How well are gender issues covered in household surveys and censuses? An analysis using the IHSN-World Bank Gender Data Navigator [1]

Executive summary

International agencies have, in recent years, worked to bridge gender data gaps in country statistics through several channels — including identifying a core set of outcomes that should be defined and reported consistently across men and women, and discussing ways to address major gaps among these outcomes. In 2012, the UN Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS) introduced a minimum set of 52 gender indicators, ranging across economic opportunities, education, health, public life and decisionmaking, as well as human rights and security (including violence against women).[2] These indicators were ranked by IAEG-GS into three tiers by their availability and agreed-upon standards across countries; Tier 1 indicators are considered to be conceptually clear, with an agreed international definition and regularly produced by countries; Tier 2 indicators are also conceptually clear, but not yet regularly produced by countries; and Tier 3 Indicators are those for which neither international standards have been developed nor are regularly produced by countries.

While continuing to evolve, the IAEG-GS minimum set has widely become an agreed-upon baseline for gender indicators that should be made available in official statistics. Recent efforts have also been made by UN Women, as well as the Data2X initiative (led by the UN Foundation with support from the Hewlett Foundation and Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation) to highlight other important outcomes relevant to gender.[3] Data2X also identifies important gender data gaps that persist in official statistics. Alongside these efforts, the 2013 UN Gender Statistics Manual provides an important synthesis of how data should be collected across different policy areas.

Practically, addressing gaps in gender data also hinges on understanding where they persist across specific surveys and countries. A joint partnership by the World Bank and the International Household Survey Network led to the development of the Gender Data Navigator (GDN) in 2013, which as of June 2015 is a searchable database of 1,485 survey and census questionnaires across 144 low- and middle-

[1] This report received valuable external input from Mayra Buvinic (UN Foundation), Gero Carletto (DECRG), Talip Kilic (DECRG), Papa Seck (UN Women), and Eric Swanson (Open Data Watch).

[2] For the 2012 IAEG-GS report, see http://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/doc13/2013-10-GenderStats-E.pdf

[3] For the UN Women report, see: http://www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/~/media/AC04A69BF6AE48C1A23DECAEED24A452.ashx . For Data2X, see: http://data2x.org/resources/ .

income countries, almost all of which have been conducted between 2000-2012. In addition to demographics, topics covered by the GDN overlap with those covered by IAEG-GS minimum set of gender indicators, and the database also allows users to identify which surveys have information available to construct each of these 52 indicators. The database was developed to help researchers identify surveys that cover specific topics across these areas.

This report examines survey questionnaires in the GDN to understand the availability of different types of sex-disaggregated data. It also provides recommendations on questions that could be added in the near term to different survey types, to address substantial gender data gaps we observe across countries. The nationally-representative datasets in the GDN span a range of different household surveys as well as population and agricultural censuses. Among the household surveys, this report examines large cross-country surveys in the GDN including Labor Force Surveys (LFS), Living Standards and Measurement Surveys (LSMS), Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS), health surveys consisting primarily of the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and the 2011 Global Financial Inclusion Survey (Findex); we also examined a range of surveys classified as other household welfare surveys conducted in specific countries, other health surveys, household budget/consumption surveys, and a small group of other surveys focused on specific topics such as energy, violence against women, and time use. This assessment report does not cover data quality issues or variations in survey methodology, since the GDN focuses only on data availability reflected by survey questionnaires .

We assess survey coverage for the gender indicators in the IAEG-GS minimum set, across the different policy areas discussed above. While our main emphasis is on the IAEG-GS indicators, we also examine the findings from Data2X, including coverage of the data gaps highlighted in that report, as an additional perspective on how well surveys address gender statistics.[4]

Main findings and priority areas

Overall, we find that survey coverage of gender indicators and other gaps varies extensively, with household surveys generally having more extensive data on these outcomes as compared to population and agricultural censuses. Employment and education indicators tend to have better coverage across surveys. Health outcomes are not addressed much by surveys outside of dedicated health surveys, and

[4] Not all of the Data2X outcomes can be identified from the assessment form that is the main input into the search filters for the GDN, so we focus the discussion only to those that can be determined.

the latter tends to focus on specific topics related to women's sexual health and childbearing, and child health. Indicators on public life and decisionmaking as well as human rights, including violence against women, have very low coverage over the period.

In practice, we also find that coverage of Tier 1 indicators varies greatly across survey categories, so that even if a specific Tier 1 indicator is considered by IAEG-GS to be well-defined and collected regularly, many surveys do not actually have information on it. This is true across all outcomes we examine – within economic opportunities, education, health, public life and decisionmaking, and human rights. There are many potential reasons for this, including the level at which survey questions are asked (household as opposed to individual), and/or a lack of complementary data needed to construct an indicator (including demographic information on other household members or time use data, for example). Recommendations below try to highlight, barring additional resource and training constraints, which gender data gaps observed across surveys could be easily addressed without substantial changes to existing survey modules.

Employment

Among the IAEG-GS indicators, coverage of overall labor force participation is quite high (above 90 percent) among surveys with standard employment modules (LFS, LSMS, and other household welfare surveys), as well as population censuses. Sector of employment (agriculture/non-agriculture) is also well covered. Aside from the LFS, however, coverage of other Tier 1 employment indicators such as self-employment, contributing or unpaid family work, and youth unemployment rates, all of which IAEG-GS classifies as regularly produced by countries, is substantially lower across surveys. Tier 2 employment indicators such as the proportion of employed working part-time and informal employment are also covered by most LFS and LSMS surveys, as well as some household welfare surveys, but coverage varies widely otherwise. Owing to limited survey instruments on time use, hours spent on unpaid domestic work are not covered well by any survey category.

Type of employment (including informal, unpaid, and self-employed work), is an important gender data gap that should be addressed in the near term, particularly given recent changes by the 19th International Conference of Labor Statisticians that removes subsistence/own-production work — an area where women in low-income countries are heavily involved — from the ILO definition of

employment.[5] We find that the LFS, LSMS and other household surveys cover sex-disaggregated statistics on informal employment well, but this is not true for other survey categories that also have detailed employment modules. Contributing or unpaid family work has far lower coverage across all survey categories. Since most of the surveys we examine in this assessment already have modules on employment, integrating questions on mode of payment as well as whether the work was unpaid as part of a family enterprise would be relatively straightforward without changing other aspects of the survey. Doing so would also improve comparability of estimates on employment and other work activities across different surveys — a crucial issue given that future rounds of the LFS will be incorporating the new ICLS employment definition that moves subsistence or own-production agriculture work out of employment and into a broadened unpaid work category. The IAEG-GS minimum set does highlight additional Tier 2 indicators on hours spent on unpaid domestic work by sex (separating out child care), as well as hours spent on paid and unpaid work combined, by sex. Questions on hours spent in unpaid work may be better elicited through dedicated time use surveys, given that different domestic activities are often conducted simultaneously and the risk of substantial measurement error if such questions are not elicited carefully through separate instruments like time use diaries.

Among Tier 3 indicators related to employment, access to formal child care poses an important constraint to women's work but is virtually unaddressed in household surveys. This could also be added as a single question to individuals and would be highly relevant for policy. Other Tier 3 indicators in this area could be addressed in the longer term. Many surveys have data on individual earnings, from which a gender gap in wages could be constructed, but this depends on the quality of earnings data – which also affects comparability of estimates across survey categories and countries. Among the Data2X gender gaps in this area, employment mobility can be identified and has substantial coverage (about 54 percent) across surveys — albeit only through the narrow lens of data on unemployment and underemployment, and reported job satisfaction.

Constraints in access to credit, land, and other capital and technology

Availability across surveys of IAEG-GS indicators on credit access, landownings, and access to internet and mobile phone technology, is essentially a function of the level at which questions are asked. Barring censuses, most household surveys have modules/questions covering these topics. However, many

[5] See http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/meetings-and-events/international-conference-of-labour-statisticians/19/lang--en/index.htm

surveys tend to ask these questions at the household, not individual, level. While a growing number of surveys are asking individual-level questions on access to credit, we find that this share is still only around 30 percent among surveys in the GDN (the Findex and LSMS are the main contributors), and only 6 percent of surveys in the database have similar data on individual landownings. Agricultural censuses in particular should include sex-disaggregated data on landownership, similar to what is already included in LSMS-ISA surveys, and the FAO is also designing a new survey (Agricultural and Rural Integrated Survey, or AGRIS) that would have detailed individual data on agricultural holdings and management, as well as household demographic and socieconomic characteristics that could be correlated with these outcomes. Also, while close to 60 percent of surveys have data on access to mass media, by sex of the household head, less than 10 percent have individual data on access to the internet and mobile phones. The rise of mobile phone use in low-income countries for accessing markets, credit, and other information, has created immense changes for men and women who otherwise face substantial geographic and resource constraints. Instead of a household-level question, two individual questions adult household members on whether they own, and/or use, a mobile phone is relatively straightforward to implement and can reveal important information on how access to mobile technology is correlated with other individual socioeconomic outcomes.

Education

Among the IAEG-GS indicators, most surveys in each category, with the exception of agricultural censuses, have sex-disaggregated data on educational attainment of those aged 25 and older. Youth literacy rates are also covered well by many survey categories. However, important facets of education relevant to girls, including primary-to-secondary transition rates and reasons for not attending school are important gender issues that few surveys address and could be addressed in the near term. Aside from the MICS, which has the broadest coverage across the IAEG-GS education indicators, the weakest areas in coverage reflect educational transitions — intake into primary school, completion of primary and lower secondary education, as well as primary to secondary transition rates. Adding a question on whether household members who completed primary schooling moved to secondary school would be feasible in an education module. Similarly, few household surveys ask about reasons for not attending school (including transportation or access issues, financial constraints including whether the child is engaged in work, lack of toilets and other sanitation facilities at school, other issues related to culture or beliefs), which could be added as a single question with options to an education module to understand what factors constrain girls and boys from attending.

Among the Data2X gender gaps in education, learning outcomes beyond basic literacy (proficiency in different levels within reading, writing, and other subjects) are not covered by the GDN assessment form. Although a very important topic, almost no household surveys we examine cover this issue, mainly because of the complexity of adding such questions to a standard education module. Dedicated surveys such as the OECD's Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) may be the best way to tackle additional questions on learning/proficiency.[6]

Health

As would be expected, health surveys (comprised mostly of DHS) have the greatest coverage of IAEG-GS health indicators compared to other survey categories, but are focused on maternal and reproductive health outcomes for women (although not of adolescents, which Data2X highlights as an important gender data gap). IAEG-GS indicators on child and adult mortality, life expectancy, other health conditions/excess disease burdens by sex are not covered as well. Given the specialized nature of these questions, and the importance of correlating different health outcomes in understanding individuals' overall health burdens, these issues would require careful sequencing of additional questions within dedicated surveys like the DHS to address, and would likely take a longer time to implement.

Utilization of maternal and non-maternal health services, another Data2X gender data gap in health, is addressed well by health surveys as well as the LSMS and MICS — but far fewer surveys examine reasons for not seeking health care, which again is an important issue for policymakers given the extent of women's underutilization of health services in developing countries, and that they are also primarily responsible for their children's health.[7] Reasons for not seeking health services, due again to access/resource constraints, is also a question that could be added to well-developed health modules

Public life and decisionmaking

National identity documentation (at the minimum, possession of a birth certificate) is a key gender data gap highlighted by Data2X that affects individuals' access to public services, education, and employment, and would be a valuable near-term indicator that could be included in household surveys.

[6] See http://www.oecd.org/pisa/ .

[7] See Ahmed, S., Creanga, A., Gillespie, D., & Tsui, A. (2010). "Economic Status, Education and Empowerment: Implications for Maternal Health Service Utilization in Developing Countries" (B. J. Shea, Ed.). PLoS ONE, 5 (6).

The MICS has the best coverage of whether individuals have a birth certificate, followed by population censuses and health (mostly DHS) surveys; this question could be included in other household surveys as well that have an emphasis on access to services and household welfare more broadly.

Among the other IAEG-GS and Data2X outcomes on political participation, no household survey or census currently collects data on women's participation in public office, roles as public servants, and almost no survey on voter turnout. At the same time, a different survey methodology may be more appropriate for collecting data on these outcomes (looking at election cycles, for example) as compared to household surveys.

The only area within public life and decisionmaking where a few surveys in the GDN have data is for women's share of managerial positions, which could potentially be addressed with a question asking individuals whether or not they hold a position as a legislator, senior official and/or manager in a firm. In low-income countries, most women, particularly in rural areas, are not likely to hold these positions, but urban areas may capture a greater (and increasing) share over time.

Human rights/security

Adolescent birth rates and early marriage (i.e., the percentage of women aged 20-24 who were married or in a union before age 18) are the only two IAEG-GS indicators that have significant coverage across surveys, particularly health surveys and the MICS. Coverage could still be improved by adding a question in the demographic modules of other household surveys like the LSMS that asks women of this age group whether they are or have been married.

Adolescent birth rates and early marriage also appear to be the two outcomes within this domain that broad-based household surveys could address effectively. Almost all surveys lack information to construct indicators on physical or sexual violence, and only a small fraction of health surveys have modules to address these indicators. Much of this is due to the sensitivity and complexity of administering such questions. The UN recently published guidelines for collecting data on violence against women that emphasizes the need for specialized surveys in this area. The conflict-related gender data gaps cited by Data2X are also not covered by the GDN assessment form and by most household surveys, and the quality of such data would be much better through surveys specifically focused on conflict areas and outcomes.

