WOMEN'S INFORMATION NETWORK FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

WINAP

UNITED NATIONS
ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMISSION FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
1987

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INTRODUCTION

In response to numerous requests from members and associate members of ESCAP for an improved system of information on women in Asia and the Pacific, the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) has initiated a long-term project to develop a regional women's information network. This need had been recognized since the beginning of the United Nations Decade for Women (1976-1985) and was clearly expressed in the Programme of Action for the Second Half of the United Nations Decade for Women adopted in 1980, in the recommendations adopted at the ESCAP Regional Intergovernmental Preparatory Meeting for the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women in 1984, and most recently in the Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women adopted at the Nairobi World Conference for Women in 1985.

The major objectives of the project are to gather, analyse and disseminate views, ideas and statistics related to women in development in order to provide a channel for promoting co-operative activities among women in Asia and the Pacific and an effective means of monitoring the advancement of women's status in the region in accordance with the provisions of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. The project will strengthen existing national-level information systems for women and develop new ones, all of which will be linked with the regional network center established in the Social Development Division of ESCAP.

Although the region has been aware of the importance of establishing a regional information network on women, a major barrier has been the cost of setting up such data systems and the practical difficulties of linking them together successfully. Some countries in the region, however, have already initiated such systems with their own financial and technical resources. A combination of technical advances in the use of computerized information systems along with already substantial development of national systems in some countries and the subregional systems in ASEAN and at the South Pacific Commission (SPC) made the idea of a regional network a feasible proposition. Moreover, ESCAP has devised an efficient and successful model in its Population Information System (POPIN).

There already existed within the Social Development Division of ESCAP information on women's concerns as incorporated in national plans, reports on political and economic participation of women, profiles of national focal points for the advancement of women,

reports on national achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women, statistical data on women at the country and regional levels and a file on women experts and specialists in the region. Selected social development indicators, including those for women, had been already developed and stored in the computer system in ESCAP.

Over and above these developments, the Asian and Pacific region required a system to monitor changes in the situation of women in accordance with such standards as those set forth in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. Such monitoring would have an important role in addition to the formal reporting requirements set by the General Assembly. It would serve to inform governments and encourage them to fulfil their international obligations in that area.

The Regional Seminar was designed as a step in that direction. It was a major component of the initial phase of the long-term project of ESCAP on a regional women's information network (WINAP) launched in 1986 with the generous support of the Government of Japan. The major objectives of the Seminar were to review the national, subregional and regional information systems on women in Asia and the Pacific, to examine crucial indicators to measure the socio-economic situation of women against such standards as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, and to develop a workable model for a women's information network for Asia and the Pacific. In the second phase of the project, to be executed during 1987-1988, technical support and advisory services will be provided to establish and strengthen women's information centers in the region to ensure the implementation of the recommendations adopted at the Seminar. The third phase of the project, covering the period 1988-1989, will see, among other developments, the organizing of training workshops to strengthen national systems and subregional and regional information networks.

This monograph includes five chapters. The first chapter is the report of the Regional Seminar on Development of a Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP), held at Saitama, Japan on 1-6 December 1986. The four succeeding chapters are the documents which were used in the deliberations of the Seminar. Chapter II is a review of information sources and organizational structures for women's concerns within the United Nations agencies of the Asian and Pacific region. This is followed in chapter III by a discussion of methodology for the implementation and monitoring of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women at the national level. Chapter IV presents measures to improve information on the status of women in various socio-economic situations in Asia and the Pacific. The final chapter describes a proposed model for the regional women's information network for Asia and the Pacific.

I. REPORT OF THE REGIONAL SEMINAR ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF A WOMEN'S INFORMATION NETWORK FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC, SAITAMA, JAPAN, 1-6 DECEMBER 1986

A. ORGANIZATION OF THE SEMINAR

The Regional Seminar on the Development of a Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific was held at the National Women's Education Centre in Saitama, Japan, from 1 to 6 December 1986.

1. Participation

The Seminar was attended by participants from the following ESCAP members and associate members: China, Cook Islands, India, Islamic Republic of Iran, Japan, Malaysia, Mongolia, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Singapore, Samoa, Sri Lanka, Thailand and Viet Nam. Also in attendance were resource persons from the ASEAN Women's Programme, Australian Development Assistance Bureau, Center for Women's Development Studies in India, National Women's Education Centre in Japan, University of the Philippines and University of the South Pacific.

In addition, the Seminar was attended observers from various Ministries of the Government of Japan, the National Women's Education Centre, and non-government organizations. The Asian Development Bank, International Labour Organisation (ILO), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Dhaka, the United Nations Information Center (UNIC) and United Nations University (UNU) attended as observers.

A list of participants is annexed to this chapter.

2. Election of officers

Ms. Nobuko Takahashi, Chairperson, Advisory Council to the Headquarters for the Planning and Promoting of Policies Related to Women (Japan) was elected as chairperson. Ms. Akaiti Ama (Cook Islands) and Ms. Sabeeha Hafeez (Pakistan) were elected as vice-chairpersons. Ms. Lena Lim U Wen (Singapore) was elected rapporteur.

3. Adoption of agenda

The Seminar adopted the following agenda:

1. Opening of the Seminar.
2. Election of officers.
3. Adoption of the agenda.
4. Review of existing information networks at the national, subregional, and regional levels:
   (a) Information flows.
   (b) Organizational structure.
5. Consideration of measures to improve information on women:
   (a) Information to monitor the implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.
   (b) Information on the status of women in different socio-economic situations.
6. Presentation of a model for a regional women's information network.
7. Consideration and adoption of recommendations.
8. Closing of the Seminar.

B. OPENING OF THE SEMINAR

The Seminar was inaugurated by Mr. Sadayuki Hayashi, Deputy Director-General, United Nations Bureau, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Japan. An opening message from Mr. S.A.M.S. Kibria, Executive Secretary of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) was delivered by the Chief of Social Development Division, ESCAP. Ms. Atsuko Shikuma, Director-General of the National Women's Education Centre, Japan, welcomed the participants.

In his inaugural address, the Deputy Director-General, United Nations Bureau, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Japan, welcomed the participants to Japan.

Recognizing the significant contributions made for the advancement of the status of women during the United Nations Decade for Women, he emphasized that the efforts must be continued to achieve the goals and objectives of the Decade for Women. The Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies adopted at the end of the Decade emphasized the important role to be played by the regional commissions in strengthening the role of women in development and recommended that they reinforce national women's information systems.

Believing it essential to have timely and reliable information on women in order to adopt adequate measures to promote their participation in development, he assured participants of the full support of the Government of Japan to the global and regional recommendations to promote the co-operative activities for the development of such systems as the regional women's information network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP) planned by ESCAP. The Seminar, being a part of this long-term project, was considered an important activity to gather regional experts on information and women's issues to examine existing women's information networks and formulate recommendations to strengthen them.

The Executive Secretary of ESCAP extended a warm welcome to the participants in his inaugural message. He emphasized the importance of the Seminar as a direct and concrete response to the global and regional mandates to enhance the status of women throughout the region.

He noted that one of the most visible achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women had been the adoption by the General Assembly of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. One of the major tasks of the present Seminar was to develop effective measures to monitor the situation of women based on the standards set by the Convention.

