ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMISSION FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

TRAINING MANUAL ON THE TECHNICAL PROCESSING OF INFORMATION CONCERNING WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT



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Introduction

This *Training Manual on the Technical Processing of Information Concerning Women in Development* is a product of the **Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific** (WINAP). Established by the **Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific** (ESCAP) in 1986, WINAP was created in response to numerous requests for an improved regional information system on women.

The major objectives of WINAP are to gather, analyse and disseminate information about women in development and strengthen cooperation among women in Asia and the Pacific. Located at ESCAP headquarters at Bangkok, the WINAP regional centre links national and subregional women's information mechanisms and provides assistance to improve as well as establish national-level information systems for women. WINAP also monitors advances in women's status in the region.

In undertaking this work, WINAP pursues the aims and objectives of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.

The purpose of this Manual and the accompanying *Training Manual on the Management of Women's Information Centres*, is to assist national focal points for the advancement of women, and non-governmental organizations, in establishing or strengthening women's information centres. These centres collect, analyze and disseminate accurate and timely information about women and women's concerns.

The material presented in these manuals is based primarily on papers presented at WINAP workshops organized by ESCAP in 1988-1991. Three subregional workshops on the management of women's information centres were held in 1988 and 1989 for participants from South Asia, East and South-East Asia, and the Pacific. Subregional workshops on the technical processing of information concerning women in development were held for participants from South Asia in 1990 and from East and South-East Asia in 1991. The Pacific subregional workshop on this topic will be held in 1992. A list of resource persons who made presentations at these workshops and other sources for these manuals, is contained in annex II.

Relevant material from a previous WINAP publication, *Manual on Establishing and Strengthening Women's Information Networks in Asia and the Pacific* (now out of print) has also been included in these two publications.

These two manuals are intended to serve as resources for those responsible for establishing women's information centres as well as those hired to staff such centres. Along with guidelines regarding the

goals, objectives and activities of a national women's information centre, these two manuals provide practical advice on how to acquire, catalogue, repackage and disseminate women's information, including statistics.

Both manuals have been designed for individual users as well as group training sessions, and they have been designed to be used in conjunction with each other.

Although the information presented in these two manuals covers the major tasks involved in establishing and operating a women's information centre, it does not convey the depth of information required for all the operations of a women's information centre. These manuals were developed with the assumption that women's information centres will be staffed by qualified professionals. In those circumstances where information centre staff require professional training, ESCAP may be able to provide further assistance.

The guidelines presented in these manuals should be modified by their users to suit the unique circumstances in each country.

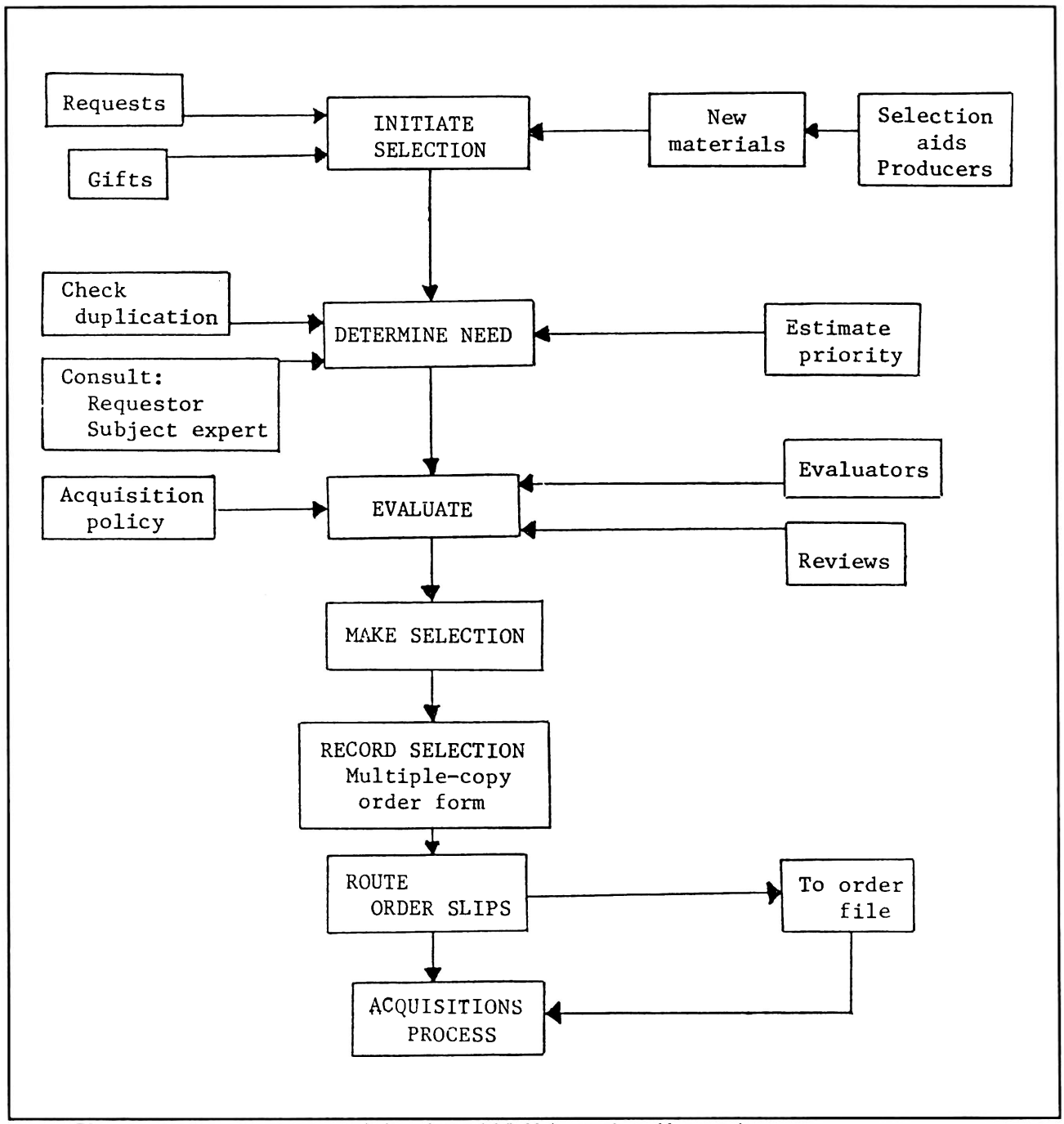
The manuals were compiled with the assistance of Ms. Ann Bishop, Consultant to the Social Development Division, ESCAP.

Publication of these manuals has been made possible with the generous financial assistance of the Government of Norway.

CHAPTER I

ACQUIRING AND PROCESSING MATERIALS

The selection process



(Source: "Women's information centres: acquisition of materials", M. Laosunthara, May 1989.)

1 Acquiring materials

One of the important tasks of an information centre or library is to acquire and maintain a collection of useful materials.

Acquisition involves a variety of tasks necessary to obtain (through buying, gifts or exchange) information materials for a centre's collection. The major goal is to acquire the most suitable materials, to see that the funds for acquiring information materials are spent wisely, and to ensure that limited library and shelving space is used for the most useful material. Acquisition, therefore, involves the following activities:

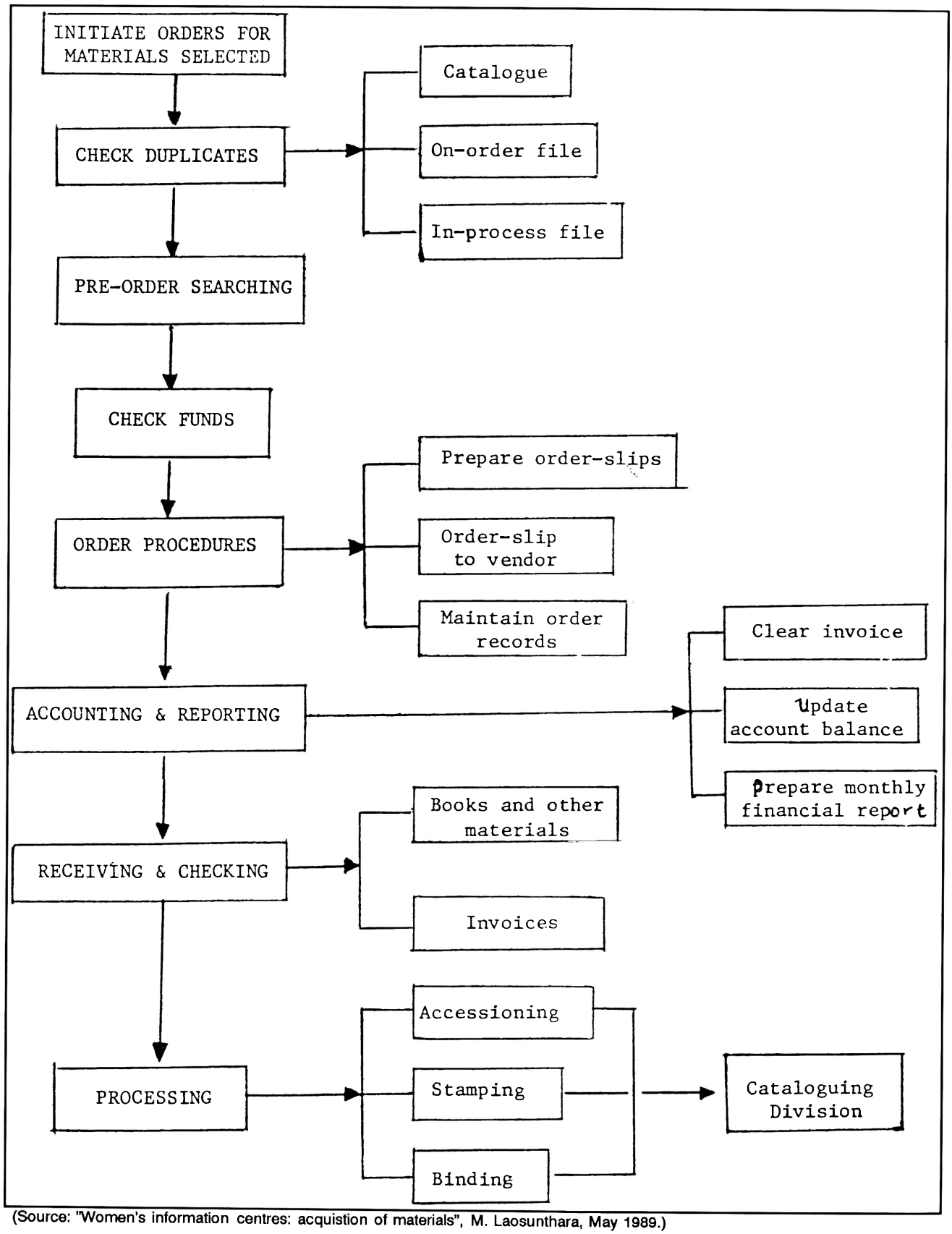
- selecting
- searching
- ordering
- accounting
- receiving

Acquisition/collection policy and selection

An information centre's acquisition/collection policy should answer the following questions:

- What are the aims/mission/functions of the parent organization?
- What are the current objectives and priorities of the information centre?
- Who are the users? Are the users ranked in the order of priority?
- What are the needs of the users?
- What is the scope (subject coverage, language use, time span etc.) of the existing collection?
- In what areas should the collection be as exhaustive as possible (realizing that it is not possible to acquire everything)?
- What types of materials should be acquired?
- To what extent should the information centre rely on remote storage of information?
- Networking – how many networks should the information centre participate in? If already participating in a network, what is its role? Is there an exchange of documents? What are the conditions?
- How are adequate finances to be assured?
- How is the collection to be evaluated?
- What materials/titles should continue to be acquired, retained or withdrawn?

The acquisitions process



(Source: "Women's information centres: acquistion of materials", M. Laosunthara, May 1989.)

The acquisition/collection policy should reflect the viewpoints and needs of the information centre's users and should be agreed upon by all concerned.

Once an acquisition policy has been agreed upon by users and staff, the centre is ready to select resources for its collection. The tracing of documents calls for sustained effort on the part of information centre staff. Staff must be constantly anticipating the emergence of information to make sure that important titles are not overlooked.

The development of a collection of materials on women does not necessarily mean creating a comprehensive collection. To avoid duplication of existing resources, other library/information centres should be systematically surveyed to see what materials could be shared. Sharing resources with other information centres prevents unnecessary duplication of information not frequently in demand. Expensive bibliographical tools could also be shared among information centres. For information centres with limited budgets, arrangements for mutual assistance and sharing will result in economies of material and human resources.

Evaluating the acquisition/collection policy

The acquisition/collection policy should be reviewed periodically and revised to keep up with new developments, issues or interests relevant to the subject of WOMEN. Guidelines for acquiring materials should keep pace with women's trends and the changing programmes and activities of the centre's parent organization. The acquisition/collection policy should be reviewed and brought up to date every two years.

Aids in selecting materials

- internal documents and published reports on women's projects and projects which incorporate women's concerns
- international, regional and national numeric information or statistical reports
- bibliographies and bibliographic data on periodicals, monographs, newsletters, bulletins, directories, manuals, reports of meetings, audio-visual materials, etc.

Commercial companies are quick to announce titles as soon as they are published or produced. Some publishers/bookshops send their documents "on approval" – that is, for examination and possible return if not suitable. Visiting bookshops to examine materials can be worthwhile. Book reviews by experts which are published in professional journals can be used to cross-check the merits or limitations of a publication or audiovisual.

Subject specialists within the parent organization or institution should be consulted regularly in order to identify titles which would be useful to them.

Searching

The searching procedure goes hand in hand with some of the steps in the selection process. The objectives of the searching procedure are to minimize duplication of orders and work, and to provide the bibliographic data required by book sellers. If a title on a request slip is found to be already in the collection, this should be noted on the request slip and the slip returned to the person who recommended the title.

The bibliographic information used in ordering must include those elements which are essential for identifying the title. Bibliographic data may be obtained from catalogues, booklists and standard selection aids. A standard order slip will indicate the bibliographic data required. Some vendors require only the ISBN (International Standard Book Number) for books or the ISSN (International Standard Serials Number) for periodicals, in order to identify the titles required.

Ordering

The objective of the ordering procedure is to receive needed materials as quickly and inexpensively as possible. Ordering routines should be kept simple and the number of record-keeping files minimized.

Time can be saved by using a preprinted multiple-copy order form as shown below which has been photo-reduced. The use of preprinted multiple copy order forms means information has to be typed only once.

preprinted multiple copy order form

UN ESCAP Library				
Author				
Title				
Place of publication	Publisher	Date	Volume	Price
Bibliographic source (photocopy)			No. of copies	
Name	Division/Section		Room no.	Ext.
Approving officer	Date	Budget	Action taken by library	Date

Each file and routine should be evaluated periodically to determine whether it contributes to an efficient acquisition process.

Orders should be placed as soon as acquisition decisions are made to obtain current materials and to spread out the work of acquisitions.

In ordering materials, staff should compare the quality of service and discounts provided by various vendors. Communication with vendors should be on-going so that needs and problems can be discussed and mutually satisfactory arrangements can be made.

Accounting

The objectives for the accounting procedure are: (a) to maintain accurate and current balances for all budgeted funds; and (b) to keep the administrative or finance officer of the centre informed about the status of funds. Account records should be kept up-to-date to ensure that accounts are not overdrawn.

It is also important to determine how funds may be transferred from one category to another to take care of emergent needs.

Receiving

The objectives of the receiving procedures are: (a) to determine whether the materials received are as ordered and in good condition; (b) to route materials so that they may be quickly processed for circulation; and (c) to pay the suppliers promptly.

Materials received must be checked against invoices and the order slips in the on-order file database. Missing items, imperfections, or damage should be immediately reported in order to get replacements, and close accounts.

2 Bibliographic description

Purpose and definitions

The purpose of bibliographic description is retrieval. Bibliographic descriptions are used to create an inventory of materials held by an information centre. A comprehensive list of an information centre's collection is necessary so users' needs can be met quickly and comprehensively. If materials required by users cannot be located when required, they might as well not be part of the centre's collection at all. To have and not be able to find/use an item is worse than not having the item at all, because:

- The user is dissatisfied (leading to loss of trust and good will)
- Money spent to produce, copy or purchase material is wasted.
- The cost of processing is wasted.
- "Dead stock" which cannot be retrieved makes finding and re-shelving other materials more time-consuming.
- Searching unproductively for an item locally may delay resorting to other procedures to find the item (buying it or requesting it from another library).

Keeping track of the information centre's materials is also important because many items are one-of-a-kind items (e.g. a thesis produced by a graduate student).