Looking ahead

Many of the gender data gaps we find in this assessment could be addressed by adding a question to an existing module, without changing the sequencing or nature of other related questions. In particular, this assessment recommends that where a well-developed survey module exists for a particular domain (employment, for example), and where a question could feasibly be added to improve coverage of gender statistics in that domain, that all surveys of this type should include it (rather than prioritizing one survey type over another). This helps enhance global coverage of gender statistics in two ways – (1) by reinforcing a core set of information across domains (including modules on demographics, employment, education, health, agriculture, credit, and other modules), which is a valuable resource in understanding how policies can be better targeted towards improving gender inequalities; and (2) improving the comparability of gender statistics across different types of surveys.

This assessment report examined coverage of indicators separately, but for policy, there are strong benefits to having surveys with data spanning multiple domains (economic opportunities, education, health, etc.) For example, understanding women's work across different sectors, including unpaid work, has implications for understanding education and health outcomes for children, as well as labor allocation of other household members. Cross-country comparability of estimates across topics would also improve from having multi-topic surveys. The DHS has been expanding its coverage across modules in recent years, and detailed agricultural surveys that include information on household demographic and socioeconomic outcomes (LSMS-ISA, and the FAO's upcoming AGRIS) are/will be a valuable resource in understanding factors affecting sex-disaggregated outcomes in agriculture.

As mentioned above, however, certain topics such as time use (hours spent on unpaid work), specialized health outcomes as well as violence against women are better addressed within dedicated surveys. At the same time, adding a few additional questions, for example, to these dedicated surveys on type of employment, constraints to work and schooling, identity documentation (in the case of surveys on violence against women), would be immensely helpful in understanding how to design policy in these areas.

How well are gender issues covered in household surveys and censuses? An analysis using the IHSN-World Bank Gender Data Navigator

I. International momentum for addressing gender data gaps

According to a global survey of 126 countries conducted by the UN Statistics Division (UNSD) in 2011,[8] roughly 80 percent of countries regularly produce sex-disaggregated data on labor force participation, unemployment, education and training, and mortality. However, the survey found that many topics highly relevant to women are omitted from countries' official surveys. About 65-70 percent produce similar statistics on poverty, morbidity, access to health services, sexual and reproductive health, and fertility.[9] And roughly only 30-40 percent regularly produce sex-disaggregated statistics on topics such as informal employment, unpaid work, entrepreneurship, agriculture, child marriage, violence against women, and access to clean water and/or sanitation, as well as technology. Further, among this group of less-covered topics, most of the remaining 60-70 percent of countries tend not to collect data at all as opposed to some/infrequent statistics.

The policy implications of poorly collected data on women's outcomes are significant. In July 2014, the The UN General Assembly's Open Working Group on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) presented its proposal for SDGs that included a set of gender related targets — including valuing unpaid work, eliminating early /forced marriage and violence against girls and women, greater participation by women in public life and institutions, equal rights to economic resources and assets, and using information and communications technology to help empower women.[10] All of these outcomes are not regularly surveyed by countries, however, and improved data collection is needed to design policies to address these targets.

Recently, several institutions have focused on these gaps to better guide countries' gender data collection, and thereby improve targeting of policies towards women. This has included identifying core

[8] United Nations Statistical Commission (2012). *Gender Statistics: Report of the Secretary General.* Geneva. Available at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/doc13/2013-10-GenderStats-E.pdf . The survey covered countries in ECA (Economic Commission for Africa); ECE (Economic Commission for Europe); ESCAP (Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific); ESCWA (Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia); and ECLAC (Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean).

[9] Comparability of statistics across countries is an issue, however – consumption-based poverty is more likely to measured similarly across countries, and so 65-70 percent may be a good estimate, it actually may be an overestimate for morbidity and more specific outcomes.

[10] The Open Working Group's proposal is available at http://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/1579SDGs%20Proposal.pdf

gender indicators that national statistical agencies should focus on, and highlighting areas where gender data are scarce.

In 2012, the UN Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS) introduced a minimum set of 52 gender indicators, based on whether they addressed key policy concerns as identified in the Beijing Platform for Action and other more recent international commitments (see Annex Table A1).[11] These indicators range across economic opportunities, education, health, public life and decisionmaking, as well as human rights (including violence against women), and were ranked into three tiers by their availability and agreed-upon standards across countries. Specifically, indicators classified as **Tier 1** are considered to be conceptually clear, with an agreed international definition and regularly produced by countries (this includes, for example, the youth literacy rate of persons aged 15-24 years, by sex, as well as the labor force participation rate for persons aged 15+, by sex). Indicators classified as **Tier 2** are also conceptually clear, but not yet regularly produced by countries (including the share of women aged 15-49 subjected to physical or sexual violence in the last 12 months by an intimate partner). Finally, **Tier 3** Indicators are those for which neither international standards have been developed nor are regularly produced by countries (such as gender gaps in wages). Around the same time that the IAEG-GS minimum set was introduced, the initiative on Evidence on Data and Gender Equality (EDGE) was launched to develop international guidelines on a subset of these indicators, including field-testing collection methods on asset ownership and entrepreneurship that are among the Tier 3 indicators.[12]

UN Women has also recently proposed a set of gender indicators — some of which overlap with the IAEG-GS minimum set — as part of a specific commitment to achieving gender equality, women's rights and women's empowerment in the post-2015 development framework (UN Women, 2013).[13] A recent report by the Data2X initiative, an ongoing project at the United Nations Foundation that is funded by the Hewlett Foundation, provides a detailed overview of these institutions' efforts on constructing gender indicators — as well as a thorough examination of current global gender data gaps across health, economic opportunities, education, political participation and human rights/security, based on

[11] This minimum set was approved by the UN Statistical Commission in 2013. The IAEG-GS is continuing to develop and propose modifications of these indicators as well as their classification. For the 2012 IAEG-GS report, see http://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/doc13/2013-10-GenderStats-E.pdf

[12] EDGE was created as part of a collaboration between the US Government, the United Nations Statistics Division and UN Women, along with key regional and international agencies including the OECD and the World Bank.

[13] The full report is available at http://www.unwomen.org/en/news/in-focus/~/media/AC04A69BF6AE48C1A23DECAEED24A452.ashx

recommendations of these institutions, as well as a review of academic research.[14] The 2013 UN Gender Statistics Manual provides an important synthesis of how sex-disaggregated data as well as important topics on gender should be collected across the different policy areas discussed above, as well as such topics as poverty, environment, food security, power and decisionmaking, and migration/displacement.[15]

Alongside efforts to identify gender indicators and data gaps, different organizations have also worked recently to catalog and highlight gender statistics, across official and other household surveys conducted worldwide. This includes the World Bank Gender Data Portal (GenderStats), a website that compiles data and background resources on a range of important gender topics, drawing on surveys from the World Development Indicators, national statistical agencies, UN databases, and surveys conducted or funded by the World Bank. Data at the country level are organized under thematic areas following those indentified by the IAEG-GS, discussed above. The OECD Gender Data Initiative is also an online portal that provides internationally comparable indicators on gender in the areas of education, employment, and entrepreneurship, for OECD countries as well as as Russia, Brazil, China, India, Indonesia, and South Africa.

Finally, a joint partnership by the World Bank and the International Household Survey Network recently led to the construction of the Gender Data Navigator (GDN), a searchable database of national survey and census questionnaires from 144 low- and middle-income countries between 2000-2012, that span topics across demographics, economic activity, education, health, and violence against women as well as the IAEG-GS minimum set gender indicators.[16] This report specifically examines the survey questionnaires in the GDN to shed light on the availability of gender statistics across different areas. It also provides recommendations on questions that could be added to different survey types in the near term, barring additional resource and training constraints, in order to address substantial gender data gaps we observe across countries.

[14] The full Data2X report is available at http://data2x.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/10/Data2X_MappingGenderDataGaps_FullReport.pdf .
[15] UN Gender Statistics Manual (2013), available at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/genderstatmanual/
[16] Out of the 1,485 surveys, five were conducted in 1999 and one in 2013.

II. Global gender data gaps highlighted in policy

To understand how well surveys address gender statistics, an overview of policy priorities is needed. In this section, we discuss gender data gaps highlighted by IAEG-GS, as well as the 2014 Data2X report which draws on the IAEG-GS report as well as additional findings from academic and policy research. Annex Table A1 provides the list of IAEG-GS minimum set indicators, and Annex Table A2 lists additional gender data gaps highlighted in the Data2X study beyond the IAEG-GS indicators. "Data gaps" in this context does not necessarily refer to areas where new data needs to be collected. In some cases, data may in fact already exist — for example, through administrative surveys — but have not been processed or cleaned for public use. As a result, addressing these data gaps hinges both on ways to elicit new data as well as accessing untapped data sources.

(A) Economic outcomes

Women in developing countries are involved in a range of productive activities, although in surveys much of this work (including unpaid work for the family business or farm, independent smallholder agriculture, and informal and self-employment in the nonfarm sector) tends either not to be distinguished well across household members, or omitted from labor supply questions altogether. Careful reporting of women's work in these activities will be an even more pressing issue in the future, following recent changes to the ILO definition of employment (adopted by the 19th International Conference of Labor Statisticians in 2013) that considers employment to be only work for pay/profit — thereby excluding activities like own-production/subsistence agriculture, where women in low-income countries are heavily involved.

Earnings and mobility (which, broadly defined, can describe constraints to employment as well as career advancement) also tend to be poorly measured as well — and are also a function of women often working fewer hours than men, further complicating gender comparisons. Access to child care, which affects women's potential labor supply and therefore both mobility and earnings, often takes informal arrangements in low- and middle-income countries, and is typically not integrated into survey questionnaires. Women's migration for work is also common in these areas and elicited in household surveys, but employment outcomes faced by migrating household members are rarely asked.

Among non-employment outcomes, asset ownership and access to credit/financing are often collected at the household as opposed to individual level, preventing calulation of sex-disaggregated statistics for these topics. Even where data on individual borrowing and saving exist, individual constraints on credit and access to finance are often not surveyed. Access to mobile phone and internet technology is another area that tends to be collected at the household as opposed to individual level.

(B) Health

All of the IAEG-GS minimum set indicators on health are listed as Tier 1, implying that they have clear, internationally agreed-upon definitions and are collected regularly. This assumption is due in large part to the existence of detailed household surveys dedicated to health and fertility issues, including the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS). However, data on IAEG-GS indicators like mortality remain challenging to collect (including adult mortality, by cause, as well as maternal mortality which requires a very large sample to arrive at reliable estimates). The Data2X report also discusses evidence on how women in low- and middle-income countries have greater excess disease burdens unrelated to motherhood, including diabetes, dementia, and other diseases that increase with age — but survey modules on women's health remain largely focused on sexual and reproductive health. Even within this area, health surveys tend not to cover important topics such as maternal morbidity (many health surveys ask about the use of antenatal care, but not problems during pregnancy), as well as sexual and reproductive health of adolescents, usually considered to be those between 10-19 or 10-24 years (health surveys typically do not ask these questions of individuals younger than 15 years). Finally, while use of health care services is typically asked in health care modules, measuring constraints and reasons for not seeking health care is less common.

(C) Education

Educational outcomes related to school attainment/completion are widely covered by official statistics. Less well understood, however, are outcomes related to the quality of schooling — including girls' and boys' achievements in school, attendance and reasons for limited/no attendance (girls in low-income contexts are often unable to attend school for many reasons, including social/cultural factors), as well as accomplishments after completion (including transition from secondary schooling to work). "Learning outcomes" is a broad area that begins with basic literacy and numeracy, but ranges well beyond to skills development and curriculum mastery in different subjects. However, better understanding of skills development across age groups (primary and secondary levels) as well as gender is needed.

(D) Public life and decisionmaking

Women's participation in the public sphere, whether through local government, community groups, or other organizations, provides important insights on their decisionmaking power and mobility. Combined with household socioeconomic data, such information can also reveal relationships between women's public roles and household outcomes. However, virtually no data exists in this area.

Sex-disaggregated data on citizenship and voting are other important areas that need to be addressed. Some household surveys do ask about the number of men and women in the household that are registered to vote and who voted in the last election, but few details are available at the individual level to parse out voter participation by other demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. And very few surveys ask about citizenship, which affects a range of outcomes including access to public services, education, and employment opportunities.

(E) Human rights/security

As with political participation, human rights issues such as violence against women, and conflict-related outcomes related to deaths, family separation and displacement, are scarce despite their bearing on women's and children's welfare. Much of this is due to the sensitivity and complexity of administering these questions, as well as the difficulty in collecting data at regular intervals across countries.

III. Gender Data Navigator (GDN): an overview

Objectives and coverage of GDN

GDN is a searchable inventory of 1,485 survey and census questionnaires across 144 low and middle-income countries, almost all which fall within the period 2000-2012.[17] The surveys are all nationally representative, and span a range of different household datasets to population and agricultural censuses, and are discussed in more detail in Section IV below. This database was developed to help researchers identify surveys that cover specific topics, that overlap considerably with the policy areas discussed in Section II.

[17] The database is available at http://www.ihsn.org/HOME/gender-data-navigator . In the current database, there are 5 surveys from 1999, and just one from 2013.

