Measuring Gender Dimensions of the World of Work in Bangladesh:

A Training Guide

Employment Sector
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Foreword

Measuring Gender Dimensions of the World of Work in Bangladesh: A Training Guide has been developed with a view to enhancing gender sensitivity in the collection, analysis, presentation and dissemination of labour force and income data in Bangladesh. During the preparatory phase of the guide, such a need was confirmed by the national experts and partners at a roundtable meeting of May 2005 held in Dhaka. The guide intends to contribute to further enhancing gender dimensions of measuring the world of work in Bangladesh through clarifying specific gender issues relevant to statistical concepts relating to work and income. The guide is meant to be used as a training tool not only by those who are involved in collecting, analysing and disseminating statistics, but also by those who are involved in research and policy-making in the country.

Despite the overall progress made in narrowing gender gaps, women's position in the world of work remains unequal to that of men. Women in Bangladesh are considered as minor players in the economy and secondary participants in the labour market, largely because of the traditional views still held by some sections of the society on the role of women. However, a substantial number of women do work in various categories of employment in both informal and formal economy, though many work as unpaid family workers.

Given the above situation, it is assumed that much of the work carried out by women in Bangladesh has either been largely underestimated or simply gone unaccounted for in national statistics, particularly in the collection and analysis of labour force and household data. Without reliable statistics and a specific gender analysis of socio-economic data, including income and labour force data, it will be difficult to formulate appropriate policies and programmes that address the needs of its economic players, especially those who are disadvantaged, including the income-poor women.

The guide not only demonstrates the importance of analysing gender gaps in the world of work, but also the need to further examine the current methods and practices of collection, analysis and dissemination of relevant statistics from a gender perspective in Bangladesh, so that results of the data analysis contribute to formulation of more gender-responsive socio-economic and employment policies. It is hoped that the stakeholders in Bangladesh will take the relevant work forward using this guide, particularly, in promoting decent and productive employment for both women and men. Although this guide has been developed with specific reference to Bangladesh, it is hoped that it will be useful to the stakeholders in many other countries confronting similar challenges.

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Abbreviations used in the text

BBS	Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
BIDS	Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies
CBS	Central Bureau of Statistics
DHS	Demographic and health survey
GDP	Gross domestic product
GRB	Gender-responsive budget
HIES	Household Income and Expenditure Survey
ICATUS	International Classification of Time Use Activities
ICLS	International Conference of Labour Statisticians
ICSE	International Classification of Status in Employment
ILO	International Labour Organization/Office
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
LFS	Labour force survey
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NGO	Non-governmental organization
SDDS	Special Data Dissemination Standard
SNA	System of National Accounts
UN	United Nations
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNSD	United Nations Statistical Division
USDOL	United States Department of Labor
WEEH	Women's Empowerment through Employment and Health
WIEGO	Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing

Acknowledgements

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Furthermore, thanks are due to many people who assisted in the process of compiling the handbook. Firstly, thanks are due to staff of the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) and others who attended the May 2005 roundtable panel discussion which resulted in the decision to compile the guide. Secondly, thanks are due to Khairul Islam, National Project Manager and Hasina Inam, National Project Coordinator of the ILO WEEH project in Bangladesh for organising the roundtable and other activities related to the handbook. Thanks are also due to Eivind Hoffmann, previously with the Statistics Division of the ILO in Geneva and currently with the Norwegian Directorate of Immigration, and Joann Vanek, previously of the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) in New York and now Director of the Statistics Programme of Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO), for their detailed comments and suggestions on the guide. Finally, thanks are also due to Jyoti Tuladhar, Senior Gender Specialist of the Bureau for Gender Equality of ILO Geneva for her useful comments on gender concepts.

1. Introduction to the guide

Background

The International Labour Organization (ILO) provided support to the project entitled Women's Empowerment through Employment and Health (WEEH) in Bangladesh in collaboration with various national partners between 2001 and 2005. The WEEH project aimed to promote women's rights to decent employment and gender equality, as well as to improve the health of rural women and their families through expanding access to micro-health insurance schemes in Bangladesh.

One part of the WEEH project focused on gender dimensions of labour and income statistics. In Bangladesh, as in most other parts of the world, women's work is under-counted or uncounted. Yet, anyone who knows the country knows that vast numbers of Bangladeshi women work in the rice fields and other agricultural activities, as well as in non-agricultural work as self-employed, employees in establishments, home workers, or even as independent entrepreneurs.

In 2004, WEEH project commissioned Dr Rushidan Rahman of the Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies (BIDS) to produce a research study, *The dynamics of the labour market and employment in Bangladesh: A focus on gender dimensions*. This study examined the existing labour market data in Bangladesh over the period 1983 to 2000. The study revealed some of the existing gender patterns. It also revealed some shortcomings in the data caused by conceptual and measurement problems and inconsistencies in the definition of employment and work across past labour force surveys.

Without accurate and unbiased statistics, Bangladesh will not be able to formulate or implement effectively appropriate policies and programmes which take into account the different needs of diverse economic actors. Socially-blind policies could perpetuate existing disadvantages of certain social groups, unless differences and gaps in socio-economic status, hence corresponding developmental needs, are recognised by existing statistical systems. It will also prevent the country as a whole from making progress in both economic and social development.

The ILO thus proposed that a guide be developed as an aid in developing better data on the gender dimensions of the world of work, as well as promoting a better understanding of what data mean for policy from a gender perspective. The idea of developing a guide was discussed at a workshop in Dhaka in May 2005, at which Dr Rahman presented her findings. In addition, during fact-finding interviews preceding the workshop, a range of informants spoke about the need for improvements in relation to training of enumerators, design of instruments, and – in particular – gender analysis. Again, these observations supported the need for a guide.

Purpose and target audience of the guide

The purpose of the guide is to enhance the gender sensitivity of data collection, analysis, presentation and dissemination of labour force and income and expenditure statistics in Bangladesh. This training guide is intended primarily for use in training of BBS officers, as BBS is the main producer of official statistics in the country, as resource material. It should, however, also be useful for others beyond BBS. These include officers in line ministries, policy makers, researchers, and NGOs interested in gender and employment issues.

The guide is comprised of two parts: Part I: A Trainer's Handbook and Part II: A Trainer's Guide, and is intended as a stand-alone training tool. It does, however, contain references to key documents and websites that users might want to consult for further information. Part I includes various topics of gender and statistics related to labour force survey and household and income and expenditure survey, hence can also be a reader for the participants of training workshops. Part II includes supporting training materials that the trainer can use during the training workshop, such as group exercises, examples and hand-outs.

Part I: Trainer's Handbook

1. Introduction

About Trainer's Handbook

Part I: Trainer's Handbook is organised according to the clauses of the checklist of good practices on mainstreaming gender in labour statistics adopted by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in October 2003. The handbook refers repeatedly to international good practice in terms of definition of concepts, design of instruments, fieldwork and analysis. It cites, in particular, experiences of other South Asian countries in trying to improve the 'counting' of women and their activities in the population census and surveys.

When dealing with national statistics, one needs to consider the relative disadvantages of introducing many changes at the same time (a 'big bang' approach) and of introducing ongoing small changes over a longer period (an incremental approach). All changes tend to reduce comparability of statistics over time. Changes can also prevent the data collection agencies and analysts from consolidating the skills and experience they have built up over time. Where, however, the current methods adopted are not optimal, it is preferable to introduce changes than to maintain comparability of poor measurements.

In the area of labour statistics, there is established good practice in relation to the majority of topics. A 'big bang' approach which addresses a range of areas might be preferable to having too many ongoing small changes. The guide is not prescriptive on whether a 'big bang' or incremental approach should be adopted. Instead, it presents a range of different ways in which statistics on gender and employment could be improved. In particular, it includes suggestions for improving analysis of data as collected now, as well as suggestions for ways of changing data collection over the years.

The guide draws examples mainly from the labour force survey (LFS) and household income and expenditure survey (HIES) which are conducted on a fairly regular basis by the BBS. The guide should, however, also be relevant for those designing, implementing and using other data sources.

The two key surveys

Labour force survey

A labour force survey (LFS) is intended to reveal the pattern of labour force participation in a country and how it changes over time. This information can then be used by government to develop appropriate socio-economic policies and, in particular, policies related to employment and labour issues. Because of the differences in the activity patterns of women and men, the LFS is an important tool that can assist government in making gender-responsive employment policies.

In recent times Bangladesh has conducted a LFS more or less on a biannual basis. The questionnaires remained fairly constant through the 1990s. The instrument for 2002/3 was, however, significantly different from earlier ones. In 2002/03 the LFS was conducted as an add-on module to a child labour survey. As a result, the number of questions was reduced and the way in which questions were framed was simplified. The survey was also conducted in less than a month, rather than covering the whole year as it previously did.

This handbook refers mainly to the way in which questions were posed in the LFS of 2002/3. Where relevant, however, it refers to the way the question was asked in previous surveys.

The standard report on the LFS includes disaggregration by sex for most variables. There is, however, very little comment on, and analysis of, the patterns revealed by the disaggregated data.

Household income and expenditure survey

The household income and expenditure survey (HIES) collects information that allows government to monitor changes in the socio-economic characteristics of a country's households over time. In particular, the HIES is used to monitor poverty. The information can then be used to inform the formulation of socio-economic development policies, and to ensure that these policies target those areas of the country and those types of household that are most in need.

The HIES is conducted about every four years in Bangladesh. The questionnaire is extremely long (63 pages in 2005) and contains several sections, for example on education and health, which are not normally part of these surveys. The questionnaire includes a range of questions on employment and income of household members. The level of detail on employment income is greater than for the LFS, which only has estimates for employees. However, the HIES does not contain good information on any characteristics of unpaid family workers, who account for a significant proportion of the female population employed in Bangladesh.

The HIES is a year-round survey.

2. International guidelines

Checklist of good practices for mainstreaming gender in labour statistics

The following checklist was adopted by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians in November 2003.

> *To usefully address gender concerns, and to understand more fully the labour market functioning, labour statistics should satisfy the following four requirements:*
>
> *(a) They will be based on a political will at all levels, in the various data collection and analysis agencies and in all agencies which can provide administrative information;*
>
> *(b) The data collection procedures for labour statistics will ensure that, as far as possible, all relevant topics for describing gender concerns are regularly included. Such topics may include employment in the informal economy, non-SNA work, employment by detailed occupations and status in employment categories, income from paid and self-employment, statistics on the life course, on lifelong learning and on working time;*
>
> *(c) The data collection and processing procedures for labour statistics programmes will be designed to ensure that definitions and measurement methods cover and adequately describe all workers and work situations in sufficient detail to allow relevant gender comparisons to be made. Household and establishment-based surveys as well as administrative sources are valuable and, in particular, periodical time-use surveys are crucial;*
>
> *(d) The resulting statistics will always be presented as part of regular publications in a way that will clearly reveal differences and similarities between men and women in the labour market and the factors that may influence their situations. This can be done by (i) presenting relevant topics in sufficient and relevant detail, and by (ii) providing statistics according to relevant descriptive variables, of e.g. personal and family circumstances, work environment and institutional setting.*

The checklist was designed by and for countries in all parts of the world, including developed and developing countries. It thus points to general principles rather than giving specific recommendations. These general principles must then be adapted to fit the circumstances of each country.

The four chapters which form the main body of this handbook correspond to the four sub-clauses of the checklist. The rest of this introductory chapter briefly discusses the ILO's concept of 'decent work', the Beijing Platform for Action, and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as three international initiatives which have relevance for the production of statistics related to gender-sensitive labour statistics.

Decent work

The ILO's concept of 'decent work' (ILO, 1999) is also useful to keep in mind when thinking about gender dimensions of employment and income statistics. The decent work agenda has been the guiding framework for the ILO since 1999. Bangladesh, and the BBS in particular, has proved its interest in this approach by agreeing to become one of a limited number of countries which pilot a set of decent work indicators developed by the ILO.

The essence of the decent work agenda is captured in the following two sentences:

> *Promoting work of women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity…. Decent Work agenda puts gender equality and development issues at the heart of the ILO agenda. (Decent Work, ILO, 1999)*

Decent work is based on four broad areas of principles:

- **Freedom**: that working women and men should be free from forced labour, and enjoy freedom of association and collective bargaining;
- **Equity**: that women and men of all social groups should enjoy equal opportunities to productive employment, income and productive resources;
- **Security**: that working women and men should enjoy work stability, safe work, a social safety net, and protection against sickness and old age;
- **Human dignity**: that there should be no child labour and working women and men should enjoy decent working conditions.

The decent work agenda seeks to provide a 'social floor' in socio-economic development. It is intended as a way of linking social progress and economic growth, so that all people in a country can benefit from growth. Expressed differently, it seeks to combine efficiency objectives with equity and welfare goals. It states clearly that it is not only the quantity of jobs that matters, but also the quality of those jobs. Across all these aspects, it sees gender equality as a cross-cutting priority[1].

In 2002, the ILO published a discussion paper (Anker et al, 2002) which suggested and discussed 30 possible indicators of decent work which could serve as a standard set across countries. (There is as yet no universal acceptance or agreement on these indicators.) The suggested indicators are listed in Appendix 1 of this handbook.

Several of the indicators explicitly refer to gender issues. These are:

- Indicator 15: Employment rate for women with children under compulsory school age;
- Indicator 16: Occupational segregation by sex; and
- Indicators 17: Female share of employment in managerial and administrative occupations.

Indicator 15 is relevant for the discussion of life cycle discussed below, while indicators 16 and 17 are relevant for the discussions of occupation and skill.

[1] These paragraphs summarise a presentation of Naoko Otobe, ILO made at the validation workshop, held in Dhaka, August, 2005.

The indicators are organised into several groupings. Anker et al acknowledge the paucity of indicators for the grouping 'Balancing Work and Family Life'. This grouping is of particular importance from a gender perspective. Anker et al suggest that further work is needed to develop measurements for the following aspects of balancing work and family life:

- The incidence and duration of employment protection for mothers and fathers from both public and private sources;
- The incidence, duration and average level of monetary benefits for maternity and paternity leave provided by public and private sources;
- Flexibility of work and accommodation of family needs of workers (hours, leave for taking care of a sick child, bringing children to workplaces, access to telephone for personal use);
- Quality, availability and affordability of formal child-care arrangements, including public subsidies and tax benefits;
- Workplace issues connected with ageing populations.

The section of the summary table listing the indicators also suggests, under the 'Fair Treatment in Employment' grouping, that two other specified indicators have a gender-related variant, namely:

- Share of women in non-agricultural wage employment under Employment Opportunities
- Female/male wage or earnings ratio for selected occupations under Adequate Earnings.

More generally, the authors describe their approach to the cross-cutting gender equality concern which informs the decent work agenda as follows:

> *Gender concerns are mainly addressed by observing differences between men and women for decent work indicators where gender is relevant. An underlying assumption is that all aspects of decent work are relevant for both men and women. This implies, then, that female-male differences provide the appropriate gender indicators in almost all instances (Anker et al, 2002: 8).*

The authors also note that decent work 'is especially concerned about the poorest and most vulnerable. This, in turn, implies that decent work indicators should often be concerned with distributions and measuring the situation of the least well off rather than averages.' (Anker et al, 2002: 3).

The decent work indicators focus largely on measuring conditions in 'modern' employment rather than agriculture and other forms of employment commonly found in developing countries, such as those forms typically called informal employment[2]. This bias has a gender dimension, in that women tend to be concentrated in the non-modern types of employment. Two questions arise if we are interested in gender dimensions of employment statistics and decent work: (a) Does the focus on modern employment imply that non-modern employment is necessarily not 'decent'? (b) If this is not the case, how can we develop more decent work indicators for non-modern employment, such as informal employment?

[2] Informal employment is employment without any access to social protection and legal coverage. It is discussed in a later section of the handbook.

Beijing Platform for Action

The Beijing Platform for Action is the strategy document which was agreed to by all countries participating in the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995. One of the strategic objectives of the Platform, objective H.3, is: ‘Generate and disseminate gender-disaggregated data and information for planning and evaluation’. This objective comes under the ‘critical area’ of institutional mechanisms. This placement emphasises that the objective concerns setting up ongoing, sustainable mechanisms.

The Platform says that all statistics related to individuals must be collected, compiled, analysed and presented by sex and age. It also says that statistics should reflect problems, issues and questions related to women in society. The Platform puts special emphasis on statistics on women’s and men’s paid and unpaid work.

Millennium Development Goals

The MDGs are intended to set development priorities linked with time-bound targets and indicators for international development as well as development in individual countries. Goal 3 focuses specifically on gender equality and includes as indicator of women’s economic status the share of women in non-agricultural wage employment. This indicator is of limited use in a country such as Bangladesh, where non-agricultural employment accounts for a very small proportion of the workforce. To address this and other limitations, the Millennium Project Task Force on Education and Gender Equality suggested several additional indicators. In respect of the labour force, these included an indicator to measure gender gaps in earnings in wage and self-employment and an indicator to measure the hours per day or year that women and men spend fetching water and collecting fuel (Grown et al, 2005: 18).

The Sub-Group on Gender Indicators of the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on MDG indicators suggested a modification of the economic indicator for Goal 3 to include both agricultural and non-agricultural employment, and to distinguish between formal and informal employment and between wage and non-wage employment (UNIFEM, 2005: 42). This modification makes the indicator more complicated, but potentially much more useful in terms of understanding development.

3. Key concepts of gender and statistics

Both gender analysis and labour market analysis use a range of technical jargon. If gender-sensitive labour statistics are to be useful, it is important that everyone understands the relevant terms in the same way. This section thus presents short explanations of some of the key terms in plain English.

Sex and gender

"Gender" refers to the social differences and relations between men and women, girls and boys, which are learned, vary widely among societies and cultures, and change over time. The term "gender" does not replace the term "sex", which refers exclusively to biological differences between male and female. For example, statistical data are broken down by sex, which does not change over time, across countries, and across cultures.

Gender roles are learned behaviours in a given society, community or other social group. They condition which activities, tasks, responsibilities, and entitlements are attributable to male or female. Gender roles are affected by age, class, race, ethnicity and religion, and by the geographical, economic and political environment[3].

Gender analysis

Gender analysis entails, first and foremost, collecting sex-disaggregated data and gender-sensitive information about the population concerned. Gender analysis is the first step in gender-sensitive planning for promoting gender equality[4].

Gender analysis is a tool to diagnose the differences between men and women, with respect to four aspects which are determined by gender roles: their contributions, their needs, their access to and control over resources and benefits; and their constraints and opportunities. It looks at inequalities between men and women, asks why they exist and suggests how the gaps can be narrowed.

Gender division of labour

The gender division of labour is, from an economist's viewpoint, the process whereby workers are allocated to the activity in which they are perceived to be the most productive. It may be based on:

- technical characteristics, when a single production process is broken down into its constituent parts, each part being performed by a different person or machine; or
- social characteristics, when people are allocated to specific tasks on the basis of their physical or social characteristics, such as age, sex, race, religion, ethnic origin or social class.

The division of labour by gender thus refers primarily to the allocation of paid and unpaid work between women and men in private and public life. This division often reflects the traditional division of women's and men's role in society, which results in women's work being often

[3] *ABC on Women Workers' Rights and Gender Equality*, p. 35. (2003, ILO Geneva)
[4] Ibid.

invisible and therefore undervalued in national accounts and in the labour statistics[5].

Gender equality

Gender equality, or equality between men and women, entails the concept that all human beings, both men and women, are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by stereotypes, rigid gender roles and prejudices. Gender equality means that the different behaviour, aspirations and needs of women and men are considered, valued and favoured equally. It does not mean that women and men have to become the same, but that their rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female[6].

Gender equality is often understood as equality of opportunity. This means that women and men, girls and boys, are not discriminated against in access to opportunities. In legal terms, gender equality is referred to as formal equality.

Gender equity

Gender equity means fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs. This may include equal treatment or treatment that is different but which is considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities[7].

Gender equity is about equality of outcome or result. This is a stronger concept than equality of opportunity. It means that women and men, girls and boys, have an equal chance of reaching the finishing line rather than only an equal chance at the starting line. Gender equity is about fairness. It takes account of the different situation of women and men, girls and boys. In legal terms, gender equity is referred to as substantive equality.

Gender mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming means introducing a gender perspective in the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated[8].

Gender mainstreaming is about addressing gender issues in all policy formation, planning, budgets and monitoring instead of addressing gender as a separate issue through separate activities or programmes. In the context of this handbook, gender mainstreaming means that incorporation of gender dimensions in labour statistics is primarily the task of the BBS. It is not something that should be left to the Ministry of Women. Instead, there should be close cooperation between the BBS and Ministry of Women.

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[5] *Ibid*., p. 23.
[6] *Ibid*., pp. 35-36.
[7] *Ibid*., p. 36.
[8] *Ibid*. pp. 36-37.

Gender-sensitive statistics

Gender-sensitive statistics include two different types of statistics:

- Sex-disaggregated statistics on issues that affect both female and male population, and especially those issues that tend to affect female and male people differently;
- Statistics on key gender issues that might affect only one sex, such as maternal mortality.

Often people only think of the first type when they talk about gender statistics. It is important that statistics are collected not only with sex-disaggregation (see below for further explanation), but also analysed with a specific gender perspective to reflect on gender implications and gaps, so that response, in terms of legislation, policy and programmes addresses gender gaps between women and men, girls and boys in different situations.

Labour force participation

Labour force participation rate accounts for the number and percentage of people in the country who are either doing “economic” work or want to do “economic” work. It thus includes both employed and unemployed, those who are looking for work but cannot find it. Labour force participation rate is usually measured only for people aged 15 and above because in an ideal society children below this age should not do any economic work, particularly at the detriment of their schooling. The cut-off of 15 years also matches the ILO Minimum Age for Admission to Employment Convention of 1973 (no 138).