Another noteworthy achievement of the Decade for Women in many countries in the region, the Executive Secretary noted, had been the establishment of national focal points and mechanisms for the advancement of women, in both governments and non-government sectors. ESCAP had continuously extended its support towards establishing and strengthening these national focal points and mechanisms through such activities as advisory services and organization of various training courses. He hoped that this Seminar would establish formal linkages among national focal points and mechanisms, as well as non-government organizations and other institutions.

He further emphasized the vital role of intercountry, regional and international networking and co-operation under the present

constraints of technical, financial and personnel resources at various levels. Exchange of experience and sharing of resources among the countries in the region as means of mutual support and to benefit from economies of scale would be essential. He pointed out that ESCAP was the first of the United Nations regional commissions to be taking steps towards the formal establishment of a regional women's information network to reinforce national and other efforts to enhance women's status and promote their participation in development. This spirit of co-operation through effective networking must continue and prosper, both in the best interest of women in this region and as an example to the rest of the world.

The Director-General of the National Women's Education Centre warmly welcomed the participants to the National Women's Education Centre. She applauded the instrumental role of ESCAP in enhancing the role of women in development and the special efforts made for the preparation of this Seminar by both the participants and ESCAP.

Since its establishment in 1977, one of the major functions of the National Women's Education Centre had been the development of women's information activities. The Director-General expressed her hope that the Seminar would develop a workable and effective women's information network for Asia and the Pacific, given the expertise of the participants of the Seminar. She expressed her gratitude that the Centre had been called on to provide its facilities for such an important meeting and wished the participants every success in their deliberations.

C. DISCUSSIONS

1. Existing information networks at the national, subregional and regional levels

The Chief, Social Development Division, ESCAP, introduced the objectives, major topics and overall procedural approach to be adopted at the Seminar.

The Seminar's first substantive agenda item was a review of existing information systems and networks at the national, subregional and regional levels. The meeting reviewed existing information flows concerning women in the political, economic and social fields in terms of the concepts and collection methodologies used. It also reviewed the organizational structures of the existing women's information systems in the Asian and Pacific region at the national, subregional and regional levels. These systems and networks were evaluated as to their appropriateness in reflecting the reality of the

situation of women, their adequacy for the planning needs of governments and other entities, and their suitability for monitoring the situation of women with regard to standards such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

The review was undertaken by seven discussion groups[1]. The country participants were divided into five groups according to the level of development of their women's information systems and socio-economic similarities. The representatives of subregional organizations and regional offices of United Nations bodies and agencies formed two additional groups to consider their respective women's information systems. The summaries of the group discussions were reported at the plenary session.

Group I, consisting mainly of socialist country participants, reported that, in general, data and information on women's concerns were adequately covered by existing sources of information. In China, statistical data and other information were collected by the National Statistical Bureau, the All-China Women's Federation and fourteen functional government departments and national mass organizations. In Mongolia, the census of population, current demographic statistics, labour statistics and occasional sample household budget surveys of various social groups were the major sources of information on women. The Committee of Mongolian Women played an important role in supplying supplementary statistics on women when necessary. In Viet Nam, information on the situation of women was collected and disseminated by the Viet Nam Women's Union, which was the only wide-ranging mass organization of women in the country. It published a periodical, *Women of Viet Nam*. The Viet Nam Institute for Information in Social Sciences also included among its tasks the selection, systematizing and processing of information and the supply of data to state institutions and social organizations.

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[1] Group I: China, Mongolia and Viet Nam;

Group II: Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and resource person from University of the Philippines;

Group III: India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka;

Group IV: Cook Islands, Papua New Guinea and Samoa;

Group V: Japan and resource persons from Australian Development Assistance Bureau and the National Women's Education Centre, Japan;

GroupVI: Subregional organizations and networks, i.e., ASEAN Women's Programme, Asian Development Bank, Centre for Women's Development Studies and University of the South Pacific; and

Group VII: United Nations Information Centre, United Nations University, UNICEF and ESCAP.

It was generally recognized by the group that the information collected reflected to some degree the reality of the situation of women. However, it was far from adequate to meet the requirements of government planners and policy makers as well as to effectively monitor the advancement of women against such standards as the Convention. The group felt the need for raising the professional competence of statisticians, widely disseminating knowledge on statistics and information on various activities of women, and improving information systems by introduction of microcomputers and telecommunication processing facilities.

Group II, consisting mainly of South-East Asian country participants, reported that the level of development of their women's information systems varied. Basically, statistical information was the responsibility of various offices of government which generated statistics as their basic function or as part of their administrative responsibilities. The national focal points on women established under the prime ministers' or presidents offices analyzed relevant data for policy formulation or decision-making and for monitoring and evaluating women's programmes. All the countries conducted research on women to a limited extent. Malaysia and the Philippines undertook primary data collection through small surveys dealing with specific issues. These countries maintained a clearing-house on women under the ASEAN Women's Programme. In the case of Singapore, the Government had not established a national focal point for women's affairs. The Singapore Council of Women's Organizations, a non-governmental organization, had been active in promoting women's concerns.

The group noted that the national focal points for women's affairs in these countries suffered from organizational, financial and structural problems. The major problems of the National Comission for Women's Affairs (NCWA) in Thailand, for example, were the high turnover of officers and members and dependence on the Community Development Department, Ministry of Interior, for its financial and secretarial needs. In an effort to solve these problems, NCWA had prepared a policy statement incorporating provisions for long-term national goals and objectives on women in development issues into the National Economic Development Plan. The National Advisory Council for the Integration of Women in Development (NACIWID)of Malaysia had been set up to serve as an advisory body to the Cabinet, but faced severe financial problems in accomplishing its various tasks. The problems perceived by the participants from the Philippines was the lack of integration of women's concerns in overall development planning and insufficient financial capability and authority to influence the major statistics offices in the generation and production of statistics by gender. The main problems of the Singapore Council of Women's Organizations

were the lack of financial assistance from the Government and the lack of communication with the Government.

The group strongly felt that there was a need to strengthen national focal points for women's affairs through increased financial support from governments and other funding sources and also through technical support from other national and international agencies in order to develop and strengthen their information systems. It also felt that more data should be generated on women's situation in areas other than education, health, employment and political participation for presentation to policy makers in simplified and readable form as well as for dissemination to the public, especially women at the grass-roots level.

Group III, consisting mainly of South Asian country participants, reported that centralized information network systems for women did not exist in their countries, but that data on women were collected as part of the overall national statistics collection process by several government units such as the statistical bureaus and census offices. However, national focal points for women's affairs had set up small-scale research-cum-evaluation divisions/units/wings with statistical staff and limited resources to collect, analyse and disseminate information on women in development.

The group also reported on the adequacy of information collected on women in their countries in such categories as demography, education, literacy, employment, political participation and others. For these countries, the census was generally conducted once every ten years and the results usually published two or three years after the census. Most of the demographic data were not up to date, therefore, and special surveys were thus needed to fill the gaps and to assess the changing situation of women. The group further identified a list of specific indicators to be developed in each country for other categories than those listed above.

