	Ms. Thirakha CHANTHALANOUVONG Deputy Director General, Social Statistics Department Lao Statistics Bureau
7.	MALAYSIA	13.	Ms. Saidah HASHIM Director, Manpower and Social Statistics Division Department of Statistics
8.	MALDIVES	14.	Ms. Ashiyath SHAZNA Assistant Director, Statistics Development and Coordination Section Statistics Division, Department of National Planning
		15.	Ms. Hudha HALEEM Statistical Officer Statistics Division , Department of National Planning
9.	MONGOLIA	16.	Ms. Lkhagvadulam CHIMEDDAMBA Analyst of Population and Housing Census Bureau National Statistical Office
		17.	Ms. Tsogzolmaa JARGALSAIKHAN Analyst of Population and Housing Census Bureau National Statistical Office
10.	MYANMAR	18.	Mr. Than ZAW Deputy Director Central Statistical Organization
11.	NEPAL	19.	Mr. Bikash BISTA Deputy Director General Central Bureau of Statistics Government of Nepal
12.	PHILIPPINES	20.	Ms. Jessamyn ENCARNACION Director, Social Statistics Office National Statistical Coordination Board
		21.	Ms. Socorro ABEJO Director III National Staitstics Office
13.	SRI LANKA	22.	Ms. Champika Deepani DE SILVA Senior Statistician Department of Census and Statistics
14.	THAILAND	23.	Ms. Pastharee PANMEE Statistician National Statistical Office
15.	VIET NAM	24.	Ms. Kim Loan BUI Statistician Official General Statistics Office
		25.	Ms. Thi Viet Nga NGUYEN Statistician Official General Statistics Office

No.	Country / Organization		Contact Person Information
16.	WORLD BANK	26.	Ms. Masako HIRAGA Development Data Group The World Bank
17.	SIAP	27.	Ms. Margarita Guerrero Director United Nations Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific (SIAP) 2-2 Wakaba 3-Chome Mihama-ku, Chiba-shi Chiba 261-8787 Japan
		28.	Arman Bidarbakht-Nia United Nations Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific (SIAP)
18.	UNFPA	29.	Mr. Ralph HAKKERT Technical Advisor Population and Development Branch United Nations Population Fund 220 East 42nd Street 17F New York, NY 10017
19.	UNSD	30.	Ms. Francesca GRUM Chief, Social and Housing Statistics Section Statistics Division, United Nations Two UN Plaza DC2-1552 New York, NY 10017
		31.	Ms. Haoyi Chen Statistician, Social and Housing Statistics Section Statistics Division, United Nations Two UN Plaza DC2-1550 New York, NY 10017
		32.	Ms. Ionica BEREVOESCU Consultant Social and Housing Statistics Section Statistics Division, United Nations Two UN Plaza DC2-1552 New York, NY 10017

Annex 2. Agenda

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United Nations Statistics Division

Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific

in collaboration with the

Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, Government of Japan

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Workshop on Improving the Integration of a Gender Perspective

into Official Statistics

Chiba, Japan

16 to 19 April 2013

Agenda

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The United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) and the Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific (SIAP) are organizing a regional workshop on gender statistics, in cooperation with the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, Government of Japan (MIC). This regional workshop is intended to train national statisticians on the production and use of gender statistics, as well as discuss the newly developed UN manual: *Integrating a Gender Perspective into Statistics*. Participants will also benefit from the training on the use of census data for gender analysis, based on the UNFPA *Guide on Gender Analysis of Census Data.*

The key objectives of the workshop are:

• Strengthen the capacity of national official statisticians to apply international concepts and methods for gender statistics;

• Exchange and share good practices and lessons learned on gender statistics among national statistical offices and relevant government units;

• Promote the integration of a gender perspective into national statistical systems with the aim of improving the availability and quality of gender statistics.