Sex-disaggregated data

Sex-disaggregated data are data that show the differences between the situation of women and men, girls and boys. Many people say ‘gender-disaggregated data’ rather than ‘sex-disaggregated data’. This is not correct because the data are describing the disaggregated patterns found among male and female population, i.e. by their biological characteristics. These patterns, in turn, reflect the roles and responsibilities that make up the gender situation which is socially defined in the country.

System of National Accounts

The System of National Accounts (SNA) provides the international rules that state how countries must measure their gross domestic product (GDP). GDP is the internationally accepted measure of the total value of a country’s production of goods and services (although, as seen below, it excludes unpaid production of services for own use). These rules are important for labour statistics because the international guidelines on measuring employment state that what counts as employment must match what is defined as economic production in the SNA.

Unpaid care work

Unpaid care work is the unpaid work that mainly women do - bearing, rearing and caring for the people in the country. It includes unpaid housework, childcare, caring for the elderly, sick and disabled people in the household and volunteer work in the community. It excludes some forms of unpaid work, such as the work done by unpaid family workers on the family’s land or in the family business.

4. Political will

Political will is the first element of the ICLS checklist. The Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics' interest in having this handbook is a strong sign of the commitment of the primary producer of official data in the country to gender mainstreaming in labour statistics. This commitment must, however, extend beyond the BBS, if the gender-sensitive data produced are to make a difference in the lives of the Bangladeshi population, and especially those who are poor. 'Political' will must thus be understood as referring to the commitment to take account of gender-sensitive data in government policy-making.

UNIFEM makes this point as follows:

> *Women have challenged conventional views [of economics] and proposed new visions of economic life in which women's activities count, in several senses:* ***counted*** *in statistics,* ***accounted*** *for in representations of how economies work and* ***taken into account*** *when policy is made. (Elson, 2000: 21, emphasis added).*

In terms of policy making, mainstreaming of gender in labour and other statistics will complement the work that the Government of Bangladesh has embarked on in the area of gender-responsive budgeting (GRB). GRB initiatives have been embarked on in over 60 countries in the world. Some of these initiatives are led by government, some by non-governmental agencies, and some by parliamentarians. The initiatives are very diverse, but the unifying aspect is the key question which they pose: *What is the impact of the government budget, and the policies and programmes that it funds, on women and men, girls and boys*? GRB is thus an attempt to ensure that gender issues are considered and addressed in all government policies and programmes, and in the budgets allocated to implement them.

While every GRB initiative is different, ideally each should cover five basic steps which should underlie all policy making and implementation, namely (a) situation analysis in a particular sector; (b) policy analysis and design; (c) resource allocation; (d) monitoring of delivery; and (e) evaluation of impact. Data are important at most of these steps. In particular, the types of data produced by household surveys form the basis for a solid situation analysis, as well as – several years down the line – for an evaluation of impact.

In Bangladesh, North South University, supported by Norwegian and Dutch funding, is close to completing the first of two phases of a GRB process. At the time of writing of this guide, the initiative has focused on the policies and budgets related to Health and Nutrition, Education, Agriculture and Water Resources, and Administration. Labour statistics are especially relevant for the agriculture sector analysis. In later years, the initiative is planned to be extended to further sectors.

The International Labour Organization is concerned with promoting social justice, advocating for decent work for all. One of the key priority concerns of the organization is promoting equal opportunities for all social groups: women, men, older and younger workers, majority and minority groups, etc. As stipulated under some of the key International Labour Standards which specifically address equality between women and men, promoting gender equality in the world of work constitutes one of the organization's fundamental principles and rights at work. Accordingly, the ILO is monitoring the overall implementation of the equal rights Conventions, as well as changing patterns of the world of work across all the countries. Historically, women's and men's labour participation patterns have differed, and it is important that all countries keep track of such changes in order to be able to formulate appropriate socio-economic policies, taking into consideration specific gender concerns. Hence, collecting and analysing sex-disaggregated data and statistics is a basic departure point to address the relevant issues.

Gender-sensitive statistics are also needed to understand how a range of different factors are affecting women and men, and especially those who are poor, and their families. These factors include:

- A large, and possibly expanding, informal economy;
- Globalization – increased economic integration and advances in technology;
- The impact of work and lack of work on family and personal lives;
- The linkages between unpaid care work and production;
- The extent to which women and men are affected by decent work deficits: the lack of decent employment – work largely unprotected, lack of access to social protection, lack of representation and voice – largely speaking, those aspects that measure "quality" of work;
- The extent of lack of access to sufficiently remunerative employment and income, and poverty, which has direct linkage to economic well-being of people, particularly women; and
- Gender division of work, distribution of resources and assets – men and women do not have the same share of these within the household, the community or the economy as a whole[9].

Political will and advocacy are necessary to ensure that reliable gender-sensitive statistics are produced in a timely manner and used in policy making on regular intervals. Reliable gender-sensitive statistics, in turn, promote a better understanding of the gender issues in a society and economy, and thus encourage political will to address them.

This handbook will later demonstrate how gender-sensitive data collection and analysis can better inform and benefit policy making and budget allocations, i.e. how one can implement the political will expressed in a public statement in practice through the collection, analysis, dissemination and use of statistical data on the world of work.

[9] Taken from a presentation of Naoko Otobe, ILO, Geneva, at the validation workshop, Dhaka, August, 2005.

5. Relevant topics

This section discusses the second of the four elements of the ICLS checklist on gender. Each of a range of topics is discussed in terms of:

- Definitions and, in particular, international good practice
- Gender issues related to the topics, or statistical aspects
- How the different statistical aspects are currently measured in Bangladesh, and what the resultant patterns are
- How measurement could be improved.

The sub-sections on definitions and international good practice draw heavily on the various resolutions of the ICLS. It needs to be remembered when using these that they are intended as recommendations rather than as immutable law. The ILO and ICLS recognise that the recommended practice should be adapted where particular national circumstances require this. The recommendations are nevertheless useful as benchmarks and all deviations and adaptations should be carefully justified.

This section of the handbook goes beyond simple sex disaggregation to explain why particular statistical aspects are especially interesting from a gender perspective, and how to ensure that measurement of these aspects tells us as much as possible from a gender perspective.

Employment and economic activity

Definition

The resolution concerning statistics of the economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment was adopted by the Thirteenth ICLS in October 1982. It reads as follows (emphasis added):

1. *The economically active population comprises all persons of either sex who furnish the supply of labour for the production of economic goods and services as defined by the United Nations' System of National Accounts (SNA) and balances during a specified time-reference period. According to these systems the production of economic goods and services includes all production and processing of primary products whether for the market for barter or for own consumption, the production of all other goods and services for the market and, in the case of households which produce such goods and services for the market, the corresponding production for own consumption….*

2. *The 'employed' comprise all persons above a specified age who during a specified brief period, either one week or one day, were in the following categories:*

   1) Self-employment

   *a) **Self-employment jobs** are those jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits (or the potential for profits)* *derived from the goods and services produced (where own consumption is considered to be part of profits). The incumbents make the operational decisions affecting the enterprise, or delegate such decisions while retaining responsibility for the welfare of the enterprise. (In this context "enterprise" includes one-person operations.)*

b) ***Persons engaged in the production of economic goods and services for own and household consumption should be considered as in self-employment*** *if such production comprises an important contribution to the total consumption of the household…*

c) *Members of* ***producers' cooperatives*** *are workers who hold a "self-employment" job (cf. sub-paragraph a) in a cooperative producing goods and services, in which each member takes part on an equal footing with other members in determining the organization of production, sales and/or other work of the establishment, the investments and the distribution of the proceeds of the establishment amongst their members. (It should be noted that "employees" of producers' cooperatives are not to be classified to this group.)*

d) ***Own-account workers*** *are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of job defined as a "self-employment job" (cf. paragraph a), and have not engaged on a continuous basis any "employees" to work for them during the reference period. It should be noted that during the reference period the members of this group may have engaged "employees", provided that this is on a non-continuous basis. (The partners may or may not be members of the same family or household.)*[10]

(2) ***Paid employment***

Paid employment jobs *are those jobs where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts which give them a basic remuneration which is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work (this unit can be a corporation, a non-profit institution, a government unit or a household). Some or all of the tools, capital equipment, information systems and/or premises used by the incumbents may be owned by others, and the incumbents may work under direct supervision of, or according to strict guidelines set by the owner(s) or persons in the owners' employment. (Persons in "paid employment jobs" are typically remunerated by wages and salaries, but may be paid by commission from sales, by piece-rates, bonuses or in-kind payments such as food, housing or training.)*

(3) ***Students, homemakers*** *and other mainly engaged in non-economic activities during the reference period, who at the same time were in paid employment or self-employment as defined in subparagraph (1) above*

[10] For complete definitions of employment status, see International Classification of Employment, ICSE-93 at: http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/class/icse.htm.

> *should be considered as employed on the same basis as other categories of employed persons and be identified separately, where possible.*

The SNA defines the production boundary as follows (emphasis added):

> *The production boundary includes (a) the production of all individual or collective goods or services that are supplied by units other than their producers, or intended to be so supplied, including the production of goods or services used up in the process of producing such goods or services; (b)* ***the own-account production of all goods that are retained by their producers for their own final consumption*** *or gross capital formation; (c) the own-account production of housing services by owner-occupiers and of domestic and personal services produced by employing paid domestic staff*[11]*.*

The ILO's compilation of approaches used by countries around the world in respect of labour statistics suggests that Egypt, Gambia, Nepal, Pakistan, Tanzania, Turkey, Yemen, Zimbabwe all consider persons engaged in production of goods for own final use as 'employed'[12].

The resolution of the ICLS requires that if a person is involved in any economic work, even for only an hour, in the reference period, they should be regarded as currently employed even if they spend more time looking for work (unemployed) or not engaged in economic activity than they spend on economic work. Similarly, if a person satisfies the agreed criteria for being unemployed (see below), they should be regarded as unemployed even if they spend the major part of their time as a homemaker, full-time student, or some other form of non-economic activity. The write-up on Gambia in the ILO compilation notes that their instrument has probes to ensure inclusion of marginal activities, including collection of firewood.

Gender issues

Women are more likely than men to undertake 'unpaid' activities, whether economic or non-economic. Women are also more likely than men to be involved simultaneously in unpaid care work and in unpaid or lowly paid economic activity. More generally, women are less likely than men to be engaged in full-time regular employment as 'employees' in formal sector enterprises, which is the simplest form of work to capture in surveys. Often the work of women is unrecognised by society, their families and even themselves. They are instead regarded as homemakers, and thus not economically active, even though they are engaged in economic work.

The SNA of 1993 went some way towards recognising previously disregarded forms of economic work when it extended the production boundary to include unpaid production of goods consumed by the household. However, it still does not recognise unpaid production of services for consumption of the home or community. The ILO's Mata-Greenwood notes that 'it has been suggested that the distinction between what is considered as 'economic' and 'non-economic' activities is based on the sex of those persons who usually perform the activities …. Thus, from the onset, labour statistics are at best only reflecting a partial reality.'[13]

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[11] See the relevant UN web site: http://unstats.un.org/unsd/sna1993/glossform.asp?getitem=453

[12] International Labour Organization, 2004a

[13] Mata-Greenwood, 1999: 16

Evidence from Bangladesh

The primary question determining the employment status of working age population in the Labour Force Survey of 1999-2000 reads as follows:

What was the main activity in last week?

01 – Work in terms of salary/wages
02 – Self-employed (own agricultural farm, business, transport, manufacturing industry, sewing, embroider and service etc)
03 – On work but temporarily absent / did not work
04 – Unpaid family worker (crop production and farm work, industrial production, construction and repairing and service work)
05 – Unpaid family worker (household level economic work)
06 – Unemployed / looking for work
07 – Household work
08 – Going to school / student
09 – Retired / receiving house rent / remittance or earnings etc
10 – Beggar
11 – Others

In presenting the results, the BBS used two different measures. 'Extended' employment included all those involved in activities 01-05. 'Usual' employment included all those involved in activities 01-04. The BBS documents claim that the 'usual' definition follows international conventions. Comparison with the convention and SNA extracts above reveals, however, that the extended definition is the internationally correct one. A remaining problem is that the question asks about 'main' activity rather than whether the person did at least one hour in any of the economic categories.

Rahman (2005) presents the following two case studies to illustrate the counter-intuitive result of using the 'usual' definition.

Case 1: Mrs Amena Begum
Reported activity: ***household work***
Time use during the last week (actual status)
Crop processing and making rice flour for domestic consumption: 14 hours
Household work: 26 hours
Total work = 40 hours
Her activity status is 'housework' so she is not considered part of the labour force on the basis of the usual definition.

Case 2: Mr Anwar Uddin
Reported activity: ***self-employment in farm work***
Time use during the last week (actual status)
Own farm activities (for domestic consumption), including crop harvesting and processing: 14 hours
Other work (household work, etc.): 0 hours
Total work = 14 hours
He is considered part of the labour force on the basis of the usual definition

Table 1 compares the labour force participation rates as measured by the two definitions for 1999/2000. The difference in the female figures is particularly marked – 22.8 per cent using the usual definition and 51.8 per cent using the extended.

Table 1. Labour force participation rates by sex and location, 1999/2000 (10 years +)

	National		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Usual	22.8	73.5	22.0	73.5	25.6	73.5
Extended	51.8	78.7	57.2	79.8	33.7	74.8

Source: Rahman, 2005

The LFS of 2002/3 had a much simpler question, numbered 4.1, for determining 'usual' economic activity. The question read as follows:

> *Did you do any economic activity at any time during last year as paid or unpaid worker or for profit or family gain or for own final use or consumption (excluding housekeeping and household chores)?*

Question 4.10, which was used to determine current economic activity, was even more abbreviated:

> *Did you do any work for at least one hour on any day during last week for pay or profit, family gain or for own final use or consumption?*

These questions are correct in international terms, although the lack of detailed prompts is likely to lead to an undercount of atypical and unpaid activities, and especially economic activity of women. However, in reporting on employment, it seems that the BBS excluded all those whose status in employment was contributing family worker and who worked less than 15 hours in the reference period to arrive at what is again referred to as the 'usual' definition of employment.

The manual on collection of economic characteristics in censuses and surveys prepared by the United Nations Statistical Division and ILO suggests that prompts are necessary to ensure that the types of work that are likely to be under-reported are captured. The manual suggests that these prompts be included in the questionnaire and also covered in training of enumerators. If a short question, such as used in Bangladesh in 2002, is retained, a prompt card similar to that below could be used by enumerators (UNSD & ILO, 2002: 70):

DID YOU DO ANY OF THE FOLLOWING ACTIVITIES IN THE LAST 7 DAYS

X Any activities on your own or the family farm, garden, cattle post/ kraal of any kind (products can be for sale or family use)
Examples: Planting crops
Weeding
Harvesting crops
Chasing birds or other pests off crops
Looking after cattle or other animals
Moving crops to storage or sale
X Fetch any water or collect any firewood

X Any king of business activity big or small
Examples: *Small shop / kiosk / tuck shop*
Street or market selling
Shoe cleaning / repair
Beer brewing / repair
Making / selling hats, mats, baskets, cape
X Catch, collect, cultivate any fish, prawns, seaweed, shells or other food from the sea, river or fish/prawn farm (Fish, etc, can be for sale or family food)
X Make anything from farm or natural products for sale or own use
Examples: *Making handicrafts, mats, hats from straw or timber*
Making charcoal
Making butter from milk
X Do any construction or major repair work on your house or farm
Examples: *Build/repair fences / kraals*
Make/repair irrigation channels
X Have any type of wage or salary job, paid in money or by food / clothing / accommodation
Examples: *Full or part time jobs*
Casual or piecework jobs
Permanent or temporary jobs
Including any temporary absences for leave, sickness or family / village responsibilities

Table 2 presents the results from the 2002/3 LFS in Bangladesh. The estimates are not directly comparable with those in Table 1 because of the difference in age group covered and because this table shows employment rather than labour force participation. Nevertheless, the 24.7 per cent for women suggests that so-called 'extended' activity is not being adequately captured.

Table 2. Population 15 years and over by activity status ('000s)

Activity status	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	80843	41172	39672
At work in economic activity	44022	34225	9797
Working but not at work	300	253	47
Not at work in economic activity	36521	6694	29828
Total	100	100	100.0
At work in economic activity	54.5	83.1	24.7
Working but not at work	0.4	0.6	0.1
Not at work in economic activity	45.2	16.3	75.2

Source: BBS, December 2004: 28

Question 4.12 of the LFS asks of those *not* engaged in any economic activity:
Did you help in housekeeping activities or household chores at your home?

This question does not capture all unpaid care work as many women, in particular, will be engaged in both economic work and unpaid care work. Nevertheless, Table 3 shows clearly the preponderance of women in housekeeping and household chores, which are key elements of unpaid care work.

Table 3. Population 15 years and over engaged in housekeeping and chores ('000)

Sex	Number	%
Both sexes	28416	35.1
Male	2355	5.7
Female	26062	65.7

Source: BBS, December 2004: 29

Unemployment

Definition

The 1982 resolution of the ICLS referred to above defines unemployment as follows:

1. *The "unemployed" comprise all persons above a specified age who during the reference period were:*
   a) *"without work", i.e. were not in paid employment or self-employment as defined in paragraph 9;*
   b) *"currently available for work", i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period; and*
   c) *"seeking work", i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment…*

2. *In situations where the conventional means of seeking work are of limited relevance, where the labour market is largely unorganised or of limited scope, where labour absorption is, at the time, inadequate or where the labour force is largely self-employed, the standard definition of unemployment given in subparagraph (1) above may be applied by relaxing the criterion of seeking work….*

Gender issues

Women are probably more likely than men to become 'discouraged' workers, i.e. to abandon the search for work when they are without work even though they still desire work. The reasons for this include lesser income and thus lesser ability to undertake search, and their other roles and responsibilities, such as unpaid care work, which call on their time. In addition, according to Rahman (2005), self-employed women and unpaid family workers will probably not classify themselves as unemployed when they are without work even though they want work. These gender biases mean that, from a gender perspective, clause 10(2) becomes especially pertinent. Mata-Greenwood (1999:21-2) finds that even in 15 developed European countries, women's unemployment would have increased by 6 percentage points compared to 3 percentage points for men if an expanded definition of unemployment, which dropped the requirement of work seeking, had been used. The difference would probably be greater in developing countries.

Evidence from Bangladesh

The BBS takes advantage of clause 10(2) and does not require work-seeking activity for a person to be considered unemployed. The report (BBS, 2004: 61, emphasis added) thus explains that a person will be considered unemployed 'if he/she did not work at all during the preceding week of the survey… and was actively looking for work or was available for work but did not work due to temporary illness *or because there was no work available*.' Elsewhere, when discussing underemployment, it explains that it also considers unpaid family workers who work less than 15 hours as unemployed (BBS, 2004: 66). It is not clear whether these latter people, most of whom will be women, are included in the standard tabulations of unemployment rates.

Table 4 shows that the unemployment rate is highest for the age group 20-24 years. The lower rate among the 15-19 year olds reflects the fact that many in this age group are still studying. Overall, the unemployment rate is slightly higher for women than men, but the pattern is reversed in the younger age groups. The overall rates are fairly low, but this masks the fact that many of those recorded as employed may be working minimal hours and earning minimal income. These workers would form part of what the ILO terms the 'working poor'.

Table 4. Unemployment rates by age groups and sex

Age group	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	4.3	4.2	4.9
15-19	5.1	5.5	4.3
20-24	8.3	8.4	7.9
25-29	5.8	4.7	6.0
30-34	4.0	3.9	4.4
35+	2.6	2.5	3.4

Source: BBS, December 2004: 63

The BBS thus also measures visible underemployment, which it defines as those who worked less than 35 hours in the reference week. Unpaid family helpers who work less than 15 hours are not included among the underemployed (BBS, 2004: 66). Table 5 reveals a much higher level of underemployment among women than men. This must, however, be interpreted with caution as it does not necessarily mean that these women have a lot of free time available. Overall, they are likely to be working longer hours than men if unpaid care work is included.

Table 5. Underemployment of population aged 15 years and over

Category	Both sexes	Male	Female
Employed	44322	34478	9844
Underemployed (<35 hours)	15079	7959	7121
Underemployment rate (%)	34.2	23.1	72.3

Source: BBS, 2004: 67

Informal sector vs. informal economy

Definition

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What makes up the informal sector?

The 15th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) defined **informal sector** enterprises on the basis of the following criteria:

- enterprises owned by individuals or households that are not constituted as legal entities separate from their owners, i.e. where there are no separate financial accounts for the 'business' and the 'household'.
- enterprises where the number of employees is below a certain amount (usually 5 or 10); and/or the business is not registered under national legislation such as tax or companies act, and/or employees are not registered;
- enterprises engaged in non-agricultural activities, although they could be using agricultural products e.g. making jam (Hussmanns & du Jeu, 2002: 3).

The final criterion is that at least some of the goods and services produced by the enterprise must be intended for the market. This criterion is relaxed in respect of paid domestic workers, who are considered to be part of the informal sector even though they produce only goods for the household itself.

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The ICLS resolution allowed countries a lot of flexibility in how they define the informal sector. The two most common approaches are to define the sector on the basis of the number of employees or on the basis of national registration.

Many international comparisons use a more narrowly-defined subset of the informal sector than the one presented in the box as this allows more countries to provide comparable statistics. The common approach of a narrower definition which excludes agriculture, rural areas and domestic work might be good in terms of achieving statistical comparability. However, it might be less useful for policy purposes in a particular country.