(A) Economic outcomes: topics covered by the GDN include the following:

- **Labor and economic activities** (type and frequency of work, compensation, type of contract, benefits, job satisfaction, whether looking for work, unemployment, information on household enterprises, household members' agricultural activities, ownership of agricultural assets and land)
- **Housing and household assets** (type of dwelling, occupancy status, access to water and sanitation, access to electricity, source and access to cooking fuel, ownership of durable goods, asset ownership, residential land ownership)
- **Income, consumption expenditure and finance** (indicated in the database as to whether only household, or also indivdidual, data is available for the following variables: amount and sources of income, consumption expenditure across food and non-food items, including source, reasons, amount, repayment terms, and credit constraints; types and sources of savings, possession of a credit or debit card, and proximity to financial institutions)
- **Migration and remittances** (types and reasons for migration, household members' place of birth and usual residence, and remittances received and sent, including amount, frequency, purpose, and relationship of sender to recipient)

(B) Health: topics covered by the GDN include individuals' general health status, utilization and perceived quality of of health care services, health expenditures including possession of insurance, preventative care and nutrition, anthropometry, fertility and mortality, contraception and family planning, maternal health, individual health risks, and information on HIV/AIDS.

(C) Education: topics include school attainment, attendance and repetition, type of school, field of study at higher levels, school quality and access, informal and vocational schooling, education costs, as well as numeracy and literacy.

(D) Public life and decisionmaking: national identity documentation (in the form of possession of a birth certificate) is covered by the GDN. Other indicators in this domain are more broadly defined within the database, including individual participation in national/local elections, participation in societies or organizations, as well as managerial positions; and other forms of political participation.

(E) Human rights/security: the main topic covered by the GDN in this domain is violence against women (individual experience, type of violence, those involved, types of services accessed, perceptions about domestic violence, information on female circumcision). Information on household demographics and birth history also allows the construction of an adolescent fertility rate (which the IAEG-GS Minimum Set classifies under human security).

Additional information in the GDN on demographics (sex, age, information on family members including primary caregivers and births, marital status, ethnicity, religion, nationality, language, disability) helps in understanding how outcomes vary across different groups of individuals and households, as well as for constructing the gender indicators in the IAEG-GS Minimum Set. An underlying assessment form, in a questionnaire format, determines whether each survey has available data across these topics.[18] At the end of the Annex is the assessment form as well as a screenshot of the GDN. The 2013 UN Gender Statistics Manual was a key input in creating the assessment form, along with contributions from experts across a number of agencies, including the FAO, ILO, WHO, World Bank, UNSD, and UN Women. While the GDN is organized into thematic areas that in principle allow comparison of available data across different surveys, the GDN does not address variations in survey methodology as well as data quality of surveys (including measurement issues or the extent of non-response for specific questions).

Addressing global gender data gaps with the GDN

As a baseline for understanding how well different surveys cover topics on gender, the assessment form also gauges whether each survey has enough data to construct each indicator in the IAEG-GS minimum set. Based on this analysis, filters in the GDN directly identify which surveys cover these indicators. Policymakers and researchers can therefore use the GDN to quickly pinpoint surveys that cover important gender indicators, and relate these indicators to other household/individual socioeconomic and demographic characteristics. In so doing, the GDN provides a useful gateway for understanding correlates and potential determinants of outcomes for women and girls across countries, and hence an important resource for shaping gender-targeted policies.

At the same time, with its extensive coverage of globally-conducted surveys (see Section IV below), GDN allows for a comprehensive understanding (although not necessarily representative for all surveys) of

[18] The assessment form from January 2013, along with a short instruction manual, is available at http://ihsn.org/home/sites/default/files/resources/GENDER_0.zip

where gaps in gender statistics are more pronounced – by region, year, and type of survey. Depending on other available socioeconomic and demographic data in each survey, as well as resources, steps to addressing these data gaps can therefore become clearer. For example, adding one or two questions to a survey already rich in other socioeconomic variables may be easier in addressing a specific data gap — for example, including a question about hours spent in unpaid work when a yes-no question on participation in unpaid work is already included — as opposed to a survey that does not collect similar data. Establishing relationships among family members is another challenge in many surveys, which prevents construction of important indicators such as the employment rate of women with children. Other administrative sources of data within the country might also be explored to provide supplementary information (including indicators related to firm ownership, and participation in national/local public office).

IV. Survey categories in the GDN

Table 4.1 provides the breakdown of survey categories in the GDN; a more detailed breakdown of how individual surveys were classified in these categories is available in Table A3 in the Annex. Table A4 in the Annex provides an additional breakdown of survey categories by country.

Table 4.1 Survey categories in the GDN

Survey category[2]	Number of surveys in GDN	Share of surveys in GDN (%)	Number of surveys conducted globally[3]
LSMS	47	3.2	48
Findex (2011)	108	7.3	148
MICS	85	5.7	138
Health	167; 126 DHS	11.3	137 DHS
Labour force survey	285	19.2	*
Population census	164	11.0	
Agricultural census	71	5.8	
Household budget/consumption survey	197	13.3	
Other household welfare survey	343	23.1	
Other topic-specific survey (energy, violence against women, time use)	18	1.3	
Total	**1,485**	**100**	

Notes:
(1) All but six of the surveys in the GDN were conducted between 2000-2012.
(2) Table A3 in the Annex presents specific survey types within these categories, and Table A4 in the Annex provides a breakdown of these categories by country/region.
(3) Only calculated for surveys that have a single institution overseeing survey design and implementation across countries.
* Between 2000-2010, 160 countries conducted at least one LFS or household survey to produce official labor force statistics. The GDN currently has LFS surveys for 73 countries. Calculating the total number of LFS conducted over the period is complex because many countries conduct continuous or sub-annual surveys, and many countries also have a household survey that is recognized as the official source of labor force statistics, but it is not a dedicated labour force survey.

Looking at Table 4.1, separate categories were created for specific large cross-country surveys that had significant representation in the GDN — the Living Standards and Measurement Surveys (LSMS), which including the LSMS Integrated Surveys on Agriculture (LSMS-ISA); Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS); Labour Force Surveys (LFS)[19]; and the 2011 Global Financial Inclusion Survey (Findex). Among "health surveys," almost all of which were from the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), including related DHS surveys such as the AIDS Indicator Survey (AIS), the Reproductive Health Survey (RHS), and the Malaria Indicator Survey (MIS). "Other household welfare surveys" included national surveys like the Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire (CWIQ) and Welfare Monitoring Survey (WMS), of which there 16 and 8 surveys in the GDN, respectively, as well as other multi-purpose household surveys.[20]

The remaining surveys fell into four broad categories: (1) official population censuses; (2) agricultural censuses (which are typically surveyed at the landholding level and have fewer background characteristics of household members); (3) household budget/consumption surveys; and (4) other topic-specific surveys focused on different topics such as energy, violence against women, and time use (only 18 surveys). Table A5 in the Annex provides additional background on the different survey categories.

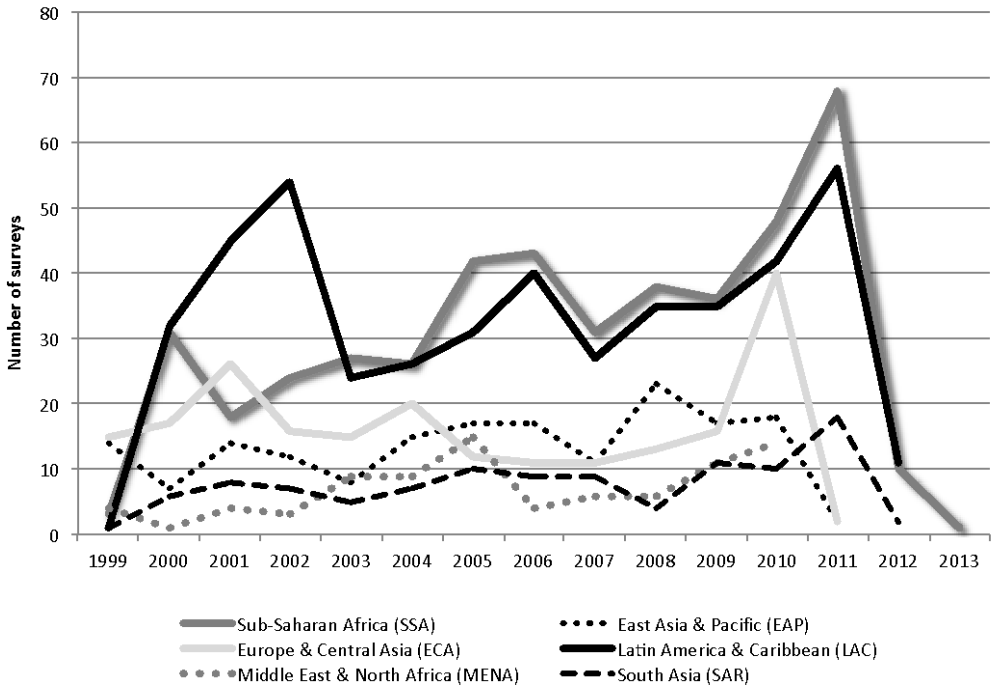
Surveys are continuing to be added to the GDN; the order in which surveys are entered is a function of a number of operational constraints including which languages are translated first, whether there are inconsistencies that need to be clarified in the questionnaire, and so on. Table 4.1 provides the number of surveys that have been conducted worldwide over the period for LSMS, MICS, Findex, and DHS, to give a sense of how many surveys within these categories are currently represented in the GDN.

[19] These include 21 child labor force surveys, or about 9 percent of the total number of surveys in this category.
[20] These other multi-purpose household surveys included a range of different nationally conducted surveys such as surveys of living conditions, socioeconomic surveys, and so on.

However, representativeness is difficult to assess for many of the survey categories. Household budget/consumption surveys, household welfare surveys, and censuses, for example, do not fall under a single institution overseeing all countries. And for LFS, there is no centralized catalog presenting all surveys conducted over the last few decades. Looking at Table 4.1, 137 DHS surveys have been conducted between 2000-2012, and 126 DHS surveys were in the GDN over this period. All but one of the LSMS surveys conducted over this period are in the database. For the 2011 Findex and MICS, about 73 and 62 percent, respectively, of surveys in these categories are included.

Figure 4.1 shows the breakdown of surveys in the GDN by region and year. As expected, larger regions such as Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America & Caribbean have the greatest representation. The trends in the number of surveys for each region remained fairly steady across years, except for a sharp increase in 2002 in LAC, due to a few quarterly LFS and population censuses conducted that year, and again in 2011 from the introduction of the Global Findex.

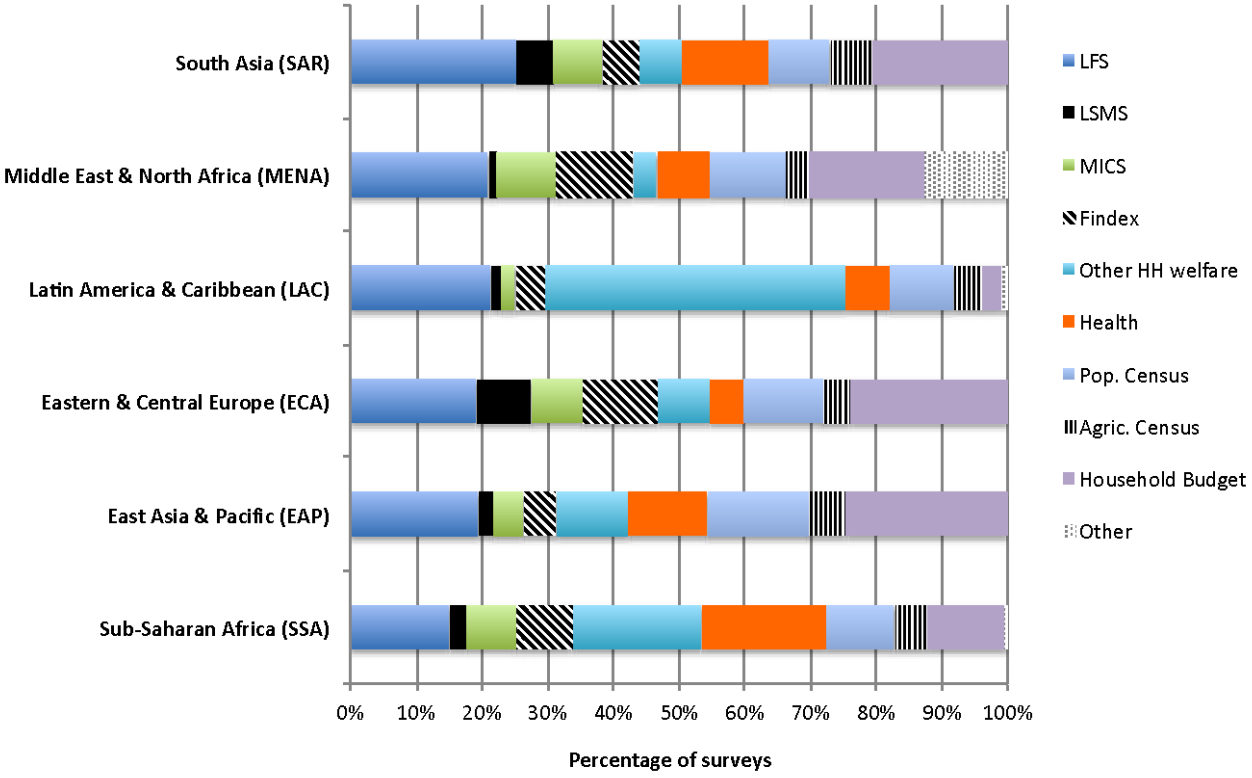
Figure 4.1 Number of surveys in GDN, by region and year



Within each region, the distribution of survey categories varies. Figure 4.2 shows the geographic breakdown of the categories presented in Table 4.1. Labour Force Surveys are roughly similarly represented across regions, making up about 20 percent of the databases's surveys in each region, with

a slightly smaller share in SSA. Household budget surveys also make up about 15-25 percent in each region, with the exception of SSA (about 11 percent) and very few surveys in LAC. Population censuses make up about 10 percent, and agricultural surveys around 3-8 percent, of surveys in each region. Representation of other surveys in the GDN varies widely. SSA and SAR, as well as EAP, have a high share of health/DHS surveys in the database. Other household welfare surveys are also dominant in LAC as well as SSA.