Group IV, consisting mainly of the South Pacific country participants, presented country reviews on the organizational aspect of information systems on women. In the Cook Islands, information on women was generally collected by government departments, including the Department of Foreign Affairs, Tourist Department, Bureau of Statistics and Education, and Health Department. The national focal point for women's affairs under the Ministry of Internal Affairs had been implementing "women's advancement programmes." That office, which was staffed by two women's development officers and collected necessary information on women from other government departments, had not, however, set up an effective information system on women. In Samoa, information on women was collected

by the government statistics department and disseminated by pamphlets, radio programmes, seminars and workshops organized by women's groups. The National Council of Women, under the office of the Prime Minister, which had been appointed to function as the national focal point for women had yet to start functioning fully due to lack of skilled personnel, facilities for translation of information into the national language and financial support. In Papua New Guinea, information on women was generally collected by the National Census Office, Bureau of Statistics, University of Papua New Guinea Research Institute, Health Department, Labour Department and other governmental and non-governmental organizations. Information on women was disseminated through regular publications, specific radio programmes for women and training workshops. The Department of Youth, Women, Religion and Recreation promoted women's development programmes but had not set up an information system on women due to a lack of skilled personnel.

The group reported that although various baseline data, including national population surveys, were collected by government sources, there was a need for more current information to be made available through a central informational bureau. A list of information needed to determine the degree of women's participation and well-being was presented.

Group V, consisting mainly of developed countries, reported that in Japan and Australia information on women was available from a wide range of sources. Government statistics comprised the basic information for understanding the position of women in society. They were relatively comprehensive, with full socio-economic and livelihood data available from censuses and surveys undertaken using advanced statistical techniques. In both countries, significant secondary data had been generated by processing and analysis of primary statistical data in a number of published reports on progress regarding the status of women. The problems was not the lack of information but the great wealth of uncompiled and possibly incompatible statistics on socio-economic indicators concerning the situation of women.

The collection of other critical but as yet non-existent indicators by governments would depend upon the political will to do so. One barrier was the lack of pressure from women in general, who were not aware of the significance of statistics in governmental planning, policy formulation and evaluation of women's concerns. It was noted that, unfortunately, in Australia some women's groups were even opposed to the collection of gender-specific statistics.

Neither country had developed a centralized national data base on women. In Japan, information activities had been undertaken by

government statistical agencies, other government departments and libraries. Since the Prime Minister's Office had become a focal point for the advancement of women, it had been active in the collection, processing and dissemination of information on women in co-ordination with non-governmental organizations. The National Women's Education Centre, since its establishment in 1977, had also been active in collecting bibliographic information on women and planned to expand its system to include statistical data collection on women's educational issues. In Australia, the Office of the Status of Women published a major women's budget paper, presenting data on government expenditures relevant to women's concerns.

The group cited the need for more analysis of existing data from the women's viewpoint. An example would be the study of the situation of older women. There was also a need to develop comparable indicators on the situation of women appropriate for developed countries, since such measures as life expectancy and literacy were not the critical indicators in those countries.

Group VI, consisting mainly of representatives of subregional networks, noted that the flow of information had to be organized according to the interests and needs of distinct target groups. These groups included: (a) government policy makers, implementors and personnel of specialized agencies, both for policy changes and monitoring; (b) the general public, to create awareness of women's issues and to change values to promote women's equal participation in social, economic and political life; (c) women at various social levels, especially at the grass-roots level; and (d) donor agencies, such as ADB and other bilateral/multilateral agencies.

In view of both the human and material resource constraints in the region, the group considered it imperative to use the existing infrastructure for information generation and dissemination. Such infrastructure existed not only within governments but also within educational and media institutions, whose legitimate functions included the generation and dissemination of information. Such institutions had access to the general public and to target groups, and could enjoy the necessary autonomy and access to human resources. Involving these institutions would not only reduce infrastructural cost and duplication but also assure continuity of information flows by institutionalizing the process rather than leaving it over-dependent on a few committed agencies and individuals.

The group strongly felt that information on women in the region might not be adequately generated, analysed and disseminated by national/regional mechanisms created only for women's information. It was therefore considered necessary to incorporate a women's

component within various information systems that already existed in the region.

Various information networks in the region, such as the network of the Pacific Information Center of the University of the South Pacific and other institutional networks in the fields of agriculture, scientific development and communications research and training, already included a women's component in their activities but needed to be further strengthened. The group stressed that educational and media systems should play a crucial role in the development of WINAP if it was to make any lasting contribution to the improvement of the situation of women in the region. In this connection, the group drew special attention to the South Pacific Women's Broadcasting Policy (1984) and the Indian National Policy on Education (1986).

The group also emphasized the importance of the development of specialized skills for storage and retrieval of information about and for women as well as for a participatory research methodology to assist in strengthening the links between institutions and grassroots women's groups.

Group VII, which consisted of representatives from United Nations agencies, had before it the document SD/RWINS/4 (see chapter II, below).

The group noted the following problems in information activities concerning women's issues among United Nations agencies in the region:

(a) Collection of information on women's concerns was not maximized in the course of the agencies' implementation of their activities. However, in some United Nations agencies, information on women was collected during situation analyses, monitoring of programme implementation and impact assessment; that was an institutionalized procedure in the case of UNICEF and to some extent in UNDP;

(b) Information exchange on women's concerns among the United Nations agencies was inadequate. It was suggested that an inter-agency committee should be formed at the country level among United Nations agencies, bilateral donor agencies and other concerned organizations where information exchange on women-related activities would be undertaken regularly. It was noted that a "Network on Women in Development" had been established in Bangladesh in June 1986 for that purpose;

(c) There was no institutionalized periodic region-wide review of research on women to identify gaps, especially concerning emerging issues resulting from policy/activities undertaken to integrate women in development;

(d) The popular dissemination of information on women had been inadequate;

(e) There was no centralized data base on women in Asia and the Pacific in the United Nations system.

In the open forum which followed the group discussions, certain key issues were discussed in depth. Some participants emphasized that information on women should be adequately disseminated by the government offices concerned. The sharing of experience among women through the mass media was recognized as one of the most useful and effective mechanisms of information exchange. The need for more information exchange between government and non-government organizations and between policy makers and researchers was noted.

Concerning the organizational structure of the national information systems, many participants pointed out that in their respective countries there was no one centralized organization producing macro and micro statistics on the situation of women and little co-ordination among data producers. Many felt that some form of inter-departmental/agency co-ordination, with both horizontal and vertical linkages, needed to be developed, within the limited available resources.

2. Measures to improve information on women

The meeting had before it document SD/RWINS/2, presented by Dr. Irene Cortés, and documents SD/RWINS/1 and Add. 1, presented by Dr. Helen Ware.

Dr. Cortés, in presenting her paper, reviewed various methodologies for the implementation and monitoring of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in the Asian and Pacific region. The Convention had been internationally accepted as providing the legal principles for achieving equal rights between men and women. While only fifteen countries in the region had ratified or acceded to the Convention, it was nevertheless considered useful for all national focal points on women's affairs to examine the provisions of the Convention as a basis for identifying a minimum list of crucial indicators on the situation of women.

Dr. Ware presented a review of the adequacy and appropriateness of current socio-economic indicators on women and techniques for collecting data on them in Asia and the Pacific, and proposed various measures to improve these indicators and their collection. She noted that relevant, timely and reliable data on the situation of women was required by national policy makers, public administrators, non-governmental organizations, academics and others concerned with women's issues. The availability of such data could influence policies and programmes and could change the general perception of the needs of women.

To discuss these matters in depth, the participants convened into three discussion groups[2].