Finding materials through broad subject groupings

The simplest form of organization for retrieval is a broad subject grouping that ignores the uniqueness of the document, and divides the collection by such areas as geography, legal questions or economic issues. This approach is often used for "vertical files" of clippings etc. If it is used for the main collection of books, pamphlets, conference papers, etc., it quickly becomes inadequate as the size of an information centre's collection and the number of requests grow.

Inventories

The only way to find individual items quickly is to have an inventory system which leads directly to each individual item. This inventory system should provide access by the elements which the client is likely to remember, such as author, title, agency's name, title of conference etc. The inventory should be consistent. The same information on each item should be listed the same way, so the searcher can predict what will be found, and in what form.

Traditional descriptive cataloguing (including choice of form in which personal and corporate names are presented) was designed to bring together records (catalogue cards) for:

- all works by one author
- all works issued by one corporate body
- all editions of one work
- all papers delivered at one conference or series of conferences;
- all works in one series

In manual systems, catalogue cards are created for the necessary data elements, and filed alphabetically. Automated systems do away with the necessity of filing cards, and can provide more access points, e.g. to every significant word in the title.

Descriptive cataloguing, bibliographic description

The record created to access an item (document, film, map, videotape, compact disk, etc.) in an information centre's collection is called a "bibliographic description". The process by which the necessary data on an item is recorded is called "descriptive cataloguing".

Descriptive cataloguing can be undertaken as a separate process, or integrated with the acquisitions and indexing processes. With a computerized system, it is possible to create a record at the acquisitions stage, use it to print orders and pay invoices, and then at a later stage, correct and augment the record (adding a call number, abstract, keywords, etc.).

The records created during descriptive cataloguing must be organized into an inventory system which allows users to locate individual items in the information centre's collection by searching for one or a combination of data elements (author, title, subject etc.). This inventory list is called a library catalogue if has been created using card files, and a bibliographic database if it has been developed using a computer.

Management aspects

Setting up a database: field definition tables (FDTs) and worksheets

If an information centre's catalogue or database is to be consistent and predictable, the same data elements must be recorded in the same way for each item in the centre's collection. Use of a checklist is the simplest way to ensure uniformity when designing a catalogue or database. The checklist is used to develop two tools – the field definition table used in setting up a machine-readable database, and the worksheet that may be completed to provide a bibliographic description for each item being added to the catalogue or database.

Field definition tables/database design

The field definition table contains such information as:

- an identifying number (for the computer) for each data element or field (e.g. author, title)
- a short name for each data element (for people)
- the maximum length of each field
- a repeatable field indicator (a document may have e.g. several authors, all equally important as access points)
- sub-field indication (for software that allows subfielding)
- alpha/numeric indicators

The sample FDT provided below was prepared by the Division for the Advancement of Women, United Nations Office in Vienna, for the Women's Information System (WIS) database for Mini-micro CDS/ISIS.

Field Tag	Field Name	Field Nm. in FDT	Max. Length	Repeat	Mand.	Inverted
001	Record Identifier	**recordid**	5			
005	Bibliographic Level	**level**	5		Y	
011	Alternative Record Control Number.	**altid**	5			
012	Type of Record	**rectype**	5		Y	
013	Organization or Country	**orgcntry**	40	Y	Y	Y
020	Source of Record	**source**	10		Y	
022	Date Entered on File	**dateent**	10		Y	
024	Date of Accession	**dateacc**	10			Y
031	Language of Record	**langrec**	5		Y	
040	Language of Item	**langitem**	50	Y	Y	
041	Language of Abstract	**langabst**	30	Y		
050	Physical Medium	**medium**	10	Y	Y	
060	Type of Material	**material**	20	Y	Y	
100	ISBN	**isbn**	35			
101	ISSN	**issn**	20			
120	Document Number	**docno**	40	Y		Y
122	Sales Number	**salesno**	35			
151	Agenda Number	**agno**	10			
152	Agenda Item	**agitem**	200			
200	Title and Associated Statement(s) of Responsibility	**title**	200		Y	
201	Key Title	**keytitle**	200			
240	Uniform Title	**unftitle**	200	Y		Y
260	Edition Statement and Associated Statement(s) of Responsibility	**edition**	100			
300	Name of Person	**person**	300	Y		Y
310	Name of Corporate Body	**corpbody**	250	Y		Y
320	Name of Conference	**conf**	300	Y		Y
400	Publication Information	**publish**	200			
460	Physical Description	**physdesc**	100			
500	Note	**note**	200			
510	Note on Bibliographic Relationship	**relnote**	200			
600	Abstract	**abstract**	1200	Y		
620	Descriptor	**descript**	400	Y		Y
900	Item Location Information	**location**	40			

(Source: "Women's Information System (WIS): Installation Package", Division for the Advancement of Women, Vienna, July 1990.)

Worksheets

A worksheet is a convenient tool for data capture. It simplifies training and facilitates quality control, in that it:

- Lists all data elements which should be sought and recorded.
- Indicates which fields are repeatable (for example in the sample worksheet below, repeatable fields show "Y" in the "Repeat" column).
- Indicates which fields are subfielded, and the nature of the subfields.
- May include simple instructions (e.g. "Complete part A for all documents" or "Complete part E for papers taken from a volume of conference proceedings").

A worksheet does not necessarily contain all the space ever needed for all the data elements. It is created to fit an "average" record, and any additional data can be provided on an additional blank sheet or worksheet stapled to the first worksheet. If additions to the basic worksheet are frequently required, it may be useful to revise the worksheet. In addition to the paper worksheet, a system such as Mini-micro CDS/ISIS has an on-screen worksheet for data entry.

It is not necessary to complete a paper worksheet for all documents. An experienced cataloguer may prefer to enter data directly into the computer, or, if a manual system is used, to type a catalogue card.

Instruction manual for completing worksheets

Instruction manuals are necessary for training indexers, because compiling bibliographic descriptions is a complicated task. Training is especially important if indexers have no formal education in this field. Instruction manuals are also useful as day-to-day working guides. Instructions for preparing bibliographic descriptions are available in such works as *Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules*, *IDRC Rules for Completing Bibliographical Worksheets*, and the *EBIS manual*. These publications should be available to the team leader, and for consultation by individual indexers, but it is not necessary to provide copies for each indexer.

Thesaurus

A thesaurus is a very useful tool to use in developing manual and computerized filing systems, preparing indexes for books, establishing categories in bibliographies, cataloging special library collections and indexing abstracts of research articles.

Thesaurus displays encourage common usage of terms for sharing information among different types of users – standardized terms for filing information and for indexing books, reports, government documents, magazines, scholarly journals, newspapers and newsletters, as well as for the compilation of multisource indexes and reference guides.

Several thesauri have been developed for women's information. Two of them are: *A Women's Thesaurus* which was published in the United States of America in 1987, and *Thesaurus on Women in Development* which is being developed as a project of the ASEAN Women's Programme.

These thesauri contain thousands of terms which can be used as a controlled vocabulary to index and search for materials and information in a number of subject areas. The lists of words contain preferred terms as well as broader and narrower terms, related terms and word form variations. Where needed to clarify special meaning, scope notes (definitions of terms) are provided. Cross-references indicate relationships among terms.

In addition to strengthening basic forms of information access like file headings and indexing, a primary objective in developing women's thesauri has been to offer needed refinements – cross references to broader, narrower and related terms – that can sharpen existing classification and cataloging systems. Catalogers using a thesaurus will be able to describe their collections more accurately and provide some imaginative correctives for biases embedded in existing classification systems.

The thesaurus can serve as a reference guide for nonsexist use of the language. Users looking up "stewardesses", for example, will be referred to "flight attendants". Cross-references will lead users from "housewives" to "homemakers", from "working women" to "women working outside the home".

A thesaurus can also be an introduction to the language itself. If users browse through the displays, they will find rich, graphic access to the rapidly changing worlds of women's lives and ideas.

Sample page from
Thesaurus on Women in Development

Wheat

TT Food
BT Cereals

Widow remarriage

SN Remarriage of a woman after the death of her husband

Widowers

TT Partnership status
BT Divorced persons

Widows

TT Partnership status
BT Divorced persons

Wife abuse

UF Battered wives
TT Abuse
BT Spouse abuse
RT Marriage attitude

Wives

TT Family members
BT Family members
RT Husband wife communication
Husbands
Marriage

Women army corps

TT Organizations
BT Organizations

Women centers

TT Community centers
BT Community centers

Women in arts

TT Arts
BT Arts

Women in Buddhism

TT Women in religion
BT Women in religion
RT Buddhism

Women in Christianity

TT Women in religion
BT Women in religion
RT Christian women

Women in Hinduism

TT Women in religion
BT Women in religion
RT Hinduism

Women in Islam

TT Women in religion
BT Women in religion
RT Islam
Islamic law

Women in religion

TT Women in religion
NT Women in Buddhism
Women in Christianity
Women in Hinduism
Women in Islam
Women in Yudaism
RT Religious participation

Women in Yudaism

TT Women in religion
BT Women in religion

Women liberation movement

RT Feminists
Womens rights

Women programs

TT Programs
BT Development programs

Women protection centers

TT Social services
BT Protective services
NT Legal protection

Source: Thesaurus on Women in Development (Jakarta, Centre for Scientific Documentation and Information, 1987) p.167.

Sample page from
A Women's Thesaurus

women's liberation Alphabetical Display

women's liberation
SG History and Social Change
UF women's lib
BT liberation
RT feminism
feminist movement
men's liberation
women's movement

women's liberation movement
USE **women's movement**

women's literature
SG History and Social Change
Language, Literature, Religion, and Philosophy
BT literature
NT lesbian literature
RT female authored texts
feminist writing
literary canon

women's magazines
SG Communications
Language, Literature, Religion, and Philosophy
BT magazines
women's media
RT feminist publications

women's media
SG Communications
History and Social Change
BT mass media
NT feminist publications
women's magazines
RT book stores
communications equity
communications industry
equal access
feminist writing
freedom of the press
journalism
media coverage
media portrayal
media stereotyping
newspapers

(cont.)

women's media *(cont.)*
RT press coverage
social change
womanist writing
women's movement

women's movement
SG History and Social Change
DG Cultural and Political Movements
UF women's liberation movement
BT social movements
NT international women's movement
women's health movement
RT feminism
feminist movement
suffrage movements
women's liberation
women's media

women's music
SG Visual and Performing Arts
BT music
RT all women ensembles
feminist music
music festivals

women's networks
SG History and Social Change
Social Sciences and Culture
BT networks
NT old girl networks
RT female female relationships
queen bee syndrome
women's organizations

women's ordination
SG Language, Literature, Religion, and Philosophy
BT ordination
RT clergy
nuns
patriarchal religion
priests
religion
religious orders
women religious

SN = Scope note SG = Subject group DG = Delimiters group USE = Use

Source: A Women's Thesaurus: An Index of Language Used to Describe and Locate Information By and About Women (New York, Harper and Row, 1987) p. 510.

Sample page from
A Women's Thesaurus

Use/Do Not Use Display

USE	DO NOT USE
election campaigns	political campaigns
electroconvulsive therapy	shock therapy
electronic art	computer art
emotions	feelings
equal access	access
Equal Employment Opportunity Commission	EEOC
Equal Rights Amendment	ERA
ethnic groups	minorities
ethnic studies	minority studies
ethnic women	minority women
executive recruitment	headhunters
executors	executrixes
extended families	extended kinship network
extramarital affairs	adultery
extrasensory perception	ESP
factory workers	mill girls
fair play	sportsmanship
families	the family
family medicine	family practice
family size	ideal family size
fathers	fatherhood
female female relationships	same sex relationships
female hypersexuality	nymphomania
female intensive occupations	female dominated careers
female intensive occupations	female dominated occupations
female intensive occupations	female dominated professions
female intensive occupations	nontraditional careers
female intensive occupations	nontraditional occupations
female intensive occupations	women intensive careers
female intensive occupations	women intensive occupations
female intensive occupations	women intensive professions
female male friendships	male female friendships
female male relationships	male female relationships
fetuses	unborn child
figurative language	figures of speech

Source: A Women's Thesaurus: An Index of Language Used to Describe and Locate Information By and About Women (New York, Harper and Row, 1987) p. 1019.

Staffing

Cataloguing presents many technical problems, and therefore requires skilled staff. Skilled staff are expensive, and if they are fully occupied in cataloguing, they are not available for other equally important (or more important) tasks. Solutions (or partial solutions) may involve:

- Using less-qualified staff to complete worksheets, while professional staff are assigned to train technicians, revise their work (quality control), and solve problems which are beyond the capacity of less-qualified staff.
- Assigning the cataloguing staff to public service points for a certain period each day. This provides skilled personnel to answer users' queries, and reinforces the connection between cataloguing and retrieval in the minds of the cataloguing staff.

Minimizing delays and backlogs

Cataloguing is labour-intensive and time consuming, which makes it an expensive process. If cataloguing is slow, there are delays in making information available to users. Possible solutions to these problems include:

- Using acquisitions records as a partial catalogue (or designing the acquisitions database to complement the main bibliographic database).
- Simplifying cataloguing procedures.
- Giving priority to certain types of material (i.e. materials ordered for priority clients, materials known to be in demand, or materials which can be processed easily).
- Selecting certain peripheral or ephemeral materials for less complete processing by using:
    - KWIC (KeyWord in Context) or KWOC (KeyWord out of Context) indexes on titles, which can be used in place of abstracts and keywords (titles can be enriched if necessary)
    - broad subject classifications, in addition to acquisition numbers, can be used instead of detailed classification. This material could be processed by clerks with minimal supervision by professional staff.
- Maintaining a strict acquisition policy to ensure that all items collected by the centre are suitable and of high quality, so resources are not wasted processing documents which are of dubious relevance or worth.
- Lending documents before they are completely processed.

Minimizing difficulties in using the catalogue/database

Large catalogues/databases can be difficult to use. As a result, users may not be able to find materials. If users have problems finding materials, they may blame the information centre. To avoid problems and assist users as much as possible, the information centre should:

- Use user-friendly software.
- Carefully design display and print formats (or catalogue cards) to make them as attractive and easy to understand as possible.
- Simplify unnecessarily complex forms of entry (this should be undertaken with caution by professional staff, or the resulting catalogue may be even harder to use).
- Use references generously within the catalogue/database.
- Make users' guides, pamphlets, or posters available adjacent to the card catalogue or computer terminal which is used for searching.
- Provide orientation programmes which train users.
- Assign courteous and competent staff who can train users and assist and/or perform searches on request.

Automation

Individual bibliographic records have to be combined to form a searchable inventory of the centre's collection. The form of the inventory has to be chosen. Is it to be a card catalogue or a database on a computer? With the current price and storage capacities of microcomputers, and state-of-the-art software, it is increasingly difficult to justify manual systems, especially in new information centres.

Automated systems should replace the manual system, and in addition:

- Support more sophisticated search strategies.
- Provide printed bibliographies on request (e.g. for the centre's current awareness service, or in answer to specific requests).
- Assist information centre managers by making it easier to collect, analyze and present statistics, etc.
- Simplify routine typing tasks (e.g. preparation of book cards for the circulation system, pockets, labels, etc.).

Automated systems should save time spent on routine tasks. They do not replace staff, but they allow staff to work more productively, gain new skills, and provide better service.

Networks

The work of inventory preparation (cataloguing/database building) is a task which can be shared between members of a network. Established women's information centres with active information services can contribute copies of their databases, which can be held for searches at the network coordinating centre. Information centres can include their cataloguing/indexing data with all the other material they send to the network coordinating centre, or complete worksheets which the coordinating centre can add to the network database. Even if systems, cataloguing rules and thesauri used by each member of the network are not the same, the bibliographic records each centre develops can help the coordinating centre staff to prepare input for the network.

The coordinating centre would, of course, prefer that all members use the same formats and standards for information that is to be exchanged. In some networks this is a precondition of membership. The decision to standardize is generally made on the basis of the importance of the network to each individual member. A large and busy centre may belong to and have obligations to several networks. This is a very different circumstance from that of a small centre set up primarily to function as a local node of a network. Cooperating centres can agree to index certain documents (e.g. their own publications) according to clearinghouse standards, even if these standards are not followed in other activities.

New information centres, or centres with small collections and less-developed services, can adopt network standards, cataloguing rules and thesauri rather than develop their own. They can send staff to the coordinating centre for training, and/or receive technical assistance from it. Their indexing system will then be compatible with that of the network, so that data exchange will be simplified.

As the network develops and proves its worth, members may negotiate closer cooperation. They may jointly adopt a new thesaurus, compatible software, worksheets etc. They may decide to become more involved in regional and international networks.

Management in a time of rapid change

A network established in 1991 must meet the needs of its clients in the second half of the 1990s. Clients work in a milieu of change – economic, social and technical change. Their information needs are constantly changing. Projects end, new projects begin. Some of the new technologies of the early 1990s will be obsolete by the year 2000. If the coordinating centre and network are to be effective (and remain effective) they must be flexible. They must be ready to discard obsolete information and procedures, and respond to new needs.