Figure 4.2 Share of survey types represented in GDN, by region



V. Evidence from the GDN database: how well do surveys cover gender statistics?

Using the GDN, we identified the share of surveys each category that had data to construct each gender indicator in the IAEG-GS minimum set, as well as additional priority areas for gender statistics highlighted in the Data2X (2014) report and that are covered by the GDN assessment form (Tables 5.1-5.4). Our findings are discussed below, across the broad policy areas of economic opportunities, health, education, public life and decisionmaking, and human rights.

Economic opportunities

Coverage of overall labor force participation is quite high among surveys with standard employment modules (LFS, LSMS, and other household welfare surveys). Nearly all population censuses also have data on labor force participation for those aged 15 and older. Table 5.1 below shows 92 percent of LFS, 96 percent of LSMS, and 93 percent of other household welfare surveys have sex-disaggregated statistics on labor force participation among those aged 15 and above (i.3b, or indicator 3b). About 93 percent of population censuses cover this indicator as well. Comparatively, about 71 percent of household budget surveys have data on this indicator, and far lower shares among the MICS, health surveys, and agricultural censuses that either have a focus on different age groups or do not survey employment among all household members. The Findex does not have any employment data, and while the DHS does, it only covers the working population up to age 49 (explaining why 63 percent of health surveys have labor force participation data for men and women between 15-24, but only 7.2 percent have data for the population above age 15).

With some exceptions within the LFS, however, far fewer surveys with standard employment modules cover other Tier 1 employment indicators such as self-employment, contributing or unpaid family work, and youth unemployment rates. As discussed earlier, Tier 1 indicators are defined by the IAEG-GS to be conceptually clear and regularly produced by countries. Looking at Table 5.1, however, while 80-86 percent of LFS collect sex-disaggregated data on the share of employed who are own-account workers (i.4), contributing or unpaid family workers (i.5), and employers (i.6), only about half of LSMS surveys and population censuses have the same information; other household welfare surveys have somewhat higher coverage (61 percent for the share of unpaid family workers, 75 percent for the share of employers, and 79 percent for the share of own-account workers), but these numbers are still far

below coverage of overall labor force participation. For youth unemployment (i.10), 91 percent of LFS and 75 percent of LSMS cover data for this indicator, but this share falls to 17 percent among other household welfare surveys, reflecting a substantial amount of heterogeneity in how employment data is collected in this latter group. About 42 percent of population censuses and 37 percent of household budget surveys also have data on youth unemployment. Sector of employment (i.8a-8c) generally has higher coverage rates — 92 percent of LFS, 79 percent of LSMS, and 87 percent of other household welfare surveys collect this data, but only 56 percent of population censuses and half of household budget surveys. Thus, with the exception for the most part of the LFS, coverage of other Tier 1 employment indicators is lower than that for overall labor force participation, and varies substantially among other surveys with standard employment modules. Contributing or unpaid family work, in particular, is a Tier 1 employment indicator not covered as well by surveys. Given that the LFS covers the broadest range of Tier 1 gender indicators in employment, coverage of unpaid work, particularly unpaid farm work, will be an important trend to track, given the exclusion of own-production/subsistence agriculture from the new ILO definition of employment.

Tier 2 employment indicators such as the proportion of employed working part-time and informal employment are covered well by the LFS and LSMS; coverage among other surveys varies widely. Employment mobility can be identified and has substantial coverage across surveys — albeit only through the narrow lens of data on unemployment and underemployment, and reported job satisfaction. Hours spent on unpaid domestic work are not covered well by any survey category, owing to limited survey instruments on time use. The LFS and LSMS surveys (93 percent and 83 percent, respectively) have good coverage of data to construct the share of employed working part time (i.14). About 59 percent of other household welfare surveys have this information, and only 42 and 37 percent, respectively, of population censuses and household budget surveys. About 91 percent of LFS, 79 percent of LSMS, and 71 percent of other household welfare surveys also collect relevant data to construct informal employment (i.9). About half of population censuses, as well as 40 percent of household budget surveys, collect data on informal employment as well. Table 5.1 shows that 54 percent of surveys overall have data on employment mobility, highlighted by the Data2X report — again due primarily to the LFS (93 percent of surveys with coverage), LSMS (79 percent) and other household welfare surveys (86 percent). About 53 percent of population censuses and 45 percent of household budget surveys also have this information. However, this is based only on whether these surveys have data on unemployment, underemployment (i.e. looking for additional work), as well as reported job

satisfaction. Far fewer surveys collect data on time spent in unpaid domestic work (i.1-2), stemming primarily from the lack of time use data in these surveys. Questions on hours spent in unpaid work may be better elicited through dedicated time use surveys, given that different domestic activities are often conducted simultaneously and the risk of substantial measurement error if such questions are not elicited carefully through separate instruments like time use diaries.

Among Tier 3 employment indicators, many surveys have good coverage of employment among those that have very young or no children, but almost no survey has complementary data on access to formal child care. Many surveys also have data on individual earnings, from which a gender gap in wages could be constructed, depending on data quality. No survey collects data on the share of firms owned by women. Around 90-94 percent of LSMS, LFS, and other household welfare surveys collect data on the share of employed persons aged 25-49 with children younger than three (and, alternatively, no children) living in the household (i.15). However, virtually no household surveys collect data on the share of children under 3 in formal care (i.16). Some countries may collect school-level or other administrative data on this indicator, but overall take-up of formal care programs in low and middle-income countries remains quite limited relative to informal support networks. Rapid urbanization and entry of women into the workforce in these countries nevertheless heightens the importance of understanding how formal care evolves going forward. Another Tier 3 indicator is the gender gap in wages (i.13), for which quite a few surveys (74 percent of LFS, 87 percent of LSMS, and 83 percent of other household welfare surveys) do actually collect this information. About 58 percent of household budget surveys also collect this data, and only 14 percent of population censuses. One issue with the wage gap indicator, however, given the difficulty in measuring earnings where informal and seasonal employment is common, is the comparability of estimates across different survey categories (and even across countries within a specific survey category as well). Earnings data also tend to be laden with missing and outlier values, so further investigation into survey data beyond the scope of the GDN is needed to really understand the availability of data in this area. Finally, no survey collects relevant data to construct the percentage of firms owned by women, since all the surveys examined are household, not firm-level.

Other Tier 3 economic indicators such as access to credit and land have much lower coverage than Tier 3 employment indicators — with only about 30 percent of surveys overall having individual credit data, and 6 percent with individual access to land. Where surveyed, access to credit and landownings

are often asked at the household as opposed to individual level. Table 5.1 shows that all the Findex surveys, as expected, have sex-disaggregated data on access to credit (i.11). About 62 percent of LSMS have this data as well. Far fewer shares of other survey categories, however, collect this information – about 40 percent of health and household budget surveys, 30 percent of other household welfare surveys, and 20 percent of MICS and agricultural censuses. No population census in the database asks about credit access. Coverage of individual landownings is even lower — LSMS has the highest coverage, with only 23 percent. Interestingly, only 1.4 percent of agricultural censuses have this data as well, highlighting an important gap in sex-disaggregated statistics on landownership that the World Bank (through LSMS-ISA surveys) and the FAO are trying to address. We also examined the availability of sex-disaggregated statistics on ownership of the household dwelling, and found higher rates of coverage across a few survey categories compared to land ownership (30 percent among LSMS surveys, and 19 percent of population censuses, compared to just 1 percent of censuses that collected sex-disaggregated data on land ownership). However, coverage of this indicator is still quite low — only 9 percent of all surveys have this information.

Survey categories also vary widely on coverage of economic indicators reflecting access to technology, with much greater coverage of the Tier 3 indicator on mass media compared to Tier 1 indicators such as internet and mobile/cellular phone access. Table 5.1 shows that about 89 percent of LSMS surveys cover the share of households with access to mass media (radio, TV, internet) by sex of the household head (i.19). Coverage among other survey categories is also high – 80 percent for MICS and other household welfare surveys, 95 percent for health surveys, 74 percent among population censues, and 66 percent among household budget surveys. However, for Tier 1 indicators on the proportion of individuals with internet access (i.17) and mobile/cellular telephone access (i.18), almost no surveys cover this information. Given the attention that these surveys place on understanding access to technology, the main difference is clearly the decision to survey at the household as opposed to individual level. While household access masks variation in household members' use of technology, significant measurement issues may also exist in trying to understand who uses technology inside and outside the home.

Table 5.1 Economic indicators covered by surveys in GDN

		Tier	Survey category										All surveys
			LFS[1]	LSMS	MICS	Findex	Other HH Welfare	Health	Pop. Census	Agric. census	HH Budget	Other[2]	
	IAEG-GS minimum set												
i.1	Avg. hours spent on unpaid domestic work by sex (separate housework and childcare)	2	14.7	10.6	-	-	3.8	-	-	-	3.1	11.1	4.6
i.2	Avg. hours spent on paid and unpaid work combined (total work burden), by sex	2	14.7	10.6	-	-	3.8	-	-	-	3.1	11.1	4.6
i.3a	Labor force participation rate for persons aged 15-24, by sex	1	92.9	95.7	12.9	-	94.2	62.9	93.9	14.1	71.1	33.3	71.3
i.3b	Labor force participation rate for persons aged 15+, by sex	1	91.6	95.7	5.9	-	93.0	7.2[3]	92.7	14.1	70.6	33.3	63.9
i.4	Proportion of employed: own-account workers, by sex	1	86.3	48.9	3.5	-	78.7	15.0	56.1	8.5	56.4	27.8	52.6
i.5	Proportion of employed: contributing family workers, by sex	1	84.6	53.2	7.1	-	60.6	24.6	47.6	8.5	36.6	22.2	45.9
i.6	Proportion of employed who are employers, by sex	1	80.0	48.9	3.5	-	74.6	9.6	51.8	8.5	54.3	27.8	49.1
i.7	Percentage of firms owned by women, by size	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
i.8a	Percentage distribution of employed population in agricultural sector, by sex	1	91.9	78.7	1.2	-	86.6	3.6	56.1	4.2	47.7	16.7	53.5
i.8b	Percentage distribution of employed population in industrial sector, by sex	1	91.9	78.7	1.2	-	86.6	3.6	56.1	4.2	47.7	16.7	53.5
i.8c	Percentage distribution of employed population in service sector, by sex	1	91.9	78.7	1.2	-	86.6	3.6	56.1	4.2	47.7	16.7	53.5
i.9	Informal employment as a percentage of total non-agricultural employment, by sex	2	93.0	78.7	28.2	-	70.6	26.4	49.4	8.5	39.6	22.2	52.3
i.10	Youth unemployment rate for persons aged 15-24, by sex	1	90.9	74.5	1.2	-	16.7	4.8	41.5	1.4	36.6	16.7	49.4
i.11	Proportion of population with access to credit, by sex	3	4.6	61.7	20.0	100.0	29.7	40.1	-	21.1	37.6	5.6	28.7
i.12	Proportion of adult population owning land, by sex	3	0.4	23.4	3.5	-	16.0	10.8	1.2	1.4	1.5	-	6.3
i.13	Gender gap in wages	3	74.4	87.2	2.4	-	83.1	3.0	14.0	2.8	57.9	16.7	46.3
i.14	Proportion of employed working part-time, by sex	2	93.0	83.0	5.9	-	58.6	15.6	28.7	7.0	44.2	5.6	45.5
i.15	Employment rate of persons 25-49 with a child < 3 years living in a HH and with no children living in the HH, by sex	3	92.6	89.4	4.7	-	93.9	46.1	67.7	11.3	65.0	33.3	64.8
i.16	Proportion of children under age 3 in formal care	3	0.7	-	1.2	-	5.3	6.6	-	-	-	-	2.2
i.17	Proportion of individuals using the internet, by sex	1	0.4	14.9	8.3	-	20.7	4.8	7.3	-	3.6	5.6	7.7
i.18	Proportion of individuals using mobile/cellular telephones, by sex	1	-	12.8	-	-	7.9	0.6	0.6	-	0.5	-	2.4
i.19	Proportion of households with access to mass media (radio, TV, internet) by sex of household head	3	16.1	89.4	80.0	-	79.6	95.2	73.8	4.2	65.5	27.8	57.0
	Additional indicators												
	Employment mobility (Data2X 2014) [4], [5]		93.3	78.7	2.4	-	85.4	9.0	53.1	2.8	45.2	16.7	53.5
	Ownership of dwelling		2.1	29.8	11.8	-	15.2	6.0	18.9	-	6.1	-	9.1
	Total number of surveys		**285**	**47**	**85**	**108**	**343**	**167**	**164**	**71**	**197**	**18**	**1,485**

Notes:

An "i" precedes each indicator number to make easier reference in the discussion. All but six of the surveys in the GDN were conducted between 2000-2012.