Each of the groups discussed various indicators on the situation of women and selected a minimum set which should be collected at country level. They did this by identifying minimum standards of the desired status of women, such as those included in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, and then choosing appropriate indicators to monitor the progress of women's status with respect to each identified standard. There was also a discussion in each group concerning the conceptual problems underlying the proposed indicators and how the indicators could be improved. The groups identified activities that might be undertaken by governments and other organizations to improve the collection of indicators or other information on women in various countries in the region. Summaries of the group discussions were presented at the subsequent plenary sessions.

Group I, consisting mainly of East and South-East Asian countries, reported that they had assigned priorities to the concerns covered by the Convention and had identified items to be included in the minimum list of indicators. The group had also evaluated and proposed some changes in the suggested indicators for specific articles of the Convention. The group recommended certain measures to improve the indicators on women suggested in the summary

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[2] Group I: China, Japan, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam, resource persons from the ASEAN Women's Programme, University of the Philippines and ESCAP.

Group II: India, Islamic Republic of Iran, Mongolia, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, resource persons from the Center for Women's Development Studies, UNICEF and ESCAP.

Group III: Cook Islands, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, resource persons from Australia, University of the South Pacific, United Nations University, National Women's Education Centre and ESCAP.

chapter of document SD/RWINS/Add. 1 and endorsed their collection.

Group II, mainly consisting of South Asian countries, reported on its review of the situation of women in relation to various constitutional guarantees, policy safeguards/programmes and legal sanctions, and their role in the family, as minimum standards. While agreeing to the indicators specified in document SD/RWINS/2, the group presented several recommendations on data definitions, collections, analysis/interpretations, reporting and related personnel training.

Group III, mainly consisting of the Pacific island countries, noted that indicators needed to be selected purposely with specific audiences in mind, as the governments' needs were often departmental and developmental. In the context of the South Pacific countries, the most important issues relating to women were in the areas of agriculture and agro-based development (e.g., land rights, resettlement, livestock, agriculture, forestry and fisheries), and occupational diversification in the formal and informal sectors in both urban and rural areas as well as in human resource development. Indicators on women's role and position in those sectors would also help donor agencies to assess the impact of development plans and programmes on women.

The group also noted that selected indicators for those economic and social sectors which were useful in the estimation of women's overall contribution in those areas of the national economy would also help make women and the general public aware of women's true role in development. With this approach in mind, and taking note of the scarcity of data in some countries of the region, the group recommended a set of minimum indicators that needed to be derived from available data on demography, education, social services, participation in economy and decision-making, allocation of resources and other social statistics. Where such information was inadequate, micro-studies, surveys, or even descriptive accounts were recommended to begin the process of basic information gathering.

In the subsequent open forum, the participants discussed further the needs for data on the situation of rural women, who are often marginalized and not reflected in national surveys. For example, data on female migration arising from marriage and seasonality of work and on women's share of bank deposits relative to their share of bank loans could be useful indicators. The usefulness of attitudinal surveys were also considered.

3. A model for a regional women's information network

The Seminar had before it document SD/RWINS/3.

A model for a women's information network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP) was presented by the secretariat. The model covered an organizational structure for WINAP at the national level, its possible subregional components and its overall framework with ESCAP as the regional focal point.

The secretariat noted that the proposed model was a decentralized diffusion system. It had two main structural elements: networking and focal points. Networking consisted of a system of communication channels among national, subregional and regional focal points. WINAP focal points were the national women's infortion focal points in each coutry, subregional focal points and the WINAP regional centre located in the Social Development Division of ESCAP. WINAP participants were categorized in terms of national, subregional and regional levels. The objectives of the network were differentiated as to long-term and immediate objectives. National, subregional and regional level functions were outlined, and recommended actions for implementation at the country, subregional and regional levels were introduced for further consideration by the seminar.

In order to assess the appropriateness and feasibility of implementing the model at the national, subregional and regional levels, the participants reconvened into the three discussion groups described above.

The results of the group discussions were presented at the subsequent plenary session.

Group I, consisting mainly of East and South-East Asian countries, endorsed, on the whole, the proposed functions and activities of WINAP at the national level as appropriate and feasible, subject to the availability of necessary financial resources. The only serious exception was Singapore, which had no single national focal point with overall responsibility for the advancement of women. Contact points were, however, identified at the National Library of Singapore, which served as the Singapore Clearing House for Women in Development as part of the ASEAN Women's Programme, and the Singapore Council of Women's Organizations, which served as the national focal point for women's non-governmental organizations. The potential role in WINAP of the ASEAN Women's Programme was emphasized, and its on-going information-related activities on women, such as the *Thesaurus on Women in ASEAN*, *Directory of Women NGOs in ASEAN*, and *Facts and Figures on ASEAN Women*, were cited as important networking tools for the member countries.

The group proposed the following additional regional actions for ESCAP to undertake and disseminate to the network:

(a) Preparation of a minimum list of indicators on women's status in the region, following the initial processing of indicators which might be obtained from reports submitted by countries to United Nations agencies and, from national focal points, additional indicators which had not been collected by the United Nations;

(b) Preparation of a directory of focal points on women at both the governmental and non-governmental levels; and

(c) Preparation of an integrated report on the discriminatory legal provisions existing in Asian and Pacific countries which had ratified or acceded to the Convention and had submitted country reports to the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).

Group II, mainly consisting of South Asian countries, reported that their national focal points for the advancement of women could also serve as national focal points for WINAP, except in the Islamic Republic of Iran and Nepal where they had not yet been established. The group, while in full support of and agreement with the model's objectives, functions and structure, noted that the country-level action plans would have to be approved by their respective governments and that additional manpower support would have to be tapped, inview of the heavy responsibilities already being shouldered by the national focal points.

The group suggested that countries should start by preparing an inventory of sources, producers and users of data and information in their countries, keeping the following three target groups in mind: government policy makers, planners and programmers; non-goverment entities; and women, particularly at the grass-roots level. The group also suggested that the countries should develop effective programmes and measures to disseminate important information on women in development through the mass media at all levels.

The group presented the planned activities of the Technical Committee on Women in Development of the South Asian Association of Regional Cooperation (SAARC) and emphasized that the sub-regional women's information network for SAARC countries should be developed and linked to the one established under the ASEAN Women's Programme through the WINAP regional focal point.

Group III, mainly consisting of the Pacific island countries, stressed that the overall objectives of WINAP should be to improve the availability and accessibility of data and information on women and for women in Asia and the Pacific, with special focus on four

major groups: government policy makers and implementors and relevant agencies; the general public; women at all levels, especially at the grass-roots level; and donor agencies, both bilateral and multilateral.

The group pointed out that where no focal point existed, as in most of the Pacific island countries, it was not feasible to undertake national-level activities as suggested in the model. Instead, it would be more beneficial if subregional groups such as the Pacific Information Network of the University of the South Pacific and University of Papua New Guinea could undertake some of the national networking functions until such time as the national focal points were developed.

The group also recommended the following measures to strengthen national focal points:

(a) Provision of technical assistance through training and consultancy by aid agencies to enable national focal points to review their situations adequately and perform their co-ordinative functions, and

(b) Provision of assistance to build up technical capabilities in information collection, translation, storage, retrieval and dissemination.