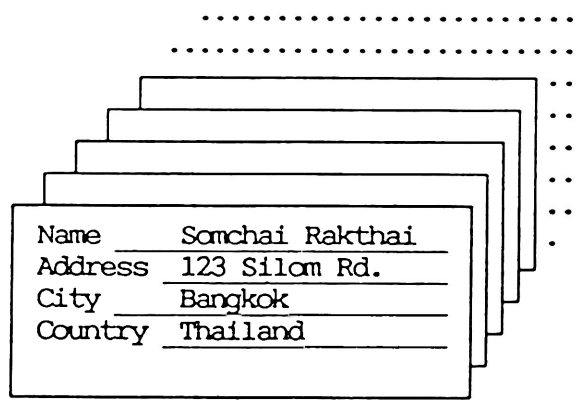
Information technology is also changing rapidly. The person or information centre that has mastered today's technology has no reason to feel complacent. Much of what is now known and practiced, will be obsolete in 10 years. An important part of the work of a coordinating centre and network concerns identifying and adopting new technologies and skills in information collection and dissemination (including cataloguing technologies and skills). In a networking environment, each change in technology should be made in a direction which increases compatibility among members.

3 Introduction to bibliographic databases

Conventional databases

Database programs enable users to store a great deal of information in the computer and retrieve it very quickly. With minimal training, and without having to write any computer programmes, anyone can set up his or her own record-keeping system.

A general purpose data management software package allows information to be stored in a form similar to the way it would be stored on index cards or paper. An example of a simplified address list is shown below.



In this example, each "card" contains information on one person, i.e. name, address, city and country. The total record for one person is called a "FILE" and each line is called a "FIELD". In this example, the first field is called "NAME"; the second, "ADDRESS"; the third, "CITY"; and the fourth, "COUNTRY".

The first step in creating a database is deciding what information should be kept in a file. In other words what "fields" should be included in each file record. Once the number of fields has been determined, the next step is naming each field and specifying its length. Generally, each field will be as long as the largest entry which will be made. For example, if "Papua New Guinea" is the longest name of a country which

could be included in the data file, then reserve a space 16 characters long: 14 spaces for the letters and 2 spaces for the spaces between words.

Once the format of a record has been defined, the computer program allows users to enter data into a "record form" one after another. After a number of records have been entered into a data file, the information can be retrieved in various way. For example, all the records in data file can be listed using a very simple command. The output may look like this:

Name	Address	City	Country
Somchai Rakthai	123 Silom Rd.	Bangkok	Thailand
Laddawan Charoensri	20 Sukhumvit Rd.	Bangkok	Thailand
Mazbar Khan	32 Main Gulmarg	Lahore	Pakistan
Bhuban Shresta	P.O. Box 455	Kathmandu	Nepal
Pichet Bunnag	132 Wongchan Rd.	Chiangmai	Thailand
...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...

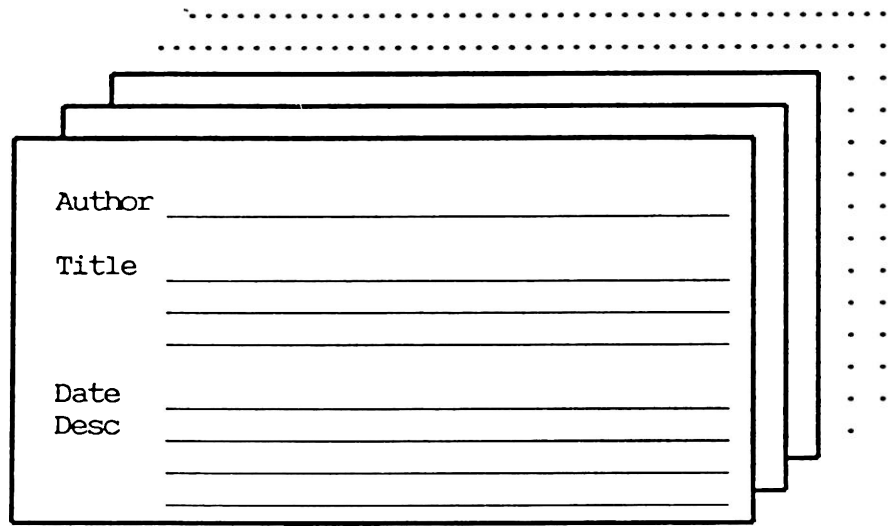
It is also possible to select and list only the names and addresses in a single country such as Thailand.

Name	Address
Somchai Rakthai	123 Silom Rd.
Laddawan Charoensri	20 Sukhumvit Rd.
Pichet Bunnag	123 Wongchan Rd.
...	...
...	...

The records can be sorted by name, by city or by any other field. The output can also be "programmed" to either display or print data in several formats, including printing form letters to people on a mailing list or printing mailing labels. Many packages enable users to build an extremely complicated system linking multiple files together such as those used in business applications. However, this will require substantial programming skills.

Bibliographic databases

In a bibliographic database fields may include author, title, date of publication and descriptors. A simplified form might look like this:



The concept of storing data in records with user-defined fields in each record is very similar to that of the address list that was described earlier. However, for the bibliographic database, several fields are somewhat longer than those in the address list. For example, the title of a book can range in size from a few words to a few lines in length. As previously mentioned, the user must reserve enough space (field length) to be able to accommodate the longest entry, in this case – the longest title, that could be put in a data file.

For example, if a title is as long as three lines, and each line is approximately 65 characters long, the field length will have to be defined as about 200 characters long. Each record entered into a data file would have storage space for 200 characters regardless of whether this much storage space is needed. Thus, it is possible to see how a lot of storage space could be used up. The storage problem is even more severe when a field for the abstract could be as long as a page.

Variable length field/record

To solve the problem of unused storage, data management software developed for bibliographic databases allow variable-length data without wasting storage space. In this case, data in each field are stored together in their actual length so that the programme can keep track of the data without relying on the fixed-length format. In effect, data in each field is "packed" – one entry right after another without wasting large amounts of unused space. If an abstract is one page long, then one page of storage space is taken; if the record does not contain an abstract, then no space is wasted.

Inverted file search

Aside from the internal structure of the data file, a bibliographic system has a slightly different requirement in terms of retrieval functions. For a conventional database such as a mailing list, one generally retrieves data based on the selection of an entire field such as city, postal code or country. However, in a bibliographic database, one often retrieves documents based on words contained in a field or several fields. For example, to retrieve all books concerning "computers", one would want to examine the title field and the descriptor field to see whether or not they contain the word "computer".

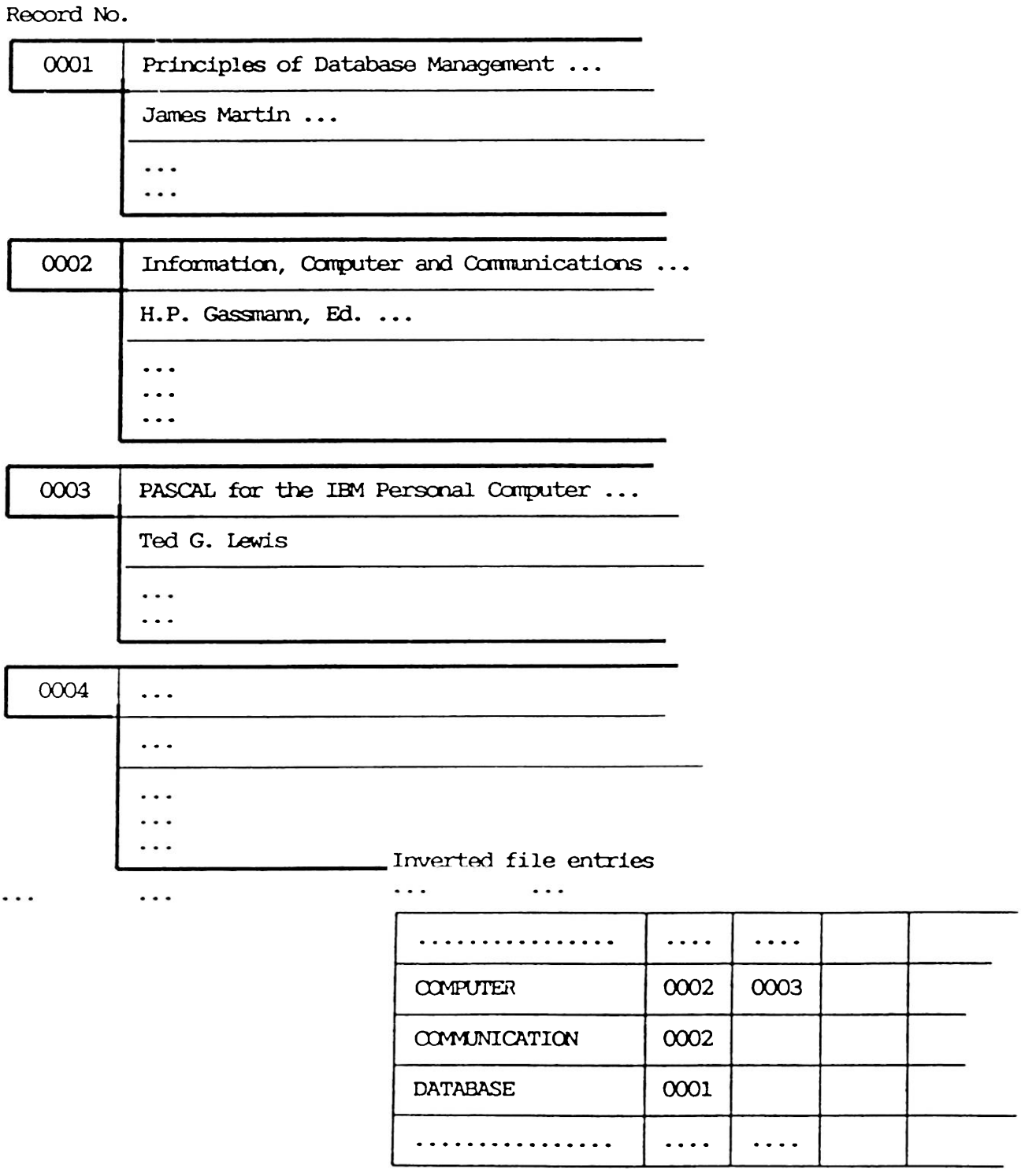
Although many conventional database packages also have the facility to search sequentially record-by-record throughout the entire database to identify records with the word "computer" in the title or descriptor field, it would be very time consuming and inefficient to process this type of search since each record is very large. The search process becomes much more cumbersome when the conditions get more and more complicated. For example, one may want to find all the books on "computer software" or "computer programs" but NOT "computer hardware" or "computer equipment". It is also evident that the more records contained in the database, the more time it will take to complete a search.

Bibliographic software packages handle this type of retrieval requirement by making index entries for all the words in a field and storing them in a separate file called an "inverted file". Each entry consists of the word extracted and information on where the words occur in the database. A simplified data file is shown below together with inverted file entries for the title field.

From the alphabetized entries in the inverted file, which is a much smaller file compared with the data file itself, the program can quickly locate the desired word and identify which records in the database contain the word. Using the record number, the program can immediately get the record without taking the time to search any other records. With the use of inverted files, the program provides extremely fast retrieval from a database containing a very large number of records. Note that this example of the inverted file is greatly simplified. A real inverted file contains much more information than just the record numbers.

In conclusion, software for database management is designed to organize the storage of information on computers. Related items of information are usually stored together in fixed length "records" and these items can be manipulated and retrieved in different ways. For applications where record length (or field length) may vary a great deal, however, these packages waste space.

Because database programs used for bibliographic data management have facilities to solve the previously-described problem, someone developing a bibliographic database should use bibliographic database software rather than a conventional database software package. By using bibliographic database software a great deal of storage space can be saved and retrieval is fast and convenient.



4 Abstracting

Abstracts are short descriptions and/or summaries of the contents of documents or other information materials. An abstract is an accurate reflection of the original. The abstracter does not edit or express any judgement about the original. An abstract prepared for a particular audience (e.g. a women's information network) emphasizes the part of the content which is of particular interest to its audience: otherwise the emphasis of the abstract should be the same as that of the original document.

Purpose of abstracting

Abstracts convey information concisely. If they are correctly prepared and properly used, they save the user's time and money.

Abstracts have a number of functions:

- Published abstracts can alert the reader to a new publication in his or her field.
- Abstracts can serve as selection aids:
  - In the course of a search, a researcher may identify more potentially useful documents than he/she has time to examine. The abstracts can be used in deciding which documents are most likely to be useful and which should be examined first.
  - A library or information service can buy, process, store and disseminate the material most likely to be of use to its clients.
- Informative abstracts can serve as surrogates for documents at certain stages of research, or in certain types of research.
- Informative abstracts can be helpful in the course of evaluating documents (or the information reported in the documents) even though they do not themselves express any judgement.
- Abstracts can serve to recall information on the content of a document at a later date.

Types of abstracts

Every short description/summary of a document is not an abstract. Two products which are sometimes mistaken for abstracts are publishers' advertisements and book reviews.

Publishers' advertisements are not abstracts. They should not be used as sources for preparing abstracts. They are simply marketing devices, to persuade the consumer to buy the book.

Book reviews are not abstracts. They may contain the equivalent of a descriptive or indicative abstract (see below), but their main purpose is evaluation, and recording the subjective reaction of the reviewer. They can be used as a source in preparing abstracts, but only with caution. The reviewer's opinions must be distinguished from the information in the original, and the emphasis of the review must be checked against the original. The reviewer may have emphasized those points which supported his or her opinion, instead of presenting a balanced picture of the original work.

Various names are given to abstracts, and some authorities distinguish a number of types. Three of the most important types are introduced below:

Descriptive abstracts or **Indicative abstracts** (see example below) are suitable for textbooks, handbooks, bibliographies, dictionaries, histories or descriptive narratives. This type of abstract indicates the main subjects covered, and the scope of the work. It serves as an alerting or selection aid, but cannot serve as a surrogate for the original document. The abstracter must be able to identify the most important items among those discussed.

88W/798 **Women and work, paid and unpaid: a selected, annotated bibliography.** Marianne A. Ferber, *New York, Garland Publishing Inc,* ISBN (hardback) 0 8240 8690 2, 1987, 408pp.

This volume provides an annotated bibliography of research about women and paid and unpaid work primarily since the 1960s. The material mainly covers the economics literature by does have references from other fields to the extent that they have made important contributions particularly relevant to economics. The literature included is largely from the US although the aim was to include information on the position of women in other countries with different economic systems, political structures and culture. The bibliography is divided into nine major sections such as general works, the family, discrimination, occupational distribution, etc. For each entry there is an indication whether the emphasis is primarily on theory, methodology, empirical evidence or policy issues.

(Source: Studies on Women Abstracts, vol. 6, No. 5 (Oxfordshire, 1988), p. 389)

Informative abstracts (see example below) are suitable for research reports, reports of tests, feasibility studies, or any document which details methods and procedures, and notes results. This type of abstract states the objective, summarizes the method in some detail (so that, for example, materials used can be identified) and states the conclusion reached. Informative abstracts tend to be longer than descriptive abstracts. They require a deeper understanding on the part of the abstracter, who must be able to identify the main subject discussed and also to identify the salient points of the methodology or argument. Great care must be taken to ensure that such abstracts are accurate.

88W/667 **Using aggregate data to estimate the part-time and full-time work behavior of Japanese women.** Tadashi Yamada, Tetsuji Yamada & Frank Chaloupka, *Journal of Human Resources,* 22(4), 1987, pp 574-583.

This paper analyses the interdependencies among the labour force participation decisions of married women in Japan. These decisions are working part-time, working full-time, being unemployed (in the labour market but unable to find work), and not participating. The authors focus on the interdependency between the decision to work part-time and the decision to work full-time. The authors obtain positive own-wage elasticities for full-time and part-time participation, with part-time labour force participation of Japanese married women being substantially more elastic than that of their full-time counterparts. The authors also find that the elasticity of full-time participation in response to the part-time wage is greater than the elasticity of part-time in response to the full-time wage.

(Source: Studies on Women Abstracts, vol. 6 No. 5 (Oxfordshire, 1988), p. 350.)