(1) Includes child labor force surveys (21 surveys).

(2) This category includes topic-specific surveys (for example, energy, violence against women, time use).

(3) DHS surveys, which make up most of the Health surveys category, only cover men and women up to age 49, so employment above age 49 is not recorded.

(4) Only data gaps highlighted by the Data2X (2014) report that were included in the GDN assessment form.

(5) Specifically, the GDN assessment form looks at mobility in terms of underemployment and employment.

Education

All but two education indicators in the IAEG-GS minimum set are Tier 1 (excepting the share of female graduates in science, engineering, manufacturing and construction at the tertiary level, as well as the share of women among tertiary-level teachers). As discussed below, however, coverage varies widely across survey categories.

Most surveys in each category, with the exception of agricultural censuses, have sex-disaggregated data on educational attainment of those aged 25 and older. Youth literacy rates are also covered well by many survey categories. Table 5.2 shows that more than 90 percent of LFS, LSMS, MICS, and population censuses have information on this indicator (i.31a-e). Among other household welfare surveys, health surveys, and household budget surveys, these shares are 88 percent, 79 percent, and 78 percent, respectively. Only 24 percent of agricultural censuses in the database have data on adult educational attainment, however, reflecting the extent to which additional socioeconomic data are limited in these surveys. As for the youth literacy rate among persons aged 15-24 (i.20), MICS does less well in coverage (only 33 percent of surveys cover this information), but about 79 percent of other household welfare surveys have this data, along with 70 percent of LSMS and population censuses, as well as about half of LFS, health, and household budget surveys.

MICS surveys have the widest coverage across indicators reflecting enrollment, compared to other types of surveys. Looking at Table 5.2, nearly all MICS surveys cover indicators reflecting primary enrollment and the gender parity index of the gross enrollment ratio in primary education (i.21 and i.24a). This also holds for the comparable indicators on secondary education (i.22 and i.24b).[21] Close to 80 percent of MICS surveys have similar data on enrollment in tertiary education (i.23 and i.24c). Between 72-75 percent of LSMS surveys also have data to construct all these indicators. Only a little more than half of other household welfare surveys and health surveys have this data, however, and an average of about 40 percent of population censuses and household budget surveys.

[21] Out of the 85 MICS surveys that were conducted over the period, 5 surveys — Cuba (3 surveys, from 2000, 2006 and 2010), Burkina Faso (2006), and Montenegro (2005) — did not collect exactly the data required to construct the primary and secondary enrollment gender indicators. The Cuba and Montenegro surveys, for example, only asked about highest level attended, not current attendance. The Burkina Faso survey had a narrower age window for questions on enrollment.

With the MICS mostly as an exception, the weakest areas in coverage reflect educational transitions — intake into primary school, completion of primary and lower secondary education, as well as primary to secondary transition rates. Table 5.2 shows that net intake rates to the first grade (i.27) and primary completion rates (i.28) are covered by about 86 and 93 percent of MICS surveys, respectively, but far fewer surveys in other categories have this information. Within the LSMS, for example, about 64 percent have data to construct net intake rates to the first grade, as well as about 55 percent of health surveys; 25 percent or less of other survey categories have this data. And for primary completion rates (i.28) and primary to secondary transition rates (i.30), these shares fall even further (although the shares of health surveys covering these indicators remain around 49 and 46 percent, respectively). The indicator for the gross graduation ratio from lower secondary education (i.29) also has very low coverage overall, although other household welfare surveys perform better than the MICS in this area (about 41 percent coverage, compared to about 18 percent for the MICS). Many surveys do not distinguish lower from upper secondary education, which may be one reason for this difference.

Reasons for not attending school are covered to a limited extent by surveys, and most do not include cultural factors that often affect girls. About 32 percent LSMS surveys and 19 percent of other household welfare surveys have questions on reasons for not attending school, including cost and transportation issues. Table 5.2 shows that social or cultural factors, however, are typically not included among these options, including underlying factors such as ethnicity, religion and location of residence – even though much empirical evidence exists that girls within ethnic groups that face social exclusion are often more likely to be kept at home compared to boys. Further investigation of these patterns across countries is needed.

Table 5.2 Education indicators covered by surveys in GDN

		Tier	Survey category										All surveys
			LFS[1]	LSMS	MICS	Findex	Other HH Welfare	Health	Pop. Census	Agric. census	HH Budget	Other[2]	
	IAEG-GS minimum set												
i.20	Youth literacy rate of persons (15-24 years), by sex	1	51.2	70.2	32.9	-	79.0	55.1	68.9	9.9	51.8	11.1	53.4
i.21	Adjusted net enrollment rate in primary education by sex	1	19.3	74.5	94.1	-	51.3	56.3	39.0	-	43.7	-	39.7
i.22	Gross enrollment ratio in secondary education, by sex	1	27.4	74.5	94.1	-	52.5	56.3	39.0	-	43.7	-	41.6
i.23	Gross enrollment ratio in tertiary education, by sex	1	32.3	72.3	78.8	-	50.2	50.3	36.6	-	39.1	-	39.5

i.24a	Gender parity index of the gross enrollment ratio in primary education	1	27.4	74.5	95.3	-	52.8	56.9	39.6	-	45.2	-	42.0
i.24b	Gender parity index of the gross enrollment ratio in secondary education	1	27.4	74.5	94.1	-	52.5	56.3	39.0	-	43.7	-	41.6
i.24c	Gender parity index of the gross enrollment ratio in tertiary education	1	32.3	72.3	78.8	-	50.2	50.3	36.6	-	39.1	-	39.5
i.25	Share of female science, engineering, manufacturing and construction graduates at tertiary level	2	9.1	2.1	-	-	0.9	-	0.6	-	2.0	-	2.4
i.26	Proportion of females among tertiary education teachers or professors	2	1.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.0	-	0.1
i.27	Adjusted net intake rate to the first grade of primary education, by sex	1	9.5	63.8	94.1	-	34.1	54.5	17.7	-	25.4	-	28.6
i.28	Primary education completion rate (proxy), by sex	1	3.2	29.8	85.9	-	20.4	48.5	-	-	2.5	-	17.0
i.29	Gross graduation ratio from lower secondary education, by sex	1	4.2	23.4	17.7	-	40.5	25.8	14.0	-	17.3	-	18.7
i.30	Effective transition rate from primary to secondary education (general programs), by sex	1	1.1	12.8	83.5	-	7.9	45.5	-	-	2.5	-	12.7
i.31a-e	Educational attainment of the population aged 25 and older, by sex	1	91.6	91.5	95.3	-	87.5	79.0	91.5	23.9	78.2	38.9	77.1
	Data2X (2014)[3]												
	Exclusion from school (underlying reasons for not attending)		1.4	31.9	9.4	-	19.2	12.0	0.6	-	3.6	-	8.2
	- Survey includes whether exclusion due to ethnicity/cultural factors		1.1	10.6	1.2	-	5.5	1.8	-	-	1.5	-	2.3
	Total number of surveys		**285**	**47**	**85**	**108**	**343**	**167**	**164**	**71**	**197**	**18**	**1,485**

Notes:

An "i" precedes each indicator number to make easier reference in the discussion. All but six of the surveys in the GDN were conducted between 2000-2012.

(1) Includes child labor force surveys (21 surveys).

(2) This category includes topic-specific surveys (for example, energy, violence against women, time use).

(3) Only data gaps highlighted by the Data2X (2014) report that were included in the GDN assessment form.

Health and related services

As expected, health (comprised mostly of DHS) surveys have the greatest coverage of health indicators compared to other survey categories, but coverage is not at all complete and appears to be focused on maternal and reproductive health outcomes for adult women. All the IAEG-GS health indicators are Tier 1, and Table 5.3 shows that certain indicators such as antenatal care coverage (i.35a-b), the share of births attended by a skilled health professional (i.36), as well as contraceptive prevalence (i.32), are covered by about 75-77 percent of health surveys. About 68 percent of health surveys have information to construct smoking prevalence among those 15 and older (i.37), and 64 percent have information to construct maternal mortality ratios (i.34). However, far fewer health

surveys have data to construct other indicators on mortality, including under-five mortality rates (i.33) and adult mortality by cause (i.42a-b), life expectancy at age 60 (i.41), as well as other health indicators on obesity (i.38) and HIV/AIDS (i.39), for which coverage is the lowest among all indicators. As seen in Table 5.3, other survey categories typically do not collect detailed health data to cover these indicators, although 91 percent of MICS surveys and about half of LSMS surveys do collect data to construct the proportion of births attended by a skilled health professional. Collection of sex-disaggegrated statistics on health is clearly focused on maternal health and reproductive health outcomes, and while the DHS survey series has begun collecting more data recently on other health outcomes including HIV/AIDS, coverage remains very limited. Due to the age sample that most health surveys have (15 and older), however, sexual and reproductive health of adolescents, which would otherwise be a topic that only health surveys would typically cover, is viritually unaddressed (except in the case of adolescent birth rates, discussed further below).

Utilization of maternal and non-maternal health surveys, on the other hand, is addressed well in some survey categories — but constraints to seeking health care have less coverage. Looking at Table 5.3, about 91 percent of LSMS and MICS surveys have data on utilization of maternal and non-maternal health services, and about 72 percent of health surveys. About 48 percent of other household welfare surveys, as well as 36 percent of household budget surveys, have this information. However, use or non-use of health care services does not necessarily reveal the extent to which sick persons were actually constrained from seeking care, which is a common issue for women in poorer countries. Survey coverage is substantially lower on reasons for not seeking health care, – 60 percent of LSMS surveys, 49 percent of health surveys, and 36 percent of other household welfare surveys. Overall, only a little more than half of the surveys that have data on health care utilization also have data on reasons for not seeking health care.

Table 5.3 Health indicators covered by surveys in GDN

		Tier	Survey category										All surveys
			LFS[1]	LSMS	MICS	Findex	Other HH Welfare	Health	Pop. Census	Agric. census	HH Budget	Other[2]	
	IAEG-GS minimum set												
i.32	Contraceptive prevalence among women who are married or in a union, aged 15-49	1	-	31.9	61.2	-	7.3	76.7	-	-	12.2	-	16.4

i.33	Under-five mortality rate, by sex	1	-	-	8.2	-	0.9	31.1	3.7	-	-	-	4.6
i.34	Maternal mortality ratio	1	2.1	12.8	27.1	-	5.8	63.5	29.3	-	11.2	-	15.6
i.35a-b	Antenatal care coverage (including number of visits)	1	-	10.6	23.5	-	3.2	74.9	-	-	2.0	-	11.1
i.36	Proportion of births attended by a skilled health professional	1	-	51.1	90.6	-	17.8	77.8	1.8	-	14.2	-	21.8
i.37	Smoking prevalence among persons aged 15 and over, by sex	1	0.4	21.3	9.4	-	6.7	68.3	3.1	-	18.8	5.6	13.4
i.38	Proportion of adults who are obese, by sex	1	-	-	2.4	-	-	10.2	-	-	-	-	1.3
i.39	Women's share of population aged 15-49 living with HIV/AIDS	1	-	-	-	-	0.3	28.7	-	-	-	-	3.2
i.40	Access to anti-retroviral drug, by sex	1	-	-	-	-	-	5.4	-	-	-	-	0.6
i.41	Life expectancy at age 60, by sex	1	0.7	14.9	11.8	-	5.0	47.3	42.1	-	12.2	-	14.0
i.42a-b	Adult mortality (all years), by cause	1	0.7	10.6	-	-	3.8	16.2	11.6	-	7.6	-	5.5
	Data2X (2014)[3]												
	Adolescent health (sexual and reproductive health)		-	-	-	-	0.9	1.2	-	-	0.5	-	0.4
	Utilization of available maternal and non-maternal health services		6.3	91.5	90.6	-	47.5	71.9	4.9	-	36.0	-	33.6
	- Utilization of services: reasons for not seeking health care		2.5	59.6	4.7	-	36.4	49.1	0.6	-	11.2	-	18.1
	Total number of surveys		**285**	**47**	**85**	**108**	**343**	**167**	**164**	**71**	**197**	**18**	**1,485**

Notes:

An "i" precedes each indicator number to make easier reference in the discussion. All but six of the surveys in the GDN were conducted between 2000-2012.

(1) Includes child labor force surveys (21 surveys).

(2) This category includes topic-specific surveys (for example, energy, violence against women, time use).

(3) Only data gaps highlighted by the Data2X (2014) report that were included in the GDN assessment form.