Many countries do not cover rural areas and/or agriculture in their statistics on the informal sector. Many do not include paid domestic workers employed by households. Both of these exclusions result in an undercount of women, because women predominate in both these areas. The undercount of women results, in turn, in an under-estimate of the scope of the informal sector.

As noted, the informal sector is defined on the basis of the enterprise. But many workers today, in both developed and developing countries, work in formal sector enterprises but have informal conditions of work. For example, the workers may not be subject to labour laws and taxation, social protection and employment benefits. Casual workers, in particular, are employed on an informal basis whether they work for formal or informal enterprises.

The ILO report on 'Decent Work and the Informal Economy' therefore puts forward a definition of informal employment which is wider than the informal sector. The definition focuses on the person rather than the enterprise.

Who is part of the informal economy?

Informal employment, or the **informal economy**, includes:

- **Own account workers** and **employers** with their own informal sector enterprises. This would include street traders;
- **Contributing (unpaid) family workers**, whether they work in formal or informal sector enterprises;
- **Employees with informal jobs**, whether paid by formal or informal sector enterprises, or working as domestic workers in households;
- **Members of informal producers' cooperatives**;
- **People engaged in own account production of goods** for own final use by their households.

All the forms of work that make up informal employment constitute economic work and should be included in the calculation of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). These forms of work are also important in understanding the labour market in the country and the differences between women and men. Nevertheless, the activities will tend to be undercounted, and thus not considered adequately in policy making.

Gender issues

Rahman (2005) notes that in South Asian countries, a large proportion of both women and men workers are in informal employment. Women are particularly likely to be found in subsistence or marginal agriculture, which is sometimes excluded from measurements of the informal sector. Where they are engaged in non-agricultural activities, they are more often than men considered to be contributing family workers, if they are considered as 'working' at all.

Evidence from Bangladesh

Question 4.17 of the LFS 2002-3 questionnaire has a question which reads as follows:

What was the activity sector during the last week?:
1 Private, informal sector
2 Private, formal sector
3 Non-government formal sector
4 Government sector/establishment

This question thus asks respondents to decide themselves what constitutes formal and what constitutes informal. This is not ideal because, as can be seen from the discussion above, the definition of the informal sector is quite technical and ordinary people's definition is likely to deviate from the 'correct' definition in many cases. Unfortunately, the questionnaire does not contain further questions which would allow clear identification of the informal economy.

Table 6 is the only table in the LFS report which provides a breakdown by sector and sex. This and other tables relating to gender have categories which differ from the ones provided in the questionnaire. It is not clear how the categories 'Individual, private formal sector' and simple 'Private formal sector' differ. It is also not clear where those for whom the response 'non-government formal sector' was given are classified.

The table shows a very similar sectoral distribution for male and female, with approximately 80 per cent of both male and female classified in the informal sector. The distribution is, however, misleading in that it hides some difference in the smaller categories. So, for example, while the overall male: female ratio is 3.5:1, in the government sector the ratio is 6.2:1. This is important in that the government sector often provides greater job security and benefits than other sectors. Rahman (2005) notes that in Bangladesh women over 30 cannot apply for a government post if they are not already employed in the public sector.

Table 6. Employed persons 15 years and above by sector and sex

	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	44322	34478	9844
Informal sector	35078	27222	7855
Individual, private formal sector	4688	3730	957
Private formal sector	2680	1910	770
Government sector	1877	1615	262

Source: BBS, 2004: 117

Occupation

Definition

A resolutio n of the Fourteenth ICLS in 1987 explained the notion of 'occupation' embodied in the recommended International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) as follows:

> *It classifies persons through their actual and potential relation with jobs. Jobs are classified with respect to the type of work performed or to be performed. The basic criteria used to define the system of major, sub-major, minor and unit groups are the "skill" level and "skill specialization" required to carry out the tasks and duties of the occupations, with separate major groups for "Legislators, senor officials and managers" and for "Armed forces".*

The classification which was finalised after the conclusion of this conference is referred to as ISCO-88, and replaced the pre-existing ISCO-67. ISCO-67 did not have the same clear conceptual basis of ISCO-88. In particular, it was not as clearly linked to skill and often mirrored industrial groupings.

Gender issues

Across the world, occupational segregation and clustering tends to be one of the key determinants of differentials in male and female earnings. In order to detect the impact of these differences, however, it is necessary to analyse occupations at a fairly detailed level. ISCO-88 is a hierarchical classification system, which has nine major groups at the most aggregated level. The third group covers all occupations relating to technicians and associate professionals. Mata-Greenwood (1999: 27) points out that this division is feminised in most countries.

However, on closer examination women are generally found to be concentrated in teaching and nursing, which often have lower pay than other occupations in the major group. In Nepal, women account for nearly a quarter (23 per cent) of the professional grouping. However, Acharya (2004) notes that it is largely village health workers – who have lower status than many other professionals – who account for this large percentage.

ISCO-88 improved the disaggregation of occupational categories which tend to be female-dominated. For example, category 3-21 in ISCO-68 (stenographers, typists and tele-typists) was disaggregated into stenographers and typists (4111), word-processor operators (4112), and secretaries (4115) (Mata-Greenwood, 1999: 28). This disaggregation facilitates meaningful gender analysis.

Occupational segregation by sex

One measure of the extent to which women and men do not choose freely which occupations they enter into is to calculate the percentage of male and female workers employed in male- and female-dominated occupations. Such a measure is one of the proposed decent work indicators. Male and female domination are defined for this purpose as occupations in which 80 per cent or more of the workers are either women or men.

The working paper on decent work indicators (Anker et al, 2002) suggests that the occupational segregation indicators should be calculated only for non-agricultural occupations. Several justifications are given for excluding agriculture. Firstly, the authors suggest that agricultural employment is reported inconsistently, especially for women. Secondly, they note that the dominance of agriculture in developing countries would mean that the measures would reflect feminization within agricultural occupations. Thirdly, they suggest that the 'determinants' of occupational segregation are different in agricultural and non-agricultural work.

The exclusion of agriculture is likely to make this measure of limited relevance for a country such as Bangladesh. Thus Anker et al (2002: 44) find that in India there is such heavy male domination of non-agricultural work that close to 90 per cent of male workers are in male-dominated occupations while there are no female-dominated occupations among the 83 specified occupations at the two-digit level. If one uses a more detailed three-digit classification, there are only 3 female-dominated occupations in a total of 423, namely professional nurse, professional midwife, and domestic ayahs and babysitters.

Evidence from Bangladesh

Question 4.14 of the LFS of 2002/3 reads as follows:

> *What was the nature of your occupation or task / job in which you were engaged during the last week (Briefly describe)*

The occupation used in analysis is derived by post-coding of the responses to this open-ended question. The quality of responses elicited by this single, simple question depends largely on the skill and understanding of the fieldworkers. The use of two questions – one asking about the job title and the other asking about the tasks and duties performed – would perform better in eliciting information which will allow more accurate post-coding.

Table 7 provides the tabulation at major group level. Unfortunately, it seems that BBS is still using a classification based on ISCO-68. The table thus gives a picture which is a mix of industry and occupation rather than a picture which reflects skill levels. The clearest information provided by the table is the relative clustering of males in sales work and females in services. Further, while agricultural occupations account for the single biggest grouping among both males and females, it is even more predominant for women than men.

An appendix to the LFS report for 2002/3 provides the sex breakdown at the three-digit level. Despite the fact that agricultural occupations account for a larger proportion of female than male employed, there are more than 20 times as many male as female agricultural crop farmers (code 611) (7,197,047 vs 300,542) (BBS, 2004: 138). The largest single grouping of women is in farm crop workers (code 621). In this group men outnumber women by less than 3:1.

Table 7. Employed persons 15 years and over by major occupations

Major occupation	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	100	100	100
Professional, technical	3.9	3.8	4.1
Administration & managerial	0.2	0.3	0.0
Clerical workers	3.4	3.9	1.9
Sales workers	14.8	18.2	2.9
Services workers	4.5	3.0	9.7
Agriculture, forest & fisheries	51.4	49.3	58.6
Production, transport labourers & others	21.9	21.6	22.8

Source: BBS, December 2004: 43

The HIES also collects information on occupations. The data collected are, however, restricted to paid workers because of the survey's focus on income and expenditure. Table 8 and Table 9 show the most common occupations found among earners in female-headed households in which the female head is the primary earner[14] and those in which she is not the primary earner. Unfortunately, the two tables do not present the same items of information. In addition, the numbers are small and should thus be treated with caution. The tables do, nevertheless, reflect the expected patterns such as female dominance in agriculture; the greater likelihood that women, rather than men, will be working as domestic maids; and the relative clustering of women across a smaller number of occupations than men.

Table 8. Distribution of earners in female-headed households where the head is the primary earner

Occupation	All earners		Heads	Other members
	Number	%		
Agriculture	164	35%	128	36
Tailors	33	7%	14	19
Cook, hotel related	14	3%	8	6
Domestic maid	44	9%	43	1
Rest	215	46%	123	92
Total earners	470	100%	316	154

Source: Planning Commission, 2002: 7

[14] The BBS refers to this category of households as 'de jure', which means 'according to the law', and the other category of households as 'de facto', meaning 'according to fact'. This manual does not use these terms as the way the Planning Commission uses them appears to be different to common practice in other countries.

Table 9. Distribution of earners in female-headed households where the head is not the primary earner

Occupation	No of earners	Percentage	Male	Female
Agriculture	57	22%	54	3
Tailors	20	8%	8	12
Cook, hotel related	3	1%	3	0
Domestic maid	9	3%	2	7
Rest	175	55%	152	23
Total earners	264	100%	219	45

Source: Planning, Commission, 2002: 7

Skill

Definition

As noted above, the similarity criteria used to create the structure of ISCO-88 are based on skill level and skill specialization. Bangladesh, however, is still using a classification for occupations which is based on ISCO-68, which did not use skill as the main organising principle except for jobs in which the person would usually be expected to have completed some form of post-school education or training. Instead, one can use level of formal education as a crude proxy of skill. One important difference between this characteristic and occupation is that occupation describes the characteristics of the job rather than the person occupying the job, while level of formal education describes a characteristic of the individual worker, which may not be related to the job he or she does.

Gender issues

In most countries girls and women were in the past less likely than boys and men to have access to formal education. Even in countries where girls now sometimes outnumber boys among school-goers, there is often a gender gap among old men and men in terms of educational achievement. This gap reflects past discrimination. Differences in educational level among workers may explain some of the differences in average earnings of working women and men. More detailed analysis generally suggests that women earn less than men even after controlling for educational level.

Evidence from Bangladesh

Table 10 confirms that the Bangladeshi workforce has the expected pattern. In particular, 58 per cent of economically active women have no formal education compared to 48 per cent of economically active men. The bias would almost certainly be even more striking if the LFS captured all forms of economic work.

Rahman (2005) reports that the 1999/2000 LFS found that in rural areas, only 9 per cent of the female labour force was skilled compared with 37 per cent of the male labour force. In urban areas, the relevant percentages were 12 and 35 respectively. It is not clear how ‘skill’ was measured for the purposes of this survey. Rahman also presents figures from another source showing that there are very few female students in vocational training. Those that exist are concentrated in ‘traditional’ areas such as dressmaking and food processing.

Table 10. Economically active population 15 years and over by level of education and sex

Level of education	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	46324	35978	10346
No education	23221	17265	5956
Class I-V	7802	6261	1542
Class VI-VII	4998	3949	3949
Class IX-X	4000	3218	3218
SSC & equivalent	2300	1874	1874
HSC & equivalent	1875	1598	1598
Degree & equivalent	1272	1073	1073
Master degree & equivalent	640	551	551
Doctors / engineers	77	66	66
Technical / vocational	58	53	53
Others	80	70	70

Source: BBS 2004: 112

Status in employment

Definition

The International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE) of 1993 provides the international benchmark for categorising this characteristic. The categories reflect different forms of economic risk attached to a particular work situation as well as the type of authority which the worker has over the situation or establishment. The two major categories are (a) jobs in paid employment (i.e. employees) and (b) self-employment. These two categories, and especially the latter, can then be further disaggregated. The United Nations' Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses (UNSD, 1998: 2.227) suggests that the following sub-categories be used: (i) employees (this group can be further disaggregated into regular employees and others); (ii) employers; (iii) own-account workers; (iv) contributing (unpaid) family workers; (v) members of producers' co-operatives; and (vi) persons not classifiable by status.

Gender issues

In most countries there are clear gender patterns in respect of status in employment. Overall, women tend to predominate in categories which have less authority. Thus, for example, they are less likely than men to be employers, and more likely than men to be contributing (unpaid) family workers. In many respects these differences are real. However, in some cases the apparent differences reflect perceptions rather than the actual situation. This is especially evident in respect of contributing family workers.

To try to address this problem, ICSE 1993 introduced the concept of 'partners' in family enterprises. It thus defined both employers and own-account workers as people who work on their own account *or with one or more partners*. This means that women who work on an equal basis with their husbands in a family enterprise should be classified as employers or own-account workers and not as contributing family workers. The latter term should only be used for people who cannot be seen as a partner, perhaps because they work far fewer hours.

Evidence from Bangladesh

Question 4.15 of the 2002-3 LFS asked:

> *What was the status in employment of NAME where you worked last week, or absent from? (sic)*

The HIES asks:

> *What was your work status? (Day labourer, self-employed, employer, employee)*

The HIES thus excludes the option of unpaid family workers provided among the LFS options.

Table 11 gives the breakdown by sex from the LFS of 2002/3. It shows women outnumbering men among domestic workers and unpaid family workers despite the much smaller number of employed women than men overall.

Table 11. Employed persons aged 15+ by status in employment and sex

Status in employment	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	44322	34478	9844
Employee	6083	4769	1314
Employer	169	154	15
Self-employed	19849	17483	2415
Day labourers	8851	7903	947
Unpaid family worker	8139	3412	4728
Domestic worker	285	42	243
Apprentice	413	354	59
Others	533	411	122

Source: BBS, December 2004: 53

Income from employment

Definition

The definition of employment-related income adopted by 16th ICLS in 1998 includes all earnings, whether of employees or self-employed people[15], and whether regular or irregular. It includes social security benefits received by workers, as well as all kinds of other cash, kind, services, benefits or entitlements to deferred benefits. Measuring all these aspects is clearly very difficult because of the wide range of possibilities.

Gender issues

World-wide women tend to earn less than men even after correcting for hours worked and for education and qualifications. Anker's (1998) detailed analysis of data from a wide range of countries suggests that the largest contributor to the differential is that women and men tend to be concentrated in different occupations, which is called horizontal occupational segregation. Women also tend to be concentrated at lower levels of the hierarchy in establishments, which is called vertical occupational segregation. There are, however, many other contributory factors, including the perception that men are the main bread-winners and women always have a man (husband, brother, uncle, and son) to rely on for income.

[15] Report II of the 16th International Conference of Labour Statistics, 6 – 15 October, 1998 (ICLS/16/II), ILO Geneva 1998 – see the relevant website: http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/techmeet/icls/index.htm

What is troublesome is that in many countries, even after controlling for other factors, women earn lower wages than men in similar occupations. The International Labour Organization promotes International Labour Convention No. 100 Equal remuneration (1951), which Bangladesh has ratified. The Convention provides for equal pay for work of equal value for women and men as follows:

> *Each Member shall, by means appropriate to the methods in operation for determining rates of remuneration, promote and, in so far as is consistent with such methods, ensure the application to all workers of the principle of equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value[16].*

The gap in male-female earnings is exacerbated by the fact that women are more likely to do unpaid work, that women tend to work shorter hours than men, and that women tend to enjoy fewer benefits and perks.

Evidence from Bangladesh

Question 4.21 of the LFS asks:

> *How much did you earn during last week/month (a) in cash (b) in kind (in taka) (c) both in cash and in kind?*

The question is asked only of **paid workers**.

Table 12 gives the distribution of employees by monthly income and sex. The relative clustering of female workers at the lower end and male at the top end is immediately obvious. Some of the differences can be accounted for by differences in hours of work and level of education/skill. However, if Bangladesh is similar to other countries in the world, the income differences probably hold even after controlling for hours, qualifications and education.

Table 12. Percent distribution of employees by monthly income and sex (in percentage)

Monthly income (Taka[17])	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	100	100	100
1-750	5.1	3.5	10.9
751-1000	5.2	5.4	9.1
1001-1500	11.0	9.0	18.4
1501-2000	14.1	12.0	21.5
2001-2500	7.8	7.3	9.6
2501-3000	12.0	12.3	10.7
3001-3500	5.6	6.3	3.2
3501-4000	9.1	10.5	3.9
4001-5000	11.3	12.6	6.4
5001-7500	11.0	12.8	4.4
7501-10000	4.5	5.4	1.6
10000+	2.4	2.9	0.4

BBS, December 2004: 59

Table 13 gives the average wage rate of male and female day labourers. In both rural and urban areas the female rate is markedly lower than the male one.

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[16] See the relevant ILO website on International Labour Standards: http://www.ilo.org/ilolex/english/convdisp1.htm.

[17] The exchange rate of Bangladesh Taka to one US dollar in December, 2004 was: BDT 61.25

Table 13. Average wage rate of day labourers 15 years and over (in Taka)

Sex	Bangladesh	Urban	Rural
Both sexes	62	70	60
Male	64	75	62
Female	39	42	37

BBS, December 2004: 60

The report on the LFS does not provide sex-disaggregated statistics on income of self-employed people. This is disappointing as self-employed people account for a significant number of employed people in Bangladesh.

Question 4.22 of the LFS asks:

Which benefits are provided other than wages & salaries by the employer?

The options provided are: Paid holidays (including wages and salaries); Paid sick leave; Bonus; Free work clothes; Free/subsidised meals; Free transports/telephone facilities; Free/subsidised lodging; No benefits at all; Others.

The report does not provide sex-disaggregated results from this question.

The HIES also asks questions about income from employment. The questions are as follows or those who say they are wage employees:

Were you paid on a daily basis?
If YES, what was the daily way in cash?
Did you get any in kind payment?
If YES, what did you get in kind? How much did you receive per day?
If NOT paid on daily basis, what … is your gross cash remuneration per month?
What is your total net take-home monthly cash remuneration after all deduction at source?
What is the total value of in-kind or other benefits you received over the past 12 months (tips, bonuses or transport)?

The Planning Commission (2002: 8) compares mean wages for specific occupations derived from HIES data. The results presented in Table 14 must be treated with caution as they may be based on small samples. This more disaggregated analysis suggests that in three of the four occupations women earn less than half what men earn. For the fourth category, domestic maids, it could be that the female domination of the occupation keeps male wages down as well.

Table 14. Mean wage estimates for daily wage employees (from HIES) (Taka)

	Agriculture wage employees	Tailors	Cook & hotel related	Domestic maids
Male	54	82	90	25
Female	30	32	35	25

Source: Planning Commission, 2002: 8

Poverty

Definition

Poverty is multi-dimensional and can be measured in different ways. For the purposes of this handbook, we focus on income poverty as it is the income aspect of poverty that is most closely related to work.

Anker et al (2002: 25) define decent pay in the context of decent work indicators as the amount that would allow a full-time worker to support at least one person besides himself/herself at a level above the United Nations' $2 per day per person poverty line. (They note that the World Bank uses a slightly higher level of US$2.15 per day). They define full-time as meaning 8 hours of work per day six days per week and 50 weeks per year. Calculations based on these figures give a minimum target amount of US$0.65 (42.5 taka) per hour.

The decent work indicator is based on individual pay. More commonly, poverty is measured on a household basis. The BBS uses a World Bank definition of poverty for its household-based analysis. The Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies (BIDS), which is government-funded, has developed its own poverty line, which is different from the one used by BBS. Both the World Bank and BIDS approaches use a simple per capita measure which takes the total household income or expenditure and divides it by the number of household members. Neither institution adjusts for the fact that it costs more to satisfy the needs of an adult than the need of a child. Neither institution adjusts for economies of scale, such as the fact that costs such as rental or fuel do not increase proportionally for every additional member.

Gender issues

Development literature regularly uses the term 'feminization of poverty'. BRIDGE (2001) suggests that the term has at least three meanings, each of which is different. The meanings are as follows:

- Women have a higher incidence of poverty than men, i.e. a higher percentage of women than men are poor;
- Women's poverty is more severe than that of men, i.e. poor women are poorer, on average, than poor men; and
- The rates or levels of poverty among women are increasing.

The first two meanings describe a 'state' in which women suffer more in some way from poverty than men. The last meaning describes a process through which women are becoming poorer over time, and doing so faster than men. The first two points are probably true in most countries. The third point, which does not involve a comparison with men, may be true, but is not always true. The fact that poverty is usually measured on a household, rather than individual, basis adds to the challenge of measuring and proving all three of the above assertions. A recent publication by UNIFEM (2005) reports on research in seven countries which attempts to establish the links between the employment status and earnings of women and men and poverty.

A recent ILO publication (ILO, 2004b) examines global patterns in six labour market indicators (female unemployment rates, female youth unemployment rates, employment-to-population ratios, status of employment, employment by sector and wages/earnings). The publication concludes that while female participation in the labour force had risen over the previous ten years, 'improved equality in terms of quantity of male and female workers has yet to result in real socioeconomic empowerment for women, an equitable distribution of household responsibilities, equal pay for work of equal value, and gender balance across all occupations (ILO, 2004b: 1). Overall, women tend to continue to be concentrated in economic activities with low earnings, where earnings are irregular and insecure, and where there is little protection through labour law and social protection.