Preformatted abstracts or **data sheets** are suitable for descriptions of equipment and machinery or processes, where there are many data elements which are common to many of the descriptions. Data sheets have a number of advantages:

- The data sheet serves as a checklist, so that no important data elements are forgotten.
- It provides a format, so the abstracter does not have to plan how to structure each abstract.
- It is easier to complete data sheets than to prepare abstracts (it is easier to fill-in-the-blanks than to write an essay).
- It follows that training is shorter and simpler.
- Checking and quality control are easier.
- Comparing various features of competing technologies is easier.
- Data sheets can be stored and searched as a machine-readable database. The client can then be given a printout of the data sheets, rather than a bibliography of documents. (The data sheet includes a reference to the original document, so the document can be retrieved as needed).
- Data sheets can be translated and exchanged through international networks.

Techniques of abstracting

An abstracter must be able to identify the message of the author, and recognize what is important (to the author, and to his/her audience). Only the most important aspects of the original should appear in the abstract.

An abstracter must be able to summarize what is important, briefly, clearly, and accurately. (In some cases the abstracter needs better writing skills than the original author). The abstracter has to be disciplined in order to recognize and delete every unnecessary word in an abstract. There should be no ambiguity, no possibility of misunderstanding.

Good documents

A good document is generally easy to abstract. It is clear, logical, and well organized. The main points are highlighted by chapter headings or similar devices. The argument is easy to follow, and the conclusions are stated clearly. The abstracter has difficulty only if the subject matter is unfamiliar, and even then the problem is less severe, because a well-written document is more likely to be accessible to the non-specialist. He or she may be able to learn whatever is needed from careful reading of the document.

"Grey literature" (documents circulated in typed or mimeographed form) frequently suffers from poor typing and proofreading, and lack of editing. Difficulties are compounded when the author is writing in a language which is not his or her native language, and the typist is not familiar with the language. These difficulties do not cause problems for the abstracter, unless they are so grave that the message is in doubt because the paper cannot be read, or cannot be understood.

Poor documents

Poor documents may be inadequate in a number of ways:

- The subject content may be insufficient, confused, contradictory, biased and/or contain serious errors.
- The content may be badly organized, so that it is difficult to identify main points or follow the argument.
- Important data and linking arguments may be omitted.
- Problems of language, typing or reproduction may be so severe that the message of the document is obscured.

The abstracter has a number of options in dealing with such documents. They range from discarding the document on the one hand, to writing a serious abstract (which is basically a work of fiction) on the other. Intermediate possibilities include writing brief one-sentence abstracts, or longer abstracts which make clear the difficulties encountered (e.g. "the author states that the population of the ESCAP region will double in the next 15 years").

Abstracting a poor document takes longer (and thus costs more) than abstracting a good one. An information centre which is concerned about the quality and cost-effectiveness of its services will try to reduce the number of poor documents in its collection, and the amount of time spent processing marginal documents which must be retained. If abstracters are trained and encouraged to bring problem documents to the attention of those responsible for the collection, they can be a powerful force for quality control.

Training of abstracters

Abstracting skills are acquired through practice. The trainer/supervisor/team leader can assist in several ways. He or she should:

- Introduce the scope and mission of the abstracting service/information service, and the needs of the clientele.
- Teach the abstracter how to access previous abstracts (manual or machine system).
- Introduce the reference tools most frequently used.
- Describe and provide samples of the types of abstracts to be produced, and provide copies of any instructions/manuals to be used.
- Be available for consultation and provide regular rapid feedback, especially in the initial stages of training.
- Create a climate for solving problems. Abstracters who are unfamiliar with some of the subject areas treated in the documents should be encouraged to acquire the necessary background knowledge; they should never be made to feel insecure because they are "ignorant". If the centre is committed to the provision of high quality service, the abstracters must be encouraged to screen out documents which for various reasons will not be helpful to the centre's clientele.

Abstracters must understand and be encouraged to practice their core skills which are to: RECOGNIZE THE MAIN POINTS and summarize them, GET IT RIGHT, KEEP IT SHORT, MAKE IT CLEAR.

Abstracting in the network environment

In a network, work and resources are shared. Ideally there should be skilled abstracters working in each information centre, preparing abstracts of the material collected at the centre. These abstracts would then be forwarded with copies of the material to the designated central clearinghouse, to be available to all members of the network. In the early stages of building a network, however, this is unlikely to be the case.

What methods are appropriate if trained abstracters are not available?

- Author abstracts can be accepted, with or without modification provided they are accurate. Occasionally authors abstract the papers they wish they had written. Preparing clear, concise, logically structured abstracts is a special skill, which many authors do not have.

- Alternatives can be considered, for all or part of the collection. For example, an appropriate technology collection may consist largely of descriptions of equipment, machinery, and processes. For this material it may be useful to prepare data sheets, rather than informative abstracts.

- Training can be organized as a network project, alone or as part of other network meetings and seminars.

- Standards can be developed jointly by network members.

CHAPTER II

REPACKAGING AND PRODUCING MATERIALS

1 Introduction

Repackaging of information is the process by which complex information is simplified in order to meet the needs of particular groups of users or individuals. Repackaging fulfills a major objective for setting up national women's information centres - that of increasing the accessibility, quality and quantity of information available about women. Repackaging is designed to bring relevant information to the attention of policy-makers and opinion leaders, as well as grass-roots women, with the ultimate objective of improving the status and participation of women in development.

Much of the information sent by network members to the national women's information centre will be in the form of statistics, raw data, unpublished documents and technical reports. Legislative documents, newspaper clippings and copies of television and radio programmes could also be submitted. In its original form, much of the information submitted may not be easy to disseminate to the information centre's various audiences.

Information distributed by national women's information centres must appeal to and be easily understood by many different audiences. Information must also be concise and clearly presented. The tools and skills involved in repackaging make it possible for national women's information centres to transform information for a variety of audiences. Repackaging information helps reduce the amount of time users have to spend searching for and interpreting data and information.

2 General guidelines on writing

Writing is considered readable when the intended audience can easily understand its meaning. Readability is a function of word choice, sentence length and sentence structure.

As a general rule, use familiar words in the text. When unfamiliar words are used, the reader should be helped to understand their meaning - by definition, by association, by example or through context.

Long sentences are more likely to be misunderstood than shorter ones. Break long sentences into shorter ones. There are no set rules on the accepted length of sentences. For newly literate adults, an average sentence length of eight to ten words has been suggested.

Variety in sentence structures tends to make writing more interesting. A question can recapture the reader's wandering attention. Emphasize an important point by asking a question about it. Often sentence structure can be simplified by taking out unnecessary words or deleting unimportant parenthetical expressions.

Writing the first draft

- Gather all necessary background information and review it.
- Determine the pattern of presentation – will it be chronological, step-by step or topical?
- List all the points to covered.
- Organize the point form list into an outline.
- Write the first draft in as much detail as possible, but do not worry about grammar, style or spelling. Do not bother looking for missing information – leave blanks in the document and keep on writing.
- Double space the draft and use wide margins to allow plenty of space to write corrections.

Revising the first draft

- Logic of the paper should be sound.
- Order of presentation should be satisfactory.
- Identify redundant information
- Check accuracy and adequateness of tables and figures.
- Sequence of paragraphs should be correct.
- Appropriateness of headings and sub-headings.

Revising the second draft

- Review contents and accuracy.
- Set aside for several days.
- Reread.
- Give to a colleague for comment.

Revising the third draft

- Check language and style. The objective is to make the message clear and transmit the message successfully to receiver.
- Check that all references cited in the text are in the reference list.
- Check all figures and tables. Check their titles and captions.

The final manuscript

- Prepare according to the chosen format.
- Use proper units, nomenclature.
- Number all pages.
- Check title, correct spelling of authors names, correct addresses.
- Make sure you have a good quality copy of your manuscript.

Tools of a writer/editor

- Current edition of abridged dictionary, for example:

  Concise Oxford English Dictionary
  Merriam-Webster's New International Dictionary

- A good guide to English usage and a thesaurus, for example:

  Fowler's *Modern English Usage*
  Follet's *Modern American Usage*
  Partridge's *Usage and Abusage*
  Perren's *Writers' Guide and Index to English*
  Roget's *Thesaurus*

- A style manual, for example:

  Strunk and White's *Elements of Style*
  Chicago Manual of Style

  Style refers to the consistent use of an accepted standard for punctuation, capitalization, abbreviation, footnotes and bibliographic form, the writing of numbers and so on.

3 Writing effective news stories for newsletters

Every piece of writing has a beginning, but "news stories" have a special one – a beginning that contains the most important sentence or paragraph in the entire piece of writing.

The name of such a beginning in "news" jargon is a "lead".

The first few words of the news story must attract the reader's attention by placing the main concern addressed in the story in a familiar context and making it interesting.

Therefore, the preparation of effective leads should be among the main concerns of the writer of information that is "repackaged" in non-technical formats such as news releases.

While every paragraph in a news story may contain interesting facts, the details contained in the story as a whole are described in order of decreasing importance and thus do not attract the same level of attention from the reader.

Whether the news story is based on a "hard news" event or an interview, speech, etc., the lead remains the most important part of the entire piece of writing.

Types of leads

Conventional lead

The conventional lead recounts the major facts in a straight-forward manner. The best-known rule for composing a conventional lead is for the writer to anticipate the reader's natural questions and answer them:

Who?
What?
Where?
When?
Why?
How?

Any one of these questions may be answered first; however, the **who** and **what** are usually the most important elements of a news story as they figure most prominently in people's minds. The **when** and **where** are perhaps the least important.

The most common type of lead can become dull, however, if the writer tries to pack too many facts into the lead. It takes some skill and practice to make this type of lead short and inviting.

The experienced writer identifies the most important facts of an event, interview or speech, etc., and bases the lead on those.

Unconventional lead

There are many unorthodox ways to begin an article in order to attract the attention of the reader. Such leads, however, are more often used to begin a "feature" than a "news" article. The following are some unconventional types of leads:

Question

If well stated, this type of lead can attract interest. Most people want to know if they can answer the question correctly.

Contrast

This type of lead describes two extremes or opposites: e.g. "It was the best of times, and the worst of times".

Significant statement

A statement made by an important person or a well-known institution can be effective, as long as the statement is significant.

Epigram

This type of lead begins with a common expression or verse: e.g. "One picture is worth a thousand words".

Sequence

This type of lead reports the events as they occur. It can be useful in feature leads, as long as it is not overused, e.g. "To mark the celebration of World Food Day ... ."

Astonisher

"Screams of anguish pierced the air!"

One word

A single word that demands attention can be effective, if used in appropriate circumstances: e.g. "Fire"!

The inverted pyramid

Before attempting to use any of the types of leads, the writer of a "news" story must remember that the reader may be pressed for time, and thus will want to know as much information as possible as quickly as possible. For this reason, the news story is arranged in such a way that the reader will understand the gist of the story in the first sentence or two.

The details of the story are brought out in diminishing order of importance – hence the name "pyramid". The most important part – the base – is inverted so that it is the part first encountered by the reader.

Chronological order

There are times when the order in which events take place stand out as the natural arrangement to be followed.

For such a lead, the writer begins by writing a summary paragraph, which picks out the most outstanding, important, timely or startling information – as described above under the various types of leads.

Such a lead puts more emphasis on the action or development of a process than does the conventional inverted pyramid story.

Getting started

Before attempting to "repackage" technical information about women in the form of a news lead, begin by organizing the facts readers should know.

Jot down the answers to the leading questions previously described. and rank answers in order of importance.

Write the draft lead by composing one sentence, drawing from the elements of the story in the order already planned. Try not to cram all the important facts into the single first sentence.

Remember also to base the story on facts – not personal opinion. The writer must remain objective, impartial, disinterested. It is up to the reader to form his or her own opinion.

The news story is almost always written in the third person. The writer writes for the reader, assuming that the reader knows little or nothing about the subject.

In conclusion, articles written by people working in the field of women's development can be very effective in presenting important and easily understood information to the general public as well as to policy and decision makers.

4 Layout for publications

Layout is the manner in which anything is arranged; specifically the design of a newspaper, book, page, advertisement, and so forth. Headlines, illustrations, copy placement, borders and white space are the major elements of a layout.

Three steps in layout

1. **Thumbnail sketch** – normally done on a smaller scale than the final product, this should be the same proportions and shape as the full-size layout.
2. **Rough sketch** – full size with more detailed visuals.
3. **Comprehensive** – accurately shows what the finished product will look like.

Seven accepted principles of layout are: **balance, proportion, rhythm, movement, unity, clarity** and **simplicity**.

Balance

Balance may take one of two forms – formal (symmetric) or informal (asymmetric). A symmetric (centred) layout produces a static, restful design while an asymmetric (off-centre) layout allows a dynamic result. The choice depends on the demands of the subject matter and the needs of the readers.

Page proportioning

The layout of the page is structured by the grid imposed by the vertical columns, the margins and the space between the horizontal grids used.

When planning margins, always consider the layout in pairs of pages (spread); bear in mind the type of binding and remember to allow for page numbers and running heads (these are headlines, such as the name of the chapter, which repeat at the top each page).

Page Grids

Single column:
- usually allows plenty of unbroken text
- economical
- very long lines
- not easily read
- solid mass of text gives less opportunity to articulate subheadings, secondary text and illustrations
- maybe dull and uninviting to reader
- suitable for continuous and sustained reading in small page size, e.g. A5 (148 x 210 mm) rather than A4 (210 x 297 mm)

Two columns:
- easy to read
- can make better use of space than single column
- can be dull unless skillfully handled
- suitable for almost all types of publications

Three columns:
- a good grid for achieving an active layout
- economical

- the layout must be well controlled to avoid confusion
- suitable for documents which combine text with illustrations and diagrams or text which has to be broken up with boxes and subsidiary matter

Four columns:

- suitable for indexes, dictionaries and other lists
- economical for text with short lines
- type size will have to be small

Horizontal grids

Horizontal grids, used in combination with the vertical grids created by column widths, imposes a structure on the layout. Horizontal grids are particularly valuable when illustrations have to be included. A simple guide dividing the page equally into three or four parts can be helpful in positioning illustrations. Illustrations can be sized sensibly to match the height of the grid divisions. This will not only look good but will make it easy to change layout.

Heading systems

Be consistent in using upper and lower case. Use clear, simple typography. If text is divided by subheadings, then the main headings should be bigger and/or bolder than the strongest subheading.

Subheadings can perform two functions: to break up a long text and to clarify the relationship of one section of the text to another. Before creating subheadings, decide how many levels of subheadings are needed. Most documents can be managed with a maximum of three. The heading should be closer to the text which follows it than to the preceding text.

Rules, boxes and tint panels

These devices serve to separate text. In headings, ruled lines can give drama and vigor. In the text, ruled lines emphasize longer passages.

Boxed copy is material which is usually relevant to the contents of the page text but can be read separately and in isolation from it. Boxed copy should be given a heading or a subtitle. Treat boxed copy as an illustration.

Tinted panels are another way of separating the text or giving emphasis in a different way. Be sure that the tint will not interfere with reading the text.

Rhythm

Rhythm is obtained by repetition and progression. Repeating or alternating lines, masses, directions, weights, angles and intervals in an orderly manner gives rhythm.

Movement

Movement across a layout is usually clockwise, beginning in the upper left corner and progressing to the lower right. The ultimate goal is to lead the viewer to the centre of interest.

Unity, clarity and simplicity

A layout's primary objective is to command attention. Keep layout simple, eliminate all elements that can be omitted without destroying the central message.

Format

Format includes the shape, size, binding type, paper and general appearance of the book, report, brochure, magazine etc.

Size and shape

The size and shape of printed materials depends on the type of materials – brochure, newsletter, poster, etc. Use standard sizes to keep costs down.

Typefaces

The style of a typeface can greatly affect the appearance of a document. Basic features of a typeface:

- Whether or not it has finishing strokes (serifs) at the end of the stems, arms or tails of the letters (serif or sanserif).
- The form of serifs if it has them.
- The amount of change from thick to thin in the strokes of the letter and the abruptness of that change.
- The stress of the heavy part of the letter from vertical to oblique.

Good typesetting practice

- Less space between the characters than between words, greater space between lines than between words.
- Word space should be as consistent as possible.

- Avoid "widows" and "orphans". A "widow" is the last line of a paragraph appearing at the top of a page. An "orphan" is the first line of a paragraph appearing at the bottom of a page .

- For long passages of unbroken text, lines of about 60 - 65 characters give the most comfortable reading length.

Paper

Paper is important not only for its surface, which takes the printed image, but also for its weight and feel which can enhance or reduce the quality of the finished product. The kind, grade, weight and finish are all primary considerations in paper selection. Other factors include opacity, receptivity to ink, uniformity of colour and foldability.

Colour

Ink colours used in printing range from one (usually black) to four-colour, in which practically every colour in the rainbow is included. Four-colour allows the printing of colour photographs.

Binding

Book bindings include side-wire, saddle-wire, sewn soft-cover, sewn case-bond and perfect bindings. There are also plastic bindings (spiral, riveted) and metal bindings (screw, spiral, riveted). Select the method that most nearly matches the budget and aesthetic requirements.

