Compiling Social Indicators
on the Situation of Women

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The present publication is one of two new United Nations reports concerned with the development of statistics and indicators on the situation of women.1/ These studies have been prepared in response to recommendations of the World Conference of the International Women's Year, the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, the Economic and Social Council and its functional commissions concerned with statistics and with the status of women and the Board of Trustees of the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women. 2/ The present studies follow up and elaborate on an earlier working paper issued by the United Nations Secretariat, which provides an overview of sex biases in statistics and is entitled "Sex-based stereotypes, sex biases and national data systems" (ST/ESA/STAT/99).

Even though the two reports, Compiling Social Indicators on the Situation of Women and Improving Concepts and Methods for Statistics and Indicators on the Situation of Women, cover largely the same subject-matter, each study has clearly distinct purposes. Compiling Social Indicators is concerned with immediate applications. It is user oriented and is concerned primarily with the effective utilization of statistics currently available in many countries. It is not primarily concerned with the development of new data collection programmes but rather with developing reliable indicators on the situation of women from existing censuses, household surveys and registration systems to the extent such data systems exist in any given country. Compiling Social Indicators should also be useful to countries interested in improving their existing data collection systems to generate additional basic indicators on the situation of women using concepts and methods in current use.

Compiling Social Indicators also recognizes the hazards of working uncritically with many data series currently available. Thus, it provides some discussion and evaluation of the underlying methods and concepts of existing sources so that they may be meaningfully interpreted and effectively exploited in terms of users' immediate priorities. It is hoped that an improved understanding will lead to better indicators and to their more effective use. Toward these ends, Compiling Social Indicators also endeavours to provide some orientation on the complementary roles of censuses, sample surveys and registration and record systems, as well as on their advantages and disadvantages. It presents illustrative indicators from all three sources but focuses on those which may be developed from data systems which already exist in many countries.

Improving Concepts and Methods has two quite different objectives. The first is to critically review the concepts and methods most widely used in ongoing general data collection programmes from the point of view of their suitability for collecting adequate, meaningful, relevant and unbiased statistics on the situation of women. The second objective is linked to the first. It is to consider possible changes in existing recommendations and practices concerning statistical concepts and methods. It is recognized that there is wide variation in the length of time required for new concepts and methods to be developed, tested and implemented on a wide scale. Some may

require only relatively minor modifications to existing data collection programmes. Others may involve extensive review of complex classifications and have widespread and costly ramifications for many important data collection and analysis activities. In such cases the process of research and then adoption at national and international levels may require some years, followed by an additional lengthy period during which the changes are implemented and the results compiled. Thus, each section of Improving Concepts and Methods is designed to outline an informal agenda for research and possible new recommendations over the next ten years or so. In some cases, the possibility of developing new international recommendations for universal use in the present state of knowledge seems a fairly distant goal and so the emphasis is more on required research. In others, completed research already points the way to more formal consideration and widespread adoption of new concepts and methods, so technical issues to be considered in the process in the next few years are treated in more detail.

Both documents focus on indicators relevant to major social and economic issues and women's role in development. They emphasize the fundamental importance of distributive justice and of economic, social and political autonomy for women in both developed and developing countries. The topics discussed in them are not exhaustive but were selected on the basis of previous work of the United Nations on social indicators and levels of living, priorities established by the two World Conferences, the availability of data and research on which to draw, the recommendations of the Expert Group on Improving Statistics and Indicators on the Situation of Women, held in New York from 11 to 15 April 1983, and consultations with the United Nations regional commissions and interested specialized agencies.

These two reports have been prepared as part of a joint project of the Statistical Office of the United Nations Secretariat and the United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW), located in Santo Domingo, to improve the availability and promote the use of statistics and indicators concerning women. The present report was drafted by Mary G. Powers as consultant to the United Nations. Both reports in this joint project were discussed in draft form by the Expert Group at its April 1983 meeting. Both reports have been revised to take into account the recommendations of the experts, as well as those of the United Nations regional commissions, the interested specialized agencies and other national and international specialists.3/

Further information on the work of the United Nations in this field may be obtained by writing to the Director of the Statistical Office of the United Nations, New York, or the Director of the United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women, Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic.

Notes

1/   The second is <u>Improving Concepts and Methods for Statistics and Indicators on the Situation of Women</u>, Studies in Methods, Series F, No. 33 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.84.XVII.3).

2/   See <u>Report of the World Conference of the International Women's Year, Mexico City, 19 June - 2 July 1975</u> (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.76-IV.1), chap. II, sect. A, paras. 161-173, <u>Report of the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, Copenhagen, 14 to 30 July 1980</u> (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.80.IV.3 and corrigendum), chap. I, sect. A, paras. 257-261, and Economic and Social Council resolutions 2061 (LXII) of 12 May 1977, entitled "Improvement of the data base for measuring the implementation of the World Plan of Action for the Implementation of the Objectives of the International Women's Year", and 1981/11 of 6 May 1981, entitled "Social indicators applicable to studies on women".

3/   The following experts participated in this meeting in a personal capacity: Mercedes Concepción (Philippines), Bernard Grais (France), Birgitta Hedman (Sweden), Devaki Jain (India), Carmen McFarlane (Jamaica), Margaret Mód (Hungary), Zenebework Tadesse (Senegal), Elizabeth Waldman (United States of America) and Helen Ware (Australia). The report of the expert group meeting has been issued as document ESA/STAT/AC.17/9-INSTRAW/AC.1/9.

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INTRODUCTION

1.   This report reviews concepts and data sources for indicators on the social and economic situation of women, drawing extensively on previous work on socio-economic statistics and indicators in the United Nations system. 1/ It aims to provide concrete guidance to producers and users of statistics on women with illustrations and examples of the selection, specification and use of indicators in several areas of particular concern to women. These illustrations and examples are designed to foster a constructive dialogue between producers and users of statistics in order that statistics and indicators relevant to the situation of women may be generated as quickly as possible by countries wishing to do so. All the indicators discussed here are based on data normally obtained in standard data collection systems using current concepts, definitions and classifications. Clearly, new conceptual developments are also needed, but that is not a major focus of this document. These are reviewed in a companion publication entitled Improving Concepts and Methods for Statistics and Indicators on Women, which is described in the preface, above.

2.   The report is divided into two parts. The first reviews basic objectives, methods and sources for social indicators on the situation of women. It considers demand for and uses of socio-economic indicators, special issues concerning statistics and indicators on the situation of women and sources and limitations of basic data. The second part presents and discusses illustrative indicators on the situation of women in the fields of family formation, families and households; learning and educational services, economic activity and labour-force participation; health, health services and nutrition; income and income distribution; rural/urban residence and migration; and legal and political power. Suggestions for selecting and defining indicators in each of these fields are provided and some examples using actual data from developed and developing countries presented. Annexes provide additional information on illustrative series for selecting indicators in different types of countries, on international publications and on the International Standard Classification of Occupations, which is widely used in compiling labour-force statistics.

PART ONE

OBJECTIVES, METHODS AND SOURCES FOR INDICATORS
ON THE SITUATION OF WOMEN

I. BASIC CONCEPTS, METHODS AND USES FOR SOCIAL INDICATORS ON THE SITUATION OF WOMEN

1.   This chapter provides an introduction to the concept of social indicators and background for the development of such indicators. It includes a discussion of the demand for indicators as well as a discussion of methodological and conceptual issues identified in responding to the demand for new indicators. This review of concepts for the definition and selection of social indicators occurs in the context of ongoing work of the United Nations on the integration of social and demographic and related economic and other statistics. 2/ The selection and development of social indicators and the development and integration of basic statistics are seen as continuous, evolving and complementary processes.

2.   The application of this approach to the definition and development of social indicators on the situation of women is examined below. 3/ The objective is to provide a flexible outline for the formulation and selection of measures pertaining to the situation of women which may be continuously refined and updated as new statistical and conceptual developments occur. The concepts, classifications and indicators discussed and illustrated here will permit individual countries to select and adapt those which are most in line with their particular needs, priorities and social circumstances.

A. Demand for and uses of socio-economic indicators

3.   Interest in the development of social indicators has occurred as a result of efforts to examine the effects of economic growth on various populations and sub-populations, including women. In particular, interest has resulted from attempts to monitor the impact on women of various policies and programmes, particularly development programmes, and to measure the effectiveness of social services. Taken together, these interests have created an increased demand for social and demographic statistics, on the one hand, and for easy-to-understand indicators which may be developed from these statistics, on the other.

4.   A related area of interest in social indicators comes from their potential usefulness in identifying social problems and/or disparities among such sub-populations as women, children, the aged, low-income households, ethnic minorities and the like. Many countries are developing indicators to examine baseline conditions and changes in the conditions of such sub-populations. Since the late 1960s, many national and international agencies have been involved in the development of social indicators for these and similar purposes. 4/

5.   Although there have been a variety of concepts and approaches to the development of social indicators, nearly all of them attempt to reveal succinctly the reality behind a large body of statistics. Indicators are generally designed to be relatively easily interpreted measures of disparities and inequalities which may be used to diagnose the reasons for differences among sub-populations and to monitor changes in these situations. Interest in the development of indicators on the situation of women has arisen in this context.

B. Considerations related to indicators on women

Reliable statistics have been and are a requisite for the development of
st national and international policies and programmes and for their
luation. As the situation of women became a focus of national and
ernational concern and a variety of proposals, programmes and policies were
anced which were designed to improve their situation, the call for reliable
tistics was again heard. It appears in the World Plan of Action for the
lementation of the Objectives for the International Women's Year and in the
gramme of Action for the Second Half of the United Nations Decade for
en. In particular, the Plan of Action, adopted in 1975, "gives high
ority to...data collection and analysis on all aspects of the situation of
en, since adequate data and information are essential in formulating
icies and evaluating progress and in effecting basic attitudinal and
nomic change". 5/ In addition, in paragraph 170 the Plan requests the
ted Nations to prepare an inventory of social and economic indicators for
analysis of the status of women. The Programme of Action recommends
ther that "All data collecting agencies should give a sex and age breakdown
any information they gather, wherever relevant [and that a] set of
tistical indicators should be established by which progress towards
ality between the sexes can be monitored". 6/ More recently, the United
ions International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of
en (INSTRAW) has adopted the long-term objective of improving the
ilability and promoting the use, at national and international levels, of
icators and the related basic statistics concerning women. 7/

Various countries and the United Nations regional commissions, in
paring their plans of action to implement the objectives of the
ernational Women's Year, took note of the request to give priority to data
lection and the development of statistics which would focus on all aspects
the situation of women. At the same time, it was noted that in spite of
large amount of demographic, social and economic data in each region,
ial indicators which would examine, explain and compare the status of women
e not available. 8/ Thus, the regional commissions and various of the
cialized agencies of the United Nations system are responding to the
uest in the Programme of Action to assist countries in establishing social
cators and to strengthen their data collection systems, and several
orts are under way which are pertinent to the development of statistics
erning women. 9/ The major problems faced by individual nations include
lack of basic data needed for simple indicators and difficulties
ociated with trying to develop new data which would more adequately measure
situation of women.

The present report is part of the general effort by the United Nations
evelop such indicators. It focuses primarily on data which are already
ected to a greater or lesser extent in the statistical systems of most
tries, using existing concepts and methods. It recognizes that new
epts, methods and data resources also need to be developed; but the main
st of the present study is to assist in the specification and compilation
ndicators which will reveal the reality of the situation of women, using
c statistics already available in each country.

1. Existing situation: data and data gaps

9.   A review of the available statistics is more meaningful if it is undertaken with some knowledge of the kind of indicators which are needed to accurately describe the situation of women in various nations around the globe. In view of the major goals of the International Women's Year and the United Nations Decade for Women, which focus broadly on equality, development and peace and more specifically on equality between the sexes, social and economic statistics are of major importance. Those statistics, which enable one to examine and monitor disparities in human rights, and access to societal resources are of importance, as are statistics which shed light on the factors underlying such disparities. Conventional statistics frequently fail to describe differentials in the socio-economic situation of men and women or to indicate the extent of poverty and/or inequality in a society. This may be remedied to some extent by additional disaggregation of existing data and by the specification and compilation of new social indicators from existing data.

10.   In developing countries, where the impact of changes brought about by development are differentially felt by various subgroups of the population, notably women, indicators describing the situation of women should aim to capture both women's contributions to development and the impact of development programmes on women. 10/ In particular, the indicators should reflect the real productive roles of women in the economy and the significance of those roles, as well as changing family situations and changing economic responsibilities that women are undertaking.

11.   Women's participation in the economy is frequently under-reported in the usual statistical systems because of their involvement in the informal sector and because of their status as unpaid family workers. Recent household surveys carried out in a number of South American cities indicate that the labour-force participation rates of women are considerably higher than the corresponding rates reported in the national censuses. 11/ The discrepancy has been explained by women's predominant involvement in the informal sector of the economy. Most conventional statistical systems suggest that women's work roles are at best supplementary to family income when, in fact, many women are not only heads of households but have full responsibility for their own and their children's survival. These deficiencies will be discussed more fully in the appropriate sections below. Here, they are noted only to demonstrate why it is necessary to develop indicators which accurately reflect the real situation of women in the economy. These indicators should also differentiate among different socio-economic groups of women in the society so that it is possible to make comparisons within a society as well as cross-national comparisons. Finally, they must focus on a comparison of the situation of women relative to that of men and make it possible to measure changes over time in the situation of women, as well as in the relative situation of men and women.

2. Responses to the demand for indicators

12.   Given the above notation of some of the limitations which exist in traditional statistical reporting, it is important to note also that a large body of statistics and indicators on women reported by individual nations appears in a variety of international publications, such as the United Nations

:mographic Yearbook and Compendium of Social Statistics, the Yearbook of
bour Statistics of the International Labour Office and the _Statistical_
:arbook of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural
·ganization. Since 1970 there has been a major expansion in the statistical
:tivities and publications of individual countries, as well as of the
:atistical Office of the United Nations Secretariat, the regional
mmissions, the specialized agencies and other international organizations.
.e _Directory of International Statistics_ should be consulted for
mprehensive listings of the specific statistical series and methodological
:idelines that are available, the organizations which collect data, the
.blications in which they can be found, the frequency of the series and
.lated information.12/ Information on other international work on indicators
. the situation of women may be found in the United Nations progress report
 this subject.13/

.   Given the existing social and economic statistics, the problem becomes
.e of selecting indicators which are valid and reliable and also have broad
.plicability and wide appeal. There are different ways of selecting such
dicators. The approach adopted here is the deriviation of indicators in the
.rious areas for which there is regular reporting, that is, labour force,
.ucation and so on. Given the reasons for recent demands for indicators on
.e situation of women noted previously, this report seeks to develop
dicators which measure both the options open to women in the social and
.onomic spheres of life and the differences between men and women in areas of
.ncern to national and international bodies.

3. Compiling indicators on the situation of women

.   The illustrative indicators on the situation of women presented here
.ve been developed to assist individual countries in their own selections.
.e illustrations are not meant to be comprehensive. It is necessary to keep
.e number of indicators within a manageable limit and yet not make the
.itial effort result in such a small list that it is not usable. In
.lition, the available current data in many developing countries limit the
.ige of indicators for which bench-mark data are available. Hence, only some
. the indicators identified in this report will be appropriate for any
.ecific country.

.   In considering which indicators might be identified as principal
.licators, it is necessary to examine the key problem areas with respect to
.e situation of women. This raises substantive questions related to the
.othesis that women and men are affected differently by their social and
.onomic environments and the assumption that a major goal in most societies
. to move towards equality of the sexes with respect to social and economic
.:uations. Among these questions are the following:

    (a) What are the critical problems with respect to women's situation in
.lividual countries? What changes are most likely to occur in these areas
.:ing the overall transformation of societies (in, for example, education and
.lining, labour-force status)?

    (b) To what extent do women's needs for various services and types of
.ployment differ from men's?

(c) What is the comparative situation of women within countries by ethnic group, by socio-economic group and by urban and rural residence?

(d) In what ways does the sexual division of labour or rights and duties over the means of livelihood affect women?

16.   The answers to these questions help to determine which specific indicators are more important than others. The questions themselves suggest that indicators will be derived from statistics describing economic activities, education and literacy, marital status and households, and basic population data by sex and age. The data for such indicators already exist in many countries in censuses, surveys and vital registration or other administrative registration and record systems. These will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. A brief overview is presented here for those readers who are less familiar with the content of these data sources and with general issues which concern all data collection efforts.

17.   First and foremost, it is important to note that no single source can provide all of the data needed by different countries and by different users within those countries to describe the situation of women. There are three types of official national sources of basic data on women: censuses of population and housing, sample surveys of the population and registration and administrative data systems. Although each of these major data sources has advantages and limitations, they must be seen as complementary in order to be used most effectively. Used in concert, they provide a considerable amount of data for indicators needed for planning, administration and research.

18.   Population and housing censuses are probably the most comprehensive source of social and economic data needed for indicators in most countries. They provide universal coverage and a wide variety of data is collected to describe the size and characteristics of the population at specified intervals. Thus a broad range of possibilities exists for cross-classification of census data geographically and according to selected demographic, social and economic characteristics. Because population censuses are relatively infrequent, however, the data become outdated. Also, such large bodies of data are expensive to manipulate. None the less, for most countries, censuses provide the starting point for meeting data requirements and for experimentation in the construction of social indicators.

19.   Sample surveys of the population provide a basis for updating census information for the nation as a whole and for some broad geographical areas. They are extremely flexible data sources and provide a comprehensive source of social and economic data between censuses. Almost any subject can be explored and many countries have developed extensive survey capabilities. There are many types of household surveys and each type has advantages and disadvantages. They all sample a small part of the entire population to obtain needed and timely information on topics as diverse as unemployment and energy use. Because the information is collected from a relatively small sample, it is generally not possible to obtain detailed cross-tabulation of social and economic data by small geographical areas.

0.   Another potential data source is registration and administrative record
ystems.   These include civil registration of births, deaths, marriages and
ivorces.   Unfortunately, although these sources are of great importance to
omen, they are often limited in content and coverage.

1.   It is important to reiterate that the relationship between the three
ajor sources of data is complementary.   The relationship between population
nd housing censuses on the one hand and population surveys on the other is
ne between infrequent but geographically detailed cross-section data and more
requent but less geographically detailed data provided by sample surveys.
hey are complementary in other ways also.   The census may cover a broad range
f topics, but most are covered in only a brief fashion.   These same topics
ay be examined in much greater detail in a survey.   For example, labour-force
tatus and occupation may be covered in a census, but additional items such as
kills, hours worked, secondary occupations and the like may be covered in a
urvey.   Sample household surveys also provide a mechanism for collecting data
uickly - for example, in response to the energy crisis and for studying
oting patterns associated with civil rights or human rights legislation.
dequate survey design, in turn, is usually dependent on the detailed
opulation and housing counts, maps and other material obtained through a
ensus.

2.   In short, the three major data sources (and collection methods) must be
seen as reasonably well-defined processes with distinctive though overlapping
characteristics with respect to content, detail, accuracy and timeliness of
the data they generate.   They are complementary and no one of them alone is
the best or most adequate source of data for indicators on the situation of
women.   Some indication of the relative strengths and weaknesses of censuses,
surveys, and civil registration and administrative records in terms of seven
specified criteria is provided in table 1.   The table suggests that the
relative advantages of the three basic sources are complementary: where one
is strong, another is weak.   Attention and resources must be directed towards
upgrading census, registration and survey capabilities, especially in
developing countries, if the needs of all users of statistics on women are to
be served.

Table 1.   Characteristics of three basic sources of data
for indicators on the situation of women

| | Data collection method | | |
Criteria	Census	Civil registration	Sample survey
Topical detail (richness and diversity of subject matter)	Moderate	Weak	Moderate
Accuracy	Moderate	Strong	Moderate
Precision (absence of sampling errors)	Strong	Strong	Weak
Timeliness of data	Weak	Strong	Strong
Geographical detail	Strong	Strong	Weak
Obtaining information on population at risk	Strong	-	Strong
Ease of organization in a developing nation	Moderate	Weak	Strong

Source: Adapted from "Options for the collection of mortality data" (ESA/STAT/AC.17/4), table 4.