The group emphasized the importance of the vigorous involvement of research, academic and educational institutions in collecting and disseminating of information on women and presented, as an example, India's national policy on education for 1986 which set the guidelines for the Indian universities and colleges in collecting data through research and studies and using media as a mass and group learning and information dissemination tool. The group also presented an alternative model for a women's information network suggested in Annex II of Document No. SD/RW/NS/3.

With regard to regional-level functions, the group suggested that ESCAP maintain up-to-date directories of women experts (and other expertise of relevance to women) and of non-governmental organizations concerned with women's issues, collect case studies on successes and failures of women-related programmes and develop audio-visual materials.

D. RECOMMENDATIONS

The Seminar considered a number of proposed guidelines and recommendations concerning measures to improve the flow of

women-related informations and the establishment of a regional Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP).

The Seminar unanimously adopted the following recommendations:

1. Collection of key indicators for monitoring the situation of women

The Seminar recommended that all countries should collect carefully selected lists of key indicators for monitoring the situation of women. The following list was suggested.

General note: The following list is not intended to be all-inclusive. Since what is appropriate will vary from country to country, no one country is expected to gather all of the data listed. Wherever possible, data should be able to play a conscientising/ educational role.

Individual countries are also urged to develop definitions and annotations and to cite sources so as to clarify the precise nature of each indicator used. Almost all statistical data should be provided separately for urban and rural areas.

With this approach in view, and taking note of the limitations of data in some countries of the region, the meeting recommended that, where such information is inadequate, micro-studies, surveys, or even descriptive accounts could be undertaken to begin the process of basic information gathering.

(a) *Demographic and health indicators*

(i) Birth rate by sex;

(ii) Fertility indicators, e.g., average number of children by age of mother;

(iii) Family planning acceptors by sex;

(iv) Average age of first marriage by sex;

(v) Average age of mother at birth of first child;

(vi) Nutritional status of population by age, sex and marital status;

(vii) Hemoglobin level, especially of pregnant and lactating women;

(viii) Ratio of maternity beds to number of deliveries;

(ix) Immunization by sex;

(x) Health insurance coverage by sex;

(xi) Life expectancy by sex;

(xii) Physical and mental disability by sex and age;

(xiii) Infant and child mortality by sex;

(xiv) Maternal mortality by age;

(xv) Major causes of death by sex;

(xvi) Internal and external migration indicators by sex;

(xvii) Proportion of widowed, divorced, separated and deserted by age and sex;

(xviii) Household heads by sex, age and civil status.

(b) *Educational indicators*

(i) Adult literacy rates and sex ratio among illiterates;

(ii) Sex ratio of enrolment at primary, secondary, vocational and higher education;

(iii) Sex-ratio among primary and secondary school-age groups who are not enrolled;

(iv) Gender bias in content of vocational and higher education programmes;

(v) Gender bias in content of non-formal education programmes;

(vi) Sex ratio of teachers at various levels;

(vii) Sex ratio of heads of educational institutions;

(viii) Review of instructional materials for sex bias;

(ix) Number of dropouts by sex, age, level of education;

(x) Participation in programmes for dropouts by sex.

(c) *Economic participation*

(i) Contribution of women to housework and of housework to GNP;

(ii) Time allocation/budget by age and sex;

(iii) Labour force participation (as conventionally defined) by sex, age and sectors (urban/rural);

(iv) Employment and underemployment by age and sex, industry and occupation (urban/rural);

(v) Unemployment by age and sex (urban/rural);

(vi) Overseas employment by sex;

(vii) 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;

(viii) 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.);

(ix) Women's share of the workforce in the informal sector, rural and urban, especially in trade, and in manufacturing (both traditional and nontraditional);

(x) 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;

(xi) Share of women in semi-legal activities such as liquor-brewing, prostitution, begging, etc.;

(xii) Apprenticeship by sex and occupation;

(xiii) Wage differentials by occupation and sex;

(xiv) Access to land/forest produce and water classified by right of use and ownership by sex;

(xv) Women's access to credit in their own right;

(xvi) Women's membership in co-operatives, and other organizations;

(xvii) Proportion of women amongst agricultural extension officers;

(xviii) Proportion of women amongst heads of companies, stock exchange members, etc.

(d) *Legal rights*

(i) Existence of machinery for redress of discriminatory acts against women;

(ii) Review of laws such as penal code, economic and developmental legislation, etc., for discriminatory provisions regarding women;

(iii) Repeal, revision or amendment of laws discriminatory to women;

(iv) Existence of special measures in favour of women, e.g., quotas or affirmative action programmes;

(v) Women's rights relating to independent retention of nationality and determination of children's nationality.

(e) *Political participation*

(i) Percentage of women voters and their turnout in elections/ referenda compared to men (rural/urban);

(ii) Proportion of women elected/appointed to public office at various levels of government (rural/urban);

(iii) Proportion of women in policy-making positions in government: national/central, regional, local etc.;

(iv) Women's membership in political parties, inclusion in party lists;

(v) Women's non-governmental organizations concerned with public affairs;

(vi) Number and nature of women's issues on agendas of political parties;

(vii) Proportion of women members of general non-governmental organizations (rural/urban) and of trade/labour unions; proportion of women office holders in these organizations;

(viii) Proportion of women in diplomatic service;

(ix) Proportion of women amongst employees of international organizations;

(x) Proportion of women amongst judges and lawyers;

(xi) Proportion of women amongst workers in media; proportion of women amongst holders of editorial positions in media;

(xii) Public opinion on attitudes on women/women's issues.

(f) *Access to social services*

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

(i) Sex-ratio of beneficiaries;

(ii) Sex-ratio of service providers;

(iii) Number of places, etc., available; and

(iv) Percentage of women who do not enjoy access to these services or 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.

(g) *Government allocation of resources for women's concerns*

(i) Budget allocations for women's development, by sector (e.g. agriculture, industry, education, health);

(ii) Allocation of professional and support staff and other facilities to implement and monitor adequate development support for women in various sectors.

(h) *Social indicators for women at special risk*

(i) 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);

(ii) Statistics on criminal offences by sex involving prostitution/traffic in women;

(iii) Proportion of women in shelters for the homeless, and among those appealing to religious/voluntary agencies for assistance;

(iv) Other special at risk groups, e.g., 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.;

(v) Suicides by age and sex.

2. Measures for improving socio-economic indicators on women in the Asian and Pacific region

The following recommendations were adopted as desirable measures for implementation (where appropriate to local conditions):

(a) *The maximum use should be made of existing data*

(i) Every country should aim at producing a brief pamphlet with the basic data from censuses, etc., in readily accessible form (maximum 10 pages). The pamphlet should cover demography, education, labour force participation, income). This will both spread knowledge and point out gaps;

(ii) Those involved in a. development planning in general and b. in women's policy issues should be fully briefed as to the nature and extent of existing data on women.

(b) *The on-going collection of data should be improved*

(i) The government's chief statistical authority should have a commitment to improving the quality of data on women. The coverage of women's concerns should be a regular agenda item in all discussion of data collection procedures, especially where changes are already proposed, e.g., a new census round or a labour force survey. Those interested in women's concerns (especially those who are also women) should be represented on all relevant committees, advisory bodies, etc.;

(ii) All data collected by sex (e.g., hospital statistics) should be published with a sex-breakdown;

(iii) Data by sex from individuals (e.g. landholdings, driver's license applications) should be collected and published;

(iv) In formulating questionnaires and training materials, emphasis should be laid on avoiding inadvertent use of sexist language in order to obtain more precise and accurate information from the respondents. Research studies should be carried out to explore the ways and means by which terminology may be improved.

