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ABSTRACT

The fourth in a series of five handbooks designed to present and analyze statistical data on women in various regions of the world, this handbook focuses on women in 14 countries of Asia and the Pacific. Beginning with an overview of population distribution and changes in the region, the analysis continues with a description of women's literacy and education, their labor force participation, their marital status and living arrangements, their fertility, and their mortality. Information is presented not only in tables, charts, and text but also in narrative forms offering a critique on concepts, availability, and quality of the data assembled on each variable. Findings show that the Asian region contains two of the world's largest countries, Mainland China and India, which together are the home of 37 percent of the earth's inhabitants. In contrast, the Pacific island nations are relatively small. Compared to other parts of the developing world, the youth (under age 15) dependency burden in Asia as a whole is low, due largely to rapidly declining family size in East Asia and Mainland China. In all countries, men outpace women in the ability to read and write, although literacy is considerably higher among younger women. In addition, there are large female/male differences in rates of economic activity in both rural and urban areas, and marriage continues to be a prime determinant of women's status throughout much of Asia. Appendices contain references; sources of data; tables; information on population by age, sex, and rural/urban residence; and abbreviations. (LH)

WID-4

WOMEN OF THE WORLD

Asia and the Pacific

U.S. Department of Commerce
BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

U.S. Agency for International Development
OFFICE OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

WOMEN OF THE WORLD

Asia and the Pacific

by Nasra M. Shah

This report was prepared under a Resources Support Services Agreement with the Office of Women in Development, Bureau for Program and Policy Coordination, U.S. Agency for International Development

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Contents

Chapter 3. Figures—Continued

Tables

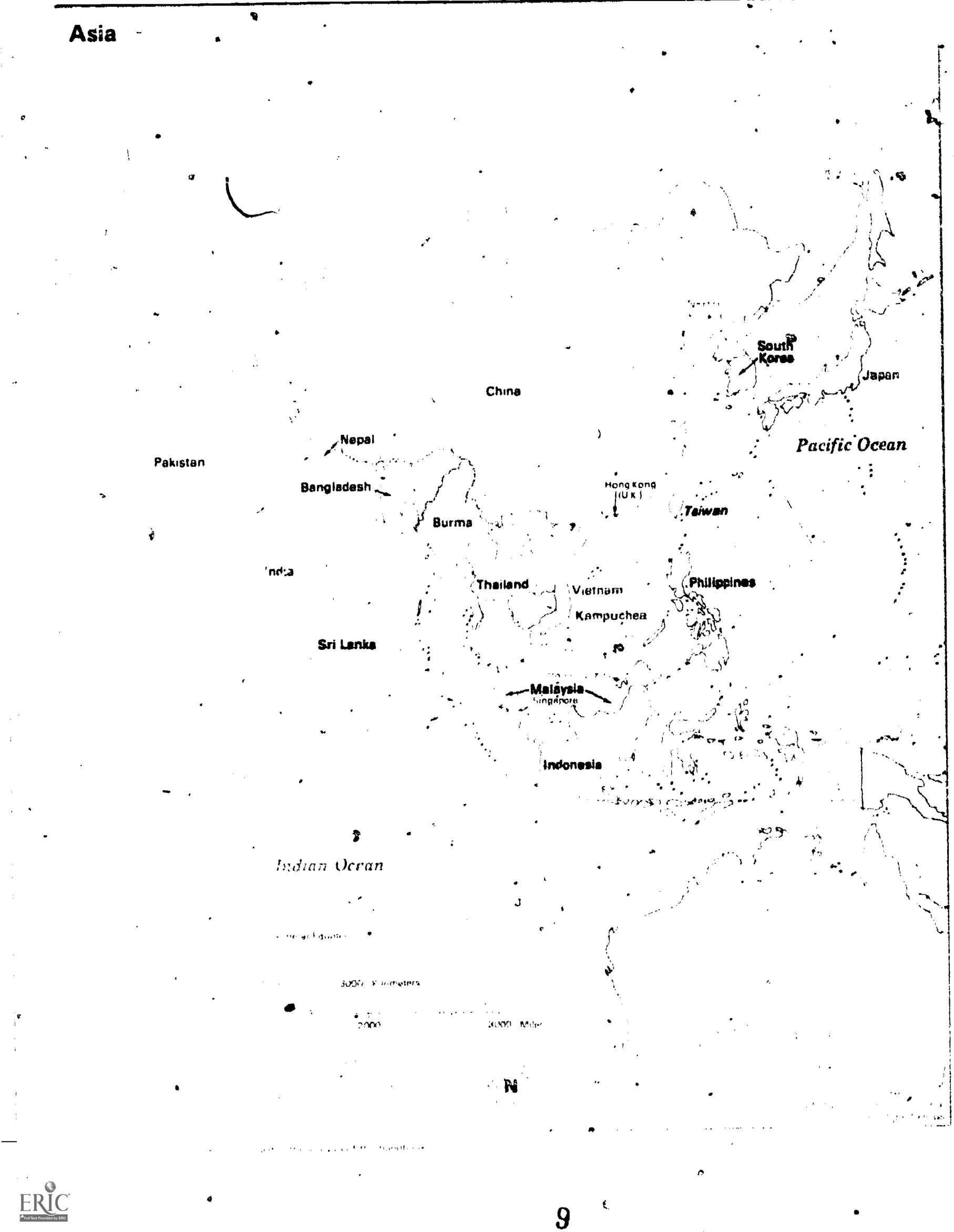
Figures

Tables

Chapter 4. Tables—Continued

Chapter 6. Tables—Continued

Asia



Chapter 1

Introduction

The *Women of the World* handbooks present and analyze statistical data on women in Latin America and the Caribbean, Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia and the Pacific, and the Near East and North Africa. The handbooks are the latest product of the National Statistics on Women project of the Office of Women in Development (WID Office), U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID). The overall project has as its aim the compilation of an adequate data base on women in developing countries for planning, program development, and project design. It assists data-gathering efforts in developing countries and provides statistical information to international agencies, donor governments, host government development planners and scholars, as well as to USAID's own policymakers and planners. A number of subactivities have been funded under this project, of which the *Women of the World* handbooks are one. The analysis of women's status as contained in these handbooks is offered to planners and others as a starting point against which they may assess the impact of current and future policies and programs. Without such a statistical background, the amount, direction, and significance of change is often only speculative.

The principal objectives of this particular handbook on women in Asia and the Pacific are to provide an overview of the sociodemographic situation of women, to discuss variations among geographical subregions, and to explore female/male differentials over a range of variables which bear upon women's status. Indicators which are used as empirical referents of status include education, employment, marriage, fertility, mortality, and demographic characteristics such as age and rural/urban residence. The format of tabulations and graphic presentations closely follows the guidelines recently suggested by the United Nations (Powers, 1983). Throughout the discussion, consideration is given to the strengths and limitations of national-level data as planning tools for monitoring changes in the status of women and for facilitating their full participation in national development.

A definition of female status is necessary to put the following chapters into perspective. This handbook was conceived within a general framework which construes female status to consist of "the degree of women's access to (and control over) material resources (including food, income, land, and other forms of wealth) and social resources (including knowledge, power, and prestige) within the family, in the community, and in society at large" (Dixon, 1978). The question which immediately proceeds from this definition is whether the indicators used in this handbook are sufficient to provide a comprehensive picture of women's status; the answer is a qualified yes.

The analysis presented herein covers certain aspects of status involving women's access to social resources such as health and education. It also examines women's access to material resources in the form of employment and indirectly through such indicators as mortality. The major gap in the coverage of this report consists of an inability to deal directly with the levels of power and prestige which differentiate women within and across societies. Access to resources such as education probably constitutes a reasonable proxy for the amount of power and prestige, just as indirect evidence from differential mortality rates between sexes gives us some idea of relative female status. However, we have no quantitative data on questions such as: what is the cultural valuation of girls and women, which attitudes and beliefs need to be changed in order to enhance women's access to and benefits from material and social resources, and, what were the historical circumstances that influenced the present situation? A recent study from India shows that certain factors which are central to current interregional differences in female status (defined as female autonomy) date back several centuries (Dyson and Moore, 1983). In other words, an understanding of variations in the existing familial and communal social structures of different countries and national subregions may be crucial to comprehension of the underlying factors which contribute to demographic differences.

It is implicit in the above discussion that female status is not a unidimensional concept. The same woman, at the same point in time, may be responsible for a series of roles which emerge

from her various statuses. For example, she may simultaneously be a wife, mother, daughter-in-law, employee (outside the home), part-time unpaid family worker, and so on. Some of the roles that she performs may accord her a high amount of power and prestige; others do not. The mother role is one which often increases a woman's status in Asian societies, while employment in menial jobs may reduce her societal prestige, even though it provides her greater access to material resources. In a useful discussion of the varied roles of women, Oppong (1980) has suggested a sevenfold typology which may be used to classify the status of women in a country (or subgroups within a country). These role categories include parental, occupational, conjugal, domestic, kinship, community, and individual roles.

This handbook, however, considers only the empirical referents of female status mentioned before, mainly because of data limitations but also because the main thrust of this report is to elucidate the national-level informational base that has been developed. In recognition of the need for national-level data disaggregated by sex, the WID Office in 1978 requested the Center for International Research (CIR), U.S. Bureau of the Census, to establish a Women In Development Data Base (referred to hereafter as the WID Data Base) of demographic and socioeconomic statistics, disaggregated by sex and, wherever possible by age and rural/urban residence. A search was conducted for 19 variables, including demographic, educational, household and marital arrangements, and labor force topics. Each variable was chosen because of its importance as an indicator of women's status and because these particular variables appeared to be the ones that would be most readily available in census and survey publications. Special runs of census files were not undertaken because of high costs and uncertainties regarding accessibility.

The initial data search included only the 69 countries where USAID had active programs. It was planned that when this first phase was complete, more countries would be added for purposes of comparison, and likewise more variables if the initial search determined that sufficient information was available on other aspects of women's situation and activities. Subsequently, the WID Data Base was expanded to include all countries of the world with populations of 5 million or more. Over 2,600 tables have been compiled on the original 19 indicators; to date, the list of variables covered has not been extended. Statistics come principally from the 1970 and 1980 census rounds; in some cases, 1960 round data also are included.[1] To supplement the census data, results of national surveys also are used for some topics. Detailed characteristics of the WID Data Base are presented in appendix B.

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

The 14 Asian countries covered in this report are grouped into three regional clusters. East Asia consists of Mainland China, Hong Kong, South Korea, and Taiwan. Eastern South Asia includes Burma, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand. The remaining five countries—Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka—form Middle South Asia. Nations of the Asian continent which are geographically situated to the west of Pakistan are often considered part of the Near East, and hence are examined in a separate Near East and North Africa handbook which is part of the *Women of the World* series.

Data for 18 developing Pacific island nations also have been included in the analysis, even though these countries are not part of the existing WID Data Base. Because of their relatively small populations which are dispersed among thousands of islands, in addition to a general dearth of data, Pacific nations other than Australia and New Zealand are often overlooked in global analyses. Nevertheless, several useful indicators of women's status can be generated, and an attempt has been made to present at least a rudimentary picture of basic female/male differentials. The islands are divided into three broad areas. Polynesia embraces American Samoa, Cook Islands, French Polynesia, Niue, Tonga, Tuvalu, Wallis and Futuna, and Western Samoa. Melanesia consists of Fiji, New Caledonia, Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, and Vanuatu. Micronesia includes Guam, Kiribati, Nauru, the Northern Mariana Islands, and the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. Although intraregional variations abound as a result of different historical experiences and geophysical circumstances, certain similarities also may be observed within the three areas; these are explored more fully in subsequent chapters.

Analytical Summary

The remaining sections of this handbook analyze statistics drawn from the WID Data Base and supplementary sources. Chapter 2 describes the populations of the Asian and Pacific regions – their size, growth, composition, geographic distribution, and change. Migration and its impact on women is considered in this chapter, but detailed discussion of both fertility and mortality is left for chapter 6. Chapter 3 presents data on literacy and school enrollment among children and youth. In chapter 4, the critical issues surrounding women's economic roles are discussed, and data on labor force participation are examined. Marital status and household characteristics are the focuses of chapter 5, followed by consideration of fertility and mortality in chapter 6 as they relate to the status of women. The handbook closes in chapter 7 with a discussion of the advantages and limitations of national-level data in planning for a development strategy which includes women.

Population Distribution and Change

The Asian region contains the world's two largest countries, Mainland China and India, which together are home to 37 percent of the earth's inhabitants. By way of contrast, Pacific island nations are relatively small, with several having fewer than 10,000 persons each. Population growth rates vary considerably; countries in East Asia now post gains of under 2 percent per year, while rates in the Middle South Asian countries of Pakistan and Bangladesh are 3 percent or higher. Most of the variation in these growth rates is attributable to differential fertility—crude birth rates are nearly twice as high in Middle South Asia as in East Asia.

[1] A census round refers to a decade during which the various countries conduct their censuses. 1960 round censuses were taken during the period 1955 to 1964, 1970 round during 1965 to 1974, and 1980 round during 1975 to 1984.

The following summary, based on United Nations (1982) estimates for 1985, shows proportions of women and men in the Asian countries in this report, by age and region. While gender differences are minor, regional age distributions do vary:

	Middle South Asia		East Asia		Eastern South Asia	
Age	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
All ages	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
0 to 14 years	39.3	39.3	29.7	29.8	37.5	38.6
15 to 64 years	57.6	57.6	63.9	64.7	58.7	58.3
65 years and over	3.1	3.1	6.4	5.5	3.8	3.1

Compared to other parts of the developing world, the youth (under age 15) dependency burden in Asia as a whole is low, due largely to rapidly declining family size in East Asia and especially Mainland China.

Despite the presence of certain rapidly growing cities in various Asian countries, the overall level of urbanization is lower than in Latin America and Africa, and the tempo of urbanization is generally slower. According to the latest censuses, only South Korea, the Philippines, and the city-state of Hong Kong have more than 31 percent of their populations in urban areas. Urban sex ratios tend to be higher than those for nations as a whole, although the Philippines represents a striking exception. In Middle South Asia, the traditional pattern of male migration to cities produces highly skewed sex ratios.

Literacy and Education

In all countries, men outpace women in the ability to read and write. However, female/male ratios of total percent literate vary widely, ranging from only 0.16 in Nepal to near unity (0.97) in the Philippines. With the exception of Sri Lanka, Middle South Asia lags behind the eastern regions both in overall percentages and in terms of female/male ratios.

As expected, literacy is considerably higher among younger women, and the literate proportion is closest to that of men at ages 10 to 24 years. Female/male ratios are uniformly higher for urban than for rural areas.

The situation regarding literacy and enrollment in Asian countries, by sex and rural/urban residence, can be roughly summarized by median percentages based on the 8 or 9 countries with available data, as shown below:

	Percent literate, age 10 years and over		Percent enrolled, age 10 to 14 years	
Residence	Women	Men	Girls	Boys
Rural	54.7	74.3	45.4	63.6
Urban	76.7	90.9	71.8	81.3

In terms of school enrollment, rural girls fare poorly in relation to both rural boys and urban girls. Throughout Asia, enrollment by age declines in a generally consistent pattern, with successively smaller proportions of both sexes enrolled at older ages. Gender differences tend to widen at older ages, reflecting higher dropout rates among young women than men as they reach secondary and tertiary levels. The persistence of this trend in the future bears close watching, especially in light of the fact that enrollment differences between sexes have virtually disappeared among the youngest age group (5 to 9 years) in most East and Southeast Asian countries.

Women in Economic Activity

Most researchers agree that traditional measurement procedures in censuses and labor force surveys often produce underestimates of female labor force participation. Comparisons of data drawn from different sources in a number of Asian countries support this contention. Since this report focuses on comprehensive national-level census and survey information, the possibility of biases and omissions should be borne in mind when considering the quantitative data.

There are large female/male differences in rates of economic activity in both rural and urban areas, as suggested by the following median percentages for the population 10 years of age and over for the 10 Asian countries with available data:

Residence	Women	Men
Rural	33.4	77.6
Urban	18.0	65.0

Gender differences generally persist when age groups are taken into consideration, a pattern also found in available data for Pacific island nations. Rural Asian women display higher participation rates than their urban counterparts in all but two countries, and the relative female/male differences in rates tend to be greater in the urban sector.

Higher rates of female labor force participation do not necessarily imply improvement in the status of women. In many countries, labor force activity may be primarily a response to severe economic need and may not represent an emancipating or enriching experience. Particularly in Middle South Asia, work does not constitute an alternative role for most women; it is more apt to be an additional role taken on in conjunction with the wife-mother role. A large portion of women there and in Southeast Asia are employed as unpaid family workers, while typical female occupations cluster in the agricultural, sales, and service sectors. It is likely that most jobs in these sectors are prestige-reducing rather than prestige-enhancing.

Marital Status and Living Arrangements

Marriage continues to be a prime contributor to women's status throughout much of Asia. In certain nations, marital union

and subsequent motherhood are paramount social goals for women. These traditional norms are most prominent in Middle South Asia and, to a lesser extent, in Eastern South Asia. In East Asia, rewards obtained from extended schooling and labor force participation appear to be modifying or at least postponing the desire for marriage and family.

In many nations, the minimum legal age for marriage is lower for women than for men, and women in each of the 14 Asian countries marry at younger mean ages than men do. Regional differentials in the timing of marriage can be large, as illustrated by the median percentages single at age 20 to 24 years shown below. Older age at marriage in East Asia is partially responsible for the relatively lower fertility levels in that region. In spite of such differentials, however, most Asian women do eventually marry.

Median Percent Single in Two Age Groups, by Region and Sex

	Middle South Asia		East Asia		Eastern South Asia	
Age	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
20 to 24 years	9.5	60.1	61.0	88.4	39.6	67.0
45 to 49 years	0.9	2.7	1.2	6.4	2.3	3.3

Both women and men marry at younger ages in rural than in urban areas, in all Asian regions. While data on age at marriage for the Pacific Islands are not readily available, the greater proportions of single males in all nations suggest a pattern similar to that in Asia.

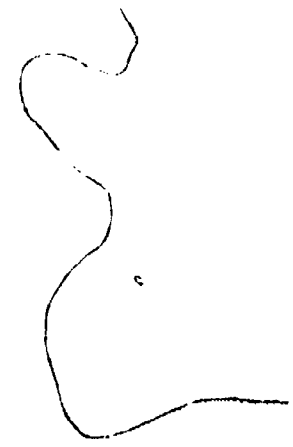
Asian households are, on the average, larger than those in other developing regions of the world. Because of the patriarchal nature of many Asian societies, a man is usually classified as head of household. Perhaps for this reason, data on headship are less likely to be disaggregated by sex than are data for other variables. Available evidence for countries outside the Indian subcontinent shows that the national percentage of women-headed households varies between 11 and 24 percent.

Fertility and Mortality

Women in East Asia bear, on the average, fewer than three children each, a level significantly lower than that recorded in either Middle South Asia or Eastern South Asia. Median total fertility rates (TFR's) for the latter two regions during the mid-1970's were 6.4 and 5.0 children per woman, respectively, though more recent indicators suggest that these TFR's have fallen during the past decade. Nevertheless, social norms which promote childbearing and favor male versus female offspring continue to exert an upward pressure on fertility in many nations, particularly those of and around the Indian subcontinent.

When age at marriage and contraceptive use are low, a larger proportion of total fertility is found among younger women, and the length of time it takes for a generation to replace itself is shorter. Patterns of childbearing vary considerably across countries, with East Asian women tending to compress their fertility into shorter time intervals than observed in the other regions. As is generally the case in developing nations, urban age-specific fertility rates are lower than rural rates, especially at younger ages.

Contrary to the relationship in most countries of the world, life expectancy at birth for women is 2 to 3 years lower than that for men in much of Middle South Asia, possibly because of differential health care, nutrition, and sociopsychological attention given to male versus female children. Median female life expectancy in Middle South Asia, based on data for varying points in time, is only 50 years, and infant mortality rates are in excess of 100 per 1,000 live births except in Sri Lanka. Elsewhere, median female life expectancies at birth stand at 63 years in Eastern South Asia and more than 70 years in East Asia. Outside of Indonesia, infant mortality rates are in double digits and run as low as 24 per 1,000 in Taiwan and 11 per 1,000 in Hong Kong.



Chapter 2

Population Distribution and Change

The Asian and Pacific countries in this handbook are estimated to contain 51 percent of the world's population in 1984 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983). Mainland China, with over 1 billion people, constitutes 22 percent of the global total, while India now has nearly three quarters of a billion persons. Of the Asian populations included in this report, Mainland China has the largest while Hong Kong has the smallest (table 2.1). The 18 Pacific nations for which data have been included range in size from over 3.3 million for Papua New Guinea to only 4,000 for Niue.

ASIA

As indicated in table 2.2, population growth rates for 1980-85 are estimated to be lowest in East Asia, with annual rates between 1.1 percent in Mainland China and 1.8 percent in Taiwan. Southeast Asian countries have medium-level growth rates, and most have experienced considerable fertility decline during the 1970's. Two countries in Middle South Asia, Pakistan and Bangladesh, continue to have very high growth rates, around 3 percent per year, while Sri Lanka has now reached a lower level of 1.8 percent per year.

Age Distribution and Sex Ratio

The current age distribution of any male and female population is affected by past patterns of fertility and mortality, and the variation in age patterns among the countries in this report clearly reflects this. Two distinct age patterns are typical of Asian countries, one represented by Hong Kong and the other by Bangladesh. Hong Kong, which is much farther along than other countries in its demographic transition towards lower fertility, has only 8 percent of its females (as well as males) under 5 years of age (see tables 2.3 and 2.4). Four other populations which have relatively fewer children of preschool age are those of Mainland China, Taiwan, South Korea, and Sri Lanka. In all cases, however, the proportion of male and female children is about the same. The countries of Middle South Asia (except Sri Lanka) and Southeast Asia generally have much higher proportions of preschool-age girls and boys—about twice as high as Hong Kong. Recent evidence (see, for example, United Nations, 1983) from almost all Southeast Asian countries indicates that they have experienced significant fertility declines during the 1970's, and more recent data on the age compositions of these countries would certainly show a smaller proportion of preschool-age children in their populations than displayed in the data tables. Fertility in Middle South Asian countries (except Sri Lanka) continues to be high, which results in a large proportion of children in preschool and school ages. This can be seen graphically in figure 2.4.

Another distinctive feature, particularly in Hong Kong, is the relatively larger proportion of older persons, especially women. As other countries move further along in their demographic transition, patterns similar to that in Hong Kong are likely to emerge. A growing proportion of women in East and Southeast Asia will be concentrated among the elderly, because of both declining fertility and increasing life expectancy. Of course, this represents a long-term change; a significant impact on age distributions will not be felt in the near future.

A comparison of the female and male age distributions suggests that the proportions in each age group are generally similar. Small differences should not be overemphasized because of certain well-known age-reporting biases in several of the Asian countries.

The sex ratios of the populations, shown in table 2.5, indicate that the countries of the Indian subcontinent (India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh), as well as Hong Kong, Mainland China, and Taiwan, have significantly more males per 100 females than do countries of Southeast Asia. Two reasons for this high sex ratio in Middle South Asia can be seen. First, mortality of females is higher than that of males. Second, there is a tendency towards underreporting of girls and women in censuses and surveys. The

high sex ratios for ages 15 to 64 years in Hong Kong and Taiwan are probably a result of higher male migration into these island nations. In fact, four Southeast Asian countries—Burma Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand—have somewhat fewer men than women, which is indicative of accurate reporting of women, greater female longevity, and perhaps male selective emigration. Mainland China's sex ratio is influenced by the higher female than male mortality which existed in certain age groups prior to 1950. As seen in table 2.5, sex ratios for Chinese school-age children are slightly lower than those for age groups 15 to 49 years and 15 to 64 years.

Because of relatively large proportions of children under 5 years of age, both Bangladesh and Pakistan have relatively fewer women in the reproductive ages 15 to 49 years (41 and 44 percent, respectively) while Hong Kong, South Korea, Mainland China, and Taiwan have larger proportions of women in these ages (50 percent or more in each case; see figure 2.4). Despite such concentrations of women in reproductive ages, however, these East Asian populations have experienced lower fertility and growth rates due to both delayed age at marriage and controlled fertility within marriage, as discussed later in more detail.

Rural/Urban Residence

In many countries, residence in urban areas portends greater access to educational and health facilities and the possibility of obtaining nonagricultural wage employment. These are major factors which prompt rural-to-urban migration. Although many Asian countries are characterized by large cities that are growing rapidly, the overall level and tempo of urbanization are moderate relative to other developing regions of the world. A comparison of the proportion of women and men residing in urban areas at different census dates (table 2.6 and figure 2.5) shows modest increases, with generally minor differences between the sexes. In more than half the countries, the female/male ratio of percent urban increased over time.

Perhaps of greater interest are urban and rural sex ratios, depicted in figure 2.6 and by age in table 2.5 and figure 2.7, which reveal some regional variations. The Indian subcontinent has had a traditional pattern of male migration in which wives remain in the villages while husbands go to the towns or cities to earn a living. This is reflected by the high urban sex ratios for ages 15 to 64 years. The pattern is especially pronounced in Middle South Asia's largest cities. With few exceptions, the major urban centers have higher sex ratios than do the respective urban populations as a whole, running as high as 177 in Chittagong and 143 in Calcutta, for all ages (UNESCAP, 1984). The process of predominantly male rural-to-urban migration is likely to have continued through the late 1970's and early 1980's in conjunction with large numbers of South Asian men migrating to the Middle East as temporary laborers.

Unlike the situation in Middle South Asia, there are greater concentrations of females than males in many urban areas of East and Southeast Asia, most notably in the Philippines. While boys outnumber girls under the age of 14 in urban areas of all countries in these regions, women usually form the majority over age 15. Female urban migration has been found to be particularly high among young women age 15 to 19 years in countries of Southeast Asia, many of whom migrate to take up employment (Smith, Khoo, and Fawcett, 1983).

PACIFIC ISLANDS

The Pacific island nations included in this report are divided into three broad cultural areas, namely, Polynesia, Melanesia, and Micronesia, to facilitate an understanding of the situation of women among these island groups. Of the three regions, Melanesia is the most isolated and has the lowest level of urbanization, except for New Caledonia and Fiji. Parts of this region were relatively unaffected by the historical colonization of the Pacific. In Papua New Guinea, for example, the network of roads is still relatively undeveloped, and some areas do not have schools. Some of the Polynesian and Micronesian islands are, on the other hand, fairly developed. American Samoa, French Polynesia, and Guam all had a per capita gross national product (GNP) of over U.S. $5,000 in 1979. Among the Melanesian islands, New Caledonia was an exception, with an annual per capita GNP of U.S. $7,500 (Banister, 1982).

In terms of population size, Papua New Guinea comprises about half of the total of the Pacific region, with over 3.3 million people in 1984. Other islands such as Niue, Nauru, and Tuvalu have fewer than 10,000 people each. Fiji is the second largest nation, with 686,000 persons. Based on the most recent data, Nauru has the highest sex ratio (119 males per 100 females) of all Pacific island nations, and Tuvalu the lowest (88). The latter results from high male emigration, particularly from Tuvalu's rural areas, while the former is related to labor migration to the island's phosphate mines. In 1970, Guam had an exceptionally high sex ratio of 126 men per 100 women primarily because of the presence of nonnative military personnel, most of whom were men. By 1980, Guam's male/female ratio had declined to 109. All countries except Tuvalu and Kiribati have more males than females in their populations. The generally high regional sex ratio is similar to the pattern found in many of the Asian countries.

Age Distribution of Males and Females

A large proportion of children in the preschool ages 0 to 4 years generally indicates the presence of high fertility, as discussed above for Asia. Pacific nations which have relatively large proportions—17 percent or more—of female children under age 5 were Solomon Islands, Papua New Guinea, Vanuatu, and French Polynesia (table 2.7). The same countries have a high proportion of male children under 5 years of age (table 2.8).

At the other end of the spectrum, several countries are seen to have large proportions of older women. Almost 8 percent of Niue's women are age 65 years and over, similar to the level in Hong Kong. The corresponding proportion of men in these two countries is about 5 percent. Nine other countries have greater proportions of women than men in older ages, most likely because of higher female life expectancy and higher male emigration rates. In some cases, resultant sex ratios at older ages can be surprising: among persons over age 65, there are only 57 men per 100 women in Tuvalu and 67 men per 100 women in Niue (table 2.9). However, female predominance at older ages is not

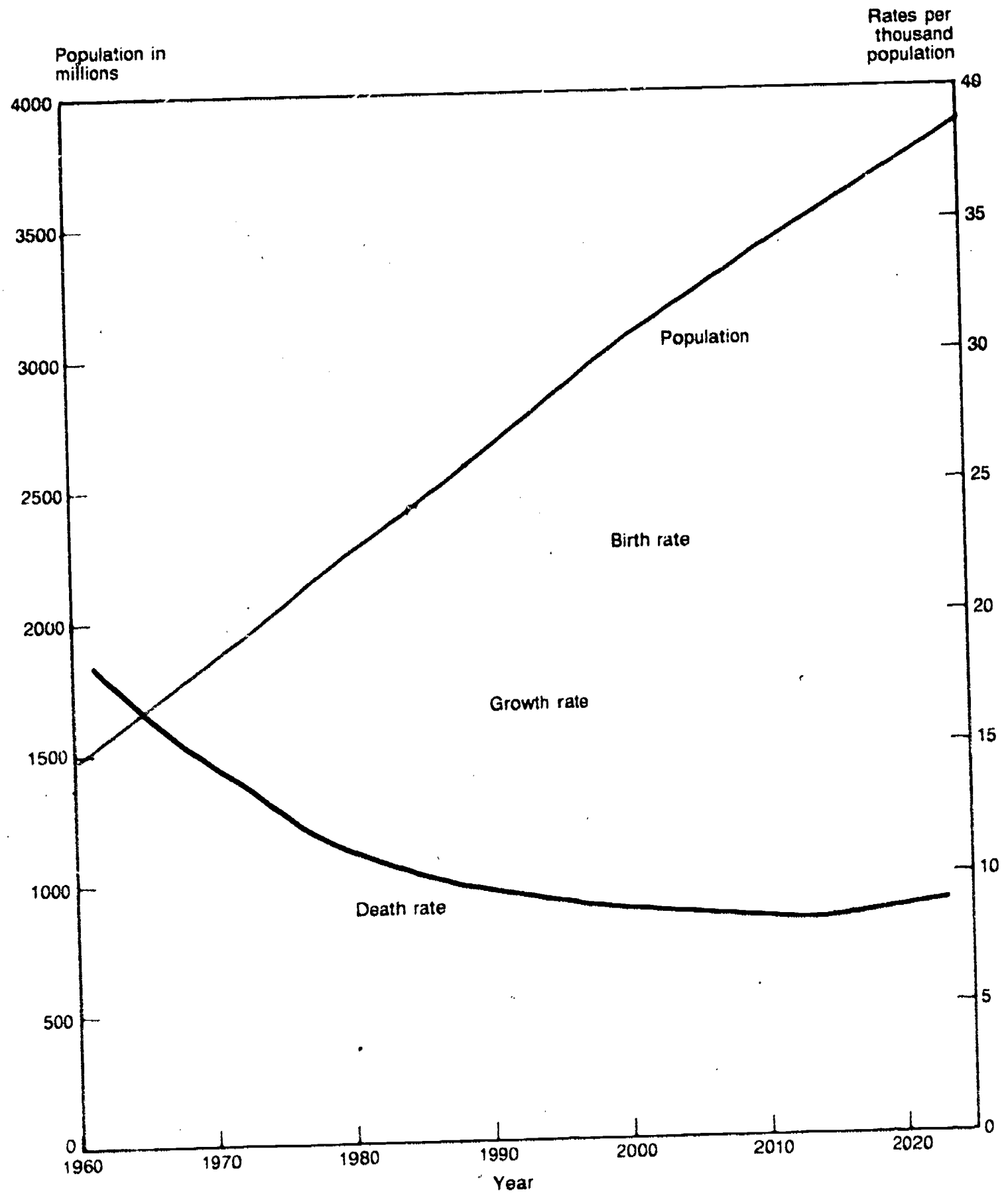
found throughout all Pacific islands. Countries such as Solomon Islands, Vanuatu, and Nauru have significantly fewer older women than men. The female/male ratio at all other ages does not show any consistent pattern across countries, and is likely to be related to factors such as selective migration and differential mortality.

Rural/Urban Residence

The proportion of persons living in urban areas varies widely, from 100 percent in Nauru and 91 percent in Guam to only 9 percent in Solomon Islands and no urban population at all in Wallis and Futuna (table 2.10). New Caledonia and French Polynesia have close to three-fifths, while both American Samoa and the Pacific Islands have more than two-fifths of their population in urban areas. Three of the Melanesian nations, namely Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, and Vanuatu, are all quite undeveloped in terms of urbanization, with less than 15 percent of their population in urban areas. The process of urbanization in a developing country usually implies increasing industrialization and development of a more diversified economy, which are likely to affect the lives and occupational opportunities of both women and men. Such a process seems to be at a rather rudimentary level in these three Melanesian nations.

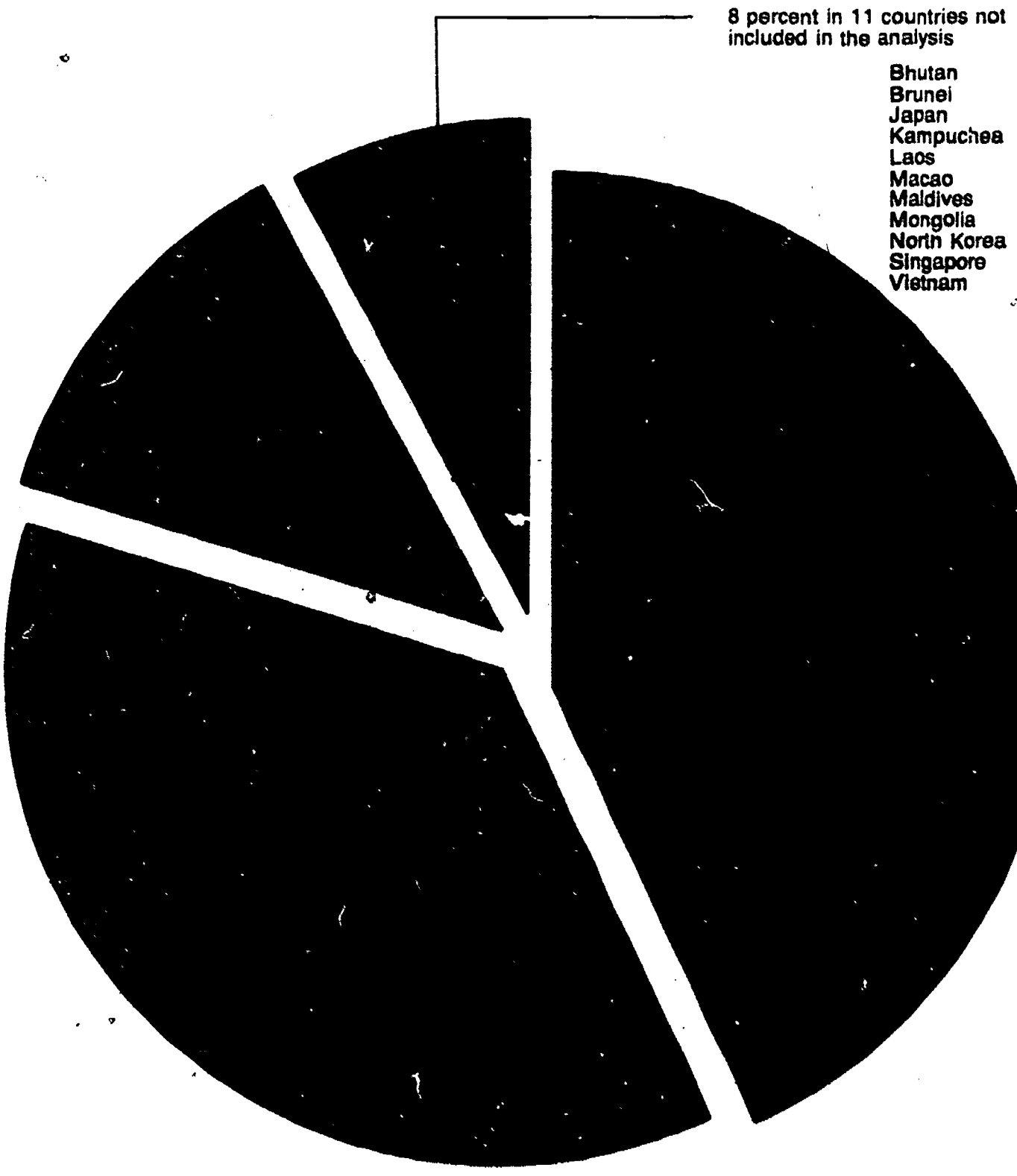
With regard to the gender difference in the proportion of persons living in urban areas, percentages are not markedly different in most of the island countries (table 2.10). Five countries have slightly higher concentrations of women than men, while four countries—Cook Islands, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, and Tuvalu—have significantly lower proportions in urban areas. Although women form a majority of Tuvalu's total population, the urban female/male ratio of 0.77 implies that the country is experiencing heavy male migration from rural to urban areas, resulting in a concentration of females in the rural sector (the female/male ratio in rural areas, not shown in table 2.10, is 1.28). One obvious implication of such rural-to-urban male migration is the likelihood of greater female participation in agricultural pursuits and other rural income-generating activities.

Figure 2.1. Asia: Estimated and Projected Population Size and Components of Change, 1960 to 2025



Source United Nations, 1982, pp. 252-311

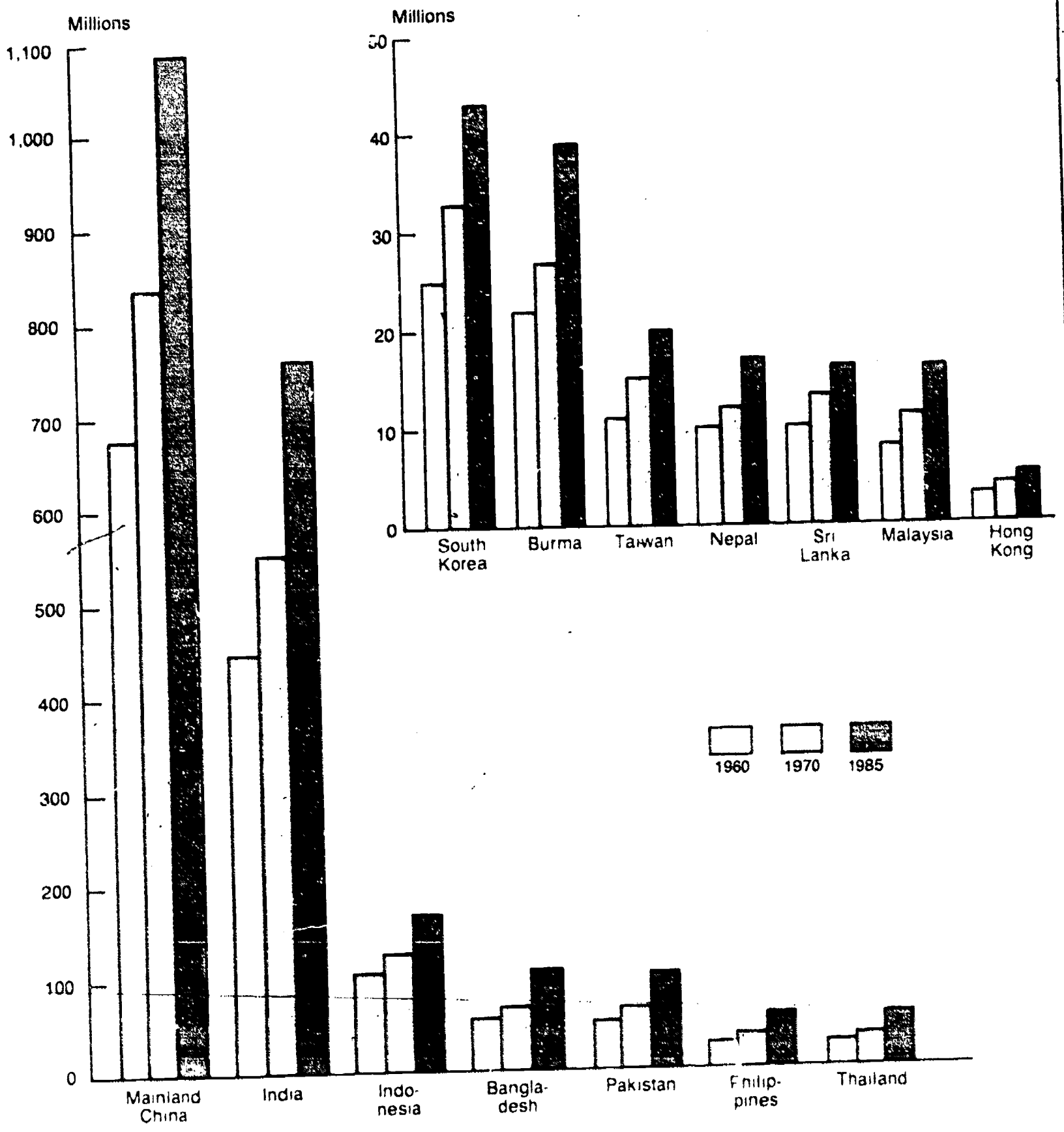
Figure 2.2. Population Distribution of Asian Countries: 1984



Note: This chart does not include countries of the Near East, which are the subject of a separate handbook.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983.