Note: A hyphen (-) indicates that the item is not applicable.

II.   SOURCES OF BASIC DATA

!3.   As noted in the previous chapter, the sources of basic data on women
vary widely.   In the developed countries basic data sources include censuses,
surveys, civil registration data and other administrative records which can
provide various indicators on a more or less regular basis.   In addition, many
developed nations have specialized household surveys which periodically focus
exclusively on living conditions. 14/

!4.   In most developing countries, on the other hand, the basic data sources
for social indicators are very limited.   There may be a wide range of
statistical experience in these countries but very few have long histories of
population and housing censuses or reliable civil registration systems.   Nor
do they very often have extensive household survey programmes.   In many cases,
therefore, considerable upgrading and extension of basic data in the social
fields are needed before a full range of useful social indicators can be
developed.   It may also be necessary to consider interim priority indicators
from among different sources of data.   In some countries administrative data
or local community data may be the only feasible source of information at
present, even though statistics collected and compiled by the national
statistics system would be a preferable source.   Mention should also be made
of the array of techniques now available for preparing estimates from
inadequate basic data, particularly in the demographic field.   However, as
these techniques are highly specialized, they will not be discussed here in
detail.

!5.   A variety of activities carried out by national statistical services
provide data on selected aspects of the situation of women.   In this section
the sources of information on the situation of women which can be used to
develop indicators are reviewed.   The types of data which are usually
available will be described along with some discussion of coverage and
accuracy.   In addition, some suggestions are made for slight modifications
which might permit a better description of the situation of women.   It should
be noted that this report focuses on official national data collection
systems.   It does not discuss indicators which might be drawn from specialized
case studies and surveys which focus on particular cultural, socio-economic or
regional populations.   Such studies can and have provided a substantial amount
of information on different aspects of the situation of women.   They are
usually small-scale endeavours in local areas, however, and the results cannot
be generalized to the country as a whole.   They are not, therefore, reviewed
in detail in the present report because the emphasis is on indicators which
can be developed from national data systems.

A.   Censuses of population and housing

!6.   Censuses of population and housing are probably the best source of
information on the size and distribution of the female population (and also of
the total population) by a variety of social and economic characteristics.
The major unique features of census data in most countries are the
availability of small-area data and comparability across countries.   Some of
the topics recommended globally by the United Nations in 1980 in connection

with the 1980 World Population and Housing Census Programme which are relevant to this report are listed in table 2. Before reviewing these topics, however, it is necessary to point out two characteristics of population censuses. First, the primary statistical unit in the population census is the individual. Therefore information on education, income and the like may be obtained for all persons cross-classified as desired and comparisons made among significant age and sex groups. Second, although topics recommended for the 1970 and 1980 rounds of censuses are very similar, the international recommendations issued in 1980 give much more flexibility to regions and countries in the choice of topics. Whereas in 1970 both "priority" topics and "other useful" topics were considered in detail in the international recommendations, in 1980 the selection, definition and application of "other useful" topics were left to each region and country. The principal topics in the 1980 global recommendations which appear relevant to the purposes of this paper include the following: (a) place of residence, (b) relationship to head or other reference person in the household, (c) sex, (d) age, (e) marital status, (f) educational attainment and attendance, (g) economic activity, (h) occupation, (i) industry and (j) status in employment. Two additional topics which are reviewed in the global recommendations but which were not included in the majority of regional recommendations are income and sector of employment.

27. The topics noted suggest that it is possible to make comparisons by sex and age and for rural and urban populations from census data in those countries which followed the international recommendations. In fact, however, national practices with respect to defining concepts and measures may differ where countries have modified the recommendations to meet their own particular needs and conditions. For example, the unpaid family worker is defined in different ways from one country to the next. Even within countries concepts may be defined one way for a census and one or more different ways for survey purposes, depending on the agency collecting the data. This is particularly true with respect to labour-force concepts but applies to other areas also, and anyone using the data for national, subregional and/or for international comparisons should carefully check the definitions of the concepts used.

28. On the positive side, population and housing censuses clearly permit the identification of different sub-samples to be studied in greater depth through sample surveys, and they contain key questions which enable the user to identify groups of households or individuals to be singled out for a particular analysis. For example, one might take the question on relationship to head of household and sort out only female-headed households during the processing phase of the census. Further analysis might compare female-headed households with other types. Also, one could match individual person characteristics with household characteristics. This is a complicated operation for most countries, particularly for those countries where the operation is still done by hand, but it is possible.

Table 2. Topics and measures relevant to the situation
of women in the United Nations recommendations
for population and housing censuses a/

Topics	Some derived measures b/
	Sex ratio, total and by age (P19)
	Percentage distribution by sex and age and ratios of children, youth and elderly to economically active ages (P19)
tionship to head or other rence member of household	Percentage of males, females living in one-person households (paras. 2.73 and 2.84)
	Percentage of nuclear households consisting of mother with child/children (no father present) (P16)
	Percentage of extended and composite households which include mother and child/children (no father present) (P16)
ital status	Percentage married by sex and age (P20)
:ational attainment and endance	Percentages of population not in school which have completed first level of education, started but not completed second level of education, completed second level, by age and sex (P32)
	Percentage attending school by age and sex (P35)
ce of usual residence and/or ce where present at time of sus	Population of and percentage distribution among urban and rural areas and principal localities and their urban agglomerations, by sex (P1,P3)
ivity status (labour force)	Percentage economically active by sex and age (P37)

(continued)

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Table 2 (cont'd)

Topics	Some derived measures b/
Status in employment	Percentage distribution of economically active males, females, by status in employment (employer, own-account worker, employee, unpaid family worker, member of producers' co-operative (where applicable)) (P40)
Occupation	Percentage distribution of economically active males, females by occupation (professional and managerial; agricultural; clerical, sales and service) (P38)
Industry (branch of economic activity)	Percentage distribution of economically active males, females by branch of economic activity (agriculture, industry, economic services, other services) (P39)
Sector of employment c/	Percentage distribution of economically active males, females by sector of employment (general government, public enterprises, private enterprises, household enterprises and co-operative enterprises (where applicable)) (paras. 2.212 and 2.214)
Income c/	Median per capita household income and median household size of all and of households headed by males, females (paras. 2.212-2.215)

a/ Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses, Series M, No. 67 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.80.XVII.8), paras. 2.15 - 2.17. See also Principles and Recommendations for the 1970 Population Censuses, Series M, No. 44 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.67.XVII.3), para. 175.

b/ References in parentheses are to the corresponding recommendations (paragraphs ("paras.") or tabulations ("P" numbers)) in Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses ....

c/ Not recommended as a priority topic in a majority of regions in 1980. See Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses ..., annexes I and II.

9.   The censuses of population and housing are useful for many purposes with
respect to defining the situation of women but are not always the best source
of information, particularly for rural women. Here censuses of population and
housing might be supplemented with some data from censuses and surveys of
agriculture. Many of the same items recommended in 1980 for population
censuses are also recommended for censuses of agriculture, but the units of
enumeration and tabulation differ. In censuses of agriculture, including
those carried out using sampling techniques, which is becoming a common
approach, the holding or the plot which is farmed tends to be the basic unit
and most data are presented for "holders" and members of their households.
These holders include private holders and members of their households, but
they may also include participants in co-operatives or other collective
endeavours. However, data are collected on hired agricultural workers and
their households in the agricultural censuses of only a few countries. 15/

10.   In sum, censuses of population and housing provide numerous items which
may be further disaggregated in order to provide indicators on the situation
of women. In many countries these data may be supplemented by the censuses of
agriculture, where particular attention must be paid to the situation of rural
women.

B. Household surveys

11.   Household surveys sample a small part of the population to obtain timely
information on one or more topics of current interest. They usually focus on
a limited number of topics, such as employment or fertility, but include more
questions on those topics than can be included in a census. They also usually
cover many basic socio-economic characteristics, such as those included in
censuses, to provide background for the interpretation and analysis of the
results. In many countries household surveys are a good source of data, at
least at the national level, because they tend to cover all types of
households and permit comparisons of urban and rural situations.
Unfortunately, they are often not large enough to provide very much detail
about particular sub-populations, such as minority women, or about many
aspects of social life. Some household surveys cover several aspects of
social life in a single survey but others focus on a single topic, such as
fertility and/or labour-force activity. Items covered in household sample
surveys include (a) description of the structure of the household, (b)
demographic and social characteristics of household members, (c) economic
activities, (d) employment, unemployment and underemployment, (e) occupation,
(f) non-economic activities, (g) earnings income, (h) consumption expenditure
patterns and (i) poverty or levels of living generally. Such topics can be
found, for example, in the Current Population Survey carried out in the United
States of America, in the Labour Force and National Household Survey carried
out in Mexico and in the Household Labour Force Survey in the Philippines.

12.   Many nations carry out a series of sample surveys conducted at different
times during the year. Some of these deal with special topics as noted above,
some focus on particular aspects of society, such as agriculture. In no case
are the topics completely integrated. For example, agricultural surveys
generally focus on agricultural employment on the holding and relate
characteristics of the agricultural holding and holder to other economic and

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social factors. Household surveys focus on individuals and sometimes cover individuals who are economically active in agriculture but relate their characteristics to the household, not necessarily the holding. In this case the primary unit of enumeration for the agricultural survey is the holding and these surveys are related to the census of agriculture. In household surveys, the primary unit is the individual (and perhaps the household), the sampling frame is often obtained from the census of population and the data are related to the census of population. None the less, agricultural surveys are useful sources of information on the situation of women in many countries, especially if the data can be supplemented with material from other sources, such as case studies. 16/

33. As noted above, countries have used many different types of sample surveys to obtain data on socio-economic conditions of their populations, particularly their economic activities. These surveys vary widely, from the multi-subject type of survey in which numerous topics are included to very specialized surveys which are concerned with only one particular aspect of the situation of women. They also vary with respect to geographical coverage. Some include both urban and rural areas, whereas others focus primarily on urban populations. They vary also in their time coverage, techniques of sampling and enumeration, and so on. Specific examples of surveys of different types which contain information relevant to the situation of women include, for example, the time-budget survey in Romania, the labour-force surveys in Sweden, the Current Population Survey in the United States of America, the labour-force surveys in Egypt, the survey of married women, family and work in Denmark and the World Fertility Surveys. The methods and techniques used in any of these surveys are dependent on the circumstances that exist in each country, the extent to which financial and other necessary resources are available and so on. The United Nations publication series "Sample Surveys of Current Interest" includes summary reports on many national surveys which might be of importance for analyzing the situation of women.

C. Registration systems and administrative records

34. In contrast to the census, which is an enumeration or counting of persons at about the same point in time, civil registration systems record vital events (births, deaths, marriages and divorces) as they occur. Vital statistics are then compiled from the records generated by the civil registration system. More than 120 countries publish vital statistics on births, deaths, marriages and divorces. Vital statistics which have direct bearing on the situation of women include, for example, statistics of death by age and sex, births by location, age and marital status of mothers, and marriage and divorce statistics.

35. In the United Nations preliminary guidelines on social indicators, 36 of 149 social indicators shown can be derived from vital statistics. Thus, in all countries improvements in vital statistics will contribute significantly to the quality and availability of statistics on women. In countries where vital statistics systems are seriously deficient, there are, none the less, possibilities for using existing data effectively. For example, vital statistics from selected cities or areas may be compiled to generate a sub-national total that can be useful in understanding the situation of women.

.   There are other administrative records from which statistics on the
tuation of women may be generated. These include records of taxes,
ucation, health, employment and crime. For example, in education
ministrative records are one of the main sources of data, as will be
scussed below. Tax records may in some instances be used to shed light on
e size and type of agricultural holdings by sex, which may show important
fferences between rural men and women. Records of employment offices and/or
employment insurance offices may indicate something about the employment and
employment of men and women in the industries and occupations covered and
out the characteristics of their jobs. Some countries maintain farm
gisters. These may permit comparisons of the socio-economic situation of
n and women in agricultural occupations. In addition, a number of countries
intain population registers which record detailed information on individuals
ntinuously through their lifetimes. These data provide a rich source of
formation on individuals, households and families.

.   Thus, although there is a variety of sources of data for statistics and
dicators on the situation of women in many countries around the world, the
ries selected will not be uniform in all countries because of variations in
ality and coverage in these different sources. There are also more general
mitations in the data that do exist, even where they are relatively
mprehensive and detailed. Therefore, before proceeding to illustrate
ecific indicators, it is necessary to review the various kinds of general
mitations and variations in the data which do exist.

III. LIMITATIONS OF THE DATA

A. General limitations

38. As noted earlier, all data systems are subject to various kinds and degrees of error, lack of comprehensiveness and the like. Producers of statistics often provide some evaluation of the accuracy and reliability of data, but the evaluation may itself be inadequate or not widely available and the user may lack training or experience in interpreting the statistics. In order to avoid erroneous or misleading conclusions, it is important, therefore, to develop priority indicators for which relatively reliable and comparable data are available for a large number of countries and which are easy to understand. The previous chapter describes in general terms what is available in many national statistical systems which might be used to develop indicators on the situation of women. Because the present report is aimed at giving guidance in how to make use of existing national statistical capabilities, it is important to note also some of the general problems of classification, data collection formats and the like. Some of the specific shortcomings will be discussed in more detail when illustrative indicators are presented and described. More general problems will be described here.

39. First, it is important to realize that all data are subject to error. Such error does not render the data useless but must be taken into account when the data are used. Different collection methods are subject to somewhat different types of error. For example, in many countries the census is a large operation for which interviewers are not necessarily well trained. Response errors may be high. On the other hand, sample survey interviewers may be very well trained to collect data on a regular basis, but the results are subject to sampling error.

40. Second, as already noted, there is more than one source which might provide relevant information on various aspects of the situation of women. Each source of data comprises a whole set of operational activities, from planning, organization and data collection to processing, tabulation and analysis, and these must all be understood in order to use the data effectively. Numerous manuals, handbooks and the like have been published on methods for collecting and tabulating statistics. 17/ These publications should be carefully studied by those interested in the development of social indicators in order that they might make the most efficient use of the data available to them. For example, it is important to know that if one wishes to do an intensive study of a sample of private households, the census of population might be the appropriate vehicle from which to draw such a sample. If, on the other hand, one is interested in examining women in agricultural households, it is necessary to look at both the census of population and the census of agriculture (if both exist) to see whether it is more appropriate to draw a sample of agricultural households from the census of population or a sample of holders from the census of agriculture. The discussion here will not repeat at length what has been published in the manuals noted above but will review the practical issues and problems relevant to statistics describing the situation of women.

In short, both censuses of population, housing and agriculture and
veys have been used in most countries to obtain a variety of data on their
ulations. The concepts used in each of these vary considerably among and
hin countries, as do the enumeration units, the criteria for including
ious topics and subgroups, and so on. Thus, great care must be exercised
using data from different sources. It is also clear that some items are
mon to almost all relevant censuses and surveys. These describe the
racteristics of persons and households and include the following: (a) sex,
 age, (c) place of residence, (d) activity status, (e) employment,
 occupation, (g) industry, (h) educational attainment, (i) size and type of
sehold, (j) identification of household head or reference person,
 number of economically active individuals and number of dependents and, to
esser extent, (l) income. Hence much may be gained from disaggregation by
 of the data in censuses and surveys.

The above review also suggests that there are a number of difficulties
the areas of concepts, definitions and classifications and in the ways in
ch data are collected both within and among countries. It is generally
eed that the following areas need further research: (a) the urban/rural
ssification, (b) labour-force concepts, (c) participation of women and
ldren in economic activities and (d) concepts and classifications
ociated with household, head of household and the like. None the less,
e data in these areas are usable, even though various problems and
tions, which will be reiterated in the next section on specific indicators
ch might be derived from these data, must be kept in mind. First, however,
 general problem of sex bias in all sources of statistics will be
sidered.

B. Sex biases in statistics

Statistics on women have been inadequate for most social policy concerns
most countries, in part because statistical work does not have as high a
ority as other activities in the allocation of scarce resources and thus
tistics on both men and women are inadequate, and in part because the needs
women, until recently, have had even lower priority. Insufficient and
eliable data result when relatively low priority is given to statistical
k and the national statistical infrastructure is weak. That is, in some
ntries population censuses are relatively infrequent, there are no
manent survey facilities and registration systems and other administrative
ords are deficient because statistical services are poorly staffed, are
rt of funds and thus simply cannot collect and process data on many
ics. In this context, it is understandable that statistics on women are
o poor. However, there are also some countries in which statistics on
en continue to be deficient even when there is great concern with improving
tistics generally.

This low priority is further exacerbated by the fact that there is often
roblem of communication between the users and producers of the data which
exist. In particular, the often inadequately staffed and overworked
tistical offices require very concrete and pragmatic requests for data, and
users concerned with women's issues are frequently unable to describe
ir needs in specific terms. However, these are general problems which
ly to producer and user relations in a number of areas. In this section
focus is on another set of problems which are concerned primarily with the
uation of women.

45.   Thus, in addition to the more general problems of the quality of the basic statistical infrastructure and the communications gap between producers and users, there are two other types of problems which apply particularly to women.   First, there are preconceptions with respect to the appropriate roles for women, and second, there are biases in the collection and processing of data on the situation of women that are sex based.   These two types of problems have been noted in a 1980 United Nations report concerned with sex-based stereotypes and sex biases. 18/

46.   The first type of problem refers to cultural preconceptions or stereotypes that affect the design of censuses and surveys.   For example, the idea that women are not really in the labour force may affect the design of labour-force questions so as to exclude jobs that are commonly performed by women.   Similarly, the notion that only men can be heads of households affects the way questions are designed and asked in a survey or census.   Such stereotypes also affect the way respondents reply to the questions.   If, for example, the gardening and poultry raising done by many rural women are not perceived as "work", they will not be reported as labour-force activities even though they may be the main source of family food.

47.   The second type of problem relates to biases in the collection, processing, compilation and presentation of data.   These may arise because of sex-based stereotypes or other technical factors in the processing of data. For example, when census tabulations are published for the employed labour force by occupation, they may be published only for males on the assumption that the employment of women is not of any significance.

48.   Considerable effort has been devoted to improving the concepts and methods involved in the collection of social and economic statistics in recent years.   In this context statistics describing the situation of women have been reviewed and evaluated, and an overview of potential sex biases in statistics was included in the 1980 United Nations report. 19/   That report discusses possible biases in concepts, classifications and definitions of head of household, household and family, economic activity, marital status, education and literacy, migration, fertility and mortality.   It is precisely in these areas that census data must be used in order to develop indicators with respect to the situation of women.   Some of the specific biases will be noted in the sections dealing with the indicators.   Some general problems are noted here.

49.   A major deficiency concerns the availability of data disaggregated by sex.   Data on employment, for example, are often tabulated for males only, even though they may have been collected from both men and women.   A second problem area occurs at the data collection stage and concerns under-reporting or underestimating events for women.   Female deaths are often under-reported relative to male deaths, as is the extent of their involvement in economic production, particularly agricultural production.   This results from inadequate definitions of such concepts as work.   Other problems develop from treating concepts and data which have different meanings for men and women as though they have the same meanings.   When boys and girls complete the same number of years of school, they may have been exposed to similar experiences but they may also have been exposed to quite different curricula.   Hence, the

ears of school completed may not have the same meaning for men and women. In
ome countries, girls are exposed primarily to courses in "women's
ctivities", such as cooking, sewing and nutrition, while boys are exposed to
ore occupationally oriented subjects, such as mathematics, accounting and the
ciences.

). Despite the limitations noted above, most statistical offices appear
illing to assist in improving the data available for studying the situation
f women and their participation in the development process, as well as the
xtent of equality between the sexes. Moreover, most regular data collection
s linked to government administration and planning and, as such, will be
llocated most of the scarce resources for data gathering, and the official
tatistics will be widely quoted. Hence, it is necessary to note the
eficiencies which exist with respect to knowledge of women's situation and to
ork with the available data to the extent possible.