5 Brochures

A brochure is a document that gives a broad overview of an organization or a subject in order to persuade the reader to request more detailed information. A women's information centre should consider developing a brochure to publicize its' services.

Function of brochures

- to provide general information
- to make a good impression
- to open the door for future, in-depth presentation
- to respond to requests for general information

Contents

- objectives/development goals of the centre
- services provided by the centre
- activities, capabilities and experiences that illustrate expertise
- publications of the centre
- staff capabilities

Structure a presentation that accords with the centre's marketing objectives. The brochure must capture the essence of the centre's personality.

One of the surest way to capture attention is with a strong, eye-catching graphic design. Good graphics increase the amount of attention given to a section and make it more likely that the reader will recall the information when there is a need.

Planning a brochure

It is a good idea to set up a simple PERT (Progress Evaluation and Review Technique) production flow chart to help everyone keep on schedule.

Sample planning schedule

The following detailed schedule for getting from initial planning to brochure distribution, covers a period of approximately seven months.

Prepare a dummy of the brochure as early as possible and get general agreement on the approach from the people responsible for approving the final publication. Having to make revisions when a publication is ready to go to the printers is very costly.

17 August - 15 September (4 weeks)

1. Review and analyze previous brochures.
2. Discuss and evaluate objectives.
3. Set a timetable for the brochure, and circulate it.
4. Plan and develop an overall theme.
5. Hire the design and graphics consultant.
6. Have the designer submit recommendations for cover design, graphic topics, format, colours, photos, illustrations, and budget.

15 September - 15 October (4 weeks)

1. Review, discuss, and make decisions regarding the designer's proposals.
2. Collect detailed information from members of the organization.
3. Tentatively decide on the distribution list: past, present, and potential users, employees, media, opinion leaders, and so forth.
4. Set the budget for the complete brochure.

15 October - 1 December (6 weeks)

1. Develop a copy outline and a design approach.
2. Schedule and shoot any special pictures needed.

3. Prepare a preliminary dummy to show styling, colour, handling of graphics, photos, and submit it to management for review.

1 December - 22 December (3 weeks)

1. Revise the preliminary dummy and copy outline, based on management's review.
2. Prepare a first draft of the text.
3. Anticipate and discuss possible production problems with the designer and the printer.

22 December - 15 January (3 weeks)

1. Prepare a final draft of the text, charts, and graphics.
2. Prepare a comprehensive dummy with all elements in place or indicated, and submit it for management's review.

15 January - 15 February (4 weeks)

1. Make changes and revisions, as dictated by management review.
2. Prepare all final artwork, charts, and graphics.
3. Have the text typeset.

15 February - 28 February (1 week)

1. Engrave the art and charts if the brochure is to be printed by letterpress. Prepare the "mechanicals" if the report is to be printed by offset lithography.
3. Review the final press proofs and authorize printing to begin.

1 March - 15 March (2 weeks)

1. Supervise the printing and binding.
2. Make the initial distribution to priority users, employees, community leaders, suppliers, and the media.

Budgeting a publication

When funds are limited, significant savings can be achieved without sacrificing the desired quality by decreasing the number of pictures, pages, and colours of printing inks.

Evaluation questions

- Is the leaflet or booklet appropriate to the needs, interests and literary level of the audience?

- Is the material organized in such a way that it can be followed and understood?

- Does the cover attract favourable attention or could it have been improved by better design or the use of different colours?
- Is the content factually correct?
- Is the writing interesting to the audience?
- Do the illustrations contribute to the message being communicated?
- Were the production and distribution methods appropriate?

Miscellaneous brochure planning tips

- The basic ingredients for an effective brochure include:
  - competent, imaginative graphics
  - grammatically-correct, accurate and interesting writing
  - good quality paper and printing
- Graphs and charts can be particularly effective in presenting a record of growth. They are especially useful in showing trends.
- The use and development of a theme that carries throughout the brochure can be helpful. A good central theme makes the brochure more interesting and serves to unify text and artwork.
- Brochures reach new audiences every time they are revised and reprinted. Therefore, just because certain aspects of the centre's operations have been covered thoroughly in previous brochures does not require that they be dropped or slighted in subsequent publications. A brochure is not a newspaper, with a constant requirement to drop old facts and add new ones. To many people the brochure will be brand new.
- Figures and percentages usually are preferable to generalities.
- In writing, clear and simple language is best.
- The brochure should be interesting. Too many brochures are just plain dull.
- Adequate spacing among elements and large clear type are important. Unusual type may look nice, but it seldom adds to readability.
- Paper and inks must not glare.
- Pages with two or three columns are easier to read than pages with a single column.
- All headings should be descriptive and relate to the overall brochure theme. Action headings are desirable, wherever possible.

Points to remember

- plan carefully
- attract and hold the attention of the reader
- be specific and accurate
- consider various production possibilities
- pretest the materials for comprehension before printing

6 Examples of information products of women's information centres

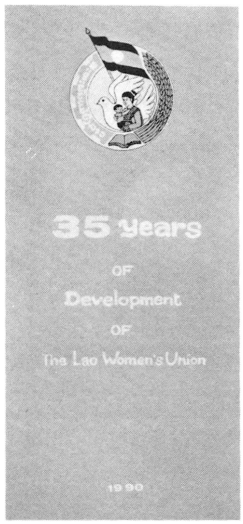
Brochures and pamphlets

examples

The Islamic Women's Institute

This brochure outlines the objectives, services and facilities of the Institute in both Farsi and English.

No 1 - 275 Hedayat Street
North Saddi
Tehran 11-489
Islamic Republic of Iran



35 Years of Development of the Lao Women's Union

This brochure describes the history of the Union as well as current activities.

Lao Women's Union
P.O. Box 59
Vientiane
Lao People's Democratic Republic

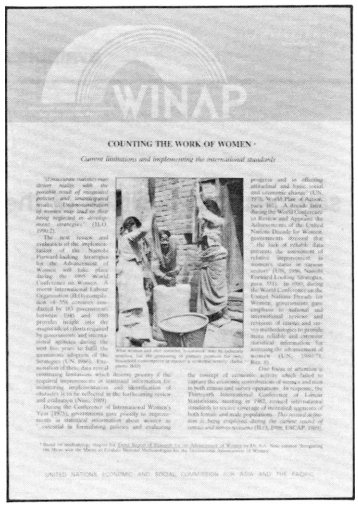
The Philippine Development Plan for Women

This brochure explains why a development plan for woman was necessary, the goals, objectives and substance of the plan, as well as strategies for implementing the plan.

The National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women
1145 J.P. Laurel Street
San Miguel, Manila
Philippines

Newsletters, news sheets

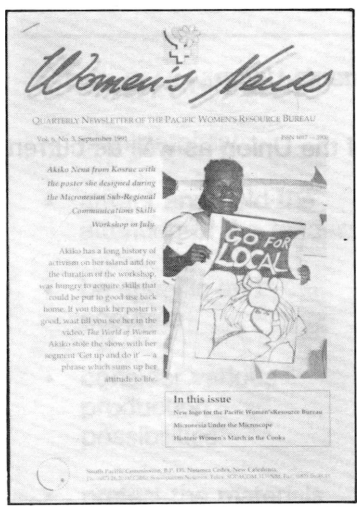
examples



WINAP Newsletter

Semi-annual newsletter of the Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP) which provides articles about current issues concerning women in the region, announcements of national, sub-regional and regional meetings, news from national focal points and announcements of recent publications concerning women in Asia and the Pacific.

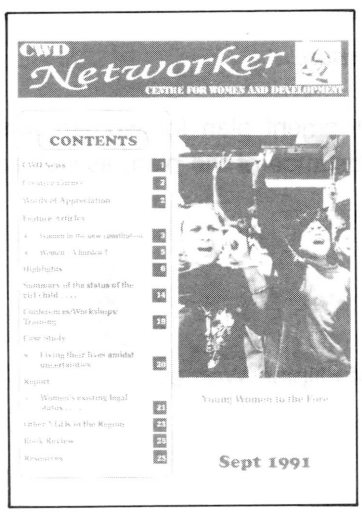
Editor, WINAP Newsletter
Social Development Division, ESCAP
United Nations Building
Rajadamnern Avenue
Bangkok 10200, Thailand



Women's News

Quarterly newsletter of the Pacific Women's Resources Bureau (PWRB) of the South Pacific Commission.

Editor, Women's News
Pacific Women's Resource Bureau
BP D5
Noumea
New Caledonia



CWD Networker

Newsletter of the Centre for Women and Development in Nepal.

Centre for Women and Development
P.O. Box 3637
Kathmandu
Nepal



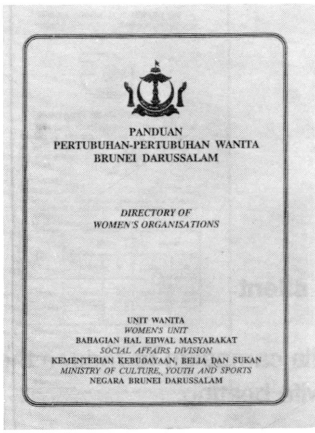
Women and Work

Quarterly newsletter of the Department of Employment, Education and Training in Australia with news about careers, education and training, government policies, women in politics, and research on Australian women and employment.

Department of Employment, Education and Training,
GPO Box 9880
Canberra 2601
Australia

Directories

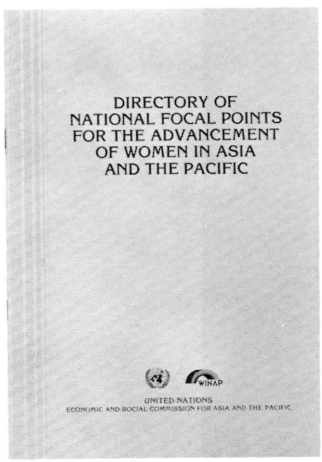
examples



Brunei Darussalam Directory of Women's Organisations

Published in Malay and English in 1991, the second edition of this directory provides information on 17 legally-registered women's organizations in the country.

Women's Unit
Social Affairs Division
Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports
Jalan Residency
Bandar Seri Begawan 1200
Brunei Darussalam



Directory of National Focal Points for the Advancement of Women

Provides information on organizational structures, functions and major programmes of 27 national focal points for the advancement of women in Asia and the Pacific

WINAP
Social Development Division, ESCAP
United Nations Building
Rajadamnern Avenue
Bangkok 10200, Thailand

Posters

examples



Think —can you still say she doesn't work?

Developed for the 1991 census in India, this poster depicts the many forms of unrecognized work which women do which make a major contribution to the economy.

Bureau of Women's Welfare and Development
Dept. of Women and Child Development
Ministry of Human Resource Development
6th Fl., A-Wing, Shastri Bhavan
New Delhi, 110001
India

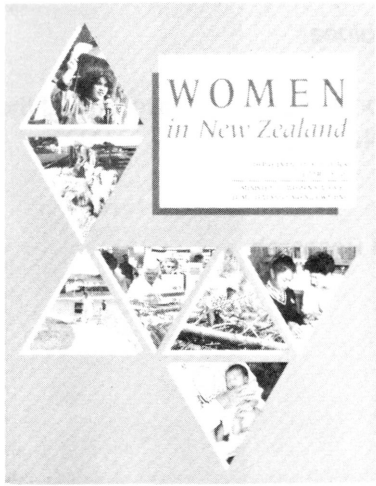


Violence and the law —no longer staying silent

Produced as part of a national multi-media campaign to reduce the incidence of domestic violence, especially wife beating.

The Women and Law Committee
The Law Reform Committee
P.O. Box 3439, Boroko
Papua New Guinea

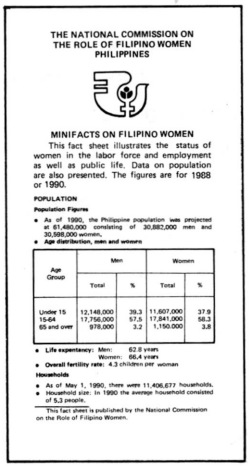
Research reports and technical summaries **examples**



Women in New Zealand

This report, which was published in 1990, provides an overview of the status of women in New Zealand since 1960, as well as statistics covering the factors which have affected the status of women for the past three decades. The publication also includes a separate essay on the situation of Maori women.

Ministry of Women's Affairs
Wellington
New Zealand


THE NATIONAL COMMISSION ON THE ROLE OF FILIPINO WOMEN
PHILIPPINES

MINIFACTS ON FILIPINO WOMEN

This fact sheet illustrates the status of women in the labor force and employment as well as public life. Data on population are also presented. The figures are for 1988 or 1990.

POPULATION

Population Figures

- As of 1990, the Philippine population was projected at 61,480,000 consisting of 30,882,000 men and 30,598,000 women.
- Age distribution, men and women

Age Group	Men		Women	
	Total	%	Total	%
Under 15	12,148,000	39.3	11,607,000	37.9
15-64	17,756,000	57.5	17,841,000	58.3
65 and over	978,000	3.2	1,150,000	3.8

- Life expectancy: Men: 62.9 years
  Women: 66.4 years
- Overall fertility rate: 4.3 children per woman

Households

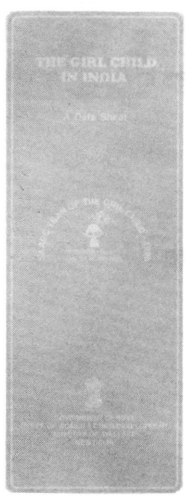
- As of May 1, 1990, there were 11,406,677 households.
- Household size: In 1990 the average household consisted of 5.3 people.

This fact sheet is published by the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women.

Minifacts on Filipino Women

This fact sheet, which is based on 1988 and 1990 data, illustrates the status of women in the labour force and employment, as well as public life.

The National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women
1145 J.P. Laurel Street
San Miguel, Manila
Philippines



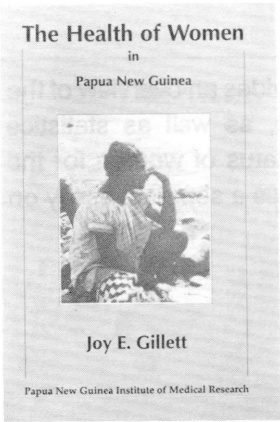
The Girl Child in India

This data sheet, which was published as part of the SAARC Year of the Girl Child - 1990, provides data on the status of female children aged 0-20.

Monitoring Unit
Government of India
Department of Women and Child Development
Ministry of Welfare
New Delhi
India

Monographs

example



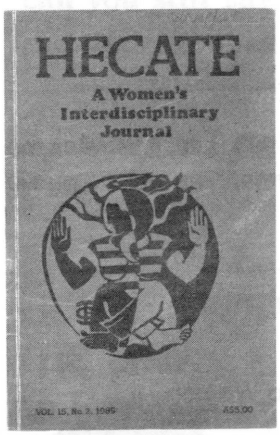
The Health of Women in Papua New Guinea

Published in 1990, this monograph provides a broad overview of the health issues facing women in Papua New Guinea.

Papua New Guinea Institute of Medical Research
P.O. Box 60 Garoka
Papua New Guinea

Journals

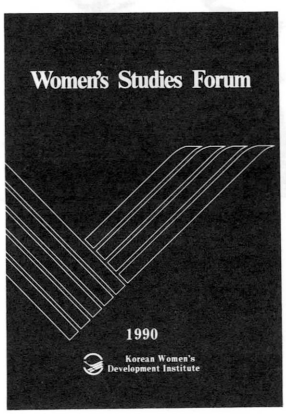
examples



Hecate

An interdisciplinary journal of women's liberation, published twice a year, which prints material of a feminist, Marxist or other radical methodology which focuses on the situation of women in a given area. The journal also accepts creative writing and graphics.

Hecate
P.O. Box 99
St Lucia, Brisbane
Queensland 4067
Australia



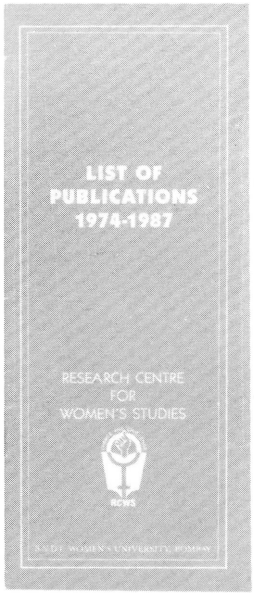
Women's Studies Forum

An annual journal of women's studies in the Republic of Korea, which is published in English.