Figure 2.3. Estimated and Projected Population of Asian Countries: 1960, 1970, and 1985



Note: Countries are presented in rank order by population size in 1985.
Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1983

Figure 2.4. Percent of All Women in Selected Age Groups

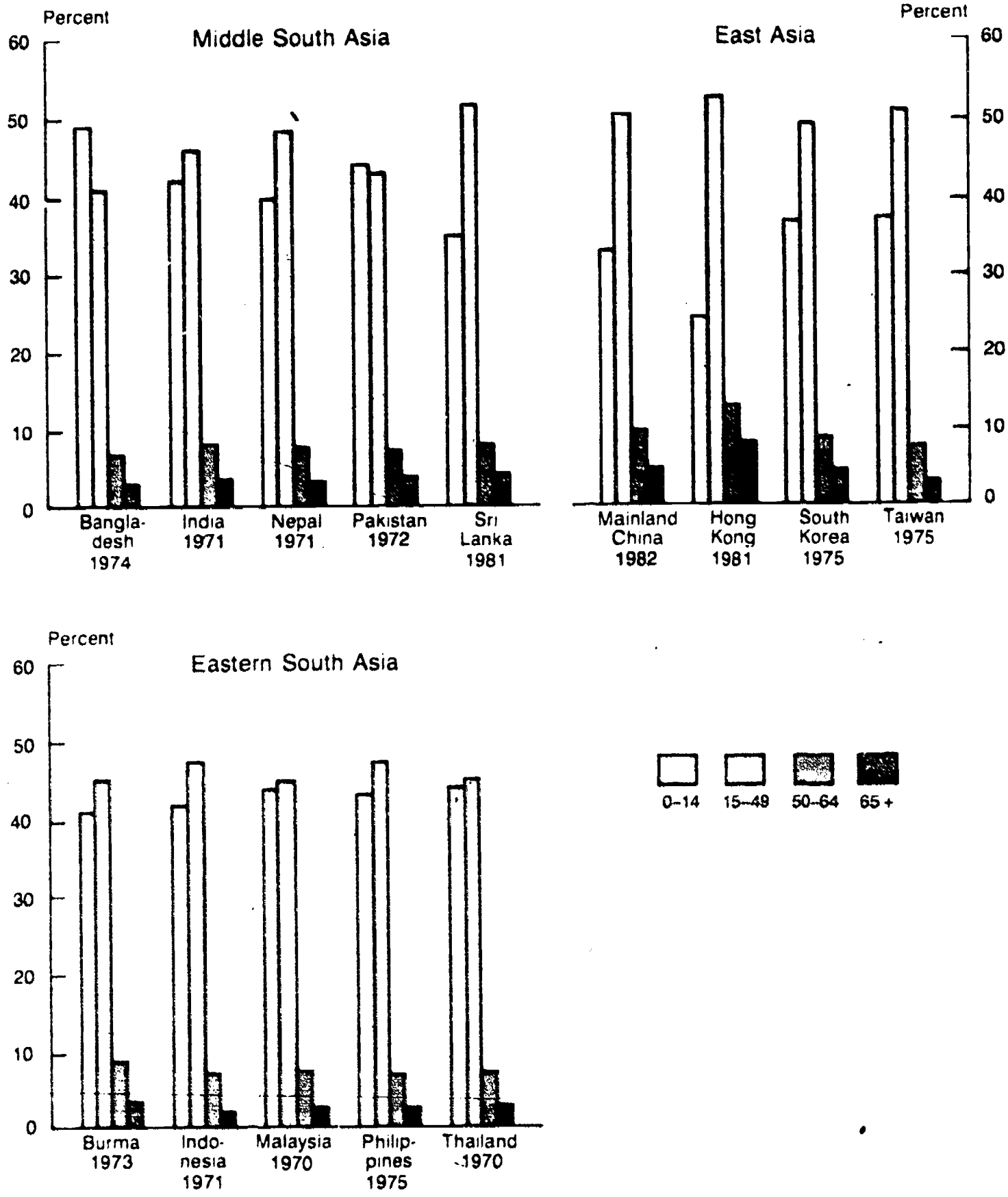


Figure 2.5. Percent of Women Living in Urban Areas: Latest Two Censuses

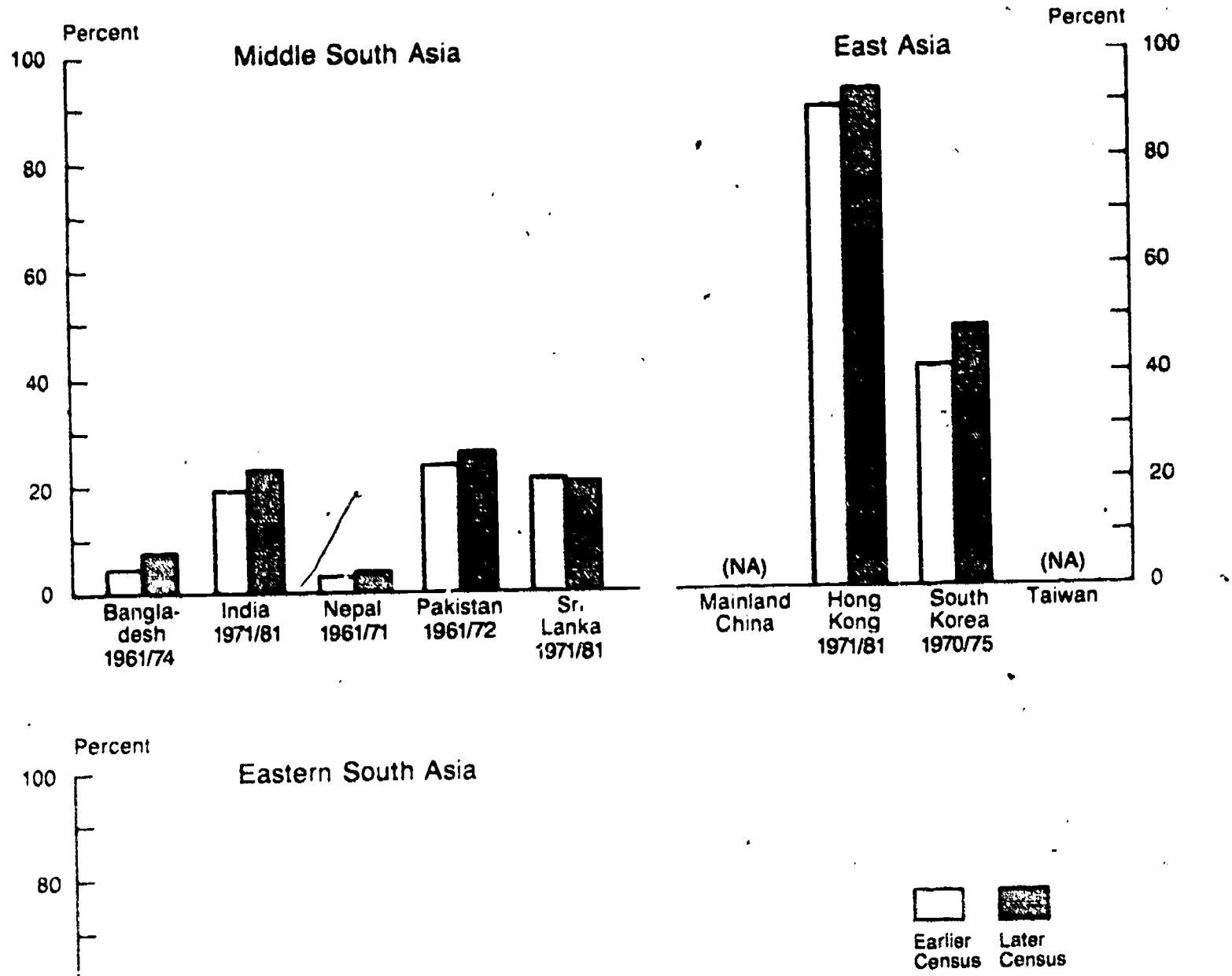
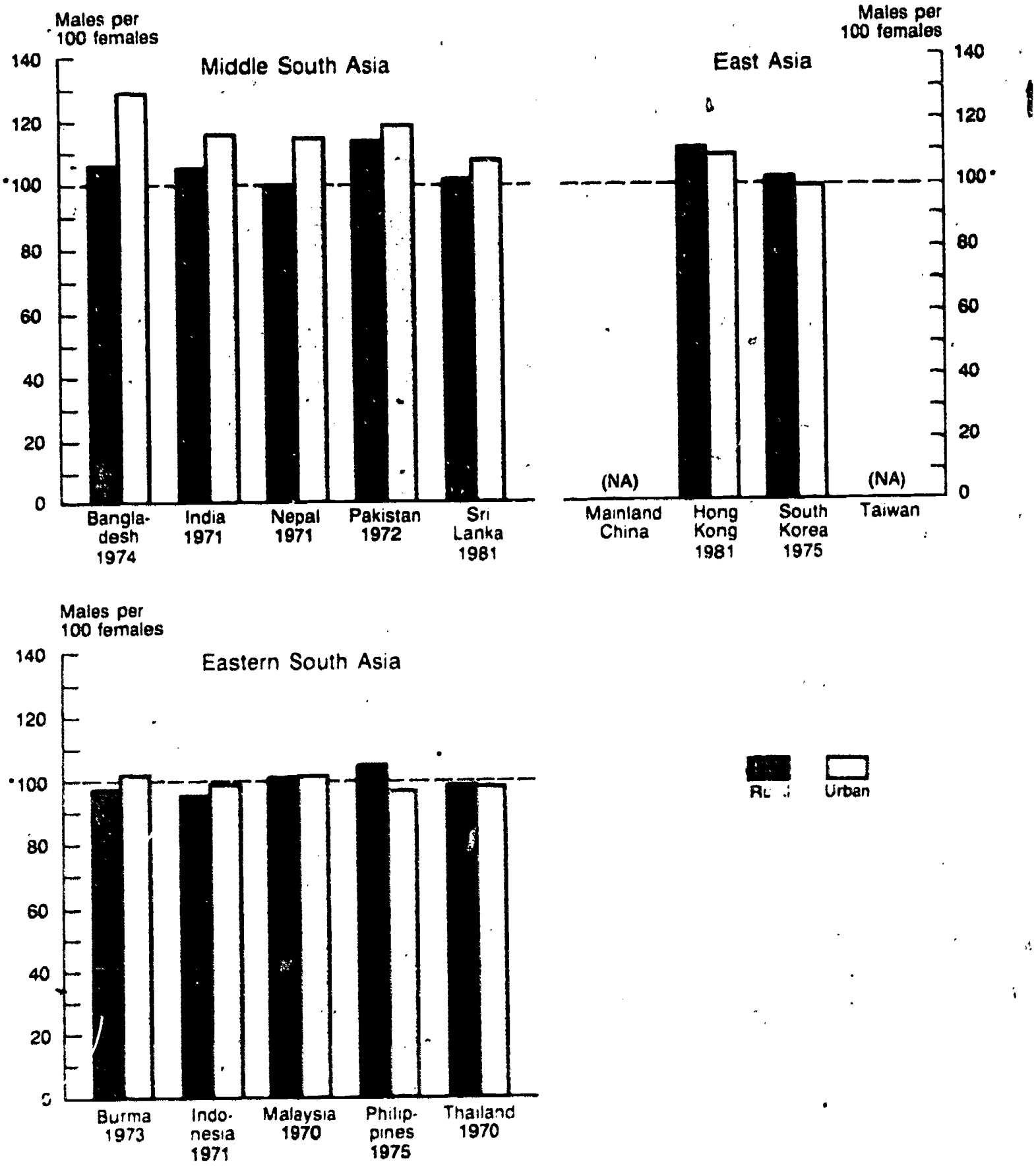
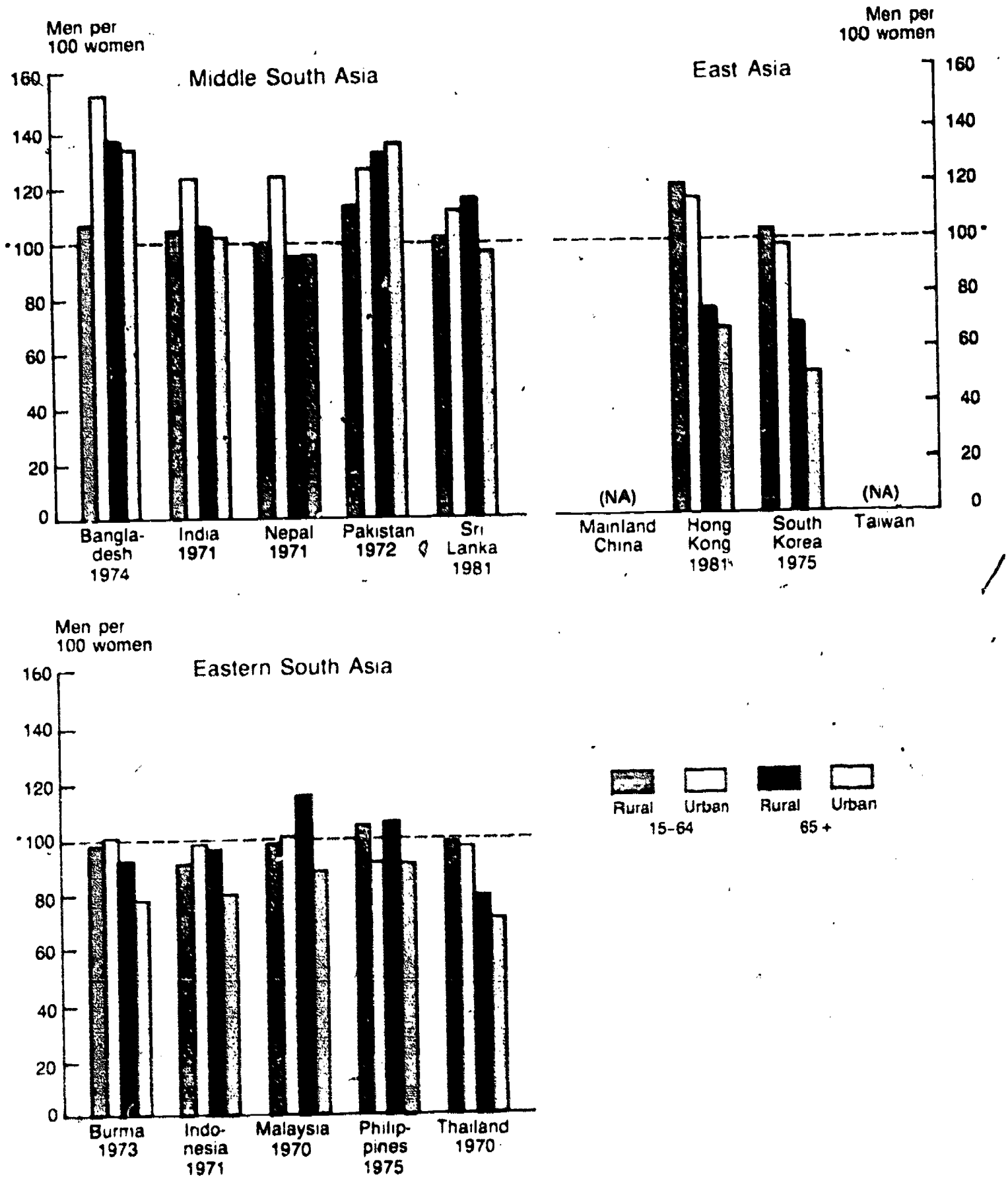


Figure 2.6. Sex Ratio by Rural/Urban Residence



*Number of males equals number of females.

Figure 2.7. Sex Ratio of Population in Two Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence



*Number of men equals number of women.

Table 2.1. Total Population, by Sex, and Sex Ratio

(Population in thousands. Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)

Region and country	Year	Total	Female	Male	Sex ratio[1]
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1981	87,052	41,202	44,850	106.3
India	1981	665,287	321,357	343,930	107.0
Nepal	1981	15,020	7,421	7,599	102.4
Pakistan	1981	83,782	39,865	43,917	110.2
Sri Lanka	1981	14,848	7,280	7,568	104.0
EAST ASIA					
China					
Mainland	1982	1,008,175	488,742	519,433	106.3
Taiwan	1980	17,969	8,595	9,374	109.1
Hong Kong	1981	4,987	2,382	2,604	109.3
South Korea	1980	37,407	18,658	18,749	100.5
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Burma	1973	28,886	14,526	14,360	98.9
Indonesia	1980	146,776	73,825	72,952	98.8
Malaysia	1980	13,436	6,688	6,748	100.9
Philippines	1980	48,098	23,969	24,129	100.7
Thailand	1980	44,278	22,270	22,008	98.8
POLYNESIA					
American Samoa	1980	32	16	16	103.0
Cook Islands	1981	18	9	9	106.9
French Polynesia	1977	137	65	72	110.7
Niue	1979	4	2	2	103.9
Tonga	1976	90	44	46	104.5
Tuvalu	1979	7	4	3	87.2
Wallis and Futuna	1976	9	5	5	100.1
Western Samoa	1976	152	73	79	107.2
MELANESIA					
Fiji	1976	588	291	297	102.0
New Caledonia	1976	133	64	69	108.4
Papua New Guinea	1971	2,490	1,196	1,294	108.2
Solomon Islands	1976	197	94	103	109.4
Vanuatu	1979	111	52	59	113.2

Table 2.1. Total Population, by Sex, and Sex Ratio —Continued

(Population in thousands. Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)

Region and country	Year	Total	Female	Male	Sex ratio[1]
MICRONESIA					
Guam	1980	106	51	55	109.2
Kiribati	1978	56	28	28	97.3
Nauru	1977	7	3	4	118.7
Northern Mariana Islands	1980	17	8	9	110.7
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands	1980	116	57	60	105.1

Note: Data for Bangladesh, Nepal, Pakistan, Taiwan, South Korea, Burma, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand represent adjusted census results. Data for other nations are unadjusted.

[1]Number of men per 100 women.

Table 2.2. Total Population of Selected Countries of Asia: 1960 to 1985

(Midyear population in thousands)

Region and country	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	Annual rate of growth, 1980 to 1985 (percent)
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA							
Bangladesh	54,622	60,332	67,403	76,195	88,052	102,735	3.1
India	445,875	494,882	553,619	617,164	685,119	762,507	2.1
Nepal	10,035	10,862	11,919	13,262	14,992	16,996	2.5
Pakistan	50,387	57,495	65,706	74,843	85,743	99,841	3.0
Sri Lanka	9,879	11,202	12,532	13,632	14,842	16,206	1.8
EAST ASIA							
China							
Mainland	650,661	715,546	820,403	917,859	983,379	1,038,427	1.1
Taiwan	11,209	12,978	14,598	16,122	17,800	19,511	1.8
Hong Kong	3,075	3,598	3,959	4,396	5,038	5,477	1.7
South Korea	25,142	29,130	32,976	36,669	39,565	42,643	1.5
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA							
Burma	21,726	24,167	27,078	30,482	34,433	38,890	2.4
Indonesia	100,655	112,269	122,671	136,578	151,168	167,833	2.1
Malaysia	8,428	9,648	10,910	12,388	14,001	15,664	2.2
Philippines	27,898	32,415	37,542	43,103	49,253	55,819	2.5
Thailand	27,513	32,062	37,091	42,422	47,669	52,700	2.0

Note: Slight discrepancies between the population totals shown in this table and those in table 2.1 are due to the different dates during the year to which the data refer. Figures in table 2.1 refer to the respective census dates for each country, while those in table 2.2 all refer to July 1.

Table 2.3. Percent of Female Population in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

(Percentages do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories)

Residence, region, and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Reproductive age	Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 49 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
Total country								
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA								
Bangladesh	1974	17.6	19.0	12.2	8.0	41.2	48.3	2.9
India	1971	14.9	15.1	12.2	8.4	46.0	54.4	3.4
Nepal	1971	14.7	14.9	10.4	8.7	48.5	56.8	3.2
Pakistan	1972	16.1	16.6	11.9	8.3	43.8	51.6	3.8
Sri Lanka	1981	12.5	11.4	11.4	10.9	52.1	60.6	4.2
EAST ASIA								
China								
Mainland	1982	9.4	11.0	13.1	12.6	50.9	61.0	5.6
Taiwan	1975	11.2	12.7	13.1	12.3	51.6	59.4	3.5
Hong Kong	1981	7.8	8.2	8.9	11.4	53.8	66.9	8.2
South Korea	1975	11.8	12.5	12.6	11.7	49.9	58.7	4.3
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA								
Burma	1973	16.0	13.7	11.9	10.3	45.8	54.5	3.9
Indonesia	1971	15.8	15.4	11.4	9.6	47.7	54.9	2.5
Malaysia	1970	15.7	15.4	13.3	11.1	45.1	52.6	3.0
Philippines	1975	15.2	14.8	13.4	12.0	47.0	53.7	2.9
Thailand	1970	16.2	15.1	13.1	10.9	45.1	52.2	3.4

Table 2.3. Percent of Female Population in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries —Continued

(Percentages do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories)

Residence, region, and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Reproductive age	Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 49 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
Rural								
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA								
Bangladesh.....	1974	17.7	19.1	12.0	7.8	41.1	48.3	3.0
India.....	1971	15.2	15.2	12.1	8.1	45.3	54.0	3.5
Nepal.....	1971	14.7	14.9	10.3	8.7	48.5	56.8	3.2
Pakistan.....	1972	16.3	16.7	11.5	7.8	43.1	51.3	4.2
Sri Lanka.....	1981	13.0	11.7	11.4	10.7	51.6	59.9	4.0
EAST ASIA								
Hong Kong.....	1981	9.2	9.2	11.0	13.0	48.2	61.0	9.5
South Korea.....	1975	11.8	13.9	14.3	9.8	43.9	54.4	5.6
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA								
Burma.....	1973	16.0	14.2	11.9	10.2	45.4	54.0	3.9
Indonesia.....	1971	15.9	15.7	11.2	9.1	47.2	54.6	2.6
Malaysia.....	1970	16.6	16.1	13.4	10.6	43.6	51.1	2.8
Philippines.....	1975	16.1	15.7	13.9	11.3	44.7	51.4	2.8
Thailand.....	1970	16.8	15.4	13.0	10.6	44.2	51.2	3.4

Table 2.3. Percent of Female Population in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries—Continued

(Percentages do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories)

Residence, region, and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Reproductive age	Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 49 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
Urban								
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA								
Bangladesh.....	1974	16.3	17.5	14.8	10.2	43.5	49.1	2.3
India.....	1971	13.7	14.3	12.8	9.9	48.8	56.3	3.0
Nepal.....	1971	13.8	14.2	11.3	10.0	49.7	57.6	3.2
Pakistan.....	1972	15.5	16.1	13.0	9.8	45.9	52.6	2.8
Sri Lanka.....	1981	10.4	10.4	11.3	11.5	54.1	63.1	4.7
EAST ASIA								
Hong Kong.....	1981	7.7	8.2	8.8	11.3	54.2	67.3	8.0
South Korea.....	1975	11.9	11.0	10.9	13.8	56.2	63.2	3.0
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA								
Burma.....	1973	15.9	12.1	12.1	10.6	47.3	55.9	4.0
Indonesia.....	1971	15.3	13.9	12.2	11.8	49.9	56.2	2.4
Malaysia.....	1970	13.1	13.7	13.1	12.5	49.0	56.7	3.3
Philippines.....	1975	13.2	12.9	12.4	13.5	51.8	58.5	2.9
Thailand.....	1970	12.2	12.9	13.1	12.9	51.2	58.3	3.5

Table 2.4. Percent of Male Population in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

(Percentages do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories)

Residence, region, and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
Total country							
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA							
Bangladesh.....	1974	16.2	17.8	13.5	8.5	48.8	3.7
India.....	1971	14.2	14.9	12.8	8.9	54.8	3.3
Nepal.....	1971	13.6	15.2	12.1	9.4	56.1	3.0
Pakistan.....	1972	14.2	15.9	13.1	8.7	52.4	4.4
Sri Lanka.....	1981	12.5	11.3	11.4	10.8	60.2	4.5
EAST ASIA							
China							
Mainland.....	1982	9.5	11.1	13.2	12.4	62.0	4.2
Taiwan.....	1975	11.1	12.5	12.8	12.0	60.9	2.7
Hong Kong.....	1981	7.8	8.2	8.7	11.2	70.2	5.1
South Korea.....	1975	12.6	13.2	13.5	12.2	58.2	2.6
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA							
Burma.....	1973	16.3	14.0	12.2	10.2	53.9	3.6
Indonesia.....	1971	16.5	16.3	12.6	9.6	52.1	2.5
Malaysia.....	1970	16.1	15.9	13.5	10.7	51.4	3.2
Philippines.....	1975	15.6	15.3	13.6	11.5	52.5	2.8
Thailand.....	1970	16.7	15.7	13.5	10.7	51.4	2.7

Table 2.4. Percent of Male Population in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries--Continued

(Percentages do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories)

Residence, region, and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
Rural							
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA							
Bangladesh	1974	16.6	18.2	13.5	8.4	47.8	3.8
India	1971	14.6	15.3	13.0	8.5	53.5	3.5
Nepal	1971	13.7	15.3	12.1	9.3	55.9	3.0
Pakistan	1972	14.4	16.4	13.2	8.4	51.2	4.9
Sri Lanka	1981	13.3	11.8	11.6	10.6	58.8	4.6
EAST ASIA							
Hong Kong	1981	9.0	8.8	10.5	12.6	65.4	6.4
South Korea	1975	12.3	14.3	15.0	10.8	54.7	3.6
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA							
Burma	1973	16.5	14.1	12.2	10.1	53.5	3.7
Indonesia	1971	16.6	16.7	12.6	9.1	51.5	2.6
Malaysia	1970	16.9	16.5	13.6	10.1	49.7	3.3
Philippines	1975	16.2	15.9	13.9	11.4	51.1	2.9
Thailand	1970	17.3	16.0	13.5	10.4	50.4	2.7

Table 2.4. Percent of Male Population in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries —Continued

(Percentages do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories)

Residence, region, and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
Urban							
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA							
Bangladesh.....	1974	12.7	13.8	12.6	9.8	58.5	2.4
India.....	1971	12.3	13.1	12.2	10.2	59.9	2.6
Nepal.....	1971	11.8	12.7	11.1	11.1	61.9	2.6
Pakistan.....	1972	13.6	14.6	13.0	9.5	55.6	3.2
Sri Lanka.....	1981	9.9	9.8	10.8	11.4	65.3	4.1
EAST ASIA							
Hong Kong.....	1981	7.7	8.1	8.6	11.1	70.6	5.0
South Korea.....	1975	12.8	12.0	11.8	13.7	61.9	1.5
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA							
Burma.....	1973	16.0	13.7	12.1	10.6	55.2	3.0
Indonesia.....	1971	15.9	14.4	12.5	11.6	55.3	1.9
Malaysia.....	1970	13.5	14.1	13.4	12.4	56.1	2.9
Philippines.....	1975	14.4	14.0	12.8	11.8	56.1	2.8
Thailand.....	1970	13.0	13.5	13.5	12.5	57.4	2.5

Table 2.5. Sex Ratio of Population in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

Residence, region, and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Reproductive age	Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 49 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
Total country								
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA								
Bangladesh	1974	99.3	101.2	118.9	114.1	106.5	108.8	137.1
India	1971	102.2	106.1	113.0	113.4	107.2	108.4	105.1
Nepal	1971	93.7	103.3	118.3	109.5	100.2	100.1	94.9
Pakistan	1972	100.8	110.4	127.0	120.1	113.8	116.6	133.0
Sri Lanka	1981	104.5	103.2	104.5	102.9	102.0	103.4	111.1
EAST ASIA								
China								
Mainland	1982	107.1	106.2	106.1	103.5	107.3	107.3	79.8
Taiwan	1975	106.3	105.4	105.2	104.4	106.5	110.4	83.6
Hong Kong	1981	109.3	108.0	106.7	107.8	116.5	114.8	68.3
South Korea	1975	107.4	107.0	107.8	105.0	102.1	100.3	61.3
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA								
Burma	1973	101.0	101.3	100.8	98.4	97.9	97.9	89.4
Indonesia	1971	101.2	103.1	107.7	97.4	91.9	92.3	94.2
Malaysia	1970	104.1	104.3	103.1	97.5	97.7	99.2	107.8
Philippines	1975	105.3	105.5	103.9	98.3	99.2	99.9	101.5
Thailand	1970	102.4	102.8	102.5	97.2	97.9	97.6	78.3

Table 2.5. Sex Ratio of Population in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries—Continued

Residence, region, and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Reproductive age	Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 49 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
Rural								
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA								
Bangladesh.....	1974	99.1	101.2	119.8	113.0	102.3	104.8	137.3
India.....	1971	101.7	106.0	113.5	111.6	103.0	104.5	105.7
Nepal.....	1971	93.5	103.3	118.5	108.6	99.1	99.1	94.9
Pakistan.....	1972	99.6	111.0	130.2	121.8	110.2	113.1	132.3
Sri Lanka.....	1981	104.7	103.4	104.6	101.2	99.0	100.8	115.9
EAST ASIA								
Hong Kong.....	1981	108.5	106.4	106.2	108.7	120.8	119.9	74.5
South Korea.....	1975	107.4	106.2	107.4	113.3	106.3	103.3	66.7
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA								
Burma.....	1973	100.6	97.8	100.4	97.1	96.7	97.0	92.9
Indonesia.....	1971	100.8	103.1	109.1	97.1	90.6	91.2	96.9
Malaysia.....	1970	103.9	104.2	102.8	96.1	96.8	98.6	116.1
Philippines.....	1975	105.1	105.7	105.7	106.3	103.7	104.2	106.2
Thailand.....	1970	102.2	102.7	102.7	97.6	98.0	97.7	79.5

Table 2.5. Sex Ratio of Population in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries—Continued

Residence, region, and, country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Reproductive age	Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 49 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
Urban								
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA								
Bangladesh	1974	101.5	101.6	110.1	123.4	153.0	154.1	134.2
India	1971	104.2	106.6	111.4	119.7	124.1	124.0	102.3
Nepal	1971	99.2	104.6	114.5	129.6	127.1	125.3	95.4
Pakistan	1972	104.3	108.6	119.0	116.2	123.3	126.1	135.7
Sri Lanka	1981	103.6	102.2	104.5	108.9	112.9	112.7	95.5
EAST ASIA								
Hong Kong	1981	109.3	108.2	106.7	107.8	116.2	114.5	67.7
South Korea	1975	107.5	108.2	108.4	98.8	98.6	97.5	50.7
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA								
Burma	1973	102.3	114.6	102.0	102.3	101.7	100.7	78.1
Indonesia	1971	103.4	103.1	101.5	98.4	97.9	97.8	80.2
Malaysia	1970	105.1	104.5	103.7	100.9	99.9	100.6	88.5
Philippines	1975	106.0	104.9	99.7	84.5	92.4	93.0	92.2
Thailand	1970	104.3	103.5	101.3	95.0	97.3	96.9	70.3

Note: Sex ratios in this table refer to the number of men per 100 women.

Table 2.6. Percent of Population Residing in Urban Areas, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of Percent Urban: Latest Two Censuses, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Years	Earlier Census				Later Census			
		Both sexes	Women	Men	F/M ratio (male= 1.00)	Both sexes	Women	Men	F/M ratio (male= 1.00)
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA									
Bangladesh.....	1961/74	5.2	4.5	5.9	0.76	8.8	7.9	9.5	0.83
India.....	1971/81	19.9	19.1	20.7	0.92	23.7	23.0	24.4	0.94
Nepal.....	1961/71	3.6	3.3	3.8	0.87	4.0	3.7	4.3	0.86
Pakistan.....	1961/72	24.4	23.3	25.3	0.92	26.5	26.0	27.0	0.96
Sri Lanka.....	1971/81	22.4	21.7	23.2	0.94	21.5	21.0	22.0	0.95
EAST ASIA									
China Mainland.....	1964/82	18.3	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	20.6	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Hong Kong.....	1971/81	89.9	89.8	90.0	1.00	92.7	92.8	92.6	1.00
South Korea.....	1970/75	41.1	41.2	41.1	1.00	48.4	48.7	48.0	1.01
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA									
Burma.....	1973	24.1	23.7	24.5	0.97	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Indonesia.....	1961/71	14.9	14.7	15.1	0.97	17.3	17.1	17.5	0.98
Malaysia.....	1957/70	26.5	26.1	27.0	0.97	26.9	26.9	27.0	1.00
Philippines.....	1970/75	32.0	32.9	31.1	1.06	31.6	32.5	30.8	1.06
Thailand.....	1960/70	12.5	12.3	12.7	0.97	13.2	13.3	13.2	1.01

Table 2.7. Percent of Female Population in Selected Age Groups, for Pacific Islands

(Percentages do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories)

Region and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Reproductive age	Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 49 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
POLYNESIA								
American Samoa.....	1980	14.5	13.0	12.2	12.4	49.5	57.3	3.0
Cook Islands.....	1981	12.7	14.6	15.7	13.1	44.4	52.6	4.4
French Polynesia.....	1977	14.7	14.9	13.8	10.7	46.7	53.7	2.9
Niue.....	1976	12.5	14.9	16.1	11.3	41.1	48.6	7.7
Tonga.....	1976	13.5	15.7	14.3	11.5	45.7	53.0	3.4
Tuvalu.....	1979	7.7	8.3	11.5	13.6	55.1	66.4	6.1
Wallis and Futuna.....	1976	16.0	16.2	12.7	10.7	43.1	51.9	3.3
Western Samoa.....	1976	15.9	16.2	15.6	12.5	42.3	49.2	3.2
MELANESIA								
Fiji.....	1976	13.7	13.1	14.1	12.5	50.1	56.7	2.3
New Caledonia.....	1976	14.2	13.2	12.1	10.2	48.4	56.3	4.1
Papua New Guinea.....	1971	18.7	15.6	10.3	8.0	47.6	54.0	1.3
Solomon Islands.....	1976	20.5	15.6	12.1	9.9	43.2	49.2	2.5
Vanuatu.....	1979	17.5	15.1	13.0	11.2	46.6	51.9	2.5
MICRONESIA								
Guam.....	1980	12.6	12.2	10.9	10.2	53.4	61.2	3.1
Kiribati.....	1978	13.6	12.2	13.8	11.9	47.7	56.2	4.1
Nauru[1].....	1977	16.8	13.9	13.9	13.8	48.2	54.0	1.4
Northern Mariana Islands.....	1980	14.9	13.9	13.5	10.8	48.2	54.3	3.4
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands.....	1980	17.7	15.2	13.0	10.6	42.9	50.3	3.8

[1]Age distribution based on native Nauruans only.

Sources: South Pacific Commission, 1978, table 4; national census reports.

Table 2.8. Percent of Male Population in Selected Age Groups, for Pacific Islands

(Percentages do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories)

Region and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Reproductive age	Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 49 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
POLYNESIA								
American Samoa.....	1980	15.2	13.2	13.8	11.5	47.5	55.0	2.9
Cook Islands.....	1981	12.3	14.3	15.9	14.3	44.1	53.1	4.4
French Polynesia.....	1977	13.8	14.2	12.8	10.9	49.2	56.3	2.9
Niue.....	1976	14.7	17.5	16.5	12.4	39.7	46.0	5.0
Tonga.....	1976	14.3	16.2	14.9	11.9	43.9	51.5	3.1
Tuvalu.....	1979	10.5	11.1	15.1	14.2	47.1	59.3	4.0
Wallis and Futuna.....	1976	16.7	17.0	14.6	11.1	38.6	48.5	3.3
Western Samoa.....	1976	16.5	16.7	15.5	13.2	41.8	48.5	2.7
MELANESIA								
Fiji.....	1976	14.0	13.4	14.0	12.4	49.1	56.2	2.3
New Caledonia.....	1976	13.4	12.4	11.9	10.2	50.1	58.9	3.4
Papua New Guinea.....	1971	18.2	16.5	11.0	9.1	45.4	52.5	1.7
Solomon Islands.....	1976	20.2	15.5	11.9	9.8	41.3	48.3	3.9
Vanuatu.....	1979	17.0	15.2	13.0	10.7	45.2	51.5	3.3
MICRONESIA								
Guam.....	1980	12.0	11.7	10.5	10.6	54.5	63.3	2.5
Kiribati.....	1978	14.1	13.2	15.2	12.0	46.8	54.4	3.1
Nauru[1].....	1977	16.7	14.1	12.9	13.3	48.9	54.1	2.2
Northern Mariana Islands.....	1980	14.4	11.8	12.7	9.5	50.9	58.5	2.6
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands.....	1980	18.4	15.8	13.5	10.5	41.7	48.9	3.4

[1]Age distribution based on native Nauruans only.

Sources: South Pacific Commission, 1978, table 4; national census reports.

Table 2.9. Sex Ratio of Population in Selected Age Groups, for Pacific Islands

Region and country	Year	Preschool age	School age			Reproductive age	Working age	Elderly
		0 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	15 to 49 years	15 to 64 years	65 years and over
POLYNESIA								
American Samoa.....	1980	108.1	104.6	115.9	95.3	98.7	98.8	97.7
Cook Islands.....	1981	103.9	104.6	108.3	116.5	106.1	107.9	106.0
French Polynesia.....	1977	104.0	105.7	102.6	112.8	116.5	116.0	110.1
Niue.....	1976	118.4	118.2	103.6	110.1	97.3	95.3	66.9
Tonga.....	1976	110.1	107.7	109.0	107.8	100.4	101.5	95.4
Tuvalu.....	1979	119.2	117.2	115.6	91.6	75.0	78.5	57.4
Wallis and Futuna.....	1976	104.6	105.1	114.9	103.7	89.6	93.5	100.0
Western Samoa.....	1976	111.5	110.8	107.1	113.6	106.0	105.8	90.7
MELANESIA								
Fiji.....	1976	104.5	103.8	101.4	101.3	100.2	101.2	99.1
New Caledonia.....	1976	102.2	102.1	106.1	108.4	112.3	113.2	90.2
Papua New Guinea.....	1971	105.7	114.2	115.8	124.0	103.3	105.1	139.2
Solomon Islands.....	1976	107.9	108.3	108.4	108.3	104.6	107.5	168.5
Vanuatu.....	1979	109.8	114.2	113.4	109.0	108.7	111.3	151.8
MICRONESIA								
Guam.....	1980	103.7	104.6	106.0	113.7	111.3	112.8	88.9
Kiribati.....	1978	100.6	105.2	107.1	98.2	95.4	94.1	74.0
Nauru[1].....	1977	108.0	110.0	100.4	104.7	110.1	108.6	173.1
Northern Mariana Islands.....	1980	107.1	93.9	104.2	97.8	117.0	119.2	85.4
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands.....	1980	108.7	109.4	109.1	103.7	102.3	102.4	94.2

Note: Sex ratios in this table refer to the number of men per 100 women.

[1]Age distribution based on native Nauruans only.

Sources: South Pacific Commission, 1978, table 4; national census reports.

Table 2.10. Percent of Population Residing in Urban Areas, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of Percent Urban, for Pacific Islands

Region and country	Year	Total	Female	Male	F/M ratio (male=1.00)
POLYNESIA					
American Samoa	1974	43.2	43.8	42.7	1.03
Cook Islands	1976	26.8	24.0	29.4	0.82
French Polynesia	1971	56.6	56.3	56.8	0.99
Niue	1979	21.4	21.7	21.1	1.03
Tonga	1976	26.5	27.0	26.1	1.03
Tuvalu	1979	29.8	26.2	33.9	0.77
Wallis and Futuna[1]	1976	0.0	0.0	0.0	(NA)
Western Samoa	1976	21.1	21.4	20.9	1.02
MELANESIA					
Fiji	1976	37.1	37.5	36.7	1.02
New Caledonia	1976	42.1	42.2	42.0	1.00
Papua New Guinea	1971	9.1	7.1	10.9	0.65
Solomon Islands	1976	9.3	8.0	10.5	0.76
Vanuatu	1979	17.8	17.4	18.2	0.96
MICRONESIA					
Guam	1970	90.9	89.8	91.7	0.98
Kiribati	1978	31.9	31.7	32.1	0.99
Nauru[1]	1977	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00

[1]The population of Wallis and Futuna is considered to be entirely rural, while that of Nauru is considered to be entirely urban.

Sources: South Pacific Commission, 1978, table 3; national census reports.

Chapter 3

Literacy and Education

ASIA

Education is central to the process of improvement in the status of women. It not only provides women with higher social status in the community, but also gives them the opportunity to engage in higher status occupations. Education, particularly higher education, provides women greater access to resources, be they political, economic, legal, social, or cultural. There also are documented links between increased education and lower fertility. A study of education and fertility in Bangladesh found that, in addition to the usual inverse relationship between these variables, a wife's education has relatively more effect on fertility and contraceptive use than does her husband's (UNESCAP, 1981). This finding, which has been observed in other third world nations as well, has crucial implications for countries such as Bangladesh, where past attempts to brake population growth have met with rather limited success.

The analysis in this chapter yields several general observations. First, a very large proportion of women in Middle South Asia (over four-fifths) still are illiterate. The proportion of illiterate women in East Asia is roughly one-fifth and in Southeast Asia about one third. Second, there are larger gaps between literacy rates of women and men in Middle South Asia than in other regions; these gaps are wider in rural than in urban areas. Third, literacy of younger women is significantly higher than that of older women. Fourth, enrollment data indicate that the female/male differential in enrollment rates among children age 5 to 9 years is quite large in Middle South Asian countries (except Sri Lanka), while there are negligible differences in most countries of the other subregions. Finally, female/male differences in enrollment increase with age in all countries except Sri Lanka and the Philippines, and there are substantial gender differences among those age 15 to 19 years.

The measurement of literacy levels has some inherent problems. The definition of who is literate varies across countries, although the general objective is to ascertain the number of people who can read and write. Some censuses specify that in order to be classified as literate, the person should be able to read "with understanding." In Pakistan, past censuses have usually asked whether a person can read with understanding in any language and write a simple letter. In one of the censuses, where the ability to read included the ability to recite the Quran (the holy book of Muslims), the reported female literacy jumped substantially. Most women, however, could not understand the Arabic script of the Quran, and subsequent censuses did not use this definition.

Apart from definitional problems, the concept of functional literacy can be a difficult one. A person may have gone to school and yet be functionally illiterate because the educational curriculum did not lend itself to the current needs of society. Likewise, the mere attainment of functional literacy is not necessarily significant in terms of enhanced socioeconomic prospects. There also may be a tendency toward overreporting of literacy in censuses and surveys, since education has now become a valued goal in most societies.

Literacy Rates

An extremely large proportion of women in Middle South Asia is still illiterate—only 5 percent of Nepalese and 12 percent of Pakistani women were reported to have the ability to read and write. The corresponding figures for men in these countries were 33 percent and 30 percent, respectively (table 3.1). Sri Lanka represents a striking exception among the Middle South Asian countries, with 82 percent of its women literate. Among East Asian countries, over four-fifths of the women in South Korea and Taiwan are literate, with Mainland China registering a female rate of 55 percent in the 1982 census. Southeast Asia contains larger diversity, with 47 percent of the Malaysian and 82 percent of the Filipino women literate. In the regional context, Filipino society is quite unique in its almost equal emphasis on

education for girls and boys, which can be traced to the sociocultural traditions of Filipino society (Castillo, 1976).