. Although the regular data collected from censuses, surveys and
egistration systems may not produce as much information as would be desired,
hey are available and can be used. Still, many data needs may not be
menable to the data collection procedures of censuses or surveys and,
herefore, data collection through other, perhaps more qualitative techniques,
ust be designed to supplement and elaborate what may be derived from existing
ources. 20/

. The literature cited in the present report is only a small part of a
owing body of literature on data needed to measure the situation of women.
arly every meeting on women focuses on the shortcomings of existing data,
rticularly census data, with respect to measuring the participation of women
development. None the less, census and survey data can be used to provide
broad profile of the situation of women. In particular, a limited number of
portant indicators can be derived from such data. These include measures of
teracy and educational attainment, measures of economic participation and
cupational segregation, and the marital and/or household position of women.

Part Two

ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS ON THE SITUATION OF WOMEN

IV. GENERAL FRAMEWORK AND UNDERLYING CONSIDERATIONS

. Part two of the present document discusses specific indicators and
atistics on the situation of women in selected fields of social concern.
e indicators are designed to provide information which will be useful to
licy makers and programme directors concerned with improving the situation
women.

. In recent years there has been no shortage of lists of indicators of
vels of living, social well-being and other policy-relevant areas of social
ncern. 21/ With some adaptation and disaggregation, most of these are
levant to understanding the situation of women. However, the problem with
mply recommending disaggregation by sex is two-fold: (a) many nations,
rticularly developing nations, do not have reliable and accurate statistical
stems from which to get good basic statistics, and (b) not all indicators
e equally relevant to concern over the situation of women as articulated in
e World Plan of Action for the Implementation of the Objectives of the
ternational Women's Year or the Programme of Action for the Second Half of
e United Nations Decade for Women.

. The first problem, obtaining reliable data at reasonable cost, is one
ich remains to be solved and is beyond the scope of this paper, other than
require that the sources of statistics for the proposed indicators be
refully evaluated. Sound basic statistics are central to the selection and
mpilation of social indicators. Strengthening basic data sources is,
erefore, an essential process to maintain in and of itself. The second
oblem concerns relevance and suggests that the selected indicators should
flect those concerns articulated in both the Programme and the Plan of
tion. These focus on the participation of women in development and on the
tent of equality between the sexes. They emphasize the fundamental
portance of ditributive justice and of economic, social and political
tonomy for women.

. Several basic premises underlie the present work. The first is that
eful, policy-relevant data on the situation of women can be extracted from
isting national data. That is, it is possible to measure and compare the
enomenon of sexual equality within different regions and areas of individual
cieties, as well as among societies. A second premise is that there is no
ngle indicator which best describes the status or situation of women in any
e society, let alone in all societies. There are many facets of their
tuation which must be captured in sound social indicators. The multiplicity
l complexity of roles occupied by women in caring for the young and old and
subsistence farming, marketing, trading and other productive activities are
rely captured in official statistics, which tend to focus on their
productive roles. Social indicators should reflect all of these diverse
pects of the situation of women.

. It is likely that the relative equality of men and women in different
as of life varies and changes over time. Improvement in one aspect of life
women is not necessarily associated with improvement in all other areas.
example, equal access to education is not necessarily followed by equal

access to employment. A relatively favourable position in one area of life will not necessarily be associated with favourable positions in others. For all of these reasons, it would be inappropriate to suggest that a single indicator could capture the many and complex facets of the situation of women. 22/

58.   Although the indicators presented in part two are based on official statistics, it is recognized that these are not the only or even the best sources of data for describing the situation of women in many settings. In fact, small-scale case studies and anthropological studies of how women live, what they do, and the like are extremely important for understanding the situation of women in specific historical and cultural contexts. The extent to which any society has initiated or has access to such studies varies widely. On the other hand, virtually all countries now have some official statistics. Hence the illustrative indicators discussed below use existing methods and concepts in censuses, surveys and registration systems. They are presented with a caveat that they should be supplemented by other types of data, such as intensive case studies of specific communities or subgroups of national populations. Small-scale qualitative research should be used to fill in the gaps in the quantitative data and to clarify ambiguities which appear in the macro-statistical systems. In addition, they can provide insight and understanding of social processes which cannot be gained from more quantitative approaches.

59.   Various national compendiums of social statistics and indicators report measures of social conditions with respect to health, education, employment, income, housing, recreation, population, social welfare, social security and the family. What they do not do very often, however, is focus on the issue of equality between the sexes. The illustrative indicators discussed in this report are designed to fill this gap by comparing the situation of men and women with respect to a number of these indicators. This is done because in many cases statistics based on a national population may obscure a real inequality among various groups, such as men and women, minority and majority populations, and the like. The unemployment rate is a good instance of such a problem. A national rate of six or seven per cent may be quite tolerable but may obscure the fact that the rates for men and women differ significantly. The disaggregations suggested in this report are designed to identify and compare the situation of men and women. The focus is on the degree of inequality by sex in the distribution of educational opportunities, occupational opportunities, income levels and so on. The measures developed here are intended to suggest ways to develop statistical comparisons of the situation of men and women. They should be considered illustrative rather than as comprising a list of recommended or best indicators.

60.   The balance of part two, comprising chapters V to X, is organized in terms of the subject-matter framework of the United Nations preliminary guidelines on social indicators, approved by the Statistical Commission at its nineteenth session. 23/ The report that was subsequently issued on the subject 24/ reviews indicators which have been developed in national and international work and provides a flexible outline for the formulation and selection of measures pertaining to the fields of social concern. Annex I below is based on that report and provides illustrative examples of series for

lecting social indicators on women for different types of countries. These
amples and illustrations are subject to continual refinement as statistical
l conceptual development proceeds. Some specific examples in various fields
e discussed below in more detail.

. The indicators listed in each chapter below are designed both to
scribe the overall situation of women in various societies and to suggest
at some of their activities are with respect to national development.
veral are designed with a view towards having a set of reliable and
ternationally comparable indicators. Given the recent concern over the
tuation of women, however, and the variability among nations with respect to
e social concerns each emphasizes, the importance of reliable comparisons
er time and among subgroups within nations must be stressed.

. It is important to have reliable if approximate indicators which will
rmit most users to monitor and understand the general direction of change,
not the fine detail. They need to be confident that the trends and the
tterns of change are accurately described. The specific illustrations which
e presented have been selected primarily in terms of the data that would be
st readily available. An effort has been made to include indicators
propriate for countries at different stages of development and in different
gions of the world. In most cases, an indicator on the situation of women
: a specific selected topic, such as age at marriage or labour-force
rticipation, is presented along with a ratio of the indicator for women
mpared to the corresponding value for men, so that the situation of women
lative to men may be compared and changes in that situation over time may be
ted. In preparing indicators using ratios of females to males, care should
taken to ensure that small absolute numbers in the denominator do not cause
misleading exaggeration of male-female differences.

. Much previous research based on demographic and social statistics has
cused on the reproductive and family roles of women, yet their disadvantaged
sition in every society in the world is linked to the lack of recognition of
e productive roles they perform and to the disadvantaged positions they
cupy in the labour force when they are counted as economically active. The
tuation of women in the labour market is linked to their access to
propriate education and their position in households and families. Part two
this report will begin with a discussion of household and family indicators
l indicators on education and will then focus on indicators of economic
tivity and labour-force participation. Indicators in other relevant but
ss central areas with respect to equality will then be treated.

V.   THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN FAMILY FORMATION, FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS

64.   Families and households are the basic social units in a society within which individuals are socialized and interact with one another. In addition, as statistical units they are central to the study of economic dependency, social welfare, savings and consumption patterns, income maintenance, fertility and migration. Among women, their positions within the family and household are often a key to the extent of their participation in the larger society. It is important, therefore, to develop indicators of the situation of women in families and households because of the direct influence family position may have on women's access to education and employment. Also, broad social changes affecting education and employment will differentially affect familial roles both within and among societies.

65.   Most census data are collected and tabulated for households and describe households in terms of the household or family head and the relationship of all other persons to the head. There are two major problems with these data. The first concerns variability in the concepts and definitions, and the second concerns the assumptions underlying the concepts and definitons used.

66.   The United Nations Multilingual Demographic Dictionary defines a household as a socio-economic unit consisting of individuals who live together. 25/ It defines a family primarily in terms of relationships associated with the reproductive process which are regulated by law or custom. In spite of these and other international definitions, however, rather large differences remain in the various censuses with respect to the basic concepts of household and family. A summary of the definitions and classifications in this area used in the 1970 round of censuses by members of the Economic Commission for Europe is presented in table 3. 26/ Although more data are available for households than for families at present, there has been an increasing interest in family data in countries at all levels of development. This interest has been prompted by changes in family structure as the extended family gives way to the to nuclear family during the processes of industrialization and urbanization in developing countries, by national welfare planning which focuses on families, and by the increase in divorce and in single-parent families in many developed countries. Also, the concept of household as a socio-economic unit has been difficult to apply in many African and Asian countries where family structures are quite complex. In the prepararations for census and survey activities in the 1980s, attempts are being made to take these issues into account. The indicators suggested in the present report are based primarily on household data rather than data on families, however, because existing census and survey tabulations are more widely available for households than for families.

67.   The second problem area concerns underlying assumptions. The concept of family head is based on the assumption that men head all nuclear families and provide for their economic needs, while women take care of reproduction and home-care functions. Further, it has been assumed that family organization in traditional societies is characterized by male domination and strong familism which provides protection and support for all members. Both assumptions have been and are being seriously questioned. 27/ Both are essentially stereotypes

an ideal-type family which do not take into account the social and economic
anges affecting late twentieth century families and households. The
sumption of economic support by a male family head has become increasingly
realistic as larger numbers of households are made up of single persons,
rticularly women living alone, and of women and children only. Also women
e frequently the main or only providers for themselves and their children
d larger proportions of women in all households are entering the paid labour
rce and contributing significantly to household income.

Table 3. Concept of family and classification of families and households by type in population censuses of member countries of the Economic Commission for Europe

Country	Family concept used			Classification of families by type a/					Classification of households by type b/									
				Married couple		Father with child(ren)	Mother with child(ren)	Family nuclei not living in households	Non-family		One-family			Two-family			Three or more family	
	Nucleus	Other	None	With child(ren)	Without child(ren)				One person	Multi person	Without other persons	With other related persons	Other	Related in direct descent	Related not in direct descent	Un-related	Related	Un-related
Austria	X																	
Belgium	X			X	X	X	X	n.a.	X	X	X c/				X c/			
Bulgaria	X																	
Byelorussian SSR		X d/		e/					e/									
Canada	X	X d/		X		X	X	n.a.	X		X f/							
Czechoslovakia	X g/	X d/		X			X	X	X	X	X							
Denmark	X	X d/		X			X											
Finland									X	X	X	X	X	X	X			
France	X										i/							
German Democratic Republic	X k/			X	X		X		X	X	X	l/						
Germany, Federal Republic of	X b/			X	X		X	n.a.	X	X	X	l/						
Greece			X	n.a.					n.a.									
Hungary	X m/									X	X				X		X	
Ireland	X			X		X		n.a.	X	X	l/ X						X	
Luxembourg																		
Malta																		
Netherlands	X			X	X	X	X	X	X m/	X n/			X	n/ X	X		n/	
Norway	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Poland	X			X	X	X	X	n.a.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Portugal	X			X	X		X	o/	X	X	o/ X			X			X	
Romania	X			X	X	X	v	n.a.	X	X	X			X				
Spain	X	X d/		X	X	X		n.a.	X	X	X							
Sweden	X			X	X			o/	X	X	X	X						
Switzerland	X																	
Turkey	X																	
Ukrainian SSR		X d/		e/					e/									
USSR		X d/		e/					e/									
United Kingdom	X b/	X r/		X		X		n.a.	X	X	X n/							
United States	X			X		X		n.a.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Yugoslavia	X			X	X	X	X	X	s/									

(Footnotes on following page)

Footnotes to table 3)

Notes: X = Concept used or category of recommended classification applied (or can be derived from national classification).

___ X ___ = The categories shown are combined in the national classification.

hyphen (-) indicates that the item is not applicable.
See document ST/CES/13, para. 122.
See document ST/CES/13, para. 111.
With 16 subcategories for one-family households and six subcategories for two or more family households.
All persons related by blood or marriage.
Families were classified into married couples with or without child(ren); married couples with other relatives; lone parent with child(ren); lone parent with other relatives; other families.
With subcategories for related and unrelated families; recommended classification can be derived.
The concept of "census household" corresponds to the family nucleus concept but includes, in addition, non-family multi-person and one-person households (which are shown separately in the classification of census households by type).
Households are subdivided into those consisting of one census household, two census households, three census households and four census households.
Various household concepts are used. A distinction is made, inter alia, between private principal households and private lodging households.
Classification can be obtained from classification of relationship to head of household.
Including grandchildren living with their grandparent(s), if the parents do not live in same household.
A distinction is made into: (i) households consisting of families in direct descent only (with further subdivisions); (ii) the same with other related persons; (iii) the same with unrelated persons as well.
Used for classifying households by type only.
Subdivisions according to two-digit level could be obtained.
Not distinguished from family nuclei living in households.
Further subdivided by type of family nucleus, number of children and whether with other persons or not.
Further subdivisions according to whether the head of the household is a member of a family nucleus or not; and family nuclei including or not including the head of the household, by type of family nucleus.
Head of household and persons related to the head of household by blood or marriage.
Distinction into family households and other households.

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68.   The basic problem is that the concept no longer describes reality in many countries. In many households with married couples, there are joint heads and shared responsibilities. Similarly, in households made up of unmarried adults, most decisions and responsibilities are shared. In those situations where no single individual has ultimate authority with respect to household decisions or the activities of other household members, head of household is a meaningless concept.

69.   The issue of the inherent sex bias in the "head of household" concept was of serious concern to some members of the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) - for example, Canada, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the United States - particularly in connection with data to be collected for the 1980 round of population and housing censuses. While all countries within the ECE region were not uniformly concerned about the issue, concensus was eventually reached that the term "head of household" should be replaced by the term "reference member of the household". It was left to the countries to decide how this reference member should be selected. 28/

70.   Even though the ECE recommendations were followed in a number of those countries in the 1980 round of censuses, statistics in most countries are available for households defined in terms of the characteristics of "heads of households". In fact, while some countries have been seeking a new terminology to replace "head of household", in others the emphasis has been on obtaining more reliable data on household heads, by sex, to assist in social welfare planning and programmes, where headship is defined so as to be closely associated with primary economic responsibility. New interest in the concept of "household head" stems from welfare problems associated with widowed, separated and divorced women, whether aged and living alone or young and living as a parent with children. In this latter case it is important to describe the number and characteristics of "female-headed households" in order to develop programmes and policies to ameliorate the conditions of poverty under which many of them live.

71.   Because the concept has been retained in most recent censuses, at least in part, the question becomes one of what use can be made of these data, and this in turn depends on the definition of head of household and its meaning in practice. 29/ The statistical offices in most countries follow agreed-upon international conventions and define head of household as whoever is so designated by members of the household or even whoever fills in the first column of the census form. Sometimes the basic criterion is economic support and sometimes it is strictly cultural (such as male by definition). In any case, relatively few countries tabulate such census data by marital status, age and sex, variables which might make these data more suitable for use in an index designed to reflect the changing situation of women. They are, however, frequently available by sex alone, either in census and survey reports or in estimates based on these data. 30/ By 1980, headship rates by age and sex were available for 59 countries, but fewer than 20 had regularly published results on the age and sex composition of their heads of household for earlier periods. Thus inferences about changing patterns of headship must be somewhat tentative. Analyses of the existing data indicate that in all countries headship rates are higher for men than for women at every age. This is not unexpected, given the census practices noted earlier, which define the head of

ousehold in terms of the chief earner and the like. Also, the traditional atterns of family structure preclude married women from being defined as head f household. Most female heads are single, divorced and widowed women, and omen whose consensual unions have terminated. These are most likely to be mong the poorest households and to the extent that social policies are aimed t alleviating poverty, it is important to identify such households.

Illustrative indicators

2.   Census data may be used to describe the growing incidence of female eadship throughout the world, particularly in developing countries. 31/ In ome situations, increased female headship rates may reflect an improvement in he situation of women, increased economic independence and the like. In most ases, however, they reflect increasing poverty and the burden of supporting nildren without paternal assistance. In addition to headship rates, other easures are suggested which add indicators of marital status and fertility to ousehold data by age and sex. Marital status, in particular the proportion ever-married at the younger ages, is an important indicator of possible ccess to options other than marriage, such as education. It also suggests ne relative acceptability of remaining single for each sex and age group. In any countries, particularly in the modern sector, fertility is negatively elated to the socio-economic status levels of women and their families. High ertility also tends to limit participation in the paid labour force in the odern sector. Therefore, measures of the fertility of women often will be ndicative of their overall status levels and of their potential for abour-force participation. It is also important here to differentiate among omen in urban and rural areas and among significant subgroups of the opulation.

3.   Suggested indicators include the following:

    (a) Female headship rates compared to male headship rates;

    (b) Households with women 15-49 years of age and children under age 15, id no adult male, as a proportion of all households;

    (c) Single-person households by sex (and selected age categories);

    (d) Median age at first marriage for women and men;

    (e) Difference in the median age at first marriage of men and women;

    (f) Legal minimum age at marriage for women and men;

    (g) Proportion of women and men in each marital status category by age;

    (h) Average (mean) age difference between husbands and wives;

    (i) Number of children ever born to women 15-49 years of age (by rital status when possible);

    (j) Child-woman ratio for all mothers 15-44 years of age;

    (k) Child-woman ratio for all women age 15-44 and for all women age -44 in the labour force.

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74.   Most of the above indicators are available for a large number of
countries from census or large-scale survey data, or from legal documents, as
in the case of minimum age at marriage. In addition to these, several
supplementary indicators should be considered which may be derived from
time-budget studies, special purpose surveys and administrative records in a
more limited number of countries - mostly developed countries. 32/ These
supplementary indicators might include, for example:

    (a) Number of hours per day available for leisure by sex; and a ratio
of female to male leisure time;

    (b) Child-care places per 1,000 children under age 5.

75.   Because of the changing situation of women and the difficulties
experienced with current analyses of family and household statistics, several
countries have worked on developing data sets implying new conceptual
frameworks. 33/ The household-type classification proposed for use in the
1981 census in the United Kingdom, for example, suggests one way of combining
household and family data which might be of interest to other nations. 34/ The
classification ultimately adopted for use in that census is shown in table 4.
It is not known whether the data have been disaggregated by sex, but such
identification, particularly of "lone parents", would be of considerable
social importance. Tabulation would provide some knowledge of "family stage",
which might help to explain the relationship between economic and domestic
roles. It will also highlight the single-person household. Statistics on
this category of household, particularly in the case of older women, describe
a group of considerable policy significance in many nations. Graphic
presentation should be considered when comparing two or more points in time.
The decline in married couple households between 1970 and 1982 is easily seen
in figure 1, for example.

Table 4. Classification of household type in the 1981
census of England and Wales a/

---

0   **No family**
0.1   One person
0.2   Two or more persons

1   **One family**
1.1   Married couple no children, no others
1.2   Married couple no children, with others
1.3   Married couple with children, no others

    1.3.1 All non-dependent children
    1.3.2 All dependent children
    1.3.3 Both dependent and non-dependent children

1.4   Married couple with children, with others

    1.4.1 All non-dependent children
    1.4.2 All dependent children
    1.4.3 Both dependent and non-dependent children

1.5   Lone parent with children, no others

    1.5.1 All non-dependent children
    1.5.2 All dependent children
    1.5.3 Both dependent and non-dependent children

1.6   Lone parent with children, with others

    1.6.1 All non-dependent children
    1.6.2 All dependent children
    1.6.3 Both dependent and non-dependent children

2   **Two or more families**

2.1. All dependent children in the household
2.2. All non-dependent children in the household
2.3. Both dependent and non-dependent children in the household
2.4. No children in the household

---

a/ The classification contains 3 categories at the one-digit level, 12 the two-digit level and 20 at the three-digit level.