An ILO publication produced around the time of the Beijing Conference argues that the following factors work together to create the links between women's poverty and their disadvantage in the labour market (ILO, 1995):

- Society sees women's primary function as fulfilling reproductive and domestic functions. This view restricts their access to education, training, land and productive assets, limits the time available for (paid) productive work and limits women's choice of income-earning activities.
- Men are seen as the main breadwinners, while women's earnings are seen as an 'extra'.
- Women's work is often undervalued. The occupations and sectors which are dominated by women are generally seen as being less important, requiring lower skills, and thus deserving of lower earnings than the occupations and sectors dominated by men.

The first point is related to unpaid care work.

The decent work approach to measuring poverty allows for relatively easy gender analysis as it is based on individuals. The household-based approach to measuring poverty complicates gender analysis, unless it is done on the basis of head of household. The problems with this approach are discussed below, as is the gender bias implied in not adjusting for economies of scale associated with larger households discussed above.

Evidence from Bangladesh

Table 12 above provides some indication of the extent to which male and female workers can be considered to have decent work in terms of the income/poverty indicator. The specified minimum hourly rate of 42.5 Taka would translate into a monthly amount of approximately 8840 Taka. Only a very small proportion of Bangladesh employees earn above this amount.

Household-based disparities in terms of poverty are discussed in the following section.

Household head

Definition

The key problem with this concept is that it is rarely clearly defined. In addition, where it is defined, respondents may not have a view that is consistent with the definition or with each other. Some people conceive of the household head as the person who is the main breadwinner. Some people conceive of the head as the person who makes the key decisions (although what constitutes 'key' is not necessarily defined). Some people conceive of the head as the oldest person in the household, or the oldest male. Some say simply that the household head is the person regarded as such by household members. The latter approach is probably the most common one adopted in surveys world-wide, whether consciously or unconsciously. The first problem with this approach is that different household members may not agree on who the head is, and the response will thus depend on who the chosen respondent is. The second problem is that conceptions will differ across households and across cultures, resulting in a variable that compares mangoes with elephants. A third problem is that those analysing the data often assume a definition which may be different to that used by respondents.

Gender issues

It is often assumed that female-headed households will tend to be poorer than male-headed households. This will be true to the extent that the definition used equates the head of household with the main breadwinner because women tend to earn less than men. However, evidence from a range of countries, including Bangladesh, shows that female-headed households are not necessarily poorer than male-headed ones. This is a result of both differing definitions and the conflation within the category of female-headed of diverse sorts of households. A further possible reason for the counter-intuitive finding is relevant where, as in Bangladesh, the household-based poverty measure is not adjusted for economies of scale. Generally, female-headed households tend to be smaller than male-headed ones. An unadjusted poverty measure will tend to find greater poverty levels among larger than smaller households.

Instead of talking about female-headed households as one homogeneous group, it would be more useful to think about the different types of household within this category. A widow living alone is different from a widow living with her children. Both of these widows are different from the young professional woman who decides to bring up her children alone because she feels that a man will be a drain on her resources. For the concept to be useful to policy makers, one needs both a clear definition of what constitutes a head and disaggregation of both male-headed and female-headed households.

As such, the definition of household head and the composition of the household, as well as understanding their socio-economic characteristics disaggregated by sex would have different implications for effective targeting of various social policies. For example, those households which are headed by an economically inactive older woman and contain no paid workers, are likely to be poorer than the average household, unless the head is supported by either a public income transfer or her children.

Head of the Household in Nepal's 2001 census

For both the 1991 and 2001 Censi, Nepal defined the household head as a person who bears the main responsibility for managing the daily affairs of the household, including expenditure. In 2001, the instructions specifically stated that such a person could be a man or a woman. It was also stated that being the oldest in the family did not automatically qualify a person as household head. Examples of different situations, including a picture, were included in the manual and also covered in audio-visual materials (Acharya, 2005).

Evidence from Bangladesh

Table 15 is derived from 2002 HIES data. It shows the head count ratio, poverty severity index and per capita income for male- and female-headed households in rural and urban areas. The poverty severity index is the average of the squared poverty gap for each poor person. Overall, these indicators suggest that female-headed households are not necessarily poorer than male-headed ones when using an income-based measure. In terms of a basic needs deprivation measure, female-headed households tend to be worse off than male-headed in respect of education in both rural and urban areas. There is also a gender disparity in respect of housing and sanitation in urban areas, but this is not found in rural areas. (Planning Commission, 2002: 4)

Table 15. Income poverty of male-headed and female-headed households

		Head count ratio (%)	Poverty severity index	Per capita income (Taka)
Total	Rural	44.9	6.7	947
	Urban	29.2	3.7	1733
	National	39.9	5.8	1198
Male-headed households	Rural	45.1	6.8	945
	Urban	28.8	3.5	1745
	National	39.9	5.7	1196
Female-headed households	Rural	42.1	6.5	983
	Urban	33.8	5.4	1596
	National	38.9	6.1	1217

Source: Planning Commission, 2002: 3

More detailed analysis uncovers a difference in terms of income poverty when one distinguishes between female-headed households in which the head is not the principal earner and those where the head is the principal earner. The Planning Commission applies this distinction by grouping together all heads who do not report any (paid) occupation rather than grouping together only those where the head is not the principal earner.

Table 16 reveals that the head does not earn in a much larger proportion of female-headed than male-headed households. Among female-headed households, close to a third are dependent on remittances and charity. However, a quarter benefit from male earning. This confirms that in these cases respondents were not seeing the primary breadwinner as the head.

Table 16. Distribution of households by earning status of head of household

Nature of earners	Female	Male
Total	100	100
Head of household: earning	38.3	91.0
Only men earning (other than man head)	25.0	4.4
Only women earning (other than woman head)	2.3	0.6
Both men and women earning (other than man/woman head)	1.9	0.4
Households living on remittances & charity	32.5	3.6

Source: Sikder, 2005: 6

Table 17 shows that once we distinguish between earning and non-earning heads, female-headed households which are reliant on women's earnings tend to be poorer than those in which the female head is not earning. This is so because the latter households are more likely to be benefiting from male earnings.

Table 17. Income poverty comparison by earning status of female heads

		Head count ratio (%)	Poverty severity index	Per capita income (Taka)
Head earns	Rural	51.1	7.5	860
	Urban	51.4	8.5	1078
	National	51.2	7.8	938
Head does not earn	Rural	35.3	5.7	1076
	Urban	22.6	3.5	1925
	National	30.3	4.9	1413

Source: Planning Commission, 2002: 5

Table 18 provides information on an indicator of wealth which is particularly important in an agriculturally-based economy such as that of Bangladesh, namely land ownership. The table confirms that female-headed households are more likely than male-headed to own no land.

Table 18. Percentage distribution of households by sex of head and land ownership

Land ownerships (acres)	Both sexes	Female	Male
All sizes	100	8.9	91.1
Landless	100	12.0	88.0
0.000-0.04	100	11.5	88.5
0.05-0.49	100	7.0	93.1
0.50-1.49	100	4.5	95.5
1.50-2.49	100	3.8	96.2
2.50-7.49	100	3.5	96.5
7.50+	100	3.1	96.9

Source: Sikder, 2005: 6

Life cycle

Definition

Life cycle involves the changes that happen to us as we go through life. These changes are related to age, but are also linked to our changing relationships to others. In particular, changes in marital status, whether one has children, and age of children are important indicators of life cycle and will usually affect work patterns.

Gender issues

Life cycle changes tend to affect men differently from women. When men marry, they are more likely to increase their involvement in economic work, while the opposite is true for women. The patterns become even more marked when children are born. Accordingly, whether a worker has family responsibilities or not could affect the level and pattern of labour force participation, and typically this is different between women and men.

Another aspect of life cycle involves what happens to boy and girl children in respect of work and other activities. However, this guide does not deal with child labour.

Evidence from Bangladesh

Table 19 is drawn from the only table showing marital status by sex in the report on the LFS of 2002/3. The table shows marital status for the economically active population. It suggests that the general pattern described above holds in Bangladesh in that the male: female ratio is much larger among married people than among those who are never married. This pattern is, however, partly a reflection that women tend to marry younger than men, and there are therefore fewer never married women than men in the overall population. A better test of the pattern would be to calculate the percentage of economically active over total numbers in each of the sex-marital status groupings.

Table 19. Economically active population 15 years and over by marital status and sex

	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	46324	35978	10346
Never married	9864	8560	1304
Married	34882	27058	7824
Widowed	1186	275	911
Divorced	187	29	158
Separated	207	57	150

BBS 2004: 113

Using earlier LFS data, Rahman (2005) finds that women who have never married have the highest participation rate among women, while the rate for unmarried men is lower than for married ones.

Working time

Definition

A resolution adopted by the ICLS in 1962 provides guidance on statistics of hours of work. The resolution is, however, restricted to employees and is thus relevant for a small proportion of the Bangladeshi workforce. The resolution suggests that hours of work should include time spent on short breaks such as tea or coffee breaks, but exclude time on meal breaks. These concepts are not easily applied in informal work settings.

Gender issues

World-wide, women tend to work fewer hours in economic work than men, even when women's labour force participation rates are similar to those of men. This pattern is largely a result of the fact that women tend to have more domestic roles and responsibilities than men. In particular, women tend to do more unpaid care work than men to the extent that the total working hours of women exceed those of men when the hours spent on economic work and unpaid care work are added together.

One of the complications in measuring hours worked is how to deal with simultaneous and 'interlaced' activities, for example, where a woman is selling fruit and vegetables at the roadside and looking after her child at the same time, or where she is sewing at home but intermittently checking on the pot on the stove or on her children's homework. Time use surveys (see below) suggest that women are more likely than men to engage in such activities, so this difficulty will affect their estimates more seriously than those of men. Generally, it seems, in these situations what is perceived to be the 'main' activity tends to be overestimated. This tends to result in an overestimation of 'economic' activities for men and of 'non-economic' activities for women.

A related complication is that women and others engaged in home-based work or informal work are more likely to interrupt economic work to do other things. This makes their hours of work more difficult to measure than those who work 9-5 in an office or factory.

Evidence from Bangladesh

There was a single, very simple question in the LFS of 2002-3 in relation to hours worked in the reference week. Question 4.19 read as follows:

How many hours did you actually work during last week?

One assumes that the answers to this would generally reflect all hours, including overtime.

Table 20 shows the findings on average weekly hours presented by status in employment and sex. It confirms that for every status in employment category women's hours tend to be shorter than those of men.

Table 20. Average weekly hours worked by status in employment and sex

Status in employed	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	40	44	29
Employees	48	49	41
Employers	44	45	32
Self-employed	42	44	28
Day labourers	42	43	34
Unpaid workers	29	35	24
Domestic workers	38	43	37
Apprentices	46	47	40
Others	39	42	31

Source: BBS, December 2004: 58

Seasonality

Definition

Employment can be measured in terms of both current activity and usual activity. Current activity is based on what the person did during a specified reference period, usually the 7 days prior to the interview. Usual activity is usually measured over a period such as a year. In terms of current activity, employment takes priority over unemployment, which takes priority over non-economic activity. So, for example, even if a person worked for only one hour in the reference period, they are regarded as employed. For usual activity, the person's status is measured in terms of the 'main' activity.

The report of the 16th ICLS of 1998 proposes a possible typology to measure the pattern of activities during a particular year rather than the 'main' or 'usual' activity which many countries currently measure. The typology would allow countries to measure dynamic aspects of the labour market in addition to the 'snapshot' picture provided by standard labour market measures. The proposed typology includes eight summary categories, and 20 sub-categories which distinguish, for example, between changes in industry and changes in occupation, or indicate the duration of various states. The eight summary categories are:

- stable employment (i.e. no changes);
- mobile employment (e.g. changes in occupation or industry);
- unstable employment (interspersed periods of not being employed);
- stable unemployment (i.e. no change throughout period);
- short-term unemployment (interspersed periods of being employed or out of the labour force);
- turbulent labour force status (periods out of the labour force interspersed with periods in training or in the labour force);
- stable not in the labour force: in training (in training for either the full period or part of it); and
- stable not in the labour force: not in training (no change throughout period).

Gender issues
Women tend to be more likely than men to work on an irregular basis, for example as seasonal workers in agriculture or other sectors. Usual economic activity is thus often misleading when used to measure women's economic engagement. To obtain consistent measurement it is important that the surveys are conducted at the same time each year. However, the survey results might be consistent, but nevertheless misleading, if the chosen time is one during which seasonal employment is limited. To obtain accurate measurement of fluctuations, surveys need to be conducted throughout the year.

Evidence from Bangladesh
Until 2002/3, the labour force survey covered the full year. In the 2002/3 survey, the focus was restricted to a single time period. The BBS argues that coverage of the full year is not necessary as the Green Revolution significantly reduced seasonality in employment patterns by allowing multiple rice crops each year. Others argue that there is insufficient evidence to support the assertion of limited seasonality. They argue, in addition, that the degree of seasonality could be different for men and women.

Place of work

Definition
There is no standard classification for place of work, although the ILO Statistics Bureau has initiated work in this area. A 2002 publication describes case studies from Colombia, Jordan, Mexico and South Africa of measuring and analysing this variable, as well as whether and how the variable can be used to identify home workers and other outworkers (ILO, 2002).

Gender issues
Place of work is relevant from a gender perspective as there may be reasons why women and men prefer to work in different locations. In particular, women may prefer to work in or near their homes so that they are able to combine work and family obligations more easily, or because their husbands and other family members are not happy for them to be far from home. Women might also experience greater difficulties and danger in using public transport. This might encourage them to work in or near home. Place of work is also important because different types of work locations provide different opportunities and constraints. It is, for example, easier to organise collectively in established workplaces than when workers are dispersed in private homes or on

the streets. Many women in developing countries are also engaged in home work in manufacturing or service, where they do subcontracted work for formal or informal enterprises.

Defining and measuring home work

Article 1(a) of the ILO's Home Work Convention (no 177) of 1996[18] defines home work as follows:

the term home work means work carried out by a person, to be referred to as a homeworker,
(i) in his or her home or in other premises of his or her choice, other than the workplace of the employer;
(ii) for remuneration;
(iii) which results in a product or service as specified by the employer, irrespective of who provides the equipment, materials or other inputs used,
unless this person has the degree of autonomy and of economic independence necessary to be considered an independent worker under national laws, regulations or court decisions…

Article 6 of the Convention says that countries must adopt appropriate measure to ensure that, as far as possible, labour statistics include home work.

Evidence from Bangladesh

Question 4.18 of the 2002/3 LFS asks:

What was your place of work during the last week?

Table 21 provides data from the survey. It shows, as expected, that women are more likely than men to be employed at their home or on household premises.

Table 21. Employed persons aged 15+ by place of work

	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	44315	34472	9843
At home/ household premises	7173	3693	3480
Mill factory / business establishment	4378	3341	1037
At farm	15216	11838	3377
Restaurant / tea stall	459	431	28
Shop / store room	3397	3075	323
Government office	1683	1474	210
Floating places	5018	4816	202
Employer's house	1277	1224	53
Others	5714	4582	1132

BBS 2004: 144

[18] See the relevant ILO website: http://www.ilo.org/ilolex/english/convdisp1.htm.

6. Data collection & processing

This is the third element of the ICLS recommendation. The first part of this section presents case studies of experience in Nepal, India, Pakistan and Bangladesh in attempting to make their population censuses and labour force surveys more gender-responsive. The second part of this section of the handbook briefly discusses sources of data other than the LFS and HIES. It focuses, in particular, on time use surveys. The final part of this section discusses data analysis and how this relates to policy.

Experience from the sub-region

Over the last decade and more, the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) South Asia Regional Office has been assisting countries in the South Asia sub-region to improve statistics on gender.[19] The assistance has focused primarily on the census rather than household surveys. It has also not been restricted to employment-related statistics. Nevertheless, there are lessons to be learnt from this work. Nepal has also done work focused specifically on the LFS. As illustrated, the various efforts focused on choice and training of enumerators, framing of questions, choice of respondent, choice of enumerators, and awareness-raising.

Enumerators and respondents in Bangladesh's LFS and HIES

The enumerators for Bangladesh's LFS are primarily BBS staff, with extra educated people recruited in some areas where necessary. Although no statistics are available, it seems that the majority of the enumerators are male. The LFS questions are addressed to one respondent in each household – 'ideally' (in the BBS's eyes) the household head. The BBS feels that the head of household is more likely to know the activities of other members than a woman in the household. As discussed further above, the majority of household heads in Bangladesh are male.

For the HIES, the enumerators are almost exclusively male, but the BBS employs a female 'facilitator' in each enumeration area. The BBS does this because it realised that women would generally have a better knowledge of the consumption patterns in the household than men.

India

In 1991 UNIFEM assisted India and Pakistan with their census exercises. In India, UNIFEM worked with the Government of India, the Office of the Registrar General of India and the SNDT Women's University. This work attempted to introduce a more gender-sensitive definition of work which included household-based work. The questionnaires were made more gender-sensitive, there was special training for census staff and fieldworkers, and there was media advocacy to raise the issues more generally. In terms of the questionnaire, the question 'Did you work at any time at all last year?' was qualified with an explanatory note 'including unpaid work on farm or family enterprise' These Instruction to Enumerators Booklet reinforced the amended question by providing examples from areas of work such as animal husbandry, home-based manufacturing, and construction.

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[19] Much of the information in this section was obtained from the UNIFEM regional office in New Delhi.

The gender sensitization work of 1991 did not cover all geographical areas as the project started quite late in the census cycle. Nevertheless, the initiative appears to have led to an increase of about 4 per cent in the female work participation rate.

After the census, a research agency was commissioned to analyse data from the 1981 and 1991 censuses to provide further evidence of the need for gender sensitization. UNIFEM and the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) also sponsored a sample survey to analyse the extent of sensitivity in the village level enumeration processes. The researchers examined the draft questionnaire for the 2001 census, assessed performance of enumerators, and observed the interaction between enumerators and respondents. The survey was done in 10 rural and suburban villages in states with poor statistics on sex ratio, women's literacy and work participation. The survey revealed that out of a total sample of 150 enumerators, only two specifically asked the question: 'Do you work?' to women. The rest crossed the question out because they assumed that women did not work. A further finding was that the addition of a small introduction explaining the purpose of the interview made respondents take it more seriously. The need for further improvements in the census was also evident from the results of the pilot time use survey conducted in six districts of India in the late 1990s.

Against the background of these findings, the Registrar General agreed on a strategy which included:

- Awareness-raising for enumerators and supervisors on gender issues especially in areas of the country identified as having the poorest statistics;
- Production of a video and computerised training modules on gender-sensitive data collection;
- Awareness raising on women's work among the general public so that their responses would be more accurate.

Pakistan

In Pakistan, UNIFEM, UNFPA and the United National Children's Fund (UNICEF) worked with the Pakistan Census Organization to make the 1998 census more gender-sensitive. Two large NGOs, Aurat Foundation and Bedari, were commissioned to mobilise a network of grassroots level NGOs to assist. Bedari conducted gender training for all the census enumerators and Aurat Foundation organised over 120 NGOs who conducted district level meetings to raise awareness about the need to make women's contribution visible.

Pakistan also introduced new prompt questions into their LFS in relation to activities carried out in the household promises by those reported to be housewives. These prompts led to an increase in the female participation rate from 16 to 39.3 per cent (Amjad, 2005: 1).

Nepal

Experience with the population census

The lessons from India and Pakistan were shared with Nepal for their census of 2001.[20] In this census, country activities included reviewing the enumerators' manual and questionnaires, and

[20] Acharya (2004) provides a detailed account of Nepal's experience as well as the findings from the census data.

training of enumerators. As part of the regional sharing, officials of the Nepal Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) observed the 1998 census operations in Pakistan. Their visit to Pakistan was followed by a debriefing meeting in New Delhi attended by officials from the Government of India, the office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner of India, the National Planning Commission and UN agencies.

After the visits to Pakistan and India, two workshops were held to orientate statisticians working on GDP and census to gender issues, the 1993 SNA and the ILO Employment Manual of 1992. The main focus of subsequent work was on improving the quality of data by providing clearer explanations of concepts such as head of household, economic and non-economic activities, ethnicity/caste, and language. In terms of work, economic activity was defined to cover collection of water and fuel and processing of goods for household use in line with the 1993 SNA. The need for female enumerators was also emphasised.

An internal committee of the CBS prepared a draft questionnaire, which was redrafted several times on the basis of input from a range of stakeholders. A high level Census Technical Advisory Committee was established, comprising CBS officials, representatives from the university, government agencies who used the data, NGOs, subject matter specialists and gender experts. The Committee was chaired by the Director General of the CBS. A further workshop was held to plan for the publicity at the national, district and local levels.

The 2001 Census manual included:

- Examples of women's and children's likely economic, 'extended economic' and non-economic activities. The list of activities was revised to be more typical of Nepal rather than using the standard ILO list.
- Clearer instructions on recording occupations and sectors of work, and distinguishing between the two concepts.
- More probing questions to ascertain whether women, older people and others formerly assumed to be not working were, in fact, employed.
- Pictorial illustrations for many of the explanations.

A separate manual was also prepared for enumerators and supervisors explaining gender concepts and their relevance for the census. A lot of effort also went into recruiting women as supervisors and enumerators. As a result of these efforts, just over one-fifth (3,967) of the 19,180 enumerators were women. However, only one of the 76 district census officers and none of the supervisors was a woman.

The efforts resulted in an increase in recorded economic activity rates for men and women for both rural and urban areas between 1991 and 2001. Acharya attributes the increase to the redefinition of economic and non-economic activities, the improved definitions in the manual, and a change in the calculation of economic activity to take account of multiple activities. In previous censuses, if someone was declared to be a housewife or full-time student, they were automatically classified as not economically active. In 2001, all people aged 10 years and above were asked to respond to the work questions irrespective of how the question about usual work was answered.