Percentages of literate women and men according to rural/urban residence are available for 9 of the 13 countries included in table 3.1. The data indicate that a much higher proportion of women in each country is literate in urban than in rural areas. Only 5 percent of rural Pakistani women are literate, compared to 31 percent of their urban counterparts. Even in Sri Lanka, which has unusually high literacy levels, 91 percent of the urban but only 80 percent of the rural women are literate. Similarly, 92 percent of the urban Filipino women but only 77 percent of the rural women are literate. Since the same pattern holds true for men in all countries, urban residence is clearly associated with a greater probability of achieving literacy, regardless of gender. While much of this residential discrepancy can be attributed to differential governmental funding and the resultant quality of urban versus rural facilities, selective migration to urban areas also may exacerbate regional differences. In other words, regional female/male differences in literacy may be affected by the extent to which internal migration is predominantly a male phenomenon.

Gender differences in literacy are larger in rural than in urban areas in almost all Asian countries (figure 3.2). Women in Middle South Asia again seem to be at a greater disadvantage, relative to men, compared to East and Southeast Asia. In Pakistan, for example, only one-fifth as many women as men were literate in rural areas. The Philippines again represents the other extreme, with negligible male/female differences in rural as well as urban areas.

While differences between rural and urban areas and between women and men are large in many cases, table 3.2 and figure 3.3 show that recent decades have been marked by a sharp increase in literacy in most countries. A significantly higher proportion of women age 10 to 24 years are literate than those age 35 years or more, indicating that major strides in female literacy have been made over the last 25 years. Similar findings have recently been reported on the basis of data from the World Fertility Survey (Curtin, 1982). Among Southeast Asian countries, Malaysia, Indonesia, and Thailand have all made substantial gains in female literacy. In Malaysia, for example, the rate among women age 10 to 24 years (69 percent) was more than four times that among women age 35 years or more (16 percent). A similar leap can be seen between Mainland Chinese age groups. Younger women in Middle South Asia also have made impressive gains, although they still are at fairly low levels of literacy overall.

At the same time, improvements in literacy rates may mask undesirable trends in absolute numbers because of rapid population growth. Although the percentage of literate females in India has risen from under 8 percent at the time of the first national census (1951) to 25 percent in 1981, there are nearly 100 million more illiterate women today than in 1951. Even within a more recent time frame, the number of female illiterates in 1980 exceeded the number in 1970 (UNESCAP, 1982b).

A comparison of literacy rates among men of various ages shows that although younger men also have made gains, the differences are much less striking than in the case of women. These findings suggest that the education of men preceded the education of women in Asian societies. In Malaysia, for example, the proportion literate among young men age 10 to 24 years was half again as large as among those age 35 years and over (78 as compared to 53 percent).

School Enrollment Rates

Age at entrance into school varies by law and practice among countries, but by age 10 years most of the children who are going to enroll have probably done so. As shown in table 3.3 and figure 3.5, enrollment rates for girls age 10 to 14 years vary from only 8 percent in Nepal (33 percent for boys) to 96 percent in South Korea (98 percent for boys), with rates generally lower for both sexes in Middle South Asia than in the other two subregions although enrollment in Sri Lanka for both girls and boys is well above that in most other countries. The median percent enrolled among Asian countries overall is more than 8 points lower for girls than boys (56.1 percent and 64.2 percent, respectively). Gender differences also may be expressed as the female/male ratio of percent enrolled, as presented in table 3.4. These ratios parallel fairly closely the level of enrollment, with only a fourth as many girls as boys enrolled in Nepal, where enrollment is lowest, and very nearly equal proportions enrolled in Sri Lanka, Hong Kong, and South Korea, where enrollment is highest. The Philippines is an interesting exception, with overall enrollment at a moderate level but with a slightly higher percentage of girls than boys reported as enrolled in school.

After age 10 to 14 years, enrollment declines in a fairly consistent pattern, with successively smaller proportions of both sexes enrolled with each subsequent age group. Although levels of enrollment continue to be generally higher in East and Southeast Asia than in Middle South Asia at age 15 to 19 years, rates drop more sharply in Thailand and maintain a fairly high level in Sri Lanka. Gender differences become more apparent at the older ages in most countries, reflecting higher dropout rates among young women as they reach high school and college ages. Sri Lanka is an exception again, as enrollment stays near parity for women and men among all the age groups shown.

Additional evidence of sex differentials in dropout rates can be gleaned from census data on educational attainment as compiled by UNESCO (1981). Among Bangladeshis 25 years old and over in 1974, 5 percent of women versus 14 percent of men had completed at least 1 year of primary education, but had not completed the final year. This represents a female/male ratio of 0.38. The female/male ratio of those who had completed the primary level dropped to 0.12. For completion of the secondary level, the ratio stands at only 0.06. Similar though less striking patterns can be seen in 1970 round census data for India, Malaysia, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. In the case of Sri Lanka, however, data for younger age groups are much more encouraging; female attainment levels beyond grade 9 actually exceed those of males for persons age 15 to 24 years (UNESCAP, 1976).

Tables 3.3 and 3.5 show that the same general enrollment patterns exist in both rural and urban areas as in the country as a whole: enrollment is lowest in Middle South Asia, and both the level and the female/male ratio decline with age (with Sri

Lanka again the exception). Although these patterns are similar, however, there are significant differences in the levels of enrollment in the two types of residence. Almost without exception, enrollment is higher in the cities in all age groups. In Middle South Asia in particular, a very small proportion of rural girls are enrolled (figure 3.6), only 7 percent in Nepal and 10 percent in Pakistan.

The foregoing analysis is limited by the relative paucity of data on other aspects of education, such as content, quality, and parental aspirations for the education of their daughters. While large proportions of children of both sexes may be in school, the content of education can be quite different for each. Schooling may provide boys with vocational training but impart only limited training in home economics or the humanities to girls. In India, less than one-half of 1 percent of all women have higher education degrees or qualifications, and among women enrolled in higher education in the mid-1970's, nearly two-thirds were pursuing arts courses (Government of India, 1978). As Beseria has noted for India, the process of formal female education contains institutional sex biases wherein teachers and textbooks reinforce traditional behavioral patterns: "education largely remains, for a girl, a consumer commodity, the acquisition of which adds to her eligibility for marriage and improves her prospects for a better match; it has not as yet emerged as a liberating force" (UNESCAP, 1982b).

Similar parental attitudes towards female education are found in rural Pakistan. In a recent study, Anwar and Naeem (1980) found that roughly one-third of rural Punjabi parents said that it is not necessary to provide any formal education to their daughters; another one-fourth said that female education has no advantage. Although the government has a definite policy aimed at increasing female education, particularly in rural areas, there is no consensus about what the content of female education should be. Some educators believe that education which teaches a woman how to run a good home and bring up healthy children is sufficient. While studies have shown that mothers' increased education does have beneficial implications for their children's health (World Bank, 1980), such modest aspirations alone do not portend a large impact of the welll-intentioned policy. The Pakistan example clearly suggests that an in-depth knowledge of a country's culture, including its definition of appropriate roles for women, is necessary in order to fully understand the situation of its women and girls.

PACIFIC ISLANDS

Data on literacy levels in the Pacific are not available from the census of any country except Tonga. In 1976, a large proportion (about 88 percent) of Tongan females and males were literate, either in Tongan alone or in English as well as Tongan (Kingdom of Tonga, 1976).

School Enrollment Rates

As shown in table 3.6, among children age 5 to 9 years, roughly the same percentage of girls as boys are in school except in Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands, Melanesian lands which have low levels of urbanization and relatively fewer educational facilities. Roughly two-thirds to more than four-fifths of all girls age 5 to 9 years are enrolled in most other countries, but the percentages in Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands are only 30 percent (of girls age 6 to 11 years) and 26 percent, respectively. In Niue, on the other hand, 93 percent of girls and 94 percent of boys age 5 to 9 years are in school.

Except for Niuean boys, percentages of enrollees age 10 to 14 years are consistently higher than those at age 5 to 9 years for each sex in all countries of the Pacific, but gender differences among children age 10 to 14 years were similar to those for the younger age group in most countries.

In all countries, the level of school enrollment is much lower in the next age group, 15 to 19 years. The largest difference is seen in Tuvalu, where 92 percent of girls age 10 to 14 are enrolled in school, compared to only 12 percent at age 15 to 19 years. The lower enrollment rates for both women and men result from a lack of tertiary educational facilities on this island. Enrollment at age 15 to 19 years is much lower also in Niue, Fiji, and Kiribati, while the islands of Western Samoa, American Samoa, and Tonga have more moderate decreases from the younger age group. The proportion of females in school in the latter island groups ranges from 59 percent in Western Samoa to 64 percent in Tonga. In Solomon Islands, on the other hand, only 18 percent of women age 15 to 18 years are in school.

At age 15 to 19 years (the high school and college ages), differences between men and women are not consistent among countries. In Niue, Tonga, and Western Samoa, higher proportions of women than men age 15 to 19 years are in school. The most notable female/male ratio (1.34) obtains in Niue. For most other islands, far fewer women than men in these ages are enrolled.

Some information on adult education may be gleaned from an analysis of participation in extension education conducted by the University of the South Pacific Extension Services and shown in part below. Except for Nauru and Niue, where more women than men are participating in extension services, differences between the sexes are generally seen to be large and in favor of men.

Distribution of Population Participating in Extension Education, by Sex (In percent)

Country	Men	Women
Total	65	35
Cook Islands	56	44
Fiji	68	32
Kiribati	62	38
Nauru	40	60
Niue	40	60
Solomon Islands	84	16
Tonga	54	46
Tuvalu	61	39
Vanuatu	75	25
Western Samoa	51	49

Source: Kite, 1982, p. 4. Age referents are not available.

Figure 3.1. Percent Literate Among Women and Men Age 10 Years and Over

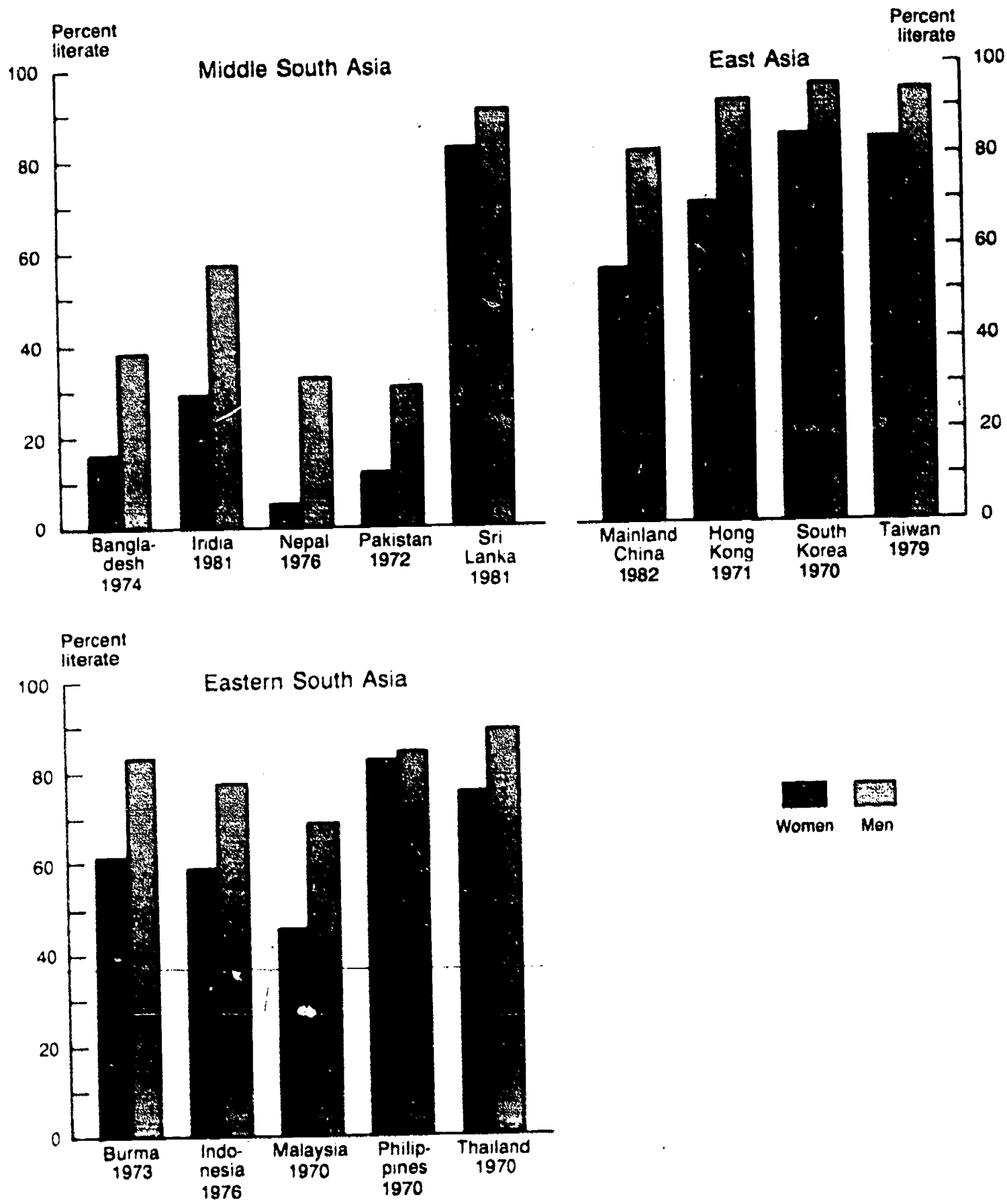


Figure 3.2. Percent Literate Among Women and Men Age 10 Years and Over, by Rural/Urban Residence

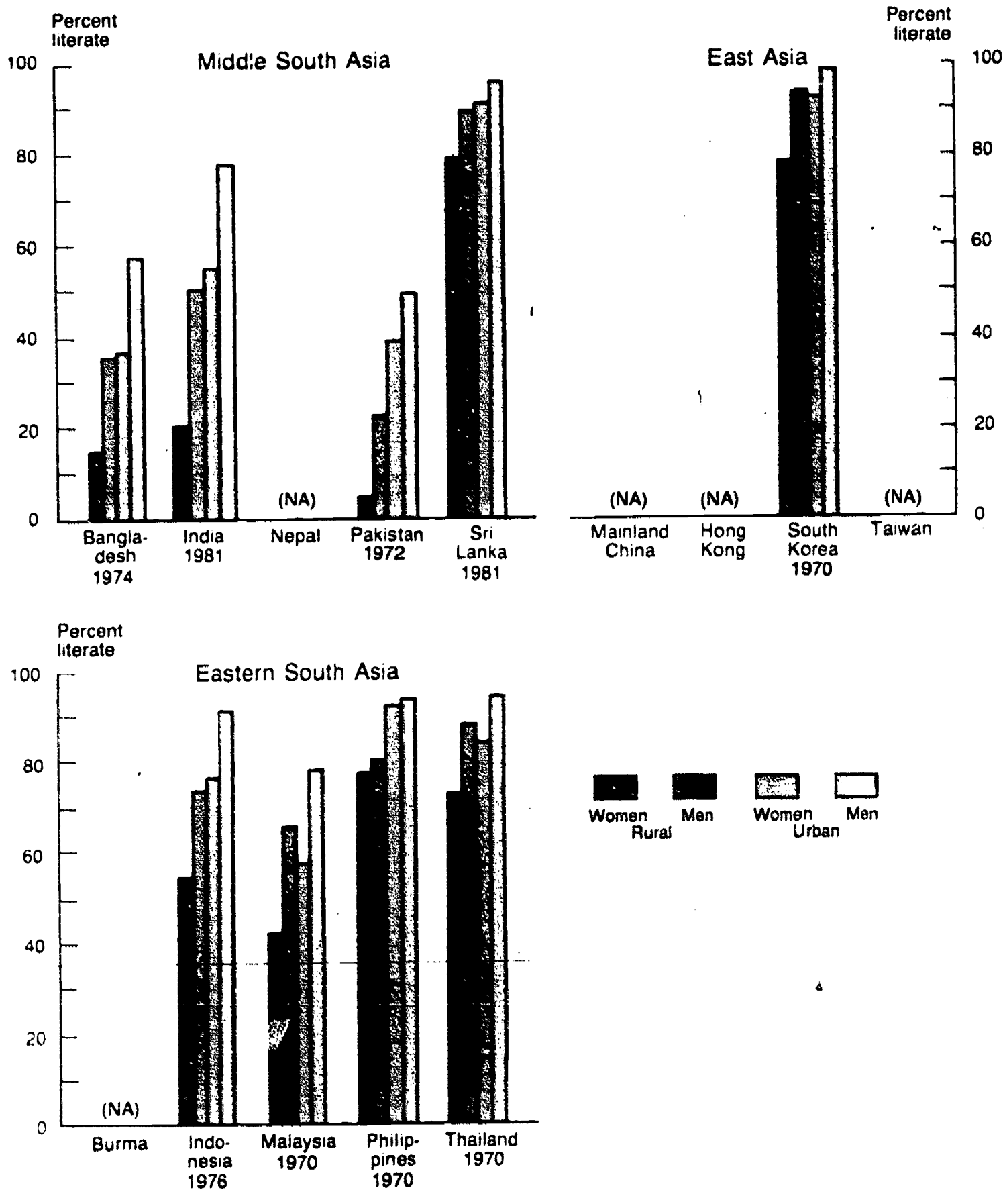
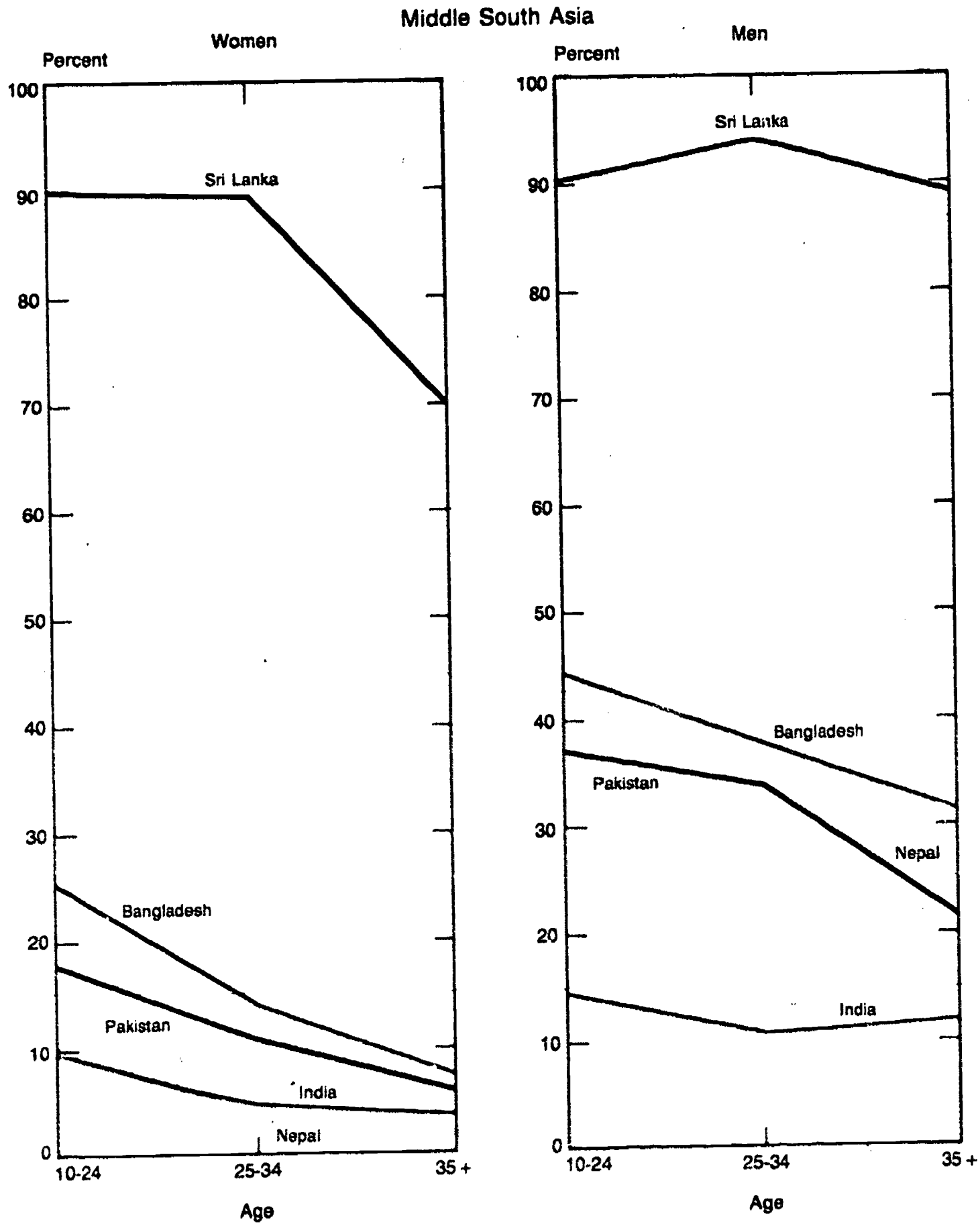


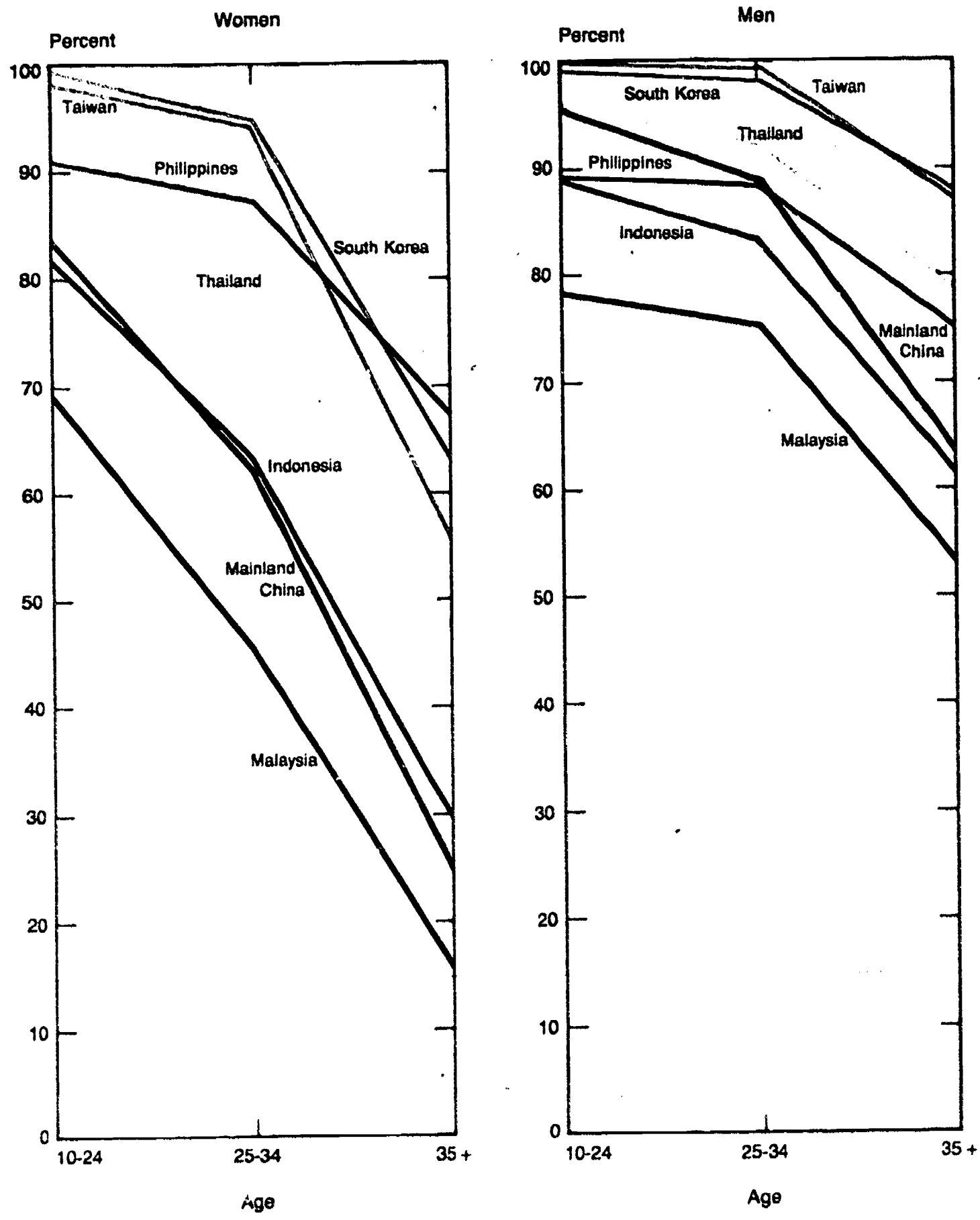
Figure 3.3. Percent Literate for Women and Men, by Age



Note: See footnotes to table 3.2 for nonstandard age groups.

Figure 3.3. Percent Literate for Women and Men, by Age – Continued

East Asia and Eastern South Asia



Note: See footnotes to table 3.2 for nonstandard age groups.

Figure 3.4. Percent Literate for Women, by Age and Rural/Urban Residence

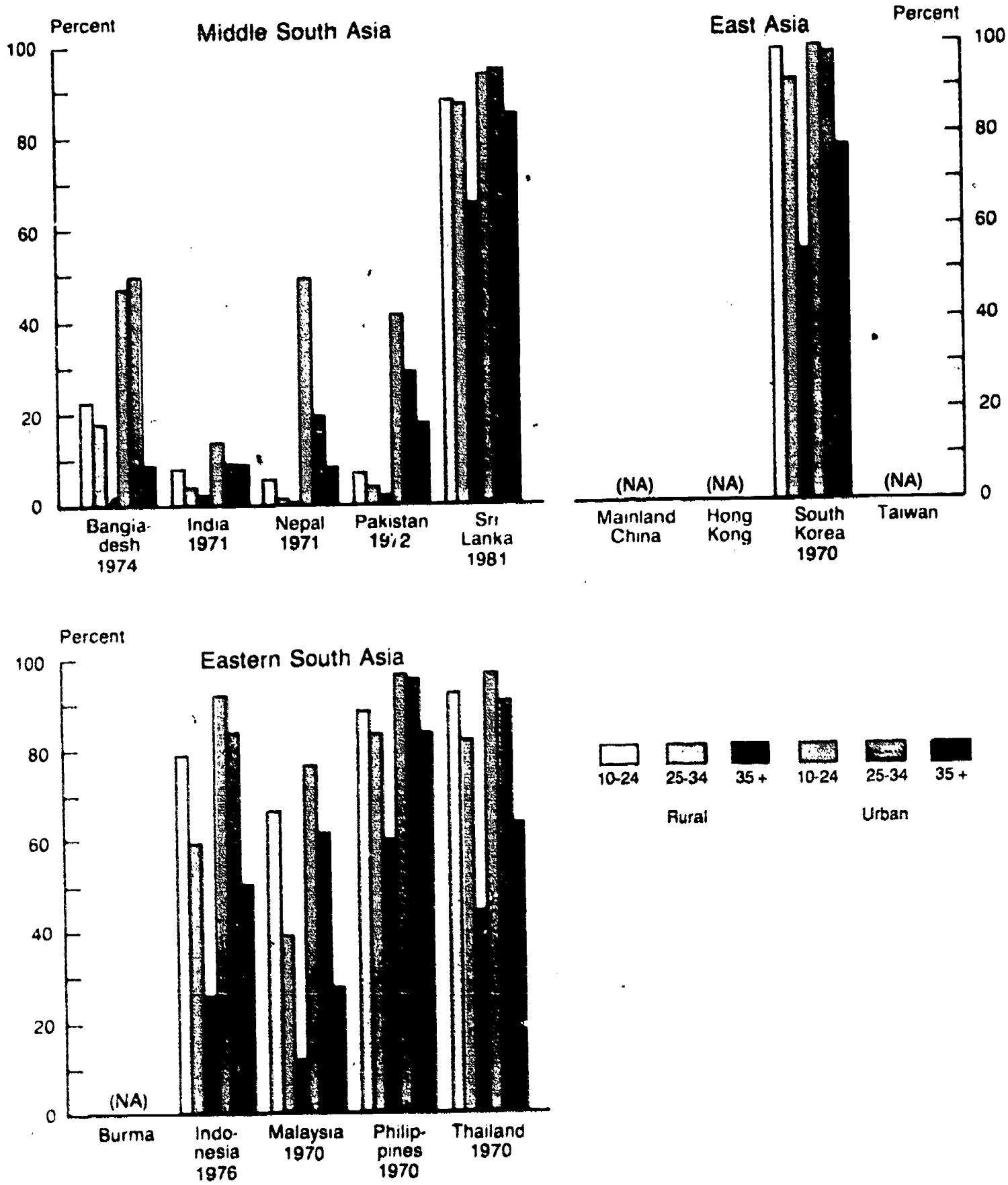
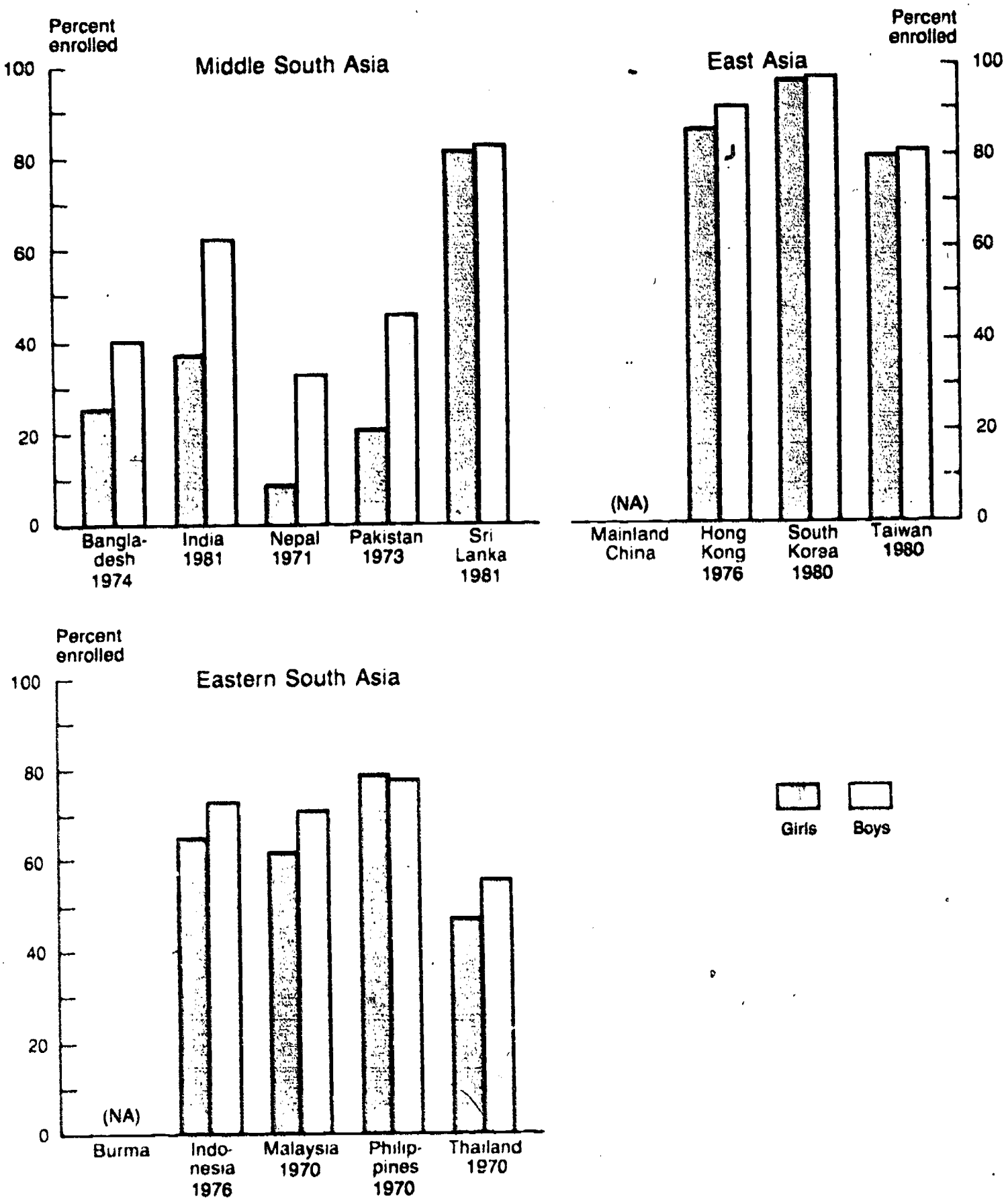
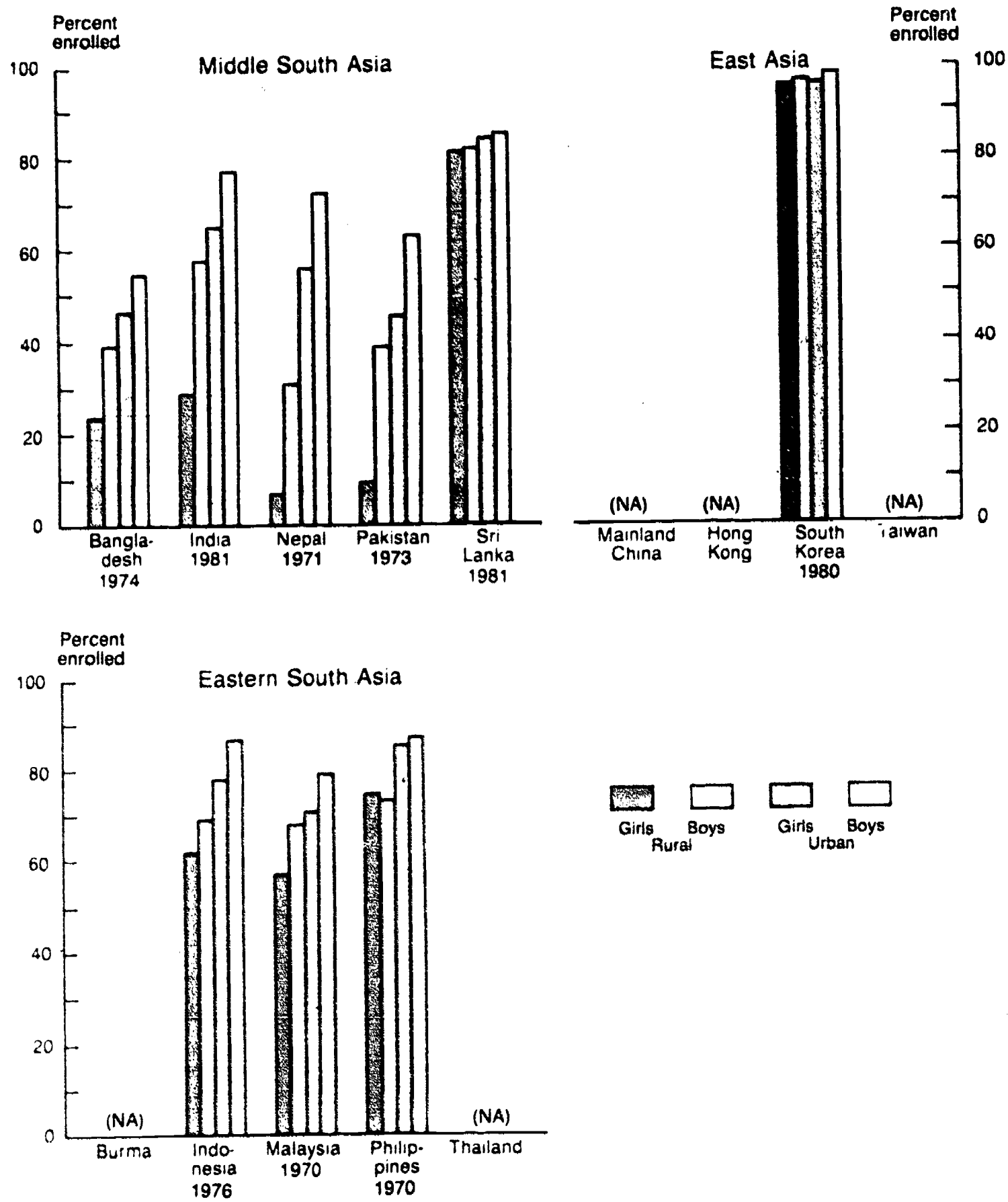


Figure 3.5. Percent Enrolled in School Among Girls and Boys Age 10 to 14 Years



Note See footnotes to table 3.3 for nonstandard age groups.

Figure 3.6. Percent Enrolled in School Among Girls and Boys Age 10 to 14 Years, by Rural/Urban Residence



Note See footnotes to table 3.3 for nonstandard age groups

Table 3.1. Percent Literate Among Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, and Female/Male Ratio of Percent Literate, for Asian Countries

Residence, region, and country	Year	Total	Female	Male	F/M ratio (male=1.00)
Total country					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	27.7	16.2	38.0	0.43
India	1981	43.5	29.0	57.0	0.51
Nepal	1976	19.2	5.2	33.1	0.16
Pakistan	1972	21.7	11.6	30.2	0.38
Sri Lanka	1981	86.5	82.4	90.5	0.91
EAST ASIA					
China					
Mainland[1]	1982	68.1	54.7	80.8	0.68
Taiwan[2]	1979	89.2	83.5	94.4	0.88
Hong Kong	1971	80.8	69.7	91.6	0.76
South Korea	1970	89.8	84.3	95.4	0.88
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Burma	1973	71.9	60.8	83.4	0.73
Indonesia	1976	67.9	58.9	77.4	0.76
Malaysia	1970	58.0	46.8	69.1	0.68
Philippines	1970	83.4	82.2	84.5	0.97
Thailand	1970	81.8	74.8	88.9	0.84

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 3.1. Percent Literate Among Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, and Female/Male Ratio of Percent Literate, for Asian Countries—Continued

Residence, region, and country	Year	Total	Female	Male	F/M ratio (male=1.00)
Rural					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	25.5	14.4	35.7	0.40
India	1981	35.8	20.9	50.1	0.42
Pakistan	1972	14.3	4.7	22.6	0.21
Sri Lanka	1981	84.5	79.9	89.0	0.90
EAST ASIA					
South Korea	1970	85.8	78.5	93.3	0.84
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	64.3	54.7	74.3	0.74
Malaysia	1970	53.9	42.4	65.4	0.65
Philippines	1970	78.7	77.2	80.2	0.96
Thailand	1970	80.5	73.2	88.0	0.83
Urban					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	48.7	36.4	57.3	0.64
India	1981	67.2	55.5	77.3	0.72
Pakistan	1972	41.5	30.9	49.9	0.62
Sri Lanka	1981	93.3	91.0	95.3	0.95
EAST ASIA					
South Korea	1970	95.2	92.1	98.3	0.94
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	83.6	76.7	90.9	0.84
Malaysia	1970	68.0	57.5	78.2	0.74
Philippines	1970	92.7	91.8	93.8	0.98
Thailand	1970	89.3	84.4	94.5	0.89

[1] Refers to age 12 years and over.
[2] Refers to age 6 years and over.

Table 3.2. Percent Literate Among Women and Men in Selected Age Groups, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Year	Women			Men		
		10 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 years and over	10 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 years and over
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA							
Bangladesh	1974	25.1	13.6	7.0	44.0	37.8	31.3
India	1981	[1] 46.1	[2] 34.5	14.4	[1] 68.1	[2] 62.6	44.6
Nepal	1976	9.6	3.5	1.5	42.9	32.4	23.1
Pakistan	1972	17.4	10.7	5.8	36.8	33.6	21.6
Sri Lanka	1981	89.4	89.0	69.9	90.3	93.8	88.8
EAST ASIA							
China							
Mainland	1982	[3] 83.0	62.0	24.6	[3] 95.1	88.8	63.2
Taiwan	1979	[3] 98.7	94.5	56.2	[3] 99.5	99.3	87.0
South Korea	1970	88.9	94.7	62.7	99.3	98.7	88.3
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA							
Indonesia	1976	81.9	63.7	30.0	88.6	83.3	61.6
Malaysia	1970	69.2	45.7	15.8	78.3	75.5	53.2
Philippines	1970	91.1	87.5	67.4	89.5	88.8	75.5
Thailand	1970	92.9	83.2	46.7	95.7	91.9	78.3

[1] Estimated rate; refers to age 10 to 14 years.
[2] Estimated rate; refers to age 15 to 34 years.
[3] Refers to age 12 to 24 years.

Table 3.3. Percent of Population Enrolled in School, by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

Residence, region, and country	Year	Female				Male			
		5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	20 to 24 years
Total country									
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA									
Bangladesh.....	1974	15.5	25.8	7.1	1.1	[1]22.0	40.6	29.1	14.3
India.....	1981	32.2	37.5	(NA)	(NA)	44.3	62.1	(NA)	(NA)
Nepal.....	1971	[1]4.7	8.5	3.9	0.9	[1]14.4	32.7	22.0	7.5
Pakistan.....	1973	11.8	20.5	9.3	3.3	23.3	45.8	24.6	8.7
Sri Lanka.....	1981	84.0	81.7	41.8	6.9	84.3	82.7	39.9	6.5
EAST ASIA									
China									
Taiwan.....	1980	(NA)	(NA)	[2]79.8	[3]9.1	(NA)	(NA)	[2]80.9	[3]11.9
Hong Kong.....	1976	94.8	86.3	39.2	3.5	95.2	90.6	44.7	5.5
South Korea.....	1980	[1]84.1	96.2	54.7	5.7	[1]84.8	97.5	63.6	12.2
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA									
Indonesia.....	1976	51.4	64	17.5	2.8	52.0	72.5	28.3	7.4
Malaysia.....	1970	[4]61.0	(N	(NA)	(NA)	[4]71.0	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Philippines.....	1970	[1]48.3	78.6	39.1	13.5	[1]45.7	77.2	40.2	15.1
Thailand.....	1970	[1]64.8	47.3	9.9	2.5	[1]65.8	55.8	15.2	3.7

[*] See footnotes at end of table.