Korean Women's Development Institute
1-363 Bulkwang-dong
Eunpyung-ku
Seoul 122-040
Republic of Korea

List of acquisitions or publications

example



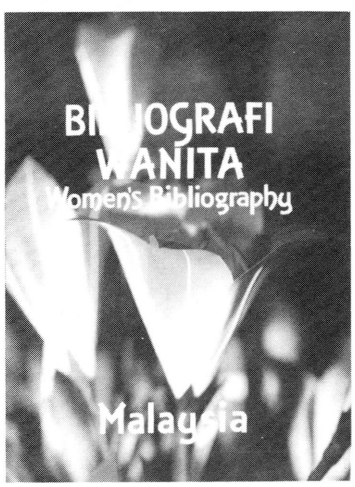
List of Publications 1974-1987

This pamphlet lists all the books, research reports, occasional papers, seminar abstracts and other publications of the Research Centre for Women's Studies

Research Centre for Women's Studies
S.N.D.T. Women's University
Sri Vithaldas Vidyavihar
Santa Cruz (West), Juhu Road
Bombay 400 049
India

Bibliographies

example



Bibliographi Wanita: Women's Bibliography

Published in 1990 in Malay and English, this bibliography provides up-to-date bibliographic information on women's issues published in reports, monographs, research papers, journal articles, conference proceedings etc.

National Population and Family Development Board
Prime Minister's Department
LPPKN Building
12B, Jalan Raja Laut
PO Box 10416
50712 Kuala Lumpur

CHAPTER III

COLLECTING DATA ON WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

Who needs statistics on the situation of women?

1. Women's groups and organizations
2. Government ministries
3. Semi-government and non-government organizations
4. Universities and other researchers
5. United Nations and other international organizations
6. Other individuals and organizations

Why are statistics needed?

1. Women's groups and organizations
- To measure and understand the situation and status of women.
- To assist in identifying the most disadvantaged groups of women.
- To measure progress and the changes in the situation and status of women.

2. Government ministries
- To measure and understand the situation and status of women.
- To assist in identifying the most disadvantaged groups of women.
- To assist in the formulation of policies and programmes designed to improve the situation and status of women.
- To monitor changes and measure the impact or effectiveness of policies and programmes.

3. Semi-government and non-government organizations
- To measure and understand the situation and status of women.
- To assist in identifying specific programme target groups.
- To assist in planning, implementation and monitoring of specific programmes relating to the situation and status of women.

4. Universities and other researchers
- To provide basic teaching and research material on the situation and status of women.
- To assist in identifying specific problem areas in which research would be useful.
- To encourage institutional support for national policies relating to improving the situation and status of women.

5. United Nations and other international organizations
- To measure and understand global and regional patterns relating to the situation and status of women.
- To assist in developing global and regional programmes to improve the situation and status of women.
- To highlight specific areas in countries for which technical assistance and financial support could be provided.

6. Other individuals and organizations
- Provide a basis for responding to specific requests for information on the situation and status of women.

1 Use of data on women

Appropriate socio-economic statistics and indicators on women are necessary to improve the status of women. Because appropriate statistics on women are not available, women's needs are not adequately considered in the planning of many development initiatives. On a smaller scale, relevant data on women is also required to support proposals for individual projects which involve women.

Although statistical data can be biased, it is readily accepted as an objective measure. Statistical information provides a means of making comparisons between different groups, allowing relative disadvantage to be identified and quantified. Statistical data also permits quite small changes to be monitored over time.

Statistics on women play an important role in the process of informing women about their own status and in informing society about the need to improve women's status. This educational role of statistics is important because it is the attitudes of society which largely determine the status of women.

Data needs

The statistical information needed to improve the situation of women is substantial. Annex I lists some of the indicators which could be considered.

In reviewing this list it is important to remember that:

- The list of indicators cannot include everything, and no country should be expected to gather all data.
- Available data will vary from country to country.
- If possible, separate statistics should be collected on urban and rural areas.

In addition, not all of the indicators listed are necessarily appropriate for every country, and some may be low priority at the present time. Indeed, it should be stressed that there is no fixed set of data that should be produced. Requirements depend on the situation prevailing in each country and on the issues which women perceive need improvement. Nor is there a need to gather a great deal of data. A little, well-chosen data, can have a significant impact, and a gradual improvement in statistics on women is likely to achieve a great deal.

Following the development planning approach, probably the main area of concern is employment. Data is needed on women's economic activities, on their occupations and on the income they earn. Given that many women live in rural areas with a subsistence lifestyle, it is important that the data adequately cover employment in the informal sector. Unfortunately, informal sector data is poor even for males.

Main sources for data on the situation of women

1. Population censuses
2. Sample surveys
3. Administrative records

Advantages of a census

- standardized concepts
- universal coverage
- usually small errors only
- conducted at regular 5-year or 10-year intervals
- able to provide detailed geographic data and information about small groups

Disadvantages of a census

- very expensive to conduct
- relatively restricted in scope
- time-consuming to process
- conducted at long intervals

Advantages of a survey

- relatively inexpensive
- flexibility in design and scope
- relatively easy and quick to process
- flexibility in timing

Disadvantages of a survey

- restricted coverage
- poorly standardized concepts
- produces sampling errors
- restricted geographic and small-group tables

Advantages of administrative records

- potentially wide range of topics
- low cost for statistics
- shared resource inputs
- continuous or flow statistics and standardized concepts

Another major area where statistical data on women is required is education, especially women's access to education and educational attainment.

Demographic and health data on women also provide useful indicators of women's status. For example, early marriage and child bearing are associated with low status, as are high birth rates and high mortality. Information on nutrition, morbidity rates and access to medical services also might be required.

There are many other areas in which statistical data on women are required for effective measurement and monitoring of the status of women. These cover the legal, political and social aspects of women's lives. For example, data showing the incidence of violence against women may be needed in order to convince others of the scale of this often-ignored crime and the need to deal with offenders. The number of women holding local or national political positions, or other public offices, might be necessary for monitoring purposes. Information on services and facilities available to women also may be required.

It should be noted that wherever data on women is produced, parallel data on males should also be produced, if applicable. The status of any person or group is measured by comparison with other persons or groups, and in the case of women, the comparison is made with males. Where data, such as fertility rates, apply only to women, international comparison is appropriate.

In some instances, there is a need for data on a special group of women who have a different status due to a particular characteristic. Examples include childless married women, unmarried women, very poor women, illiterate women, professional women, widowed women, disabled women, migrant women or women with an absent, migrant spouse.

2 Data sources

Much of the data on women is obtained from population censuses and from household surveys.

Population censuses usually provide quite comprehensive demographic information on women, including marital status, fertility and mortality rates. (In some countries, vital registration data also provides this information). In addition, a census provides information on employment, educational attainment, as well as a whole range of other potentially useful information including ethnic origins, religion, household structure, and migration. However, a census will not provide very detailed data, because the costs involved in surveying the whole population prohibit detailed questionnaires.

Household surveys provide more detailed data than censuses, and in urban areas include income and expenditure surveys, and employment surveys. When rural surveys are conducted, they almost invariably take the household as the unit of production. As a result even if women's economic activities are listed (and they rarely are) women's contribution to the economy is not obvious.

In some countries, agricultural censuses have been carried out. These are a potential source of valuable information on the rural economy, but to date have not been used to produce information on the activities of individuals.

Administrative records may provide valuable information on women, although they may not be published or classified by sex. However sex may be obvious from people's names.

3 Making the best use of currently available data

It must be recognized that there already is a great deal of data available which indicates the socio-economic position of women. Most of this data has not been exploited. Not only is it important to use already-available data, but also no serious request for additional data can be made until existing data has been thoroughly explored. It is thus a priority to examine all existing sources of data. In doing so, women's leaders will not only gain a better understanding of the situation of women, but also they will develop the knowledge necessary to define which data should be gathered.

Each country should create a central information centre where relevant data on women can be stored and made available to a wide range of users. The development of a central database will help identify gaps in statistics on women so that positive action can be taken to fill the gaps.

The location of such a database will depend on the availability of resources - financial, physical and human. However, wherever the database is located, representatives of women's groups should collaborate with statisticians in planning the design and use of the database.

Also every effort should be made to identify existing data in order to minimize the cost of creating the database.

Distributing available data

Every country should try to produce a short pamphlet (about ten pages long) containing basic data on women taken from censuses and surveys. This pamphlet should cover demographic characteristics,

education, labour force participation and income. This pamphlet will help spread knowledge about women's status and indicate gaps in information about women.

4 Improving data on women in development

The low status of women and the poor quality of data on women is of course inextricably linked. The fact that women have low status means that data on women has low priority, which in turn means that data is not available to support the case for improving women's status. The production of data on women has low priority, not only because women have a low status, but also because resources for the production of statistics in general are scarce. It is important to break this cycle.

One of the ways to improve the quality of data on women lies in increasing communication between statisticians and women's leaders, so that each has a better understanding of the issues which concern the other. Women's leaders should be involved in defining the content of census and survey questionnaires, for example. If women were trained in the use of statistics and felt able to communicate with statisticians, and if statisticians understood better the needs of women concerning data, more appropriate data might be produced.

Special unit on women's socio-economic statistics and indicators

Ideally, a special unit responsible for women's socio-economic statistics and indicators should be set up within the government with representatives from departments working with statistics, planning, women's issues, etc. However, if it is not possible to have a special unit in the government, then a group of academics, voluntary workers, and women statisticians could be asked to set up a women's unit. The special unit should make sure that:

- Methods for collecting and analyzing socio-economic statistics about women are continually reviewed and improved.
- Data is relevant to women's concerns and cover women in all socio-economic groups and categories.
- Socio-economic indicators about women are produced and well-publicized.

In summary, the following points should be considered in order to improve the range of data of women:

- Identify women's activities both inside and outside the home and break main activities into smaller components to get complete statistics on various aspects of women's work.

- Encourage collection of non-traditional data sources. Some data may be overlooked if it is usually assumed to be about women's personal concerns. In fact, data on child care, unemployment and underemployment among married women are increasingly accepted as social concerns, not just personal concerns.

- Establish data priorities and focus on the particular agency in the government responsible for collection. For example, maternal mortality data from the department dealing with health; household survey data on the hours spent carrying water from the department responsible for water supplies (by sex and in the wet and dry seasons).

- Organize discussions with people who benefit from programmes and projects in order to identify issues as well as data needs. Emphasize the benefits of participatory research and data-gathering in order to obtain valid data and mobilize people for participation.

- Since existing data may over represent the educated, urban elites, emphasize improving data collected about the majority of women in a nation, especially the rural poor.

Even where useful data does exist in published form, it has not been utilized by women. This problem occurs because women's leaders have not been adequately trained to use statistical information. This is not to suggest that women's leaders should be trained statisticians, but they could benefit from some basic statistical knowledge and an appreciation of the uses for statistical information. Training for women in statistical communication is clearly needed. It is worth repeating here that it is not the responsibility of statisticians to make use of and generally analyze data on women: it is the role of women's leaders to place the data in context and to use and disseminate it as they see fit.

Although there is a moderate body of statistical information on women already in existence, this data could in many cases be improved to make it more appropriate to the needs of women. This is particularly important for data on women's employment, which is needed for the integration of women's concerns into the economic sections of development plans.

Regional exchange of information

One of the ways of encouraging the better use and production of statistical information on women is through the regional exchange of information. One suggestion would be to organize regional meetings on a regular basis (say every two years) specifically concerned with monitoring the status of women. This would cover two aspects: first, the actual status of women, and changes in that status, and second, methods of measuring and monitoring the status of women including identifying data needs and improving data utilization. Such meetings would require detailed country reports on both aspects of data management. Although such a meeting might begin with very modest aims, over time expertise could be developed.

Finally, in addition to establishing a database on women, consider giving an award or plaque to the government office which makes the most progress in improving data on women. This event could be publicized by having a prominent woman present the award.

5 The WISTAT database

The United Nations Microcomputer Data Base on Women's Indicators and Statistics (WISTAT) is one of a number of international databases which have been developed over the past decade, and it is the only one which focuses women. A statistical database, WISTAT contains indicators and other statistics on women. Information in the WISTAT database is comprised exclusively of data supplied by countries to international agencies of the United Nations, including the Statistical Office of the United Nations. Although WISTAT contains only a small portion of the total information available in the main data collection centres in the United Nations system, its main advantage is that it has brought together in one location the most comprehensive set of gender-based statistics available at the international level, thus making data on women more accessible to a broad cross-section of users.

Geographic coverage of WISTAT

WISTAT covers all countries and areas in the United Nations system with a population of 100,000 persons or more supplying information to the divisions of the Secretariat and the specialized agencies of the United Nations.

Subject coverage of WISTAT

The coverage in WISTAT is organized by subject fields and topics. Eight subject fields representing 54 topics are included in the database. The composition of topics within subject fields are as shown below:

Subject field	No. of topics
a. Population Composition and Distribution	5
b. Education	10
c. Economic Activity	9
d. Households and Marital Status and Fertility	8
e. Health and Disability	12
f. Political Participation	5
g. Crime and Criminal Justice	2
h. National Product	3
TOTAL	54

Major data sources

The main data sources used in the WISTAT database are the statistical data collection divisions of the Secretariat along with the specialized agencies which collect and process information supplied by the countries and areas. The sources include the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs (CSDHA), the Population Division and the Statistical Office of the United Nations within the Department of International Economic and Social Affairs (DIESA), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the World Health Organization (WHO), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). Supplementary sources include the Inter Parliamentary Union, the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO), the database of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) and the record of Personnel Questions of the United Nations.

General format of WISTAT

WISTAT is a computerized database, developed for use on a micro computer with the capability of utilizing either standard, popular commercialized software applications or specialized user-friendly software developed for this purpose. It has been developed in the form of tables using a spreadsheet format. Each table represents one topic and the total database is accordingly a library of tables representing a wide cross-section of subject fields and topics. Subject fields are selected based on two criteria: perceived need and data availability, while topics relating to the selected subject fields are included based mainly on data availability.

A number of factors were taken into account in the development of the WISTAT database. One aspect was the type of hardware and software which would be used. A major objective was to make the information as user friendly as possible. This led to the decision to develop it for use on microcomputers using user-friendly software packages. Because of the popularity of software spreadsheet packages such as Lotus 1-2-3 and to a lesser extent, Multiplan, Supercalc and Excel, the decision was taken to use Lotus 1-2-3 because it can be easily translated into the other software languages specified above.

Because Lotus 1-2-3 is not as flexible in terms of data management as was deemed necessary, it was decided that a more inter-active operating system should also be designed to be used with the database. The advantage of the inter-active system would be the relatively easy convertibility of data into smaller table units in order to respond to the varied requests which will inevitably arise.

A number of the commercially available inter-active database management systems were examined and against this examination and the limitations of the different systems, a decision was made to have a

special application software package written for the database.

Limitations of WISTAT

The main limitation of WISTAT is that it does not include in its coverage countries with small populations. The decision to exclude these small countries was due to the relatively low levels of data available in these countries. (The design of the database, however, allows for changes which could result in increasing the number of countries included when levels of available data make it feasible.) A further limitation relates to the restricted subject and topic coverage, again determined by data availability.

Advantages of WISTAT

A major advantage of WISTAT is that it can serve as a model for the development of national databases and may, in addition, provide input which could enlarge the content of national databases.

Availability of WISTAT

WISTAT is available for wide distribution to countries and to regional and international organizations. To order the WISTAT database, write to: United Nations Statistical Office (UNSO), United Nations, New York, N.Y. 10017, U.S.A..

6 Presenting statistical information

Tables

It is important to present and arrange quantitative data in a logical and concise form in order to facilitate understanding.

- Data must be presented in a logical sequence. Give a serial number to each table.
- Tables and charts must be unambiguous to facilitate understanding. The title of the table or chart should make it intelligible without explanatory text.
- The units of measurement used must be clearly stated.
- Tables with one variable only are called one-dimensional. Tables with two variables are called two-dimensional and those with many variables are multi-dimensional.

To show the relationships between variables, draw tables showing joint distribution of two or more variables.

Since 1975, both women and men have spent less time in total work in most of the developed regions
Time spent in work (hours per week)

	1975 or earlier						1976 or later					
	Economic activity		Unpaid housework		Total working time		Economic activity		Unpaid housework		Total working time	
	f	m	f	m	f	m	f	m	f	m	f	m
Northern America and Australia	18	44	36	10	54	54	19	35	30	15	49	50
Japan	28	56	31	3	59	59	27	52	29	3	57	55
Western Europe	15	41	35	8	50	49	18	34	31	11	49	44
Eastern Europe and USSR	36	52	39	15	75	66	37	48	33	15	70	63

Source: Data are averages from a small number of studies in each region, compiled by the Statistical Office of the United Nations Secretariat.

(Source: The world's women 1970-1990: trends and statistics (New York, United Nations, 1991) p. 82)

Graphic presentation

Statistics are difficult for non-technical people to understand, but if they are presented using graphs and charts, statistics become not only easier to understand but also easier to remember. This is of special importance if statistics are to be presented to less educated people.