The experiment of employing teachers for census enumeration was found not to be very useful, because the teachers did not take the training seriously. Further they may have also not taken enumeration itself seriously, employing their students to do the work instead of doing it themselves. Most of the older teachers also were not sympathetic to gender concerns.

Experience with the labour force survey

A slightly earlier project in Nepal focused on the LFS. Strengthening of the gender element in the LFS was part of a larger UNDP-funded project to assist the CBS to design and implement a large-scale household-based LFS. One of the major foci of the initiative was to ensure that interviewers and respondents understood the full ambit of what constituted work. Another was to ensure that seasonal variations in activities were captured.

The questionnaire used for the survey asked about the number of hours spent on each of nine economic activities: wage job; any business; agriculture; milling and other food processing; handicrafts; construction and major repair of houses, farm buildings, etc. done through volunteer labour; fetching water; collecting firewood; and 'other' work activities. For most of the nine activities, the questionnaire included examples of typical types of that activity which might be neglected in reporting.

Similar questions were asked about seven non-economic activities, namely: cooking/serving food; cleaning utensils/house; minor housing repairs; shopping for household; caring for old, sick and infirm; childminding, including feeding, child care, taking to school; other volunteer and community services as volunteer only.

The questions on economic and non-economic activities were asked about all individuals aged 5 years and above. To ensure that all questions were correctly understood, the questionnaire was designed in English, translated into local languages, back-translated into English by other translators, and checked against the original.

The Nepal exercise built on a previous Pakistan LFS which included similar prompts on different types of economic work. The Nepal LFS differed from the Pakistani one in that in the former more detailed questions were only asked of women who were classified as economically inactive and engaged in housekeeping. These detailed questions revealed that some of these women were, in fact, economically active and resulted in an adjustment of the crude labour force participation rates of women from 12.7 to over 50 per cent.

Inclusion of collection of fuel and water as a form of employment in Nepal's LFS resulted in the unemployment rate in rural areas being close to zero. To allow comparison with previous results, employment and unemployment was reported both including and excluding these two activities. Because ISCO-88 was drawn up before the 1993 SNA it did not include occupation codes for those engaged only in these two activities. The CBS therefore added two codes – 922 for water collection and 934 for firewood collection.

The enumerators for Nepal's LFS were mainly drawn from district offices of CBS, where male staff predominated. The report notes that interviewing of young women by young men is 'culturally difficult, and in these situations the data often had to be collected through proxies, with possible consequent effects on data quality' (CBS, 1999: 3). The ILO arranged for two sessions on gender issues in the training programmes for supervisors and enumerators. However, the report suggests that in future surveys it would be better if the CBS used the approach of the Nepal Living Standard Survey where every team included two women. To circumvent the problem of male dominance among CBS staff, temporary staff were recruited from outside the organization where necessary.

Other sources of data on work

Time use survey

While the LFS focuses on economic activity, a time use survey attempts to record and measure all forms of activity undertaken by the sample population, whether this is economic work, non-economic work, or non-productive activity. If appropriately designed, a time use survey will succeed in capturing economic activity which is 'missed' by a standard labour force survey because the questions about activity are framed in 'everyday' language rather than using terms which may be misunderstood. In particular, a time use survey may capture more of women's economic work because it is not subject to perceptions about women's activities in the same way that an LFS is. Time use surveys are also an excellent tool for collecting information on non-economic work or unpaid care work.

South Africa: Measuring economic activity with time use vs labour force surveys

The South African time use survey of 2000 included the standard set of questions used for measuring economic activity in household surveys alongside the time use questions. Comparison of the results of the two sets of questions shows that 82 per cent of those who did SNA activities during the previous 24 hours according to the time use questions were recorded as employed by the standard questions, but 2 per cent were recorded as unemployed and 16 per cent as not economically active (Budlender et al, 2001: 52).

Table 22 shows the result of India's pilot time use survey. The survey was conducted in six states – Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat, Orissa, Tamil Nadu and Meghlaya – from July 1998 to June 1999. The table reveals that, on average, women spend nearly ten times as many hours on unpaid care work than men. Although they tend to spend less time than men on SNA and non-SNA activites, overall, women worked just as long hours as men, if combining all hours worked.

Table 22. Average hours per week by type of activity and sex, India

	Male	Female	Total
SNA activity	42.0	18.7	30.8
Unpaid care work	3.7	34.6	18.7
Non-SNA	122.4	114.6	118.6
Total	168.1	167.9	168.1

Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

There are many different methods for conducting time use surveys. INSTRAW names the time diary as the 'tool of preference' (1995: 69) for time use studies. In a time diary, the respondent describes each activity in their own words, from the beginning of a day until the end of a day. In countries with high rates of literacy, respondents can be given a diary and asked to fill it in during the following day as they do each activity. In countries with lower literacy rates, the more sensible approach is to interview the respondent about what they did in each period of the previous day. The diagram below shows an extract from a diary of this type for a female informal trader who works from her home in South Africa.

Time period	**Description of activities**	Code
	1 to 3 activities per time period	
09h00	Prepared food for lunch & put on stove to cook	410
to	Listened to the radio	930
09h30		
09h30	Cleaned the house	420
to	Listened to the radio	930
10h00		
10h00	Cleaned the house	420
to	Listened to the radio	920
10h30		
10h30	Set up stall to sell fruit and vegetables	350
to	Sat and waited for customers	350
11h00		
11h00	Waited for customers	350
to		
11h30		

The third column of the extract from the South African diary shows the code for the given activity. Generally these codes are added after the interview, either by the interviewer or in a centralised coding location, in the same way that codes are added for variables such as occupation and industry.

In the late 1990s, the United Nations Statistical Division (UNSD) came up with a trial International Classification of Time Use Activities (ICATUS). ICATUS was intended to provide a classification that would work for all countries – developed and developing. The UNSD started work on ICATUS because most of the earlier time use studies had taken place in developed countries and their classifications did not suit activities in developing countries very well.

One of the strengths of ICATUS is that it divides activities into categories according to the way different activities are treated in the SNA. The first version of ICATUS, which was the one used in South Africa, divides all activities into ten broad categories numbered 1 through 9 and 10. The ten categories are then grouped together into three bigger categories. Categories 1 through 3 are activities within the SNA production boundary. Categories 4 through 6 constitute production, but fall outside the production boundary i.e. they are unpaid care work. Categories 7 through 9 and 0 are 'non-productive' activities. You can find out about the manual and about ICATUS on their website, at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/cr/registry/regcst.asp?Cl=231&Lg=1.

The main categories of the International Classification of Time Use Activities

Activities within the SNA production boundary:

1 Work in establishments, e.g. working for government, in a factory or mine;
2 Primary production, e.g. growing maize on a household plot or collecting fuel and water;
3 Work in non-establishments, e.g. doing hairdressing at home;

Activities constituting unpaid care work:

4 Household maintenance, e.g. cooking and cleaning the house;
5 Care of persons, e.g. looking after children or the elderly;
6 Community service, e.g. attending a political meeting or helping other households;

Non-productive activities:

7 Learning, e.g. attending school or doing homework;
8 Social and cultural, e.g. socialising with family or friends;
9 Mass media use, e.g. watching TV or listening to the radio; and
10 Personal care, e.g. sleeping, eating, drinking, dressing, washing.

Table 23 provides information on the number and date of known time use studies conducted in Asian countries. The table includes some small, sub-national studies as well as representative national studies. According to this source, Bangladesh has had two previous time use surveys, both in the 1970s.

Table 23. Time use studies in Asia

Country	Number of studies	Most recent study
Bangladesh	2	1976 (also 1974)
China	1	2000-01
India	10	1998-99
Indonesia	5	1999
Japan	22	2001
Laos	1	1997-98
Malaysia	1	1990-91
Mongolia	1	2000
Nepal	3	1998-99
Oman	1	1999
Pakistan	1	1990-91
Papua New Guinea	1	1962
The Philippines	4	2000
Republic of Korea	9	2000
South Africa	2	2000
Thailand	2	2000-01

Source: Dr Kimberley Fisher, Institute for Social and Economic Research, University of Essex

The 1984/5 LFS reportedly included a module on time use. The BBS felt that the quality of the data collected was not adequate and has not repeated the exercise since.

Establishment surveys and censuses

The BBS has a census of agricultural establishments and one of manufacturing establishments. The data from these sources are not very reliable because the business register, on which the sample is based, is out of date. The census also covers only those establishments which employ 10 or more employees, and would thus exclude large numbers of employees. In addition, establishment-based surveys often exclude groupings which tend to be female-dominated such as outworkers, part-time workers, casual workers, temporary workers employed through employment agencies.

Demographic and health survey

The demographic and health survey (DHS) is conducted by an organization which falls under the Ministry of Health rather than by the BBS. It is part of the international set of DHSs which are supported by Macro International in the United States of America. The standard questionnaire used for these surveys includes questions on employment.

Administrative data

Bangladesh, like other countries, has a range of administrative data collections which could be potential sources for information about gender patterns in employment. The coverage of these data is dependant on the laws and regulations, which govern the issues covered in terms of eligibility, as well as access of those who should be covered. Some types of data, for example those relating to various funds, will tend to be male-dominated because men, and the categories of work in which they dominate, tend to have greater eligibility to social security and other types of funds.

Data analysis and interpretation

Data for policy making

The BBS, as a government statistical agency, focuses on issues which have relevance for social policy. The LFS, for example, is conducted on a regular basis because of the importance of labour force patterns in determining the economic well-being of the population and levels of poverty. The HIES also provides regular information on the extent of poverty -- who is affected and how.

The BBS is not itself expected to make policy pronouncements or decisions. Its role is to provide the information which will inform the decisions of those in line ministries, in parliament and in other decision-making positions, as well as inform the general public about the situation in the country. However, although the BBS does not itself make policy, its choices as to how to analyse and present data will determine how useful the information it presents will be to the decision-makers.

Rahman (2005) offers several suggestions in relation to how the classification and groupings used in Bangladesh's LFS reports could be improved. She notes that the monthly income groups used in the report group as much as 60 per cent of paid/salaried women and 16 per cent of paid/salaried men are into the two lowest income groups. These groups clearly need to be further disaggregated. A similar problem arises in the tabulation of weekly working hours, where 30 per cent of the female labour force falls in the 20-29 hour range. Rahman also notes that the way in which the duration of unemployment is reported in LFS reports is unhelpful in that 80 per cent of the unemployed fall in the single group provided for those unemployed for 12 months or longer. This clustering of such a large number prevents more detailed comparison of male-female differences.

The latest edition of the United Nations' *Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses* (UNSD, 1998) includes suggestions as to how to avoid gender biases and biases in relation to minority populations. These relate, among others, to issues such as formulation of questions, sex of enumerators and training of enumerators discussed above. In terms of presentation, paragraph 3.67 emphasises that all data collected at the individual level can and should be presented by sex. The paragraph notes that cross-classifications by sex 'tend to be suppressed when cross-tabulations become complex with multiple-variable tables'. It suggests that sex 'should be considered the overriding variable in all tables', and the disaggregated data should be included in all publications, databases and computer printouts.

The UNSD publication also has a suggested list of tabulations for population censuses. The portion of the list dealing with economic characteristics is reproduced in Appendix II. Examination of the list reveals that all relevant listings are required to be disaggregated by sex. The suggestions should, however, be applied with caution to an LFS. In particular, the list provides for a choice between 'usual' and 'current' activity, and several of the listings refer to the 'main' activity. However, elsewhere (UNSD, 1998: 2.179) the UNSD manual itself cautions against the use of the term 'main' or 'principal' in formulation of questions because of the likelihood that this will lead to an undercount of economic activity of women, among others.

Data to inform budgets

As noted above, the Bangladesh government is currently a partner in a gender-responsive budget (GRB) initiative which has commenced with analysis of key sectors. Convincing analysis of any topic requires good information. Similarly, good policy making requires good information. It is common in writing by GRB practitioners to hear complaints about the lack of adequate data to understand what government budgets are doing to address gender issues. It is here that the BBS can assist.

The five steps of GRB are a useful starting point in thinking about how BBS can assist with GRB. The first column of Table 24 describes each step. The second column gives the formal budget-speak term for this step. BBS can probably assist in four of the five steps (all but the third).

The causes-consequences-solutions analysis tool helps in determining what data are needed to make decisions about policies and programmes to address the problems in a particular society. This tool assumes that you have identified a problem that you want to address. For example, in the employment field the problem might be that women tend to earn less than men.

The first step is to determine the causes of the problem. This step is important to ensure that budget priorities are based on logical thinking and facts. By insisting on a clear explanation of how this causation happens, this step also avoids a tendency to blame everything on concepts such as 'globalization', or 'gender bias', or 'culture' without specifying which aspect of these big concepts may cause the problem.

Table 24. Data requirements of the five steps of GRB

Step	Budget term	Data required
Describe the situation of women and men, girls and boys (and different sub-groups) in the sector covered by the Ministry or agency whose budget is being examined	Situation or needs analysis	Situation description
Check whether policy is gender-responsive i.e. whether it addresses the situation you described	Policy review – 'activities'	Past performance
Check that adequate budget is allocated to implement the gender-responsive policy	Resource allocation – 'inputs'	Budget figures
Check whether the expenditure is spent as planned	Monitoring – 'outputs'	Targets & delivery indicators
Examine the impact of the policy and expenditure i.e. whether it has promoted gender equity as intended	Evaluation – 'outcomes' or 'impact'	Targets & situation description

The second step is to describe the consequences. This is important so that policy makers are aware of the consequences of not addressing the issue. In this step it is again important to avoid specifying complex and multi-dimensional concepts, such as 'poverty' as the consequences. By specifying the consequences more exactly, the analysis will show the link between the problem and the consequences more clearly.

The third step is to suggest the solutions to the problem, and determine who is responsible for implementing the solutions. Ideally solutions should address the causes, or root, of the problem. But sometimes this is not possible, at least in the immediate future. In these cases, government might want to address some of the consequences so that they are less severe.

Often the causes-consequences-solutions exercise comes up with a fairly long list of solutions. From a budget perspective, it might be impossible for government to implement all of these solutions. From a practical perspective, government might not be the most appropriate implementer. The next step therefore involves deciding which steps are best done by government, so that government can prioritise where it should allocate resources, and who it should work with to do what it will not itself do.

Data are important for two of the three steps of the causes-consequences-solution exercise. In terms of causes, it is useful to be able to measure the extent of factors which we 'blame' for this problem. In terms of consequences, it is useful to be able to measure the extent of the problems caused by the initial problem. For budget analysis, it is also useful to devise measures for the third step in terms of indicators with which to monitor government delivery on the chosen action steps.

Making data available

The BBS is the main body responsible for producing official data in Bangladesh, and there are few other agencies which have the same sort of capacity to undertake large-scale surveys such as the LFS and HIES. The BBS does not, however, have sufficient capacity to do justice to all the data it generates through these surveys. By the time one survey is complete, staff are already involved in planning and implementing another survey.

It is therefore important that the raw data produced are available to other users. The BBS has recognised this and sells the data to users who are interested in conducting further analysis. The full dataset for surveys such as the LFS and HIES is available from BBS on payment of US$ 1,000. There are, in this respect, two ways in which BBS could further facilitate fuller utilization of the data. Firstly, it could lower the price of the data. Secondly, it could provide assistance and advice to users.

7. Dissemination

This is the fourth element of the ICLS. The section focuses on ideas about publications.

The BBS already includes gender in its publications to the extent that the LFS reports, for example, include many tables which are sex-disaggregated. This is commendable, but is not sufficient. Rahman (2005) notes that on some issues, the findings on the male and female labour force are described only briefly and the differences are not highlighted. Analyses of the particular characteristics of the female labour force are also lacking. Some of these observations are similar to those of Acharya (see box) in respect of the report on Nepal's population census of 2001. Acharya also raises the need for simultaneous disaggregation by sex and other characteristics if the information is to be useful.

Reporting on gender in Nepal's population census

Acharya (2005) criticises Nepal's main report on the population census of 2001 for publishing only simple tabulations rather than cross-classifying sex by other characteristics such as ethnicity, caste and geographical region (rural/urban). A three-volume publication on *Population Census Results in Gender Perspective, 2001* provides some further disaggregation in respect of geographical regions, but very little on ethnicity and caste. Acharya further criticises the three volumes for being over-detailed, so that the main gender issues are lost, and for using some incorrect definitions.

In addition to standard publications, it might also be useful to produce periodical publications that focus specifically on gender issues. Many countries produced 'Women and men' booklets at the time of the Beijing Conference in 1995. For many, these publications proved to be among the most popular of the statistical agencies. This was especially the case when the publications were produced in a user-friendly style, with graphs and simple language, that made them accessible to a broad audience rather than only to a technically skilled one.

The BBS bears the main responsibility for preparing and disseminating publications based on its surveys. In planning for and undertaking these activities, the BBS should consult as widely as possible. In particular, the BBS should consult with the Ministry of Women and Child Affairs, and with gender specialists both within and outside the government.

The following tips for presenting statistical tables and graphs have been adapted from Hedman et al (1996: 88f):

- Round exact numbers to the nearest 1,000 and percentages to integers. This avoids implying that the estimates are more accurate than they are. It also makes the numbers easier to understand and compare.
- When presenting graphs, omit the total bar or column. This makes it easier to compare the male and female columns.
- Avoid using all the decorations available in computer graphics programmes. In particular, avoid three-dimensional bars and columns, and avoid rounded, pointed or other oddly-

shaped bars and columns. All these decorations make it more difficult for the reader to see the patterns you are trying to show.

- Always start the y-axis at zero when presenting quantitative variables. Using an origin greater than zero exaggerates the differences between male and female.
- Avoid using pie charts when you want to show differences and similarities in percentage distributions for several groups, such as male and female.
- Use box-plots to show the median and dispersion for variables such as income where there can be a large range.

Both general and specialised publications should include indicators that highlight the gender gaps. UNIFEM (2000: 62) suggests four different ways of presenting 'gender-sensitive indicators' that compare the situation of males to those of females, and thus show an aspect of relative advantage or disadvantage. Table 25 provides examples of each of the four approaches from the area of labour statistics.

Table 25. Different types of gender-sensitive indicators

Type of indicator	Example
Female percentage of a total, where 50 per cent would indicate formal gender equality	Female percentage of total earnings in the country
Ratio between a female and a male characteristic, where 1 would indicate formal gender equality	Ratio between women's and men's average hourly earnings
Female characteristic as a percentage of male characteristics, where 100 per cent would indicate formal gender equality	Average female weekly earnings as percentage of male weekly earnings
Difference between female and male characteristics, where 0 would indicate formal gender equality	Average hourly earnings of women minus average hourly earnings of men

The table notes what value of each type of indicator would indicate formal equality. Formal equality means that the situation of male and female is identical. Having this type of equality as the aim assumes that women and men are the same in all respects, and thus does not cater for aspects in respect of which there might be real differences and needs. An obvious example of this in the field of work would be provisions for parental leave. Most people would agree that a situation of formal equality in terms of parental leave, where women and men workers get the same number of days when a baby is born, would be equal, but not equitable (fair). Gender analysts use the term substantive equality to refer to situations that are equitable and that take into account the different needs of women and men. The danger in this approach is that it can be used to justify perpetuating differences that are produced by society and that are not necessarily equitable in themselves.

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Appendix 1: Decent work indicators

No	Indicator	Explanation of method
	Employment opportunities	
1	Labour force participation rate	
2	Employment-population ratio	
3	Unemployment rate	
4	Youth unemployment rate	
5	Share of wage employment in non-agricultural employment	
	Unacceptable work	
6	Children not in school by employment status	Percent by age
7	Children in wage employment or self-employment	Percent by age
	Adequate earnings and productive work	
8	Inadequate pay rate	Percent of employed below ½ of median hourly earnings or absolute minimum, whichever greater, by status in employment
9	Average earnings in selected occupations	
10	Employees with recent job training	Percent with job training during last 12 months provided or paid for by employer or state
	Decent hours	
11	Excessive hours of work	Percent of employed, by status in employment
12	Time-related under-employment rate	Percent of employed persons working less than hours threshold, but available and wanting to work additional hours
	Stability and security of work	
13	Tenure less than one year	Percent of employed person who have held their main job/work for less than one year, by age
14	Temporary work	Percent of employees who classify their jobs as temporary
	Balancing work and family life	
15	Employment rate for women with children under compulsory school age	Ratio to employment rate for all women aged 20-49
	Fair treatment in employment	
16	Occupational segregation by sex	Percent of non-agricultural employment in male- or female-dominated occupations and index of dissimilarity
17	Female share of employment in managerial and administrative occupations	Ratio to female share of non-agricultural employment
	Safe work	
18	Fatal injury rate	Per 100,000 employees
19	Labour inspection	Inspectors per 100,000 employees and per 100,000 covered
20	Occupation injury insurance coverage	

Appendix 2: UNSD suggested tabulations in respect of economic characteristics

- Population ... years of age and over, by usual (or current) activity status, marital status, age and sex
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main occupation, age and sex
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main industry, age and sex
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main status in employment, age and sex
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main status in employment, main industry and sex
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main status in employment, main occupation and sex
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main industry, main occupation and sex
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main status in employment, place of work, main occupation and sex
- Usually (or currently) active population, by institutional sector of employment, main industry and sex
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main occupation, educational attainment, age and sex
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main industry, educational attainment, age and sex
- Usually active population, by sex, main status in employment and number of weeks worked in all occupations during the last year
- Currently active population, by sex, main status in employment and number of hours worked in all occupations during the last week
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main occupation, marital status and age
- Usually (or currently) active population, by main status in employment, marital status and age
- Usually (or currently) active population in the household sector, by main status in employment, place of work, main occupation and sex
- Usually active population, by monthly or annual income, occupation and sex
- Households and population in households, by annual income and size of household
- Population not usually active, by functional categories, age and sex
- Population not currently active (in other words, not in the labour force) by primary reason for inactivity, age and sex
- Heads or other reference members of households ... years of age and over, by economic activity status, age and sex
- Households and population in households, by size of household and number of usually (or currently) active members
- Households, by size, number of usually (or currently) unemployed members and dependent children under 15 years of age in household
- Usually (or currently) active heads or other reference members of households ... years of age and over, by main status in employment, main industry and sex

Part II: Trainer's Guide

1. Introduction

About the Trainer's Guide

The ideas in this guide are based mainly on a validation workshop held in Dhaka in August 2005, which validated Part I: Trainer's Handbook. The ideas represent only a small proportion of the possible ways in which the information in the Trainer's Handbook can be used. The Trainer's Handbook is a comprehensive resource which aims to provide trainers with the knowledge on technical issues they need to be effective trainers, whereas Part II suggests ways in which the information in the handbook can be imparted to trainees, by providing hand-outs and example exercises that the trainer can use during the training workshops. It also provides an example of a training workshop programme, which can be modified according to the needs and level of knowledge of trainees.