Table 3.3. Percent of Population Enrolled in School, by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries—Continued

Residence, region, and country	Year	Female				Male			
		5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	20 to 24 years
Rural									
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA									
Bangladesh.....	1974	14.4	23.6	4.8	0.5	21.1	39.2	27.6	13.0
India.....	1981	25.8	29.2	(NA)	(NA)	39.6	57.8	(NA)	(NA)
Nepal.....	1971	[1]3.5	6.5	2.4	0.4	[1]13.2	31.1	20.3	6.2
Pakistan.....	1973	5.8	9.5	2.7	1.6	18.6	38.8	18.4	5.3
Sri Lanka.....	1981	83.4	81.0	40.5	6.9	83.9	81.9	38.9	6.7
EAST ASIA									
South Korea.....	1980	[1]84.6	[2]95.8	55.2	1.8	[1]85.3	97.0	61.4	4.7
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA									
Indonesia.....	1976	49.2	61.7	13.0	1.2	50.1	69.3	22.1	4.4
Malaysia.....	1970	[4]57.5	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	[4]68.0	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Philippines.....	1970	[1]45.5	75.5	32.6	9.2	[1]42.7	73.2	32.4	8.9
Urban									
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA									
Bangladesh.....	1974	29.3	46.5	27.2	7.0	33.7	54.5	40.7	21.7
India.....	1981	55.6	65.5	(NA)	(NA)	61.6	77.0	(NA)	(NA)
Nepal.....	1971	[1]36.4	56.0	38.5	12.6	[1]47.9	72.6	54.4	27.2
Pakistan.....	1973	28.4	45.5	23.7	7.6	36.8	63.2	39.1	16.0
Sri Lanka.....	1981	86.5	84.3	46.6	6.8	86.2	85.6	43.2	6.0
EAST ASIA									
South Korea.....	1980	[1]83.8	96.5	54.4	7.5	[1]84.3	98.0	65.1	17.3
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA									
Indonesia.....	1976	62.3	78.2	33.7	8.2	60.9	86.6	50.7	17.0
Malaysia.....	1970	[4]70.3	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	[4]79.0	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Philippines.....	1970	[1]55.3	85.7	49.7	20.4	[1]53.2	86.9	56.5	24.4

[1]Refers to age 6 to 9 years
[2]Refers to age 12 to 17 years.
[3]Refers to age 18 to 24 years.
[4]Refers to age 7 to 19 years.

Table 3.4. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Enrolled in School, by Age, for Asian Countries

(Male=1.00)

Region and country	Year	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	20 to 24 years
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	0.70	0.64	0.24	0.08
India	1981	0.73	0.60	(NA)	(NA)
Nepal	1971	0.33	0.26	0.18	0.12
Pakistan	1973	0.51	0.45	0.38	0.38
Sri Lanka	1981	1.00	0.99	1.05	1.06
EAST ASIA					
China					
Taiwan	1980	(NA)	(NA)	[1]0.99	[2]0.76
Hong Kong	1976	1.00	0.95	0.88	0.64
South Korea	1980	[3]0.99	0.99	0.86	0.47
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	0.99	0.90	0.62	0.38
Malaysia	1970	[4]0.86	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Philippines	1970	[3]1.06	1.02	0.97	0.89
Thailand	1970	[3]0.98	0.85	0.65	0.68

[1]Refers to age 12 to 17 years.
[2]Refers to age 18 to 24 years.
[3]Refers to age 6 to 9 years.
[4]Refers to age 7 to 19 years.

Table 3.5. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Enrolled in School, by Age and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

(Male=1.00)

Residence, region, and country	Year	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	20 to 24 years
Rural					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	0.68	0.60	0.17	0.04
India	1981	0.65	0.51	(NA)	(NA)
Nepal	1971	0.27	0.21	0.12	0.06
Pakistan	1973	0.31	0.24	0.15	0.30
Sri Lanka	1981	0.99	0.99	1.04	1.03
EAST ASIA					
South Korea	1980	[1]0.99	0.90	0.99	0.38
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	0.98	0.89	0.59	0.27
Malaysia	1970	[2]0.85	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Philippines	1970	[1]1.07	1.03	1.01	1.03
Urban					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	0.87	0.85	0.67	0.32
India	1981	0.90	0.85	(NA)	(NA)
Nepal	1971	0.76	0.77	0.71	0.46
Pakistan	1973	0.77	0.72	0.61	0.48
Sri Lanka	1981	1.00	0.98	1.08	1.13
EAST ASIA					
South Korea	1980	[1]0.99	0.98	0.84	0.43
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	1.02	0.90	0.66	0.48
Malaysia	1970	[2]0.89	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Philippines	1970	[1]1.04	0.99	0.88	0.84

[1]Refers to age 6 to 9 years.
[2]Refers to age 7 to 19 years.

Table 3.6. Percent of Population Enrolled in School, by Age and Sex, for Pacific Islands

Region and country	Year	Female			Male		
		5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years
POLYNESIA							
American Samoa	1974	79.2	95.0	60.1	79.1	95.1	69.0
Niue	1976	92.6	96.6	31.4	94.4	94.2	23.5
Tonga	1976	83.5	94.7	64.4	81.8	94.5	63.0
Tuvalu	1979	80.6	91.5	12.0	84.1	87.8	8.7
Western Samoa	1976	81.8	96.1	58.7	82.1	93.0	49.6
MELANESIA							
Fiji	1976	79.2	90.0	37.3	79.2	89.6	37.9
Papua New Guinea	1976	[1]30.4	[2]22.0	(NA)	[1]45.1	[2]40.7	(NA)
Solomon Islands	1976	26.1	49.2	[3]18.0	32.4	70.0	[3]37.6
Vanuatu	1978	[4]65.5	69.2	25.4	[4]69.8	77.3	36.3
MICRONESIA							
Kiribati	1978	76.2	92.7	25.3	76.4	91.3	27.2

[1]Refers to age 6 to 11 years.
[2]Refers to age 12 to 17 years.
[3]Refers to age 15 to 18 years.
[4]Refers to age 6 to 9 years.

Sources: South Pacific Commission, 1978, table 8; national census reports.

Chapter 4

Women in Economic Activity

ASIA

In the developed world, employment outside the home and access to an independent income have been among the central factors in the changing role of women. While many women in developing countries engage in activities beyond housekeeping, such participation occurs largely in the agricultural and informal sectors of activity. Furthermore, much of women's labor is rendered in the form of unpaid family help, often on the family farm. Thus, work participation is often neither an emancipating experience nor a socially valued role. In some countries, particularly on the Indian subcontinent, such participation may in fact have a status-reducing rather than a status-enhancing connotation. Yet, the ability to earn an income can be a potentially significant factor in promoting a woman's access to other resources which may improve her overall status. It is for this reason that adequate measurement of women's economic activity as well as promotion of such activity is necessary.

Problems in Measurement of Female Work

Measurement of women's work continues to pose thorny problems for data collectors and researchers as well as for policymakers. There is general agreement that the traditional procedures of censuses and surveys produce an underestimate of female participation in the labor force in most countries, particularly the developing ones. It has been shown that there are definite gender biases in reporting of economic activity in censuses and surveys, resulting in underreporting of female activity (United Nations, 1980). In a more specific context, Moir (1980) has pointed out several problems of measurement for Indonesian women.

Different data sources within the same country may sometimes yield substantially different estimates of female economic activity, as illustrated by two examples from India and Pakistan. The 1977-78 National Sample Survey (NSS) of India reported crude participation rates for women that were more than one and one-half times as high as rates reported by the 1981 census, for both rural and urban areas, as shown below.

Area and sex	Participation rates from—	
	NSS 1977-78	Census 1981
Rural		
Females	24.7	16.0
Males	53.7	52.6
Urban		
Females	12.2	7.3
Males	49.5	48.5

Similarly, a comparison of different data sources from Pakistan shows that participation rates are reported to be almost twice as high (and are probably more accurate) in household surveys where a woman herself reports on her economic activity as in the censuses or labor force surveys where men usually report on women's activity (Shah and Shah, 1980).

There seems to be some evidence that in data sources where female participation rates are reported to be higher, the following factors may contribute to better reporting: first, in surveys where a working woman herself is the respondent, her economic activity is likely to be reported more accurately; second, such surveys usually ask more comprehensive questions; and third, the general quality of such surveys, in terms of interviewer training and field supervision, and so forth, is usually better than that of decennial censuses.

A comparison of data from the World Fertility Survey (WFS) and from censuses included in the present report illustrates this point:

Country	Women's participation rate from—		
	WFS, age 15-49	Census, age 30-39	Census, age 10 and over
Middle South Asia			
Bangladesh	12.2	3.0	4.0
Nepal	66.9	51.2	35.1
Pakistan	17.1	8.5	9.1
Sri Lanka	36.5	27.8	18.0
East Asia			
South Korea	49.1	46.6	45.7
Southeast Asia			
Indonesia	65.5	46.5	36.8
Malaysia	46.2	40.8	31.7
Philippines	44.3	39.3	33.0
Thailand	82.2	79.6	64.3

Sources: WFS data from Curtin, 1982, table 4 (refer to ever-married women only); census data from tables 5.1 and 5.2, this report.

The census age group (30 to 39 years) used for the preceding comparison usually displays the highest age-specific female participation rates. Despite this, the WFS recorded higher participation for each country; differences were particularly large for Middle South Asia and for Indonesia. The WFS question was addressed to the working woman herself, and gave her examples of the type of activities (for example, selling things or having a small business) which could be considered as economic activity. Furthermore, the WFS is thought to have had better quality control than most censuses do and thus better coverage of women's economic activity.

Even if all the logistic and technical measurement problems could be eliminated, other serious substantive and conceptual problems could still lead to underreporting of women's work. For example, many women who are employed as unpaid family helpers may not recognize their contribution to the family farm or family business as work which is beyond housework. Similarly, when the household head (usually a man, particularly in Middle South Asia) responds to questions on economic activity, he may consciously or unconsciously underreport such activity by the female members of his household. Underreporting is more likely to occur when the society in question considers female work as undesirable, as activity that reduces the family's social standing or prestige.

In response to these measurement problems, some researchers have made an attempt to measure female economic activity by actually observing the tasks to which various members of the household allocate their time during a day. Such research has been done in Pakistan (Khan and Bilquees, 1976; Saeed, 1966), India (Jain and Chand, 1982), Bangladesh (Cain et al., 1979), Indonesia (White, 1976), and Nepal (Acharya, 1981; Pradhan, 1981).

The available village studies show that the average number of hours per day that rural women spend in economic endeavors can vary widely—from 14.5 hours in Pakistan to 11.2 hours in Indonesia, 10 hours in Nepal, and 8.3 hours in Bangladesh. It is difficult to tell whether these differences in numbers of hours worked result from variations in measurement or represent real differences. What is important to note is that rural women in these countries spend a sizable portion of their day on income-generating activities. In Indonesia, for example, 58 percent of women's time is spent on income-generating activities, most of which are not likely to be included in labor force activity as measured by the usual census or labor force concepts.

A comparison of participation rates obtained from observation of actual activities and as reported in response to household surveys in India reveals that the former method results in substantially higher participation rates than the latter (Jain and Chand, 1982). In the Indian state of Rajasthan, for example, the work participation rate of women recorded for sampled villages through the observation method is 80 percent compared to only 15 percent recorded in the 1971 Census of India.

The debate over what should constitute labor force activity is not yet over. Some advocates of women's rights believe that activities such as cooking and child care are productive activities and should be included in national accounts. Others call only for more adequate coverage of income-generating activities such as trading, piecework in handicrafts, part-time work, and home production.

It is clear that there are many difficulties in accurately measuring female labor force participation, and several attempts are currently being made to remedy the situation. The International Labour Organization has developed a model questionnaire designed to ensure more accurate measurement of female work (Anker, 1981). The Food and Agriculture Organization also is making an attempt to measure more realistically the activities of rural women.

The remainder of this chapter presents an analysis of labor force participation data for Asia and the Pacific as reported in national censuses and surveys, as these are the only comprehensive data available. Data on occupational distributions in Asia also are presented and discussed here. The reader should keep in mind the problems in measurement of female work while considering the quantitative data provided by the censuses and surveys.

Participation Rates

Women's labor force participation rates are much lower in Middle South Asia (except Nepal) than in East and Southeast Asia. Within Middle South Asia, Bangladesh has only 4 percent of its women in the labor force compared to 9 percent and 14 percent in Pakistan and India, respectively, while the rate for Nepal was a much higher 35 percent (table 4.1). In East Asian countries other than Mainland China, nearly one-half of all women are in the labor force, while roughly one-third of Southeast Asian women are so engaged. Mainland China and Thailand represent

major exceptions, with female participation rates of 76 and 64 percent, respectively. In an analysis which examined the validity of the Thai participation rate (Chitranukron-Vattangchit, 1977), the author concluded that the high rate is valid and not a result of statistical factors. Major reasons for the high Thai rate were said to be the demand for female workers in manufacturing, commerce, and services, and Buddhist tenets which require universal work in order to gain material reward. Also, the loosely structured Thai social system and the predominant practice of matrilocality/matrilineality, in which a wife holds a strong influence over her husband, were found to be important factors in high female participation.

There are large female/male differences in participation rates, particularly in Middle South Asia. Figure 4.1, which includes persons 10 years of age and over, shows that throughout Middle South Asia, significantly larger percentages of males than females are in the labor force. The gender differences persist in most countries even after age is taken into account (see table 4.2). In Bangladesh, for example, only 3 percent of women age 25 to 34 years are said to be economically active, compared with 97 percent of men in the same age group. Female/male differences are, however, not as pronounced in many other countries. Participation rates in Thailand are 80 percent among women and 98 percent among men age 30 to 39 years; the corresponding figures for Nepal are 51 percent and 97 percent. The picture that emerges from this analysis is that although gender differences in participation exist in all countries and participation rates are consistently higher among men than women, the degree of such difference varies substantially across countries. It is most conspicuous in countries of the Indian subcontinent.

Rural women are reported to have higher participation rates than urban women in all countries except Bangladesh and the Philippines (figure 4.2). Generally, part-time employment and unpaid family work are more widely available in rural than urban areas, which probably accounts for the higher participation among rural women. Rural Thai women again have the highest rates and rural Bangladeshi women the lowest. The low participation rate of Bangladeshi women is very largely a function of measurement problems, as indicated by village research in that country. Cain (1979) showed that adult married men and women worked roughly the same number of hours per day – 8.33 and 8.29, respectively. A majority (80 percent) of the working time of women was, however, spent on home production such as rice processing and firewood collection, or on housework, food preparation, and child care. Only one-fifth of women's time was spent on income-generating activities compared to 85 percent of men's time. The percentage of time spent on income-generating activities (e.g., wage work and handicrafts) by the relatively poorer women was 30 percent compared to only 12 percent for the relatively wealthier women.

Rural Nepalese women have an exceptionally high work participation rate among Middle South Asian countries. A series of studies from different parts of Nepal indicates that in some villages, women age 15 years and over perform more hours of work than men, 10 hours per day compared with 7 hours, although about 60 percent of women's work time is spent in activities that are not income generating (Acharya, 1981). A separate study of another Nepalese village determined an even greater difference in number of hours worked by women and men: 12.5 and 8.2 hours per day, respectively (Bennett, 1981). Of course, higher work participation in a context such as rural Nepal does not necessarily imply a higher status of women, because the poorer, landless women are the ones who are more likely to be engaged in wage labor as a result more of necessity than of choice.

The Philippines is perhaps the only Asian country, besides Bangladesh, in which the female participation rate is higher in urban than rural areas. However, data are not available for 5 of the 14 Asian countries being analyzed. In the Philippines, a high level of female migration to the cities (Castillo, 1976) interacts with declining urban fertility to produce increased participation rates. According to Rojas-Aleta et al. (1977), there were more single working women than married women in Filipino cities in the mid-1970's. While recent empirical evidence is lacking, it seems likely that the higher proportion of single women in urban as compared to rural areas continues to increase beyond that documented by the 1970 census.

Female/male inequalities in participation are smaller in rural than in urban areas in all countries except Bangladesh, Pakistan, and the Philippines, as reflected by ratios of economic activity rates in figure 4.3. Relative differences are most pronounced in Middle South Asia and East Asia, while absolute differences between female and male participation rates are greatest in Bangladesh and least in Thailand, for both rural and urban areas.

Participation by Age of Women and Men

Tables 4.2 through 4.4 present data on economic activity by age and sex. Participation rates are generally lower for persons under age 20 years and for persons age 50 years and over than for those age 20 to 49 years. This curvilinear pattern, graphically displayed in figure 4.4 for three selected countries, applies universally to male rates covered in this report. The pattern likewise holds for most female rates, except in the Middle South Asian countries of Nepal, Pakistan, and Bangladesh. Even in Thailand, where the overall activity rate is high, there are pronounced differences by age. Nearly 80 percent of women between ages 20 and 40 years are working, compared to under 50 percent in the younger and older population segments. However, as figure 4.4 shows, the pattern varies considerably from one country to another. Ideological norms within Mainland China produce strikingly high female activity rates, at least prior to age 50 years. In contrast, India's rates are relatively low, and the pattern is noticeably flattened. South Korean rates reveal a characteristic usually associated with more developed countries, namely, a sizable decline in labor force participation during the prime childbearing years, followed by a return to the work force after age 30.

Nepalese women age 10 to 19 years have equal or higher levels of participation than do all older age groups, while the opposite is true for men. This pattern among younger women is consistent with the very low proportion of Nepalese women enrolled in school, as discussed earlier. Almost nine-tenths of

all economically active Nepalese women are engaged in agricultural activities, which may simply add to the burden of their lives.

Bangladesh and Pakistan also have higher proportions of active women in the younger age groups, but unlike Nepal, the overall levels are very low at all ages. Whereas the low Sri Lankan activity rate for age 10 to 19 years can be explained by reference to high school enrollment rates (table 3.3), the same is not true for Bangladesh and Pakistan. As discussed earlier, such low reported rates are surely influenced by the definition of economic activity and/or census methods of measurement relative to other countries in this study.

The age patterns of labor force participation in rural areas are similar to those for the total country, with women age 30 to 49 years usually having the highest rates (table 4.2). Among women 20 to 29 years of age, rural/urban rate differentials (figure 4.5) are markedly similar to those displayed in figure 4.2 for women of all ages. In urban areas, the curvilinear age pattern of work participation is generally seen in all countries except Pakistan and South Korea. Over two-fifths of urban South Korean women age 10 to 19 years were in the labor force, compared with only 36 percent of those age 20 to 29 years and roughly 27 percent of those age 30 to 49 years. Since this pattern is not true of rural areas, it seems that the noticeable dip in the participation rate in figure 4.4 is primarily an urban phenomenon. Work participation has apparently become a more attractive and acceptable behavior among young, educated South Korean women, significantly postponing their desire for children.

Table 4.3 shows the female share of the labor force by age and residence, indicating that the percentage of women in the urban labor force is consistently highest among the youngest age group for each of the nine countries for which data are available. In fact, young female workers outnumber their male counterparts in the cities of South Korea, Thailand, and the Philippines. A similar pattern is true for rural areas as well, where the female share of the labor force is much higher among younger than older ages.

Generally speaking, then, the female share decreases with age in both urban and rural areas, reflecting the increase in levels of female economic activity among more recent cohorts that has been observed in time series data for several countries. While this narrowing of sex differentials over time is some cause for optimism, one should be careful not to equate higher female labor force shares at younger ages with decisive trends in total female participation. As noted earlier, changes in patterns of work before marriage have contributed to higher levels of participation among younger women. Since the norms of parenthood are still pervasive throughout Asia, many young women will eventually leave the labor force. Whether or not they return later, as they do in South Korea, is not yet certain in many societies. Also, as female education becomes more valued, we may witness a decrease in labor force participation at early ages.

An analysis of participation rates controlling simultaneously for age and marital status for selected Asian countries conducted by Shah and Smith (1981) indicated that, in urban areas, married women had consistently lower participation rates than either single women or widowed, divorced, and separated women (see table 4.5). This was true for each of the age groups studied. Thus, even though a larger proportion of younger single women may enter the labor force, many probably do withdraw once they get married. For example, 78 percent of single Thai women age 25 to 44 years were in the labor force, compared to only 45 percent of married women; the rates for widowed and divorced women were much higher—75 percent and 72 percent, respectively.

What is the meaning of higher activity rates among younger women? Does higher participation indicate an improvement in socioeconomic status? The answer depends on both the nature of the jobs that these younger women are engaged in and their motivations for taking such jobs. If most younger women are pushed into the labor force by economic necessity, and if they are engaged in tedious, low-paying jobs, one cannot easily reach the conclusion that such participation leads to an improvement in their status.

Some indication of the nature of work participation is provided by the proportion of active women who are unpaid family workers (table 4.6). The proportion of women in this category varies from 2 percent in Hong Kong to 67 percent in Thailand. The reliability of these data is, however, particularly suspect for countries such as India, where the employment status of four-fifths of all working women was classified as unknown in the 1971 census. The large proportion of unpaid family workers in Thailand—the country which has the highest work participation rate—suggests that the activity of most Thai women is a response more to the social and economic situation of their families than to a desire for earning an independent wage for themselves, as perhaps is the case among urban South Korean women. The proportion of men employed as unpaid family workers is consistently smaller than the proportion of women so employed in each country. Usually, the proportion for women is 2 to 3 times higher than for men. While the majority of unpaid family workers undoubtedly work on rural family farms, unpaid activity also takes place in urban areas.

Data on occupational distribution of the labor force are shown in figure 4.6 and tables 4.7 to 4.9. Agricultural activity remains paramount for a large majority of women in Asia. The concentration of women in agricultural activity is as high as 93 percent in Nepal, but only 38 percent in South Korea. Hong Kong, a predominantly urban country, represents an obvious exception to the typical pattern, with only 1 percent of working women involved in agricultural pursuits. In a majority of countries, a larger proportion of the female than male labor force is engaged in agricultural activity (figure 4.7). Bangladesh, Indonesia, and the Philippines are exceptions to this pattern, the latter difference being the most pronounced. Only 28 percent of Filipino women are in agricultural activity, compared with 57 percent of Filipino men. Much larger proportions of employed Filipino women than men are engaged in professional, administrative, and clerical work, as well as in sales and services.

In five of the ten countries for which data are available, only 3 to 4 percent of the economically active women are engaged in professional, administrative, and clerical jobs, which are likely to be ranked relatively higher on a prestige scale, provide a monetary wage, and accord some degree of nonmaterial

satisfaction to the workers (table 4.7). The proportion of women in such jobs is highest in Hong Kong (27 percent), followed by the Philippines. A substantial proportion of active women are engaged in the production sector in some countries, varying from only 3 percent in Nepal to 48 percent in Hong Kong. The proportion of men in production is, however, almost invariably higher than that of women. Finally, the proportion of women exceeds the proportion of men in service occupations in about half the countries.

Table 4.8 presents data on the female share in particular occupations. Women constitute a substantial proportion (roughly 60 percent) of sales workers in the Philippines and Thailand. Similar percentages were found among service workers in South Korea and the Philippines. A concentration of women in sales and service occupations may imply that they are structurally segregated into such jobs. Smith and Crockett (1980), in an analysis of occupational segregation in Thailand, concluded that urban Thai women were relegated to a few occupations such as sales, service, spinning, and weaving. They found occupational sex segregation to be severe among young single women, particularly among those who were recent migrants to the city. An overwhelming proportion of the young single migrants were employed as cooks and maids.

Many questions remain unaddressed in this analysis. An obvious shortcoming involves the lack of a longitudinal perspective on labor force changes; more definitive comments on levels and directions of change await the release of detailed census and survey data from the 1980's. An examination of work participation in conjunction with migration status and family headship also could prove extremely useful but is likewise restricted by the lack of data, particularly in a cross-cultural context.

More attention might be accorded the attitudinal constraints on and facilitators of female work participation; empirical data along these lines would be greatly welcome. Labor force participation in locations outside the home may not be a desirable or approved activity in some countries. In fact, some societies consider such work as contrary to appropriate roles for women. For instance, an active debate is currently taking place in Pakistan on whether women should be allowed to work outside the house in the same location as men. Furthermore, consideration of certain cultural institutions such as purdah (veiling) on the subcontinent can be useful in understanding the relatively low levels of female economic activity. Women who observe purdah are much less likely to be found in the labor force in Pakistan than women who do not observe this custom (Shah and Bulatao, 1981).

Of additional interest are legal constraints on female labor force participation, which can be important even in countries which have ostensibly made great strides toward ending structural discrimination. An in-depth examination of female status in Sri Lanka discovered that while both the 1972 and 1978 Constitutions accepted the principle of legal equality among the sexes, subtle provisos within these documents permitted the imposition of discriminatory regulations and quotas regarding the access of women to important segments of the public service. While such quotas are now said to be inoperative, the study suggests that the gap between policy and regulation is not easily ...dged (University of Colombo, 1979).

PACIFIC ISLANDS

Data on economic activity by sex are available for 15 of the 18 Pacific nations considered in this report, although 2 of the 15 do not have recent age-specific information. The comparability of participation rates among islands is somewhat hampered by occasionally differing concepts of economic activity and/or the availability of precise census definitions. Some countries distinguish between subsistence and wage employment, while others do not, and the resulting differences can be large. For instance, the female activity rate in the cash economy of Kiribati is under 9 percent. However, if the rather nebulous census categories of "village life" and "home duties" are considered to represent economic activity, the female rate rises to 88 percent, higher than the male rate when the same categories are included (UNESCAP, 1982a). Activity rates in this chapter were usually calculated from primary census reports or tabulations. In cases where the components of the economically active population were not clearly defined or identified, rates were generated on the basis of persons in the cash economy if such a distinction was available. For example, tabular data for Niue refer to money-earning Niueans only. Such cases are footnoted in each data table. Fortunately, the basic similarity among total participation rates in table 4.10 suggests that the majority of countries share an analogous labor force concept.

For the most part, female participation rates in the Pacific are not unlike those in Southeast Asian countries. Figures for Tuvalu, Solomon Islands, Niue, and Kiribati are artificially low because of their cash-economy-only referent, while rates for Tonga, Western Samoa, and Fiji appear genuinely low, each below 18 percent. Female rates among other island nations range from 33 percent in American Samoa to an exceptionally high 78 percent in Vanuatu.

Differences in participation rates by sex vary widely across countries, with female/male ratios ranging from 0.19 in Tonga to 0.87 in Vanuatu. Of note in table 4.10 are those countries for which data refer to the cash economy only; male rates outpace female rates by factors of two and one-half to nearly five.

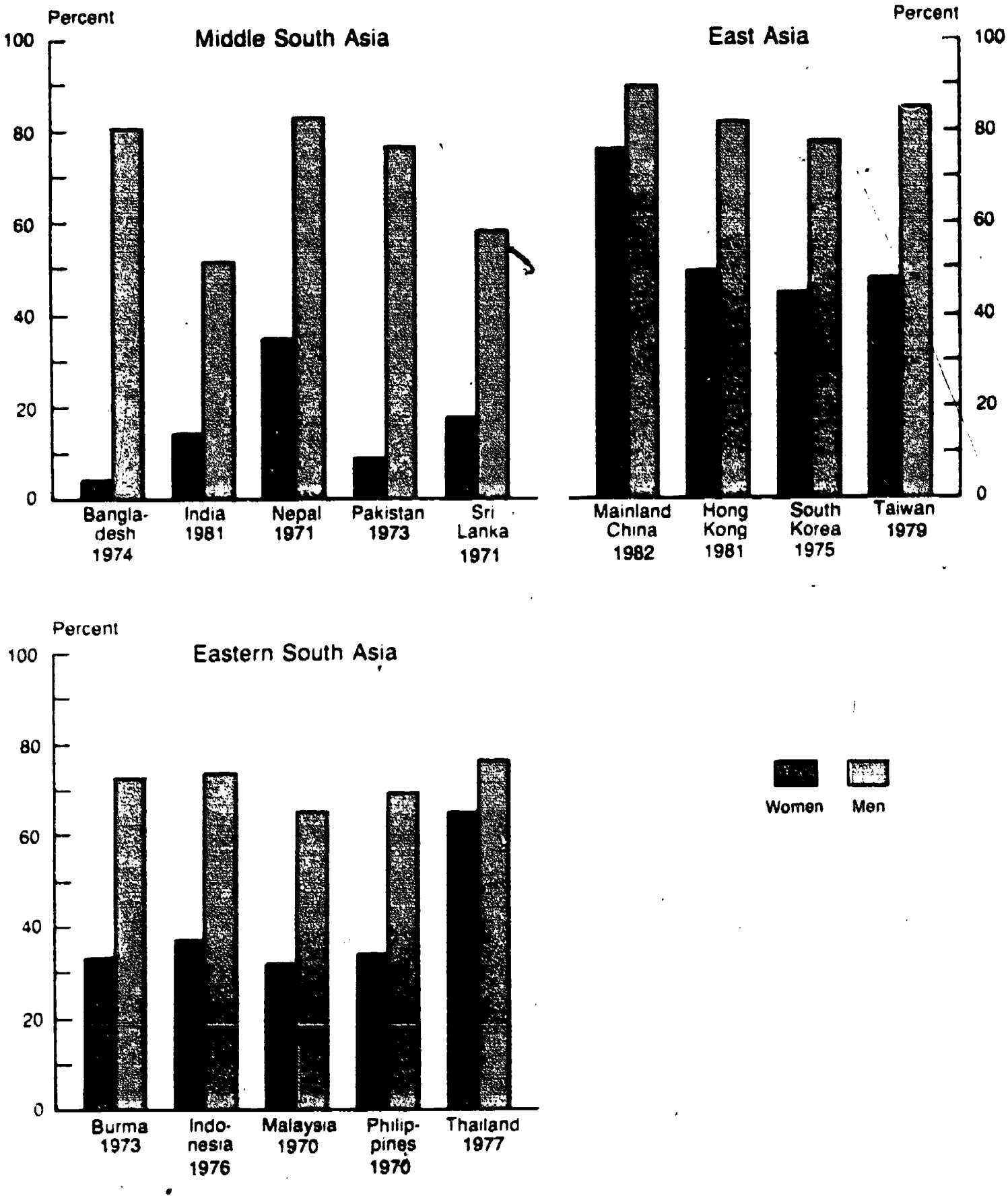
Data on age-specific activity rates reveal a pattern of female economic activity akin to that of Asian countries. That is, participation rates are consistently higher among women age 20 to 49 years compared to both younger and older women (table 4.11). A similar pattern is present among men. The basic difference between the sexes remains the much higher participation rates of men than of women at most ages. The female/male ratio of participation by age (see table 4.12) demonstrates that, with only two exceptions, female participation is lower in all countries at each age. The youngest women (age 15 to 19 years) in American Samoa and Vanuatu have higher participation rates than men. Both these countries have fewer women than men in school at these ages, which is likely to result in a larger pool of available women who can enter the labor force.

Table 4.12 provides data on the female share of the labor force in given age groups. Women predominate only among American Samoans age 15 to 19 years. Regional differences can be seen in that peak female proportions on Polynesian islands occur primarily at age 20 to 29 years, while rates in Melanesia and Micronesia are highest among 15 to 19 year olds, and decline

steadily thereafter. Not surprisingly, Polynesian islands have higher percentages of female than male school enrollees age 15 to 19 years, while the opposite is true elsewhere.

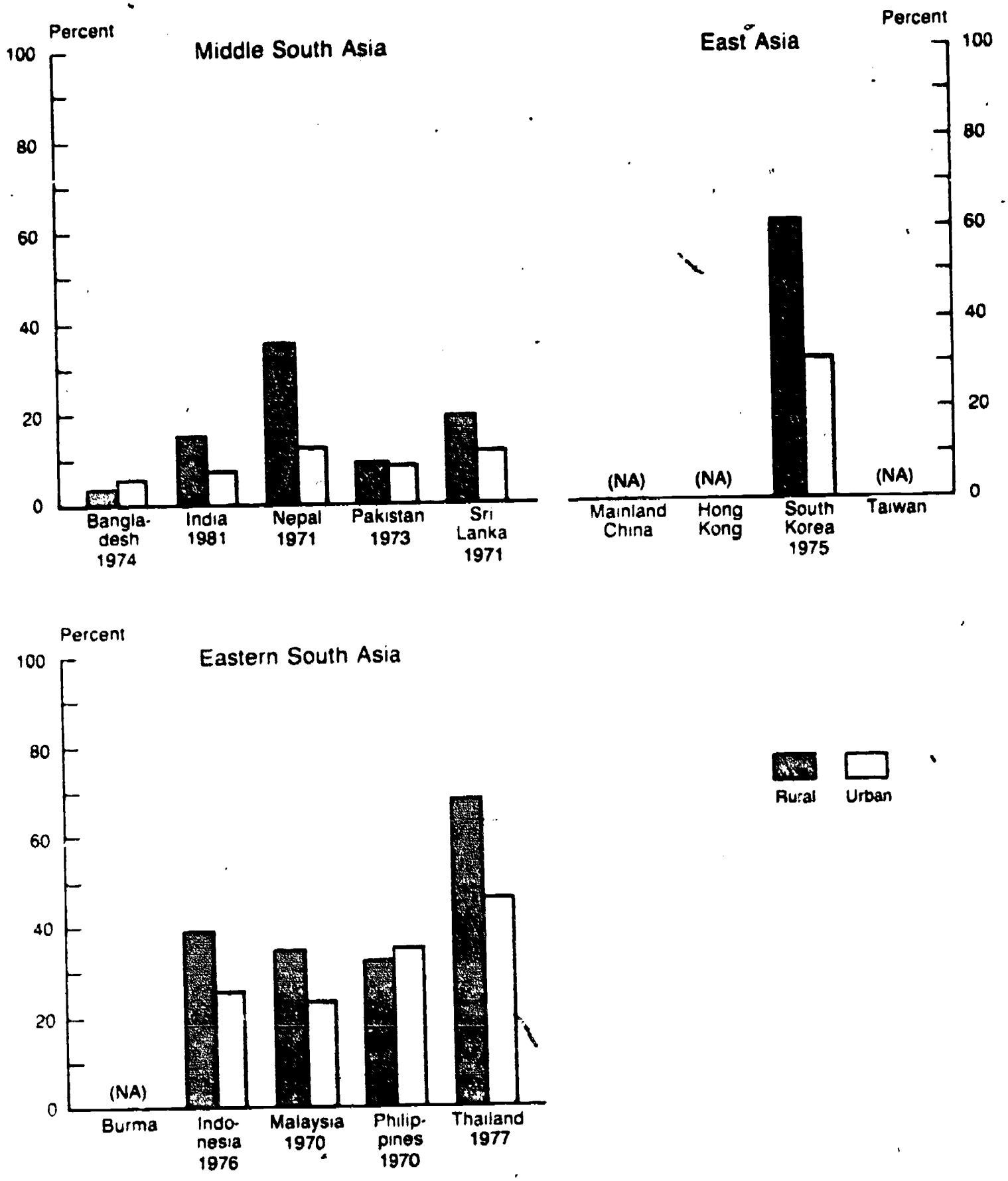
While substantial proportions of women in most Pacific countries are economically active, only limited information on occupational structures can be readily examined (table 4.13). Among the countries analyzed, women are employed primarily in nonagricultural activities, except in Vanuatu, Solomon Islands, and Wallis and Futuna. Because the latter has no urban population, the large concentration of workers of both sexes in agricultural activity is not unexpected. In most of the other countries, roughly one-third to one-half of all economically active women are employed in service activities. Contrary to the pattern for women, men tend to be much more concentrated in agricultural activities and universally less so in services, except in Vanuatu.

Figure 4.1. Labor Force Participation Rates for Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex



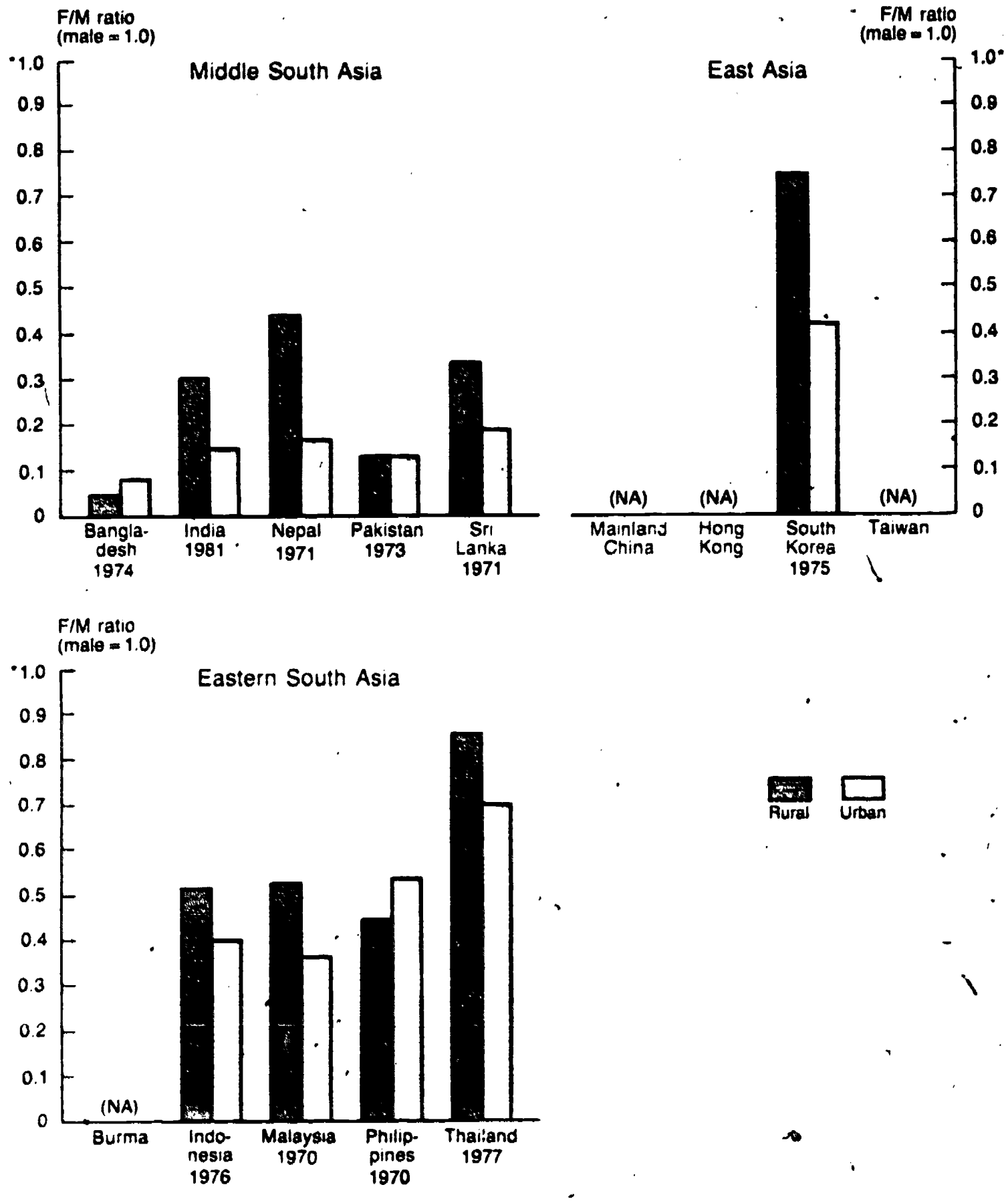
Note See footnotes to table 4.1 for nonstandard age groups

Figure 4.2. Labor Force Participation Rates for Women Age 10 Years and Over, by Rural/Urban Residence



Note See footnotes to table 4.1 for nonstandard age groups

Figure 4.3. Female/Male Ratio of Labor Force Participation Rates, by Rural/Urban Residence



*Female rate equals male rate.