(c) *A women's socio-economic indicators task force should be established*

(i) Preferably this should be within the government bureaucracy, e.g., with representatives from the departments dealing with statistics, planning, women's issues, etc.;

(ii) If this is not possible, at least a volunteer body of academics, voluntary workers, women statisticians, etc., should be set up;

(iii) The task force would have the role of ensuring that:

a. Indicators (however rudimentary) are produced and publicized;

b. Indicators are improved in terms of the mechanics of data collection and analysis;

c. Indicators are improved in terms of the relevance of the data to women's pressing concerns (e.g. a mass of data limited to professional women is of little relevance to the majority of women working in the fields in rural areas).

(d) *Improvements in the range and quality of available data are required*

(i) Data at a national level may be of little use to local planners or women trying to establish their own projects. The kinds of data available are often remote from the immediate grassroots needs. (For example, in preparing to set up an adult literacy programme which works for women, there will be need for information on illiterary rates, on the demand for training, on what women are interested in learning about, and what times and seasons they are most accessible);

(ii) There is a need to identify women's activities both inside and outside the house. It is important that the

main activities be broken down into smaller components so as to obtain comprehensive statistics on various aspects of women's work — e.g. in earning income, in household production, in housework, in fetching water, fuel and fodder and in child care;

(iii) Some data may not be perceived as important because they relate to what are seen as women's concerns, e.g., data on child care, data on unemployment and underemployment amongst married women. There is need to establish priorities and target them in particular areas of the bureaucracy, e.g., maternal mortality data with the department dealing with health; household survey data on the hours spent carrying water (by sex, in the wet and dry seasons) with the statistics office and with the department responsible for water supplies;

(iv) One device would be to have an award (e.g. a plaque) presented by a prominent woman to the sector of government which does the most to improve the data available on women. The publicity given to such a ceremony would also help to publicize the relevant data;

(v) Another device would be to target a particular area of concern, e.g., women and landholding, and focus on that at a range of levels — from the legal area concerned with land-titles, to the co-operatives who give credit only to the "land-holder", to a local project in which women themselves are directly involved;

(vi) In determining the issues to be investigated, discussions should begin with those who are to benefit e.g., rural women. There should also be a strong emphasis upon participatory research, both as a means of securing valid data and as a means of sensitizing those involved;

(vii) Approaches to research should be practical, demand-oriented and multi-disciplinary. Governments should be encouraged to designate brief lists of priority areas of concern (e.g., five areas only) and to concentrate endeavours to improve data in those areas. In most cases, economic participation data would be one of the priorities;

(viii) Special stress should be placed upon improving the data on the majority of women (usually the rural poor), in recognition of the emphasis of the existing data on urban, educated elites;

(ix) Female expertise in the country should be tapped for training female interviewers and in designing survey questionnaires and interview guides. Where women statisticians are a special priority may be to encourage young women to train in this area.

3. Objectives, Functions and Organizational Structure of Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP)

The meeting, in considering document SD/RWINS/3 (see chapter V, below) expressed general support and agreement with the objectives laid down, functions specified and the structure suggested therein. It then proposed certain modifications for incorporation into the WINAP model. The revised objectives, functions and organizational structure of the Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP) were as follows:

(a) Objectives of WINAP

The long-term objective of WINAP was to improve the availability and accessibility of data and information on women and for women in Asia and the Pacific needed by the target groups listed below to promote and monitor the effective participation of women in all aspects of national development (especially the more vulnerable groups of women):

(a) Government policy makers, programme implementors and evaluators;

(b) General public;

(c) Women at all levels; especially at the grass-roots;

(d) Donor agencies, both multilateral and bilateral.

The immediate objectives of WINAP are:

(a) To facilitate the identification/establishment of new national and subregional information systems for women as necessary;

(b) To further develop and strengthen existing information systems and networks for women;

(c) To encourage the use of existing information systems by encouraging and promoting women's participation in these systems as suppliers and users;

(d) To link existing and new information systems for women with the regional network centre established in the Social Development Division of ESCAP;

(e) To provide a channel for promoting collaborative activities among women in Asia and the Pacific;

(f) To assist the national focal points to provide effective means of monitoring the advancement of women's status in the region in accordance with standards of their own and/or the provisions of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women.[1]

(b) Functions of WINAP

National level functions

In order to achieve the long-term and immediate objectives of WINAP, the national women's information focal point in each participating country should:

(a) Co-ordinate the flow of information for and on women;

(b) Collect, store, retrieve and disseminate numeric data in appropriate formats (according to an agreed minimum list of socio-economic indicators) to national policy makers and other public administrators, non-governmental organizations, academics and others concerned with women's issues; and provide copies of the data to the WINAP ESCAP regional centre on a regular basis for inclusion in a regional socio-economic indicators data base and for publication in a WINAP newsletter;

(c) Establish/maintain linkages with all government offices, research and teaching institutes and academic organizations, training institutes, non-governmental organizations and others concerned with women's affairs, development and human rights in the country;

(d) Review and disseminate bibliographic information on a regular basis to the units of the national system and to the WINAP ESCAP regional centre in the following areas:

(i) New periodicals relevant to women's concerns produced within the country (basic information to include title, ISSN, publisher, publisher's address, frequency of publication and subscription price);

[1] A/CONF. 116/28/Rev. 1.

(ii) Bibliographic information on new studies and research, new projects on women in development and new technologies for women published within the country (basic information to include author, title, publisher, publisher's address, date of publication, number of pages and selling price).

(e) Monitor and disseminate information on a regular basis to the units of the national system and to the WINAP ESCAP regional centre on forthcoming and recently concluded major or special events relevant to women's concerns such as conferences, meetings, seminars, workshops and training programmes;

(f) Organize meetings, seminars, workshops and training programmes, as feasible and appropriate, and develop audio-visual materials; and

(g) Repackage information on women's issues in appropriate formats and languages, and disseminate it to the general public through the mass media.

In the case of most South Pacific countries where it might not be possible to carry out the aforementioned functions at the national level due to the early stage of development of the focal points and various constraints (e.g. lack of trained personnel and language barriers), the national systems and subregional and regional networks should work together in a mutually reinforcing relationship. It should be beneficial if subregional organizations such as the Pacific Information Network of the University of the South Pacific and the University of Papua New Guinea were to carry out some of the national-level functions until such time as the national focal points were more developed and able to handle those functions.

Every effort should be made by aid agencies, subregional and regional organization to strengthen the national focal points through technical assistance and training to gradually build up their information handling capacities.