Target groups

There are a range of different target groups who might need to be trained on gender dimensions of the world of work so that Bangladesh can have accurate and useful statistics for more gender aware policy making. Some of the key target groups are:

- *Census and survey enumerators*: These people need to understand different concepts and what is intended by particular questions. They also need to be sensitive to gender dynamics within households and communities.
- *Designers of instruments*: Those who design the questionnaires for the census and surveys need to be aware of the gender patterns in the society and perceptions of what constitutes 'work', to ensure that the questions are framed in a way that will capture all the different types of work.
- *Analysis*: Those who analyse the data need to know what the likely gender patterns are in the society, and what the implications of those patterns are for gender equality. They need to be able to present the findings in a way that is clear for policy makers and the general public.
- *Policy makers*: The users of the data need to understand what the different labour market concepts mean. They need to be able to analyse the reasons for the different gender patterns in the world of work, and formulate policy that addresses any problems and gender gaps revealed by the statistics.
- *Civil society groups*: These groups need to understand what the different labour market concepts mean, how the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) measures the different concepts, and what the statistics mean. They need to understand the strengths and weaknesses of survey methods so that they can use the data and lobby for the necessary policy changes as well as lobby for improvements in the way data are produced, and disseminated to wider audience.

The different needs of the different target groups would require the training programmes to be adapted to their needs in content and emphasis. There would also be differences in the level, based both on participants' prior knowledge of the topics and on what is required of them. Because it is difficult to train a very heterogeneous group, it is suggested that some basic criteria are applied in the selection of participants to a training workshop at the planning stage.

Key features of the guide and workshop preparation

The Guide is meant for experienced trainers
This guide assumes that the user is already a relatively skilled trainer. It therefore focuses on what is special about training on gender dimensions of the world of work rather than on general training principles or methods.

Participatory approach
The training approach suggested is participatory. This means that there is a minimum of lectures and a maximum of group work and practical exercises. We suggest this approach because we believe that people learn much more by *doing*, rather than only *listening*. A participatory approach also gives the trainer a better sense of what trainees understand and where they are having difficulties, allowing frequent communication and exchange of information. This allows the trainer to adapt the method to ensure good learning.

Training facility, venue and materials
The way the training venue is arranged must be suitable for participatory training. Participants' seats should not be arranged in rows as for a lecture. Instead, they could be arranged in a circle or square. Alternatively, participants can be seated at small tables. There must also be flipchart stands, paper and markers to be used by the facilitator and by participants to report back on group work.

The venue should have sufficient space to allow for group work. This could be in the form of small tables and moveable chairs arranged around the room. Alternatively, there could be one or two extra rooms where groups can meet. If there are extra rooms, they should be near the main training venue as otherwise it is difficult to check if group work is going smoothly. It is also difficult to gather participants at the end of the group session if the rooms are far apart.

Handouts
The guide refers to a set of training tools which were developed for or during the validation workshop. These include short PowerPoint presentations to introduce some of the sessions. The handouts should be prepared beforehand, but usually should not be given to participants until the relevant session. Participants can be provided with a binder to which they can add the handouts as the workshop proceeds. For the validation workshop all participants were provided with the draft handbook at the beginning of the workshop because one of the main aims of the workshop was to improve the handbook.

2. Suggestions for training sessions

Introduction

The table below gives the programme for the validation workshop of August 2005. The sub-sections which follow explain what was done in each of the sessions.

The validation workshop was very short – only two days. As a result, the programme allowed less time than was optimal for some of the sessions. Trainers should remember this when drawing up their own programmes.

Example of Training Workshop Programme

Monday 29 August 2005

09h00-09h20	Welcome & introductions
09h20-09h50	Gender concepts: Group exercise
09h50-10h10	Outline of workshop objectives & programme & handbook: Presentation
10h10-10h25	TEA
10h25-11h35	Measuring labour market concepts I: Group work & plenary
11h35-12h05	Lessons from other countries: Reading & discussion
12h05-13h00	Measuring labour market concepts II: Group work
13h00-14h00	LUNCH
14h00-14h30	Measuring labour market concepts II: Plenary
14h30-15h15	Lobbying for a time use survey: Present & prepare role-play
15h15-15h30	TEA
15h30-16h30	Lobbying for a time use survey: Role-play & debrief

Tuesday 30 August 2005

09h00-09h10	Summary of previous day
09h10-09h30	Decent work: Presentation
09h30-10h40	Measuring labour market concepts III: Group work & plenary
10h40-10h55	TEA
10h55-11h25	Other data sources: Brainstorm
11h25-13h00	Causes, consequences, solutions: Group & plenary
13h00-14h00	LUNCH
14h00-15h15	Tables & graphs: Pair work & plenary
15h15-15h30	TEA
15h30-16h00	Review of recommendations
16h00-16h30	The way forward, evaluation & closure

Welcome and introductions

At the beginning of the training workshop, the key convenor can introduce the trainer and briefly explain the overall context of the training workshop, for example: workshop organised by the ILO, BBS, or an NGO, as well as what was the process leading to the workshop and planned follow-up, for example.

Having a respected person as a keynote speaker can be useful in stressing the importance of the training – to emphasise the "political will" of the organiser and the organizations which can provide policy support or authority for enhancing gender dimensions of statistics. A training event should not, however, have a large number of introductory speeches.

After the keynote or introductory speech, each participant can be asked to introduce themselves. This is useful both to get participants speaking at an early stage of the workshop in case they are shy, and so that everyone can have an idea who the other participants are. If there is time, introductions can be done in a participatory way. Participants can be asked to find someone that they don't know yet, and tell them something about themselves in addition to their name and institution. For example, they can be asked to tell each other what they did before coming to the workshop. If participants include men and women, this game can help to start showing gender patterns of what people do in the given context on a day-to-day basis. Then, each person introduces their new 'friend'.

If participants come from different institutions, it is difficult for them (and for the trainer) to remember who everyone is from a short introduction. Each participant should also be given a name card showing their name and institution.

Gender concepts: Group exercise

This exercise can be done even before the outline of workshop objectives and programme, so as to encourage participants to start talking and participating as early as possible in the workshop.

Appendix 1 contains one of the tools for this exercise – a set of sheets each containing a gender concept. The second tool is the glossary near the beginning of Part I: Trainer's Handbook (see page 9). A copy of the glossary should be given to participants only after they have completed the group exercise.

The trainer must prepare one set of the sheets beforehand. The trainer hands each sheet to one participant. Participants with sheets are then given five minutes to discuss with the person sitting next to them how they understand the concept. After five minutes, the trainer asks each person with a sheet, in turn, to explain what the concept means. After the person has explained, the trainer invites other participants to add to or disagree with what the first participant has said. The trainer assists the participants to come to a definition that is close to the one provided in the Trainer's Handbook (see pp. 9-11).

The trainer should stress that there are different interpretations of some of the concepts, but that it is important that all participants use a similar definition during the workshop so that they are 'talking the same language'.

It is important to cover some gender concepts during training of all target groups. In particular, it is important that participants understand that gender is not only about biological sex and that gender patterns can be changed. For some groups, such as enumerators, it will not be necessary to cover all the gender concepts.

Outline of workshop objectives & programme & handbook: Presentation

The presentation on the workshop outline was used in the validation workshop for this session. Trainers will need to adapt this presentation to match the programme and objectives of the workshop that they are facilitating.

This introductory presentation is short so as not to bore participants early in the workshop. It is, however, important that everyone understands the objectives of the workshop so that there are no false expectations. The presentation also explains the programme so that participants have an idea what they will be doing over the next few days. It is also important that participants understand the nature of material (such as the handbook for the validation workshop) that will be provided.

Some tips

For the validation workshop the workshop programme did not strictly follow the order of the handbook because following the order would have meant having too many similar exercises consecutively. This could have been boring for participants. The presentation showed the link between each session of the workshop and the relevant part of the handbook so that participants could see that all parts of the handbook would be covered in some way.

Presentation on Political Will

The presentation on '*Measuring Decent Work: Gender dimensions*' in Appendix 2 can be used for this session.

You should allow sufficient time after the presentation for questions and discussions.

Some tips

This session would be important in a training workshop for policy makers and for survey designers. It could come earlier in the workshop as it provides background information. But you also need to avoid having too many presentations at the beginning of the workshop as this can discourage participants from talking.

Measuring labour market concepts

The presentation on '*Labour Market Concepts*' in Appendix 3 was used in the validation workshop for the labour market concept sessions.

There were three sessions, interspersed through the workshop, on measuring labour market concepts. These sessions covered the 13 concepts discussed in the handbook. Two of the concepts – occupation and skill – were put together so as to be able to discuss four concepts in each of the three sessions.

For each of the sessions, participants can be divided into four groups and each group is given one concept to discuss. The groups can be changed on the second day so that participants can get experience of working with different people.

Each session started with a short presentation which had one slide on each concept. (The presentation uses a different background patterns for each of the three sets.) The presentation is done so that the group responsible for discussing that concept can have something to start with, and so that participants from other groups will have some background to understand the presentations at the end.

In the first presentation the facilitator also explains what is expected of the groups. They will be asked to read through the relevant page/s of the handbook dealing with that concept and to answer specified questions on the definition, measurement and presentation. The questions are shown on the first slide of the presentation, after the title slide. While the group work is proceeding, these questions can be left up on the wall so that participants could refer to them.

Approximately 45 minutes can be allowed for group work. By the end of the time, each group will be required to have written up on one or two flipchart papers what their answers to the questions are. One person from each group then will make a presentation to the entire group.

The first group session requires longer time than the other group sessions on labour market concepts because; (a) participants are new to the exercise; and (b) the concepts for the first session are complicated. The allocated time for this exercise should be longer than provided in the validation workshop to allow for proper discussion after the presentations.

Some tips

Different target audiences will need different levels of understanding of labour market concepts. Some groups will also not need to understand all the concepts. For example, enumerators must have a good understanding of the concept of household head if this concept is used in the survey. They must also know enough about a concept such as ‘occupation’ to prompt for adequate information. They might not need a good understanding of the different ways to measure poverty or what is meant by life cycle. All groups must understand what is meant by ‘economic work’ and various categories of employment status.

Lessons from other countries

This session is based on the section of the handbook called ‘Experiences from the sub-region’.

In the validation workshop, participants read through the full sub-section together. Participants took turns, each reading aloud a paragraph of the subsection. There was then a short discussion on what lessons Bangladesh could learn from the other countries.

Another way of covering this topic would be for the facilitator to prepare shorter, simpler summaries of the different country experienc es and divide into groups to discuss them.

Some tips

This topic is important for those who are responsible for the planning of surveys and censuses. It has ideas in respect of training of enumerators, awareness raising of the general public, framing of questions and analysis. The topic would not need to be covered explicitly in training for enumerators.

Lobbying for a time use survey

The presentation on *'An Introduction to Time Use Surveys*' in Appendix 4 was used to introduce this session. The presentation gives background information so that participants understand what a time use survey is. The last slide gives an extract from a time use diary so that participants get a feel of what the survey instrument looks like.

In the validation workshop, a role-play was used to explore the reasons for conducting a time use survey. Participants were divided into eight groups of about three people each. Each group was told that they represented particular role-players. Some of groups that could be considered for this exercise are:

- Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS)
- Ministry of Labour and Employment
- Ministries of Finance and Planning
- Ministry of Women
- Other government line ministries
- Employers organizations
- Workers' organizations
- Women's organizations
- Civil society organizations working on child labour
- Donors
- World Bank
- International Labour Organization, etc.

All participants are given the handout in Appendix 5 which gives ideas as to what their group's position might be in relation to having a time use survey. Groups are given 15 minutes to prepare their arguments and to choose a spokesperson. The BBS group can be asked to choose who would be the Director of the BBS and chair the meeting.

After 15 minutes is up, the 'BBS Director' is asked to open and conduct the consultation meeting. The 'Director' then can give each of the groups a chance to present their position.

Some tips

This exercise is useful for exploring the possibility of having a time use survey. It is also fun! The exercise would not be useful in a training session for enumerators. It could be useful for training of analysts, of survey and census designers, and of civil society groups.

Other data sources

This session relates to the section of the handbook dealing with 'Other sources of data on work'. This part of the handbook is very brief as the handbook focuses primarily on the LFS and Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES).

The majority of the participants in the August 2005 validation workshop were BBS officials. This session was therefore used to elicit further information from participants about other data sources.

Some tips

If a workshop includes a session on other data sources, the trainer should ideally do research before the workshop to gather more information about other sources. The trainer could, for example, get copies of the instruments used in the establishment surveys, or get copies of reports produced on the findings.

This session could be useful in a training workshop for policy makers or for civil society organizations.

Causes, consequences, solutions

The instructions for this exercise are contained in the handbook in the section on 'Data analysis and interpretation'.

Because this exercise is slightly complicated, it is useful for the trainer to lead participants through an example in plenary before dividing into groups each of which deals with a different problem statement. In the validation workshop, the facilitator used the problem statement: 'Women tend to earn less than men' for the plenary example. Some participants argued that this statement was not true, at least in government service. The facilitator explained that while men and women who did exactly the same job might receive the same pay, overall women were likely to earn less than men because women and men did different jobs. If this example is used in a workshop, it would be useful to get the statistics to prove the statement to back up the argument.

Some tips

This session could be useful in a training workshop for analysts, policy makers or civil society organizations. It is helpful for all audiences in gaining a better understanding of gender issues in the society.

Tables and graphs

There is only one slide on '*Tips for Tables & Graphs*' in Appendix 6 for this session.

The draft version of the handbook used in the validation workshop did not have percentage breakdowns for many of the tables. After the presentation, participants were divided into pairs and each pair was given one table to work on. Participants were asked to make the 'message' of the table clearer, either by adding percentages or by drawing a graph. All the pairs decided to draw a graph.

The graphs in Appendix 7 are based on the graphs developed by participants in the validation workshop. The notes accompanying each graph below state which table it is based on and point out the main gender pattern, as well as other unusual features of the table and/or graph.

> **Some tips**
>
> This exercise could be taken further by asking pairs both to develop a graph and to compose a few sentences describing what the graph shows. Such an exercise can be used to help participants draw out gender patterns to deepen the analysis of gender patterns.
>
> Exercises on tables and graphs would be useful in a workshop for analysts, policy makers and civil society organizations.

Evaluation

Evaluations are a useful way of assessing what participants have learned and what the strengths and weaknesses of the training were. If the workshop is more than two days, it is advisable to do an evaluation at the end of each day when their experiences are fresh in the minds of participants. If the workshop is only one or two days, you can have a single evaluation at the end of the workshop.

Appendix 8 is the evaluation form used in the validation workshop. It contains a combination of closed-ended questions that can be summarised in a quantitative way and open-ended questions to allow for qualitative responses.

3. Concluding remarks

As we have seen, improving the measurement, analysis and dissemination of statistics with gender dimensions is essential responsibility of the national bureau of statistics. Without accurate data that can be analysed with a specific gender perspective, the statistics will not be able to inform the development planners and policy makers on the critical gender issues that need to be addressed in national planning and policy making of a country. Since work is the key source of income and livelihood for a large majority of the population in Bangladesh, analysing specific gender dimensions of the world of work, particularly, better capturing of 'work' is crucial for full understanding of gender gaps and differentials in the world of work.

Furthermore, this guide has also shown how important it is to be conscious of the implications of women's unpaid work both for economic and non-economic purposes in Bangladesh. The data have also shown that statistically speaking, the overall female labour force participation rates have remained much lower than for men – but this guide has challenged whether this may be due to 'undercounting' of the economic work of women in the country. Similarly, the guide has demonstrated various ways of analysing and presenting sex-disaggregated statistics on different variables for measuring the world of work, using numerous examples from Bangladesh experiences.

Bangladesh is in a better position than many other countries in respect of the production of statistics on the gender dimensions of the world of work. The BBS conducts the LFS and HIES on a regular basis. These surveys cover the majority of the most important issues related to the world of work. The support from the BBS for the production of this handbook provides evidence of political will to improve further statistics on the gender dimensions of the world of work.

This guide has presented and discussed the way in which questions are currently formulated and the results presented. It has put forward suggestions as to how current practice in conducting the surveys as well as formulation of questions and presentation could be improved. The ILO hopes that these suggestions will be helpful to the BBS and its partners in taking forward their work, taking into consideration gender dimensions in their data collection and analysis through: a) reviewing and revising the survey instrument, b) undertaking the actual survey with a revised instrument, c) further analysing the sex-disaggregated data and deepening the interpretation, d) making the relevant data available more widely and at cheaper costs, as well as e) using the gender implications of the data analysis for both policy making and gender-responsive budgeting.

Appendix 1: Handouts for Gender Concepts

Sex and gender

Gender analysis

Gender division of labour

Gender equality

Gender equity

Gender mainstreaming

Gender-sensitive statistics

Labour force participation

Sex-disaggregated data

System of National Accounts

Unpaid care work

Appendix 2: Measuring gender dimensions of decent work

Measuring Gender Dimensions of Decent Work

Outline of Presentation

1. Decent Work Agenda: An integrated approach
2. Emerging gender issues in the world of work
3. Engendering statistics on the world of work: Issues raised

1. Decent Work Agenda: an integrated approach

Decent Work Agenda:

Promoting work of women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity…. Decent Work agenda puts gender equality and development issues at the heart of the ILO agenda.

(Decent Work. 1999. ILO, Geneva)

1. Decent Work Agenda: an integrated approach

Aspects of Decent Work:

- **Freedom: free from forced labour, and freedom of association and collective bargaining;**
- **Equity: equal opportunities to productive employment, income and productive resources for all social groups;**

1. Decent Work Agenda: an integrated approach

- Security: work stability, safe work, social safety net, and protection against sickness and old age.
- Human dignity: free from child labour and decent working conditions.

1. Decent Work Agenda: an integrated approach

- **Decent Work seeks "social floor" in socio-economic development:**
  - Link between social progress and economic growth;
  - Combining efficiency objectives with equity and welfare goals;
  - Both "quality" and "quantity" of jobs matter;
  - Gender equality and equity as a cross-cutting priority.

1. Decent Work Agenda: an integrated approach

Decent Work agenda: Four Strategic Objectives:

1. **Promote and realize rights and fundamental principles at work;**
2. **Create greater opportunities for decent employment and income for women and men;**
3. **Enhance social protection for all; and**
4. **Strengthen tripartism and social dialogue.**

1. Decent Work Agenda: an integrated approach

Decent Work agenda seeks to achieve the "social floor" by respecting the fundamental rights and principles at work = espoused in Declaration on Fundamental Rights and Principles at Work.

Example:

The US funded project on "Women's Empowerment through Decent Employment and Health" = an integrated and rights-based approach for development (implemented between 2001-2005).

1. Decent Work Agenda: an integrated approach

- The principles of Declaration on Fundamental Rights and Principles at Work were adopted during the World Social Summit in 1995 in Copenhagen (UN Conference).
- The Declaration promotes the fundamental principles and rights at work in the following areas: freedom of association, collective bargaining, and elimination of forced labour, child labour and of discrimination – but NOT to be used as a basis for trade regulations

3. Emerging gender issues in the world of work

Gender Gaps in the World of Work

- Women less educated than men – higher illiteracy among women (59% compared to men's 41.5% in BGD) despite progress in narrowing gender gaps.
- Girls and women tend to be less trained in vocational skills (12% of total in BGD) and only trained in traditional "female trades".
- Gender gaps in labour force participation rates (22.8% compared to men's 73.5% in BGD).

3. Emerging gender issues in the world of work

- Women are found more in informal employment (93% compared to men's 75% in BGD)
- Women dominate in those occupations with low pay and least protected – increase in vulnerable types of work: home work, domestic work and migration. A large majority of women are in unpaid work (73% compared men's 10 % in BGD)

3. Emerging gender issues in the world of work

- Gender gaps in wages: M/F Wage ratio – 1.4. in BGD.
- Women are under-represented in executive positions despite overall increase of their share in paid employment.
- As a result of all these: Poverty remains to be feminized.
- The very young and old are more vulnerable to poverty: girl child and old women.

