

# EEP/Shiree

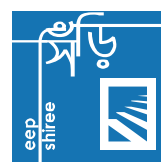
## CMS3 Brief

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## **Similarities and differences in the socio-economic and nutritional status between male and female headed households: a review using CMS3 databases**

In the CMS3 surveys one of the main findings was the relatively high percentage of female headed households (over 40%) compared with 10.2% nationally. Although the percentage of female headed households varied between NGOs from a low of 14.5% (CARE) to highs of 64.6% (DSK) and 57.6% (NETZ) the percentage of female heads was significantly above the national level in all NGOs.

This report compares the socio-economic and nutritional status of female and male headed households and charts some of their changes over the year long panel study.

### Findings

1. Female heads were, on average, about 6 years older than male heads (49 and 43 years old, respectively) and this was consistent across NGOs. Mean family size was lower in female than male headed households (2.7 versus 4.0) mainly due to less adults in female headed households (mean 1.6 versus 2.3, respectively) and fewer under 5 year old children (mean 0.3 and 0.6, respectively), but not children 5 to 15 years of age (mean 0.9 versus 1.1, respectively).
2. Male heads were more likely to have attended school than female heads (28.6% versus 10.9%, respectively) and a higher percentage of adults in male headed households attended school than female headed (30.8% versus 21.4%) but there was no significant difference in school attendance of 5 to 15 years olds between male and female headed households. School attendance increased from 78% to 86% between March 2010 and March 2011.
3. There was no difference in the prevalence of disability between male and female heads and overall 6% reported some disability mainly due to vision and lack of mobility.
4. There were significant morbidity differences between male and female headed households; eye infections on the day of the survey were about twice as common among female (32%) than male (14%) heads in surveys

- 1 and 2. Fever in the last 30 days was about 11% higher in female (50%) than male (39%) heads in surveys 1, 2 and 4.
5. As expected there were clear gender related occupational differences. Begging remained an important source of income for female heads; in the 1<sup>st</sup> survey one in six begged falling to one in nine in survey 4, while the equivalent figures were one in thirty and one in fifty for male heads. Self-employment data were only collected in surveys 2-4. In female heads self-employment fell between surveys 2 and 4 from 50% to 45% but rose in male heads from 39% to 48%. Information of number of days and hours worked were only collected in surveys 3 and 4. Male heads tended to work fewer days than female heads in both surveys (between 0.5 and 1.5 fewer days) but they worked longer by, on average, about 1 hour more than female heads.
  6. Differences in land ownership between male and female headed households increased between surveys 1 and 4. In the 1<sup>st</sup> survey about 10% of female headed household owned land increasing to about 17% in survey 4. For male heads, 19% owned land in the 1<sup>st</sup> survey increasing to over 35% in survey 4.
  7. More male headed households owned their own house in both surveys 1 and 4 (79% and 88%, respectively) than female headed households (56% and 63%, respectively). About 23% of female headed households rented their house compared with only 10% of male headed households and female headed households were much more likely to live rent free (17% and 12% in surveys 1 and 4, respectively) than male headed households (6.5% and 2%, respectively). The mean reported size of the house was greater in male than female headed households and the difference increased between survey 1 (15.3 sq m and 11.8 sq m, respectively) and survey 4 (17.5 sq m and 12.1 sq m, respectively). There was no significant difference in household construction (wall, floor and roof) between male and female headed households.
  8. There was no significant difference in source of drinking water between male and female headed households; in urban areas households obtained their water from a pipe or tubewell, whereas in rural areas tubewell and pond/river were the main sources. However about 20% of rural male headed households owned a tubewell compared with about 1% of female headed households.
  9. Nearly all rural dwellers did not have any electricity supply. In urban areas 22% of female headed households had no electricity supply while all male headed households were connected to the mains supply.
  10. In survey 1 there was a significant difference in defecation practice in rural areas with 44% of female headed households performing open defecation compared with 32% in male headed households. However by survey 4 there was a significant fall in open defecation in rural areas to 20% with no significant difference between male and female headed households.
  11. In surveys 1 and 4 there was no difference in the number of free informal loans that male and female headed households received but informal

- loans were much higher in both surveys in male than female headed households (over 20% and about 7%, respectively). In survey 1 only male headed households received Shomiti, microfinance or bank loans, while in survey 4 urban female headed households also received shomiti and microfinance loans.
12. The mean amount of cash savings did not vary significantly between male and female headed households in any of the four surveys.
  13. Information on worth of household assets was collected in surveys 1 and 4. In survey 1 the worth of equipment was significantly more in male than female headed households as well as total worth of assets. In survey 4 there was no significant difference in worth of equipment or total assets but female headed household belongings were still worth less than male headed households but animals were worth more in female than male headed households. Part of the increase in worth of assets was from the shiree transfer programme. Female headed households in rural areas received significantly more assets than male headed households (over 7900 Taka versus 4700, respectively) but there was no difference between urban male and female headed households. When the worth of assets transferred by shiree and the total worth of assets in survey 4 were compared, urban female headed households were, on average, in greater deficit than male headed households (-3000 Taka versus -22 Taka, respectively) and in rural areas female headed households were in less credit than male headed households (+1720 Taka versus +4162 Taka, respectively).
  14. Reported household income based on HIES criteria was lower in female headed households by, on average, just under 1500 Taka per month across the 4 surveys. Part of this difference was due to more earners in male headed households. However the mean per capita income was significantly higher in male than female headed households (22.2 and 19.4 Taka pppd, respectively) and the difference was consistent over the 4 surveys. In-kind income was significantly greater in female than male headed households by, on average 227 Taka per month.
  15. Male headed households spent more, on average, on food and household, but not work-related costs, than female headed households. Per capita food expenditure was higher in male than female headed households (17.5 Taka versus 14.9 Taka pppd, respectively) but there was no significant difference between male and female headed households in household or work-related per capita costs. Overall expenditure was higher in male headed households by, on average, 1168 Taka, but there were no differences in total expenditure per capita.
  16. There was no significant difference in net income (income minus expenditure) between male and female headed households and over the four surveys households moved from debit in survey 1 (-168 Taka/month) to credit (+641 Taka/month in survey 4).

17. Household food diversity did not vary significantly between male and female headed households as measured by the mean number of foods eaten or based on seven food groups.
18. Households were asked about 10 food coping strategies as a result of financial hardship in the seven days prior to the survey. There were significant improvements in 6 of the ten strategies but no significant differences were found in coping strategies between male and female headed households.
19. There was no significant difference in Body Mass Index (a measure of chronic undernutrition) between male and female headed households in either survey 1 or 4, but female headed households were much more likely to be anaemic (about 57%) than male headed households (34%). BMI improved in both male and female heads between surveys 1 and 4 but there was no significant change in haemoglobin concentration. No significant differences in child nutritional status (stunting, underweight, wasting and haemoglobin) were found between male and female headed households. Haemoglobin concentration improved significantly between surveys 1 and 4, and anaemic fell by 13%.