Figure 4.4. Percent Economically Active, by Age and Sex, for Mainland China, India, and South Korea

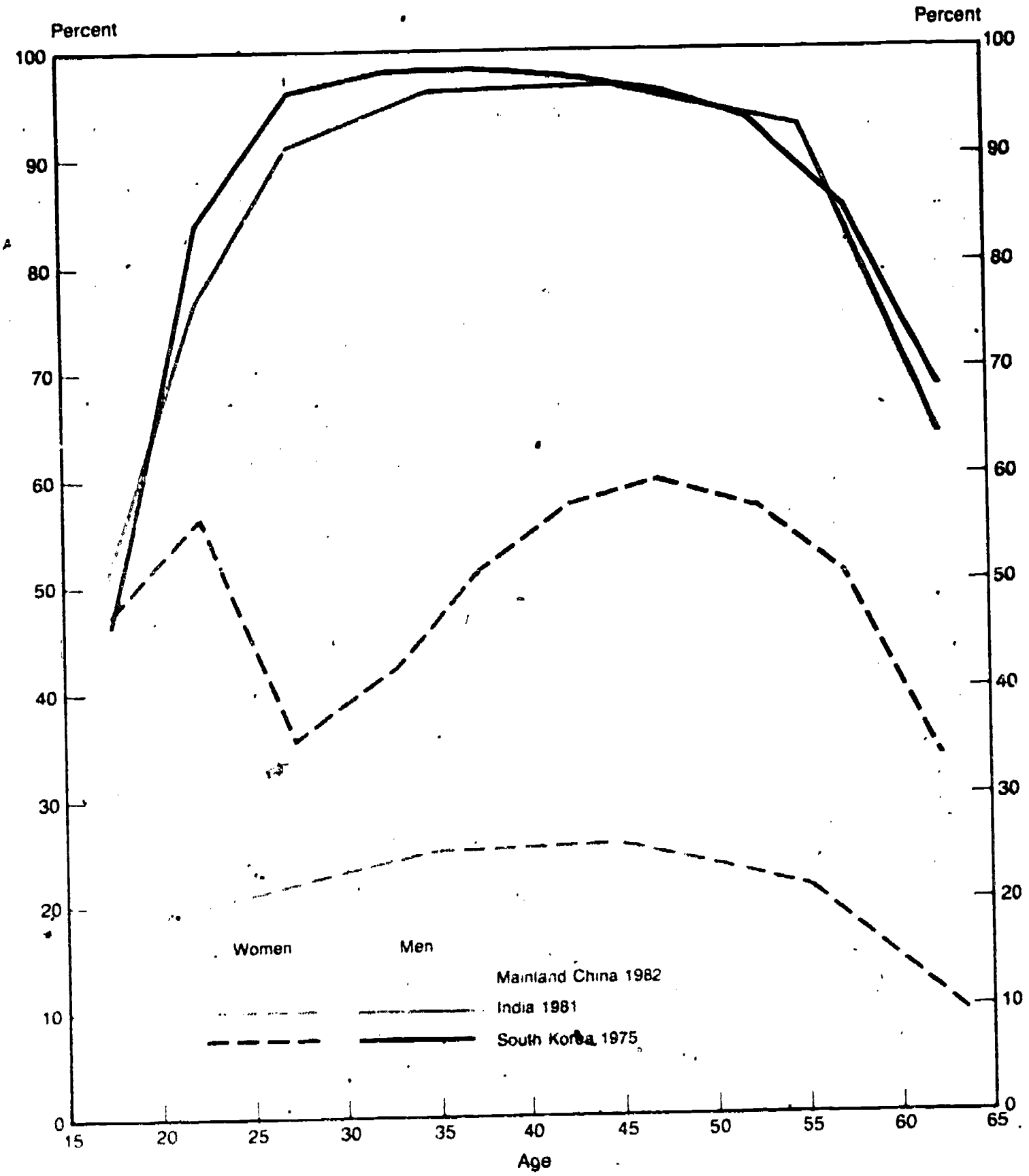
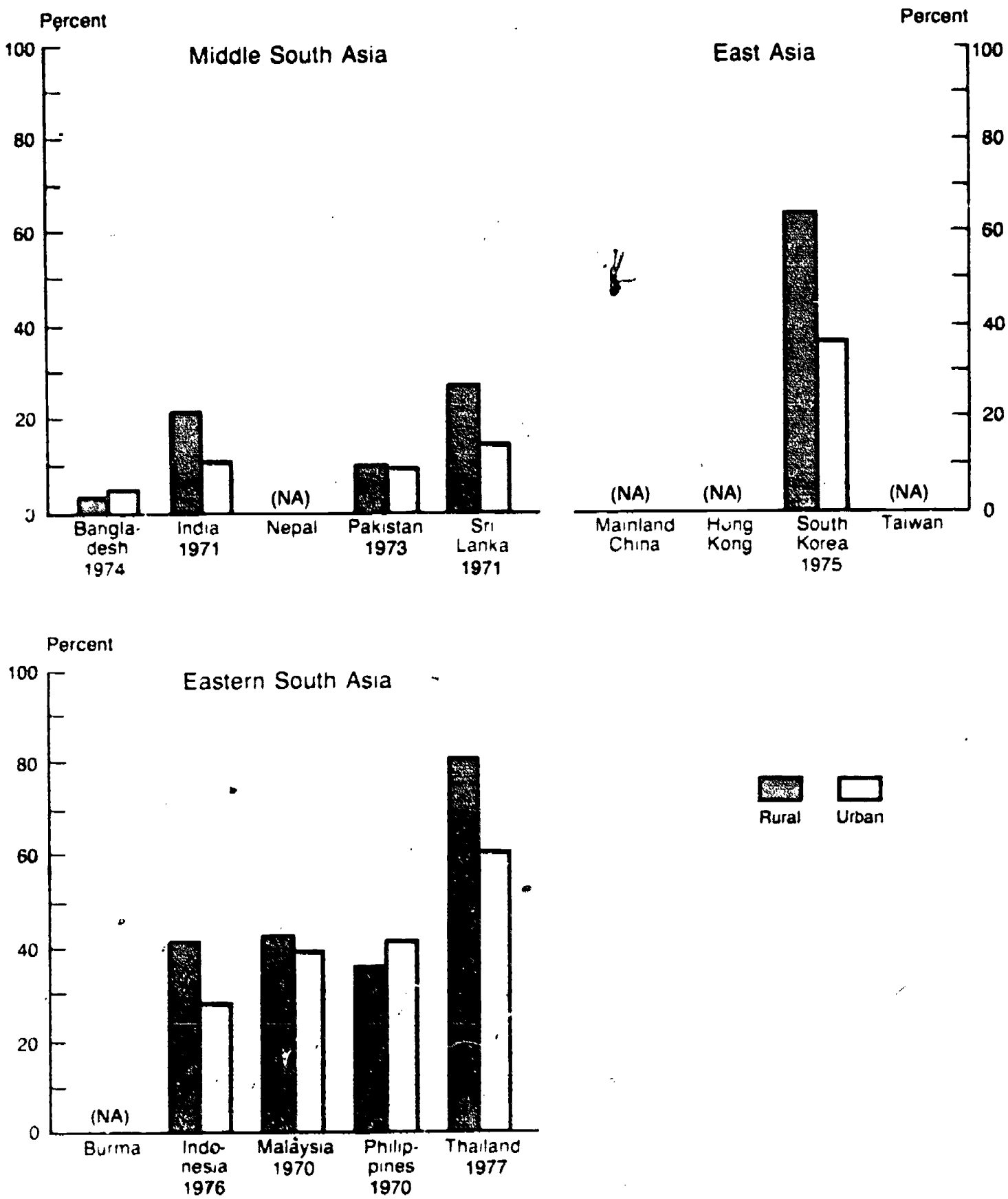
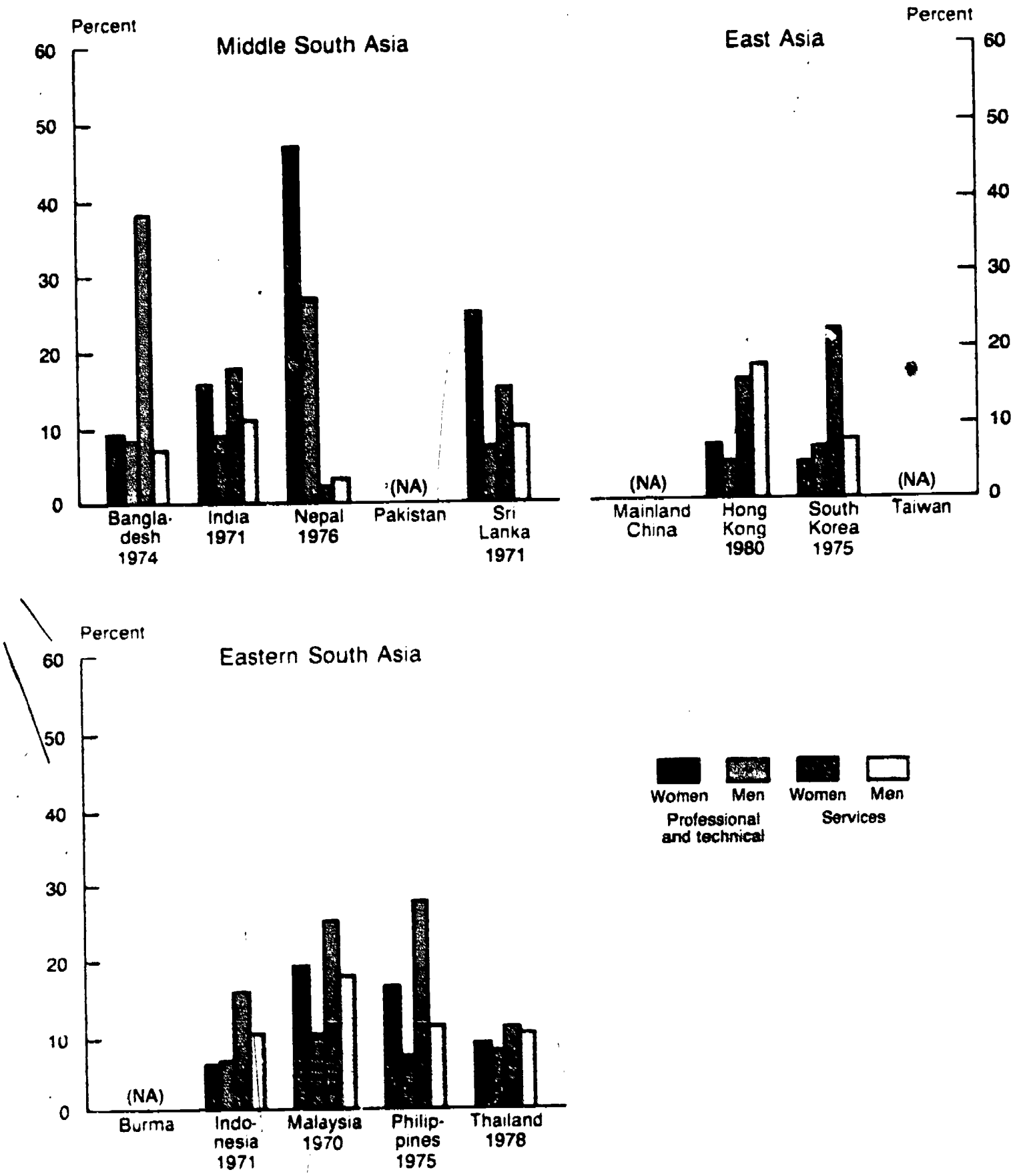


Figure 4.5. Labor Force Participation Rates of Women Age 20 to 29 Years in Rural and Urban Areas



Note: See footnotes to table 4.2 for nonstandard age groups

Figure 4.6. Percent of Nonagricultural Labor Force in Selected Occupational Groups, by Sex



Source International Labour Office, 1977 to 1982.

Figure 4.7. Percent of Labor Force in Agriculture, by Sex

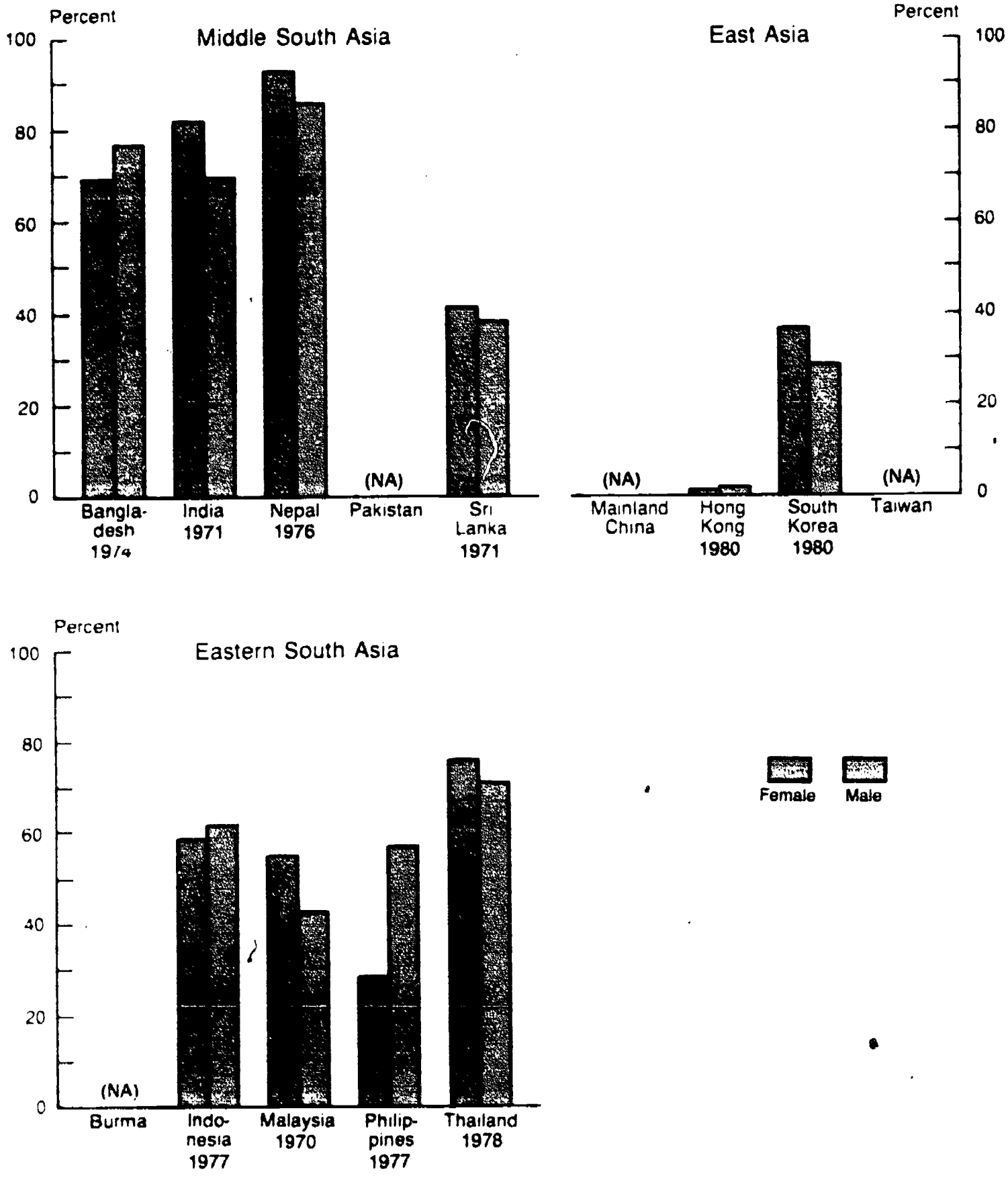


Table 4.1. Labor Force Participation Rates for Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

Residence, region, and country	Year	Total	Female	Male	F/M ratio (male=1.00)
Total country					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	44.3	4.0	80.3	0.05
India[1]	1981	52.1	21.0	80.7	0.26
Nepal	1971	59.3	35.1	82.9	0.42
Pakistan	1973	46.6	9.1	77.6	0.12
Sri Lanka	1971	39.0	18.0	58.7	0.31
EAST ASIA					
China					
Mainland[2]	1982	83.2	76.1	89.8	0.85
Taiwan	1979	67.1	47.7	84.7	0.56
Hong Kong[1]	1981	66.4	49.5	82.2	0.60
South Korea[3]	1975	61.2	45.7	77.8	0.59
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Burma	1973	52.2	32.6	72.7	0.45
Indonesia	1976	54.9	36.8	73.8	0.50
Malaysia	1970	48.5	31.7	65.3	0.49
Philippines	1970	50.9	33.0	69.5	0.47
Thailand[4]	1977	70.6	64.3	76.9	0.84

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 4.1. Labor Force Participation Rates for Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries—Continued

Residence, region, and country	Year	Total	Female	Male	F/M ratio (male=1.00)
Rural					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	44.2	3.8	81.1	0.05
India[5]	1981	34.8	16.0	52.6	0.30
Nepal	1971	60.1	36.0	83.7	0.43
Pakistan	1973	48.2	9.3	80.4	0.12
Sri Lanka	1971	39.9	19.9	59.1	0.34
EAST ASIA					
South Korea[3]	1975	70.9	61.1	81.2	0.75
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	57.5	39.5	76.3	0.52
Malaysia	1970	50.5	34.8	66.2	0.53
Philippines	1970	52.0	32.1	72.0	0.45
Thailand[4]	1977	73.4	67.7	78.9	0.86
Urban					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	45.8	5.8	73.7	0.08
India[5]	1981	29.2	7.3	48.5	0.15
Nepal	1971	42.3	12.3	66.9	0.18
Pakistan	1973	42.7	8.7	70.6	0.12
Sri Lanka	1971	35.9	11.1	57.2	0.19
EAST ASIA					
South Korea[3]	1975	51.6	30.9	74.4	0.42
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	43.8	25.1	63.2	0.40
Malaysia	1970	43.6	23.7	63.3	0.37
Philippines	1970	48.6	34.8	64.2	0.54
Thailand[4]	1977	56.1	46.4	65.9	0.70

[1]Refers to age 15 years and over.
[2]Refers to age 15 to 64 years.
[3]Refers to age 14 years and over.
[4]Refers to age 11 years and over.
[5]Refers to all ages.

Table 4.2. Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

Residence, region, and country	Year	Women					Men				
		10 to 19 years	20 to 29 years	30 to 39 years	40 to 49 years	50 years and over	10 to 19 years	20 to 29 years	30 to 39 years	40 to 49 years	50 years and over
Total country											
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA											
Bangladesh.....	1974	5.6	[1]3.1	[2]2.8	[3]3.3	[4]3.7	51.9	[1]84.0	[2]96.9	[3]98.9	[4]94.2
India.....	1981	[5]18.5	[6]21.4	25.3	26.0	[7]21.6	[5]51.2	[6]84.0	96.2	96.8	[7]92.4
Nepal.....	1976	55.1	55.1	51.2	50.1	33.3	61.7	94.0	97.2	97.3	77.0
Pakistan.....	1973	9.7	9.7	8.5	8.2	8.7	51.0	90.9	96.6	96.5	82.0
Sri Lanka.....	1971	8.1	24.6	27.8	26.6	11.6	15.8	71.2	91.4	92.4	65.5
EAST ASIA											
China											
Mainland.....	1982	[5]77.8	89.5	88.6	77.0	35.5	[5]70.5	97.5	98.8	98.1	81.4
Taiwan.....	1979	[5]43.9	58.7	49.9	50.5	30.0	[5]47.1	93.5	99.0	98.8	81.6
Hong Kong.....	1981	[5]42.1	71.5	51.5	51.7	29.6	[5]44.4	94.2	98.5	97.9	70.2
South Korea.....	1975	[8]43.0	47.1	46.6	58.7	36.6	[8]41.0	90.5	98.5	97.5	72.1
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA											
Indonesia.....	1976	21.8	38.8	46.5	51.6	37.5	35.5	91.7	98.8	97.6	81.8
Malaysia.....	1970	20.3	41.4	40.8	41.9	27.0	28.3	89.7	93.8	92.0	68.8
Philippines.....	1970	[9]24.6	37.7	39.3	41.5	30.1	[9]37.7	82.8	90.7	90.4	75.9
Thailand.....	1977	[9]49.3	76.5	79.6	79.3	48.0	[9]47.1	90.7	98.2	97.9	77.0

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 4.2. Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries—Continued

Residence, region, and country	Year	Women					Men				
		10 to 19 years	20 to 29 years	30 to 39 years	40 to 49 years	50 years and over	10 to 19 years	20 to 29 years	30 to 39 years	40 to 49 years	50 years and over
Rural											
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA											
Bangladesh.....	1974	5.6	[1]3.0	[2]2.6	[3]3.0	[4]3.5	53.5	[1]85.6	[2]97.3	[3]99.1	[4]94.8
India.....	1981	[5]22.8	[6]25.2	28.4	28.9	[7]23.9	[5]58.2	[6]87.8	96.7	97.2	[7]94.1
Pakistan.....	1973	9.8	9.8	9.0	8.6	8.5	56.6	92.6	96.8	96.9	84.2
Sri Lanka.....	1971	9.0	27.4	30.7	29.7	12.8	16.1	72.2	92.0	93.3	67.8
EAST ASIA											
South Korea.....	1975	[8]46.1	63.8	72.6	81.0	49.5	[8]49.0	95.9	98.5	97.7	75.9
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA											
Indonesia.....	1976	24.1	41.5	49.3	54.3	39.5	39.7	94.4	98.9	98.1	84.5
Malaysia.....	1970	21.4	42.3	46.8	49.2	32.1	30.0	90.0	93.2	91.5	71.3
Philippines.....	1970	24.9	35.3	37.2	40.1	30.7	43.4	85.4	90.8	90.5	78.4
Thailand.....	1977	[9]54.1	80.3	82.4	82.4	50.7	[9]51.8	93.2	98.2	98.1	78.7
Urban											
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA											
Bangladesh.....	1974	5.9	[1]4.6	[2]5.6	[3]6.8	[4]5.8	36.7	[1]75.1	[2]94.6	[3]97.6	[4]88.1
India.....	1981	[5]6.2	[6]10.7	15.1	15.3	[7]12.4	[5]31.5	[6]75.1	94.9	95.5	[7]86.9
Pakistan.....	1973	9.3	9.4	7.3	7.0	9.2	37.3	86.9	96.3	95.6	75.0
Sri Lanka.....	1971	4.8	14.7	17.7	16.0	7.5	14.8	68.6	89.6	89.6	57.6
EAST ASIA											
South Korea.....	1975	[8]40.5	36.4	23.4	30.8	14.7	[8]33.8	86.2	98.6	97.2	65.2
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA											
Indonesia.....	1976	13.5	28.0	32.7	28.1	27.1	18.9	82.7	98.3	95.1	68.2
Malaysia.....	1970	17.3	39.4	25.3	21.8	14.0	24.1	88.9	95.3	93.3	61.9
Philippines.....	1970	23.9	41.8	43.4	44.1	28.8	24.7	77.9	90.4	90.1	70.1
Thailand.....	1977	[9]22.9	60.8	65.2	62.0	32.7	[9]20.1	81.0	98.2	96.8	66.9

[1] Refers to age 20 to 24 years.
[2] Refers to age 25 to 34 years.
[3] Refers to age 35 to 44 years.
[4] Refers to age 45 years and over.
[5] Refers to age 15 to 19 years.
[6] Refers to an average of rates for ages 20 to 24 years and 25 to 29 years.
[7] Refers to age 50 to 59 years.
[8] Refers to age 14 to 19 years.
[9] Refers to age 11 to 19 years.

Table 4.3. Female Share of Rural and Urban Labor Force, by Age, for Asian Countries
(In percent)

Residence, region, and country	Year	All ages	10 to 19 years	20 to 29 years	30 to 39 years	40 to 49 years	50 years and over
Rural							
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA							
Bangladesh	1974	4.1	8.2	[1]3.7	[2]2.8	[3]2.7	[4]2.9
India	1971	18.8	23.4	19.6	19.1	18.2	14.3
Pakistan	1973	8.7	11.7	8.8	8.1	7.4	6.8
Sri Lanka	1971	24.4	35.4	28.6	[2]5.0	22.2	13.4
EAST ASIA							
South Korea	1975	44.2	[5]45.7	40.8	42.9	48.2	44.3
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA							
Indonesia	1976	35.1	36.0	35.8	36.1	35.2	31.9
Malaysia	1970	34.5	41.7	32.8	34.2	35.2	28.8
Philippines	1970	30.9	36.0	29.9	28.0	31.8	28.9
Thailand	1977	46.3	[6]50.5	46.6	45.6	45.0	41.1
Urban							
Bangladesh	1974	[5].2	12.3	[1]3.8	[2]3.6	[3]3.9	[4]3.9
India	1971	10.4	14.6	10.2	9.9	9.9	9.9
Pakistan	1973	9.2	17.2	8.5	6.4	5.5	8.0
Sri Lanka	1971	14.2	23.0	14.9	14.2	[2]2.6	10.2
EAST ASIA							
South Korea	1975	31.4	[5]54.6	35.5	18.0	24.7	22.8
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA							
Indonesia	1976	29.2	42.2	27.0	25.9	28.3	28.8
Malaysia	1970	27.2	41.2	31.0	21.2	18.6	18.4
Philippines	1970	37.8	52.8	38.5	32.2	34.8	32.5
Thailand	1977	41.9	[6]53.4	42.9	39.5	39.6	36.4

[1]Refers to age 20 to 24 years.
[2]Refers to age 25 to 34 years.
[3]Refers to age 35 to 44 years.
[4]Refers to age 45 years and over.
[5]Refers to age 14 to 19 years.
[6]Refers to age 11 to 19 years.

Table 4.4. Female/Male Ratio of Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

Residence, region, and country	Year	10 to 19 years	20 to 29 years	30 to 39 years	40 to 49 years	50 years and over
Rural						
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA						
Bangladesh	1974	0.10	[1]0.04	[2]0.03	[3]0.03	[4]0.04
India	1981	[5]0.39	[6]0.29	0.29	0.30	[7]0.25
Pakistan	1973	0.17	0.11	0.09	0.09	0.10
Sri Lanka	1971	0.56	0.38	0.33	0.32	0.19
EAST ASIA						
South Korea	1975	[8]0.94	0.67	0.74	0.83	0.65
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA						
Indonesia	1976	0.61	0.44	0.50	0.55	0.47
Malaysia	1970	0.71	0.47	0.50	0.54	0.45
Philippines	1970	0.57	0.41	0.41	0.44	0.39
Thailand	1977	[9]1.04	0.86	0.84	0.84	0.64
Urban						
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA						
Bangladesh	1974	0.16	[1]0.06	[2]0.06	[3]0.07	[4]0.07
India	1981	[5]0.20	[6]0.14	0.16	0.16	[7]0.14
Pakistan	1973	0.25	0.11	0.08	0.07	0.12
Sri Lanka	1971	0.32	0.21	0.20	0.18	0.13
EAST ASIA						
South Korea	1975	[8]1.20	0.42	0.24	0.32	0.23
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA						
Indonesia	1976	0.71	0.34	0.33	0.30	0.40
Malaysia	1970	0.72	0.44	0.27	0.23	0.23
Philippines	1970	0.97	0.54	0.48	0.49	0.41
Thailand	1977	[9]1.14	0.75	0.66	0.64	0.49

[1]Refers to age 20 to 24 years.
[2]Refers to age 25 to 34 years.
[3]Refers to age 35 to 44 years.
[4]Refers to age 45 years and over.
[5]Refers to age 15 to 19 years.
[6]Refers to an average of rates for ages 20 to 24 years and 25 to 29 years.
[7]Refers to age 50 to 59 years.
[8]Refers to age 14 to 19 years.
[9]Refers to age 11 to 19 years.

Table 4.5. Urban Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex, Age, and Marital Status, for Selected Asian Countries

Age group and marital status	Indonesia 1976		South Korea 1970		Malaysia 1970		Pakistan 1973		Thailand 1970	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total, 10 years and over.....	23.6	58.8	[1]21.9	[1]72.8	26.1	63.1	4.2	61.3	39.9	64.2
10 to 24 years.....	17.5	28.7	[2]31.8	[2]42.0	26.5	42.7	2.9	41.9	33.6	40.0
Single.....	18.1	22.9	37.0	40.7	28.2	40.6	2.7	37.8	34.2	37.4
Married.....	12.6	90.6	6.5	93.1	16.1	85.2	3.2	77.9	29.7	92.4
Widowed.....	38.7	86.1	50.0	(NA)	42.9	57.1	11.8	35.3	66.4	80.0
Divorced.....	45.4	66.7	52.4	50.0	50.0	50.0	11.1	30.2	47.9	63.2
25 to 44 years.....	29.7	93.3	16.9	94.9	29.1	94.3	5.1	89.7	52.7	91.8
Single.....	55.7	71.6	50.5	83.5	67.0	90.0	21.6	80.2	77.5	85.2
Married.....	22.4	97.4	12.0	97.1	21.6	95.8	3.7	92.6	44.6	95.5
Widowed.....	63.7	91.7	57.2	80.4	45.2	86.7	19.9	74.2	74.8	90.8
Divorced.....	60.6	85.1	59.2	88.4	52.6	86.4	18.4	56.3	71.9	81.2
45 years and over....	29.0	76.5	14.7	74.3	17.0	70.5	5.5	73.4	31.8	73.4
Single.....	37.7	66.1	(NA)	50.0	[3]42.3	64.9	22.7	56.8	46.9	69.7
Married.....	25.5	79.4	14.6	77.1	16.3	73.1	4.0	78.4	33.8	77.7
Widowed.....	30.6	47.3	14.0	33.8	15.5	[3]45.4	7.1	51.2	24.2	43.1
Divorced.....	48.3	61.1	46.0	65.4	[3]33.3	58.3	23.5	56.4	35.9	67.6

Note: Data are derived from sample census and survey tapes.

[1]Refers to age 14 years and over.
[2]Refers to age 14 to 24 years.
[3]Based on fewer than 30 unweighted cases.

Source: Shah and Smith, 1981, p. 9.

Table 4.6. Unpaid Family Workers as a Percent of Labor Force, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of These Percentages, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Year	Total	Female	Male	F/M ratio (male=1.00)
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	8.8	30.8	7.5	4.11
India	1971	2.9	3.6	2.8	1.29
Nepal	1976	17.5	11.6	27.2	0.43
Pakistan	1973	24.1	55.0	22.5	2.44
Sri Lanka	1971	5.2	11.2	3.6	3.11
EAST ASIA					
China Taiwan	1979	14.8	27.2	8.5	3.20
Hong Kong	1981	1.5	2.9	0.7	4.14
South Korea	1979	18.8	36.9	7.5	4.92
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	25.8	43.5	16.5	2.64
Malaysia	1970	19.7	37.7	11.0	3.43
Philippines	1970	19.8	29.4	15.5	1.90
Thailand	1977	47.7	66.9	31.4	2.13

Table 4.7. Percent Distribution of Labor Force, by Sex and Occupation, for Asian Countries

(Percentages may not add to 100.0 due to rounding)

Sex, region, and country	Year	All occupations	Professional workers[1]	Sales workers	Service workers	Agricultural workers	Production workers	Other[2]
Female								
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA								
Bangladesh	1974	100.0	2.9	1.3	10.2	69.8	12.2	3.6
India	1971	100.0	3.6	1.4	3.1	82.6	9.0	0.2
Nepal	1976	100.0	3.7	0.6	0.2	92.6	3.0	0.0
Sri Lanka	1971	100.0	8.0	1.5	3.9	42.1	11.5	33.0
EAST ASIA								
China Mainland	1982	100.0	5.5	1.9	2.4	77.1	12.9	0.1
Hong Kong	1980	100.0	26.7	7.6	16.0	1.0	47.5	1.2
South Korea	1980	100.0	11.0	16.0	11.6	37.5	20.4	3.5
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA								
Indonesia	1977	100.0	3.1	18.7	5.3	58.4	13.3	1.2
Malaysia	1970	100.0	8.6	4.7	8.1	54.5	10.3	13.7
Philippines	1977	100.0	17.2	18.3	13.0	28.2	14.1	9.2
Thailand	1978	100.0	3.9	9.7	2.6	76.2	7.1	0.5

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 4.7. Percent Distribution of Labor Force, by Sex and Occupation, for Asian Countries — Continued

(Percentages may not add to 100.0 due to rounding)

Sex, region, and country	Year	All occupations	Professional workers[1]	Sales workers	Service workers	Agricultural workers	Production workers	Other[2]
Male								
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA								
Bangladesh.....	1974	100.0	3.0	4.7	1.5	77.5	10.9	2.4
India.....	1971	100.0	7.2	4.7	3.4	69.9	14.3	0.5
Nepal.....	1976	100.0	5.2	1.5	0.4	86.2	6.7	0.0
Sri Lanka.....	1971	100.0	8.6	7.7	4.6	38.9	23.9	16.4
EAST ASIA								
China Mainland.....	1982	100.0	9.8	1.7	2.0	68.1	18.3	0.1
Hong Kong.....	1980	100.0	17.9	11.9	17.6	1.5	50.2	1.0
South Korea.....	1980	100.0	15.5	12.4	5.0	29.0	32.0	[3]6.2
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA								
Indonesia.....	1977	100.0	6.5	11.1	4.9	61.5	14.6	1.4
Malaysia.....	1970	100.0	10.4	9.9	7.7	42.1	22.9	6.9
Philippines..	1977	100.0	8.6	5.4	4.6	57.4	20.9	3.0
Thailand.....	1978	100.0	5.4	5.7	2.9	70.6	14.4	0.9

[1] Includes professional and technical workers, administrative and managerial personnel, and clerical workers.

[2] Includes persons not classified and/or unemployed and those seeking work for the first time.

[3] Includes unemployed persons only.

Sources: International Labour Office, various years; People's Republic of China State Statistical Bureau, 1983, table 33.

Table 4.8. Female Share of Labor Force, by Occupation, for Asian Countries
(In percent)

Region and country	Year	All occupations	Professional workers	Sales workers	Service workers	Agricultural workers	Production workers	Other[1]
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA								
Bangladesh.....	1974	4.2	4.0	1.2	23.1	3.8	4.7	6.3
India.....	1971	17.4	9.5	6.0	16.3	19.9	11.7	7.6
Nepal.....	1976	37.6	30.0	18.6	18.6	39.2	21.3	(NA)
Sri Lanka.....	1971	26.2	24.8	6.3	23.2	27.8	14.6	41.7
EAST ASIA								
China								
Mainland.....	1982	43.7	31.7	46.1	48.0	46.8	35.4	25.6
Hong Kong.....	1980	34.8	44.3	25.5	32.7	26.4	33.5	[2]39.4
South Korea.....	1980	37.6	30.1	43.7	58.1	43.9	27.7	[2]25.5
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA								
Indonesia.....	1977	33.7	19.6	46.1	35.6	32.6	31.8	29.8
Malaysia.....	1970	31.8	27.9	17.9	32.9	37.7	17.4	47.8
Philippines.....	1977	31.5	47.8	60.7	56.4	18.4	23.6	58.2
Thailand.....	1978	47.0	39.2	59.9	43.6	48.9	30.3	33.8

[1]Includes persons not classified and/or unemployed and those seeking work for the first time.
[2]Includes unemployed persons only.

Sources: International Labour Office, various years; People's Republic of China State Statistical Bureau, 1983, table 33.

Table 4.9. Percent Distribution of Nonagricultural Labor Force, by Principal Occupation and Sex, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Year	Professional and technical workers		Supervisors, directors, administrative workers		Clerical, sales workers		Service workers		Production and related workers	
		Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA											
Bangladesh	1974	9.6	8.9	0.2	0.8	5.8	28.6	38.6	7.5	45.8	54.2
India	1971	16.6	9.2	0.4	3.7	12.3	27.3	18.2	11.4	52.5	48.4
Nepal	1976	47.9	27.3	0.5	0.5	9.0	20.4	2.3	3.2	40.4	48.5
Sri Lanka	1971	25.0	7.1	0.3	0.9	12.6	28.4	15.7	10.3	46.4	53.3
EAST ASIA											
China Mainland	1982	19.4	17.5	1.6	7.7	11.6	10.9	10.6	6.4	56.8	57.5
Hong Kong	1980	7.6	5.2	0.7	3.4	26.9	21.9	16.4	18.0	48.5	51.5
South Korea	1975	5.1	7.2	0.2	2..	32.7	34.4	22.7	8.1	39.3	48.1
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA											
Indonesia	1971	6.8	7.0	0.3	2.1	46.8	40.8	16.2	10.4	29.9	39.6
Malaysia	1970	19.2	10.3	0.2	2.4	31.8	26.7	25.7	18.2	23.2	42.3
Philippines	1975	16.9	7.8	1.2	3.1	30.3	22.0	26.1	11.4	23.5	55.6
Thailand	1978	9.4	8.0	1.5	5.3	47.7	25.8	11.0	10.3	30.5	50.6

Sources: International Labour Office, various years; People's Republic of China State Statistical Bureau, 1983, table 33.

Table 4.10. Labor Force Participation Rates for Population Age 15 Years and Over, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of Participation Rates, for Pacific Islands

Region and country	Year	Total	Female	Male	F/M ratio (male=1.00)
POLYNESIA					
American Samoa	1974	47.6	33.0	62.6	0.53
Cook Islands	1981	57.1	35.9	77.0	0.47
French Polynesia[1]	1977	55.9	35.5	73.6	0.48
Niue[2]	1976	44.5	25.0	66.8	0.37
Tonga	1976	42.8	13.5	71.8	0.19
Tuvalu[3]	1979	21.5	11.0	35.4	0.31
Wallis and Futuna[1]	1976	65.2	45.5	85.6	0.53
Western Samoa	1976	47.5	16.5	77.1	0.21
MELANESIA					
Fiji	1976	51.1	17.2	84.6	0.20
New Caledonia[1]	1976	59.5	42.9	74.4	0.58
Papua New Guinea	1971	43.4	35.0	51.2	0.68
Solomon Islands[3]	1976	22.1	7.8	35.0	0.22
Vanuatu	1979	84.1	78.1	89.4	0.87
MICRONESIA					
Guam	1980	51.4	46.3	56.0	0.83
Kiribati[3]	1978	22.4	8.7	37.3	0.23
Nauru[4]	1977	30.5	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)

[1]Refers to age 14 years and over.
[2]Refers to money-earning Niueans only.
[3]Refers to persons active in the cash economy only.
[4]Actual age referent unknown; the legal age for seeking paid employment is 17 years.

Sources: Census reports of each country; UNESCAP, 1982c (for Papua New Guinea).

Table 4.11. Labor Force Participation Rates by Age and Sex, for Pacific Islands

Sex, region, and country	Year	15 to 19 years	20 to 29 years	30 to 39 years	40 to 49 years	50 years and over
Women						
POLYNESIA						
American Samoa	1974	16.6	44.1	47.1	38.8	12.9
Cook Islands	1981	28.7	51.3	49.1	41.5	13.2
French Polynesia	1977	[1]13.0	45.1	43.1	37.7	18.3
Niue[2]	1976	25.2	38.3	42.3	18.7	6.1
Tonga	1976	15.8	23.5	10.3	7.7	5.0
Tuvalu[3]	1979	9.8	20.8	13.8	5.7	2.2
Wallis and Futuna	1976	[1]36.7	54.9	47.9	47.8	41.3
Western Samoa	1976	9.1	25.5	21.4	18.9	7.5
MELANESIA						
Fiji	1976	15.1	22.3	17.6	15.6	10.3
New Caledonia	1976	[1]25.8	54.6	49.9	47.4	33.9
Solomon Islands[3]	1976	7.9	9.7	7.9	7.0	5.0
Vanuatu	1979	64.9	80.0	82.7	84.4	80.9
MICRONESIA						
Kiribati[3]	1978	8.9	16.0	9.2	3.8	1.7
Men						
POLYNESIA						
American Samoa	1974	12.0	69.4	87.6	83.2	59.2
Cook Islands	1981	60.0	87.2	89.8	93.3	66.5
French Polynesia	1977	[1]32.0	76.2	91.5	89.1	59.9
Niue[2]	1976	57.4	86.8	92.3	79.3	37.5
Tonga	1976	37.4	80.3	85.5	87.2	74.6
Tuvalu[3]	1979	20.3	47.3	59.0	46.3	19.4
Wallis and Futuna	1976	[1]68.8	89.3	96.1	95.9	88.9
Western Samoa	1976	49.0	95.2	98.3	98.2	56.6
MELANESIA						
Fiji	1976	56.8	93.5	97.3	96.5	75.9
New Caledonia	1976	[1]30.9	84.0	95.6	94.5	65.8
Solomon Islands[3]	1976	27.1	48.6	42.7	34.0	18.7
Vanuatu	1979	61.7	94.9	98.7	98.7	93.0
MICRONESIA						
Kiribati[3]	1978	18.2	47.5	53.1	48.8	19.2

[1]Refers to age 14 to 19 years.
[2]Refers to money-earning Niueans only.
[3]Refers to persons active in the cash economy only.

Source: National census reports.

Table 4.12. Female/Male Ratio of Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, for Pacific Islands

Region and country	Year	15 to 19 years	20 to 29 years	30 to 39 years	40 to 49 years	50 years and over
POLYNESIA						
American Samoa	1976	1.38	0.64	0.54	0.47	0.22
Cook Islands	1981	0.48	0.59	0.55	0.44	0.20
French Polynesia	1977	[1]0.41	0.59	0.47	0.42	0.31
Niue [2]	1976	0.44	0.44	0.46	0.24	0.16
Tonga	1976	0.42	0.29	0.12	0.09	0.07
Tuvalu [3]	1979	0.48	0.44	0.23	0.12	0.11
Wallis and Futuna	1976	[1]0.53	0.61	0.50	0.50	0.46
Western Samoa	1976	0.19	0.27	0.22	0.19	0.13
MELANESIA						
Fiji	1976	0.27	0.24	0.18	0.16	0.14
New Caledonia	1976	[1]0.83	0.65	0.52	0.50	0.52
Solomon Islands [3]	1976	0.29	0.20	0.19	0.21	0.27
Vanuatu	1979	1.05	0.84	0.84	0.86	0.87
MICRONESIA						
Kiribati [3]	1978	0.49	0.34	0.17	0.08	0.09

[1]Refers to age 14 to 19 years.
[2]Refers to money-earning Niueans only.
[3]Refers to persons active in the cash economy only.

Source: National census reports.

Table 4.13. Female Share of Labor Force, by Age, for Pacific Islands

(In percent)

Region and country	Year	15 to 19 years	20 to 29 years	30 to 39 years	40 to 49 years	50 years and over
POLYNESIA						
American Samoa	1974	60.3	43.8	31.9	31.1	17.2
Cook Islands	1981	29.4	37.1	35.4	29.2	14.9
French Polynesia	1977	[1]26.7	33.5	28.6	26.1	21.6
Niue[2]	1976	28.6	31.2	37.2	23.3	23.0
Tonga	1976	28.2	22.7	11.4	8.2	6.0
Tuvalu[3]	1979	34.4	38.4	26.1	15.4	12.3
Wallis and Futuna	1976	[1]32.9	40.0	36.4	41.3	29.9
Western Samoa	1976	14.1	19.9	18.2	16.2	11.7
MELANESIA						
Fiji	1976	20.8	19.7	15.3	13.4	11.3
New Caledonia	1976	[1]43.4	36.7	31.7	30.1	32.0
Solomon Islands[3]	1976	21.2	17.1	14.6	15.6	15.9
Vanuatu	1979	49.3	44.6	43.1	40.7	38.4
MICRONESIA						
Kiribati[3]	1978	33.3	27.3	15.0	7.5	9.4

[1]Refers to age 14 to 19 years.
[2]Refers to money-earning Niueans only.
[3]Refers to persons active in the cash economy only.

Source: National census reports.

Table 4.14. Percent of Employed Economically Active Population in Selected Industries, by Sex, for Pacific Islands

Region and country	Year	Women			Men		
		Agriculture, etc.	Trade	Services	Agriculture, etc.	Trade	Services
POLYNESIA							
Cook Islands	1976	1.7	20.8	47.0	32.9	6.6	33.2
French Polynesia	1977	6.4	[1]31.7	50.4	21.7	[1]13.0	34.0
Niue[2]	1976	4.3	7.3	19.4	6.2	4.8	9.1
Tonga	1976	3.5	17.4	67.1	62.8	3.2	18.5
Tuvalu[3]	1979	0.9	19.6	59.6	5.7	7.7	31.8
Wallis and Futuna	1976	76.2	1.1	6.5	82.0	1.2	1.3
Western Samoa	1976	25.1	17.5	48.2	68.7	4.1	12.1
MELANESIA							
Fiji	1976	27.1	17.5	40.9	50.7	9.4	13.6
New Caledonia	1976	35.2	10.2	19.6	26.9	5.6	4.0
Solomon Islands[3]	1976	52.8	6.2	34.1	43.2	8.0	24.0
Vanuatu	1979	84.7	2.5	9.7	71.6	5.7	11.6
MICRONESIA							
Kiribati[3]	1978	1.2	21.0	64.4	9.2	11.8	36.7

[1]Includes those engaged in financial services.
[2]Refers to money-earning Niueans only.
[3]Refers to persons active in the cash economy only.