TIME	TOPIC
	DAY 1: TUESDAY, 16 APRIL 2013

TIME	TOPIC
8:30 – 9:00	**Registration and welcome**
9:00 – 10:00	**Opening Remarks** • Ms. Francesca Grum, Chief, Social and Housing Statistics Section, UNSD • Ms. Margarita F. Guerrero, Director, Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific • Introduction of resource persons, participants and staff members **Welcoming address** • Mr. Masaaki Nakagawa, Director for International Training Co-operation, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications • Group Photo
10:00 – 11:00	**Session 1: Develop a coherent and comprehensive plan for the production of gender statistics** **Presentations** 1. Global Review of Gender Statistics Programmes (UNSD) 2. Overview of gender statistics: why, what, for whom and how (gender statistics for policy-making and research, mainstreaming a gender perspective in statistics – SIAP) 3. Discussion/conclusions
11:00 – 11:15	*Tea Break*
11:15 – 12:15	**Countries' experience in integrating gender into national statistics** 1. Country experience: India 2. Country experience: Philippines 3. Discussion/conclusions
12:15 – 13:45	*Lunch Break*
13:45 – 14:00	**Session 1 (cont.):** 1. Country experience: Japan

TIME	TOPIC
14:00 – 15:45	**Session 2: Integrating a gender perspective into health statistics** **Presentations** 1. Bringing gender issues into health statistics (UNSD) 2. Country experience: Bangladesh 3. Country experience: Myanmar 4. Discussion/conclusions
15:45 – 16:00	*Tea Break*
16:00 – 17:30	**Session 3: Integrating a gender perspective in statistics on work** **Presentations** 1. Bringing gender issues into statistics on work (UNSD) 2. Country experience: Malaysia 3. Discussion/conclusions

DAY 2: WEDNESDAY, 17 APRIL 2013

TIME	TOPIC
9:00 – 10:00	**Session 4: Integrating a gender perspective in poverty statistics** **Presentations** 1. Bringing gender issues into poverty statistics (UNSD) 2. Country experience: Nepal 3. Discussion/conclusions
10:00 – 11:00	**Session 5: Integrating a gender perspective in statistics on environment** **Presentation** 1. Bringing gender issues into statistics on environment (UNSD) 2. Country experience: Sri Lanka 3. Discussion/conclusions
11:00 – 11:15	*Tea Break*
11:15 – 12:15	**Group exercise**
12:15 – 13:45	*Lunch Break*

TIME	TOPIC
13:45 – 15:45	**Session 6: Violence against women surveys** **Presentations** 1. Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence Against Women (UNSD) 2. Country experience: Indonesia 3. Country experience: Viet Nam 4. Discussion/conclusions
15:45 – 16:00	*Tea Break*
16:00 – 17:30	**Session 7: Time use surveys** **Presentations** 1. Time Use Surveys and gender statistics (SIAP) 2. Country experience: China 3. Country experience : Thailand 4. Discussion/conclusions

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DAY 3: THURSDAY, 18 APRIL 2013

TIME	TOPIC
9:00 – 12:15	**Session 8: Use of census data for gender statistics and gender analysis** **Presentations** 1. Strengths and weaknesses of the use of census data (UNFPA) 2. Tabulation of census data (UNFPA) 3. Limitations on the kinds of conclusions that can be drawn from census tabulations (UNFPA) 4. Country experience: Lao DPR
12:15 – 13:45	*Lunch Break*
13:45 – 15:45	**Session 8: (cont'd)** **Group exercise**
15:45 – 17:00	**Presentations** (UNFPA) 5. Types of indicators that can be constructed with census data 6. Comparison of census indicators with similar indicators from other sources 7. Country experience: Maldives

DAY 4: FRIDAY, 19 APRIL 2013

TIME	TOPIC

9:00 – 10:45	**Session 8: (cont'd)**
	
	Presentations
	
	    8. Multivariate analyses
	    9. Selected substantive analyses
	    10. Country experience: Mongolia
	    11. Discussion/conclusion