Public life and decisionmaking

In general, no household surveys and censuses currently collect data on women's participation in public office, as well as roles as public servants. The only area within public life and decisionmaking where a few surveys have data is for women's share of managerial positions. Many household surveys, through standard employment modules, have data on type of occupation. From this, Table 5.4 shows that a few survey categories have data specifically on whether individuals are employed in managerial roles (i.45), with LSMS surveys having the broadest representation (about 28 percent). However, as can be seen in the table, only a handful of other surveys have a detailed enough breakdown of occupations to be able to understand whether women occupy managerial roles – including only about 5 percent of LFS. Participation in national/local government (i.43, i.44), as well as

other official roles in law enforcement (i.46, i.47) are not elicited in any survey in the database. Administrative data is another possible way to generate statistics for these indicators, depending on data availability, as well as surveys based on electoral cycles.

For public life and decisionmaking outcomes, both national identity documentation as well as voter registration and turnout are elicited in the assessment form. Survey coverage is substantial for the former, when defined as self-reported national identity/citizenship or possession of a birth certificate. However, when questions are limited to just possession of a birth certificate, coverage drops considerably. Voter turnout is unaddressed by nearly all surveys. Table 5.4 shows that 86 percent of MICS surveys, 70 percent of population censuses, and 65 percent of health surveys have data either on self-reported nationality/citizenship (the two are not disaggregated in the GDN), or possession of a birth certificate. Coverage among other survey categories is much lower – about 28 percent of LSMS, 24 percent of household budget surveys, and 18 percent of LFS and other household welfare surveys. Data concerns in this area, however, stem mainly from lack of documentation on citizenship as opposed to self-reporting. The Data2X report points to recent studies that show how children whose births are not registered are more likely to live in poverty compared to those who are registered, and how gaps in gender outcomes are associated with lower rates of birth registration.[22] When limiting the nationality outcome to possession of a birth certificate, coverage rates remain the same or similar for MICS and health surveys (coverage for health surveys drops from 65 to 59 percent), but coverage among other survey categories drops substantially. Voter turnout remains a major data gap across virtually all surveys. As with the other IAEG-GS indicators on political participation, however, a different survey methodology might be more appropriate for eliciting these outcomes, since turnout in particular is likely to vary by electoral cycle and type of election.

Human rights/security

Within human rights, adolescent birth rates and early marriage are the only two indicators that have significant coverage across surveys. Table 5.4 shows that about 70 percent of the MICS and health

[22] World Bank; World Health Organization (2014). "Global civil registration and vital statistics : scaling up investment plan 2015-2024." Washington, DC : World Bank Group. Available at: http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/2014/05/19581045/global-civil-registration-vital-statistics-scaling-up-investment-plan-2015-2024

surveys have data on the percentage of women aged 20-24 who were married before age 18 (i.51), and about 87-88 percent cover the adolescent birth rate as well (i.52). Among other survey categories, far fewer surveys cover early marriage as compared to the adolescent birth rate (about 86 percent of population censuses have data on the adolescent birth rate, for example, compared to 17 percent on early marriage; for the LSMS, these shares are 45 percent and 19 percent, respectively, and among other household welfare surveys, the respective shares are 33 percent and 3 percent).

Almost all surveys lack information to construct indicators on physical or sexual violence; only a small fraction of health surveys have modules to address these indicators. Overall, only about 2 percent of suveys in the database cover indicators on physical or sexual violence (i.48 – i.49b), centered primarily among health surveys (14 percent of surveys) and MICS (about 5 percent). About 11 percent of surveys classified as "other" (in this case, surveys specifically on violence against women) have data in this area, and one or two surveys among the LSMS and other household welfare surveys have data as well. About 22 percent of MICS surveys in the database, as well as 18 percent of health surveys, also contain data to construct an indicator on female genital cutting in relevant countries (i.50). This is an area that clearly requires more data collection, as administrative statistics also are virtually nonexistent. Recent rounds of the DHS have also been collecting more data on these topics; last year, the UN Department of Social and Economic Affairs also published guidelines on producing statistics on violence against women, and plans to follow up with survey training efforts within countries (UN DESA, 2014).[23]

[23] United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2014). *Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence Against Women.* United Nations, New York.

Table 5.4 Public life and decisionmaking, and human rights, indicators covered by surveys in GDN

		Tier	Survey category										All surveys
			LFS[1]	LSMS	MICS	Findex	Other HH Welfare	Health	Pop. Census	Agric. census	HH Budget	Other[2]	
	IAEG-GS minimum set												
	Public life and decisionmaking												
i.43	Women's share of government ministerial positions	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
i.44	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
i.45	Women's share of managerial positions (legislators, senior officials and managers)	1	4.5	27.7	-	-	4.4	1.8	2.4	1.4	1.5	5.5	3.6
i.46	Share of female police officers	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
i.47	Share of female judges	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Data2X (2014)[3]												
	National identity documentation (self reported nationality / citizenship as well as possession of birth certificate)		17.5	27.7	85.9	-	18.1	64.7	70.1	2.8	24.4	-	31.7
	- Only possession of a birth certificate		0.4	19.2	85.9	-	9.6	58.7	10.4	-	10.7	-	17.0
	Voter turnout [4]		-	2.1	-	-	-	-	1.8	-	0.5	-	0.3
	Human rights												
i.48	Proportion of women aged 15-49 subjected to physical or sexual violence in the last 12 months by an intimate partner [5]	2	-	2.1	4.7	-	0.6	13.8	-	-	-	-	2.0
i.49a	Proportion of women aged 15-49 subjected to physical violence in the last 12 months by persons other than an intimate partner	2	-	-	4.7	-	1.2	13.8	-	-	0.5	11.1	2.3
i.49b	Proportion of women aged 15-49 subjected to sexual violence in the last 12 months by persons other than an intimate partner	2	-	-	4.7	-	1.2	13.8	-	-	-	11.1	2.2
i.50	Prevalence of female genital mutilation/cutting (for relevant countries only)	1	-	-	22.4	-	1.2	18.0	-	-	-	-	3.6
i.51	Percentage of women aged 20-24 years old who were married or in a union before age 18	1	0.4	19.2	70.6	-	2.6	68.9	16.5	-	12.2	-	16.5
i.52	Adolescent birth rate	1	10.2	44.7	87.1	-	33.2	88.8	86.0	-	10.2	-	36.8
	Total number of surveys		**285**	**47**	**85**	**108**	**343**	**167**	**164**	**71**	**197**	**18**	**1,485**

Notes:

An "i" precedes each indicator number to make easier reference in the discussion. All but six of the surveys in the GDN were conducted between 2000-2012.

(1) Includes child labor force surveys (21 surveys).

(2) This category includes topic-specific surveys (for example, energy, violence against women, time use).

(3) Only data gaps highlighted by the Data2X (2014) report that were included in the GDN assessment form.

(4) Only voter participation in national/local elections is included in the assessment form, not voter registration

(5) The same surveys reported data on physical and sexual violence by an intimate partner.

V. Conclusions: priority areas and looking ahead

Using information on surveys in the GDN, a number of gender data gaps continue to persist across different survey categories, even among many Tier 1 indicators that the IAEG-GS classifies as regularly produced by countries. Some types of surveys clearly cover certain gender indicators better than others, mostly because of survey specialization in different topics, and this is a good starting point to understanding ways to address gender data gaps. We find that many of the observed gaps across domains (employment, education, and health, in particular) could be addressed by adding a question to an existing module, without changing the sequencing or nature of other related questions. This assessment report recommends that where a question could feasibly be added to improve coverage of a gender indicator, that all surveys of this type should include it (rather than prioritizing one survey type over another). This hinges on such surveys already having well-developed survey modules for the domain (e.g., employment, health) where the indicator belongs. Doing so helps enhance global coverage of gender statistics in two ways – (1) by reinforcing a core set of information across domains (including modules on demographics, employment, education, health, agriculture, credit, and other modules), which is a valuable resource in understanding how policies can be better targeted towards improving gender inequalities; and (2) improving the comparability of gender statistics across different types of surveys.

Recommendations below try to highlight, barring additional resource and training constraints, which gender data gaps observed across surveys could be addressed more easily without substantial changes to existing survey modules. Efficiency issues are also important to consider, given the cost of conducting surveys, and some outcomes (for example, self employment) can be measured more easily than others (violence against women).

Type of employment (including informal, unpaid, and self-employed work), is an important gender data gap to address in the near term. As discussed earlier, women in middle and low-income countries are heavily concentrated in self-employed work, or low-wage or unpaid activities (including informal employment, contributing or unpaid family work, and/or subsistence agriculture). This report found that beyond the LFS and LSMS, other surveys with detailed employment modules have substantially lower coverage on the nature of employment, including unpaid family work (Tier 1), self-employment (Tier 1), and informal employment (Tier 2). Since most of the surveys we examine already have modules

on employment, integrating questions mode of payment as well as whether the work was unpaid as part of a family enterprise would be relatively straightforward without changing other aspects of the survey. Doing so would also improve comparability of estimates on employment and other work activities across different surveys — a crucial issue given that future rounds of the LFS will be incorporating the new ILO employment definition (that excludes subsistence or own-production agriculture from employment and moves it into an unpaid work category).

Access to, and time spent on, child care, is another major gender data gap affecting women's employment – aspects of which could be addressed by existing surveys. Access to formal child care, a Tier 3 indicator and an important constraint on employment for many women, could be added as a single question to individuals and would be highly relevant for policy. The IAEG-GS minimum set does also highlight additional Tier 2 indicators on hours spent on unpaid domestic work by sex (separating out child care), as well as hours spent on paid and unpaid work combined, by sex. Questions on hours spent in these activities, however, may be better elicited through dedicated time use surveys, given that different domestic activities including child care are often conducted simultaneously and the substantial risk of measurement error if such questions are not elicited carefully through separate instruments like time use diaries.

Varying progress is being made on sex-disaggregated statistics on access to credit, technology, and land. Many surveys have already moved towards asking individual-level questions on access to credit, and individual access to communications technology such as mobile phones, currently lacking in household surveys, could also be addressed feasibly in the near term. Individual landownership is a more complex and long-term issue that surveys with agricultural modules are increasingly trying to address. As discussed earlier, constraints in access to credit, land, and other capital and technology hamper opportunities for self employment in both the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors, and the gender distribution of asset holdings has been argued to affect a number of household outcomes, including expenditures.[24] A growing share of surveys (main contributors being the Global Findex and LSMS) have individual-level modules on credit access, and going forward this should be incorporated in other surveys with credit modules as well. The rise of mobile phone use in low-income countries for accessing markets, credit, and other information, has also created immense changes for men and

[24] See, e.g., Doss (2013). "Intrahousehold Bargaining and Resource Allocation in Developing Countries." *World Bank Research Observer* 28(1): 52-78.

women who otherwise face substantial geographic and resource constraints. Instead of a household-level question, two individual questions adult household members on whether they own, and/or use, a mobile phone is relatively straightforward to implement and can reveal important information on how access to mobile technology is correlated with other individual socioeconomic outcomes. Landownings is more complicated to address at the individual level owing to different joint ownership and management arrangements across countries, but is crucial in the long term for surveys with a focus on agriculture. Similar progress needs to be made in data on who owns the household dwelling, which has higher coverage among LSMS and population censuses compared to land ownership, but still scant coverage overall. Important progress in this area is occurring which can set an example for other surveys. LSMS-ISA surveys, for example, collect data on individual landownings, which among other topics have been very useful in understanding gender differentials in agricultural productivity.[25] The FAO AGRIS will also be a valuable resource going forward. Agricultural censuses should also include sex-disaggregated data on landownership, following guidelines from policy research circles, as well as separate guidelines that the FAO is working on this year.[26]

Within education, enrollment rates are well covered across surveys. However, important facets of education relevant to girls, including primary-to-secondary transition rates and reasons for not attending school are important gender issues that few surveys address and could be addressed in the near term. Although enrollment and schooling completion rates of boys and girls diverge at the secondary level, this assessment report finds that little is understood about transition rates from primary to secondary school. Adding a question on whether household members who completed primary schooling moved to secondary school would also be feasible in an education module. Similarly, few household surveys ask about reasons for not attending school (including transportation or access issues, financial constraints including whether the child is engaged in work, lack of toilets and other sanitation facilities at school, other issues related to culture or beliefs), which could be added as a single question with options to an education module to understand what factors constrain girls and boys from attending. Among the Data2X gender gaps in education, learning outcomes beyond basic literacy (proficiency in different levels within reading, writing, and other subjects) are not covered by the GDN

[25] Special issue on Gender and Agriculture in Sub-Saharan Africa (introductory article by Talip Kilic, Paul Winters, Calogero Careltto), *Agricultural Economics*, 46(3): 281-462, May 2015.

[26] Doss, C., Grown, C., & Deere, C. (2008). Gender and Asset Ownership: A Guide to Collecting Individual-Level Data (Policy Research Working Paper Series, Working paper No. 4704). Washington, DC: World Bank. Alongside the the development of AGRIS, FAO is also working on guidelines for producing sex-disaggregated statistics on land ownership.

assessment form. Although a very important topic, almost no household surveys we examine cover this issue, mainly because of the complexity of adding such questions to a standard education module. Dedicated surveys such as the OECD's Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) may be the best way to tackle additional questions on learning/proficiency.[27]

Within public life and decisionmaking, national identity documentation (at the minimum, possession of a birth certificate) would be a valuable near-term indicator that household surveys could include. Other gender data gaps related to public life/political participation, with the exception of whether men/women hold managerial roles, may require a different survey methodology as compared to household surveys in the GDN. National identity documentation, in the form of birth registration, is a key gender data gap highlighted by Data2X that affects individuals' access to public services, education, and employment. The MICS has the best coverage of whether individuals have a birth certificate, followed by population censuses and health (mostly DHS) surveys; this question could be included in other household surveys as well that are focused on access to services and household welfare more broadly. The only area within public life and decisionmaking where a few surveys in the GDN have data is for women's share of managerial positions, which could potentially be addressed with a question asking individuals whether or not they hold a position as a legislator, senior official and/or manager in a firm. In low-income countries, most women, particularly in rural areas, are not likely to hold these positions, but urban areas may capture a greater (and increasing) share over time. Among other gender indicators within public life and decisionmaking, however, including positions in government and community organizations (IAEG-GS), as well as voter registration and turnout (Data2X), these topics may be better covered by surveys focused on these issues, since it may require a different methodology (looking at election cycles, for example) as compared to household surveys.