Notes: "Employed" is used in a generic sense to denote persons engaged in specific industries. Such persons may or may not receive cash compensation. "Agriculture, etc." includes agriculture, hunting, fishing, and forestry. "Trade" refers to wholesale and retail trade, including the restaurant and hotel sectors. "Services" refers to community, social, and personal services, and excludes financial and business services. Percentage bases exclude persons whose activities were not stated or not adequately described.

Source: National census reports.

Chapter 5

Marital Status and Living Arrangements

ASIA

Marriage has traditionally been, and continues to be, a central feature of adult female life in most Asian countries. The pressures towards marriage, and also early marriage, are particularly strong in Middle South Asia. In India, for example, marriage and motherhood are considered to be the most honorable and religiously valuable achievements for a Hindu woman. Hindu religious belief holds that "there is no God for a woman but her husband, and by serving him she attains heaven" (Government of India, 1974). An extreme form of the notion that a woman has no worth without her husband is embodied in the practice of "sati," in which a widowed woman kills herself by jumping into the deceased husband's pyre. This phenomenon is rarely witnessed today, but the values which hold the husband to be the maintainer, protector, and savior of women still condition behavior in India. In the Islamic countries of the subcontinent, Pakistan and Bangladesh, rigid beliefs regarding the centrality of marriage are likewise held; Islam prescribes marriage as a most cherished and desired state. In all these countries, the main system of descent is patrilineal with patrilocal residence. Upon marriage, a woman leaves her home to live in her husband's (or his parents') home. The emphasis on early marriage in such societies results from values which consider virginity before marriage and chastity to be very important.

In Southeast Asian countries, the patriarchal and patrilocal traditions are not as strong. Nevertheless, marriage stands as a pervasive institution, and only a negligible proportion of women never marry. In the Philippines, for example, the mean female age at marriage has increased, but there is continued pressure for all women to marry eventually (Castillo, 1976).

The minimum legal age at marriage for women in Asian countries varies from 14 years in Malaysia and the Philippines to 20 years in Mainland China (table 5.1). The legal age below which women may not marry is more a safeguard against child marriage than a prescription for an appropriate age at marriage. Mainland China is probably an exception to this, since the Chinese are promoting higher age at marriage as a deliberate policy of population control. Smith and Karim (1980), in an analysis of South Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, and the Philippines, showed that the mean age at marriage has risen considerably in each of these countries since the 1950's. This is true in most Asian nations, although the average age at marriage is generally lower in Middle South Asia (except Sri Lanka) than in East and Southeast Asian countries.

Table 5.2 and figure 5.1 show the age by which half of all women have married. In Bangladesh, half marry by age 15 years while in South Korea, half are married only by age 24 years—a large difference indeed. Middle South Asian women in general reach the median mark at younger ages than women in the other two regions. Sri Lanka presents a deviation from the regional pattern, with one-half of its women marrying by age 23 years—a figure similar to that of Taiwan and the Philippines, and second only to South Korea and Hong Kong. Furthermore, the average marital age of Sri Lankan women was reported to have risen 2 years between 1971 and 1975 (University of Colombo, 1979). As noted previously, Sri Lanka represents an exception also in terms of the very high literacy and education of its women, and has relatively few employed women working in agriculture or as unpaid family workers.

Based on cross-sectional data on the marital status distribution of the population, shown in table 5.3, over three-fifths of all Middle South Asian women (except Sri Lanka) age 10 years and over are married. The proportion varies between 41 and 57 percent in the other regions, with the exception of Mainland China, where the 66 percent level resembles figures for Middle South Asia. Taiwan has the lowest proportion of married women (only 41 percent) while Nepal has the highest (68 percent). The current marital distribution depends not only on age at marriage and the proportion marrying, but also on the dissolution of marriage through either divorce or death of one of the spouses. Divorce

and separation apply to a negligible proportion (generally under 1 percent) of women as well as men in most Asian countries. Proportions of widowed women, however, are quite high relative to men (figure 5.3) and vary from 5 percent in the Philippines and Taiwan to 16 percent in Indonesia. Larger proportions of women than men are found in the widowed/divorced/separated category for at least two reasons: first, a greater percentage of men than women are single in each country; second, women usually have a higher life expectancy and therefore tend to outlive their husbands. Another conceivable reason for the large percentages of widowed women may be a greater incidence of remarriage among men than women, although data have not been compiled to support this argument.

The percentage of single women in any country is probably an indirect indicator of opportunities other than marriage which are available to women. There is a large variation in the percentage of single women among the countries in this report—54 percent of all Taiwanese women are single compared to only 21 percent of Nepalese and Bangladeshi women. The percentage of single women is consistently higher in urban than rural areas in each country, even in Middle South Asia (figure 5.2). This finding indicates that the marriage of urban girls probably gets delayed because of their greater access to (and participation in) schooling and wage employment, particularly in the modern economic sectors. Furthermore, urban norms are likely to support later marriage in most countries. The differential between rural and urban areas is smallest in Sri Lanka, where about 31 percent of the rural and 36 percent of the urban women are single.

Patterns within overall proportions of single persons come to light when data are tabulated by age, as shown in table 5.5. Regional differences in the percent single are very marked among women age 20 to 24 years—only 3 percent in Bangladesh but 63 percent in South Korea and 71 percent in Hong Kong. Middle South Asia in general has significantly smaller proportions of single women, while East Asia has the highest proportions; Southeast Asian women are intermediate, with considerable variation within the region. Only 21 percent of women are single in Pakistan and 24 percent in predominantly Muslim Indonesia, while in the Philippines and Malaysia comparable figures are 51 percent and 41 percent, respectively.

A large percentage of single women in the younger ages does not imply that women remain single throughout their lives. Marriage may take place late and yet still be universal, as illustrated by the data for South Korea. In the age group 20 to 24 years, 63 percent of women and 93 percent of men are single; by age 49 years, there are almost no single women or men. A similar situation is reflected by the data for Mainland China. Although Mainland China has by far the highest overall percent married among women age 10 years and over compared to other countries of East and Eastern South Asia, over 46 percent of women age 20 to 24 years are single. By age 49 years, the percent single is practically zero. This noticeable delay in age at first marriage has contributed, in some measure, to the recent remarkable declines in Chinese fertility. In most other countries, also, a very small proportion (1 to 3 percent) of all women are still single by age 45 to 49 years. The two exceptions to this pattern are Sri Lanka and the Philippines, where 4 percent and 6 percent, respectively, of women age 45 to 49 years are single. In the Philippines, more women than men age 45 to 49 years remain single—a deviation from the typical pattern.

A comparison of the percent single among women age 20 to 24 years in rural and urban areas shows pointed differentials in all countries. In Indonesia, where the difference is quite substantial, the proportion of single urban women (41 percent) is more than double its rural counterpart (19 percent). The differential is smallest in Sri Lanka, with 63 percent of urban and 53 percent of rural women reported as single.

Household Size and Headship

Median household size is presented in table 5.6 for the total country and for rural and urban areas. While the concept of household appears to be relatively consistent across national censuses, the extended family pattern found in a number of countries may add some degree of uncertainty to the delineation of separate households within a single dwelling structure. Perhaps for this reason, Asian households tend to be larger than those in other developing regions of the world. With few exceptions, median size exceeds 5 persons per household, with a high of 6.2 persons in Pakistan. Outside of Sri Lanka and South Korea, there are only minor size differences between rural and urban areas.

As mentioned above, many Asian cultures, particularly in Middle South Asia, are partriarchal in nature, and a male member of the household—usually the husband or his father in the case of a joint family—is classified as head. The death of or desertion by the husband may, however, result in female headship. In other cases, single women who live alone may be classified as household head. In many countries, however, women may not be reported as the household head in censuses and surveys, since this goes against traditional norms. This is discussed in some detail by Buvinić and Youssef (1978). Underreporting of female headship is likely to be greater in cases where a widowed, divorced, or single woman lives in a joint family with a male member (or patriarch) present; this may happen even if she is the sole wage earner in the family.

Asian censuses usually ask a question about who is the head of household and how the other members are related to the head. The responses to such questions are, however, not always tabulated or readily available. Of the 14 Asian countries included in this report, only 6 have national-level data on headship, as shown below:

Country	Year	Percent of female heads		
		Total country	Rural	Urban
Sri Lanka	1981	17.4	17.0	19.1
Hong Kong	1971	23.5	(NA)	(NA)
South Korea	1980	14.7	13.5	15.5
Indonesia	1971	16.3	16.7	14.1
Malaysia	1970	19.7	19.1	21.6
Philippines	1970	10.8	10.0	12.7

Other data for Pakistan show that only about 1 percent of all household heads were women and that 70 percent of all women heads in urban areas were migrants (Shah, 1982).

A comparative analysis of labor force participation among female heads and nonheads in several Asian countries revealed that participation rates were invariably higher among the former, as the following table indicates:

Country	Year	Percent in labor force among–			
		All urban women age 10 years and and over		Recent female migrants to urban areas age 10 years and over	
		Heads	Nonheads	Heads	Nonheads
Indonesia	1976	56.9	21.3	53.0	27.0
Korea	1970	44.1	20.2	43.1	23.4
Malaysia	1970	30.7	25.5	40.6	29.7
Pakistan	1973	26.7	3.8	58.0	4.6
Thailand	1970	56.8	38.2	66.2	40.8

Source: Shah and Smith, 1981, table 5.

These data illustrate that family headship may force some women to enter the labor force. Even in Pakistan, which otherwise has very low participation rates, female heads, and in particular those among them who are migrants, have extremely high participation rates. Women who are reported as household heads are likely to be single, widowed, or divorced women who have to support themselves and their families. In some countries, destitute women may be more likely to migrate to urban areas in order to find employment. These subgroups of women, even though numerically small, represent special groups who may be in need of assistance with regard to job procurement as well as food and shelter.

PACIFIC ISLANDS

The marital distribution of women and men age 15 years and over in Pacific islands is shown in table 5.7. The proportion of single women varies from 23 percent in Solomon Islands to 53 percent in Kiribati; corresponding percentages of single men in these countries are 40 and 61. Percentages of widowed/divorced/separated women are similar to those found in Asia, ranging from 7 to 15 percent. Tuvalu has the highest proportion (15 percent) of women in this marital status category, perhaps again because of the high rural-to-urban migration in this country. French Polynesia has the lowest proportion of widowed/divorced/separated women.

The relatively large percent single among women age 15 to 24 years in some countries suggests that corresponding average age at marriage is quite high. This is likely to be true particularly in Cook Islands, French Polynesia, Tonga, and Tuvalu, where four-fifths or more of women age 15 to 24 years are single (table 5.8). Furthermore, certain nations have a relatively high proportion of persons who have never married. While the proportion single among women age 35 to 44 years is below 10 percent in most countries, French Polynesia, Tuvalu, and New Caledonia are exceptions to the pattern. Proportions are strikingly high in French Polynesia, with 24 percent of women and 30 percent of men single at age 35 to 44 years. Being single, however, may not necessarily imply living alone without a sexual partner. In some cases persons in consensual or other forms of unions may be reported as single.

Finally, data on household headship are generally not available for most of the islands. The three countries for which information exists (Niue, Cook Islands, and Western Samoa) have a level of female headship quite similar to that found in Asia. Of all household heads in Niue, 22.5 percent are women; the corresponding figure is 17 percent for Cook Islands and 20 percent for Western Samoa.

Figure 5.1. Age by Which 50 Percent of Women and Men Have Ever Been Married

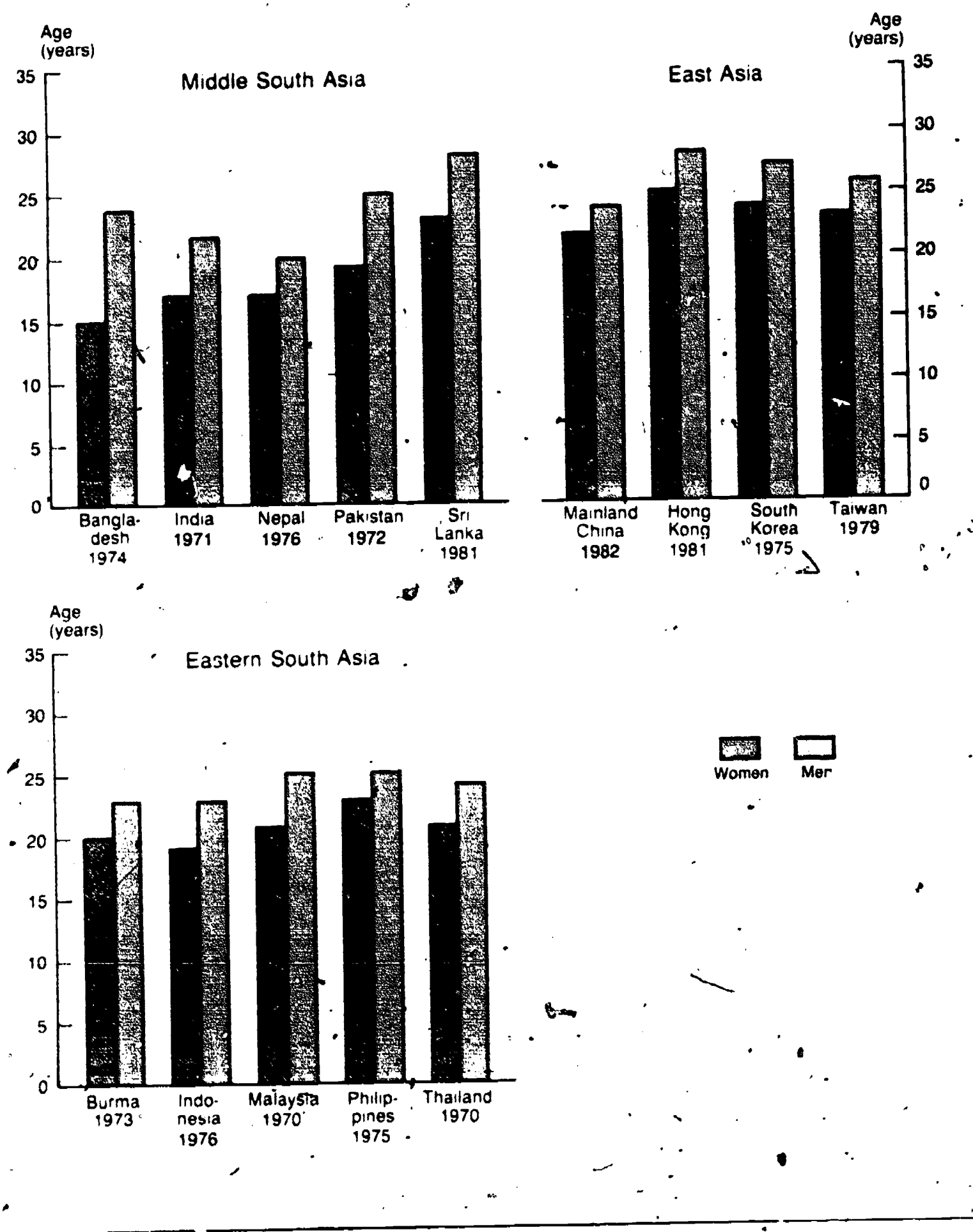
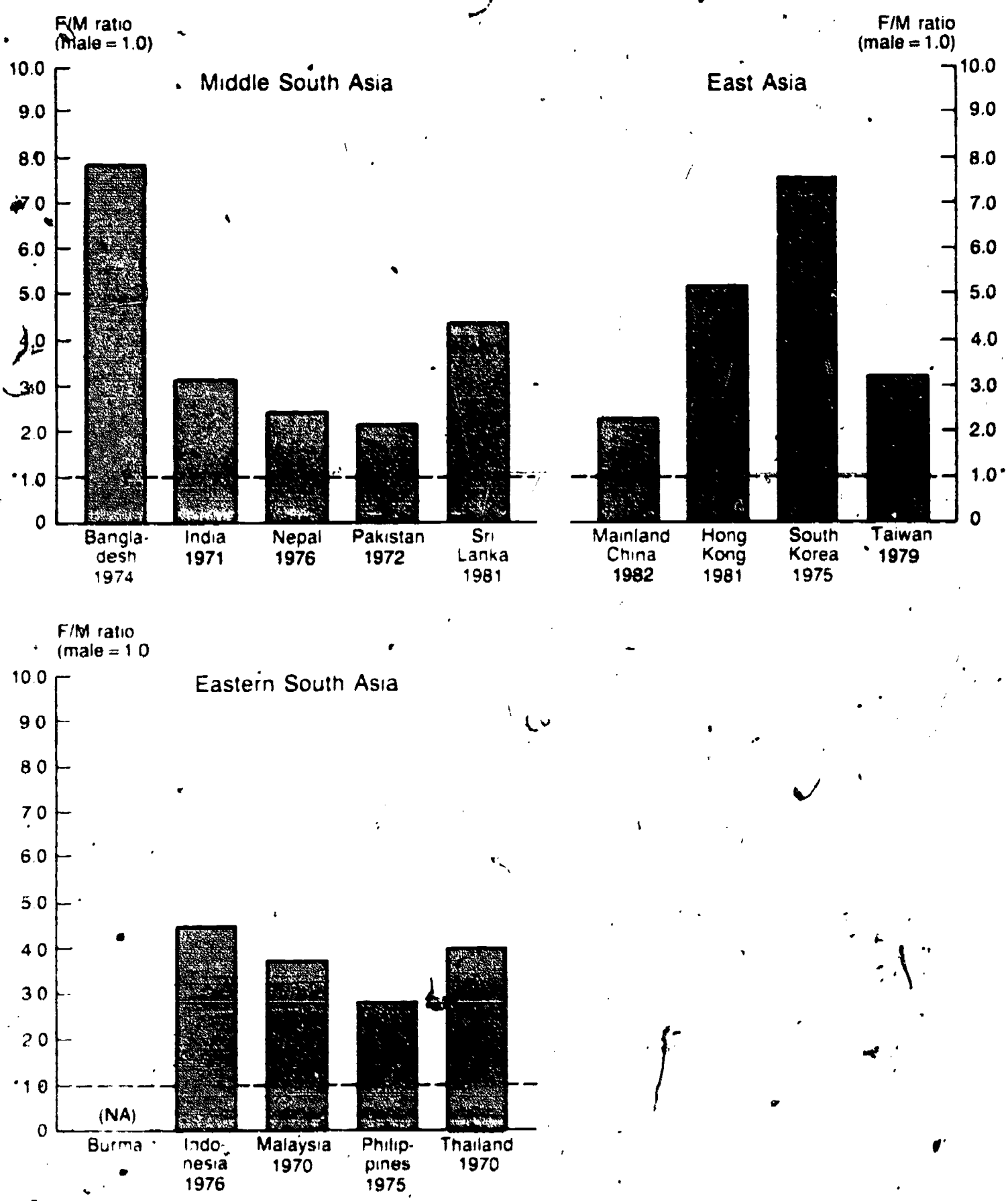


Figure 5.2. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Widowed Age 10 Years and Over



*Female percent equals male percent

Note: See footnotes to table 5.3 for nonstandard age groups

Figure 5.3. Percent Single Among Women and Men Age 20 to 24 Years, by Rural/Urban Residence

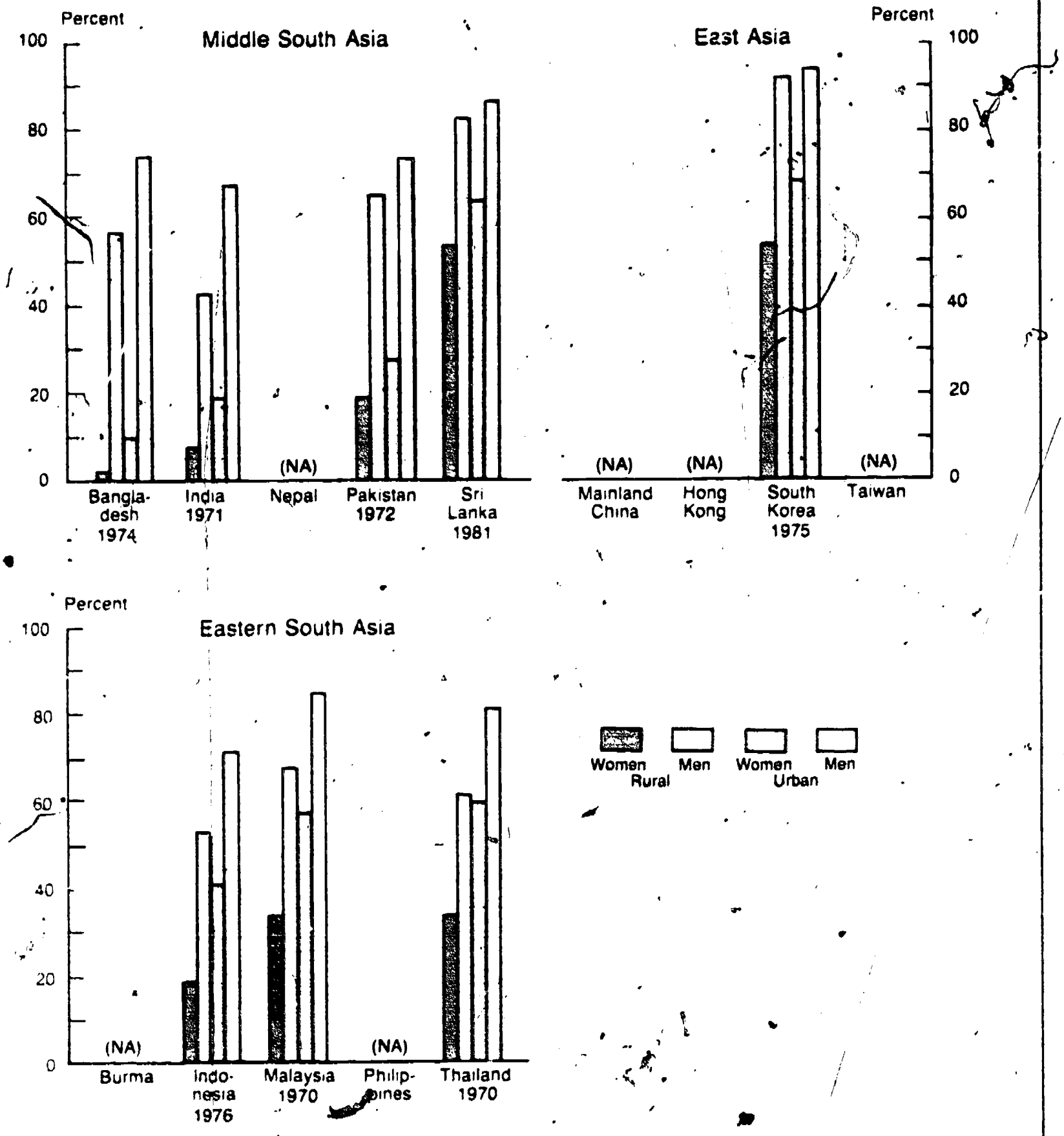


Table 5.1. Minimum Legal Age at Marriage, by Sex, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Female	Male
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA		
Bangladesh	16	18
India	18	21
Nepal	16	18
Pakistan	16	18
Sri Lanka	16	18
EAST ASIA		
China		
Mainland	20	22
Taiwan	18	(NA)
Hong Kong	16	16
South Korea	16	18
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA		
Burma	18	18
Indonesia	16	19
Malaysia[1]	14	16
Philippines	14	16
Thailand	17	17

Note: Data on minimum legal marital age represent the most recently compiled information.

[1]Refers to West Malaysia only.

Table 5.2. Age by Which 50 Percent of Persons Have Ever Been Married, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Year	Total		Rural		Urban	
		Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA							
Bangladesh	1974	15	24	15	23	17	26
India	1971	17	22	16	22	19	25
Nepal	1976	17	20	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Pakistan	1972	19	25	19	25	20	26
Sri Lanka	1981	23	28	23	27	25	29
EAST ASIA							
China							
Mainland	1982	22	24	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Taiwan	1979	23	26	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Hong Kong	1981	25	28	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
South Korea	1975	24	27	23	27	24	27
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA							
Burma	1973	20	23	20	23	21	25
Indonesia	1976	19	23	19	23	21	25
Malaysia	1970	21	25	21	24	23	27
Philippines	1975	23	25	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Thailand	1970	21	24	20	24	24	27

Table 5.3. Percent Distribution of Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Marital Status and Sex, for Asian Countries

(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)

Sex, region, and country	Year	Total	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced or separated
Women						
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA						
Bangladesh	1974	100.0	21.1	64.4	13.3	1.1
India	1971	100.0	22.3	64.4	12.7	0.6
Nepal	1976	100.0	20.6	68.5	10.6	0.3
Pakistan	1972	100.0	29.7	61.5	8.6	0.3
Sri Lanka[1]	1981	100.0	32.3	58.8	8.3	0.6
EAST ASIA						
China						
Mainland	1982	100.0	24.2	65.5	10.0	0.3
Taiwan	1979	100.0	54.0	40.6	4.7	0.7
Hong Kong[1]	1981	100.0	32.6	56.0	10.7	0.7
South Korea[1]	1975	100.0	28.5	57.1	13.8	0.7
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA						
Indonesia	1976	100.0	30.9	52.1	15.7	1.1
Malaysia	1970	100.0	39.1	50.3	9.4	1.3
Philippines	1975	100.0	46.5	47.9	5.0	0.5
Thailand[2]	1970	100.0	31.4	56.4	8.8	2.9

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 5.3. Percent Distribution of Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Marital Status and Sex, for Asian Countries—Continued

(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)

Sex, region, and country	Year	Total	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced or separated
Men						
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA						
Bangladesh	1974	100.0	41.2	57.0	1.7	0.1
India	1971	100.0	36.5	58.9	4.1	0.4
Nepal	1976	100.0	32.2	63.1	4.4	0.3
Pakistan	1972	100.0	44.4	51.4	4.0	0.2
Sri Lanka[1]	1981	100.0	42.6	55.1	1.9	0.4
EAST ASIA						
China						
Mainland	1982	100.0	32.7	61.9	4.5	0.9
Taiwan	1979	100.0	60.5	37.3	1.5	0.7
Hong Kong[1]	1981	100.0	43.2	54.0	2.1	0.6
South Korea[1]	1975	100.0	40.7	57.0	1.9	0.3
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA						
Indonesia	1976	100.0	42.2	53.7	3.5	0.5
Malaysia	1970	100.0	48.2	48.5	2.5	0.9
Philippines	1975	100.0	51.3	46.6	1.8	0.3
Thailand[2]	1970	100.0	39.9	56.5	2.2	1.0

[1]Refers to age 15 years and over.
[2]Refers to age 13 years and over.

Table 5.4. Percent Distribution of Women Age 10 Years and Over, by Marital Status and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)

Residence, region, and country	Year	Total	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced or separated
Rural						
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA						
Bangladesh.....	1974	100.0	20.4	65.0	13.6	1.1
India.....	1971	100.0	20.7	65.7	13.0	0.6
Pakistan.....	1972	100.0	28.0	62.9	8.8	0.3
Sri Lanka [1].....	1981	100.0	31.2	59.7	8.5	0.6
EAST ASIA						
South Korea [1].....	1975	100.0	31.2	64.5	3.9	0.4
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA						
Indonesia.....	1976	100.0	29.0	53.4	16.3	1.2
Malaysia.....	1970	100.0	36.7	52.3	9.6	1.4
Thailand [2].....	1970	100.0	29.7	58.0	9.0	2.9
Urban						
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA						
Bangladesh.....	1974	100.0	29.9	58.3	11.0	0.8
India.....	1971	100.0	29.2	58.9	11.3	0.4
Pakistan.....	1972	100.0	34.3	57.4	8.2	0.2
Sri Lanka [1].....	1981	100.0	36.1	55.7	7.5	0.6
EAST ASIA						
South Korea [1].....	1975	100.0	40.2	55.4	3.4	1.0
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA						
Indonesia.....	1976	100.0	39.3	46.3	13.1	1.0
Malaysia.....	1970	100.0	45.2	45.2	8.8	0.8
Thailand [2].....	1970	100.0	41.2	47.3	7.8	3.2

[1]Refers to age 15 years and over.
[2]Refers to age 13 years and over.

Table 5.5. Percent Single Among Population Ages 20 to 24 and 45 to 49 Years, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

Residence, region, and country	Year	Women		Men	
		20 to 24 years	45 to 49 years	20 to 24 years	45 to 49 years
Total country					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	3.2	0.3	60.1	1.1
India	1971	9.5	0.5	49.9	2.7
Nepal	1976	9.1	0.9	33.6	1.7
Pakistan	1972	21.3	1.5	67.8	4.3
Sri Lanka	1981	55.3	4.4	83.7	7.1
EAST ASIA					
China					
Mainland	1982	46.4	0.2	72.0	4.4
Taiwan	1979	59.6	2.2	87.5	8.4
Hong Kong	1981	71.3	2.3	89.4	9.2
South Korea	1975	62.5	0.2	92.9	0.3
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	23.5	0.8	57.9	0.9
Malaysia	1970	41.4	1.6	73.4	3.4
Philippines	1975	51.2	6.1	69.1	5.2
Thailand	1970	37.9	3.0	64.9	3.2

Table 5.5. Percent Single Among Population Ages 20 to 24 and 45 to 49 Years, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries—Continued

Residence, region, and country	Year	Women		Men	
		20 to 24 years	45 to 49 years	20 to 24 years	45 to 49 years
Rural					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	2.5	0.3	57.6	1.0
India	1971	6.8	0.4	43.7	2.7
Pakistan	1972	19.1	1.5	65.3	4.2
Sri Lanka	1981	53.1	4.0	82.5	6.4
EAST ASIA					
South Korea	1975	53.9	0.1	92.0	0.3
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	18.7	0.7	53.5	0.7
Malaysia	1970	33.7	1.1	67.8	2.8
Thailand	1970	33.6	2.7	61.8	2.8
Urban					
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1974	10.1	0.5	74.3	1.7
India	1971	19.0	0.9	67.0	2.7
Pakistan	1972	26.7	1.6	73.1	4.7
Sri Lanka	1981	62.8	5.9	87.3	9.4
EAST ASIA					
South Korea	1975	68.0	0.3	93.7	0.3
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1976	40.7	1.3	71.7	1.5
Malaysia	1970	57.7	3.0	84.9	4.9
Thailand	1970	59.1	5.5	80.9	5.7

Table 5.6. Median Number of Persons per Household, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Year	Total	Rural	Urban
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA				
Bangladesh	1973	5.5	(NA)	(NA)
India	1971	5.2	5.1	5.2
Nepal[1]	1976	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Pakistan	1980	6.2	6.4	6.1
Sri Lanka	1969-70	5.5	6.1	5.4
EAST ASIA				
China				
Mainland	1982	4.3	(NA)	(NA)
Taiwan	1980	4.7	(NA)	(NA)
Hong Kong	1981	3.7	(NA)	(NA)
South Korea	1975	5.0	4.8	5.3
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA				
Indonesia	1971	4.6	4.9	4.5
Malaysia	1970	5.1	5.3	5.0
Philippines	1975	5.6	5.7	5.6
Thailand	1970	5.5	5.5	5.5

[1]Median number of persons per household not available for Nepal. The average household size in 1976 was 5.2 persons for the total country.

Table 5.7. Percent Distribution of Population Age 15 Years and Over, by Marital Status and Sex, for Pacific Islands

Region and country	Year	Women			Men		
		Single	Married	Other	Single	Married	Other
POLYNESIA							
American Samoa	1980	35.6	54.5	10.0	42.1	54.6	3.3
Cook Islands	1976	36.2	55.7	8.1	41.3	52.6	6.1
French Polynesia	1977	47.1	45.9	7.0	55.1	41.2	3.7
Niue	1976	35.9	51.4	12.8	41.7	54.3	4.0
Tonga	1976	35.1	55.0	9.9	43.5	52.2	4.3
Tuvalu	1979	40.5	44.4	15.1	44.9	51.4	3.7
Wallis and Futuna	1976	39.4	49.4	11.2	42.7	51.9	5.5
Western Samoa	1976	30.2	60.1	9.7	44.2	53.0	2.8
MELANESIA							
Fiji	1976	27.4	61.3	11.3	35.9	59.3	4.8
New Caledonia	1976	32.7	56.8	10.5	44.1	51.5	4.4
Papua New Guinea	1967	23.7	66.5	9.9	37.6	56.7	5.7
Solomon Islands	1971	23.2	68.9	7.9	39.8	55.2	5.0
Vanuatu	1979	30.0	61.4	8.6	41.0	54.5	4.6
MICRONESIA							
Guam	1980	26.2	63.4	10.4	33.3	62.2	4.5
Kiribati	1978	52.9	35.7	11.4	61.2	35.3	3.5
Northern Mariana Islands	1980	34.3	56.0	9.7	35.1	60.5	4.4
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands	1980	27.8	60.1	12.1	36.2	58.5	5.2

Note: Data may include population under age 15 years for some countries.

Sources: South Pacific Commission, 1978, table 6; national census reports.

Table 5.8. Percent Single Among Population Ages 15 to 24 and 35 to 44 Years, by Sex, for Pacific Islands

Region and country	Year	Women		Men	
		15 to 24 years	35 to 44 years	15 to 24 years	35 to 44 years
POLYNESIA					
American Samoa	1974	52.6	5.0	87.8	10.3
Cook Islands	1976	84.2	8.2	89.7	12.8
French Polynesia	1977	85.1	23.8	93.5	29.7
Niue	1976	74.5	7.0	83.3	3.9
Tonga	1976	79.7	7.5	91.5	10.0
Tuvalu	1979	83.9	18.0	94.2	11.2
Western Samoa	1976	71.8	2.4	89.0	7.8
MELANESIA					
Fiji	1976	62.4	3.8	80.8	4.9
New Caledonia	1976	71.7	12.6	91.4	19.2
Papua New Guinea	1966	38.8	1.3	76.8	7.2
Solomon Islands	1976	55.0	6.4	83.8	10.9
Vanuatu	1979	65.3	6.1	85.5	11.6
MICRONESIA					
Kiribati	1978	54.7	2.9	75.4	5.9
Northern Mariana Islands	1980	68.2	11.7	(NA)	(NA)
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands	1980	60.5	6.7	(NA)	(NA)

Note: Data for age 15 to 24 years may include population under age 15 years for some countries.

Sources: South Pacific Commission, 1978, table 6; national census reports.

Chapter 6

Fertility and Mortality

ASIA

Motherhood, and particularly the birth of sons, makes a strong positive contribution to the status of women in many Asian countries. A woman gains prestige and authority by bearing sons who will show her obedience and respect and care for her when she is old. In such a social context, the value of a female child may be relatively low, though infant girls are deemed preferable to childlessness, which can occasion divorce or second marriage. In South Asia today, the attitudes which surround the birth of a girl are not very different from what they were a century ago. A daughter's birth does not inspire the rejoicing and distribution of sweets which accompany a son's birth. The major feelings that a daughter's birth evokes are those of increased parental responsibility and hope for a good fate for the girl. A boy's birth generates emotions such as pride, gratification regarding the continuity of the family name, heightened sense of family cohesiveness, and so forth. Some of these attitudes become transformed into differential treatment accorded boys and girls, which in turn is reflected in higher female mortality rates and lower female literacy levels.

An empirical example may serve to illustrate the point. A study of hospital records in a large Indian city showed that of all women who obtained prenatal gender determination, an overwhelming proportion decided to abort the fetus if it was female. In one of the hospitals, all 92 women who consulted the service to find out if their expected child was male or female indicated a desire to abort the fetus if it was female. Conversely, all 92 wanted to retain the baby if its gender was male, even when there was a chance of genetic defect (Ramanamma and Bambawale, 1980). The study authors conclude that selective abortion of female fetuses represents a continuation of earlier social practices of female infanticide and expresses a mania for sons that afflicts the entire Indian society.

Fertility

Emphases on childbearing and male offspring result in high fertility in most Middle South Asian countries; regional differences in crude birth rates and gross and net reproduction rates can readily be seen in figures 6.1 and 6.2. At the same time, contraceptive use is generally less prevalent on and around the Indian subcontinent than in other regions of Asia (see Nortman and Fisher, 1982). Pakistan and Bangladesh have especially high birth rates, with women in these countries producing an average of seven children, about half of whom are daughters. In other words, every mother is replacing herself with three daughters, or potential mothers. High fertility norms and low use of contraception both find support in Islamic religious values as interpreted in these two nations. Furthermore, the Pakistani family planning program has had administrative weaknesses which must be overcome to expedite fertility decline in that country (Robinson, Shah, and Shah, 1981).

While economic and sociocultural norms regarding the desirability of childbearing undoubtedly exist to some extent in other regions, data show that fertility has already reached low levels in East Asia, and has begun to decline rapidly in much of Southeast Asia. The East Asian situation is exemplified by the Taiwanese total fertility rate (TFR) of 2.5 in 1980, with every mother replacing herself with only 1.2 daughters.

Mainland China has been able to bring about a very rapid reduction in fertility over the last 20 or so years; the TFR has declined from approximately 7.0 births per woman in 1964 to 2.7 births in 1981. It appears that China's birth rate has likewise fallen, from roughly 40 per 1,000 population to somewhere in the low twenties. There is a consensus among observers that "the status of women has been improved by more education, more employment, and later marriage, making their position less dependent on their fertility" (Freedman, 1982). Another significant factor in the Chinese fertility decline is the massive family planning program maintained through a network of social and political organization.

Indonesia also has experienced a marked fertility decline in recent years, largely because of its successful family planning program which has achieved relatively high levels of contraceptive use among the poorest, least educated, and most rural segments of the population. The overwhelming majority of women who practice contraception now use modern methods (Freedman, et al., 1981).

The precise regional determinants of fertility change are not easy to isolate since there is much variation across countries. Researchers have studied the cost and value of children, desired and ideal family size, and economic and social development of communities as well as individuals, as some of the factors that are important in fertility decline. A cogent summary of the theoretical ideas can be found in Freedman (1982), wherein the author outlines various cultural, political, economic, and social factors which together with family planning programs determine the pace of fertility decline in a country. Freedman, however, does not mention the status of women or female power and autonomy as separate factors in the transition. An analysis by Dyson and Moore of fertility decline in India is one of the few that explicitly treats female autonomy as a determinant of fertility. The authors conclude that "female social status is probably the single most important element in comprehending India's demographic situation" (Dyson and Moore, 1983). They divide Indian states into two broad cultural areas—north and south. The north has low female autonomy and consistently high fertility; the south (including Kerala) has higher female autonomy and consistently lower fertility.

Age Distribution of Fertility

In countries where age at marriage and contraceptive use are low and childbearing starts shortly after marriage, a larger proportion of total fertility is likely to be contributed by younger women. The mean age of women at childbearing in such countries is generally lower, and the length of time it takes for a generation to replace itself is shorter. Data on the distribution of lifetime fertility according to mother's age, shown in table 6.2 and figure 6.3, indicate that the pattern of childbearing varies considerably across countries. In Hong Kong and South Korea, fertility starts later than in the other countries but is compressed primarily within the ages of 25 to 34 years. Filipino women under age 25 years experience the lowest proportion of total fertility relative to women in other countries, while their counterparts over age 35 years show the highest proportion. In Middle South Asia (except Sri Lanka), as well as in Indonesia and Thailand, roughly one-third of childbearing takes place among women under age 25 years, while another one-fourth to one-fifth takes place at age 35 years and over. Thus, women start childbearing early and continue to have children well after they reach 35 years of age. More recent data for these countries may indicate that a smaller percentage of fertility is now contributed by women under 25 years than before, a pattern similar to other Southeast Asian countries.

Taiwan has an unusually high proportion of births (42 percent) to mothers under the age of 25 years. This is surprising in view of the mean female age at marriage, 23 years, and the rather low TFR of 2.5 children per woman. Table 6.2 shows that in Taiwan family size is essentially complete by the time a woman reaches age 34 years. Childbearing after age 35 years also is relatively uncommon in other East Asian countries.

Lifetime fertility distributions by age of mother for rural and urban areas are available for six Asian nations (table 6.3). As might be expected, a greater proportion of rural than urban fertility generally occurs under age 25 years and over age 35 years. Even in cases such as Nepal and South Korea, where proportions under 25 years of age are higher in urban than rural areas, it should be noted that urban age-specific fertility rates under age 25 are significantly lower than those for rural areas.

Mortality

Differentials in female and male mortality represent a vital indication of the status of women. It is known that during the first year of life boys have higher mortality than girls mainly because of biological factors. Subsequent gender differences in mortality, as well as morbidity, may be largely dependent on differential health care, nutrition, and sociopsychological attention given to male versus female children. A distinct difference in the expectation of life at birth exists between the countries of Middle South Asia (except Sri Lanka) and those of the other subregions. In four Middle South Asian countries—Bangladesh, India, Nepal, and Pakistan—female life expectancy at birth is 2 to 3 years lower than that of men (figure 6.4 and table 6.4), contrary to the pattern in most countries worldwide. Sri Lankan women, on the other hand, have a life expectancy about 3 years higher than men. The largest absolute difference is found in Hong Kong, where women can expect to live 6.5 years longer than men; similar large differences are present in Thailand, the Philippines, South Korea, and Taiwan. As of the mid-1970's, women in Mainland China also had a higher life expectancy than men, although the gap was smaller than in other East Asian countries. Since then, this female advantage may have been reduced by the reported rise in female infanticide associated with governmental efforts to limit couples to one child.

Table 6.4 also shows life expectancy by sex at age 1 year, along with female/male ratios of life expectancy at birth and at age 1 year. In most countries, the ratio declines between birth and age 1, as mortality differentials by sex tend to narrow. Another perspective on early childhood mortality is provided in table 6.5, where female/male differences at two points in time are shown as male gains in life expectancy. For most countries, a male gain between birth and age 1 year represents a lessening of gender differences. In Bangladesh, Nepal, and Pakistan, however, the female/male discrepancy at birth is seen to widen.

The Middle South Asian pattern suggests that women may receive poorer nutrition and health care than men, and data from Bangladesh support this contention. Chen et al. (1981) reported the following differentials in male/female intake of calories and protein:

Age group	Male/female ratio of daily—	
	Caloric consumption	Protein consumption
All ages	1.20	1.21
0 to 4 years	1.16	1.14
5 to 14 years	1.11	1.22
15 to 44 years	1.29	1.25
45 years and over	1.61	1.53

Source: Chen et al., 1981, p. 61.