Figure I. Percentage distribution of households by type

100%   100%

59.4

70.5

Married-couple
family

2.4

11.3

11.3

1.9

8.7

Man maintaining
family, no wife
present

Woman maintaining
family, no husband
present

6.4

Male non-family
householder

15.6   12.4

Female non-family
householder

1982   1970
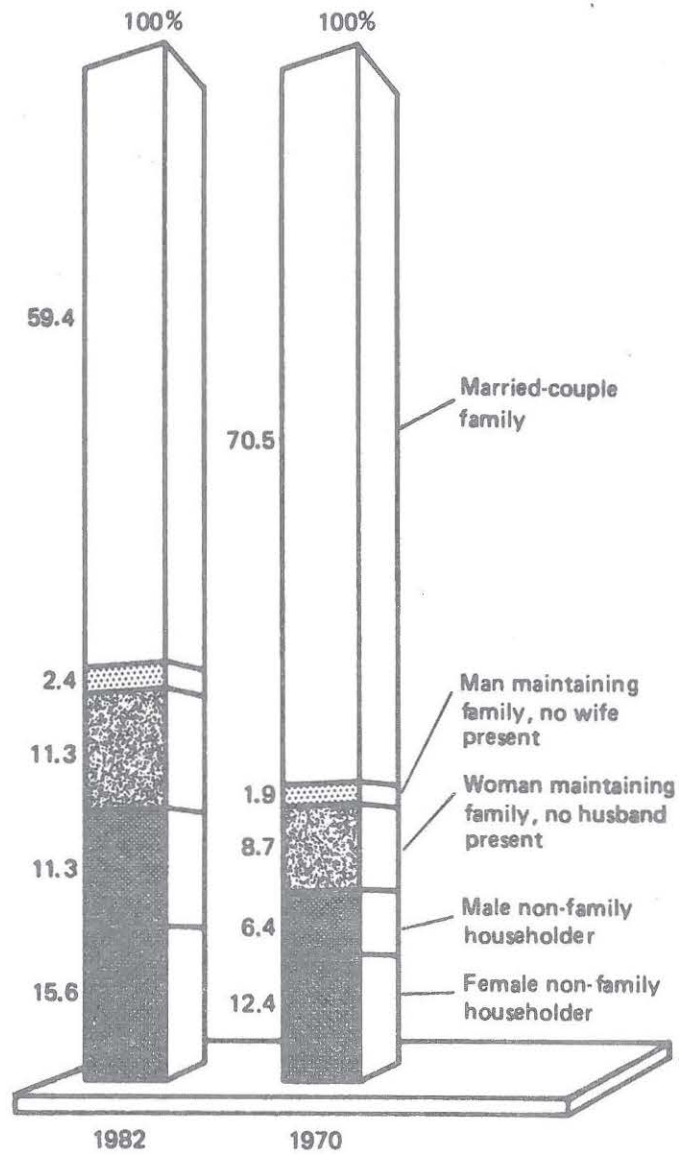
Note: Based on data for a developed country. Many statistical
concepts, classifications and definitions differ considerably among countries,
even those at similar levels of development. Thus, the terms and
classifications shown in the actual country example may differ from those used
in other countries and from international recommendations.

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76.   In the past, interest in the situation of women has frequently focused on the link between fertility and employment. Diverse and often contradictory findings on the relation between women's economic or occupational roles and their domestic roles suggest the need for more careful descriptions of women's position within the family at different stages of the family life cycle in order to understand the compatibility of domestic roles with other activities. 35/ Identifying families within households is not always simple. The United Nations recommendations for the 1980 round of population and housing censuses distinguish between household and family within the household. The family within the household is defined "as those numbers of the household who are related to a specified degree, through blood, adoption or marriage". 36/ The degree of relationship to be specified is left to individual countries, depending on their needs and diverse cultural conditions.

77.   Clearly, the problems with family and household data, in particular with identifying the relationship of various persons to the household head or reference person, are not easy to solve. As a result, only limited census data have been issued on the family and on women's position and activities within the family in many countries. The above indicators are derived from imperfect concepts but should provide a more accurate description of the situation of women than is now available.

VI. WOMEN, LEARNING AND EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

A. Illustrative indicators on literacy and education

78.   The available data suggest that a wide range of levels of both literacy and educational attainment exists among women around the world. In most developed countries most women are literate, as are most men. Such is not the case in developing countries, however. A majority of women in Latin American countries are literate, but more than two thirds of the women in African countries are illiterate. In Asia the literacy rate varies widely depending on the country, the stage of development and the cultural values. In recent decades most countries have made a concerted effort to increase the literacy level of all their citizens. In fact, however, generally fewer women than men are literate. As literacy is closely associated with participation in many aspects of development, the gap in the literacy level of men and women will suggest the extent to which both men and women may participate in the development process. Indicators of literacy should focus in particular on the young adult population, 15 - 19 and 20 - 24 years old.

79.   In addition to basic literacy, most countries collect data on school enrolment and attendance and on educational attainment. In many countries and regions women have generally lower enrolment rates than men do, and the size of the difference between the sexes may be captured in enrolment ratios at the elementary, secondary and third levels of education. Enrolments at the second and third levels are particularly important since very few women in developing countries, as compared to men, have completed secondary school and secondary school completion is a prerequisite for access to more challenging and financially rewarding positions in the modern sector of the economy.

80.   It is important to note that even though educational statistics may be readily available in many countries and may be reasonably reliable, they are not without limitations. Although enrolment rates may be associated with literacy levels among girls and may be used as current benchmarks so that future progress may be measured, enrolment at the elementary level is not the most significant figure. In societies where parents feel it is important to invest in the education of boys but not girls, it is likely that few girls will attain secondary levels of education, let alone a university education. Thus, it is important to obtain not only enrolment statistics, but to obtain enrolment statistics by level and, at the higher levels, by field of study, which may indicate the different types of educational pyramids which exist for girls and boys and also the changes in the shape of the pyramids over time.

81.   Another factor which enrolment statistics do not always capture is the absentee and drop-out rates for both girls and boys. It has been suggested that in many developing countries these absentee and drop-out rates are much higher for girls than for boys, particularly in countries where women's agricultural labour is more important than men's. Because censuses do not provide data which permit an examination of absences and drop-outs, except by inference over long periods, it is important to supplement census data with other material which will provide information on this pattern of attendance. Wherever data permit, the percentage of average daily attendance may be used.

A third area in which few statistics are routinely published by
governments concerns the area of curriculum. Even when girls are attending
school, they may be experiencing a very different type of educational training
than are boys. In many societies the curriculum deemed appropriate for girls
may be totally unrelated to potential later employment in the modern sector,
whereas the curriculum for boys is more likely to be aimed towards job
requirements. Enrolment in vocational and technical schools is significant
here. Also, the presence or absence of female teachers may influence the
enrolment rates of girls. Finally, it is important to note the considerable
variations in the definitions of primary school and primary school age
population, which make comparisons over time and place difficult. It is not
very meaningful to compare enrolment rates of persons 5-10 years old in grades
one to six with those of persons 5-15 years old in grades one to eight, for
example. This is not a serious problem for most comparisons of male and
female participation within the same country. There are occasions, however,
when country by country comparisons are useful. The adoption of the
International Standard Classification of Education by the United Nations
Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is an important
step towards the standardization of terminology concerning levels of
education. Also age-specific enrolment ratios can be used to overcome
problems of comparability, as can measures of school-life expectancy where
they are available.

Several measures obtainable from census, survey and administrative data
which are widely available are illustrated in table 5. Given the limitations
noted above, some supplementary measures are also suggested which are
available in only a few places but which should be viewed as desirable for
future work. These are discussed in section B below. The suggested
indicators include the following: (a) literacy rates for men and women and a
ratio of female to male literacy; (b) percentages of the population age 6-23
enrolled in school by sex and age and the female to male enrolment ratios;
(c) percentage of all persons enrolled who are in the second level by sex;
(d) percentage of women and men 20-24 years old who have completed secondary
school and a ratio of women to men 20-24 years who have completed secondary
school. Table 5 illustrates some of these measures. As with the labour-force
measures discussed in the previous section, it is important to distinguish
between the detailed tabulations to be requested from existing data and the
selection of summary indicators to be used for programme and policy purposes.
For example, the per cent literate should be tabulated by sex and as much age
detail as is possible and useful in each country. One or two of these age
groups may serve as indicators of the situation of women, however. In those
situations in which greater age detail may be useful, graphic presentation
should be considered. Figure II, based on table 6, illustrates one way of
showing a narrowing of the enrolment gap between boys and girls of secondary
school age between 1967 and 1977.

B. Supplementary measures

In those countries where there are appropriate data from surveys or
where such data are collected by the educational institutions themselves,
supplementary indicators might include average daily attendance as a
percentage of enrollees by sex; drop-out and repetition rates by sex at the

first level; the percentage of ten-year-olds and over who enrolled in school at the beginning of the year and dropped out by the end, by sex; the percentage of all elementary-level teachers who are women; the percentage of all university graduates who are female; and the expectation at birth or at age of years to be spent in school.

85.   Statistical data on international training assistance is another area which might provide indicators of the situation of women in countries receiving such training assistance, as well as an indicator of concern by the countries providing such assistance. For example, the Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) reviews various bilateral technical co-operation contributions to developing countries. A table in its report, Development Co-operation, 1981 Review, shows the number of women among students and trainees in the donor countries. That table is developed from data provided by individual countries. Table 7 has been derived from it and shows that the proportion of women among such students varies from 2 per cent to 27 per cent. Insofar as such training provides for leadership or high-level participation in the modern sector once the trainees return home, it is clear that relatively few women are being trained for such participation. Such data are probably available for additional countries and might be used by them to compile another indicator of the availability of education by sex. Such data might usefully supplement the indicators derived from censuses, surveys and administrative records described above.

Table 5. Illustrative indicators of educational opportunity

Indicators a/	Total	Male	Female	Female to male ratio
Percentage literate b/				
15 years and over	74.2	78.2	70.4	.900
15-19 years	85.0	86.1	83.9	.974
Percentage of population age 6-23 enrolled in school b/	27.4	34.1	20.6	.60
Percentage of enrolled persons in secondary school	17.6	23.2	10.3	.44
Percentages of population age 20-24 that completed second level of schooling b/	61.1	63.0	55.5	.88
Average daily attendance as percentage of those enrolled	85.0	94.0	79.0	.84
School-life expectancy				
Total population	5.9	6.3	5.4	.86
Enrolled population	7.9	8.1	7.4	.91
Second-level teachers who are female	–	–	–	.33
Percentage of third-level enrollees in science and engineering	49.0	59.5	17.5	.29

Note: Based on data for a developing country. See note to figure I. A hyphen (-) indicates that the item is not applicable.

a/ Each indicator should be shown separately for urban and rural areas and for significant socio-economic groups within nations when such data are available.

b/ Age group(s) to be determined according to specific concerns and educational systems of each country.

Table 6.   Illustrative rates of school attendance by age

(Percentage)

Age a/	1967	1977
Males		
14	97.7	97.7
15	77.8	87.1
16	49.0	58.3
17	27.3	31.0
18 and above	9.9	9.1
18	..	7.3
19 and above	..	1.8
Females		
14	96.9	98.2
15	72.3	87.3
16	39.7	60.4
17	18.8	33.2
18 and above	4.2	8.1
18	..	6.3
19+	..	1.8
Total		
14	97.3	97.9
15	75.1	87.2
16	44.5	59.3
17	23.1	32.1
18 and above	7.1	8.6
18	..	6.8
19 and above	..	1.8

Note: Based on data for a developed country. See note to figure I.

Two dots (..) indicate that the data are not separately reported.

a/ Data for 1967 are not provided separately for ages 18 and 19 and above.

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Figure II. Rates of school attendance by age, 1967-1977
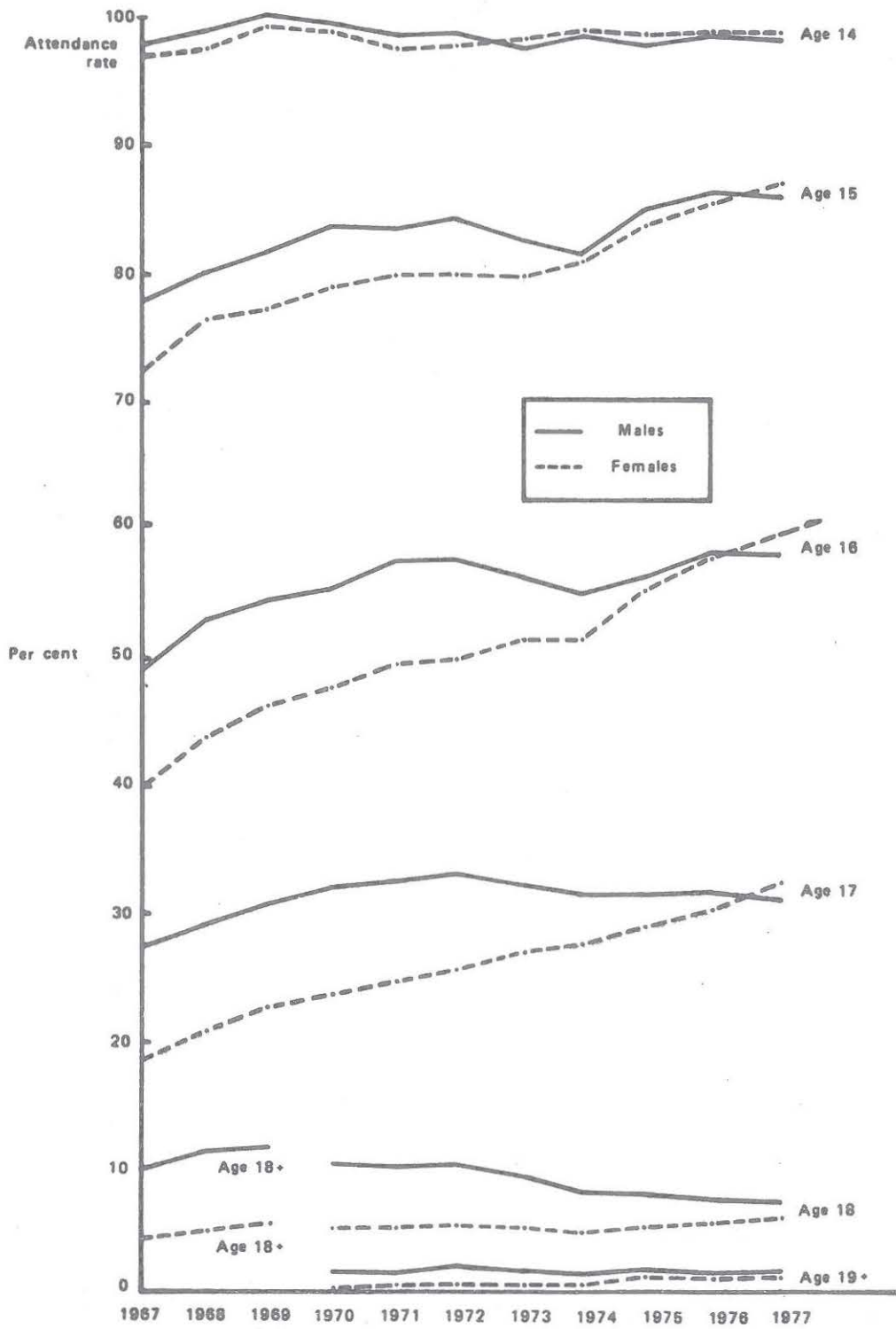
Notes: Based on table 6. See note to figure I.

Table 7 Women from developing countries holding fellowships
in selected OECD countries, 1980

Country of study	Students and trainees		
	Total	Women	Percentage
Belgium	3 258	231	7
Canada	1 723	122	7
Denmark	556	117	21
Finland	394	43	11
New Zealand	992	275	27
Norway	1 260	223	18
Switzerland	832	42	5
United States of America	6 854	169	2
	15 869	1 222	8

Source: Development Co-operation, 1981 Review (Paris, OECD, 1981), p.11,
table 8.

A considerable body of data from censuses and surveys describes the
 lic activity and labour-force participation of the population in most
 ies.   Much of it is available in the Yearbook of Labour Statistics,
 hed by the International Labour Organisation (ILO), which contains data
 economically active population in more than 100 countries and areas.
 are, however, a number of problems related to census and survey data on
 bour force, particularly with respect to women.   38/   Many of the
 lological problems which persist in constructing indicators on the
 ion of women result from the use of traditional concepts in the
 ons which are used to collect data in censuses and surveys.   Because of
 t is worth noting briefly the definitions and concepts used and their
 y.

 Standardization of labour-force concepts began in the 1920s with work on
 fications of industries and occupations and the development of methods
 llecting data on unemployment.   The First and Second International
 ences of Labour Statisticians (ICLS), held in 1923 and 1925, adopted the
 international recommendations on these topics.   The first international
 owards the classification of workers was taken in 1938 by the Committee
 tistical Experts of the League of Nations (CSELN).   This Committee
 luced a definition of the gainfully occupied which excluded housework by
 s of a family in their own homes and also excluded young people who
 ably were students.   The resolutions adoped by the Eighth International
 ence of Labour Statisticians (1954) provided detailed definitions and
 fications of the scope and nature of statistics to be collected on
 force, employment and unemployment.   These resolutions were modified at
 irteenth ICLS in October 1982.   In general, the recommendations for the
 1970 and 1980 rounds of population censuses have been consistent with
 efinitions in the 1954 resolutions with the exception of slight changes
 limit and time reference period.   Although the 1954 recommendations
 een maintained over three decades, national practices have not been
 stent with them, and the various concepts and definitions have been
 d to suit the particular conditions and situations of individual
 ies.   Consequently, the operationalization of concepts differs from
 y to country, and often within countries over time, among different
 tion programmes and among agencies collecting the data.   Major
 ences concern the specification of requirements for defining someone as
 labour force and in the treatment of unpaid workers.   It is hoped that
 ation of the Thirteenth ICLS recommendations will resolve these
 ences.

 In the 1954 resolutions economic activity or work was defined largely in
 of whether a person engaged in an activity for which she or he was paid
 ly or indirectly.   This included unpaid family workers but not
 eeping done in one's own home.   After 1954, the labour force became the
 ommonly used concept of economically active population.   The civilian
 force traditionally has been divided into the employed and the

unemployed, with fairly strict rules for inclusion in one category or the other. In most of the international recommendations those persons who were excluded from the labour force by definition were full-time homemakers, students and a few others, such as retired persons with pensions, who were not working. The international recommendations also recommended that performing an economic activity always take precedence over a non-economic activity, but since women often spend more time than men in such non-monetary activities as agricultural production for own consumption, carrying water and dress making, the productive activities of women have still been under-reported.

89.   As noted previously, many nations report data on status in employment (namely, as employers, own-account workers, employees, unpaid family workers and workers in producers co-operatives), for which the definitions may vary. The unpaid family worker has been one of the categories which has been particularly discriminatory towards women. In many countries in order to be counted as an unpaid family worker (and to be included in the labour force) one must have worked at least one third of the normal working hours without pay in some kind of enterprise operated by a relative. Unpaid family workers are often wives working in small family businesses in urban areas and on agricultural holdings in rural areas. The minimum hours requirement for unpaid family workers seemed illogical when persons who defined themselves as employees or own-account workers and reported working one hour during the reference period (the previous week) were counted as being in the labour force. The requirement that an unpaid family worker work at least one third of the normal working hours in order to be counted in the labour force has been dropped in the 1982 international recommendation. National practices in several countries are already closer to the new recommendations than the old ones and their indicators should be more meaningful in this area.

90.   The way in which unpaid family workers are treated is of particular importance to women in agricultural areas, because agricultural holdings are usually run on a household basis and most members of the household will take some part in their operation, particularly wives. Yet often only one family member, the holder, is considered active on each holding. Hence the contributions of rural women are frequently ignored and their contributions to agricultural activity uncounted. This is particularly serious in those countries where women's agricultural activity provides most of the subsistence for the family. 39/

91.   Underenumeration of women workers also occurs in urban areas where many women are working in the informal sector and do not have stable residence or employment. There is no generally agreed upon definition of the informal sector of the economy, but it may include economic activities which are overlooked by the usual data collection procedures because they are in very small-scale, informally organized establishments or on own account or because they are highly mobile, seasonal, illegal or culturally disapproved of. In addition, women who are unpaid family workers in their husband's or other family establishments may not be enumerated in the labour force. Another consideration affecting the measurement of women's contributions to economic activity in urban areas is that many workers there are not unemployed in the sense of looking for work but might be appropriately defined as underemployed since they are involuntarily working part-time, for less than the normal period or in jobs that do not match their skill levels. Few countries publish data on underemployment, but such measures may be computed in those countries where the necessary data are collected.