3. Emerging gender issues in the world of work

Factors affecting the world of work:

- **Persisting/expanding informal economy.**
- **Gender dimensions of the impacts of globalization and advancement of technology on work and welfare.**
- **The impact of work and lack of work on family and personal lives.**

3. Emerging gender issues in the world of work

- **Linkage between care economy and paid work.**
- **Women more affected by Decent Work deficits: the lack of decent employment – work largely unprotected, lack of access to social protection, lack of representation and voice.**

3. Emerging gender issues in the world of work

- **Access to employment, quality of employment and poverty – direct linkage to economic well-being of people, particularly women.**
- **Gender division of work, distribution of resources and assets – men and women do not have the same share within the household, community and economy as a whole.**

4. Engendering statistics on the world of work: Issues raised

Aspects to be addressed:

- ➢ **Quantitative aspects of measuring work**
- ➢ **Qualitative aspects of measuring work**
- ➢ **Gender sensitive data collection method**
- ➢ **Gender disaggregation of data**
- ➢ **Engendered analyses of data**

4. Engendering statistics on the world of work: Issues raised

- **Quantitative aspects of measuring employment– gender gaps/differentials:**
  - **Total population – activity rates**
  - **Level of education/literacy of LF**
  - **Labour force participation (LFP) rate– how to capture women's "work"; the extent of capturing un-paid "productive" work.**
  - **Sectoral distribution of LF by economic sector (private/public, economic sector, formal/informal economy) geographical location and sex.**

4. Engendering statistics on the world of work: Issues raised

- **Status of employment by sex, age, geographical location.**
- **Unemployment rate by sex, age, education level, and geographical location- the extent of details needed to assess the nature of unemployment – though not very useful in developing countries' context.**
- **Underemployment by sex, age, education level, and geographical location- this is an issue for women in terms of its implications on their economic status/income, and the measurement.**

4. Engendering statistics on the world of work: Issues raised

- Hours of work for M/F (including time use?)
- Wages for M/F by occupation and geographical location
- Occupational segregation (both vertical and horizontal) by sex

4. Engendering statistics on the world of work: Issues raised

Qualitative aspects of measuring work:

- Nature of employment contract
- Incidence of child labour
- Distance to work
- Place of work – Home Work
- Workforce's affiliation to various organization, such as workers' or employers' organizations, etc.

4. Engendering statistics on the world of work: Issues raised

- **Provision of maternity leave and protection**
- **Existence of conveniently located child care facilities**
- **Existence of collective bargaining agreement/workplace policies particularly including gender equality concerns**

4. Engendering statistics on the world of work: Issues raised

Collection and Analyses of Data

- **Gender biases in collection of data – do they exist? What is the current method? What about the formulation of questions in the survey instrument?**
- **Analyses/interpretation of the sex-disaggregated data from a gender perspective - is it done? Need for more detailed analyses?**

4. Engendering statistics on the world of work: Issues raised

- **How can we ensure that the data are appropriately used by policy-makers and development planners, to make policies and programmes more gender responsive?**
- **Any other issues to be raised?**

Appendix 3: Labour market concepts

Labour market concepts

Questions for discussion

- Is the standard definition useful for Bangladesh?
- Do the LFS & HIES questions measure the concept well?
- How can analysis & reporting of the concept be improved?

Employment & economic activity

- ***Economically active*** = all persons who furnish supply of labour for production of economic goods & services as defined by the System of National Accounts (SNA) during specified period…
- ***Employed*** = all persons above specified age who during specified period produced economic goods & services for at least an hour
- ***SNA production boundary*** includes own-account production of goods retained by their producers for own final consumption

Unemployment

Unemployed = all people above specified age who:

- were without work
- currently available for work
- seeking work.

- Seeking work condition can be relaxed if national circumstances require this.

Informal sector & economy

Informal sector = enterprises

- where not separate accounts for ‘business’ and ‘household’
- with less than X employees / which not nationally registered / where employees not registered

Informal economy = individuals

- Own account workers & employers with own informal sector enterprises
- Contributing (unpaid) family workers
- Employees with informal jobs in formal or informal sector
- Members of informal producers’ cooperatives
- In own account production of goods for own final use

Occupation and skill

- ***Occupation*** classifies persons through their relation with jobs
- ***Jobs*** are classified with respect to type of work performed
- Main criteria are ***skill level*** and ***specialisation*** required to carry out the job
- ***Formal education*** = crude proxy of skill
- ***Occupation*** describes characteristics of jobs
- Level of ***formal education*** describes characteristic of specific worker

Status in employment

- Categories reflect:
  - different forms of economic risk attached to work situation
  - type of authority which worker has over situation
- Two major categories:
  - paid employees
  - self-employment
- Second category includes employers, own-account workers, contributing (unpaid) family workers, members of producers' co-operatives

Poverty

- Individual vs household measure
- Individual: Decent work indicator
  - $2 per day for full-time worker
  - U$0.65 = 42.5 taka per hour
- Household: World Bank & Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies:
  - Per capita household income or expenditure
  - Divided by total household members, including both earners and non-earners
  - Different cut-off points for WB & BIDS

Income from employment

- All earnings
  - whether employee or self-employed
  - whether regular or irregular earnings
- includes social security benefits
- includes all kinds of other cash, kind, services, current or deferred benefits

Household head

What is the definition?

- Main breadwinner?
- Oldest male in the household?
- Oldest person in the household?
- Main decision-maker?
- Perception?

Life cycle

- ***Life cycle*** = changes that happen to us as we go through life.
- Linked to:
  - Marital status
  - Having children
  - Age of children

Working time

- ICLS has only defined this clearly for employees
  - Includes short breaks, e.g. for tea/coffee
  - Excludes time on meal breaks
- How to apply to informal work settings?
- How to deal with ‘interlaced’ and simultaneous activities?

Seasonality

- ***Current activity*** = what person did during reference period e.g. 7 days
  - employment takes priority over unemployment, which takes priority over non-economic activity
- ***Usual activity*** = main activity over longer period e.g. one year
  - Activity the person spent most time on

Place of work

- No standard classification
- Inside vs. outside?
- Home (own or other person's) vs. other?
- Mobile vs. stationary?

Appendix 4: An introduction to time use surveys

An introduction to time use surveys

Defining *Work* & *Production*

The third-person rule:

- Any activity which you can (theoretically) hire another person to do for you is ‘production’ or ‘work’:
  - Eating, sleeping and learning *are not* work
  - Caring for children and housework *are* work

Defining Unpaid Care Work

Examples:
- Housework
- Cooking, and caring for children, old people & sick people
- Assisting people from other households
- Assisting the community more generally

What the three words mean:
- *"Unpaid":* Person received no wage
- *"Care":* Serves people and their well-being
- *"Work":* Has time and energy cost. Arises from social or contractual obligation

The link between low-paid work & unpaid care work

- Women's primary functions seen as reproductive & domestic
  - less education, training, land, productive assets & time for (paid) productive work.
- Men seen as main breadwinners; women's earnings seen as an 'extra'.
- Occupations and sectors dominated by women have lower earnings.

First point is related to unpaid care work.

Uncounted & undercounted, unpaid & underpaid

Women have challenged conventional views [of economics] and proposed new visions of economic life in which women's activities *count*, in several senses: *counted* in statistics, *accounted* for in representations of how economies work and taken into *account* when policy is made. (Diane Elson)

Conventional views lead to 'one-eyed decision making', based on incomplete data.

Standard economic statistics

- National accounts = statistical system for calculation of gross domestic product (GDP)
- GDP = key economic measure used for all sorts of decisions, including decisions on debt and investment
- System of national accounts (SNA) = rules about how GDP must be calculated
- Latest revision of SNA rules in 1993

The rules of the 1993 SNA

'Production boundary' includes:

- production of all individual or collective goods or services that are supplied to units other than their producers…;
- the own-account production of all goods that are retained by their producers for their own final consumption or gross capital formation;
- the own-account production of housing services by owner-occupiers and of domestic and personal services produced by employing paid domestic staff.

1st item covers production for the market

2nd item covers subsistence production

3rd item covers housing and domestic work.

Why 1993 SNA excludes unpaid care work

- It "would distort the usefulness of the accounts for policy purposes and for the analysis of markets and market disequilibria – the analysis of inflation, unemployment, etc." *[Not true!]*
- Household production "is relatively isolated from, and independent of, market activities" *[Not true!]*
- Necessary data not available, difficult to measure, comparisons of GDP over time difficult. *[Not true if have time use survey!]*
- THEREFORE recommends parallel unpaid labour accounts

Statistics on unpaid care work

- No obvious money measure, because it is unpaid
- No obvious measure of what is produced, because produces intangible services
- Therefore use time use surveys to find out:
  - whether people did any unpaid care work; and
  - how much unpaid care work they did.

Time use methods

Observation
- Anthropologists more than statisticians

Stylised questions
- e.g. *Yesterday, how much time did you spend preparing meals?*

Activity log
- Person asked to note each time they do a particular activity.

Time diary
- No list of activities. Respondent describes activities in own words from beginning to end of day.
  - “Yesterday” vs. “tomorrow” diaries

Why bother to value unpaid care work

Canadian respondent to time use survey:

- *"What business is it of the government as to how I spend my time?"*

- Unpaid care work is a "public good" that has "externalities" = "third-party effects". For example:
  - – positive externalities for employers (better workers) and government (has to provide less social services)
  - – negative externalities for society as a whole (over-burdened carers cannot contribute fully in other ways

The following slide is an extract from a time use diary of a woman who lives in an informal settlement in South Africa and who earns money by selling fruit and vegetables

Period	Description of activities	Code
	1 to 3 activities per time period	
09h00	Prepared food for lunch & put on stove to cook	410
to	Listened to the radio	930
09h30		
09h30	Cleaned the house	420
to	Listened to the radio	930
10h00		
10h00	Cleaned the house	420
to	Listened to the radio	920
10h30		
10h30	Set up stall to sell fruit and vegetables	350
to	Sat and waited for customers	350
11h00		

Appendix 5: Instructions for time use role-play

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
The BBS is keen to conduct a time use survey because it wants to gain experience and recognition for conducting the first national survey in the country. However, the BBS is also worried about whether it has the time and capacity to conduct the survey. It already has many other surveys on its work plan. It also does not have experience in running time use surveys.

Women's organizations
Women's organizations want the time use survey to be conducted to show the gender inequalities in how women and men spend their time as they feel that these differences underlie many of the other gender patterns in the society.

Civil society organizations working on child labour
These organizations want the time use survey because they think that it will help show where and how children are working, both in household-related work and other types of work. But they want the time use survey to cover all children from five years and above, not only from ten years.

Ministries of Finance and Planning
These ministries have the power to approve or disapprove funding for a time use survey. They feel that unpaid care work is not important because it is not counted in GDP.

World Bank
The World Bank wants to support a time use survey because it wants to show that it cares about gender issues. However, it is worried that the time use survey may affect the quality of other BBS surveys, on poverty and labour, which it thinks are even more important.

Government line ministries
The line ministries have mixed opinions on the time use survey. Some of them, such as the ministries responsible for electricity and water, feel that the time use survey will help to show the importance of the services they are responsible for, and so get them bigger budgets. Other ministries think that there are other surveys that are more important for the country, in particular women's machinery ministry, for example.

Employer's organizations
The employers' organizations think that undertaking a time use survey is not a high priority for them. They are more concerned with statistics on possible differences between women and men in respect of hours of paid work and labour productivity.

Workers' organizations

Workers organizations are interested in the time use survey, as they feel it can demonstrate how women and men actually share their time for undertaking all types of work, including unpaid care work (the unpaid care work undertaken to take care of sick, children and the old, etc.) They argue that balancing work and family also means balancing paid and unpaid work, in terms of hours worked by women and men.

Donors

The donors have mixed opinions on the time use survey. Some of them, such as SIDA, NORAD and CIDA, come from countries that have regular time use surveys and think that they are important. Others, such as DFID and USAID, have had time use surveys in their own countries but do not conduct them on a regular basis. They think that measuring 'real' (paid) work is more important.

International Labour Organization

The ILO has mixed feelings about a time use survey. On the one hand, it is worried that if a time use survey is added on to the labour force survey, it may affect the quality of the rest of the labour force survey. On the other hand, it feels that the time use survey will help to capture some types of SNA work that are not currently being captured properly by the labour force survey, in particular, the work undertaken in the informal economy at the household level.

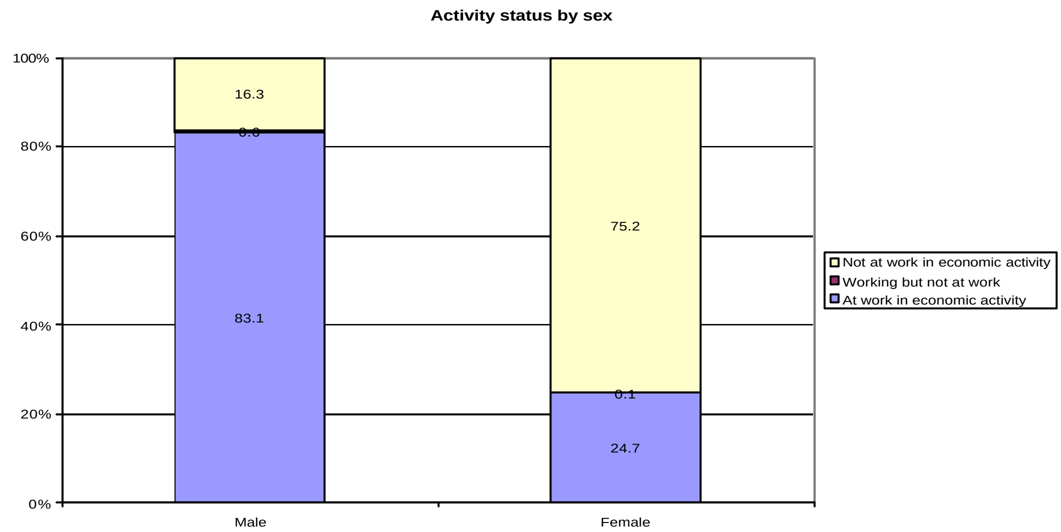
Appendix 6: Tips for tables and graphs

Tips for tables & graphs

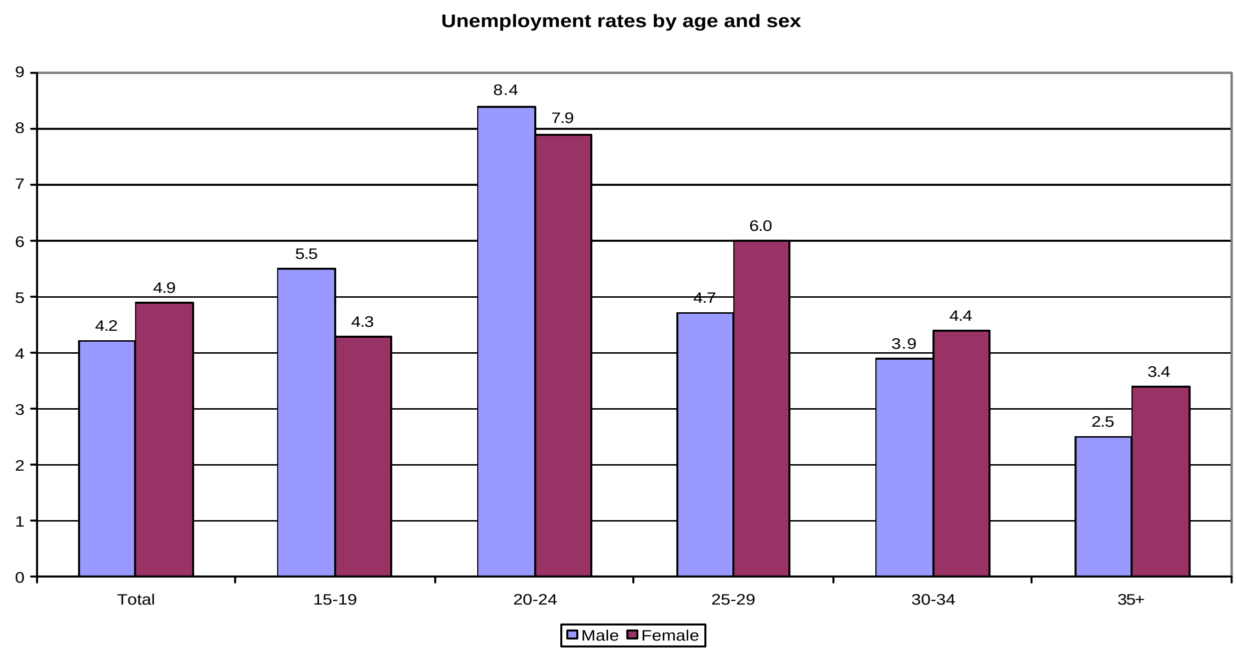
- Round large exact numbers to nearest 1,000
- Round percentages to integers
- Omit ‘total’ or ‘both sexes’ bar or column in graphs
- Avoid decorations e.g. 3-dimensional, pointy bars, etc
- Start y-axis at zero for quantitative variables
- Avoid pie charts when comparing % distributions for several groups
- Use boxplots to show median & dispersion for variables with large range
- Show numbers on graphs (Hedman disagrees!)
  - *Adapted from Hedman et al (1996: 88f)*

Appendix 7: Examples of graphs

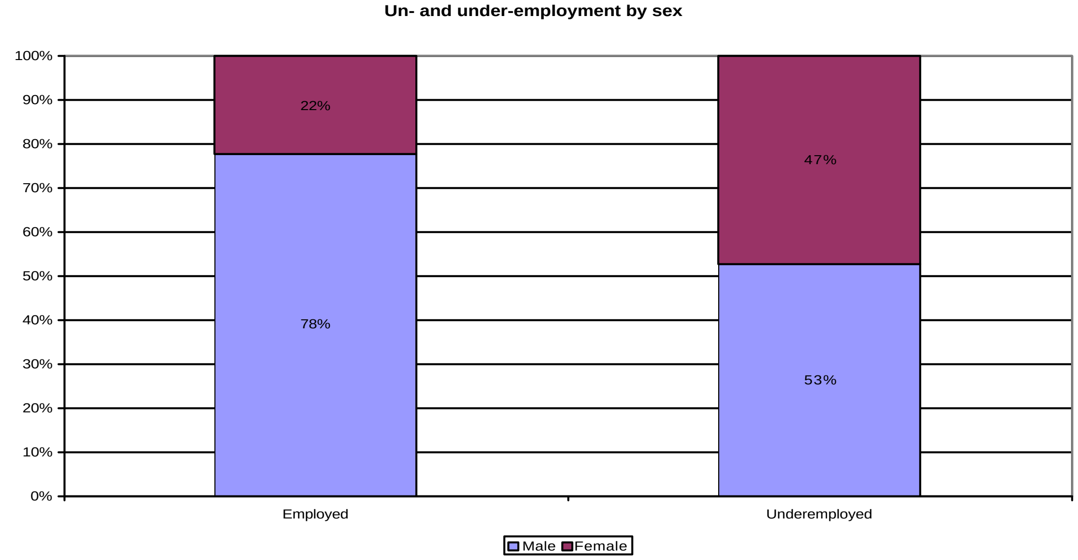
The first graph is based on table 2, which records activity status. The graph shows clearly that women are more likely than men not to be employed. The categories used in the original table are non-standard, in that it would be more usual to use the categories employed, unemployed, and not economically active.



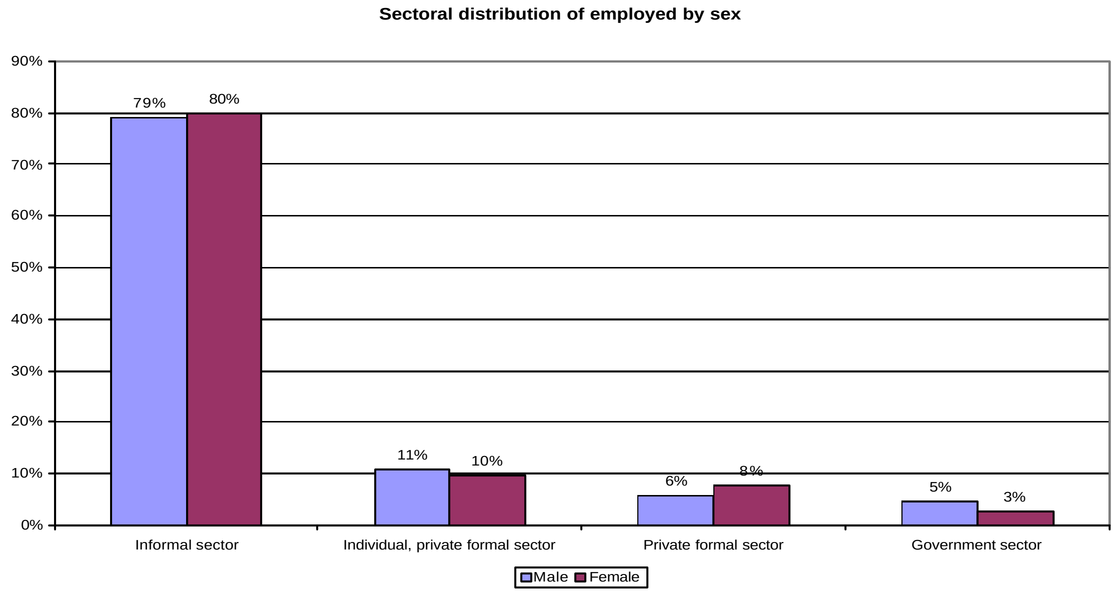
The next graph is based on table 4 and shows unemployment rates by age group. The relationship between the male and female rates differs by age group. In the prime child-bearing age of 15-24 years the female rate is lower than the male rate. This probably reflects the fact that many women of this age withdraw from the labour force. In other age groups the female rate exceeds the male rate, suggesting fewer opportunities are available for women.