Regional-level functions

In order to provide a regular channel of communication and improve the regional flow of information on women, the WINAP ESCAP centre should:

(a) Produce and disseminate a women's information newsletter, "WINAP Newsletter" on a bi-annual basis;

(b) Develop and maintain a directory data base on (i) women experts and any other expertise of relevance to women in the Asian

and Pacific region, (ii) national focal points for women, (iii) non-governmental organizations including teaching and research, media and other training institutions concerned with issues of relevance to women, and (iv) funding agencies. That information should be published and disseminated periodically;

(c) Maintain a numeric data base according to an agreed-upon minimum list of socio-economic indicators (updated periodically as new data are provided by the national women's information focal points) and periodically disseminate the data in appropriate formats to the national, subregional, regional and global networks;

(d) Maintain a bibliographic data base of periodical titles relevant to women's concerns, current studies and research related to women's issues, current projects on women in development, and also women in development project case studies on successes and failures, and descriptions of technologies for women;

(e) Provide on request, information from searches of the numeric, directory and bibliographic data bases and audio-visual material;

(f) Survey existing information regularly supplied by countries to United Nations (for example, health data from WHO, education data from UNESCO; labour force participation data from ILO; and information on mothers and children from UNICEF);

(g) Maintain regular information exchange with (i) non-governmental organizations in Asia and the Pacific, (ii) subregional groups/organizations such as ASEAN, SAARC, Pacific Information Network of the University of the South Pacific etc., (iii) non-United Nations regional/international organizations, and (iv) global United Nations organizations with activities closely related to women's issues;

(h) Maintain regular information exchange with region-based United Nations organizations through the Interagency Committee on Women in Development;

(i) Maintain regular information exchange within ESCAP through the Interdivisional Task Force for Women in Development;

(j) Provide technical assistance and advisory services to countries to develop their national information systems for participation in WINAP;

(k) Organize seminars and training workshops at the national, subregional and regional levels on development and management of women's information system/network-related projects and programmes;

(l) Undertake research studies on selected issues to monitor the changing situation of women in the region and disseminate the research finding through the regional network.

(c) Organizational structure of WINAP

The regional focal point or co-ordinating body for WINAP would be the regional network centre established in the Social Development Division of ESCAP.

WINAP would be a decentralized network with focal points at national, subregional and regional levels and communication links with non-governmental organizations, subregional groups/organizations, regional offices of United Nations organizations, non-United Nations regional/international organizations, and related divisions within ESCAP.

Recognizing the global nature of women's issues and the need to improve the worldwide flow of information on women, the WINAP regional centre would also maintain linkages with global focal points in United Nations organizations.

4. Actions for implementation of WINAP

The ultimate role of an information system was to improve "matching" between problems and solutions at the national level. Any efforts for developing information networks at the regional or global level should consider the development of the national level systems as the most essential components. Thus, the early establishment of information systems at the national level was of primary importance to the effective implementation of a regional women's information network.

The following actions were recommended, subject to the countries' approval and resources.

Country-level actions

(a) Develop an action plan to strengthen the organizational structure of the national women's information focal point. The plan should include, among others, the use of existing inter-agency committees. If none is available, a multi-sectoral committee should be formed to (i) assess information needs for policy formulation and programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation for the full integration of women in development, and (ii) develop a plan for effecting the needed improvements in data collection, and dissemination to the general public and especially women active at grass-roots level;

(b) Under this action plan the need for generation and disseminating of information must be emphasized. For this purpose, it must use all types of existing institutes within the governmental and education/research and non-governmental sector;

(c) Under this action plan, establish linkages with national units and with the WINAP regional centre according to guidelines for the approved WINAP model;

(d) Establish a system of information exchange in accordance with the approved WINAP model; and

(e) Introduce, as appropriate, modern information handling technology, such as microcomputer applications for information processing, in the further development of the national information systems.

Regional-level actions

(a) Strengthen regional information flows through WINAP by:

(i) Undertaking an intial survey of existing numeric data and bibliographic information regularly supplied by countries to United Nations agencies; and

(ii) Initiating a mechanism for the periodic collection of numeric data on the minimum list of socio-economic indicators and the regular collection of bibliographic information from the national women's information focal points in accordance with guidelines for the WINAP model;

(iii) Developing computerized numeric, directory and bibliographic data bases according to guidelines proposed in the WINAP model;

(iv) Developing a regular information dissemination system beginning with the publication of a regional WINAP newsletter on a biannual basis;

(b) Strengthen the organizational structure of the WINAP regional focal point by:

(i) Establishing linkages for regular information exchange with:

a. non-governmental organizations in Asia and the Pacific;

b. subregional groups/organizations; and

c. non-United Nations regional/international organizations, in accordance with guidelines proposed in the WINAP model.

(ii) Establishing regular information exchange through the Inter-divisional Task Force on the Integration of Women into ESCAP Priority Concerns and the United Nations Inter-agency Committee on Women in Development;

(iii) Developing information search service for regular information exchange with:

a. non-governmental organizations in Asia and the Pacific;

b. subregional groups/organizations; and

c. non-United Nations regional/international organizations, in accordance with guidelines proposed in the WINAP model;

(iv) Strengthen global-level information flows through the development of linkages for regular information exchanges with global organizations;

(v) Maximize the utilization of existing data and information sources by:

a. Facilitating the formation of inter-agency linkages at the country level among United Nations agencies, bilateral and other donor agencies for information exchanges on women-related projects and activities;

b. Undertaking a survey of existing data bases on women in the region and developing linkages among them and the regional focal point at ESCAP;

c. Institutionalizing the periodic region-wide review of research on women and identify gaps, especially concerning issues emerging as a result of activities undertaken to integrate women in development; and

d. Encouraging United Nations agencies to maximize collection of information on women when undertaking situation analyses and projects;

(vi) Develop effective measures and programmes to disseminate important information on women in development through the mass media at all levels.

E. CLOSING OF THE SEMINAR

Closing statements expressing satisfaction at the outcome of the Seminar and thanks to all involved in preparations for and the hosting the Seminar and to the participants for their contributions were delivered by the Chairperson, the Chief of the Social Development Division, ESCAP, and the Director-General of the National Women's Education Centre, Japan.

Several participants, speaking on behalf of their respective groups, also expressed satisfaction at the outcome of the Seminar and extended their thanks to the Government of Japan for hosting the meeting, the National Women's Education Centre for providing host facilities and ESCAP for organizing the Seminar.

Annex

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Ms. Shayesteh Amiri, Cultural Adivisor in Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Ms. Ashraf Borujerd, Professor of University and Advisor of Islamic Guidance.

Ms. Masosmeh Tabatabaie, Advisor of Islamic Guidance, Ministry of Education.

Japan

Ministry of Education

Ms. Mizue Maeda, Director, Women's Education Division, Social Education Bureau.

Ms. Suzuko Oki, Social Education Bureau.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Mr. Sadayuki Hayashi, Deputy Director General, United Nations Bureau.

Mr. Yoshikazu Nakano, Director, Social Cooperation Division, United Nations Bureau.

Mr. Akio Miyajima, Social Cooperation Division, United Nations Bureau.

Ms. Ritsuko Fukuda, Social Cooperation Division, United Nations Bureau.

Mr. Shuji Goto, Economic Cooperation Division, United Nations Bureau.

Ministry of Labour

Ms. Nobuko Matsubara, Director, Policy Planning Division, Women's Bureau.

Ms. Mari Isobe, Women's Bureau.

Prime Minister's Office

Ms. Yukiko Kawahashi, Cabinet Councillor for Women's Affairs, and Director, Office for Women's Affairs.

Ms. Kyoko Ogawa, Office for Women's Affairs.

Ms. Yuko Chujo, Office for Women's Affairs.

Ms. Keiko Takegawa, Office for Women's Affairs.

Ms. Yoshiko Motoki, Office for Women's Affairs.