10:45 – 11:00	*Tea Break*
11:00 – 12:15	**Group exercise**
12:15 – 13:45	*Lunch Break*
13:45 – 14:15	**Session 9: Analysis and presentation of gender statistics: an overview** **Presentation** 1. From raw data to easily understood gender statistics (UNSD)

14:15 – 16:00	**Session 10: Regional perspective of ESCAP**
	
	Presentation
	
	    1. Regional perspective, the way forward (SIAP)
	    2. Country discussion on future plans
	    3. Discussion

16:00– 16:30	*Tea Break*
16:30 – 17:00	**Conclusions** UNSD/SIAP will introduce the major conclusions of the workshop. Plenary discussion will then follow for all participants to comment.

17:00-17:30	**Closing Session**
	
	    • Awarding certificate to the participants
	
	    • Closing Remarks (UNSD, SIAP)

Annex 3. Pre-workshop assignments

Assignment for the gender statistics experts

Participants were asked to write a 3-5 page document responding to the following questions in reference to the last 10 years:

1. Has an assessment being conducted on the availability of gender statistics in your Office?
    (a) When was the latest assessment conducted?
    (b) What were the results of the assessment?
    (c) Briefly indicate your role in this process (if any).

2. Has your work on gender statistics involved interacting with data users?
    (a) If yes, what are the users you most often interact with?
    (b) What are the aspects covered in the user consultation?
    (c) Challenges encountered.

3. Has your work involved compilation of data disaggregated by sex from other departments/divisions in your NSO or from other national agencies/sources?
    (a) If yes, indicate the main providers of data.
    (b) What are the main products you have compiled?
    (c) What are the target audience for your products?
    (d) List the main challenges in this work.

4. Has your work on gender statistics involved collaborating with colleagues from data collection programmes/department(s) in your NSO
    (a) reviewing questionnaires and manuals used for data collection? If yes, specify the name and the year of the surveys/censuses
    (b) assessing sex-biases in data obtained in surveys, censuses, civil registration or other administrative sources of data. If yes, indicate the data sources and the specific data assessed.
    (c) assisting/leading the analysis of gender statistics in analytical reports produced? If yes, indicate what reports.

5. Has your work involved producing statistical publications on women and men? What were the main challenges?

6. Has your work on gender statistics involved training other staff on gender statistics? If yes, indicate:
    (a) The topics covered in the training
    (b) How often was the training being carried out?
    (c) Who are the trainees?

7. Are the gender statistics produced by your NSO used in policy making or background reports for policy making? Give three examples.

8. Think about your current work on gender statistics, the overall production of gender statistics in your NSO, as well as current challenges and further needs in producing gender statistics in your country. Indicate
    (a) The main directions of developing gender statistics or goals of improving gender statistics in your NSO in the next year
    (b) Your own contribution in this overall plan.

Assignment for the census experts

Participants were asked to write a 3-5 page document responding to the following questions in reference to the most recent population census conducted in the country.

1. Describe your role in the most recent population census.

2. In your most recent population census, was a gender specialist consulted, or were there gender considerations taken into account?
    (a) If Yes, on what aspects? (census advertising, reviewing data collection tools used in previous censuses, designing census questionnaire – selection of topics covered and phrasing of the questions, preparing/revising interviewer manuals, gender-sensitive training, tabulation and analysis of data obtained, etc)
    (b) If No, explain why.

3. Was any evaluation carried out on errors in census data that showed sex-selective under-reporting or mis-reporting(e.g., undercount of females or girls, sex-bias in births, deaths and economic activities)
    (a) If Yes please describe how the evaluation was done, what characteristics were covered, and the results

4. Was a gender monograph produced as one of the core census publications?
    (a) If yes please bring a copy.
    (b) Who contributed to the preparation of the gender census monograph (data collection specialists, gender specialists, external collaborators from research and academia groups etc.)?
    (c) Please give details on whether the preparation of the gender census monograph involved calculation of more elaborated indicators, special tabulations of data, more in-depth analysis, or integration of different sources of data.