The classification or enumeration of women as unpaid family labour is
ortant to the situation of women in two contrasting ways. On the one hand,
they are not accurately counted, then women's contribution to the economic
duct of the nation is inadequately measured. Hence, it is important to
ain and use accurate data in measuring rates of labour-force
ticipation. On the other hand, classification as unpaid family labour
ld contribute to the hidden unemployment of women to the extent that women
 would prefer and would accept a paid labour-force position if they could
d one are classified as unpaid family labour and hence as employed.
sequently, the unpaid family worker should be accurately counted in any
tistics of labour-force participation, but indicators of unemployment
uld focus on the paid labour force. 40/ This does not require major
ceptual changes, merely some additional manipulation of existing statistics.

The old international recommendations on measuring employment and
our-force activities were not adequate to cope with the problem of under-
loyment or under-enumeration, particularly in developing countries. These
rces of under-reporting and noncoverage also resulted in wide variability
labour-force participation rates reported internationally. An ILO study of
our-force estimates shows that the estimates for male labour-force
ticipation rates are much more consistent between and among countries than
 the labour-force participation rates of women. 41/ Invariably, the
ale rates are also lower, as well as more variable, than the rates reported
 men.

Furthermore, "employed" is often perceived or specified in terms of a
n or a primary line of work. Women, especially those in rural areas, who
k at several activities, may work relatively long hours altogether, but
y may not be included as employed because they do not have a "main" line of
k. The same is true in the urban informal sector or in urban family
erprises.

As noted in the previous chapter on limitations of the data, certain
nomic activities of women, such as tending farm animals, food processing
 storage, cooking for hired help, providing food for the family from small
sehold plots and the like, are generally unrecorded and need further
ention. Further, the question of whether the whole area of housekeeping
 child-care and the value of such work should be incorporated into the
nomic activity data has been raised. 42/ These activities are not
luded in censuses or labour-force surveys, and many of these issues have
 been resolved. The value of household production and other non-monetary
nomic activities of women is increasingly being recognized, however, and a
siderable amount of work on estimating their monetary value is currently
er way. The companion document to the present one, Improving Concepts and
nods for Statistics and Indicators on the Situation of Women, reviews the
rent status of this work and makes recommendations for future study.

A. Principles series and indicators

With respect to labour force, several indicators of economic activity
women may be developed simply by disaggregating already existing data.
following are among those suggested: (a) labour-force participation rates

by sex and age and by urban and rural residence, (b) unpaid family workers as
a proportion of all persons in the labour force by sex with a ratio of female
to male proportions, (c) unemployment by sex and age (and, where possible, by
urban/rural residence) and ratio of female to male unemployment levels,
(d) unemployment rates for the paid labour force by sex and (e) proportion of
economically active women in professional and managerial jobs compared to the
proportion of men. In addition, in the countries in which they exist, some
indicators based on data from time-use surveys should be included. 43/ Annex
I below provides a detailed list of series for the selection of indicators for
countries at different stages of development. Tables 8 and 9 suggest formats
for presenting some of the measures noted above.

97.   Users in each country must be sensitive to the difference between the
number of measures and indicators which may be computed by the statistician,
social scientist or other user preparing data and the number of indicators to
be presented to the policy makers who are relatively untrained in
statistics. Presenting great detail simply because it is available is often
confusing rather than enlightening. For example, nearly everyone agrees that
age detail is important in examining labour-force and employment data.
Therefore, in preparing the measures and indicators suggested above, the
statistician should compute measures with as much age detail as possible in
rder to examine cohort trends. Table 8 illustrates some measures which should
be developed in a country with good labour-force data by age and sex. At this
point the statistician or other user who prepared the table must exercise some
judgement as to what smaller number of these measures and of the measures
derived from them might be used as indicators to provide a profile of the
situation of women in the labour force as well as an indication of the needs
to be addressed in policy and planning objectives. Each country will make a
selection reflecting national needs and interests, as well as data
availability. Table 8 presents one possible set of indicators which might be
derived from detailed tabulations of census or survey data on labour-force
activity. Measures of economic activity can also be presented in simple
graphic formats so that the important underlying features will be more readily
understood by the non-specialist. For example, figures III and IV illustrate
two simple types of graphs which might be used to demonstrate that in a given
country:

        (a) Fewer women than men are in the labour force, but there is
considerable variation by region of the country;

        (b) Over a five-year period, women experienced higher levels of
unemployment than men and there was no evidence of a narrowing of the gap
between them.

Table 8. Illustrative series for selecting indicators on labour-force activity a/

	Total	Male	Female
Percentage of population economically active			
Ages			
-15	9.7	15.1	4.0
15-19	29.1	49.9	5.1
20-24	41.6	71.7	12.4
25-29	51.1	92.8	10.8
30-44	51.3	97.7	6.0
45-49	52.5	98.2	3.5
50-54	49.2	96.8	3.1
55-59	52.5	95.0	2.7
60-64	39.0	76.7	2.2
65+	20.5	40.9	1.0
Total b/	30.2	54.1	5.5
Percentage of the economically active who are unemployed			
Ages			
-15	16.0	16.3	15.7
15-19	17.0	10.1	31.0
20-24	10.7	6.7	25.6
25-29	7.7	3.8	11.5
30-34	6.0	4.0	10.3
35-39	4.2	1.2	8.0
40-44	2.3	0.5	5.3
45-49	2.5	0.5	5.3
50-54	1.1	1.0	1.6
55-59	1.0	1.0	1.1
60-64	1.0	0.9	1.6
65+	-	-	-
Total	7.9	4.1	13.3
Status in employment of the economically active, percentage distribution			
Employers	2.2	3.4	0.4
Own-account workers	15.3	19.0	9.3
Employees	67.5	71.8	60.7
Unpaid family workers	14.3	5.0	28.9
Others	0.7	0.7	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

(continued)

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Table 8 (continued)

	Total	Male	Female
Branch of economic activity of economically active, percentage distribution c/			
Agriculture	41	36	54
Mining and manufacturing	15	16	12
Construction	6	7	1
Transport and communications	7	9	2
Trade	11	12	10
Community and personal services	20	19	21
Total	100	100	100

Note: Based on data for a developing country. See note to figure I. A hyphen (-) indicates that the item is not applicable.

    a/ Numbers may not add to totals due to rounding.

    b/ Including persons of unknown age.

    c/ May be expanded for relevant age groups.

Figure III. Female/male ratio of labour-force
  participation rates by sub-national region

Country

Region I
Region II
Region III
Region IV
Region V
Region VI
Region VII
Region VIII

0.00   0.20   0.40   0.60   0.80   1.00

Ratio

<u>ote:</u> Based on data for a developed country. See note to figure I.

-48-
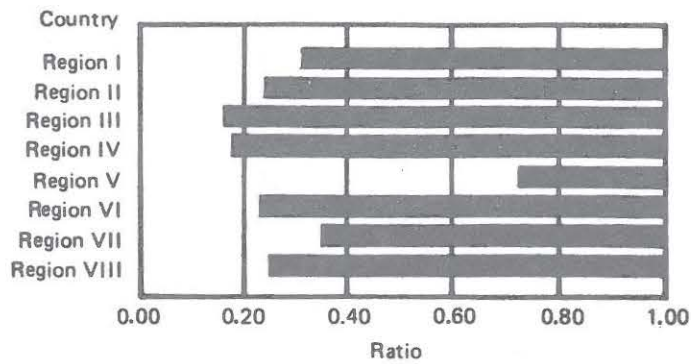
Table 9. Illustrative indicators of labour-force activity

Indicator a/	Total	Male	Female	Female to male ratio
		(percentage)		
Economically active				
Ages b/				
15 and over	30.1	54.1	5.5	.102
30-34	51.3	97.7	6.0	.061
Unpaid family workers among economically active				
Ages b/				
15 and over	14.3	5.0	28.9	5.8
20-24	14.0	5.0	28.0	5.6
Unemployed in the total labour force				
Ages b/				
15 and over	7.9	4.0	13.3	3.3
25-34	6.0	3.0	7.3	2.4
Unemployed--paid labour force	8.1	4.2	18.5	4.4
Non-agricultural employment	59.1	64.0	46.0	.72
Employees and wage farmers	67.5	71.8	60.7	.85
Professional and managerial workers	9.5	10.5	8.0	.76

Note: Based on data for a developed country. See note to figure I.

a/ Each indicator should be shown separately for urban and rural areas and for significant socio-economic groups within nations when such data are available.

b/ Age group(s) to be determined according to specific concerns of each country.

Figure IV.   Percentage of the civilian labour force
unemployed, 1977-1981

Number of unemployed (men and women), as percentage of the civilian labour force, 1977-1981
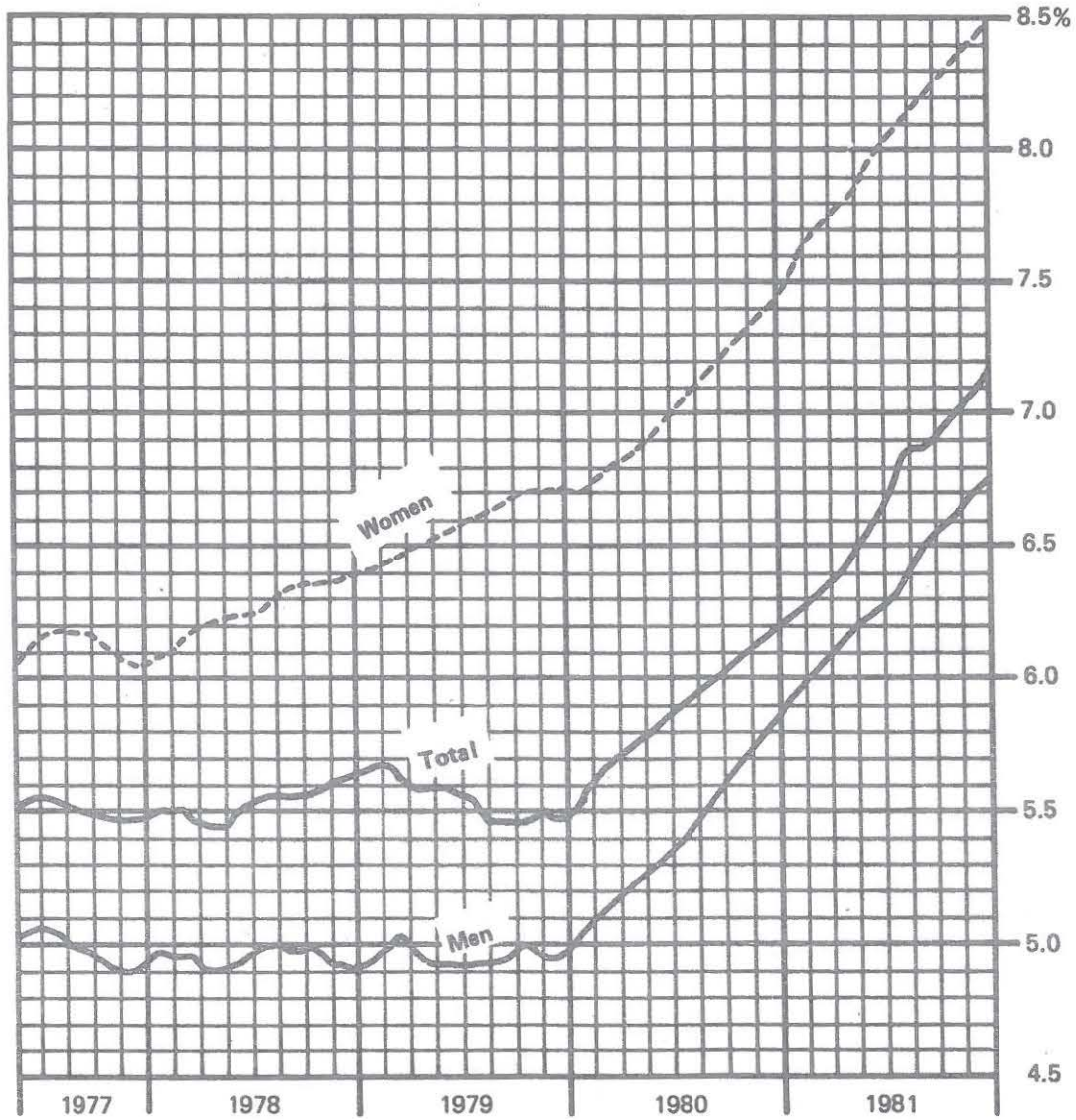
Based on data for a developed country.   See note to figure I.

B. Supplementary measures

98.   Entering the labour market and finding employment is a first step in the
process of acquiring a long-term position which is suitable in terms of
rewards and use of qualifications. A notable feature of the labour markets in
many countries at all stages of development is the segregation of men and
women in terms of the industries in which they work and the occupations they
hold. The earnings or income gap between men and women which has been noted
in many countries is, in large part, a result of this segregation. For
example, although there have been significant increases in the proportions of
women in some occupations in which women have not traditionally been found,
such as lawyer, judge and computer specialist, in the United States in recent
years, 68.5 per cent of employed women were still in traditionally female jobs
in 1978. This situation had not changed significantly since the 1950s. The
largest single occupational group among women was and is the clerical one,
which comprises typists, clerks and secretaries.

99.   Tabulations of detailed occupation categories by sex are needed in order
to monitor the extent to which sex segregation in jobs and industries exists
and is increasing or decreasing. Tabulations in broad categories are not
particularly useful here because broad categories conceal the segregation
which occurs among specific occupations. For example the "professional and
technical" category in the United States includes the predominantly female
occupations of nurse, librarian and elementary school teacher, as well as the
predominantly male occupations of lawyer, accountant and computer specialist.
Table 10 illustrates formats for describing occupational concentration and
segregation in countries which have detailed information on occupation and
industry by sex.

A. Total civilian employment and employment by industry and sex		March 1972	March 1978
Total employment	Total	4 630 400	4 930 900
	Males	66%	63%
	Females	34%	37%
Mining	Total	75 100	77 100
	Males	93%	92%
	Females	7%	8%
Manufacturing	Total	1 303 300	1 164 400
	Males	73%	75%
	Females	27%	25%
Electricity, gas and water	Total	99 700	105 000
	Males	91%	91%
	Females	9%	9%
Construction	Total	396 400	359 100
	Males	95%	94%
	Females	5%	6%
Wholesale and retail	Total	916 300	983 100
	Males	59%	58%
	Females	41%	42%
Transport and storage	Total	257 000	271 900
	Males	87%	86%
	Females	13%	14%
Communication	Total	116 300	125 600
	Males	77%	76%
	Females	23%	24%
Finance and insurance	Total	374 300	413 500
	Males	54%	48%
	Females	46%	52%
Public administration and defense	Total	193 700	249 600
	Males	68%	62%
	Females	32%	38%
Community services	Total	629 400	873 300
	Males	39%	37%
	Females	61%	63%
Entertainment and recreation	Total	253 600	292 000
	Males	40%	42%
	Females	60%	58%

(continued)

Table 10   (continued)

B.   Women as a percentage of total employment, by major occupation group

	1970	1960
Total employed	37.7	33.3
Professional and technical workers	38.6	36.2
Managers and administrators (except farm)	15.9	15.6
Sales workers	43.1	39.8
Clerical workers	74.6	67.8
Craft and kindred workers	3.3	2.6
Operatives	30.9	27.9
Non-farm labourers	3.7	2.3
Private household workers	97.4	98.5
Other service workers	60.2	53.5
Farmers and farm managers	4.6	3.9
Farm labourers and supervisors	32.4	35.3

C.   Women in selected professional and technical occupations

Occupation	Total employment	Women as percentage of total
Total professional and technical	14 245	42.7
Accountants	975	30.1
Computer specialists	428	23.1
Industrial engineers	206	8.7
Lawyers and judges	499	9.4
Librarians	187	84.5
Life and physical scientists	273	17.9
Physicians	424	11.3
Registered nurses	1 112	96.7
Elementary teachers	1 304	84.0
Secondary teachers	1 154	51.6
Surveyors	82	2.4
Airplane pilots	69	1.4

100. In addition to the above indicators, census and survey data for most developed countries and many developing countries permit construction of an "index of occupational segregation". The level of occupational detail depends on the data systems of the individual countries. The International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) at the minor-group level, consisting of 84 categories, shown in annex III below, is one basis for such an analysis, but the more detailed breakdowns available in many countries are more desirable.

101. The segregation index to be used might be a simple index of dissimilarity, which is easy to compute and to interpret. 44/ The index is the sum of the differences between the percentages of the male and female labour force in each occupational class divided by two. This procedure involves calculating the differences between the percentages of men and women in corresponding occupation categories. The differences are then summed without regard to sign and divided by two. The general formula is as follows:

$$\text{Segregation (dissimilarity) index} = \frac{1}{2} \sum m_{iy} - f_{iy}$$

where

m_{iy} = percentage of the male labour force in occupation "i" in year "y", and

f_{iy} = percentage of the female labour force in occupation "i" in year "y".

The index has a value between 0 and 100, with zero representing complete integration and 100 representing complete segregation. The index number indicates the percentage of men or women who would have to change their jobs in order for the occupational distribution of men and women to be the same. It does not imply that they should be the same - merely how different the distributions are.

102. Although the index is simple, it has some disadvantages - notably that it does not take account of the relative size of each category. The magnitude of the index is affected by the number of occupational categories in the distribution and the relative size of each, as well as by the size of the differences in the proportions of men and women in each category. Hence, comparisons over time and among nations or subgroups must be based on similar occupational classification schemes. With respect to the occupational segregation of men and women in a given country, for example, the index value depends on both the occupation distributions and the proportions of men and women in each occupational category. A change in either the relative size of the occupations or the sex composition of individual occupations will produce a change in the index. An alternative index has been proposed which weighs the differences from unity according to the proportion of the total labour force in each category. 45/ This latter measure is not recommended here because, although it has been calculated for several countries, it too has some disadvantages. In particular, it is affected by the number of categories. It needs further experimental work and also requires more statistical sophistication than the simple index of dissimilarity but may prove to be a useful future modification of this index.

103. For a number of developed countries, still another index might be used. That is a comparison of men and women in the labour force according to an occupational status score. Since the 1960s a considerable body of work has developed in Canada, the United States of America and the United Kingdom, among others, which assigns status scores to detailed occupations reported in the census. 46/

104. Several additional indicators might be suggested - for example, the average length of working life. Many nations now calculate the expectation of life at birth on the basis of statistics from reliable birth and death registration systems or from estimates of age-specific death rates derived from incomplete data. Social indicators in other areas, notably education and labour force, may be derived from time-series of the expectation of life at birth. 47/ Survival rates may be used to study changes in employment activities over the life span in those countries with good estimates of expectation of life. One may, for example, estimate the expectation at birth of years of economic activity for comparison with expected years of life. In the calculation for one country in which males have a life expectancy of 68.5 years, 45.1 years was found to be the expected length of economic activity, suggesting 23.4 years of economic dependency on average.

105. As noted in Towards a System of Social and Demographic Statistics, "The average length of working life indicates the time spent in working out of a conventionally defined working span which is often taken as the 50 years from 15 to 64." 48/ Average expected years of working life is a useful measure of employment patterns, as well as of earnings opportunities and security. It may be a less useful indicator for women in many countries where women enter and leave the labour force many times during their working life. These flows in and out of the labour force may be monitored by series on labour-force entrants and leavers in those countries where such data are available. 49/

106. The available statistics on women in agriculture also need to be elaborated in terms of women's access to land, information and services and their participation in those activities which contribute to improving their situation. A paper prepared by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) suggests that administrative records might be used by developing countries to describe the role of women in agriculture. 50/ For example, data usually available in the archives of ministries of agriculture might be used to obtain a sex ratio of agricultural-extension workers, and the percentage of women in rural co-operatives may be obtained from data usually available in ministries of co-operatives. These are indicators which might be of value and of use to individual countries which have such data, but the fact that such data are rarely available in published form suggests that they may not be readily accessible in many countries. In any event, any of several combinations of the indicators described above should provide a reasonable picture of how men and women function in the labour markets of individual countries.