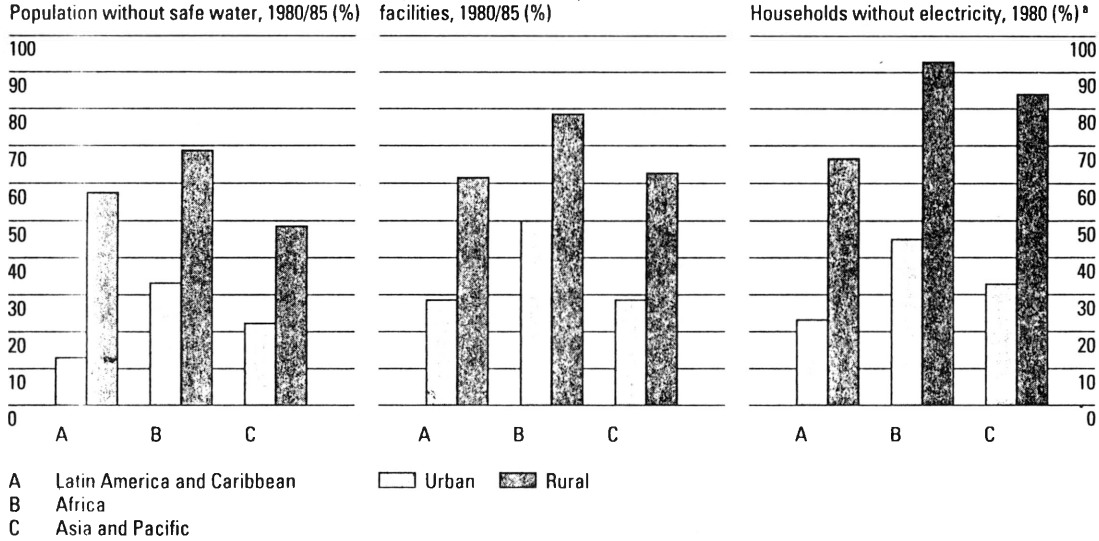
Several devices are used for graphic representation. The most common ones are:

- bar charts
- line charts
- pie charts
- pictorial charts

Bar charts

These consist of bars which are proportionate in length to the quantities represented. Bars may be drawn horizontally or vertically. The relative significance of different values is seen by comparing the length of the bars.

In developing regions, access to safe water, adequate sanitation and electricity is very limited in rural areas



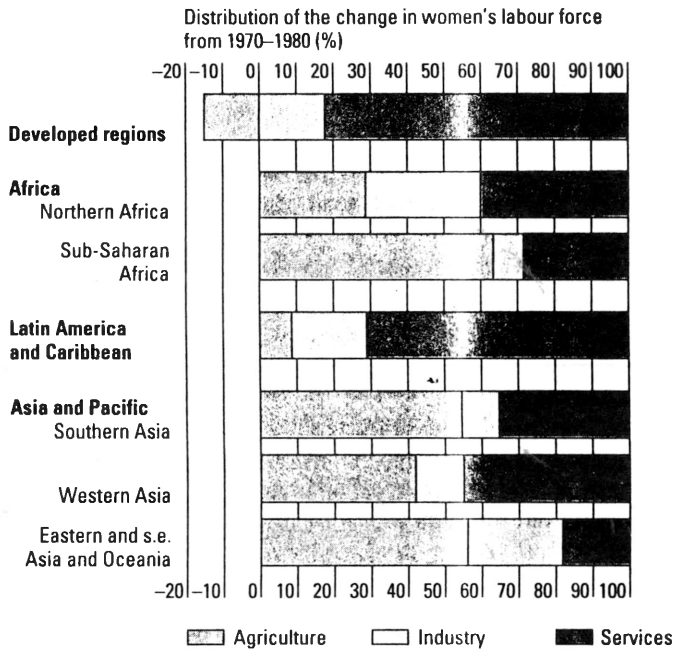
Source: Compiled by the Statistical Office of the United Nations Secretariat from Statistical Office and WHO databases.

a Averages based on a small number of countries or areas in each region.

(Source: The world's women 1970–1990: trends and statistics (New York, United Nations, 1991) p. 74)

A composite bar chart is made by dividing a bar into units, the total of which represent 100%. The effectiveness of the chart depends largely on the choice of shading, the choice and placement of the headings and the graphical arrangement of the different bars. Bars representing different categories may be placed in order of their magnitude or according to alphabetical order.

Much of the increase in the women's labour force has been absorbed by services in Latin America and the Caribbean and the developed regions and by agriculture in Asia and sub-Saharan Africa



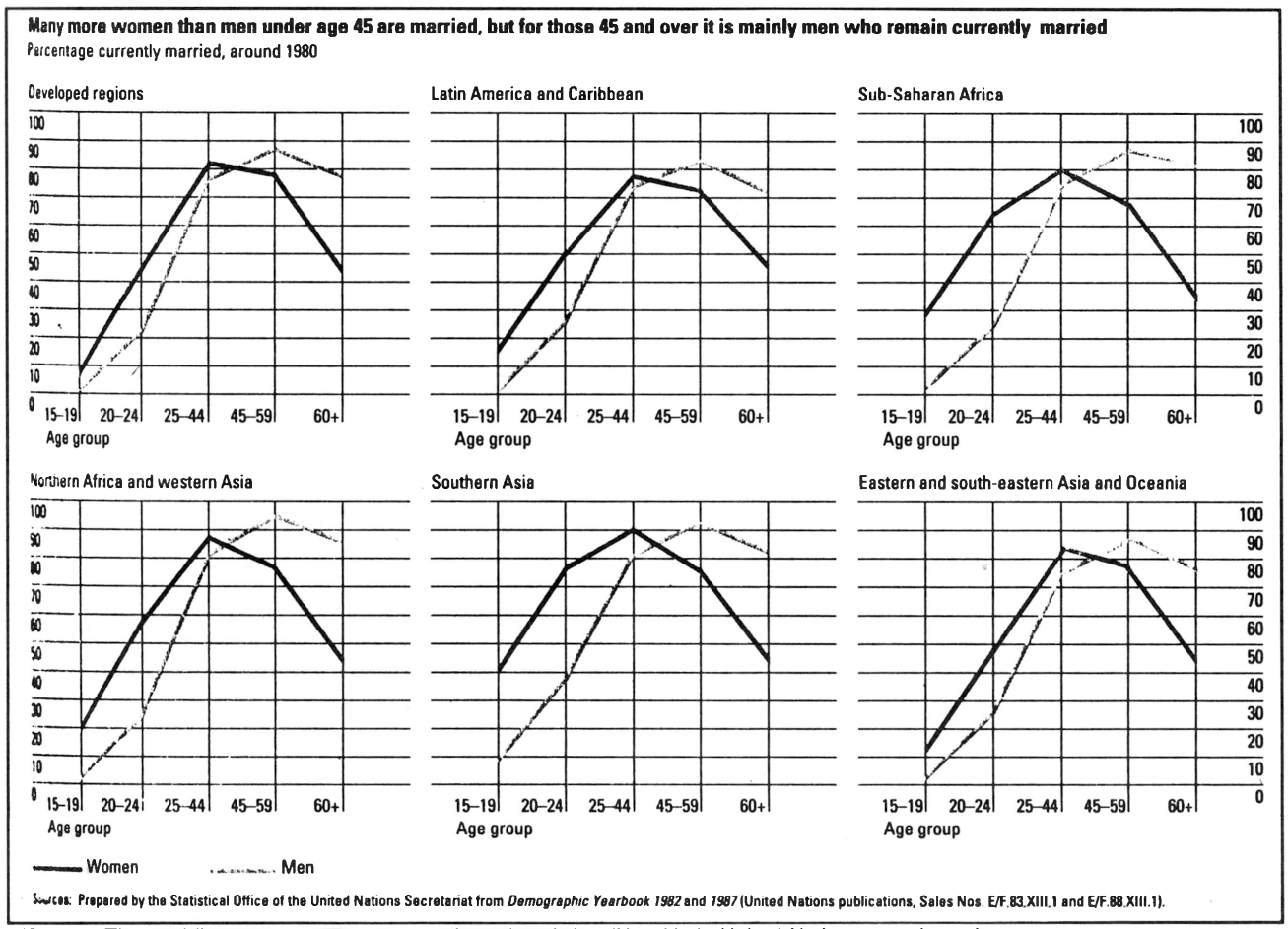
Note: Based on regional totals, not country averages.

Source: Prepared by the Statistical Office of the United Nations Secretariat from International Labour Office, *Economically Active Population—Estimates, 1950–1980, Projections, 1985–2025*, six volumes (Geneva, 1986).

(Source: The world's women 1970–1990:trends and statistics (New York, United Nations, 1991) p. 91)

Line charts

These consist of one or more straight or curved lines drawn on a background of vertical and horizontal lines which form the scales of the chart. The horizontal line should be read from left to right and the vertical one from bottom to top. On this grid, curves may be plotted of the facts to be compared or associated with each other.



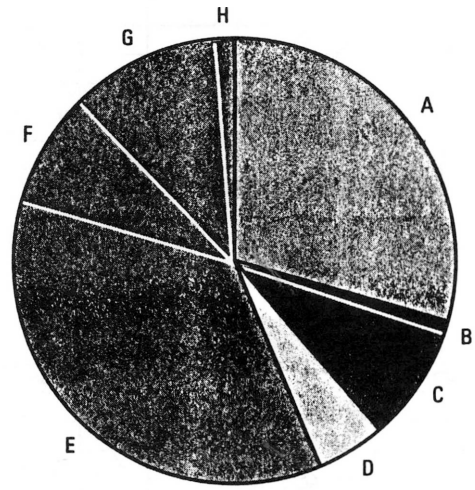
(Source: The world's women 1970-1990: trends and statistics (New York, United Nations, 1991) p.15)

Pie charts

This type of chart presents the whole, or 100%, as a circle. The circle is divided into different segments, each segment representing a percentage.

More than half the world's women in the labour force live in Asia

Percentage distribution of the world's female labour force, 1990



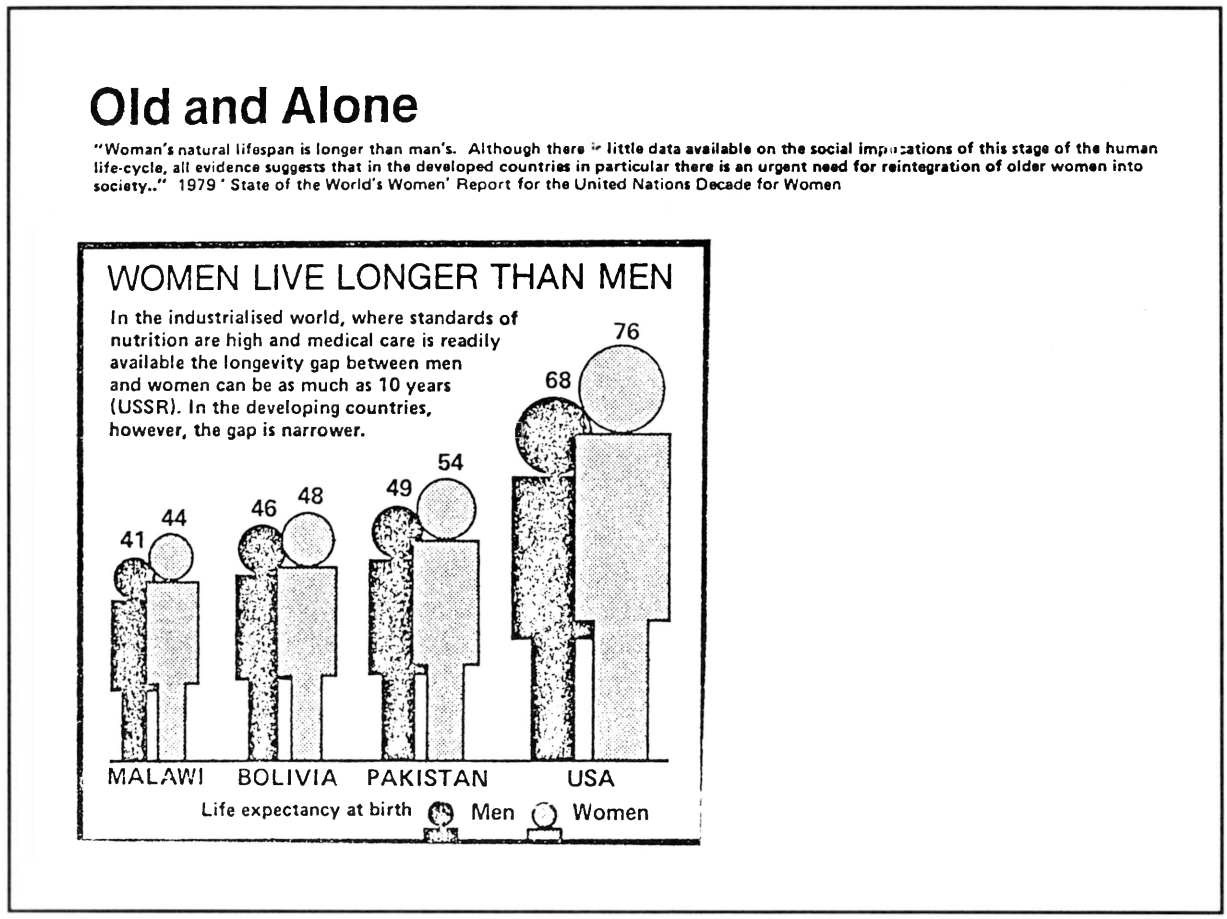
Developed regions
A All developed regions (29.3)
Africa
B Northern Africa (0.7)
C Sub-Saharan Africa (8.6)
Latin America and Caribbean
D All Latin America and Caribbean (5.0)
Asia and Pacific
E Eastern Asia (35.8)
F South-eastern Asia (8.2)
G Southern Asia (10.9)
H Western Asia (1.4)
Oceania (0.1)

Source: International Labour Office, *Economically Active Population—Estimates, 1950–1980, Projections, 1985–2025*, six volumes (Geneva, 1986).

(Source: The world's women 1970–1990: trends and statistics (New York, United Nations, 1991) p. 83)

Pictorial charts

In pictorial charts, the units are represented as pictures instead of points on a scale. Each picture unit represents a certain value. Comparison is made in terms of length of rows containing different pictorial units. For example pictures of human beings are used for population data.



CHAPTER IV

CONDUCTING PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH AMONG WOMEN

Most of us have been conditioned to believe that research is something that is done by experts, in universities and colleges and laboratories. This is the mystification of research.

All of us, even the poor and the weak, need research, in some way or the other. Ordinary people including poor women, already do some research, and can be encouraged to do more research in order to survive and improve their lot. This is participatory research.

What is participatory research?

- Participatory research is a systematic process which involves people in the analysis of their own situation. Every individual carries out some research every day.
- Participatory research gives women the skills and confidence to understand their own situation. Surveys made by experts make women dependent and prevent them from improving their present condition.
- Most women's programmes are based on the analysis made by outside experts who have a different perception of poor women. Frequently, they create programmes on the basis of their analysis, which do not fulfil women's real needs.
- The main limitation of this type of programme is that once it fails, the experts blame the poor women instead of their wrong perceptions.

1 The process of participatory research

A series of simple steps are taken in conducting participatory research. They are as follows:

1. What is the problem?

A group of women first agree on a common statement of a problem. Some common problems, for example, are wife-beating, low income, indebtedness, sickness of children, etc. The problem should be stated clearly and concretely.

2. Do we need a solution?

The group of women should express interest in solving the problem. Sometimes, problems are identified merely because someone asked them about their problems. This step should ensure that there is a willingness to understand the problem in its entirety and its underlying causes, as well as an attempt to solve it. Questions like: "Why do we want to solve the problem?" "How will we benefit if the problem is solved?" may help in clarifying this.

3. What do we know about the problem?

The group of women record all that they already know about the problem. For example, if the problem is sickness of children, then they can each describe the sickness, its type, intensity and duration in the case of their own children. This helps in focusing on the problem in a concrete way.

4. What else do we need to know about the problem?

Having articulated and recorded what they already know about the problem, they can then begin to identify what else they need to know about the problem. For example, how widespread is the problem? Why does it occur in this form? Continuing with the example of sickness of children, the group may need to know how many children in the hamlet (or the village) are affected by those diseases, why the sickness occurs, what are the ways to prevent and cure the sickness, etc.

5. How are we going to collect additional information?

This is the step of data-collection. The group needs to decide how to get the information, whose assistance is needed, when they will get the information, and who in the group will do what.