Within health and human rights, gender data gaps highlighted in this report may require a longer term window to address, and may continue to be better addressed through surveys specific to these topics. Adolescent birth rates and early marriage (i.e., the percentage of women aged 20-24 who were married or in a union before age 18) are the only two IAEG-GS indicators that have significant coverage across surveys, particularly health surveys and the MICS. Coverage could still be improved by adding a question in the demographic modules of other household surveys like the LSMS that asks women of this age group whether they are or have been married. As discussed earlier, howver, health surveys tend to

[27] See http://www.oecd.org/pisa/ .

focus on maternal and reproductive health outcomes for women, and have less coverage of indicators on child and adult mortality, life expectancy, other health conditions/excess disease burdens by sex, as well as constraints to seeking health care. These issues are important but would require careful sequencing of additional questions, and would likely take a longer time to implement. Also given the specialized nature of these questions, and the importance of correlating different health outcomes in understanding individuals' overall health burdens, dedicated surveys such as the DHS would continue to be the best resource for this information. Similarly, within human rights, almost all of the gender data gaps fall under sexual or physical violence, which is a sensitive issue that would ideally require dedicated surveys. The UN also recently published guidelines for collecting data on violence against women, that emphasizes the need for specialized surveys.[28] The conflict-related gender data gaps cited by Data2X are also not covered by the GDN assessment form and by most household surveys, and the quality of such data would be much better through surveys specifically focused on conflict areas and outcomes.

For policy, surveys that provide a core set of information across domains (including modules on demographics, employment, education, health, agriculture, credit, and other modules) are a valuable resource in understanding how policies can be better targeted towards improving gender inequalities. This assessment report examined coverage of indicators separately, but for policy, there are strong benefits to having surveys with data spanning multiple domains (economic opportunities, education, health, etc.) For example, understanding women's work across different sectors, including unpaid work, has implications for understanding education and health outcomes for children, as well as labor allocation of other household members. The DHS has been expanding its coverage across modules in recent years, and detailed agricultural surveys that include information on household demographic and socioeconomic outcomes (LSMS-ISA, and the FAO's upcoming AGRIS) are/will be a valuable resource in understanding factors affecting sex-disaggregated outcomes in agriculture. As mentioned above, however, certain topics such as time use (hours spent on unpaid work), specialized health outcomes as well as violence against women are better addressed within dedicated surveys. At the same time, adding a few additional questions, for example, to these dedicated surveys on type of employment, constraints to work and schooling, identity documentation (in the case of surveys on violence against women), would be immensely helpful in understanding how to design policy in these areas.

[28] UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2013). *Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence Against Women*. New York: UNDESA.

Annex

Table A1. IAEG-GS minimum set of Gender Indicators (UNSD, 2012)

	Indicators	Tier
Economic structures, participation in productive activities and access to resources		
1	Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic work by sex (note: separate housework and childcare if possible)	2
2	Average number of hours spent on paid and unpaid work combined (total work burden), by sex	2
3a	Labor force participation rate for persons aged 15-24, by sex	1
3b	Labor force participation rate for persons aged 15+, by sex	1
4	Proportion of employed who are own-account workers, by sex	1
5	Proportion of employed who are contributing family workers, by sex	1
6	Proportion of employed who are employers, by sex	1
7	Percentage of firms owned by women, by size	3
8a	Percentage distribution of employed population in agricultural sector, by sex	1
8b	Percentage distribution of employed population in industrial sector, by sex	1
8c	Percentage distribution of employed population in service sector, by sex	1
9	Informal employment as a percentage of total non-agricultural employment, by sex	2
10	Youth unemployment rate for persons aged 15-24, by sex	1
11	Proportion of population with access to credit, by sex	3
12	Proportion of adult population owning land, by sex	3
13	Gender gap in wages	3
14	Proportion of employed working part-time, by sex	2
15	Employment rate of persons aged 25-49 with a child under age 3 living in a household and with no children living in the household, by sex	3
16	Proportion of children under age 3 in formal care	3
17	Proportion of individuals using the internet, by sex	1
18	Proportion of individuals using mobile/cellular telephones, by sex	1
19	Proportion of households with access to mass media (radio, TV, internet) by sex of household head	3
Education		
20	Youth literacy rate of persons (15-24 years), by sex	1
21	Adjusted net enrollment rate in primary education by sex	1
22	Gross enrollment ratio in secondary education, by sex	1
23	Gross enrollment ratio in tertiary education, by sex	1
24a	Gender parity index of the gross enrollment ratio in primary education	1
24b	Gender parity index of the gross enrollment ratio in secondary education	1
24c	Gender parity index of the gross enrollment ratio in tertiary education	1
25	Share of female science, engineering, manufacturing and construction graduates at tertiary level	2
26	Proportion of females among tertiary education teachers or professors	2
27	Adjusted net intake rate to the first grade of primary education, by sex	1
28	Primary education completion rate (proxy), by sex	1
29	Gross graduation ratio from lower secondary education, by sex	1

30	Effective transition rate from primary to secondary education (general programs), by sex	1
31a	Educational attainment (primary) of the population aged 25 and older, by sex	1
31b	Educational attainment (lower secondary) of the population aged 25 and older, by sex	1
31c	Educational attainment (upper secondary) of the population aged 25 and older, by sex	1
31d	Educational attainment (post-secondary) of the population aged 25 and older, by sex	1
31e	Educational attainment (tertiary) of the population aged 25 and older, by sex	1
Health and related services		
32	Contraceptive prevalence among women who are married or in a union, aged 15-49	1
33	Under-five mortality rate, by sex	1
34	Maternal mortality ratio	1
35a	Antenatal care coverage, at least one visit	1
35b	Antenatal care coverage, at least four visits	1
36	Proportion of births attended by a skilled health professional	1
37	Smoking prevalence among persons aged 15 and over, by sex	1
38	Proportion of adults who are obese, by sex	1
39	Women's share of population aged 15-49 living with HIV/AIDS	1
40	Access to anti-retroviral drug, by sex	1
41	Life expectancy at age 60, by sex	1
42a	Adult mortality 15-34 years by cause	1
42b	Adult mortality 35-59 years by cause	1
Public life and decisionmaking		
43	Women's share of government ministerial positions	1
44	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament	1
45	Women's share of managerial positions	1
46	Share of female police officers	2
47	Share of female judges	2
Human rights of women and girl children		
48	Proportion of women aged 15-49 subjected to physical or sexual violence in the last 12 months by an intimate partner	2
49	Proportion of women aged 15-49 subjected to physical or sexual violence in the last 12 months by persons other than an intimate partner	2
50	Prevalence of female genital mutilation/cutting (for relevant countries only)	1
51	Percentage of women aged 20-24 years old who were married or in a union before age 18	1
52	Adolescent birth rate	1

Source: United Nations Statistical Commission (2012). Gender Statistics: Report of the Secretary General. Geneva. Available at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/doc13/2013-10-GenderStats-E.pdf

(1) The selected indicators were further classified into the following tiers: (1) **Tier 1:** Indicators conceptually clear, with an agreed international definition and regularly produced by countries; (2) **Tier 2:** Indicators conceptually clear, with an agreed international definition, but not yet regularly produced by countries; and (3) **Tier 3:** Indicators for which international standards need still to be developed and not regularly produced by countries.

Table A2. Share of surveys in GDN addressing additional data gaps highighted by Data2X (2014)

Additional data gaps [1]	Can be determined from GDN assessment form?
Economic	
Conditions of migrant workers	No
Employment mobility	Yes [2]
Health	
Maternal morbidity	No
Women's excess disease burdens	No
Mental health	No
Adolescent health (sexual and reproductive health)	Yes [3]
Utilization of available maternal and non-maternal health services	Yes
- Utilization of services: reasons for not seeking health care	Yes
Education	
Learning outcomes (beyond basic literacy and numeracy)	No
Exclusion from school (underlying reasons for not attending)	Yes
- Survey includes whether exclusion due to ethnicity/cultural factors	Yes
Public life and decisionmaking	
National identity documentation (self reported nationality/citizenship as well as possession of a birth certificate)	Yes
- Only possession of a birth certificate	Yes
Voter registration and turnout	Yes [4]
Human rights/security	
Conflict-related outcomes (mortality and morbidity by sex, gender-based violence, women's adaptive responses)	No

Notes:

(1) Other data gaps in the Data2X (2014) report overlap with a subset of the IAEG-GS minimum set indicators. The full list of gender data gaps can be accessed at http://data2x.org/gender-data-gaps/ .
(2) Specifically, the assessment form looks at mobility in terms of underemployment and employment.
(3) Coverage, however, depends on the age group specified in each survey.
(4) Only voter participation in national/local elections is included in the assessment form, not voter registration

Table A3. Categorization of specific survey types in the Gender Data Navigator (GDN)

Survey Type	Number of surveys	Share of total (%)	Category
AIDS Indicator Survey (AIS)	10	0.67	Health
Agricultural Census Survey (AgC)	56	3.77	Agricultural census
Agricultural Sample Survey (AgS)	5	0.34	Agricultural census
Agricultural Statistics Survey (AgSS)	10	0.67	Agricultural census
Food Security and Vulnerability Survey (CFSVA)	39	2.63	Household budget/consumption survey
Child Labour Force Survey (CLFS)	21	1.41	Labor force survey
Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire (CWIQ)	16	1.08	Other household welfare survey
Demographic Health Survey (DHS)	109	7.34	Health
Peru Family Health Survey (DHS-C)	4	0.27	Health
DHS-MICS	1	0.07	Health
Reproductive Health Survey (DHS-S)	11	0.74	Health
Enquete 1-2-3 Sur L'Emploi (E123) [1]	3	0.2	Labor force survey/Household budget survey
Global Findex (FINDEX)	108	7.27	Findex
Household Budget Survey (HBS)	59	3.97	Household budget/consumption survey
Household Consumption Expenditure Survey (HCES)	44	2.96	Household budget/consumption survey
Household Energy Survey (HES)	2	0.13	Other (energy, violence against women, time use)
Household Income and Consumption Expenditure Survey (HICES)	6	0.4	Household budget/consumption survey
Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES)	46	3.1	Household budget/consumption survey
Household Income Survey – Kiribati (HIS)	1	0.07	Household budget/consumption survey
Household Labour Force Survey (LFS)	261	17.58	Labor force survey
Labour Force Survey and Child Labour-Zimbabwe (LFS-CLFS)	2	0.13	Labor force survey
LSMS	39	2.63	LSMS
LSMS-ISA	8	0.54	LSMS
MICS	85	5.72	MICS
MICS-DHS	1	0.07	MICS
MICS-HBS	1	0.07	MICS
Malaria Indicator Survey (MIS)	11	0.74	Health
Continuous Multipurpose Household Survey (MULT) [2]	319	21.48	Other household welfare survey
Other household survey (specific topics)	16	1.08	Other (energy, domestic violence, time use)
Population Census (PHC)	164	11.04	Population census
Reproductive and Health Survey (RHS)	11	0.74	Health
Global Aging and Health Survey (SAGE)	6	0.4	Health
Welfare Monitoring Survey (WMS)	8	0.54	Other household welfare survey
Well-Being of Older People (WOPS)	2	0.13	Health
Total	**1,485**	**100**	