Boys and men at all ages have higher caloric and protein consumption than women, and the difference increases with age. This study discerned that even during the reproductive ages 15 to 44 years, women are at a disadvantage and consume substantially fewer calories than men. Other research from the region shows a high incidence of maternal mortality. Furthermore, Chen et al. (1981) found a large differential in primary health care provided to male versus female children; while diarrhea attack rates among children of either sex were similar, hospitalization was 66 percent more frequent for boys than for girls. Comparable data on nutritional levels and health care provision are not readily available for other Middle South Asian countries, but observation and experience suggest that the situation is similar to that in Bangladesh.

Male infants have higher mortality than female infants, as mentioned above. Table 6.6 shows that more male than female infants die in all populations except in India, while figure 6.5 provides an indication of regional variations in levels of infant mortality. In Middle South Asia, where overall levels are highest, sex differentials are negligible, with female/male ratios close to unity (see figure 6.6). In East and Southeast Asia, female advantages are obvious. The differential is particularly striking in Thailand, where infant mortality rates for girls and boys are 60 and 92 per 1,000 live births, respectively. These findings suggest that in Middle South Asia, discriminatory treatment against girls starts taking its toll in terms of female life right from birth. In East and Southeast Asia, however, more female infants survive because they are provided adequate care and nutrition. Differences in the proportion of boys and girls who do not survive to age 5 years (table 6.7) reinforce the observation that girls in Middle South Asia have a smaller likelihood of surviving. In India during the mid-1970's, for example, 23 percent of girls versus 19 percent of boys did not survive to age 5 years; a similar pattern can be seen in Bangladesh, Nepal, and Pakistan.

In the other two regions, girls have a much greater likelihood of survival. With two exceptions, the data show that nearly one-fourth of the female infants in Middle South Asian countries die before age 5 years compared to fewer than 10 percent of the Southeast Asian and less than 6 percent of the East Asian female infants. Relative to boys, girls have the largest probability of surviving to age 5 years in South Korea, and the smallest probability in India.

PACIFIC ISLANDS

Fertility and mortality data for the Pacific island countries in this report tend to be uneven. The completeness of vital registration systems varies greatly, and national sample demographic surveys are rare. For instance, only one country (Fiji) carried out such a survey in conjunction with the World Fertility Survey program. To a large extent, fertility and mortality indicators are derived by the application of techniques for indirect estimation of these measures from national census data. Most of the estimates shown in table 6.8 were prepared by the staff of the South Pacific Commission based in Noumea, New Caledonia.

Fertility levels in the Pacific islands have historically been high, with most crude birth rates around 40 per thousand in the early 1900's (see discussion in UNESCAP, 1982d). More recently, a majority of countries have experienced considerable fertility declines because of the introduction of family planning and health services, increasing levels of education and urbanization, and a related shift toward cash incomes in hitherto traditional economies. Fiji offers a prime example of lower growth rates emerging from the interplay of a successful family planning program with later age at marriage, particularly among the Indian population (UNESCAP, 1982a). Population growth has, in some cases, placed severe strain on limited land areas, fostering both emigration and a sense of urgency with regard to fertility control. Emigration can, in turn, produce age and sex imbalances which influence fertility. This seems to have been the case in Tuvalu, where the total fertility rate of 2.8 children per woman is the lowest among Pacific island nations. Other countries that have achieved significant fertility declines include Guam, New Caledonia (where a large European population component contributes to lower fertility), and Kiribati.

While the overall trend in fertility is downward, the pace of change has varied. Of the 15 countries shown in table 6.8 with indications of completed fertility, seven have TFR's of 4.5 or lower, with six between 4.6 and 6.7 children per woman. Little change has been recorded in the Solomon Islands and in the region's largest country, Papua New Guinea, where TFR's were in excess of seven children in the early to mid-1970's. Total fertility has reportedly been stable also in Vanuatu since the mid-1960's, although current data are lacking.

Estimates of crude death rates during the 1970's and early 1980's show that, with the exception of a few countries, levels have fallen well below 10 per 1,000 population. Bakker (1982) suggests that death rates in most of the Polynesian as well as Micronesian and Melanesian countries were quite high—probably 40 per 1,000 population—until the 1920's. Since that time, rates have descended rapidly, with declines in Polynesia preceding those in Micronesia and Melanesia. The three countries in which crude death rates are higher than 10 per thousand are Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, and Wallis and Futuna, countries which also rank highest in total fertility in the Pacific region.

Direct mortality data are often not available by sex. However, analyses of census information have shown that in most countries, male mortality rates are higher than female rates. Excep-

	Life expectancy at birth (in years)		
Country	Year	Male	Female
Tonga	1956	52.0	53.5
	1966	49.5	52.3
Papua New Guinea	1966	40.8	39.4
	1971	48.7	49.7
Cook Islands	1976	63.2	67.1
	1981	64.4	69.9

Sources: Data for Tonga and Papua New Guinea (1966) are from Bakker, 1982. Other figures are from UNESCAP, 1982d.

tions include Vanuatu, Papua New Guinea, and the Solomon Islands, though in the latter case, the gap between the sexes was seen to lessen during the 1970's (UNESCAP, 1982c). Limited data on life expectancy at birth, as shown in the preceding table, provide a glimpse of the wide range in life spans and rates of improvement among Pacific countries. A more definitive exposition of gender differences in mortality must await processing and analysis of 1980 round census results.

Figure 6.1. Crude Birth Rates

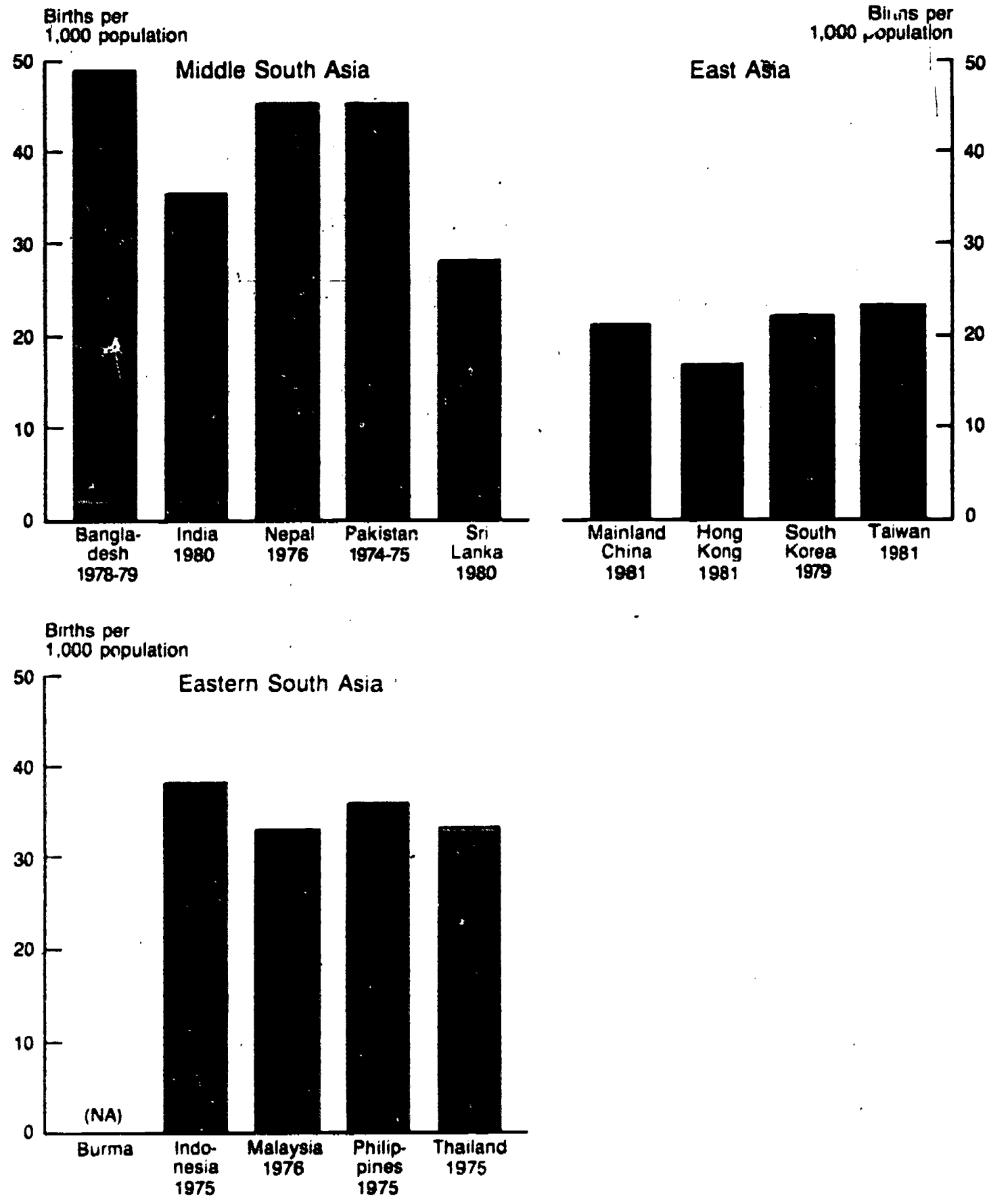


Figure 6.2. Gross and Net Reproduction Rates

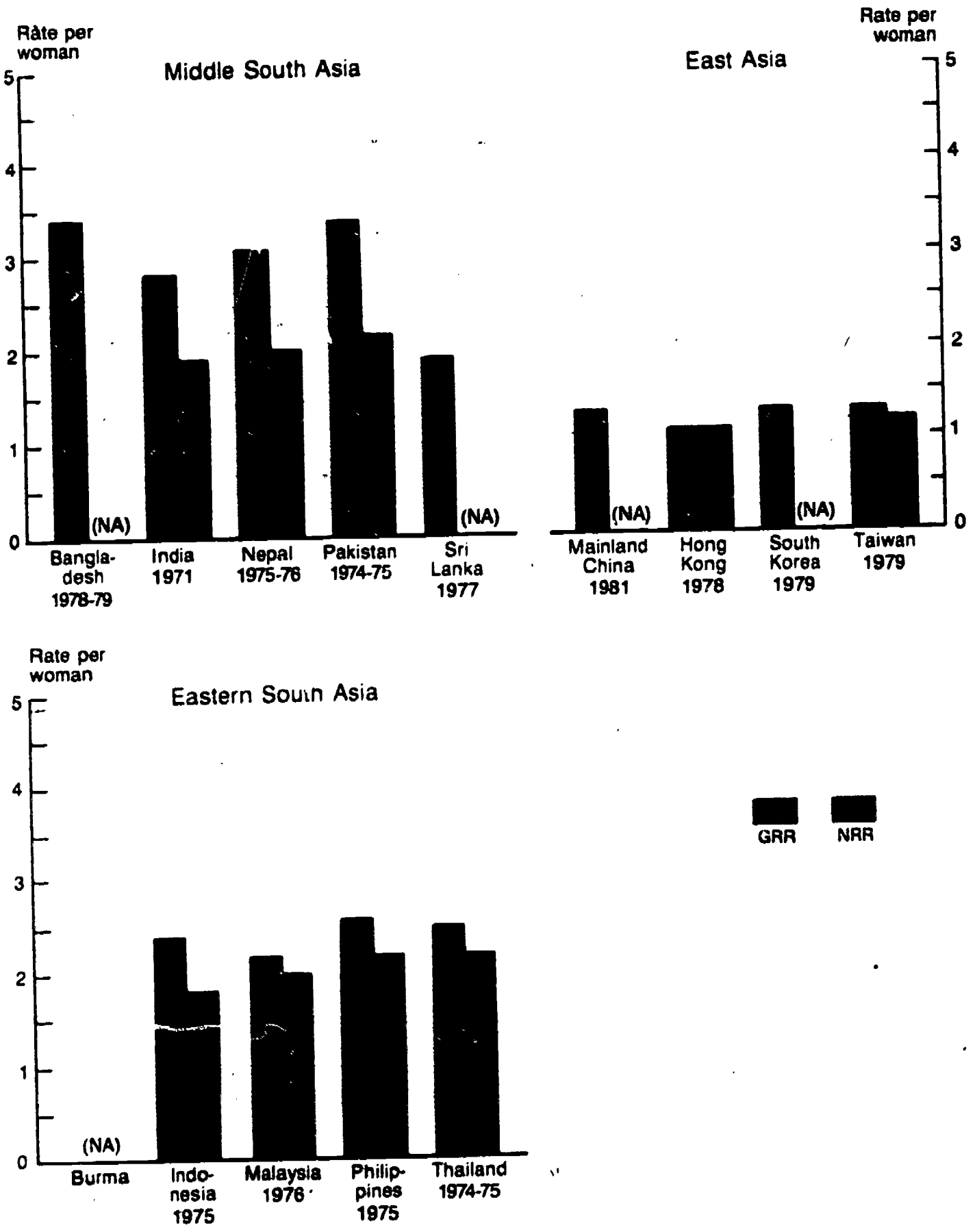


Figure 6.3. Distribution of Lifetime Fertility, by Age of Mother

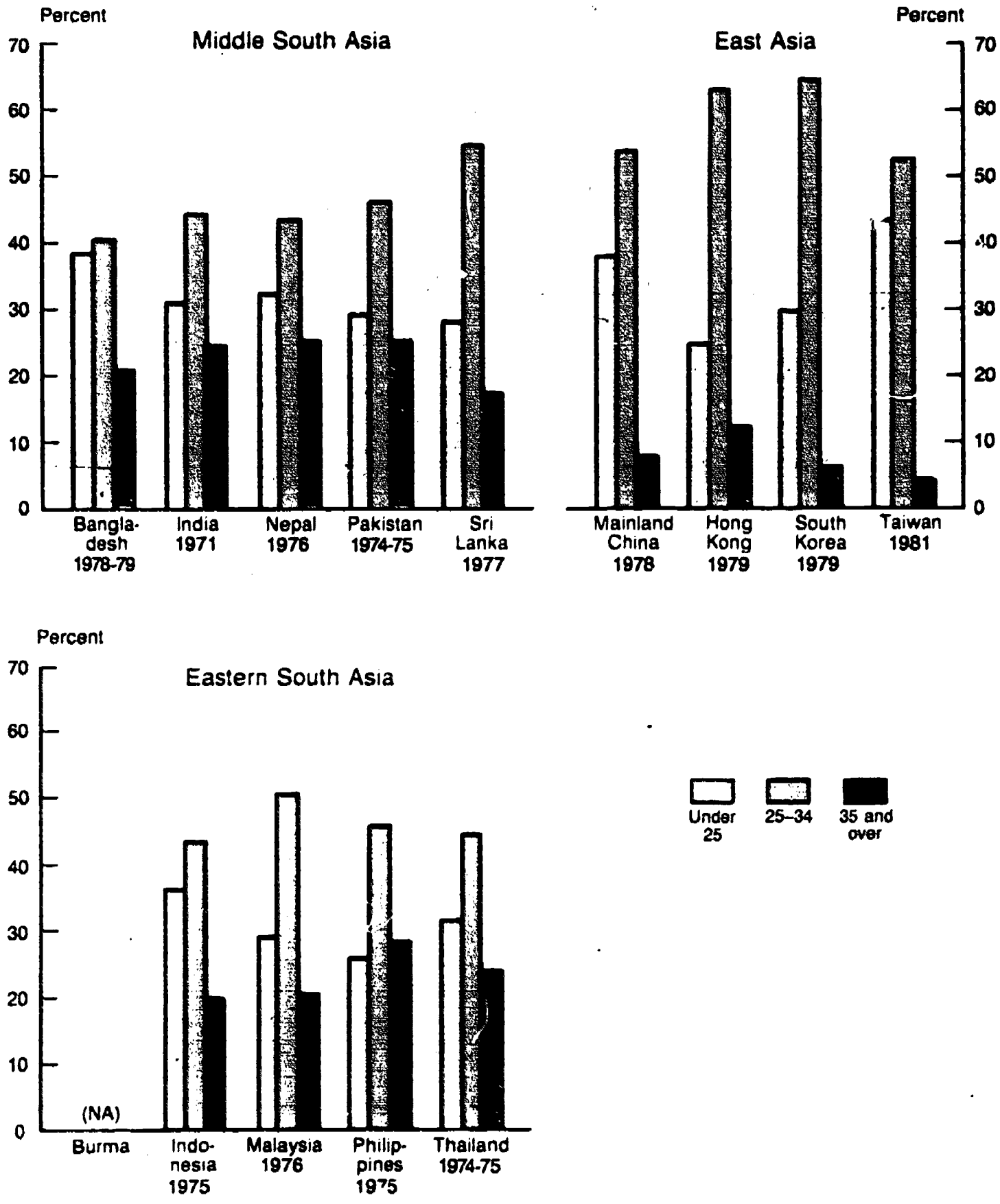


Figure 6.4. Life Expectancy at Birth for Women and Men

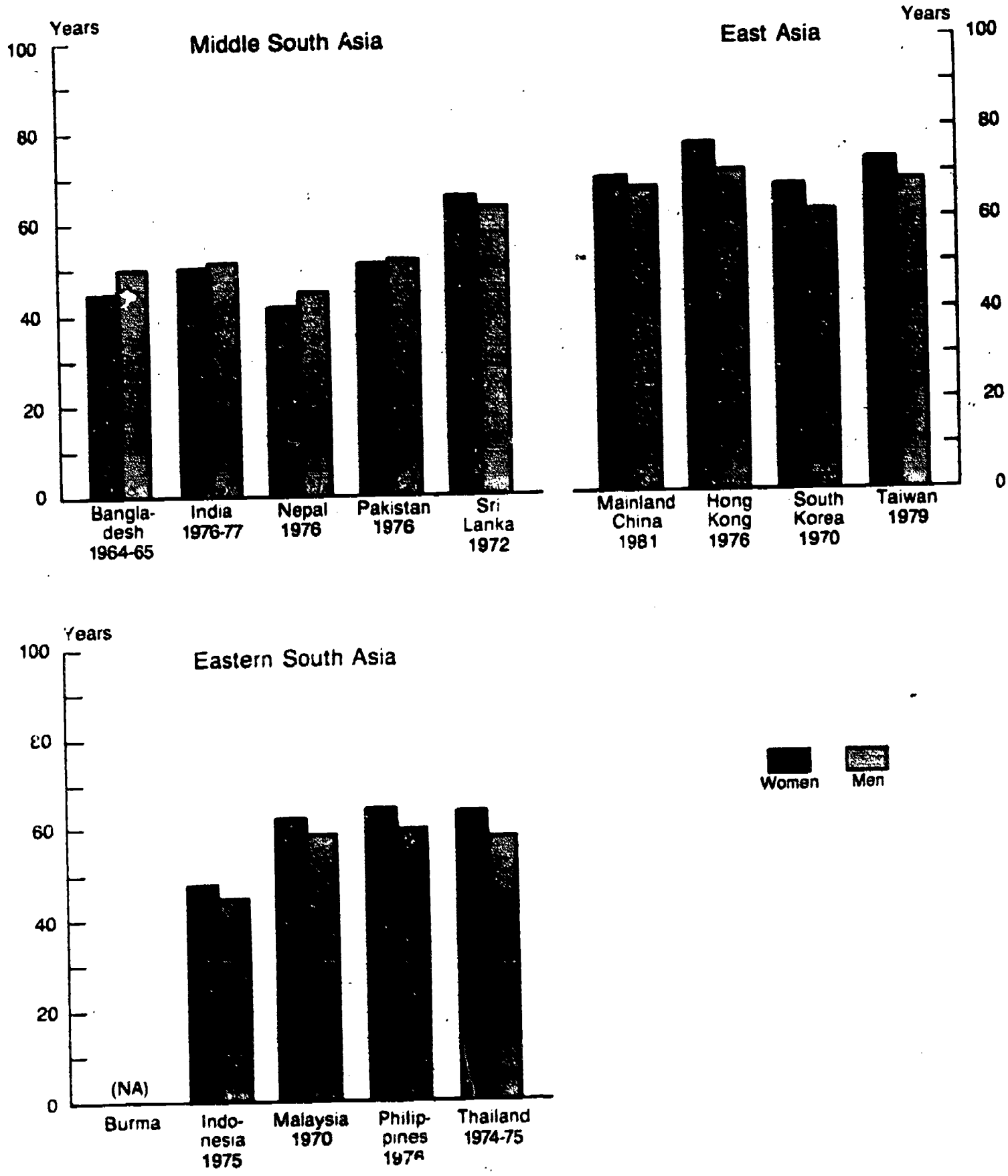


Figure 6.5. Infant Mortality Rates

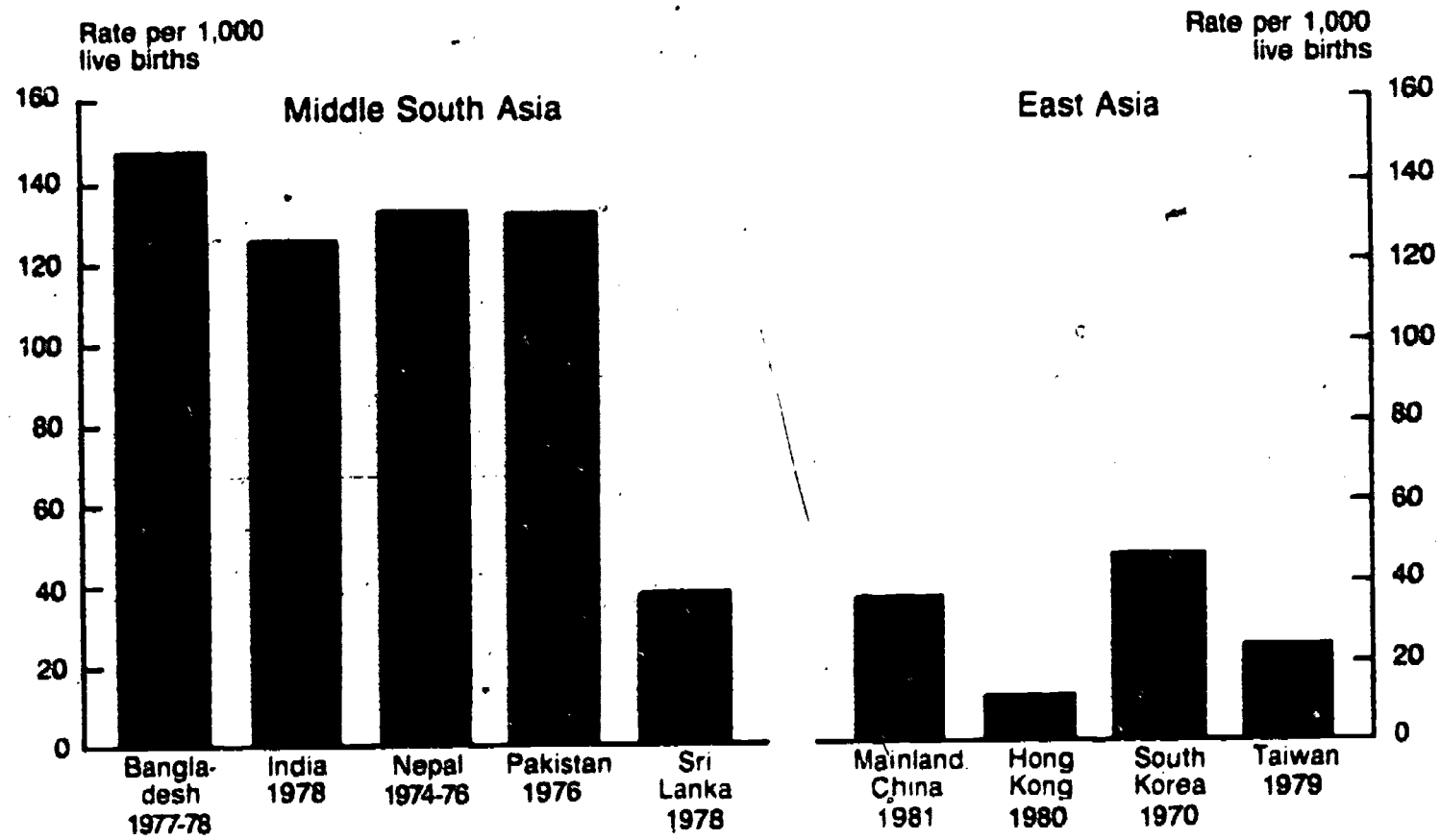
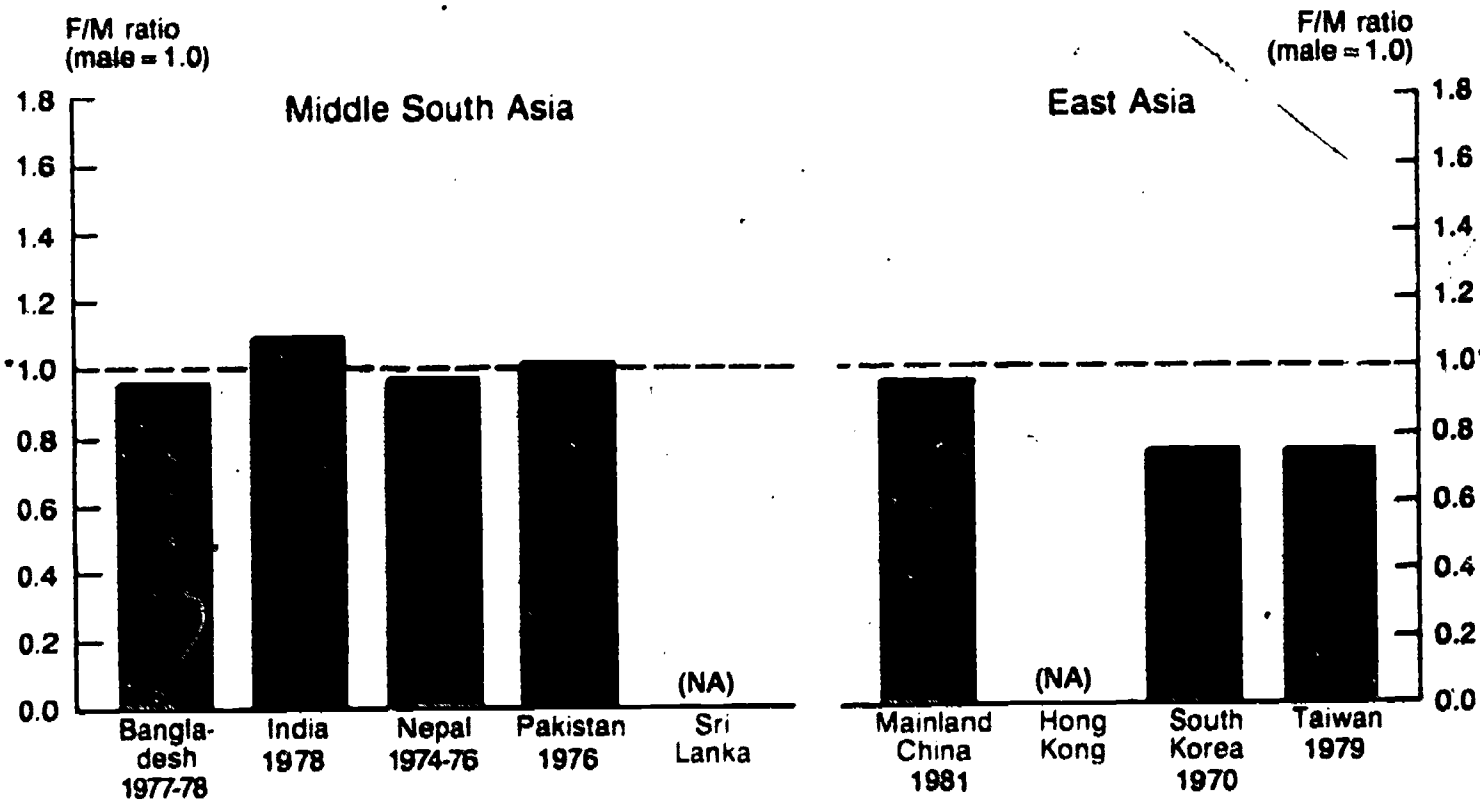


Figure 6.6. Female/Male Ratio of Infant Mortality Rates



*Female rate equals male rate.

Figure 6.7. Proportion of Children Dying Before Their Fifth Birthday, by Sex

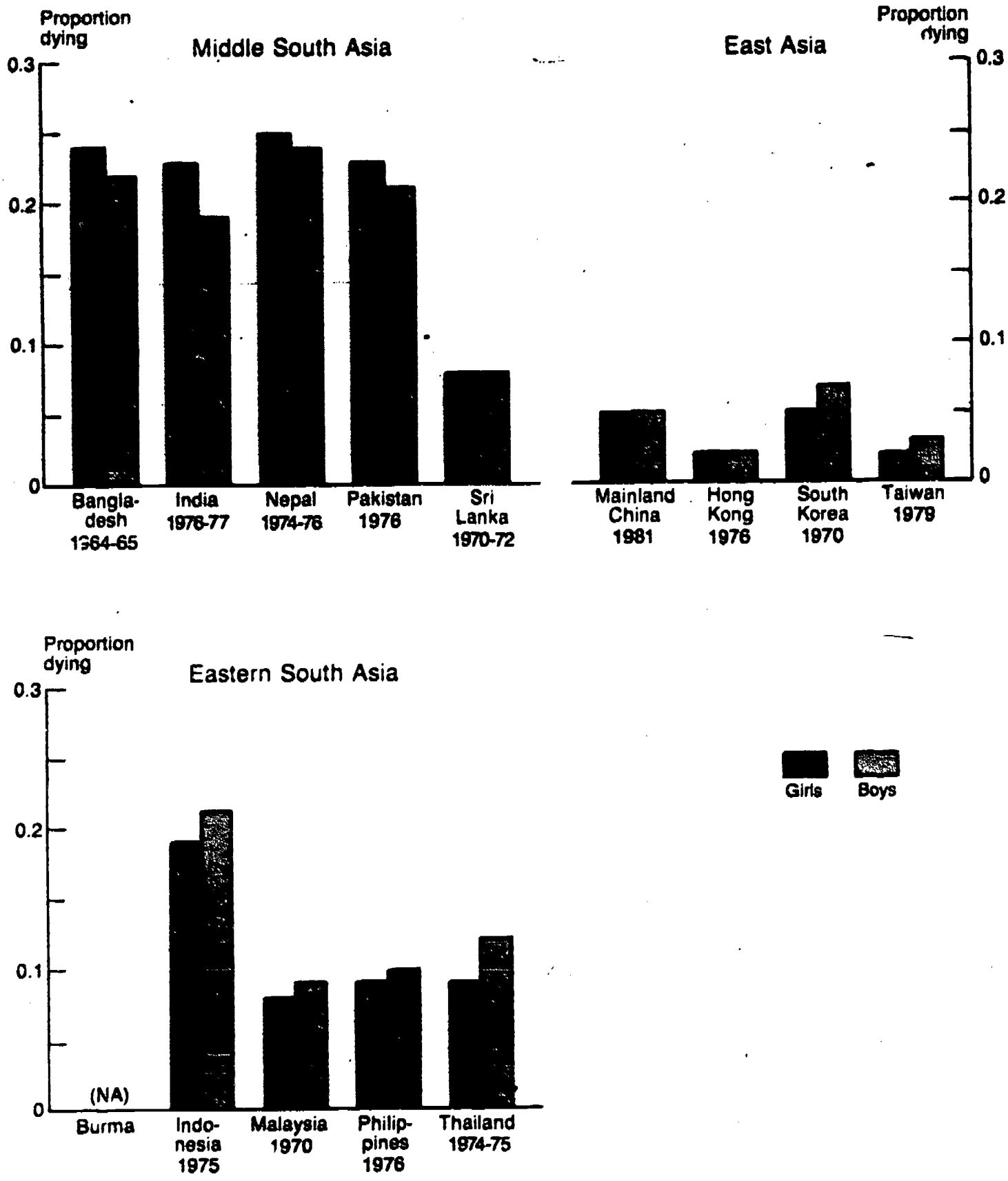


Table 6.1. Crude Birth Rate, Total Fertility Rate, Gross Reproduction Rate, and Net Reproduction Rate, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Year	CBR	TFR	GRR	NRR
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1978-79	49	7.0	3.4	(NA)
India	1971	[1]35	5.7	2.8	1.9
Nepal	1976	45	6.4	3.1	[2]2.0
Pakistan	1974-75	45	7.0	3.4	2.2
Sri Lanka	1977	28	3.8	1.9	(NA)
EAST ASIA					
China					
Mainland	1981	21	2.7	1.3	(NA)
Taiwan	1980	23	2.5	1.2	1.2
Hong Kong	1981	17	2.0	1.1	1.1
South Korea	1979	22	2.6	1.3	(NA)
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1975	38	5.0	2.4	1.8
Malaysia	1976	33	4.6	2.2	2.0
Philippines	1977	35	5.0	2.4	2.1
Thailand	1974-75	[2]33	5.2	2.5	2.2

[1]Refers to 1980.
[2]Refers to 1975.

Table 6.2. Percent Distribution of Lifetime Fertility, by Age of Mother, for Asian Countries

(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)

Region and country	Year	Total	Under 25 years	25 to 34 years	35 years and over
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1978-79	100.0	38.6	40.7	20.7
India	1971	100.0	31.7	44.1	24.2
Nepal	1976	100.0	32.6	43.1	24.3
Pakistan	1974-75	100.0	29.5	46.2	24.3
Sri Lanka	1977	100.0	28.0	54.9	17.1
EAST ASIA					
China					
Mainland	1981	100.0	37.4	53.9	8.7
Taiwan	1980	100.0	42.3	53.5	4.2
Hong Kong	1981	100.0	25.0	64.3	10.7
South Korea	1979	100.0	28.9	64.5	6.6
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1975	100.0	36.6	43.5	19.9
Malaysia	1976	100.0	29.1	50.6	20.4
Philippines	1977	100.0	24.5	47.7	27.9
Thailand	1974-75	100.0	32.0	44.3	23.7

Table 6.3. Percent Distribution of Lifetime Fertility, by Age of Mother and Rural/Urban Residence, for Asian Countries

(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)

Region and country	Year	Rural				Urban			
		All ages	Under 25 years	25 to 34 years	35 years and over	All ages	Under 25 years	25 to 34 years	35 years and over
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA									
India	1969	100.0	32.0	43.9	24.1	100.0	30.7	45.2	24.1
Nepal	1976	100.0	32.6	43.1	24.3	100.0	37.3	43.4	19.3
EAST ASIA									
China									
Taiwan	1980	100.0	44.6	51.1	4.2	100.0	41.0	55.2	3.8
South Korea	1979	100.0	26.7	65.4	7.9	100.0	30.0	65.0	5.0
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA									
Philippines	1977	100.0	25.4	46.7	27.9	100.0	23.8	51.0	25.2
Thailand	1974-75	100.0	33.4	42.6	24.1	100.0	24.2	52.2	23.6

Table 6.4. Life Expectancy at Birth and at Age 1 Year for Women and Men, and Female/Male Ratio of Life Expectancy, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Year	At birth			At age 1		
		Women	Men	F/M ratio (male= 1.00)	Women	Men	F/M ratio (male= 1.00)
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA							
Bangladesh	1964-65	46.9	49.5	0.95	53.7	57.2	0.94
India	1976-77	50.0	50.8	0.98	56.7	57.2	0.99
Nepal	1976	41.8	44.7	0.94	47.0	50.6	0.93
Pakistan	1976	50.7	51.4	0.99	57.4	58.2	0.99
Sri Lanka	1972	65.8	62.9	1.05	68.0	65.5	1.04
EAST ASIA							
China							
Mainland[1]	1981	69.4	66.4	1.04	70.8	67.9	1.04
Taiwan	1979	73.5	68.3	1.08	74.0	69.0	1.07
Hong Kong	1976	76.8	70.3	1.09	76.8	70.3	1.09
South Korea	1970	67.5	61.6	1.10	69.3	64.1	1.08
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA							
Indonesia	1975	47.8	45.0	1.06	52.4	50.2	1.04
Malaysia	1970	62.1	58.6	1.06	64.6	61.6	1.05
Philippines	1976	64.4	59.5	1.08	67.2	63.0	1.07
Thailand	1974-75	63.6	57.6	1.10	66.6	62.4	1.07

[1]Data for Mainland China are from official life tables (Zheng-hua et al., 1984). Estimates derived at the U.S. Bureau of the Census based on an integrated evaluation of various census and survey data suggest lower levels of life expectancy and virtually no gender difference in life expectancy at birth.

Table 6.5. Number of Years Women May Expect to Outlive Men at Birth and at Age 1 Year, and Male Gains in Life Expectancy Between Birth and Age 1 Year, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Year	Female/male difference at birth (years)	Female/male difference at 1 year (years)	Male gains between birth and 1 year
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA				
Bangladesh	1964-65	-2.6	-3.5	0.9
India	1976-77	-0.8	-0.5	-0.3
Nepal	1976	-2.9	-3.6	0.7
Pakistan	1976	-0.7	-0.8	0.1
Sri Lanka	1972	2.9	2.5	0.4
EAST ASIA				
China				
Mainland[1]	1981	2.9	2.9	0.0
Taiwan	1979	5.2	5.0	0.2
Hong Kong	1976	6.5	6.5	0.0
South Korea	1970	5.9	5.2	0.7
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA				
Indonesia	1975	2.8	2.2	0.6
Malaysia	1970	3.5	3.0	0.5
Philippines	1976	4.9	4.2	0.7
Thailand	1974-75	6.0	4.2	1.8

[1]Estimates for Mainland China are based on official life tables (Zheng-hua et al., 1984). Estimates derived at the U.S. Bureau of the Census based on an integrated evaluation of various census and survey data suggest a female/male difference of only 0.2 years at birth, widening to 1.7 years at age 1 year.

Table 6.6. Infant Mortality Rates per 1,000 Live Births, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of Infant Mortality Rates, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Year	Total	Girls	Boys	F/M ratio (male = 1.00)
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	1977-78	148	145	151	0.96
India	1978	125	131	120	1.09
Nepal	1974-76	133	130	135	0.96
Pakistan	1976	132	132	132	1.00
Sri Lanka	1978	38	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
EAST ASIA					
China					
Mainland[1]	1981	35	34	36	0.95
Taiwan	1979	24	20	27	0.74
Hong Kong	1980	11	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
South Korea	1970	47	40	54	0.74
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA					
Indonesia	1975	114	106	122	0.87
Malaysia	1975	35	30	39	0.77
Philippines	1976	64	56	72	0.78
Thailand	1974-75	76	60	92	0.65

[1]Estimates for Mainland China are from official life tables (Zheng-hua et al., 1984). Estimates derived at the U.S. Bureau of the Census based on an integrated evaluation of various census and survey data suggest female and male infant mortality rates of 58 and 35 per 1,000 live births, respectively (female/male ratio of 1.66).

Table 6.7. Proportion of Children Dying Before Their Fifth Birthday, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio or Proportion Dying, for Asian Countries

Region and country	Year	Girls	Boys	F/M ratio (male = 1.00)
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA				
Bangladesh	1964-65	0.24	0.22	1.10
India	1976-77	0.23	0.19	1.19
Nepal	1974-76	0.25	0.24	1.03
Pakistan	1976	0.23	0.21	1.13
Sri Lanka	1970-72	0.06	0.08	0.94
EAST ASIA				
China				
Mainland[1]	1981	0.05	0.05	1.00
Taiwan	1979	0.02	0.03	0.75
Hong Kong	1976	0.02	0.02	0.81
South Korea	1970	0.05	0.07	0.73
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA				
Indonesia	1975	0.19	0.21	0.90
Malaysia	1970	0.08	0.09	0.89
Philippines	1976	0.09	0.10	0.83
Thailand	1974-75	0.09	0.12	0.78

Note: Female/male ratios are based on unrounded proportions.

[1]Estimates for Mainland China are based on official life tables (Zheng-hua et al., 1984). Estimates derived at the U.S. Bureau of the Census based on an integrated evaluation of various census and survey data suggest that 8 percent of Mainland Chinese girls die before reaching age 5.

Table 6.8. Crude Birth Rate, Crude Death Rate, and Total Fertility Rate, for Pacific Islands

Region and country	Year	Crude birth rate	Crude death rate	Year	Total fertility rate
POLYNESIA					
American Samoa	1980	34	5	1971-73	5.4
Cook Islands	1981	26	6	1976	4.5
French Polynesia	1977-79	31	7	1977	4.4
Niue	1971-76	26	7	1971-76	4.3
Tonga	1976	31	10	1975	4.9
Tuvalu	1979	25	11	1979	2.8
Wallis and Futuna	1978	37	[1]9	1974-78	6.5
Western Samoa	1971-76	37	8	1971-76	6.7
MELANESIA					
Fiji	1976	[2]29	7	1976	4.0
New Caledonia	1980	26	7	1975-77	4.1
Papua New Guinea	1971	45-48	(NA)	1971	7.1
Solomon Islands	1976	45	12	1971-76	7.3
MICRONESIA					
Guam	1981	27	4	1977	3.8
Kiribati	1978	35	14	1978	4.7
Nauru	1979	21	5		(NA)
Northern Mariana Islands	1980	35	4		(NA)
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands	1980	33	5	1978	4.6-5.0

[1]Refers to 1975.
[2]Refers to 1980.

Sources: South Pacific Commission, 1982; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983; UNESCAP, 1982d.

Chapter 7

Conclusions

Since national censuses and surveys are nearly universal in coverage, they produce theoretically comprehensive data on various socioeconomic characteristics of population. During the 3 to 4 years following the period in which they are gathered, these data offer four major advantages to the planner and decisionmaker concerned with the integration of women into the development process. First, they afford a periodic snapshot of the situation of women with respect to the indicators discussed in the preceding chapters: education and training; economic activity and occupation; urbanization and migration; housing and living arrangements; and marital status, fertility, and mortality. Levels and patterns of these indicators among women signal to the planner the need for special attention to a particular sector, and where female/male ratios are a routine part of the analysis, point out those sectors in which women are facing particular problems or are at a specific disadvantage.

Second, national-level data lend themselves to disaggregation by geographic area and/or ethnic or other socioeconomic or cultural characteristics, which makes it possible to identify for further analysis population subgroups with special problems. For example, female urban migrants may be of particular concern to the decisionmaker; although information bearing directly on migration may not be obtainable from the census, related census data would generally permit one to identify for further analysis those urban women whose current residence differs from their place of birth. Such disaggregation allows a more focused program planning, and also may identify subgroups or subjects about which more detailed studies may be needed.

Third, when such data are gathered, analyzed, and published with reasonable promptness, regularity, and consistency, they allow the planner to distinguish between persistent and newly arising problem areas, and to chart the nation's progress, or lack thereof, in improving access to its resources for the female half of the population.