VIII. HEALTH, HEALTH SERVICES AND NUTRITION

7. As noted in the United Nations progress report on national and
ternational work on social indicators, "Measures of life expectancy and
fant mortality are among the most widely used of all social indicators of
ving conditions because of their very wide availability and international
mparability relative to most other indicators and their universally acepted
levance to levels of living". 51/ Even where there are weaknesses in the
sic data, it is sometimes possible to make reasonably accurate estimates.
wever, although such estimates may be quite adequate for describing trends
d patterns, they may not be satisfactory for analysing distributions and
fferentials within countries. Some of these issues are noted in section A
low; illustrative indicators are discussed in section B.

A. Statistics of mortality and morbidity

8. Crude death rates are frequently the only mortality statistics available
d hence are often used as indicators of national health. Yet it is widely
own that they reflect the fertility level and the age structure of a nation
 a much greater extent than its health level. As a result, a "healthy"
untry such as Sweden, with a high life expectancy and resulting large
derly population, may well have a relatively high crude mortality rate. Yet
ose countries which have relatively accurate reporting systems by age and
x (even if only in urban areas) might find it useful to develop indicators
sed on these data. A ratio of female to male death rates, particularly at
e youngest ages, might suggest differential care and treatment of boy and
rl infants and young children, for example. Such indicators require careful
aluation of the sources of data from which they have been derived.

9. Some nations rely on censuses and surveys for mortality data. Estimates
om these sources should be prepared with great care because of response
rors in censuses and surveys, coverage problems and the like. In survey
rk, mortality is a comparatively rare event and even if respondents reported
 accurately, a very large sample would be required to pick up a significant
mber of events. Direct survey data on infant mortality may also be
estionable because such data require accurate information on the timing of
tal events, which may be difficult to obtain in survey interviews in many
veloping countries.

0. Because life expectancy is based on age-specific mortality data, the use
 such an indicator should be limited to nations having good reporting
stems. Estimates derived from models are valuable for making informed
dgements about general conditions and patterns but less useful for
mparative analyses of differential mortality by sex since most models employ
x-linked assumptions.

1. Data for indicators of morbidity, including impairments and disabilities,
e even less readily available than are mortality data. Some administrative
porting systems provide statistics on communicable and infectious diseases,
d there may be fragmentary evidence for other illnesses. These are usually
t comprehensive nor organized enough to use as a basis for social

indicators. Many countries are using household surveys to collect health and nutrition statistics. Some are also collecting data on hospital use and physician visits, though the adequacy of any of these as basic data for social indicators is questionable. Each country must evaluate its own sources carefully.

112. Several international agencies are also working to improve statistics on health and nutrition. FAO periodically prepares the World Food Survey, which assesses the world food situation and provides indicators of levels and patterns of food consumption and estimates of the number of the undernourished. However, nutrition data are rarely available by sex or age. The World Health Organization (WHO) has provided health measurement methods, including growth charts, for developing countries. WHO has also undertaken a study of indicators which might be used to monitor and evaluate the Global Strategy for Health for All by the Year 2000 at national and regional, as well as global, levels. 52/ Continuing improvements and simplification of methods and the increasing use of household surveys should make for more and better data for indicators for these areas in the 1980s than in the past.

B. Illustrative indicators

113. In spite of the shortcomings noted above many nations may develop one or more of the following suggested indicators based on existing data:

    (a) Ratio of infant mortality per 1,000 female births to infant mortality per 1,000 male births;

    (b) Ratio of the mortality rate of female children 1-4 years old to the mortality rate of male children 1-4 years old;

    (c) Female life expectancy at birth compared to male life expectancy at birth;

    (d) Maternal mortality rate;

    (e) Percentage of live births under 2500 grams;

    (f) Percentage of pregnancies delivered by trained personnel;

    (g) Tabulation of weight for age for male and female children up to 5 years. Index of relative "normalcy";

    (h) Per capita consumption of calories and/or animal protein per day by sex for countries having such estimates by sex;

    (i) Relative proportions of men and women who have been immunized against specific diseases (diphtheria, tetanus, whooping cough, measles, poliomyelitis and tuberculosis);

    (j) Percentages of available staffed beds in medical establishments used by men and women during the year for illnesses other than pregnancy and delivery;

(k) Proportion of men and women suffering from defined disabilities;

(l) Average number of days of incapacity in the year for men and women;

(m) Proportion of men and women visiting different types of health and medical practitioners or health services.

114.   The indicators presented in the previous sections meet all of the following criteria:

(a)   They are conceptually significant for understanding in general the situation of women relative to men in countries;

(b)   They are comparable in that at least some of them are used in practice in the same way and measure approximately the same things in different parts of each country;

(c)   They are valid in that they measure what they propose to and not other related conditions;

(d)   A relatively accurate and reliable data base is available in a sufficiently large number of countries to make them useful for indicator work in many countries.

In addition, although not without problems, as detailed in each of the chapters above, they are generally useable for both within-nation and cross-cultural comparisons.

115.   A review of published statistical series for the 1970s suggests that a number of other indicators relevant to the situation of women might be constructed from existing data in many countries.   The existing data sets do not meet all the above criteria, however.   They are not comparable for a large number of countries and they may not be reliable in a large number of countries or be as conceptually significant as labour force, education and family and household statistics.   Areas for which international statistics are deficient or are not issued regularly but which provide useful indicators when available at the national level include income and earnings, political participation and individual freedom, and urbanization and migration. Specific indicators in these areas are described in this chapter, but they have not all been incorporated into annex I.

A.   Income and income distribution

116.   Although there is a great deal of interest in statistics on income in nearly every nation, there is not an adequate conceptual or empirical basis for making international comparisons of income distribution. 53/   As one analysis has concluded:

The state of income distribution statistics does not justify at the present time the issuance of tables presenting comparative ratings of countries by overall indices of equality/inequality and giving the impression of defining an international order of merit...

There is more justification for cross temporal comparisons within individual countries; but whether there is enough justification can be debated. 54/

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117. Earnings data suffer many of the same shortcomings as income data, but at least in those countries with reasonably complete statistical systems, earnings may be used to make comparisons over time within nations. There is an increasing demand for such comparisons.

118. Many nations have ratified International Labour Organisation Convention 100 (1951), designed to guarantee equal pay for equal work. Many have also passed equal pay laws. Hence, there is interest in monitoring the pay differentials between men and women and among various socio-economic groups of interest to individual nations. Wherever such comparisons have been made, there have been considerable differences in the average pay of men and women. 55/ Reasonably comparable data on earnings for full-time workers in 17 countries show the earnings of women to be between 55 and 85 per cent of men's earnings. 56/ It is suggested here that this indicator should continue to be used in those countries where it is appropriate and that research should continue on methods to incorporate part-time workers, all sectors of the economy, and workers in small-size establishments which are now excluded from pay statistics. Age and occupational structure must also be incorporated into any indicator of equal pay. The objective is to determine what men and women are doing in each nation and what the economic return is for their activity.

119. In addition to earnings differences by sex, other measures of inequality by sex in the labour force include a measure of coverage by social security schemes, coverage by national or private insurance schemes, and availability of paid maternity and other leaves; and for those women who are not in the labour force, sources of income available other than earnings, that is, social assistance, pensions, rents, interests, benefits and so forth. Hence, although the majority of countries may not have such data, the following indicators are suggested for those countries which do or those which are considering the collection of income and earning statistics:

(a) Average earnings of female full-time paid workers as a percentage of the earnings of full-time paid male workers (by industry and occupation, where possible);

(b) Proportion of economically active women covered by social security schemes compared to the proportion of men;

(c) Proportion of employed women covered by national or private insurance schemes compared to employed men;

(d) Proportion of employed women entitled to paid annual leave compared to employed men;

(e) Proportion of employed women covered by paid maternity leave;

(f) Ratio of the proportion of men and women in receipt of social assistance benefits.

120. It is especially important to monitor trends over time in this area. A graphic presentation is suggested as one way of doing so.

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B.   Rural-urban residence and migration

121.   The movement from rural to urban areas and the consequences of urbanization are an area of social life about which there has been considerable concern.   The trend with respect to rural to urban migration also affects the situation of women whether they are the ones left behind in rural areas while men move to urban centres or, as in some countries, where they move to urban centres themselves. 57/   The migration of women to urban areas in Latin America has been well documented, but this phenomenon appears to be common to many other areas in the world as well.   Somewhat similar patterns may be found in places as diverse as the Ivory Coast, Ethiopia, Peru and Brazil. 58/

122.   Migrant women are a particularly disadvantaged group since they often have relatively little education or job experience to enable them to support themselves in a new urban situation and, as women, face relatively poorer prospects for regular employment.   When they work, it is often on the periphery of the economy in such activities as domestic service or prostitution or in unskilled jobs with little opportunity for advancement. They must also learn new forms of behaviour and social organization appropriate to urban rather than rural life.   Because of this, it is important to have indicators which point to the extent to which women are concentrated in urban areas and which describe something of the conditions of their life there.

123.   Thus, in any given society it is useful to know, for example, the proportion of women in urban areas compared to men, the age groups that are concentrated in the urban areas, the extent to which women migrants are accompanied by husbands and children, what parts of the economy they function in, and the extent to which they are the sole support of their families. Indicators which can tell us about these aspects of social life and which might be derived from census and other official data include the following:

        (a) The percentage of men and women residing in urban areas and perhaps a sex ratio of the urban population age 15 to 49;

        (b) The marital status and fertility of female migrants to urban areas compared to male migrants and to resident women and men;

        (c) Types of employment taken by residents in urban areas and by male and female migrants in urban areas;

        (d) The level of education of long-term resident women and men and of migrant women and men;

        (e) The proportion of female-headed households among migrant women compared to long-term resident women.

124.   In this area, the availability of data from population censuses is quite limited.   Many countries do not collect any data on migration in their censuses; others have data on place of birth and place of current residence but not residence at some previous but recent (such as five years) time.

Also, the data which are available are not disaggregated by age, sex or marital status as required by the above measures. Nor is it possible to tell whether women migrated on their own or because they were accompanying husbands and families. Marriage or divorce may have occured after migration, for example. Some authors have suggested the possibility of estimating migration in urban and rural areas by comparing actual and expected sex ratios by age and sex. 59/ This may be possible for those countries with reliable and accurate data by age, sex and residence at two points in time, but many countries do not have such data. For those countries with the requisite data, the following indices are also suggested:

(a) Residence in urban area by sex and sex ratio (number of men per 100 women) of persons 15-49 years old;

(b) Crude internal migration rate. In those countries where migrants are identified by age, sex and geographical area and can be cross-classified by urban and rural residence at point of origin and destination, crude internal migration rates by sex for major regions or cities will suggest the extent and direction of mobility in the population as a whole and among males and females. It is important to note, however, that relatively few countries have such information. A discussion of such data and the methods and models for estimating net migration appears in Towards a System of Social and Demographic Statistics;

(c) Indicators of employment (by sex), education (by sex), household type, among various types of migrants and longer-term residents in urban areas may be derived from a micro-data set developed from censuses in those countries where the census includes the key questions on migration and residence.

125. As noted above, only limited data concerning migration are available in most countries, usually in censuses or surveys, although some countries use other sources of data to estimate migration. Each country must therefore use whatever sources yield the best measures. Also, each country must pay particular attention to the types of migrants of most significance to its own situation. For many countries, these will be rural to urban migrants. For some, however, they will be rural to rural, urban to urban or international migrants. Each type of move presents its own unique set of problems for women, as it does for men. The objective is to compare the net gains and losses among men and women and to determine the policy implications of whatever differences exist.

C. Legal rights and political power

126. Many nations have legal and/or constitutional guarantees of equality of the sexes. These include a variety of national measures designed to ensure the participation and influence of women in the social, economic and political life of the nation. A variety of indicators of the situation of women may be derived from the administrative records surrounding universal suffrage and voting regulations, political party registration and legal guarantees of equal rights. In those countries which maintain accurate and reliable voter registration statistics, election surveys and/or party records, one or more of the following indicators may be developed: 60/

    (a)   Proportion of registered voters who are women;

    (b)   Percentage of registered voters who voted in the last election, by sex and a ratio of female to male voters;

    (c)   Female office holders or active participants in major political parties compared to men;

    (d)   Proportion of all candidates for national office who were women in last election;

    (e)   Proportion of women in (national, regional, local) parliamentary bodies;

    (f)   Proportion of chief executive officers of major government agencies who are women.

127.   Several other indices of social and political participation have been proposed. 61/ However, although a considerable amount of work is being done in these fields, relatively few indicators are widely available and usually only for developed countries.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

8. The indicators presented in the previous sections should help to measure
e unequal distribution of resources between men and women, as well as the
versity in the situation of women. To the extent that individual nations
velop and regularly publish some of the indicators most appropriate to their
n situations, they will be better able to describe accurately the status of
men in significant areas of social life and to monitor changes in those
atuses. It will also be possible to evaluate the progress which has been
de within nations and to compare nations around the world.

9. Improvement in the situation of women is closely linked to other
cietal goals and objectives, notably those aimed at reducing poverty and
tisfying the basic needs of all groups within the society. In fact,
provement in the situation of women may be the most basic way to improve the
erall level of living in a society. It has been suggested that in India,
r example, "an effective means of achieving a better income distribution
es in increasing women's share of employment in traditional and modern
cupations and enforcing existent wage laws. This will automatically raise
e disposable incomes of the poorer deciles of the population." 62/

0. It is suggested that any national statistical office or other
ganization seeking to prepare indicators on the situation of women should:

   (a) Include indicators which both reflect the status of women and
dicate the situation of women relative to that of men;

   (b) Avoid composite indices of women's status except in very special
rcumstances;

   (c) Disaggregate, where possible, by significant socio-economic groups
d by rural and urban residence. Although this may be difficult with
ailable data, it is essential for most analysis and planning. Official
nsus, survey and registration data may need to be supplemented by case
udies of particular groups or areas.

1. In addition to the above methodological suggestions, it is further
iggested that any limited list of principal indicators should include:

   (a) Some which focus on economic participation, such as employment in
ie modern sector, wage earners as a proportion of the total, and occupational
gregation;

   (b) Some measures of literacy and educational attainment;

   (c) Some indicators of position within the family or household.

:her indicators will vary and reflect particular country needs and interests,
ita availability and the uses to be made of indicators on the situation of
men.

132. Women, who comprise half the population, can and do make enormous contributions to development in all nations. Without adequate statistical description, their current contributions remain invisible and the barriers to promoting their future contributions to the development process remain hidden. The present document suggests ways to use data from existing statistical systems to describe the situation of women relative to that of men in major areas of social life. The Expert Group on Improving Statistics and Indicators on the Situation of Women, which discussed this report at its April 1983 meeting, made several recommendations for follow-up activities. These recommendations covered such issues as ways to link data analysis to priorities on women's needs at the national level, needed methodological research, ways of enhancing national data collection and compilation activities and needs for related technical co-operation. 63/ Among its priorities for follow-up, the Meeting recommended that the Statistical Office of the United Nations Secretariat and the United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women should work with national users and producers of statistics and appropriate international groups to:

(a) Develop national and regional workshops which would identify and establish priorities for the selection of indicators in terms of women's needs in specific countries. These workshops could also train users and producers of data in the analysis of sex differentials in key areas of concern;

(b) Promote the development of new or improved concepts and methods for use in future national data collection activities through research, testing and exchange of information;

(c) Develop training materials and technical documentation needed for the workshops and for national statisticians and others interested in developing better statistics and indicators on the situation of women;

(d) Encourage ongoing national data collection activities, such as censuses and surveys, to take full account of the needs for data on the situation of women;

(e) Promote interaction between national and international specialists on a regular basis;

(f) Promote the exploitation of existing data archives with a view towards developing new tabulations of existing data.

133. The recommendations of the Expert Group are clearly an ambitious mandate. Nevertheless, they represent the necessary steps needed to realize a flow of relevant, timely and reliable data required by national policy makers and members of the general public in each country to assess the situation of women. Obviously, the existence of appropriate statistics and indicators on the situation of women does not guarantee an end to laws, policies or practices that work to the disadvantage of women. However, the availability of such statistics and indicators, by quantifying both the special disadvantages women face relative to men and the progress made towards equality, can stimulate policies and programmes and change public perceptions. The present document, which focuses on making the fullest possible use of currently available data in each country, is designed to assist national users and producers of statistics to begin the process in a sound and effective manner.

Notes

1/ This work is reviewed in the following: "Progress report on
ational and international work on social indicators and on related concepts
nd classifications for general use" (E/CN.3/1983/18), "Progress report on
ational and international work on social indicators" (ST/ESA/STAT/102) and
ocial Indicators: Preliminary Guidelines and Illustrative Series,
tatistical Papers, Series M, No. 63 (United Nations publication, Sales No.
.78.XVII.8).

2/ See the progress reports and preliminary guidelines on social
ndicators cited in note 1. See also Studies in the Integration of Social
tatistics: Technical Report, Series F, No. 24 (United Nations publication,
ales No. E.79.XVII.4) and Towards a System of Social and Demographic
tatistics, Series F, No. 18 (United Nations publication, Sales No.
.74.XVII.8).

3/ For more extensive discussion of the definition and use of social
ndicators, see the United Nations progress reports and preliminary guidelines
n social indicators cited in note 1 and Improving Social Statistics in
eveloping Countries: Conceptual Framework and Methods, Series F, No. 25
United Nations publication, Sales No. E.79.XVII.12), sect. XII.C. See also
enneth C. Land, "On the definition of social indicators", The American
ociologist, November 1971, pp. 322-325, K.C. Land, "Social indicators: past
evelopments and prospects for the future", IHS - Journal Vol. 6 (1982), pp.
93-220, Wolfgang Glatzer, "International actors in social indicators
esearch", Social Indicators Newsletter (Washington, D.C., August 1981) and
olfgang Glatzer, "Actors and approaches in social indicators research", paper
repared for the Tenth World Congress of Sociology (Mexico City, August 1982).

4/ For more detailed discussion, see the United Nations progress
eports, preliminary guidelines cited in note 1 and Studies in the Integration
f Social Statistics.... Also see D. McGranahan, E. Pizarro and Claude
ichard, Methodological Problems in Selection and Analysis of Socio-economic
evelopment Indicators, Report No. 79.4 (Geneva, United Nations Research
nstitute for Social Development, 1979), The OECD List of Social Indicators
Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1982) and
latzer, loc.cit. and op.cit.

5/ Report of the World Conference of the International Women's Year
United Nations publication, Sales No. E.76.IV.1), part one, chap. II,
ara. 161.

6/ Report of the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for
omen: Equality, Development and Peace (United Nations publication, Sales No.
.80.IV.3 and corrigendum), chap. I, Sect. A, paras. 92 and 95.

7/ "Report of the Board of Trustees of the International Research and
raining Institute for the Advancement of Women on its second session"
E/1982/11), para. 47 and annex, para. 25.

8/ See for example the Plan of Action for the Integration of Women in Development adopted for the region of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (Report of the World Conference of the International Women's Year...., sect. F), the Plan of Action for the Integration of Women in Development adoptef for the region of the Economic Commission for Africa (Ibid., sect. G) and the Plan of Action for the Integration of Women in Development adopted for the region of the Economic Commission for Western Asia (E/ECWA/69/Add.1, para. 57).

9/ See "Progress report on the development of statistics and indicators on the situation of women" (E/CN.6/1982/7).

10/ Since the early 1970s, it has generally been acknowledged that women in developing countries frequently do not benefit and may even lose as a result of development programmes. See, for example, Ester Boserup, Women's Role in Economic Development (London, Allen and Unwin, 1970) and Helen Ware, Women, Demography and Development (Canberra, Australian National University, 1981).