Table A4. Number of country surveys in GDN, by survey category and region

	Survey category										
Country	**Health**	**Agr. Census**	**LSMS**	**MICS**	**HH Budget**	**Pop Census**	**LFS**	**Other HH welfare survey**	**Findex**	**Other survey**	**Total**
AFRICA											
Angola	3	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	1	-	**6**
Botswana	-	1	-	-	-	2	1	-	1	-	**5**
Burundi	1	-	-	1	3	1	-	1	1	-	**8**
Cameroon	2	-	-	2	2	1	1	2	1	-	**11**
Cape Verde	1	1	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	**6**
Central African Republic	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	**4**
Chad	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	-	**4**
Comoros	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	**3**
Congo, Rep.	2	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	**4**
Congo, Dem. Rep.	1	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	1	-	**5**
Benin	1	-	-	-	1	1	1	1	1	-	**6**
Ethiopia	3	9	1	-	3	1	7	2	-	-	**26**
Eritrea	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
Djibouti	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	**4**
Gabon	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	**4**
Gambia	-	-	-	2	-	1	-	1	-	-	**4**
Ghana	4	-	1	3	1	2	1	1	1	-	**14**
Guinea	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	1	-	**5**
Côte d'Ivoire	1	-	-	1	1	-	1	2	-	-	**6**
Kenya	3	-	-	2	2	1	-	-	1	-	**9**
Lesotho	2	-	-	1	1	1	1	-	1	-	**7**
Liberia	3	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	1	-	**7**
Madagascar	3	-	-	-	2	-	1	1	1	-	**8**
Malawi	4	1	2	1	1	1	1	6	1	-	**18**
Mali	3	-	-	-	1	1	4	2	1	-	**12**
Mauritania	1	-	-	1	1	1	-	2	1	-	**7**
Mauritius	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	13	1	-	**18**
Mozambique	3	2	-	1	2	1	-	2	1	-	**12**
Namibia	2	-	-	-	2	2	2	-	-	-	**8**
Niger	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	3	1	-	**8**
Nigeria	3	-	1	1	-	1	1	2	1	-	**10**
Guinea-Bissau	-	-	-	2	1	1	-	2	-	-	**6**
Rwanda	4	1	-	1	3	1	1	4	1	-	**16**
São Tomé and Príncipe	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	**4**
Senegal	4	1	-	1	1	1	1	3	1	-	**13**
Seychelles	-	1	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	1	**5**
Sierra Leone	1	-	-	2	2	1	-	1	1	-	**8**
Somalia	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	**2**
South Africa [(b)]	3	-	-	-	3	2	34	13	1	1	**57**
Zimbabwe	2	-	-	1	1	2	2	-	1	-	**9**
South Sudan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	**1**
Sudan	-	-	-	1	1	1	-	1	1	-	**5**
Swaziland	1	-	-	1	2	1	-	-	1	-	**6**
Togo	-	-	-	2	-	1	-	1	1	-	**5**
Uganda	7	1	2	-	2	1	2	3	1	-	**19**
Tanzania	6	2	3	-	4	1	2	-	1	-	**19**
Burkina Faso	2	1	-	1	-	1	1	2	1	-	**9**
Zambia	2	-	-	-	-	2	1	4	1	-	**10**
Total	**84**	**22**	**11**	**34**	**53**	**46**	**67**	**87**	**38**	**2**	**444**

Notes:

(a) All but six of the surveys in the GDN were conducted between 2000-2012.

(b) South Africa had biannual labour force surveys between 2000-2007, and then quarterly labour force surveys following 2007. Since the surveys were entered separately into the GDN database, the table above maintains that distinction rather than aggregating.

Table A4 (continued). Number of country surveys in GDN, by survey category and region

	Survey category										
Country	**Health**	**Agr. Census**	**LSMS**	**MICS**	**HH Budget**	**Pop Census**	**LFS**	**Other HH welfare survey**	**Findex**	**Other survey**	**Total**
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC											
Bhutan	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	-	**3**
Solomon Islands	1	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	**3**
Myanmar	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	-	**5**
Cambodia	3	-	-	-	-	1	4	5	1	3	**14**
China	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	**3**
Fiji	-	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	**3**
Kiribati	1	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	1	**4**
Indonesia	4	-	-	-	23	2	5	-	1	4	**35**
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
Lao PDR	2	1	-	1	2	1	1	-	1	2	**9**
Malaysia	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	1	-	**4**
Mongolia	2	-	-	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	**12**
Vanuatu	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	**4**
Micronesia, Fed. Sts.	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	**3**
Marshall Islands	1	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	**3**
Palau	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	**2**
Papua New Guinea	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	**2**
Philippines	2	1	-	-	4	1	14	-	1	2	**23**
Timor-Leste	1	-	2	-	2	2	1	-	-	1	**8**
Vietnam	2	1	2	2	-	1	3	2	1	2	**14**
Thailand	-	1	-	1	-	2	2	4	1	-	**11**
Tonga	-	1	-	-	2	1	1	-	-	-	**5**
Tuvalu	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	**2**
Samoa	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	**2**
Total	**21**	**10**	**4**	**8**	**43**	**27**	**34**	**19**	**9**	**21**	**175**
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA											
Albania	1	-	5	1	1	2	1	-	1	-	12
Azerbaijan	1	1	1	-	3	-	1	-	1	-	8
Armenia	3	-	-	-	1	2	1	9	1	-	17
Bosnia and Herzegovina	-	-	4	3	2	-	6	-	1	-	16
Bulgaria	-	1	1	-	-	2	5	2	1	-	12
Belarus	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	2	1	-	5
Croatia	-	-	-	-	3	2	4	-	1	-	10
Estonia	-	-	-	-	7	2	3	1	1	-	14
Georgia	-	1	-	2	-	1	-	1	1	-	6
Kazakhstan	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	1	-	5
Kyrgyz Republic	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	3
Moldova	1	1	-	-	5	1	1	-	1	-	10
Montenegro	-	1	-	1	2	2	1	1	1	-	9
Poland	-	-	-	-	3	1	7	-	1	-	12
Romania	-	1	-	-	2	2	1	-	1	-	7
Russian Federation	1	-	-	-	3	2	-	-	1	-	7
Serbia	-	1	3	2	3	2	2	-	1	-	14
Tajikistan	-	-	3	2	1	-	-	-	1	-	7
Turkey	1	-	-	-	2	2	5	-	1	-	11
Turkmenistan	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	3
Ukraine	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	3
Macedonia, FYR	-	1	-	2	3	1	2	-	1	-	10
Uzbekistan	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	3
Kosovo	-	-	1	-	7	-	1	-	1	-	10
Total	**11**	**9**	**18**	**17**	**51**	**26**	**41**	**17**	**24**	**-**	**214**

Notes:
(a) All but six of the surveys in the GDN were conducted between 2000-2012.

Table A4 (continued). Number of country surveys in GDN, by survey category and region

Country	Survey category										
	Health	Agr. Census	LSMS	MICS	HH Budget	Pop Census	LFS	Other HH welfare survey	Findex	Other survey	Total
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN											
Antigua and Barbuda	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	**2**
Argentina	-	2	-	-	-	2	1	2	1	-	**8**
Bolivia	2	-	-	-	-	1	1	8	1	-	**13**
Brazil	-	1	-	-	2	2	11	10	1	-	**27**
Belize	-	-	1	2	-	2	1	-	-	1	**7**
Chile	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	7	1	-	**11**
Colombia	3	1	-	-	-	1	1	12	1	-	**19**
Costa Rica	1	-	-	-	1	2	1	13	1	-	**19**
Cuba	-	-	-	3	-	1	-	-	-	-	**4**
Dominica	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	-	**3**
Dominican Republic	2	-	-	1	1	2	5	1	1	-	**13**
Ecuador	1	1	-	-	-	2	15	1	1	-	**21**
El Salvador	2	-	-	-	-	1	-	12	1	-	**16**
Grenada	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	-	**3**
Guatemala	2	2	1	-	-	1	4	3	1	-	**14**
Guyana	2	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	**4**
Haiti	3	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	1	-	**7**
Honduras	2	-	-	-	-	1	-	13	1	-	**17**
Jamaica	2	1	1	1	-	2	5	8	1	-	**21**
Mexico	1	-	-	-	7	3	45	70	1	3	**130**
Nicaragua	2	2	2	-	-	1	-	2	1	1	**11**
Panama	-	2	2	-	-	2	2	9	1	-	**18**
Paraguay	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	7	1	-	**11**
Peru	5	1	-	-	-	2	1	12	1	-	**22**
St. Lucia	-	1	-	-	-	2	1	2	-	-	**6**
St. Vincent and the G	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	**2**
Suriname	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	**2**
Trinidad and Tobago	-	1	-	1	-	2	-	-	1	-	**5**
Uruguay	-	2	-	-	1	2	1	7	1	-	**14**
Venezuela, RB	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	5	1	-	**9**
Total	**30**	**20**	**7**	**10**	**13**	**45**	**98**	**210**	**21**	**5**	**459**
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA											
Algeria	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	-	**3**
Iran, Islamic Rep.	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	**2**
Iraq	-	-	1	3	-	-	-	-	1	-	**5**
Jordan	3	-	-	-	3	1	1	-	1	-	**9**
Lebanon	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	**1**
Morocco	1	-	-	1	1	1	-	1	1	-	**6**
Syrian Arab Republic	-	-	-	1	1	1	-	-	1	-	**4**
Tunisia	-	1	-	1	-	1	3	2	1	-	**9**
Egypt, Arab Rep.	3	-	-	-	2	1	2	-	1	-	**9**
Yemen, Rep.	-	1	-	1	2	1	-	-	1	-	**6**
West Bank and Gaza	-	1	-	-	6	1	12	-	1	11	**32**
Total	**7**	**3**	**1**	**8**	**15**	**10**	**18**	**3**	**10**	**11**	**86**
SOUTH ASIA											
Afghanistan	1	-	-	3	-	1	-	3	1	-	9
Bangladesh	5	1	-	2	4	1	4	1	1	-	19
Bhutan	-	1	-	1	1	-	3	1	-	-	7
Sri Lanka	1	1	-	-	3	2	5	-	1	-	13
India	2	1	-	-	11	2	7	-	1	-	24
Maldives	1	-	-	-	2	2	-	1	-	-	6
Nepal	3	2	2	1	1	2	1	-	1	-	13
Pakistan	1	1	4	1	-	-	7	1	1	-	16
Total	**14**	**7**	**6**	**8**	**22**	**10**	**27**	**7**	**6**	**-**	**107**

Notes:
(a) All but six of the surveys in the GDN were conducted between 2000-2012.

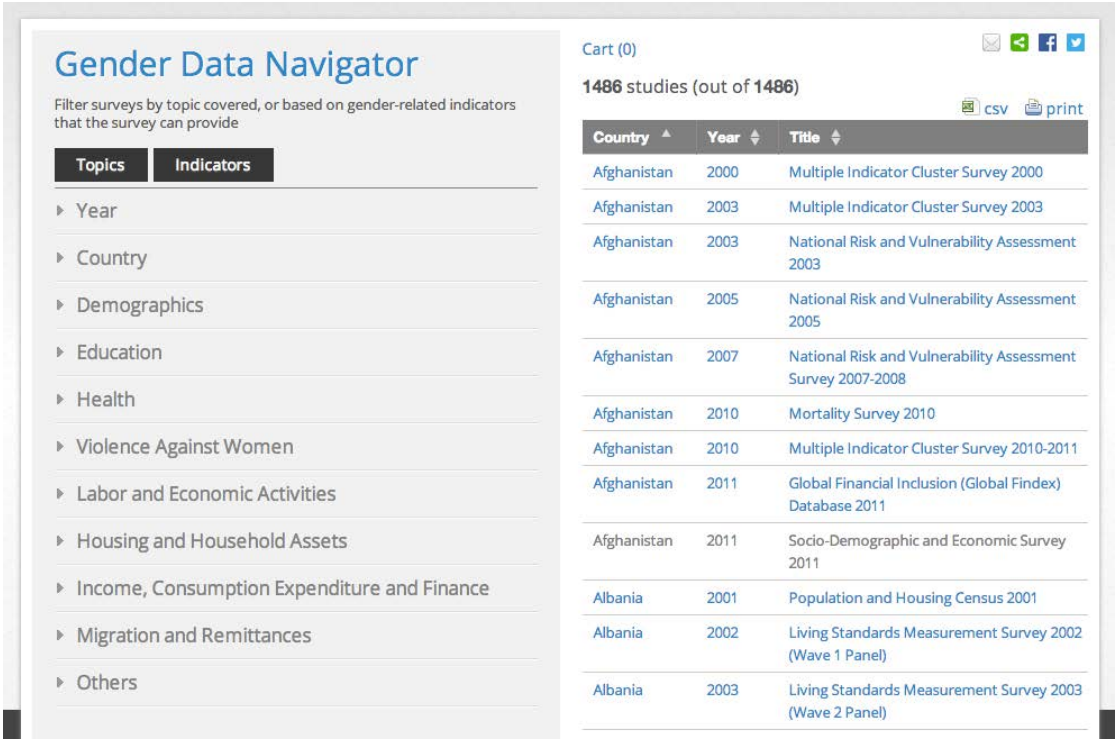
Table A5. Details on surveys included in GDN

		All/nearly all surveys have modules on:					
	Global coverage, by region	**Demographics**	**Economic opportunities**	**Education**	**Health**	**Public life and decisionmaking**	**Human rights/ security**
Survey category							
Living Standards and Measurement Survey (LSMS)	38 countries	X	X	X	X	limited	
LSMS-Integrated Surveys on Agriculture (LSMS-ISA)	8 countries (Sub-Saharan Africa)	X	X	X	X		
Global Financial Inclusion Survey (Findex, 2011 round)	148 countries, all regions	limited	X	limited			
Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS)	111 countries, all regions	X	X	X	X		limited
Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) [3]	86 countries, all regions	X	X	X	X	limited	limited
Labour Force Survey (LFS)	Most countries	X	X	X			
Population census	Most/all countries	X	X	X	limited		
Agricultural census	Most countries		X				
Household budget/consumption survey	Most countries	X	X	X	limited		
Other household welfare survey	Most countries	X	X	X	limited		

Notes:
(1) All surveys are nationally representative.
(2) "Other topic-specific surveys" (energy, violence against women, time use), of which there were 18 in the GDN, were not included in this table because of comparability issues.
(3) For the purposes of this table, information on just the DHS surveys was included since they constitute nearly all of the health surveys in the GDN (see Table 4.1).

Figure A1. Gender data navigator
(http://datanavigator.ihsn.org/)

Topics



Gender indicators (IAEG-GS)