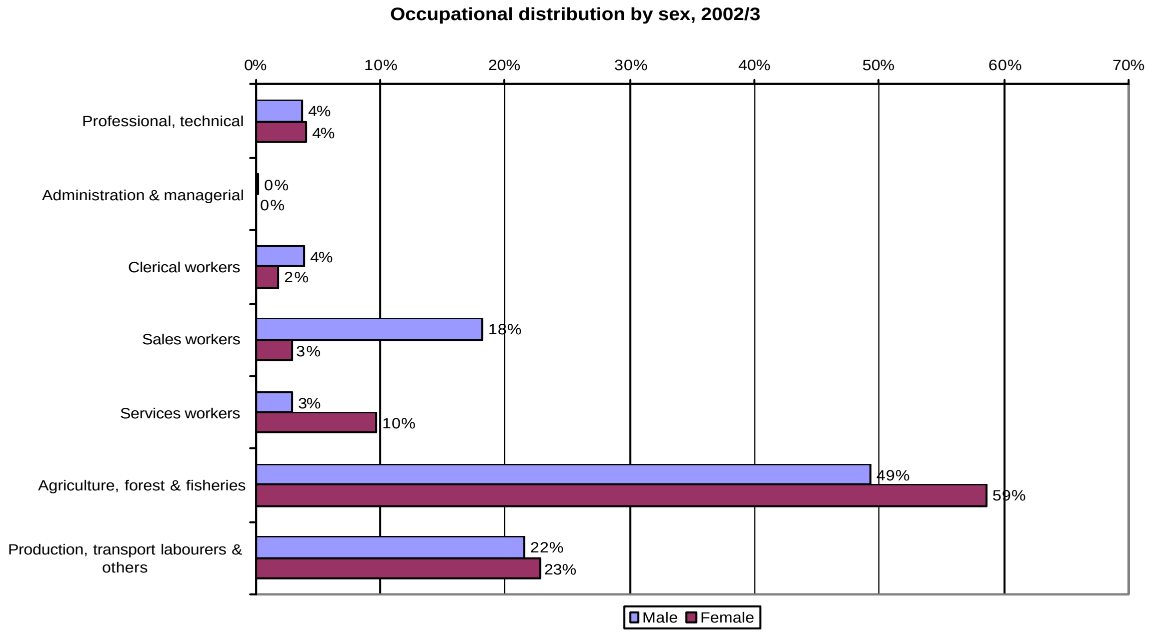
The next graph is based on table 5, which reflects employment and under-employment figures and the under-employment rate. Anyone working less than 35 hours per week is considered as under-employed. The graph shows that while men significantly outnumber women among the employed, there are more or less equal numbers of under-employed women and men.



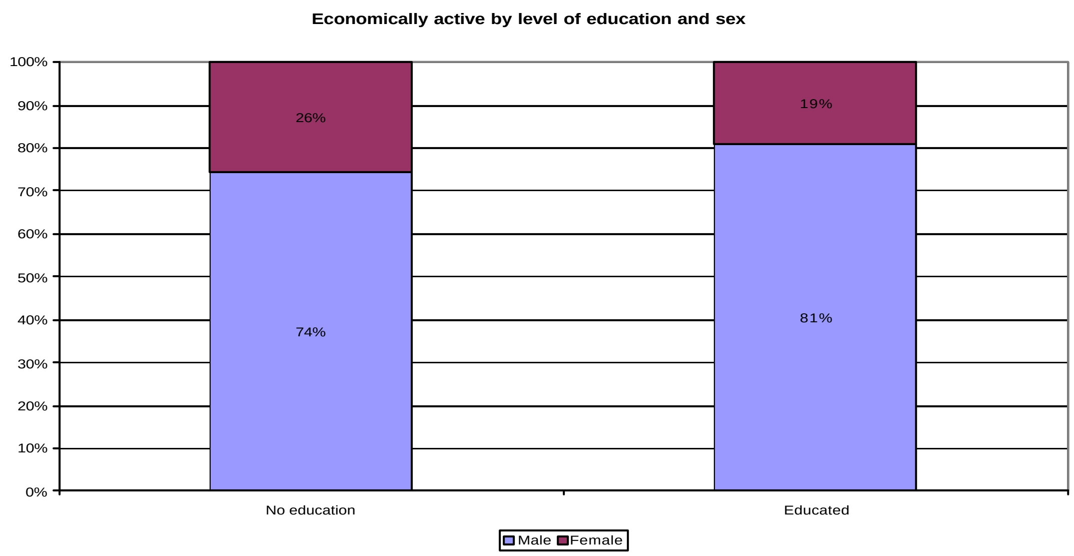
The next graph is based on table 6 and reflects the sectors in which the employed work. The graph shows fairly similar distributions for women and men. For both, about four-fifths are employed in the informal sector. The small relative difference in favour of men in respect of the government sector would be much greater if the absolute numbers employed by government were compared. The categories used for the different sectors are non-standard in terms of international practice.



The next graph is based on table 7 and reflects the occupational distribution. Here there are marked differences between women and men. Women are comparatively more likely than men to be working in agriculture and in services. Men are comparatively more likely to be working as sales and clerical workers. Men also have a more even distribution than women across the different occupational categories.

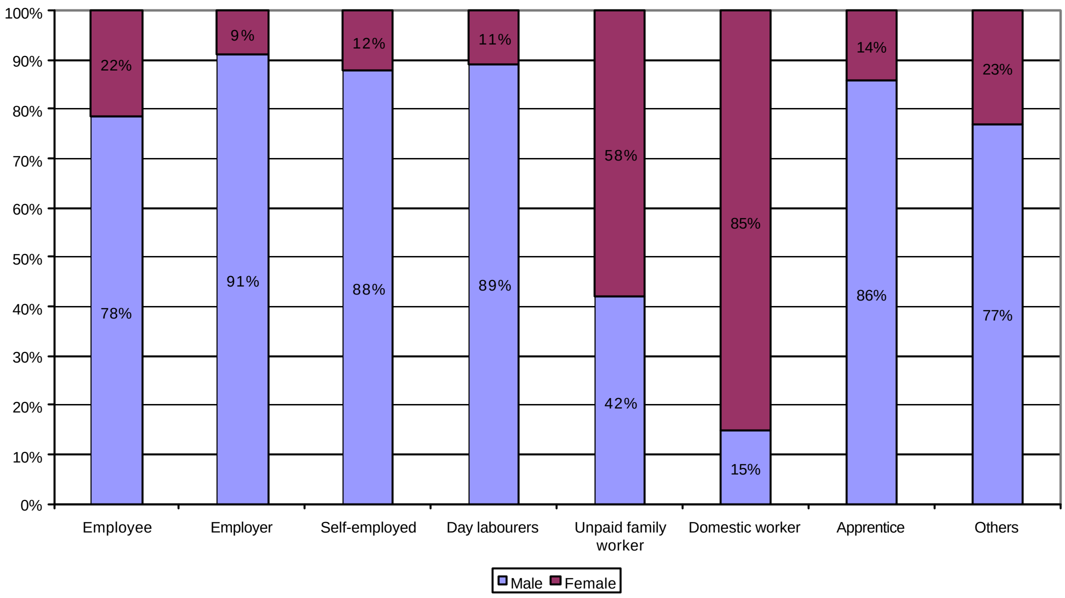


The next graph is based on table 10 and reflects the different sex breakdown of economically active with and without education. Among those with no education, 26% are female, while the comparable percentage among the educated is 19%. These patterns are probably less stark than they would be for the working age population as a whole.



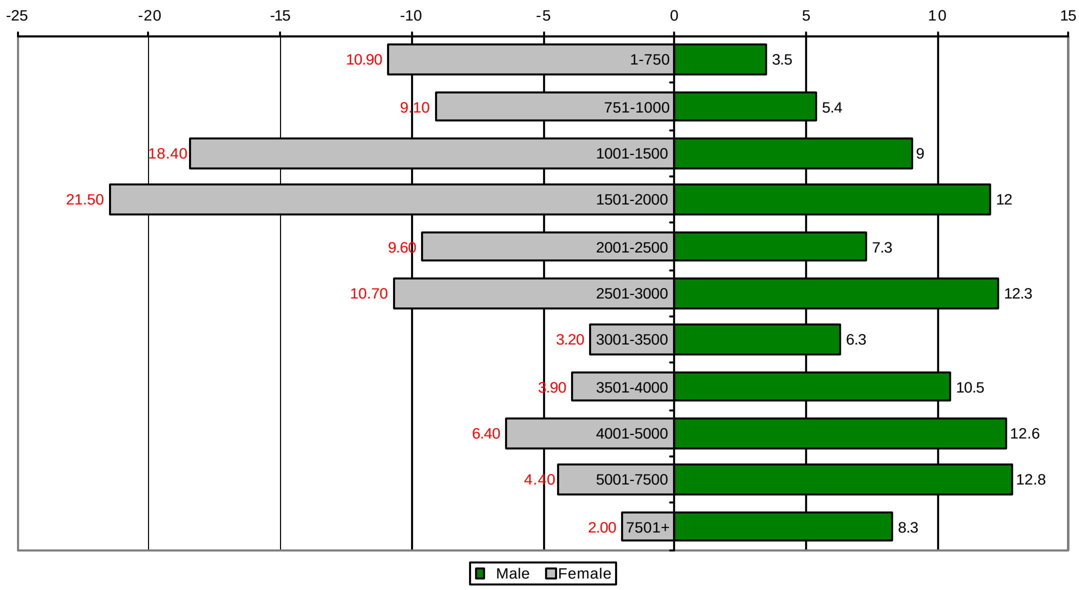
The next graph is based on table 11, which reflects status in employment. The most female-dominated category is domestic workers. In contrast, the categories of employer, day labourer, and self-employed are heavily male-dominated.

Sex distribution of status in employment



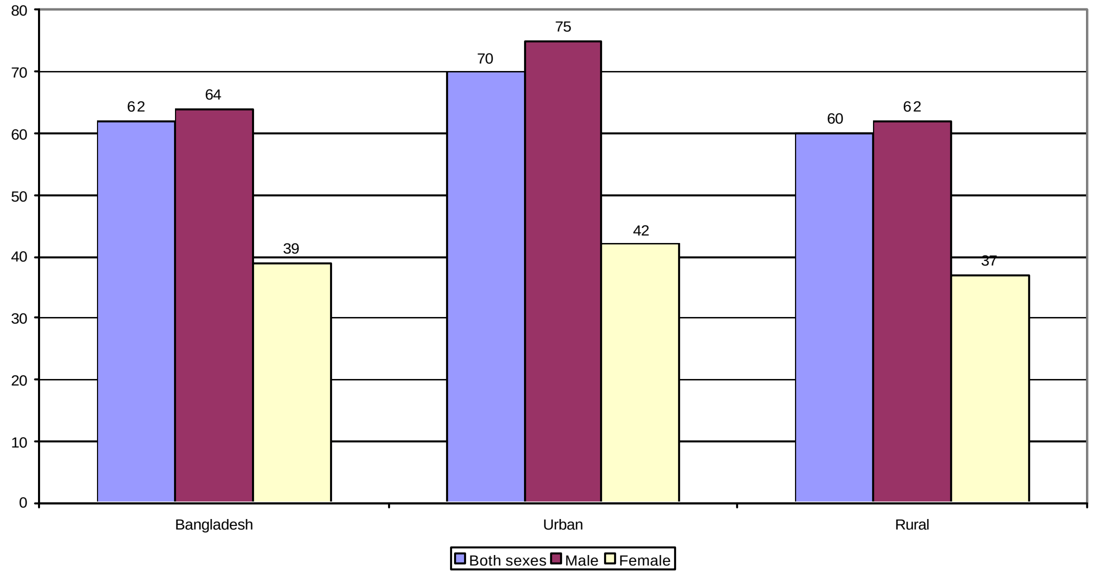
The next graph is based on table 12 and reflects the distribution of employees by monthly income. About 60% of female employees earn Taka 2,000 or less per month, while this is the situation for less than 30% of male employees.

Percentage distribution of employees by monthly income & sex



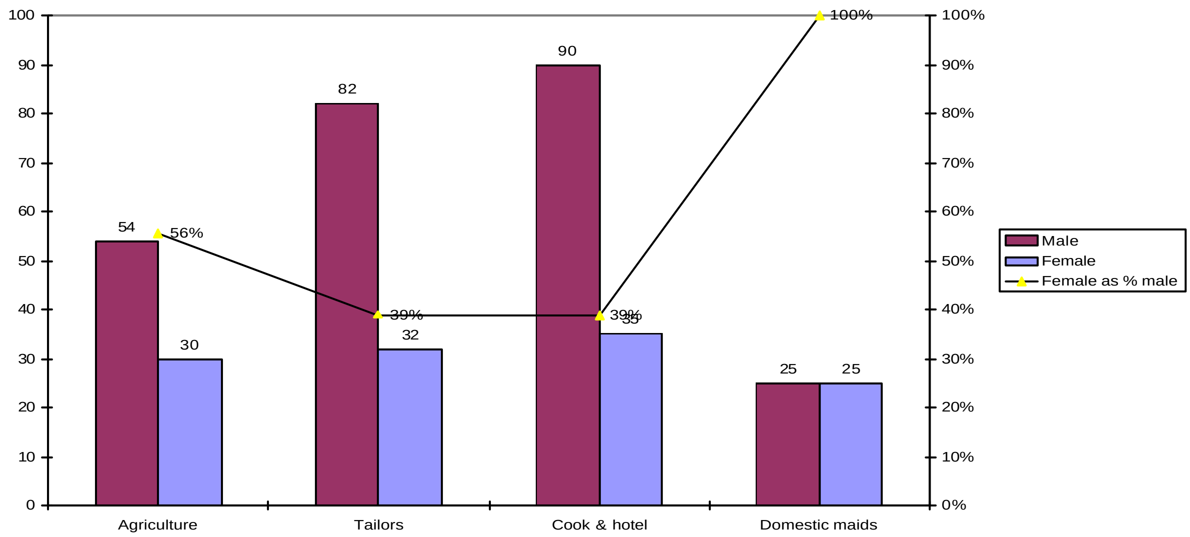
The next graph is based on table 13, and reflects average wage rates of day labourers recorded in the HIES. Wage rates for women are noticeably lower than those for men in both urban and rural areas. The relative gender gap is large in urban than in rural areas.

Average wage rate of day labourers

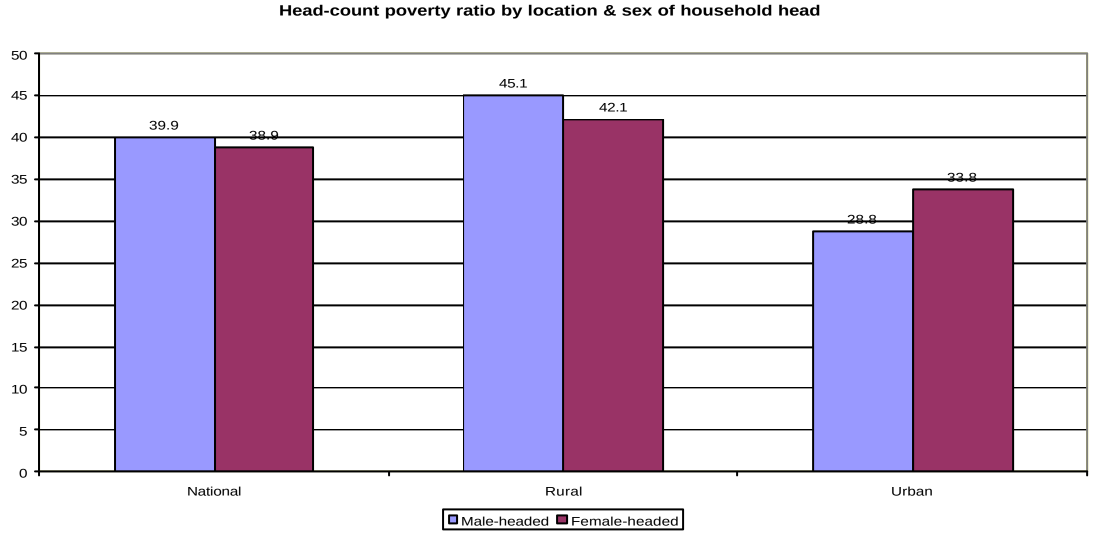


The next graph is based on table 14 and shows average daily wage rates for selected categories of day labourers, as well as the percentage that female wages constitute of male wages. Men's rates are noticeably higher than those of women in three of the four categories. While male and female rates are similar for domestic maids, the absolute level of the wages for this category is very low. In addition, there are probably relatively few men in this category.

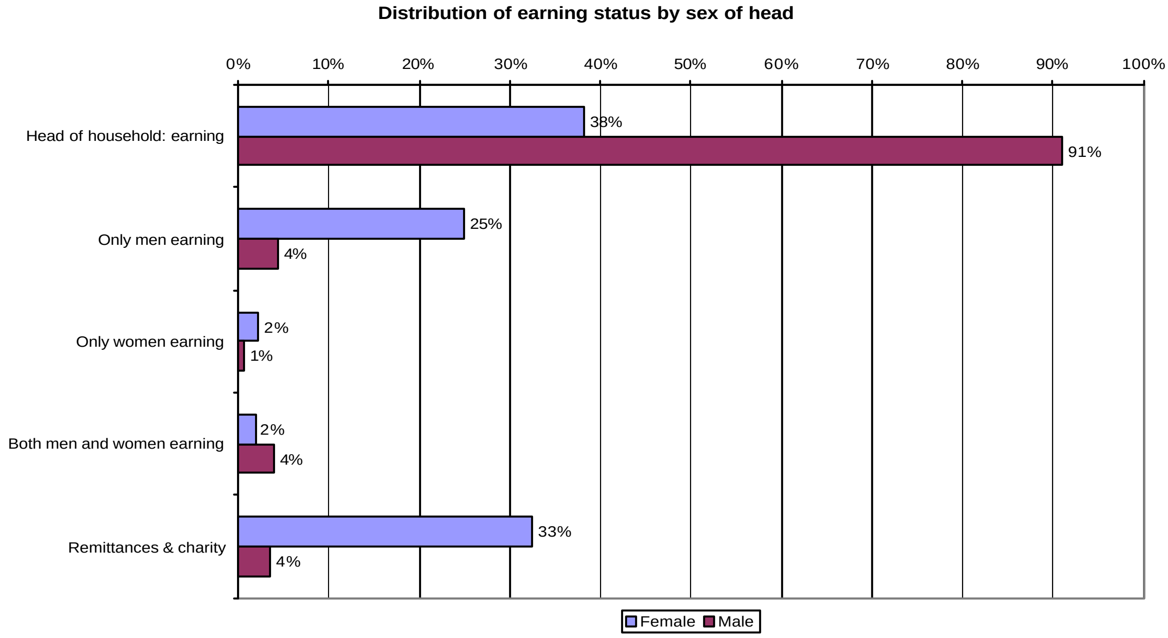
Daily wage of day labourers by sex



The next graph is based on table 15. It shows the head-count poverty ratio for male- and female-headed households in different locations. At the national level the ratios are very similar for male- and female-headed households. In rural areas the poverty rate is higher in male- than female-headed households while the reverse is true in urban areas. This pattern could reflect the fact that female-headed households in rural areas are more likely to receive remittances from non-residents.



The final graphs is based on table 16, which shows the earning status of the head and other members of the household where the head is not earning. Among male-headed households, 91% have a head who is earning, while this is the situation for only 38% of female headed households. A quarter of female-headed households are dependent on male earnings, while a further third are dependent on remittances and charity.



Appendix 8: Sample valuation form

Training on Measuring Gender Dimensions of the World of Work
Evaluation form

Your name (optional)

1) Gender concepts

How useful was this session for you?

Very useful	Useful	Undecided	Not very useful	Not useful at all

How new was this topic for you?

Completely new	Fairly new	Undecided	Already knew most of it	Knew all of it before

How well do you understand the topic after this session?

Very well	Well	Undecided	Not well	Very little

Please add any other comments you have on the session

2) Labour market concepts

How useful was this session for you?

Very useful	Useful	Undecided	Not very useful	Not useful at all

How new was this topic for you?

Completely new	Fairly new	Undecided	Already knew most of it	Knew all of it before

How well do you understand the topic after this session?

Very well	Well	Undecided	Not well	Very little

Please add any other comments you have on the session

3) Political will

How useful was this session for you?

Very useful	Useful	Undecided	Not very useful	Not useful at all

How new was this topic for you?

Completely new	Fairly new	Undecided	Already knew most of it	Knew all of it before

How well do you understand the topic after this session?

Very well	Well	Undecided	Not well	Very little

Please add any other comments you have on the session

4) Time use survey

How useful was this session for you?

Very useful	Useful	Undecided	Not very useful	Not useful at all

How new was this topic for you?

Completely new	Fairly new	Undecided	Already knew most of it	Knew all of it before

How well do you understand the topic after this session?

Very well	Well	Undecided	Not well	Very little

Please add any other comments you have on the session

5) Causes, consequences, solutions

How useful was this session for you?

Very useful	Useful	Undecided	Not very useful	Not useful at all

How new was this topic for you?

Completely new	Fairly new	Undecided	Already knew most of it	Knew all of it before

How well do you understand the topic after this session?

Very well	Well	Undecided	Not well	Very little

Please add any other comments you have on the session

6) Tables and graphs

How useful was this session for you?

Very useful	Useful	Undecided	Not very useful	Not useful at all

How new was this topic for you?

Completely new	Fairly new	Undecided	Already knew most of it	Knew all of it before

How well do you understand the topic after this session?

Very well	Well	Undecided	Not well	Very little

Please add any other comments you have on the session

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND FEEDBACK