11/ Mayra Buvinic, "Introduction", Women and Development: Indicators of Their Changing Role, Socio-economic Studies 3 (Paris, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1981) and Catalina H. Wainerman and Zulma Recchini de Lattes, El Trabajo Femenino en el Banquillo de los Acusados (Mexico, D.F., Oficina Regional, Population Council, 1981).

12/ Directory of International Statistics (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.75.XVII.11) and Directory of International Statistics, Vol. I (1981) (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.81.XVII.6).

13/ "Progress report on the development of statistics and indicators on the situation of women" (E/CN.6/1982/7).

14/ For a review of data sources for national social indicators publications, see "Progress report on national and international work on social indicators" (ST/ESA/STAT/102), paras. 11-16. Information on household surveys specifically concerned with levels of living is contained in para. 13 of that report.

15/ For detailed specification of the items which have been recommended for the 1980 round of agricultural censuses, see Programme for the 1980 World Census of Agriculture (Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1976). For technical analysis of agricultural censuses and related collection programmes as sources of statistics on the agricultural population, see Collecting Statistics on Agricultural Population and Employment, Economic and Social Development Paper No. 7 (Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1978).

16/ Research using both survey and case study approaches is currently under way at the International Labour Organisation. See C. Oppong, "A synopsis of seven roles and status of women: an outline of a conceptual and methodological approach", World Employment Programme, Population and Labour Policies Working Paper No. 94 (1980) and C. Oppong and K. Church, "A field

guide to research on seven roles of women: focused bibliographies", World Employment Programme, Population and Labour Policies Working Paper No. 106 (1981). For a discussion of the survey approach, see R. Anker, "Research on women's roles and demographic changes: survey questionnaires for households, women, men and communities, with background explanations", World Employment Programme, Population Research and Labour Policies Working Document, 1980 and R. Anker, "Demographic change and the role of women: a research programme in developing countries", Population and Employment Working Paper No. 69 (1981).

17/ See, for example, Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.80.XVII.8) table 2, the Handbook of Household Surveys (revised edition), Series F, No. 31 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.83.XVII.13), Methodology and Evaluation of Population Registers and Similar Systems, Series F, No. 15 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.69.XVII.15); Principles and Recommendations for a Vital Statistics System, Series M, No. 19(Rev. 1)(United Nations publication, Sales No. E.73.XVII.9) and Methodology of Demographic Sample Surveys, Series M, No. 51 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XVII.11). A comprehensive guide to international statistical standards and methodological publications is available in Directory of International Statistics (1975)...(to be updated in vol. II of the 1981 edition, in preparation). Much of this material in the socio-economic fields is summarized in Studies in the Integration of Social Statistics....annex I, and an up-to-date bibliography is available in the revised Handbook of Household Surveys....

18/ "Sex-based stereotypes, sex biases and national data systems" (ST/ESA/STAT/99).

19/ Ibid. See also Nancy Baster, The Measurement of Women's Participation in Development: The Use of Census Data, DP 1591 (Brighton, England, Institute of Development Studies, 1981), Ingrid Palmer and Ulrike von Buchwald, Monitoring Changes in the Conditions of Women - A Critical Review of Possible Approaches, Report No. 80.1 (Geneva, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 1980) and Barbara Reagan, ed., Issues in Federal Statistical Needs Relating to Women, Current Population Reports, Series P 23, No. 83 (Washington, United States Bureau of the Census, 1979).

20/ The limitations of the labour-force concept and data are a case in point. Census data frequently do not permit the measurement of under-utilization of labour or include the participation of unpaid family labour in such subsistence activities as gathering firewood, small-scale trading and the like, all of which affect women. See, for example, Zulma Recchini de Lattes and Catalina H. Wainerman, "Data from censuses and household surveys for the analysis of female labour in Latin America and the Caribbean: appraisal of deficiencies and recommendations for dealing with them" (E/CEPAL/L.206).

21/ See, for example, Social Indicators: Preliminary Guidelines and Illustrative Series..., Research Data Bank of Development Indicators, vols. I-IV (Geneva, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 1976) and Ruth B. Dixon, "Development and sexual inequality: implications for population and human rights", Population and Human Rights, Proceedings of the Symposium on Population and Human Rights, Vienna, 29 June-3 July 1981 (ST/ESA/SER.R/51), part two.

22/ For further discussion of these issues, see Constantina Safilios-Rothschild, Women and Social Policy (Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, 1974), "Preparation of baseline studies on women in rural households" (Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1981) and The Feasibility of Welfare-Oriented Measures to Supplement the National Accounts and Balances: A Technical Report, Series F, No. 22 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.77.XVII.12).

23/ See Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, Sixty-second Session, Supplement No. 2 (E/5910), para 105.

24/ See Social Indicators: Preliminary Guidelines and Illustrative Series....

25/ See United Nations publication, Sales No. E.58.XIII.4, pp. 4 and 5. See also Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses and European Recommendations for the 1970 Population Censuses (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.69.II.E/Mim.17). See also Mary G. Powers and Thomas K. Burch, "The family in rural and urban settings", Patterns of Urban and Rural Population Growth, Population Studies, No. 68 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.79.XIII.9),chap. VII.

26/ For a summary and comparison of actual practices in this and other areas, see "National practices in the 1970 population censuses"(CES/AC.6/139).

27/ For a summary of some recent critical analyses of this perspective, see Mary G. Powers and Joan J. Holmberg, "Occupational status scores: changes introduced by the inclusion of women", Demography, vol. 15, No. 2 (May 1978), pp. 183-204 This perspective is also discussed in Myra Buvinic, Nadia Youssef and Barbara Von Elm, Women-Headed Households: The Ignored Factor in Development Planning (Washington, D.C., International Center for Research on Women).

28/ Recommendations for the 1980 Censuses of Population and Housing in the ECE Region (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.78.II.E.6), para. 99.

29/ A critical discussion of the adverse impact on women of assumptions underlying census concepts of household and household head appears in Muriel Nissel, "Women in government statistics: basic concepts and assumptions", paper prepared for a seminar on the British census of 1981 (London, Policy Studies Institute, 1980).

30/ See, for example, "Estimates and projections of the number of households by country, 1975-2000" (ESA/P/WP.73). See also Thomas K. Burch, "The index of overall headship: a simple measure of household complexity standardized by age and sex", Demography, vol. 17 (February 1980), pp.25-37.

31/ Detailed analyses of patterns and trends in headship rates by sex appear in The Determinants and Consequences of Population Trends (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.5), vol. I, chap. X, and Methods of Projecting Households and Families (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.73.XIII.2), Chaps. III and VI.

32/ It has been noted by Elise Boulding that "gender is associated with greater differences in time use than almost any other variable, and women work longer hours and sleep less (particularly if they are also employed outside the home)". ("Productivity and poverty: problems in measurement for third world women", paper prepared for the Conference on Women in Poverty: What Do We Know? (Washington, D.C., International Research Center on Women, May 1978)).

33/ Several of these are presented in "Sex-based stereotypes, sex biases and national data systems" (ST/ESA/STAT/99).

34/ Classification Concerning the Composition of Households: Proposals for the 1981 Census in the United Kingdom (London, Office of Population Censuses and Surveys, August 1977).

35/ S. Kupinsky, "Overview and policy implications", in S. Kupinsky, The Fertility of Working Women (New York, Praeger, 1977), pp. 376-377, Guy M. Standing, Labour Force Participation and Development (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1977), E. Haavio-Mannila, "Fertility and the economic activity of women in historical and cross-national perspective", Proceedings of the 1978 Helsinki Conference (Liège, International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1979) and Mary G. Powers and Joseph J. Salvo, "Fertility and child-care arrangements as mechanisms of status articulation", Journal of Marriage and the Family, vol. 44 (1982), pp. 21-34.

36/ Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses...., para. 2.76.

37/ The present document was drafted prior to the Thirteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) held at Geneva in October 1982. Some modifications to the paper have been introduced subsequent to the Conference to reflect its main conclusions and recommendations, but it has not been possible in the time available to take them fully into account. At the same time, it must be recognized that the conclusions and recommendations of the Conference will be fully assimilated into actual statistical practice at national and international levels only over the course of the next five to ten years. Hence the discussion here of compiling indicators from currently available statistics will still apply up to the time at which the new recommendations are implemented, which will vary from country to country.

38/ John D. Durand, The Labour Force in Economic Development (Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1975), Ester Boserup, op.cit. and Guy Standing, ed., Labour Force Participation and Development (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1978).

39/ Jette Bukh, "Women in subsistence production in Ghana", Women in Rural Development: Critical Issues (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1980). For an overview of research in this area, see Zubeida M. Ahmad and Martha F. Loutei, Programme on Rural Women (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1981). See also Constantina Safilios-Rothschild, "The persistence of women's invisibility in agriculture: theoretical and policy lessons from Lesotho and Sierra Leone", Policy Studies, Working Paper No. 88 (New York, The Population Council, 1980).

40/ An alternate measure of unemployment along this line has been suggested in "Measuring unemployment severity: an alternative approach", paper prepared for the ACC Task Force on Long-Term Development Objectives, Geneva, 24-26 February 1982. That paper suggests an alternative measure of unemployment which would remove unpaid family workers as well as employers and own-account workers from the base labour force at risk of unemployment. One indicator suggested in the present paper would simply remove the unpaid worker from the data base. The paper presented at the ACC Task Force meeting is currently being revised and will include more detail by age and sex and more than one alternate measure. It should provide useful future indicators.

41/ Labour Force 1950-2000: Estimates and Projections (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1977), vols. 1 - 6.

42/ See Womenpower: The World Labour Force in 1975 and the Outlook for 2000 (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1975), p. 4 and The Feasibility of Welfare-Oriented Measures....

43/ Information on eight such surveys is presented in "Progress report on the development of statistics of time-use" (E/CN.3/519). A more comprehensive report on this subject is in preparation.

44/ For more detailed discussion, see, United States of America, Bureau of the Census, Methods and Materials of Demography, (Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1971), vol. I, pp. 232-233, Francine D. Blau and Wallace E. Hendricks, "Occupational segregation by sex: trends and prospects", The Journal of Human Resources, No. 14 (Spring 1979), pp. 197-210 and Andrea Beller "Occupational segregation by sex: determinants and changes", The Journal of Human Resources, No. 17 (Summer 1982), pp. 371-92. A somewhat different approach is taken by Maryse Huet in "La concentration des emplois feminins", Economie et statistique, No. 154 (April 1983), pp.33-46.

45/ "Women in the Labour Market", in Women and Employment: Policies for Equal Opportunity (Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1980), pp. 21-72.

46/ See, for example, Charles B. Nam, Mary G. Powers and Paul C. Glick, "Socio-economic characteristics of the population:1960", Current Population Reports, Technical Studies, Series P-23, No. 12 (Washington, D.C., Bureau of the Census, Government Printing Office, 1964). For a review and evaluation of current work in this area in Canada and the United States of America, particularly as it relates to women, see Mary G. Powers, ed., Measures of Occupational Status: Current Issues (Boulder, Colorado, Westview Press, 1982).

47/ Towards a System of Social and Demographic Statistics..., paras. 5.37 - 5.42 and 15.15 - 15.16.

48/ Ibid., para. 18.82.

49/ Ibid., table 18.1 and para. 18.76.

50/ Safilios-Rothschild, op. cit.

51/ ST/ESA/STAT/102, para. 92.

52/ World Food Survey (Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, occasional). The World Health Organization has published Global Strategy for Health for All by the Year 2000 (Geneva, 1981), Development of Indicators for Monitoring Progress Towards Health for All by the Year 2000 (Geneva, 1981), Lay Reporting of Health Information (Geneva, 1978) and Classification of Impairments, Disabilities and Handicaps (Geneva, 1980).

53/ "Progress report on national and international work on social indicators", (ST/ESA/STAT/102), paras. 55 and 56.

54/ Donald McGranahan, International Comparability of Statistics on Income Distribution (Geneva, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 1979), p.45. Income is not included in Research Data Bank of Development Indicators, vol. I, because of noncomparable definitions.

55/ See The Economic Role of Women in the ECE Region (United Nations publication (Sales No. E.80.II.E.6), chap. I.

56/ Ibid., table IV.1, p.56. The countries include Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Federal Republic of, Hungary, Ireland, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Sweden, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and United States of America.

57/ Women in Migration: Third World Focus (Washington, D.C., International Center for Research on Women, 1979). This is one of the first studies to address the issue of women as autonomous migrants. One of the first studies of the impact of male migration from rural to urban areas on the women left behind is Esther Boserup, op.cit.

58/ Heather Joshi, Harold Lubell and Jean Mouly, Abidjan: Urban Development and Employment in the Ivory Coast (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1976), p. 77, Sv Sethuraman, Chicata Urban Development and Employment (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1976) and Kalman Scharfer, Sao Paulo: Urban Development and Employment (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1976).

59/ Women in Migration....

60/ See Joycelin Massiah, "Participation of women in socio-economic development: indicators as tools for development planning - The case of the Commonwealth Caribbean", Women and Development..., pp. 71-100.

61/ Charles Lewis Taylor and David A. Jodice, World Handbook of Political and Social Indicators, third edition, vol. 1, Cross-National Attributes and Rates of Change (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1983) and C. L. Taylor and M. C. Husdon, World Handbook of Political and Social Indicators, second edition (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1972).

62/ Asok Mitra, "Participation of women in socio-economic development: indicators as tools for development planning - The case of India", <u>Women and Development</u>..., p.51.

63/ The report of the meeting has been issued as a United Nations document (ESA/STAT/AC.17/9). For further and more detailed information about the meeting's recommendations for further work, see paras. 75-86 of that document.

Illustrative examples of social indicators on the situation of women
for different types of countries a/

A least developed country	A developing country	A developed country

A. Population

A. Size, structure and changes in population

1. Size of the population (bench-mark and annual estimates); by sex
Total and percentage under age 15: by sex

2.

3. Number of deaths and rate in the total population (annual estimate): by sex

3. Geographical distribution of population and changes in distribution

1. Number and percentage of the population by sex (infrequently):
Urban, rural and total
Large places
Geographical areas

Size of the population (annually): by sex
Total and percentage under age 15: by sex

Selected national or ethnic groups as percentages of the total population: by sex (infrequently)

Number of deaths and rate in the total population (annual estimate): by sex

Number and percentage of the population by sex (annually or less frequently):
Urban, rural and total
Large places
Geographical areas

Size of the population (annually): by sex
Total and percentage under age 15 and ages 15-44; 45-64; and 65 and over: by sex

Selected national or ethnic groups as percentages of the total population: by sex (infrequently)

Number of deaths and rate in the total population (annual estimate): by sex

Number, percentage and density of the population (annually or less frequently):
Urban, rural and total
Size and type of place
Geographical areas

(continued)

A least developed country	A developing country	A developed country
	A. Population (continued)	
2. Number and rate of net change of population (infrequent estimates): by sex Urban, rural and total Large places Geographical areas	Number and rate of net change of population (annual or less frequent estimates): by sex Urban, rural and total Large places Geographical areas	Number and rate of net change of population (annual estimates): by sex Urban, rural and total Size and type of place Geographical areas
3.	Number and rate of net internal migration of population: by sex (infrequent estimates): Between rural and urban areas Into large places Out of or into selected geographical areas	Number and rate of net internal migration of population (infrequent estimates): by sex Between rural and urban areas Into large places Out of or into selected geographical areas
	B. Family formation, families and households	
A. Family formation and stability		
1.	Average age at first marriage (infrequent estimates): Male, female Urban, rural and total	Average age at first marriage (infrequently): Male, female Urban, rural and total
2.	Proportion of the population ever married, selected ages and by sex Urban, rural and total	Proportion of the population ever married, selected ages and by sex Urban, rural and total
3.	Percentage of the population living alone (infrequently): Male, female Urban only	Percentage of the population living alone (infrequently): Male, female Urban, rural

A least developed country	A developing country	A developed country

B. **Family formation, families and households** (continued)

4. Household type (number and percentage)	Household type (number and percentages)	Household type (number and percentage)
5. Percentage of female headed households	Percentage of female headed households	Percentage of female headed households

C. **Learning and the educational services**

A. Educational attainments

1. Percentage of illiterates (infrequently): Male, female Ages 15+, 15-24, Urban and rural	Percentage of illiterates (infrequently): Male, female Ages 15+, 15-24 Urban, rural Geographic areas	Percentage of illiterates (infrequently): Male, female Ages 15+, 15-24 Urban, rural Geographical areas
2. Median years of school completed (infrequently): Male, female Ages 15-24, 25 and over Urban, rural	Median years of school completed (infrequently): Male, female Ages 15-24, 25 and over Urban, rural Selected national or ethnic groups	Median years of school completed (infrequently): Male, female Ages 20-24, 25 and over Urban, rural Selected national or ethnic groups
3. Proportion who have attained specified levels of school (infrequently): First level, second level Male, female Ages 15-24, 25 and over Urban, rural and total	Proportion who have attained specified levels of school (infrequently): First level, second level, third level Ages 15-24, 25 and over Urban, rural and total Geographical areas	Proportion who have attained specified levels of school (infrequently): First level, second level, third level Ages 20-24, 25 and over Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

(continued)

A least developed country	A developing country	A developed country

C. Learning and the educational services (continued)

B. Use and distribution of educational services

1. Proportion of population enrolled in regular education (annually or annual estimates):
Male, female
Ages 5-9, 10-14, 15-19
Urban, rural and total

2. Proportion of enrollees who successfully complete their year (annually or less frequently): by sex
Urban, rural and total
(First level only)

3.

4.

5. Percentage of teachers who are women, first level

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1. Proportion of population enrolled in regular education (annually or annual estimates):
Male, female
Ages 5-9, 10-14, 15-19, 20-24
Urban, rural and total

2. Proportion of enrollees who successfully complete their year (annually or less frequently): by sex
Urban, rural and total
First level, second level

3. Proportions of population enrolled in adult education (infrequently):
Male, female
Urban, rural and total
Ages 15-19, 20-24, 25+

4. Proportions of population participating in non-formal adult education, age 15+ (infrequently):
Male, female
Urban, rural

5. Percentage of teachers who are women, first level, second level

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1. Proportion of population enrolled in regular education (annually or annual estimates):
Male, female
Ages 5-9, 10-14, 15-19, 20-24, 25-29
Urban, rural and total

2. Proportion of enrollees who successfully complete their year (annually or less frequently): by sex
Urban, rural and total
First level, second level, third level

3. Proportions of population enrolled in adult education (annually):
Male, female
Urban, rural and total
Ages 15-19, 20-24, 25+

4. Proportions of population participating in non-formal adult education, age 15+ (infrequently):
Male, female
Urban, rural

5. Percentage of teachers who are women, first level, second level, third level

(continued)

D.   Earning activities and the inactive

A. Labour-force participation

1. Rates of labour-force participation (annually or less frequently):
Male, female
Ages 15-19, 20+
Urban, rural and total

Rates of labour-force participation (annually or less frequently):
Male, female
Ages 15-19, 20-24, 25+
Urban, rural and total

Rates of labour-force participation (annually):
Male, female
Ages 15-19, 20-24, 25-59, 60-64
Urban, rural and total

2. Proportion of labour-force who are in the paid labor force (infrequent estimates):
Male, female

Proportion of labour-force who are in the paid labor force (annual or less frequent estimates):
Male, female
Selected age groups

Proportion of labour force who are in the paid labor force (annual or less frequent estimates):
Male, female
Selected age groups

B. Employment opportunities and mobility

1. Proportion of labour-force unemployed, specified periods (annually or less frequently):
Male, female
Urban only

Proportion of labour force unemployed, specified periods (annually or more frequently):
Male, female
Ages 15-24, 25+
Urban only

Proportion of labour force unemployed, specified periods (annually or more frequently):
Male, female
Ages 15-24, 25+
Urban, rural and total
Geographical areas

2. Proportion of paid labour force unemployed, specified periods (annually or less frequently):
Male, female
Urban only

Proportion of paid labour force unemployed, specified periods (annually or more frequently):
Male, female
Urban only

Proportion of paid labour force unemployed (annually or more frequently):
Male, female
Urban, rural and total
Geographical areas

A least developed country	A developing country	A developed country

E.   Health, health services and nutrition

A.   State of health

1. Proportions among live births of infant and maternal deaths (annually or annual estimates): Urban, rural and total

    Proportions among live births of infant and maternal deaths (annually or annual estimates): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

    Proportions among live births of neo-natal and post-neo-natal and maternal deaths (annually): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

2. Rates of death (infrequently): Ages 1-4, 5-14 Male, female, ages 15-24, 25-44 Urban, rural and total

    Rates of death (annually or less frequently) Ages 1-4, 5-14 Male, female, ages 15-24, 25-44 Urban, rural and total

    Rates of death (annually): Ages 1-4, 5-14 Male, female, ages 15-24, 25-44, 45-64, 65-74 Urban, rural and total

3. Expectation of life at birth (infrequently): Male, female Urban, rural and total

    Expectation of life (infrequently): Male, female Ages 0, 1, 15, 45 Urban, rural and total

    Expectation of life (infrequently): Male, female Ages 0, 1, 15, 45 Urban, rural and total

4. Number and/or incidence in the population of selected communicable diseases of public health importance (annually or less frequently)

    Number and/or incidence in the population of selected communicable diseases of public health importance (annually or less frequently)

    Number and/or incidence in the population of selected communicable diseases of public health importance (annually or less frequently)

5.