6. What do we learn from this information?

Having obtained the information, the group collectively analyzes that information. It is important that analysis and reflection is undertaken as a collective process, not to be done by one person alone. This will help the group understand the causes of the problem and provide clues for possible solutions.

7. What solutions are possible? What actions are needed?

Various solutions to the problem are generated, their workability is assessed and the choice of solution is made. Then, in order to solve the problem, plans are made concerning what actions are to be taken by whom, when, where, and how. Then these actions are taken.

8. What do we learn from these actions?

In this step, the impact of the actions taken is systematically assessed to see if the problem is fully or partially solved. The actions taken may sometimes create new problems. So, this step is once again the beginning of another process of participatory research. Thus, participatory research becomes an ongoing process in the group, as part of its normal activity and not something separate.

Don't assume, consult women

In a certain district, an agency wanted to implement a rural development programme for tribals, in particular focusing on the needs of women and children. To plan the programme, the agency sent a team of experts to do the initial survey.

One of the major findings of the survey was that most women were not employed in any productive economic activity. One potentially good area for such activity appeared to be dairying.

The agency felt that breeding of good cows and production of milk would not only give extra nutrition to the children and other members of the family, but also produce additional income.

Extension workers went to the villages to talk to women to convince them about the need for dairying. In most cases, the extension workers were able to persuade two or three women to attend training camps for dairying organized at a demonstration dairy farm. Then the agency worked out an arrangement with the local lead bank to provide subsidized loans to tribal women who wanted to buy good cows for dairying. When this scheme was announced, hardly any women came forward to buy the cows.

After a year, the agency became very concerned about the failure of its programme. So it made great efforts to find out why the women did not come forward to buy cows with subsidized loans.

After great difficulty, they learnt that milk was considered some form of pus (bad secretion) among tribals and they preferred to keep away from it. The agency also learned gradually that the tribal women were productively engaged in a variety of activities, though not in the cash economy – household work, bringing firewood, fetching drinking water, etc.

2 Methods in participatory research

A variety of methods can be used to carry out participatory research among women. Some of those methods are as follows:

Self-survey

The small survey is a common method of data collection. A group of women can investigate a problem by using a questionnaire to collect the opinions of a large number of women. The questionnaire should be simple and should have only a few (8-10) questions. Each question should also be simple and straightforward. Care should be taken to keep the questions short and clear. A good questionnaire should seem like an easy conversation. The information thus obtained can then be analyzed by adding together the responses.

Group discussions

A small number of women (8-25) come together to share experiences and decide on action through group discussion. It is one of the most popular and easy methods of conducting participatory research and it has the advantage of combining data-collection and analysis, and action-planning. In a group discussion contradictory points of view can be openly discussed and analyzed. This facilitates a deeper analysis of the problem as well.

This method can be easily used in combination with other methods. For group discussion to be successful, a comfortable atmosphere should be created so that all women participate actively and listen to each other. If there are a large number of women in the group, divide participants into smaller groups. For effective discussion, form groups of between 6 and 8 people.

A camp, workshop or training programme can be used to carry out participatory research. It is generally organized over a day or two with common living and eating arrangements. Generally women from different villages long distances apart, come together. Depending upon the facilities available, 50 to 100 women can participate in one camp.

These camps allow an opportunity for reflection away from daily pressures, and facilitate the development of solidarity among participants. The informal atmosphere of a camp facilitates educational programs as well.

Research team

Some research requires the assistance of people with technical expertise. In these situations, members of the research group invite professional researchers to help study the problem and find appropriate solutions. The researchers take their direction from the group.

Fact-finding visit

Sometimes it is useful for a group interested in solving a problem to visit another area where a similar problem has been solved. The tour to another village can become an investigative visit to find out how women in similar circumstances solved a similar problem. Visits can also be organized to government offices to find out about various programmes and their implementation.

Visits need to be carefully planned to make best use of the time spent. The group should be willing to engage in continuous reflection, both during and after the visit. After the visit, participants' findings and reflections can be shared with others.

Audiovisual production

Sometimes the group wanting to engage in participatory research may find itself uncomfortable with written methods. This is particularly true with women who are illiterate. In such circumstances, group discussions or individual interviews can be audio taped or video taped and then replayed for analysis. Black and white photographs have also been effectively used to promote reflection and analysis.

Some women can be encouraged to draw their perceptions of a problem on a blackboard, paper or cloth. Cuttings from old magazines and other materials can also be used to prepare a collage. All these methods can be effectively used to stimulate analysis and reflection and can be easily combined with other methods.

Popular theatre

Songs, dances, puppetry and simply produced dramas have all been used as an effective method of participatory research.

The group members identify a problem and enact a skit or play about it in the presence of others. It is then discussed with the audience to stimulate further analysis, reflection and action.

Documents

Analysis of existing documents is another method of participatory research. Reports, papers, documents, registers, diaries and books may contain useful information about a particular problem.

One limitation is that it is sometimes difficult to locate and obtain needed documents. Documents also require literacy skills to analyze them.

Breaking the routine

In certain tribal areas, women had been working as agricultural labourers for very low wages. Over time, a local organization developed which fought for minimum wages for men and women. In the course of getting together, they decided to hold a "shabir" (camp) for women.

In the camp, about 25 women came together from six different villages. The first activity in the camp was self-introduction. Each woman stood up and gave her name, the name of her village and spoke about her family, etc. This act of introduction, very small in itself, had a tremendous effect on their confidence. It also helped them to see their situations were similar.

As introductions ended, women started talking about their problems – of poverty, wife-beating, alcoholism etc. At the end of a two-hour discussion on wife-beating, it became apparent to the women this was due to alcoholism among their men. Alcoholism also drained their otherwise meager family incomes. They began to discuss the fact that non-tribals were making money brewing and selling liquor in their villages.

Having reached this understanding, some women attending the camp asked, "What are we going to do about it?" A number of ideas were generated, and many were discarded after evaluating their feasibility. Finally all the women agreed they would confront the brewer in the village.

Going as a group to the brewer, they threatened to expose his illicit brewing if he did not stop immediately. Sensing a collective action, the brewer promised to stop.

In the course of this action, the women met the street policeman and started interrogating him. They asked him why he had not reported the illicit brewing earlier. They questioned him about his duties, the source of his income, the amount of his salary from the government, etc. The questioning led them to understand how the government earned money through indirect (and direct) taxes (for example, taxes on cloth, matches, petrol, etc) which were paid by ordinary people like them.

Thus one can see that this camp became a research event. Women came together, analyzed their situation collectively, developed an understanding of connections between wife-beating, illicit brewing of liquor and continued deprivation, and took concrete action to change that situation. The process of collective and systematic analysis and reflection was set in motion through the camp.

ANNEX I

MINIMUM LIST OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS RELATED TO WOMEN'S CONCERNS

Annex 1

Minimum list of socio-economic indicators related to women's concerns

In reviewing this list it is important to remember that:

- The list of indicators cannot include everything, and no country should be expected to gather all data.
- Available data will vary from country to country.
- If possible, separate statistics should be collected on urban and rural areas.

In addition, not all of the indicators listed are necessarily appropriate for every country, and some may be low priority at the present time. Indeed, it should be stressed that there is no fixed set of data that should be produced. Requirements depend on the situation prevailing in each country and on the issues which women perceive need improvement. Nor is there a need to gather a great deal of data. A little, well-chosen data, can have a significant impact, and a gradual improvement in statistics on women is likely to achieve a great deal.

The following list was suggested by the WINAP Seminar at Saitama, Japan in 1986.

Demographic and health indicators

- Birth rate by sex
- Fertility indicators, e.g., average number of children by age of mother
- Family planning acceptors by sex
- Average age of first marriage by sex
- Average age of mother at birth of first child
- Nutritional status of population by age, sex and marital status
- Hemoglobin level, especially of pregnant and lactating women
- Ratio of maternity beds to number of deliveries
- Immunization by sex
- Health insurance coverage by sex
- Life expectancy by sex
- Physical and mental disability by sex and age
- Infant and child mortality by sex
- Maternal mortality by age
- Major cause of death by sex
- Internal and external migration indicators by sex
- Proportion of widowed, divorced, separated and deserted by age and sex
- Household heads by sex, age and civil status

Educational indicators

- Adult literacy rates and sex ratio among illiterates
- Sex ratio of enrolment at primary, secondary, vocational and higher education
- Sex-ratio among primary and secondary school-age groups who are not enrolled
- Gender bias in content of vocational and higher education programmes
- Gender bias in content of non-formal education programmes
- Sex ratio of teachers at various levels
- Sex ratio of heads of educational institutions

- Review of instructional materials for sex bias
- Number of dropouts by sex, age, level of education
- Participation in programmes for dropouts by sex

Economic participation

- Contribution of women to housework and of housework to GNP
- Time allocation/budget by age and sex
- Labour force participation (as conventionally defined) by sex, age and sectors (urban/rural)
- Employment and underemployment by age and sex, industry and occupation (urban/rural)
- Unemployment by age and sex (urban/rural)
- Overseas employment by sex
- Share of women in the workforce by employment status (own-account workers, wage workers and unpaid family workers) in agriculture, fisheries, livestock rearing, forestry and horticulture
- Share of women in providing free goods (fuel, water, fodder, food) and services for family maintenance. (It is important to study the impact of development strategies on women's traditional family maintenance roles.)
- Women's share of the workforce in the informal sector, rural and urban, especially in trade, and in manufacturing (both traditional and nontraditional)
- Women's share in the workforce in specific service sectors such as domestic service, trading, teaching, nursing, medicine, statistics, planning, communications (information and media), religion-related occupations, voluntary community work, management, legal services, banking and the civil service
- Share of women in semi-legal activities such as liquor-brewing, prostitution, begging, etc.
- Apprenticeship by sex and occupation
- Wage differentials by occupation and sex
- Access to land/forest produce and water classified by right of use and ownership by sex
- Women's access to credit in their own right
- Women's membership in co-operatives, and other organizations
- Proportion of women among agricultural extension officers
- Proportion of women among heads of companies, stock exchange members, etc.

Legal rights

- Existence of machinery to redress discriminatory acts against women
- Review of laws such as penal code, economic and developmental legislation, etc., for discriminatory provisions regarding women
- Repeal, revision or amendment of laws discriminatory to women
- Existence of special measures in favour of women (quotas or affirmative action programmes)
- Women's rights relating to independent retention of nationality and determination of children's nationality

Political participation

- Percentage of women voters and their turnout in elections/referenda compared to men (rural/urban)
- Proportion of women elected/appointed to public office at various levels of government (rural/urban)
- Proportion of women in policy-making positions in government: national/central, regional, local etc.

- Women's membership in political parties, inclusion in party lists
- Women's non-governmental organizations concerned with public affairs
- Number and nature of women's issues on agendas of political parties
- Proportion of women members in general non-governmental organizations (rural/urban) and of trade/labour unions proportion of women office holders in these organizations
- Proportion of women in diplomatic service
- Proportion of women employees in international organizations
- Proportion of women amongst judges and lawyers
- Proportion of women workers in media/proportion of women holding editorial positions in media
- Public opinion or attitudes on women/women's issues

Access to social services

For each of the fields listed below, information should be collected on:

- Sex-ratio of beneficiaries
- Sex-ratio of service providers
- Number of places, etc. available
- Percentage of women who do not have access to these services or who have only restricted access.
    a. Health care
    b. Child care facilities
    c. Family planning
    d. Safe drinking water and sanitation
    e. Maternity benefits
    f. Social security and similar benefits.

Government allocation of resources for women's concerns

- Budget allocations for women's development, by sector (agriculture, industry, education, health)
- Allocation of professional and support staff and other facilities to implement and monitor adequate development support for women in various sectors

Social indicators for women at special risk

- Violence against women, such as murder, assault and rape (possible information sources: social service centres, women's crisis centres, police/court records, media reports, medical records)
- Statistics on criminal offenses by sex involving prostitution/traffic in women
- Proportion of women in shelters for the homeless, and among those appealing to religious/voluntary agencies for assistance
- Other special at-risk groups, such as widows (who in some areas lose access to land for food production), deserted wives with young children, those applying to food-for-work schemes, etc.
- Suicides by age and sex

ANNEX II

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS, RESOURCE PERSONS AND DOCUMENTS AT WINAP WORKSHOPS ON THE TECHNICAL PROCESSING OF INFORMATION CONCERNING WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

Annex II

SOUTH ASIAN SUBREGIONAL WORKSHOP ON THE TECHNICAL PROCESSING OF INFORMATION CONCERNING WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

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Country papers

	Recent Developments in Women's Information:
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C1	Bangladesh
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C2	India
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C3	India
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C4	Islamic Republic of Iran
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C5	Islamic Republic of Iran
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C6	Pakistan
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C7	Sri Lanka
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C8	Bhutan
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C9	Afghanistan
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C10	Afghanistan
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C11	Sri Lanka
SD/WINAP.90/SA-C12	Nepal

Resource papers

SD/WINAP.90/SA-R1	Aspirations, Information and Networking for the Advancement of Women (by Shirley Nuss)
SD/WINAP.90/SA-R2	Improving the Status of Women and Population Policies and Programmes: Information Needs (by K.S. Seetharam)
SD/WINAP.90/SA-R3/1	"Counting the Work of Women", in *WINAP Newsletter*, No. 7, 1990.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-R3/2	"19.6 Million New Economic Opportunities for Women Required Annually", in *WINAP Newsletter*, No. 7, 1990.

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SD/WINAP.90/SA-T2	Strategies for the Technical Processing of Information from Report of the World Conference of UN Decade for Women, Equality, Development and Peace, Copenhagen, 1980.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T3	Making the Strategies Work: Non-governmental Organizations for the Advancement of Women of Copenhagen, 1980, Nairobi 1985, Vienna, 1990.
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SD/WINAP.90/SA-T5	Strategies for the Technical Processing of Information with Revised Resolutions concerning the International Standardization of Educational Statistics.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T6	Regional Plan of Action from Report of the World Conference of the International Women's Year, 1975 Mexico City.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T7	Census Statistics on Economic Activity in South Asian Countries.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T8	Statistics on Illiteracy in South Asian Countries.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T9	Statistics on Education in South Asian Countries.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T10	Case Study of Repackaging Statistics for the Press.
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	Declaration on the Participation of Women in Promoting International Peace and Cooperation, 1982.
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SD/WINAP.90/SA-T16	Statistics from ESCAP Yearbook.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T17	Repackaging Raw Data for Statistical Indicators: Focus on the Female Share.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T18/1	Repackaging Research Experience for Sensitization.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T18/2	Repackaging Statistical Information: Examination of Economic Status and Trends.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T19	Repackaging Statistical Information for Advocacy.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T20	Working Group on South Asian Plan of Action for Scientific Information for the Review and Evaluation of the Implementation of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T21	Recommendations for a WINAP South Asian Subregional Plan of Action Working Group.

SD/WINAP.90/SA-T22	Evaluation of South Asian Subregional Workshop.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T23	Report of the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, 1986.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T24	Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted in 1948.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T25	UN Press Kit including NFLS and Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, 1989.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T26	Selected Statistical Data and Indicators on the Status of Women for Asia and the Pacific, WINAP, October 1988.
SD/WINAP.90/SA-T27	A Model for a Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific: WINAP
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ST/ESCAP/832	Guidelines on Upgrading the Legal Status of Women, 1989.
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EAST AND SOUTH-EAST ASIAN SUBREGIONAL WORKSHOP ON THE TECHNICAL PROCESSING OF INFORMATION CONCERNING WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT
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List of documents

	Report on the Development of a Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP)
	Country papers
	Recent developments in women's information:
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C1	Republic of Korea (Korean Women's Development Institute)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C2	Indonesia (Women's Studies Center)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C3	Indonesia (Centre for Scientific Documentation adn Information
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C4	Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao Women's Union)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C5	Union of Myanmar (Department of Labour)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C6	Viet Nam (Centre for Women's Studies)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C7	China (All-China Women's Federation)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C8	Singapore (National Library of Singapore)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C9	Maldives (Department of Women's Affairs)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C10	Malaysia (National Library of Malaysia)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C11	Philippines (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C12	China (Department of Social Statistics)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C13	Viet Nam (Viet Nam Women's Union)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C14	Brunei Darussalam (Social Affairs Division)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C15	Mongolia (Mongolian Women's Federation)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-C16	Philippines (Center for Women's Resources)
	Statement by Ms. Lee Peng Kun, Representative of President of Khmer Women's Associations
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-R1	Counting Rural Women's Work (by Alexandra Stephens)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-R2	Participatory Database Building with Village Women (by Alexandra Stephens)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-R3	Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP)
SD/WINAP.91/ESEA-R4	Mainstreaming Women's Concerns into Agriculture Development: Thailand Policy Case Study (by Suteera Thomson)
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Copies of this publication may be obtained from:

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