Finally, because most countries follow international guidelines for census definitions, concepts, and data collection methods, the data themselves may be internationally comparable to some extent, affording the planner and decisionmaker insight into the situation of the nation's women relative to women in other countries at a similar level of economic development.

In spite of these obvious planning advantages associated with census and survey information, there exist a number of problems concerning the utility of such data for constructing indicators on the status of women. A basic difficulty encountered in using data from a census or survey is that these instruments rarely provide any direct measures of change. When assessing women's situation, data gathered at two or preferably three points in time are necessary to establish trends with any degree of confidence. However, as mentioned in appendix B, several Asian countries have yet to conduct two (or even one) useful national investigations. Furthermore, changes in classifications and definitions from one census to the next can make the assembly of data from two or three censuses into a comparable data set an extremely frustrating effort. Results often are not comparable either across countries or between two censuses in the same country, thereby necessitating intricate demographic adjustment. The difficulties in attempting to construct time series data from census sources are, of course, not confined to information on women. Because the WID Data Base does not include many 1960 census round data, these problems did not arise in the present analysis. As newer data are added, however, there may be tedious obstacles to overcome in order to make the information comparable from one period to the next.

So far as primary demographic information is concerned, disaggregations by sex, age, and rural/urban residence still leave one with extremely crude categories. Moreover, definitions of rural and urban areas differ markedly not only among countries, but sometimes between censuses in the same country, making it difficult to carry out either international comparisons or rural/urban studies over time. Age data, too, are unreliable in many countries, particularly for female infants and elderly women in the population. Demographers have devised ingenious

statistical methods to improve age data, but censal undercounting of children, especially female infants, needs to be rectified (Nortman and Fisher, 1982).

Any generalizations made about disaggregations by age and residence without further refinements may be misleading, even when the data are complete and accurate. Additional cross-tabulations, for example by language, ethnic group, and religion, were contemplated for the WID Data Base, but the complexity of the overall task and the paucity of data for many countries led to the postponement of such detail for a possible later effort. Socioeconomic class is a crucial variable that a census can deal with only by inference; the problem is that information on which to base any socioeconomic classification (in addition to language and ethnic affiliation, such factors as income, occupation or profession, and land ownership are useful) also is deficient, especially in the case of women. In sum, country-level data can provide useful information on orders of magnitude, but further disaggregations are needed beyond sex, age, and residence in order to construct truly discriminating indicators. It will be helpful if the WID Data Base in the future can incorporate additional variables to enable the rather crude categories in the present 19 data tables to be refined.

Education variables in the WID Data Base, literacy and current enrollment, are somewhat ambiguous measures of educational level, for reasons that were discussed in chapter 3. Complementary statistics that could be incorporated in the future include educational attainment as well as data on dropout rates by sex. It would be useful to have additional information on women enrolled in (and graduated from) the regular secondary school curriculum versus vocational education, and on the university levels in which women are enrolled or from which women have graduated. Such detailed information is not always available from the population census and should be complemented whenever possible with statistics from other sources.

Household headship data often are quite unreliable. As indicated in chapter 5, there can be cultural reasons for designating any man in residence as the household head. Additionally, because of the implications of inequality in the notion of headship, there has been a movement to eliminate head of household designations from the census questionnaire. From the point of view of feminist sensitivities, the elimination makes sense, but the loss of the head of household category would mean that an important indicator of women's status will no longer be available.

Questions on women's economic activities (for example, of what their productive work consists and how it should be measured) have elicited the greatest amount of comment and concern, both in written articles and reports and in conferences and meetings. Unless and until there are major changes in the definition of work, the referenced time period, the hours worked, and in accounting for the multiplicity of women's economic roles, women's economic activities will remain undercounted in censuses and labor force surveys. This is true with respect to both their nonmarket productive work within the household, and their remunerated work outside the home. No suggestion is being made here that all of women's activities should be assigned a market value and counted but, as the International Center for Research on Women and others have suggested, at a minimum a useful definition of home production would include those activities that have the potential of being transferred to the marketplace. Additionally, careful attention must be paid to women's employment in the informal sector, to questions of underemployment and unemployment (Youssef, 1983), and to the category of unpaid family worker.

In the meantime, it will be important to employ approaches in other kinds of surveys that capture the full range of women's economic activities. Because rural women often undervalue their contribution and do not consider their work economic, they may be queried about a list of activities that women engage in, rather than asking them if they work. In addition, because women's work is often seasonal, their activities may be examined both during the cycle of the family's principal cash crop and at the time of the survey. A growing number of studies are utilizing such techniques.

More accurate information on fertility and mortality rates, as well as on life expectancy levels, depends not only on censuses and special surveys but, in the long term, on improvement in vital statistics registration. These are matters over which the compilers of data bases have little control, and they can only hope that recent trends in the improvement of such statistics will continue as the population is encouraged to report the births and deaths of all family members to the proper authorities.

Numerous recommendations for more accurate measurement of women's status have been put forth, with an eye toward alternative concepts and operational definitions as well as improved use of existing data and techniques. Excellent synopses of the latest thinking are offered by both Powers (1983) and Youssef (1983). As sentiment builds for better treatment of data describing women's situation, additional concerns for comparability and cost also arise. Comparability has a number of dimensions: data collection procedures, concepts and definitions, subjects covered, eligibility of respondents, wording of the questions and the order in which they are asked, amount of probing allowed or encouraged, training of enumerators, data processing procedures, preparation of tabulations (variables, cross-tabulations, levels of geographic disaggregation, population subgroups, and so forth), and reports made available to the public. While there is room for improvement in all of these areas, economic pressures in many developing countries often hinder the expansion and increased effectiveness of data gathering and processing institutions. It may well be that for selected detailed investigations of population subgroups, special studies and small scale surveys are more appropriate than extensive cross-tabulations of national data.

Furthermore, while the monitoring of change requires a certain level of comparability among data collected at different times, information also must be relevant to current policy decisions and emerging national priorities. Completely static concepts and methodologies are neither realistic nor desirable; some trade-off between stability and change is inevitable. Observers monitoring the status of women as development proceeds have the dual responsibilities of identifying what is essential in both and of informing decisionmakers in a convincing fashion.

Appendix A

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Appendix B

Sources of Data

For Asian countries, the primary source of the statistical data analyzed in this handbook is the WID Data Base created by the Center for International Research, U.S. Bureau of the Census, under the auspices of USAID. A list of table titles for which data were compiled by sex and rural/urban residence may be found in appendix C. For the Pacific islands, which were not included in the WID Data Base, most of the statistics are derived from national census reports and publications of the South Pacific Commission. Because data for the Pacific islands often do not conform to the format of the Asian data, the charts in this report cover only the Asian countries.

Selection and Quality of Data

As is well known, there are vast differences in both the quantity and the quality of statistics reported by the various countries. Furthermore, in spite of international recommendations, such as those provided by the United Nations, for the standardization of concepts and definitions pertaining to data collected in censuses and surveys, there continue to be wide discrepancies in data collection practices because of legitimate differences of what is appropriate in the varying cultural contexts. As a result, any attempt to compile standard data across countries, such as those in the WID Data Base, requires some decisions about whether and how the reported data should be manipulated so as to provide comparability. Certainly there is not a single right solution to this problem, but it is essential to set rules from the start so that consistent decisions are made whenever similar data situations are encountered among countries.

The standards used in selecting and evaluating data for inclusion in the data base depend to some extent on the type of data being considered. For the demographic subjects, only data of benchmark quality are included. The concept of benchmark data refers to statistics (as reported by the country, as adjusted by researchers, or as derived by applying demographic techniques to incomplete data) which have been evaluated by the Census Bureau analysts and have been judged to be as representative as possible of the true situation. These data are internally consistent for a given country (for example, birth rates, death rates, international migration rates, population growth rates, and age/sex composition all fit together in a logical demographic pattern) and are consistent with other facts that are known about the country (for example, fertility levels are consistent with family planning practices and goals, and mortality levels are consistent with known health indexes).

These data also have been checked for external consistency. They have been compared to data for other countries in the same region or subregion, and to those elsewhere at approximately the same level of economic and social development, to ensure that they are not out of line. Benchmark data refer to the date on which the census or survey was taken or registration occurred; no projections beyond the reference date are included among them.

Demographic data that do not conform to these rigid benchmark requirements are generally not included in the data base. The source and method of derivation of the estimates are explained in the notes accompanying each table.

For socioeconomic variables (data on households, marital status, education, and economic activity), less rigid requirements were placed on the accuracy of the data. No techniques have been applied to evaluate the quality of the data in the socioeconomic tables, and most of these statistics are presented as they appear in the original sources. Nevertheless, the same care has been taken to annotate the sources and to explain any discrepancies in totals or deviations from standard international practices.

Concepts and Definitions

Concepts and definitions usually are not standardized among countries beyond what has already been done by the countries themselves for two reasons: first, the information is usually not available to manipulate the data to conform to standard concepts, and second, the differing concepts or definitions are often deliberately developed for each country's particular situation. For example, a country with only a few small urban centers needs a different definition of urban than a country that is already predominantly urban. On the other hand, nearly all countries define literacy as the ability to read and write, although some countries include additional requirements such as the ability to

write a simple statement about everyday life, or the ability to read and write a specific language.

Although in the WID Data Base no attempt has been made to standardize the definitions of concepts such as urban, literacy, or economic activity, and such data are presented as reported by the country, all tables are nevertheless annotated, specifying the definition used by the country for these concepts and others such as nationality, household, and school enrollment. Thus, in all cases, the user has the opportunity to examine a fairly substantial set of notes that may help to explain any apparent discrepancies in the statistics from one country to another.

Time Period

For the basic distribution of the population by age and sex, information is included in the data base for the latest 2 census years. Most of the tables present data for the latest year available at the time of compilation. For countries whose data were compiled at an early stage of the project, updated tables presenting later statistics have been added to the file.

Some tables, for which a measure of change is most relevant and most readily available, present a time series of data. This is done for the various measures of mortality and fertility, where all available benchmark data since 1970 are presented; in a few cases where no post-1970 data are available, the latest post-1960 estimate is given for these measures.

Most often, the 1970 round of population censuses serves as the major source of the data presented. However, 1980-round data are given whenever these are available. Reliable surveys are also used to supplement census data.

Auxiliary Measures

Users may choose to manipulate the data to derive additional rates and ratios to measure the status of women in the various subject areas covered in the data base, and this has sometimes been done in the analytical portions of this handbook. These measures may be designed to compare the position of women versus men with respect to a particular topic, or they may relate women in a particular category to all persons in the same category.

For example, the percent literate is shown in the data base for women and men; another measure may be derived to present the female/male ratio of the percent literate. A similar ratio can be devised for other topics such as the female/male ratio of the percent urban, the female/male ratio of the labor force participation rate, and so on.

In the other instance, to analyze women's share in a particular category or activity, the data can be used to calculate the percent of all persons with a given characteristic who are women. For example, it may be useful to calculate the female share of the rural labor force in a developing country. This measure would be derived using the number of economically active rural women as the numerator and the number of economically active rural persons of both sexes as the denominator. Such a measure might also be derived separately for various age groups or for any other characteristic.

Of course, more conventional percent distributions also are useful in many instances, such as a percent distribution of women by marital status. Sometimes, just one percentage is a useful measure across countries, such as the percent single among women age 20 to 24 years. Many of these derived measures lend themselves easily to graphic presentation as well.

Data Availability

Given the criteria established for the selection of statistics for the WID Data Base, it is not surprising that not all data were available for all countries. In many cases, even when data of appropriate quality were available, they often did not fit the established categories exactly. In order to provide a summary of the amount and standardized nature of the statistics in the data base, a tally was made of the number of rows and columns of data in each table, and these results were compared to the number of rows and columns in each standard table outline. The tally for Asian countries is summarized in table B.1.

Ordinarily, each country has 31 tables of data (in appendix C there are 19 table numbers, but several tables have parts A, B, and C, totalling 31 tables). If updated information has been added, certain table numbers appear more than once, giving some countries more than 31 tables. A standard table is one whose number of rows and columns conforms to the outline. An actual table may be nonstandard for trivial reasons, for example, because a single age category was different from the outline; or it may be nonstandard in significant ways, for example, because data for only a total row were available when considerably more detail was intended. A frequent reason for a classification as nonstandard is the lack of a rural/urban breakdown of the data.

In the case of three countries, namely Kampuchea, North Korea, and Vietnam, virtually no data at all were found although these nations were nominally included in the WID Data Base. For this reason, they were excluded from the analysis in this report. In other cases, no data were found on a particular topic for a given country, as represented by the number of blank tables indicated on table B.1. The amount of missing data is especially notable for Burma and Mainland China, although the latter's recent release of 1982 census data has permitted inclusion of statistics throughout this report. These data are presently being integrated into the WID Data Base. With respect to particular topics, data on heads of household by sex are especially lacking. Further discussion of the quality and availability of data may be found in each chapter where the subject matter is presented in detail.

Additional information on the WID Data Base, including how to access the computer file or obtain hard copy printouts, may be obtained by addressing the Chief, Center for International Research, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. 20233.

Table B-1. Number of Tables in WID Data Base, by Country and Category

Region and country	Total	Standard	Nonstandard	Blank
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA				
Bangladesh.....	32	9	18	5
India.....	33	9	19	5
Nepal.....	46	9	28	9
Pakistan.....	34	18	12	4
Sri Lanka.....	45	17	23	5
EAST ASIA				
China				
Mainland.....	31	0	14	17
Taiwan.....	33	1	23	9
Hong Kong.....	35	0	28	7
South Korea.....	44	6	34	4
EASTERN SOUTH ASIA				
Burma.....	31	1	6	24
Indonesia.....	35	13	20	2
Malaysia.....	32	9	19	4
Philippines.....	38	12	22	4
Thailand.....	37	11	21	5

Appendix C

Tables in Women in Development Data Base

The Women in Development Data Base (see discussion in appendix B) contains the following tables for each of 120 countries worldwide. For most tables, statistics for each country refer to the latest available year. Exceptions are tables 1 and 2, which are presented for the latest two census years, and tables 8, 14A, and 14B, for which data are presented for a series of years. For some countries, updated tables are included if new information became available after the initial data were compiled. For further information on the WID Data Base, write the Chief, Center for International Research, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. 20233.

Tables

1. Unadjusted Population by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____. (earlier census)
2. Unadjusted Population by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____. (latest census)
3. Adjusted Population by Age and Sex, 19____. (earlier census)
4. Adjusted Population by Age and Sex, 19____. (latest census)
5. Population by Province, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

6A. Population by Ethnic Group, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

6B. Population by Religion, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

6C. Population by Nationality, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

6D. Population by Language, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

7. Life Expectancy at Selected Ages, by Sex and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

8. Selected Mortality Measures, by Sex and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____ to 19____.

9. Percent of Native-born Population Born Outside of Province of Current Residence, by Age and Sex, 19____.

10A. Total Population 10 Years Old and Over, by Marital Status, Age, and Sex, 19____.

10B. Urban Population 10 Years Old and Over, by Marital Status, Age, and Sex, 19____.

10C. Rural Population 10 Years Old and Over, by Marital Status, Age, and Sex, 19____.

11. Minimum Legal Age at Marriage and Age at which Specified Percent Are Ever Married, by Sex and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

12. Number of Households by Size, Mean Size, and Median Size, by Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

13. Heads of Household 10 Years Old and Over, by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

14A. Age-Specific Fertility Rates (per 1000 women), by Urban/Rural Residence, 19____ to 19____.

14B. Selected Fertility Measures, by Urban/Rural Residence, 19____ to 19____.

15A. Number of Literate Persons 10 Years Old and Over, by Age, Sex, anc Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

15B. Population Bases for Percentages in Table 15C, 19____.

15C. Percentage Literate 10 Years Old and Over, by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

16A. Number of Persons Enrolled in School 5 to 24 Years Old, by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

16B. Population Bases for Percentages in Table 16C, 19____.

16C. Percentage Enrolled in School 5 to 24 Years Old, by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

17A. Number of Economically Active Persons 10 Years Old and Over, by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

17B. Population Bases for Percentages in Table 17C, 19____.

17C. Percentage Economically Active 10 Years Old and Over, by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

18. Economically Active Population by Status in Employment, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

19. Income Distribution and Median Income, by Sex and Urban/Rural Residence, 19____.

Appendix D

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence

Many of the tables and figures in this report present rates and ratios for the population in particular age groups. This appendix provides the populations upon which such rates and ratios are based.

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence

Country, year, and age	Total country		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Middle South Asia						
BANGLADESH: 1974						
All ages.....	34,407,012	37,070,709	31,672,231	33,532,178	2,734,781	3,538,531
Under 1 year.....	945,192	941,307	872,883	869,938	72,309	71,369
1 to 4 years.....	5,112,479	5,073,577	4,738,783	4,692,269	373,696	381,308
5 to 9 years.....	5,518,895	6,599,554	6,039,645	6,112,450	479,250	487,104
10 to 14 years.....	4,1 ',285	4,986,523	3,790,329	4,541,647	403,956	444,876
15 to 19 years.....	2,'54,554	3,153,753	2,484,587	2,808,301	279,967	345,452
20 to 24 years.....	2,'95,514	2,416,169	2,264,468	2,062,611	231,046	353,558
25 to 29 years.....	2,512,054	2,353,447	2,306,749	2,028,850	205,305	324,597
30 to 34 years.....	2,027,419	2,035,787	1,870,025	1,786,765	157,394	249,022
35 to 39 years.....	1,779,674	2,034,787	1,648,025	1,809,777	131,649	225,010
40 to 44 years.....	1,513,960	1,744,534	1,404,582	1,556,284	109,378	188,250
45 to 49 years.....	1,097,466	1,379,287	1,023,113	1,245,974	74,353	133,313
50 to 54 years.....	1,104,973	1,283,698	1,033,038	1,162,184	71,935	121,514
55 to 59 years.....	575,849	776,026	541,482	715,848	34,367	60,178
60 to 64 years.....	763,358	919,276	716,429	851,150	46,929	68,126
65 years and over.....	1,001,340	1,372,984	938,093	1,288,130	63,247	84,854
Unknown age.....	-	-	-	-	-	-

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence—Continued

Country, year, and age	Total country		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
INDIA: 1971						
All ages.....	264,110,376	284,049,276	213,725,732	225,319,943	50,384,644	58,729,333
Under 1 year.....	8,213,147	8,306,375	6,819,570	6,877,322	1,393,577	1,429,053
1 to 4 years.....	31,142,453	31,897,541	25,632,994	26,130,918	5,509,459	5,766,623
5 to 9 years.....	39,796,175	42,211,297	32,584,930	34,524,528	7,211,245	7,686,769
10 to 14 years.....	32,281,631	36,492,076	25,853,497	29,332,846	6,428,134	7,159,230
15 to 19 years.....	22,246,464	25,221,778	17,263,103	19,258,242	4,983,351	5,963,536
20 to 24 years.....	21,527,935	21,573,419	16,799,386	15,844,948	4,728,549	5,728,471
25 to 29 years.....	20,481,079	20,339,371	16,342,977	15,519,718	4,138,102	4,819,653
30 to 34 years.....	17,863,483	18,320,193	14,452,939	14,110,432	3,410,544	4,209,761
35 to 39 years.....	15,665,547	17,237,496	12,621,757	13,404,784	3,043,790	3,832,712
40 to 44 years.....	13,228,253	15,059,050	10,794,934	11,754,428	2,433,319	3,304,622
45 to 49 years.....	10,418,887	12,466,577	8,586,477	9,844,471	1,832,410	2,622,106
50 to 54 years.....	9,412,925	11,113,534	7,785,243	8,943,448	1,627,682	2,170,086
55 to 59 years.....	5,954,077	6,878,777	4,964,086	5,631,990	989,991	1,246,787
60 to 64 years.....	6,892,276	7,483,415	5,736,749	6,231,597	1,155,527	1,251,818
65 years and over.....	8,933,130	9,390,910	7,440,071	7,863,611	1,493,059	1,527,299
Unknown age.....	60,025	56,239	53,655	45,277	6,370	10,962
NEPAL: 1971						
All ages.....	5,738,780	5,817,203	5,525,493	5,568,552	213,287	248,651
Under 1 year.....	146,464	144,437	140,735	138,567	5,729	5,870
1 to 4 years.....	697,048	646,161	673,312	622,793	23,736	23,368
5 to 9 years.....	857,452	885,801	827,247	854,215	30,205	31,586
10 to 14 years.....	594,192	703,023	570,105	675,436	24,087	27,587
15 to 19 years.....	499,966	547,493	478,739	519,991	21,227	27,502
20 to 24 years.....	503,653	466,022	483,447	438,516	20,206	27,506
25 to 29 years.....	473,990	456,297	456,381	433,364	17,609	22,933
30 to 34 years.....	425,705	385,696	410,392	367,874	15,313	17,822
35 to 39 years.....	358,407	386,381	345,504	370,385	12,903	15,996
40 to 44 years.....	307,463	301,998	296,535	288,758	10,928	13,240
45 to 49 years.....	215,577	245,521	207,864	235,965	7,713	9,556
50 to 54 years.....	196,530	204,304	189,351	195,515	7,179	8,789
55 to 59 years.....	124,716	132,983	120,294	127,711	4,422	5,272
60 to 64 years.....	155,789	138,441	150,515	133,264	5,274	5,177
65 years and over.....	181,823	172,645	175,072	166,198	6,756	6,447
Unknown age.....	-	-	-	-	-	-

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence—Continued

Country, year, and age	Total country		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
NEPAL: 1976[1]						
All ages.....	6,410,738	6,426,280				
Under 1 year.....	118,292	125,144				
1 to 4 years.....	724,198	665,717				
5 to 9 years.....	939,119	951,812				
10 to 14 years.....	663,325	784,827				
15 to 19 years.....	595,310	619,887				
20 to 24 years.....	598,860	527,130				
25 to 29 years.....	535,440	500,459				
30 to 34 years.....	480,422	431,466				
35 to 39 years.....	406,148	423,019				
40 to 44 years.....	362,859	348,545				
45 to 49 years.....	267,342	293,081				
50 to 54 years.....	226,405	249,081				
55 to 59 years.....	148,574	156,057				
60 to 64 years.....	159,804	154,903				
65 years and over.....	184,640	195,152				
Unknown age.....	-	-				
PAKISTAN: 1972						
All ages.....	29,068,237	33,393,646	21,507,057	24,374,475	7,561,180	9,019,171
Under 1 year.....	725,114	885,500	548,700	675,814	176,414	209,686
1 to 4 years.....	3,963,048	3,839,825	2,966,632	2,826,746	996,416	1,013,079
5 to 9 years.....	4,814,625	5,316,861	3,600,791	3,998,269	1,213,834	1,318,592
10 to 14 years.....	3,451,121	4,384,059	2,467,090	3,212,905	984,031	1,171,154
15 to 19 years.....	2,42?,195	2,909,927	1,682,484	2,049,003	740,711	860,924
20 to 24 years.....	2,211,540	2,350,945	1,563,569	1,604,141	647,971	746,804
25 to 29 years.....	2,196,040	2,450,404	1,601,843	1,728,191	594,197	722,213
30 to 34 years.....	1,903,303	2,056,573	1,410,734	1,461,852	492,569	594,721
35 to 39 years.....	1,539,054	1,790,693	1,134,119	1,272,109	404,935	518,584
40 to 44 years.....	1,417,332	1,645,256	1,070,115	1,166,601	347,217	478,655
45 to 49 years.....	1,044,292	1,283,493	800,569	924,265	243,723	359,228
50 to 54 years.....	994,174	1,318,614	764,997	974,619	229,177	343,995
55 to 59 years.....	542,682	641,572	426,363	483,236	116,319	158,336
60 to 64 years.....	730,718	1,041,546	570,513	808,111	160,205	233,435
65 years and over.....	1,111,999	1,478,378	898,538	1,188,613	213,461	289,765
Unknown age.....	-	-	-	-	-	-

See footnote at end of table.

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence—Continued

Country, year, and age	Total country		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
SRI LANKA: 1971						
All ages.....	6,158,536	6,531,361	4,823,522	5,018,259	1,335,014	1,513,102
Under 1 year.....	169,291	174,825	135,435	139,960	33,856	34,865
1 to 4 years.....	649,924	670,638	521,317	537,279	128,607	133,359
5 to 9 years.....	824,085	846,831	654,821	673,632	169,264	173,199
10 to 14 years.....	788,140	820,951	620,689	645,103	167,451	175,848
15 to 19 years.....	671,248	688,715	525,390	523,402	145,858	165,313
20 to 24 years.....	631,115	639,574	490,667	466,459	140,448	173,115
25 to 29 years.....	475,188	478,970	366,693	347,280	108,495	131,690
30 to 34 years.....	352,034	377,745	270,747	277,816	81,287	99,929
35 to 39 years.....	358,567	366,884	281,180	276,754	77,387	90,130
40 to 44 years.....	271,876	314,343	209,420	235,970	62,456	78,373
45 to 49 years.....	255,170	289,638	198,930	220,938	56,240	68,700
50 to 54 years.....	190,991	227,034	146,455	172,035	44,536	54,999
55 to 59 years.....	157,305	192,183	122,028	149,441	35,277	42,742
60 to 64 years.....	117,442	150,600	89,674	118,106	27,768	32,494
65 years and over.....	246,160	292,430	190,076	234,084	56,084	58,346
Unknown age.....	-	-	-	-	-	-
SRI LANKA: 1981						
All ages.....	7,280,269	7,568,092	5,751,332	5,902,553	1,528,937	1,665,539
Under 1 year.....	198,727	207,323	164,407	171,817	34,320	35,506
1 to 4 years.....	709,407	741,807	584,272	612,066	125,135	129,741
5 to 9 years.....	831,549	857,907	671,803	694,678	159,746	163,229
10 to 14 years.....	826,314	863,911	654,187	684,010	172,157	179,901
15 to 19 years.....	792,336	815,199	617,175	624,529	175,161	190,670
20 to 24 years.....	756,461	753,338	591,173	565,070	165,288	188,268
25 to 29 years.....	635,830	637,547	497,292	480,203	138,538	157,344
30 to 34 years.....	553,334	569,523	432,093	430,983	121,241	138,540
35 to 39 years.....	415,722	423,003	325,261	321,131	90,461	101,872
40 to 44 years.....	337,577	360,922	264,957	275,922	72,620	85,000
45 to 49 years.....	300,991	309,159	237,716	237,999	63,275	71,160
50 to 54 years.....	258,390	284,167	200,888	218,568	57,502	65,599
55 to 59 years.....	200,682	221,528	155,576	171,904	45,106	49,624
60 to 64 years.....	157,822	183,903	121,687	143,793	36,135	40,110
65 years and over.....	305,107	338,860	232,847	269,881	72,260	68,979
Unknown age.....	-	-	-	-	-	-

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence—Continued

Country, year, and age	Total country		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
East Asia						
HONG KONG: 1981						
All ages.....	2,382,392	2,604,168	171,779	191,967	2,210,613	2,412,201
0 to 4 years.....	185,733	202,950	15,872	17,219	169,861	185,731
5 to 9 years.....	196,537	212,353	15,841	16,860	180,696	195,493
10 to 14 years.....	212,872	227,062	18,967	20,139	193,905	206,923
15 to 19 years.....	271,321	292,604	22,327	24,270	248,994	268,334
20 to 24 years.....	276,232	307,600	19,381	22,520	256,851	285,080
25 to 29 years.....	224,221	258,905	12,953	16,603	211,268	242,302
30 to 34 years.....	179,816	219,253	8,683	12,552	171,133	206,701
35 to 39 years.....	100,571	132,307	5,224	7,495	95,347	124,812
40 to 44 years.....	109,701	140,808	6,434	8,048	103,267	132,760
45 to 49 years.....	119,323	141,225	7,874	8,623	111,449	132,602
50 to 54 years.....	119,811	136,307	8,251	9,668	111,560	126,639
55 to 59 years.....	102,554	109,476	7,379	8,428	95,175	101,048
60 to 64 years.....	89,484	90,725	6,214	7,333	83,270	83,392
65 years and over.....	194,216	132,593	16,379	12,209	177,837	120,384
Unknown age.....	-	-	-	-	-	-
SOUTH KOREA: 1975						
All ages.....	17,233,726	17,445,246	8,833,536	9,072,002	8,400,037	8,369,909
0 to 4 years.....	2,037,904	2,189,456	1,040,234	1,116,775	997,670	1,072,681
5 to 9 years.....	2,151,156	2,302,542	1,225,902	1,301,708	925,254	1,000,834
10 to 14 years.....	2,178,654	2,348,676	1,264,861	1,358,229	913,792	990,443
15 to 19 years.....	2,022,756	2,124,156	863,379	978,505	1,159,359	1,145,553
20 to 24 years.....	1,511,359	1,611,767	593,872	784,893	917,454	824,153
25 to 29 years.....	1,235,707	1,271,743	478,770	539,396	756,921	731,969
30 to 34 years.....	1,092,752	1,131,486	485,755	476,413	606,992	655,017
35 to 39 years.....	1,077,695	1,111,449	540,249	531,256	537,439	580,158
40 to 44 years.....	914,903	885,250	496,708	460,738	418,192	424,489
45 to 49 years.....	748,859	649,961	423,878	354,193	324,977	295,755
50 to 54 years.....	620,715	576,664	367,961	335,128	252,754	241,532
55 to 59 years.....	489,981	449,224	304,364	282,564	185,615	166,660
60 to 64 years.....	403,073	334,479	252,983	222,387	150,090	112,090
65 years and over.....	748,212	458,387	494,620	329,817	253,528	128,569
Unknown age.....	-	6	-	-	-	6

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence—Continued

Country, year, and age	Total country		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
SOUTH KOREA: 1980						
All ages.....	18,657,509	18,749,306	7,945,902	8,051,460	10,711,607	10,697,846
Under 1 year.....	362,255	392,305	130,631	142,172	231,624	250,133
1 to 4 years.....	1,468,474	1,571,658	605,243	643,615	863,231	928,043
5 to 9 years.....	2,138,133	2,282,813	975,820	1,025,242	1,162,313	1,257,571
10 to 14 years.....	2,146,751	2,293,386	1,072,364	1,112,734	1,074,387	1,180,652
15 to 19 years.....	2,052,756	2,186,973	774,522	876,851	1,278,234	1,310,122
20 to 24 years.....	1,985,909	2,067,729	614,463	840,450	1,371,446	1,227,279
25 to 29 years.....	1,541,207	1,540,965	482,034	502,949	1,059,173	1,038,016
30 to 34 years.....	1,225,708	1,293,533	408,160	428,679	817,548	864,854
35 to 39 years.....	1,096,183	1,127,158	426,603	408,430	669,580	718,728
40 to 44 years.....	1,051,194	1,080,457	479,148	460,734	572,046	619,723
45 to 49 years.....	913,154	868,659	462,879	417,674	450,275	450,985
50 to 54 years.....	716,759	609,166	381,815	315,204	334,944	293,962
55 to 59 years.....	603,556	521,797	334,286	293,017	269,270	228,780
60 to 64 years.....	448,835	373,222	256,507	227,921	192,328	145,301
65 years and over.....	906,633	539,481	541,426	355,787	365,207	183,694
Unknown age.....	2	4	1	1	1	3
TAIWAN: 1975[1]						
All ages.....	7,805,046	8,401,137				
0 to 4 years.....	874,347	929,086				
5 to 9 years.....	995,076	1,048,520				
10 to 14 years.....	1,024,273	1,077,118				
15 to 19 years.....	962,345	1,004,425				
20 to 24 years.....	847,125	865,236				
25 to 29 years.....	576,407	571,582				
30 to 34 years.....	460,199	456,394				
35 to 39 years.....	454,766	453,670				
40 to 44 years.....	390,952	446,790				
45 to 49 years.....	331,942	486,117				
50 to 54 years.....	259,087	380,657				
55 to 59 years.....	190,258	252,255				
60 to 64 years.....	161,901	198,344				
65 years and over.....	276,368	230,943				
Unknown age.....	-	-				

See footnote at end of table.

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence—Continued

Country, year, and age	Total country		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
TAIWAN: 1980[1]						
All ages.....	8,587,082	9,362,026				
Under 1 year.....	187,947	201,217				
1 to 4 years.....	793,974	847,094				
5 to 9 years.....	881,325	931,779				
10 to 14 years.....	934,892	988,678				
15 to 19 years.....	995,702	1,047,561				
20 to 24 years.....	963,805	995,912				
25 to 29 years.....	858,412	904,394				
30 to 34 years.....	569,442	607,164				
35 to 39 years.....	436,337	462,369				
40 to 44 years.....	431,569	447,773				
45 to 49 years.....	375,345	433,709				
50 to 54 years.....	326,488	481,310				
55 to 59 years.....	265,402	333,823				
60 to 64 years.....	203,799	267,249				
65 years and over.....	362,643	361,994				
Unknown age.....	-	-				
Eastern South Asia						
BURMA: 1973						
All ages.....	14,290,681	14,127,139	10,898,601	10,671,422	3,392,080	3,455,717
0 to 4 years.....	2,285,065	2,308,503	1,744,671	1,755,899	540,394	552,604
5 to 9 years.....	1,954,426	1,979,798	1,542,594	1,507,902	411,832	471,896
10 to 14 years.....	1,704,072	1,717,692	1,295,099	1,300,426	408,973	417,266
15 to 19 years.....	1,469,067	1,445,038	1,110,561	1,078,329	358,506	366,709
20 to 24 years.....	1,195,435	1,156,182	898,841	851,684	296,594	304,498
25 to 29 years.....	942,764	915,316	709,069	674,863	233,695	240,453
30 to 34 years.....	831,050	809,101	626,357	599,893	204,693	209,208
35 to 39 years.....	800,722	786,877	606,456	590,520	194,266	196,357
40 to 44 years.....	709,118	703,124	538,783	533,536	170,335	169,588
45 to 49 years.....	602,981	599,378	458,207	456,482	144,774	142,896
50 to 54 years.....	498,965	492,638	378,841	374,577	120,124	118,061
55 to 59 years.....	410,430	400,274	312,998	307,326	97,432	92,948
60 to 64 years.....	323,813	310,216	247,639	241,870	76,174	68,346
65 years and over.....	562,773	503,002	428,485	398,115	134,288	104,887
Unknown age.....	-	-	-	-	-	-

See footnote at end of table.

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence—Continued

Country, year, and age	Total country		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
INDONESIA: 1971						
All ages.....	60,029,206	58,338,644	49,765,244	48,137,229	10,263,962	10,201,415
Under 1 year.....	1,235,514	1,258,093	977,613	988,959	257,901	269,134
1 to 4 years.....	8,257,021	8,348,065	6,944,893	6,994,043	1,312,128	1,354,022
5 to 9 years.....	9,236,857	9,525,224	7,815,119	8,058,980	1,421,738	1,466,244
10 to 14 years.....	6,826,167	7,353,370	5,573,199	6,081,641	1,252,968	1,271,729
15 to 19 years.....	5,737,887	5,587,606	4,530,528	4,399,650	1,207,359	1,187,956
20 to 24 years.....	4,429,441	3,601,830	3,524,617	2,736,243	904,824	865,587
25 to 29 years.....	4,947,147	3,977,739	4,126,747	3,208,331	820,400	769,408
30 to 34 years.....	4,213,681	3,689,877	3,522,963	3,012,285	690,718	677,592
35 to 39 years.....	4,031,228	3,947,886	3,381,714	3,338,049	649,514	609,837
40 to 44 years.....	3,037,799	3,063,990	2,552,175	2,549,751	485,624	514,239
45 to 49 years.....	2,222,758	2,426,868	1,864,182	2,041,221	358,576	385,647
50 to 54 years.....	1,961,054	1,902,778	1,663,729	1,605,600	297,325	297,178
55 to 59 years.....	1,099,943	1,126,094	922,867	943,131	177,076	182,963
60 to 64 years.....	1,256,172	1,082,325	1,081,784	936,341	174,388	145,984
65 years and over.....	1,528,535	1,439,842	1,283,113	1,243,003	245,422	196,839
Unknown age.....	8,002	7,057	1	1	8,001	7,056
MALAYSIA: 1970						
All ages.....	5,120,906	5,198,418	3,742,652	3,796,418	1,378,254	1,402,000
Under 1 year.....	155,555	162,513	120,215	125,643	35,340	36,870
1 to 4 years.....	645,965	672,211	500,667	519,145	145,298	153,066
5 to 9 years.....	791,018	825,025	601,701	627,126	189,317	197,899
10 to 14 years.....	682,510	703,514	501,542	515,809	180,968	187,705
15 to 19 years.....	569,500	555,511	397,495	382,028	172,005	173,483
20 to 24 years.....	436,467	419,210	296,685	282,266	139,782	136,944
25 to 29 years.....	327,998	323,351	230,810	225,783	97,188	97,568
30 to 34 years.....	313,925	309,815	224,567	220,915	89,359	88,900
35 to 39 years.....	256,328	245,040	185,931	176,085	70,397	68,955
40 to 44 years.....	219,029	220,533	159,745	159,773	59,284	60,760
45 to 49 years.....	184,195	180,924	136,339	132,584	47,856	48,340
50 to 54 years.....	158,291	164,804	116,807	121,299	41,484	43,505
55 to 59 years.....	121,373	135,571	86,201	98,388	35,172	37,183
60 to 64 years.....	106,266	116,023	77,378	85,829	28,888	30,194
65 years and over.....	152,485	164,373	106,569	123,745	45,916	40,628
Unknown age.....	-	-	-	-	-	-

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence—Continued

Country, year, and age	Total country		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
PHILIPPINES: 1975						
All ages.....	20,794,436	21,276,224	14,041,679	14,722,900	6,752,757	6,553,324
Under 1 year.....	589,992	623,585	424,482	446,406	165,510	177,179
1 to 4 years.....	2,566,352	2,700,837	1,840,969	1,933,644	725,383	767,193
5 to 9 years.....	3,081,185	3,249,452	2,208,807	2,334,007	872,378	915,445
10 to 14 years.....	2,786,378	2,895,474	1,947,180	2,058,922	839,198	836,552
15 to 19 years.....	2,496,148	2,454,432	1,583,364	1,683,426	912,784	771,006
20 to 24 years.....	1,943,785	1,953,903	1,189,981	1,225,586	753,804	668,317
25 to 29 years.....	1,491,434	1,491,032	934,888	953,970	556,546	537,062
30 to 34 years.....	1,165,517	1,163,945	768,905	777,176	396,612	386,769
35 to 39 years.....	1,098,409	1,112,361	737,410	758,617	360,999	353,744
40 to 44 years.....	854,586	874,089	572,770	596,025	281,816	278,064
45 to 49 years.....	726,757	751,499	492,902	516,013	233,855	235,486
50 to 54 years.....	568,974	582,036	382,950	401,934	186,024	180,102
55 to 59 years.....	444,742	469,678	300,924	328,814	143,818	140,854
60 to 64 years.....	383,633	408,277	257,890	285,574	125,743	122,703
65 years and over.....	596,544	605,624	398,257	422,776	198,287	182,848
Unknown age.....	-	-	-	-	-	-
THAILAND: 1970						
All ages.....	17,273,512	17,123,862	14,977,480	14,866,794	2,296,032	2,257,068
Under 1 year.....	603,753	612,132	545,782	551,750	57,971	60,382
1 to 4 years.....	2,192,479	2,250,806	1,969,923	2,018,712	222,556	232,094
5 to 9 years.....	2,605,723	2,679,168	2,310,340	2,373,435	295,383	305,733
10 to 14 years.....	2,252,660	2,309,549	1,952,145	2,005,197	300,505	304,352
15 to 19 years.....	1,885,371	1,832,177	1,588,370	1,549,904	297,001	282,273
20 to 24 years.....	1,361,717	1,321,641	1,133,263	1,104,986	229,454	216,655
25 to 29 years.....	1,143,377	1,098,083	965,878	926,551	177,499	171,532
30 to 34 years.....	1,077,088	1,047,323	917,126	889,019	159,962	158,304
35 to 39 years.....	957,607	952,959	824,961	820,229	132,646	132,730
40 to 44 years.....	766,332	774,328	663,625	669,362	102,707	104,966
45 to 49 years.....	597,454	599,118	520,314	522,049	77,140	77,069
50 to 54 years.....	489,794	472,185	423,564	407,758	66,230	64,427
55 to 59 years.....	401,731	388,328	347,997	337,875	53,734	50,453
60 to 64 years.....	324,223	300,801	282,043	263,391	42,180	37,410
65 years and over.....	592,387	463,613	513,059	407,835	79,328	55,778
Unknown age.....	21,826	21,651	19,090	18,741	2,736	2,910

[1] Data are not available by rural/urban residence.

Appendix E

Abbreviations

ASFR: Age-specific fertility rate (the average annual number of births to women in a given age group during a specified period of time per 1,000 women in the same age group, based on midperiod population).

CBR: Crude birth rate (the average annual number of births during a specified period of time per 1,000 persons, based on midperiod population).

CIR: Center for International Research, U.S. Bureau of the Census. Washington, D.C.

F/M ratio: Ratio of the female value to the male value for a given characteristic (for example, the ratio of the female percent literate to the male percent literate).

GNP: Gross national product (the total value of all final goods and services produced in an economy during a specified period of time, including net factor income from abroad).

GRR: Gross reproduction rate (the average number of daughters born per woman in a group of women passing through the childbearing years and experiencing a given set of age-specific fertility rates. This rate implicitly assumes that all the women live to the end of the childbearing years. See also NRR).

ILO: International Labour Office, United Nations. Geneva.

IMR: Infant mortality rate (the number of deaths to infants under 1 year of age per 1,000 live births occurring in the same calendar year).

NA: Data not available.

NRR: Net reproduction rate (a refinement of the gross reproduction rate that allows for mortality of women from birth to the end of their reproductive years).

SPC: South Pacific Commission. Noumea, New Caledonia.

TFR: Total fertility rate (the average number of children that would be born per woman if all women lived to the end of their childbearing years and bore children according to a given set of age-specific fertility rates).

U.N.: United Nations.

UNESCAP: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. Bangkok.

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. Paris.

USAID: United States Agency for International Development. Washington, D.C.

WFS: World Fertility Survey.

WID: Women in Development.

WID Data Base: Women in Development Data Base (a project of the U.S. Bureau of the Census).

WID Office: Office of Women in Development, Bureau for Program and Policy Coordination, U.S. Agency for International Development. Washington, D.C.