    Rate in the population of blindness, one or more limbs missing etc. (annually or less frequently) Male, female Urban, rural and total

    Rate in the population of blindness, one or more limbs missing etc. (annually or less frequently): Male, female Urban, rural and total

(continued)

A. State of health (continued)

6.

| | | Proportion of the population with chronic functional disabilities (annually or less frequently): Male, female Urban, rural and total |

7.

| | | Proportion of the population with spells of bed disability exceeding 7 days per year (annually or less frequently): Male, female Urban, rural and total Geographical areas |

B. Availability and use of health

1. Proportion of births attended by physicians or trained auxiliary personnel (annually or less frequently): Urban, rural and total

Proportion of births attended by physicians or trained auxiliary personnel (annually): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

Proportion of births attended by physicians or trained auxiliary personnel (annually): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

2.

Ratio per 100,000 persons of health services personnel (annually or less frequently): Geographical areas

Ratio per 100,000 persons of health services personnel (annually): Geographical areas

A least-developed country	A developing country	A developed country

E. Health, health services and nutrition (continued)

B. Availability and use of health services
(continued)

3. | | Ratio per 1,000 persons of hospital beds (annually): Geographical areas

4. | Proportion of the population visiting trained health personnel (annually or less frequently): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas | Proportion of the population visiting trained health personnel (annually): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

5. | Proportion aged 5-14 immunized against diptheria, pertussis, tetanus, poliomyelitis, measles (examples; annually or less frequently): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas |

C. Nutrition

1. Percentage of children with sub-clinical protein-calorie malnutrition (infrequently): Urban, rural and total | Percentage of children with sub-clinical protein-calorie malnutrition (infrequently): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas | Percentage of children with sub-clinical protein-calorie malnutrition (infrequently): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

(continued)

A least developed country	A developing country	A developed country

E. Health, health services and nutrition (continued)

C. Nutrition (continued)

2. Quantity index of food consumption or food supplies per capita (annually or annual estimates): Urban, rural and total

3. Percentage of the population with adequate energy (calorie) intake (infrequently): Ages 0-1, 1-4, 5-14, 15+ Pregnant women and nursing mothers, Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

4. Per capita supply of energy (calories), specified periods (annually or less frequently)

Quantity index of food consumption or food supplies per capita (annually or annual estimates): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas	Quantity index of food consumption or food supplies per capita (annually or annual estimates): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas	

Percentage of the population with adequate energy (calorie) intake (infrequently): Ages 0-1, 1-4, 5-14, 15+ Pregnant women and nursing mothers Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

Percentage of the population with adequate energy (calorie) intake (infrequently): Ages 0-1, 1-4, 5-14, 15+ Pregnant women and nursing mothers Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

Per capita supply of energy (calories), specified periods (annually or less frequently): Urban, rural and total Geographical areas

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a/ Limited to the five major fields discussed in the present document. Adapted from Social Indicators Preliminary Guidelines and Illustrative Series. Series M, No. 63 (United Nations publication. Sales No. E. 78.XVII.8), annex IV.

ANNEX II

INTERNATIONAL SOURCES OF DATA ON THE SITUATION OF WOMEN

　　　　Several sources of economic and social statistics for the world as a
whole, or major regions of it, are published by international, regional and
national agencies a/.　These include the United Nations Demographic Yearbook,
Statistical Yearbook and Population and Vital Statistics Reports, as well as
the Monthly Bulletin of Statistics and the Compendium of Social Statistics.
The United Nations regional commissions produce statistical yearbooks for
their respective regions and the World Health Organization issues the World
Health Statistics Annual and Summaries of Vital and Health Statistics for
various regions of the world.　In addition, the World Bank produces the World
Development Report　annually and the World Tables, and the International
Labour Organisation publishes the Yearbook of Labour Statistics.　The general
compendiums all cover population, education, health and housing but with a
great deal of variation in the detail, coverage and organization of the
material.　Various additional topics are also covered.　The primary objective
of most such publications is to bring together the available statistics on
social conditions in a readily accessible format for non-specialists and
policy makers.　They therefore combine data from various basic sources.　The
table below describes some of the statistics and indicators on women available
in these international publications.

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　　　　a/　For a comprehensive review of sources and series, see Directory of
International Statistics, vol. 1　(1981) (United Nations publication, Sales
No. E.81.XVII.6).

United Nations Demographic Yearbook a/ b/	United Nations Compendium of Social Statistics a/ b/	World Bank b/	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development data bank b/ c/	World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women a/

I. Population

A. Size and structure of population

Estimate of population and its percentage distribution by age and sex for world, macro-region and region (2)	Population, total and sex ratio (11.2 and 111.1)	Distribution of population by sex for ages 0-4, single year for ages 5 to 24, five-year age groups 25-75+		Percentage of total female population age 0-14, 15-49 50+ (14)
Population by sex for each country, latest census and mid-year estimates for 1975 and 1979 (3)				
Population by sex for single years of age and for five-year age groups (7,26)				

B. Changes in population size and structure

Urban and total population by sex, 1970-1979 (6)	Five-year spans, 1960-1990 (II.2): sex ratio			

C. Geographical distribution of population and changes in distribution

Population in localities by size-class and sex (31)

Population by sex and urban/rural for single years of age and for five-year age groups (7,26)

Population by national and/or ethnic group, sex and urban/rural (27)

Population by language, sex and urban/rural (28)

Population by religion, sex and urban/rural (29)

Statistics and indicators on women' in international publications (<u>continued</u>)

United Nations <u>Demographic</u> Yearbook <u>a</u>/ <u>b</u>/	United Nations <u>Compendium of Social Statistics</u> <u>a</u>/ <u>b</u>/	World Bank <u>b</u>/	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development data bank <u>b</u>/ <u>c</u>/	World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women <u>a</u>/

I. Population

D. Components of population change <u>d</u>/

Crude birth rate (4)	Fertility rates (111-9)	Fertility rates	Crude birth rate per 1,000 (81)	Total fertility rate per woman age 75-80 (14)
General fertility rate (4)	Live births per 1,000 females age 15-49, child-woman ratio (under 5 per 1,000 females age 15-49)	Crude birth rate, *Crude birth rate per 1,000 and percentage change 1960-1978	Female gross reproduction rate (9)	Birth rate estimates and projections, 1960-1990 (15)
Live births by sex, urban/rural for single years of age of mother and for five-year age groups (10) (11)		*Total fertility rate Gross and net reproduction rates		General fertility rate, estimates and projections, 1960-1990 (15)
Legally induced abortions, 1969-1978 (13)	Gross reproduction rate			Child/woman ratio, estimates and projections, 1960-1990 (15)
Legally induced abortions by age and number of previous live births of women (14)	Net reproduction rate	*Percentage of women age 15-44		Crude birth rate per 1,000 estimates and projections, 1960-1990 (15)

II. Family formation, families and households

A. Families and households

B. Family formation and stability

Marriages by age of groom and age of bride (24)	Proportion of population never married by age and sex (111.6)			Percentage of married women age 15-19 (14)
	Average marriage rate by sex (per 1,000 per year) and divorce rate (per 1,000 per year) (111.6)			

III. Learning and educational services

A. Educational attainment and educational achievements

Population by literacy, sex age:urban/rural (32)	Percentage illiterate (111.30)			Female enrolment as percentage of total enrolment for developing countries by age

(continued)

United Nations Demographic Yearbook a/ b/	United Nations Compendium of Social Statistics a/ b/	World Bank b/	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development data bank b/ c/	World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women a/

III. Learning and educational services

				Educational attainment by age group and level of education, estimates and projections, 1960-1985 (11)
Illiterate and total population age 15+ by sex and urban/rural (33)	Educational attainment by level, age and sex (111.33)			
Population age 15+ by educational attainment, sex, age and urban/rural (34)				Age-specific enrolment ratios for females and males in developing countries, estimates and projections, 1960-1983 (12)
Population ages 5-24 by school attendance, sex, age and urban/rural (35)				Selected indicators of female enrolment by level and age group, 1975-1978 (13)
				Illiteracy for females and males 15-19 years and 15+ (14)

B. Use and distribution of educational services

	Enrolment, percentage female, by level, 1960, 1970, 1973 (111.31-111.32)	"Primary enrolment as percentage of age group, total male, female	Primary and secondary enrolment ratio to population age 5-19, total and by sex (75)	
	Enrolment ratios by level, 1960, 1970 and latest available year (11.14)	Secondary enrolment as percentage of age group total male, female	Vocational enrolment as ratio to population 18-19, total and by sex (76)	
			Higher educational enrolment as ratio to population age 20-29, total and by sex (77)	
			Female as percentage of total primary enrolment (26)	

C. Inputs, outputs and performance of educational services

	Graduates at the third level, percentage female, 1960, 1970, 1973 (111.32)			

(continued)

United Nations _Demographic Yearbook_ a/ b/	United Nations _Compendium of Social Statistics_ a/ b/	World Bank b/	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development data bank b/ c/	World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women a/

III. **Learning and educational services**

Teachers by sex and by level of pupils (III.34)

IV. **Earning activities and the inactive**

A. **Labour-force participation and production**

Population not economically active by functional category, sex, age and urban/rural (37) Economically active population and activity rates by industry, occupation employment status, marital status, sex, age, urban/rural (36, 38-43)	Economically active by sex, occupation, status, number and percentage (III.56, III.57) Estimated and projected labour force and crude activity rates by sex and total inactive, 1950, 1970, 2000 (III.53) urban and rural in census 1965-1973 (III.54) Farm population and number of agricultural holdings by size of holdings and population holdings (11.24) Persons employed in agricultural holdings by size, category of employment and sex (11.27)	Percentage of labour force which is female Labour force participation rates by five-year age groups 10-64+, total male and female	Economically active population in manufacturing industries as percentage of population 15-19 by sex (78)	Economic activity rates for total and female population by age-group, estimates and projections, 1960-1985 (1) Females as percentage of total economically active employers and own-account workers and percentage distribution by occupational category for selected countries, 1978 or latest available year (2,3) Females as percentage of total economically active employees and percentage distribution by occupational category for selected countries, 1978 or latest available year (4,5) Females as percentage of total economically active population and percentage distribution, by occupational category for selected countries, 1978 or latest available year (6,7) Percentage and percentage point change of female economic activity by occupational category (status in employment), 1975 and 1978 (8)

(continued)

United Nations Demographic Yearbook a/ b/	United Nations Compendium of Social Statistics a/ b/	World Bank b/	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development data bank b/ c/	World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women a/

IV. Earning activities and the inactive

				Percentage and percentage point of female economic activity by industrial sector, 1975 and 1978 (9)
				Percentage and percentage point change of female economic activity, marital status, 1975 and 1978 (10)

B. Employment opportunities and mobility

		Professional, technical and related workers as percentage of population 15-59 by sex (79)		Females as percentage of total personnel in health sector occupations, 1975-1978 (16)
				Female participation in public office, 1975-1978 (17)
				Number of United Nations staff at present level by entry level (showing number of female staff), 22 December 1977 (18), and female staff of the United Nations and related agencies in professional and higher level posts, 31 December 1978 (19)

V. Distribution of income, consumption and accumulation

A. Level and growth of household income and accumulation

B. Level and growth of consumption

C. Inequality and redistribution of income and consumption

VI. Social security and welfare services

A. Scope of protection against loss of income and other hazards

B. Use and magnitude of protection against loss of income and other hazards

Statistics and indicators on women in international publications (continued)

United Nations Demographic Yearbook a/ b/	United Nations Compendium of Social Statistics a/ b/	World Bank b/	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development data bank b/ g/	World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women a/

VII. Health, health services and nutrition

A. State of health

1. Mortality and length of life

Expectation of life at birth and at specified ages for each sex; latest available year (4,22)	Life expectancy by sex (11.1) and for five-year age intervals for each sex, latest available year (111.11)		Expectation of life at birth by sex (2, 3, 74)	Female infant mortality rate (14)
Infant deaths and infant mortality rates by age, sex, rural/urban (16)	Chances per 1,000 live-born of eventually dying from selected causes by sex (111.14)			Female life expectancy, estimates and projections, 1960-1990 (15)
Maternal deaths and maternal mortality, 1969-1978 (17). Deaths and death rates by age, sex and urban/rural (19, 20)	Deaths age 15+ as percentage of all deaths by sex, 1960-1962 and 1970-1972 (111.10)			Death rate, estimates and projections, 1960-1990 (15)
	Maternal deaths and maternal mortality rates (111.13)			
	Chances per 1,000 live-born of eventually dying from selected causes by sex (111.14)			
	Infant deaths by sex and cause (11.4)			
	Childhood deaths by sex and cause (11.5)			
	Death and death rates by sex and cause (11.6)			

2. Morbidity: impairments and handicaps

Cases of notifiable diseases per 100,000 population (11.7)

(continued)

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United Nations Demographic Yearbook a/ b/	United Nations Compendium of Social Statistics a/ b/	World Bank b/	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development data bank b/ c/	World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women a/

VII. Health, health services and nutrition

1. Availability, use and performance of health services e/

2. Nutrition e/

VIII. Housing and its environment e/

A. Stock, characteristics and distribution of housing

B. Tenure in and outlay on housing

C. Housing construction

D. Housing and its environment

IX. Public order and safety e/

A. Frequency and severity of offences and victimisation

B. Characteristics and treatment of offenders

C. Institutions, personnel and performance

X. Time use e/

XI. Leisure and culture e/

A. Leisure and cultural activities

B. Leisure and cultural services and facilities

XII. Social stratification and mobility e/

Sources:

Demographic Yearbook 1979 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.80.XIII.1).

Compendium of Social Statistics 1977 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.80.XVII.6).

World Bank, Socio-Economic Data Bank, Washington, D.C., 1981. Series marked with an asterisk are also included in the World Development Report, 1980 (Washington, 1980).

United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, Compilation of Indicators for 1970, Report No. 76/1/Rev.1 (Geneva 1976).

"Review and evaluation of progress achieved in the implementation of the World Plan of Action: statistical abstract" (A/CONF.94/25).

a/ Numbers in parentheses are the table numbers in which the series appears in the relevant source.

b/ These international programmes are reviewed in "Progress report on the development of statistics and indicators on the situation of women" (E/CN.6/1982/7).

c/ Numbers in parentheses are the indicator numbers in the publications on the data bank.

d/ Life expectancy and mortality (except crude death rates) are dealt with under health.

e/ Series on the situation of women in these fields are not currently available in the sources cited, although some series in these fields may be included in other international statistical publications.

INTERNATIONAL STANDARD CLASSIFICATION OF OCCUPATIONS (ISCO - 1968)
MAJOR AND MINOR GROUPS a/

Major Group 0/1. - Professional, technical and related workers:

0-1   Physical scientists and related technicians
0-2/3   Architects, engineers and related technicians
0-4   Aircraft and ships' officers
0-5   Life scientists and related technicians
0-6/7   Medical, dental, veterinary and related workers
0-8   Statisticians, mathematicians, systems analysts and related
        technicians
0-9   Economists
1-1   Accountants
1-2   Jurists
1-3   Teachers
1-4   Workers in religion
1-5   Authors, journalists and related writers
1-6   Sculptors, painters, photographers and related creative artists
1-8   Athletes, sportsmen and related workers
1-9   Professional, technical and related workers not elsewhere
        classified.

Major Group 2. - Administrative and managerial workers

2-0   Legislative officials and government administrators
2-1   Managers.

Major Group 3. - Clerical and related workers

3-0   Clerical supervisors
3-1   Government executive officials
3-2   Stenographers, typists and card- and tape-punching machine
        operators
3-3   Bookkeepers, cashiers and related workers
3-4   Computing machine operators
3-5   Transport and communications supervisors
3-6   Transport conductors
3-7   Mail distribution clerks
3-8   Telephone and telegraph operators
3-9   Clerical related workers not elsewhere classified.

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a/   For full details see International Standard Classification of
Occupations, revised edition (Geneva, International Labour Organisation, 1969).

<u>Major Group 4. - Sales workers</u>

4-0	Managers (wholesale and retail trade)
4-1	Working proprietors (wholesale and retail trade)
4-2	Sales supervisors and buyers
4-3	Technical salesmen, commercial travellers and manufacturers' agents
4-4	Insurance, real estate, securities and business services salesmen and auctioneers
4-5	Salesmen, shop assistants and related workers
4-9	Sales workers not elsewhere classified.

<u>Major Group 5. - Service workers</u>

5-0	Managers (catering and lodging services)
5-1	Working propietors (catering and lodging services)
5-2	Housekeeping and related service supervisors
5-3	Cooks, waiters, bartenders and related workers
5-4	Maids and related housekeeping service workers not elsewhere classified
5-5	Building caretakers, charworkers, cleaners and related workers
5-6	Launderers, dry-cleaners and pressers
5-7	Hairdressers, barbers, beauticians and related workers
5-8	Protective service workers
5-9	Service workers not elsewhere classified.

<u>Major Group 6. - Agriculture, animal husbandry and forestry workers, fisherman and hunters</u>

6-0	Farm managers and supervisors
6-1	Farmers
6-2	Agriculture and animal husbandry workers
6-3	Forestry workers
6-4	Fishermen, hunters and related workers.

<u>Major Group 7/8/9. - Production and related workers, transport equipment operators and labourers</u>

7-0	Production supervisors and general foremen
7-1	Miners, quarrymen, well drillers and related workers
7-2	Metal processors
7-3	Wood preparation workers and paper makers
7-4	Chemical processors and related workers
7-5	Spinners, weavers, knitters, dyers and related workers
7-6	Tanners, fellmongers and pelt dressers
7-7	Food and beverage processors
7-8	Tobacco preparers and tobacco-product makers
7-9	Tailors, dressmakers, sewers, upholsterers and related workers
8-0	Shoemakers and leather-goods makers
8-1	Cabinetmakers and related woodworkers
8-2	Stone cutters and carvers
8-3	Blacksmiths, toolmakers and machine-tool operators
8-4	Machinery fitters, machine assemblers and precision-instrument makers (except electrical)

8-5	Electrical fitters and related electrical and electronic workers
8-6	Broadcasting station and sound equipment operators and cinema projectionists
8-7	Plumbers, welders, sheet metal and structural metal preparers and erectors
8-8	Jewellery and precious metal workers
8-9	Glass formers, potters and related workers
9-0	Rubber and plastics product makers
9-1	Paper and paperbound product makers
9-2	Printers and related workers
9-3	Painters
9-4	Production and related workers not elsewhere classified
9-5	Bricklayers, carpenters and other construction workers
9-6	Stationary engine and related equipment operators
9-7	Material-handling and related equipment operators, dockers and freight handlers
9-8	Transport equipment operators
9-9	Labourers not elsewhere classified.

Major Group X. - Workers not classified by occupation

X-1	New workers seeking employment
X-2	Workers reporting occupations unidentifiable or inadequately described
X-3	Workers not reporting any occupation.

Armed forces - Members of the armed forces.