National Women's Education Centre

Ms. Teruko Ohno, Head, Programme Division

Mr. Tetsuo Onda, Programme Division

Ms. Chikako Uemura, Programme Division

Ms. Yoko Koinuma, Programme Division

Non-governmental organizations

Ms. Hiroko Fujita, Japan Section, Women's International League for Peace and Freedom.

Ms. Tei Harada, National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Club of Japan.

Ms. Yoko Maruyama, Japanese Association of University Women.

Ms. Mieko Miyamoto, International Women's Education Association of Japan.

Ms. Michi Nakamura, Japanese Association of University Women and the Pan-Pacific and Southeast Asia Women's Association of Japan.

Ms. Michiko Nakamura, Pan-Pacific and Southeast Asia Women's Association of Japan.

Ms. Toshiko Noguchi, Japanese Association of University Women.

Ms. Yoko Nuita, President, Fusae Ichikawa Memorial Association.

Ms. Sachiko Okumura, League of Women Voters of Japan.

Ms. Ayako Sano, Japanese Medical Women's Association.

Ms. Hamako Watanabe, Japan Democratic Women's Association.

ESCAP Secretariat

Mr. Edward Van Roy, Chief, Social Development Division.

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Ms. Helen K. Kolbe, Chief, Clearing-house and Information Section, Population Division.

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Ms. Atsuko Shikuma, Director-General.

Ms. Wakako Nishibori, Information and International Exchange Division

Ms. Yuko Suzuki, Information and International Exchange Division

Ms. Kazue Aoki, Information and International Exchange Division

II. INFORMATION SOURCES AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES FOR WOMEN'S CONCERNS WITHIN THE UNITED NATIONS AGENCIES OF THE ASIAN-PACIFIC REGION*

The purpose of this paper is to review the information sources and organizational structures related to women's concerns within the agencies of the United Nations in the Asian and Pacific region. This review constitutes one part of a major effort to examine women's information systems within the Asian and Pacific region in preparation for the establishment of a women's information network for Asia and the Pacific whose regional focal point will be located at ESCAP.

The ESCAP secretariat is grateful for the co-operation and kind assistance of the other United Nations offices in Bangkok, which supplied the information used for the preparation of this paper. Background data on information sources and organizational structures were provided by the regional offices of United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), World Health Organization (WHO), Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), International Labour Organisation (ILO), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA).

A. INFORMATION SOURCES

There are many ways of classifying women's information: numeric and bibliographic, regular and non-recurrent, published and unpublished, macro-level data and micro-level data, theoretical and practical, etc. Within the United Nations organizations and other bodies working in the Asian and Pacific region, information emerges from programme which follow priorities for action. Thus, the type of information produced depends upon the kinds of programmes which are undertaken. Some information directly focuses on women's issues, while other information indirectly relates to them. This dichotomy runs parallel to two different approaches to women's concerns: one is that women's projects are separate from other

* Prepared by the ESCAP secretariat.

projects, and the other is that women's components are integrated into other projects. Information derived from the former is rather limited, while information obtained from the latter is quite extensive.

Much of the information which is being generated through projects on women follows the concerns and priorities set forward in the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women. In the process of planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating these projects, information is produced in the form of statistics, reports, studies, etc. Both internal documents and published reports may contain information on women in development.

1. Numeric information

The identification and establishment of indicators to measure progress toward equality between the sexes was entrusted to a joint programme initiated in 1982 by the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) and the Statistical Office of the United Nations Department of International Economic and Social Affairs, in co-operation with the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs. This joint programme addressed two issues: "first, elaboration of methods of compiling indicators from statistics currently available at national and international levels and based on existing statistical concepts and methods; and second, long-term improvements in statistical concepts, methods and data collection programmes needed to provide a more complete and objective picture of equality between the sexes."[1]

A large body of statistical information already exists in international publications mostly based on country inputs. There are three principal sources of basic statistical information:

(a) Censuses of housing and population;

(b) Household surveys;

(c) Registration systems and administrative records.

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[1] *Selected statistics and indicators on the status of women: report of the Secretary-General (Item 7 of the provisional agenda), World conference to review and appraise the achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, Nairobi, Kenya, 15-26 July 1985* (United Nations, A/Conf. 116/10, 3 May 1985) Chapter I, Section A, paragraph 10. As a part of the project, INSTRAW together with the Statistical Office of the United Nations prepared two publications: *Compiling social indicators on the situation of women*, Studies in Methods, Series F, No. 32 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E. 84. XVII 2), and *Improving concepts and methods for statistics and indicators on the situation of women*, Studies in Methods, Series F, No. 33 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E. 84. XVII 3).

United Nations agencies obtain information from these sources at different levels and in various ways. Numeric information may be collected by regional or headquarters offices. A common mode of obtaining quantitative data is by direct contacts between statistical offices at the headquarters level and various sources in national governments. In this way, data on the region goes directly to the organization's headquarters and is subsequently passed to regional offices. Thus, important statistics for a given region may not be collected, stored, retrieved or disseminated by regional offices of the United Nations.

Information which is originally obtained from censuses, surveys and registration is passed on to international organizations in several ways. First, data may be obtained directly from national statistical services, official publications, completed questionnaires and special surveys. Second, data is obtained indirectly from publications and documents of specialized agencies and international organizations. Third, the above data may be supplemented by estimates and projections. In some cases two or more agencies may co-ordinate efforts to publish statistical material.

Important sources of information on women's concerns produced at the headquarters level of United Nations organizations are described in annex I, which describes types of data, methods of collection, sources of information and frequancy of publication. Although this paper focuses on women's information at the regional level, these important sources have been included, since much of the numeric data is sent directly to agency headquarters. The *Directory of International Statistics*[2] should also be consulted for comprehensive listings of statistical series and methodological guidelines. A list of regularly-published women-related statistics in major United Nations publications (taken from the 1981 *Directory*) is included as annex II. Other statistics are collected by regional offices of the United Nations.

2. Bibliographic information

Bibliographic data are included in regular publications, nonrecurrent publications, unpublished reports and internal documents. This information may be in the form of series, periodicals, monographs, newsletters, bulletins, bibliographies, directories, journals, manuals, audio-visual materials, etc. Information is included in reports of meetings, seminars and workshops. It appears in internal documents prepared in the process of proposing, planning, monitoring and evaluating programmes and projects. While part of the

[2] Sales Nos. E. 75. XVII. 11 and E. 81. XVII. 6.

information on women in the region is published by the regional offices, some is collected and disseminated at the headquarters level.

A number of important publications specifically related to women's issues appear on a regular basis. Among them is *Women at Work*. Published biannually by the ILO, its purpose is to disseminate information on trends and developments concerning women workers. It is designed to inform workers' and employers' organizations, non-governmental organizations, research institutes and concerned individuals about ILO activities relating to women's questions including news, ideas, events and programmes all over the world. The ILO's *Women, Work and Development* series includes monographs on work activities in which women are engaged, as well as broader syntheses of findings that emerge from ILO research and technical co-operation. The monographs focus on the roles of women in development.

Other regular publications of United Nations agencies contain information on women from time to time.

B. ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

There are a number of information networks associated with United Nations offices within the Asian and Pacific region (see annex IV).

These regional networks are important sources of information on women and population problems, refugee matters, health issues, agricultural production, rural development, population education, social science, vocational training, development planning, educational materials etc.

Other structures within the United Nations bodies of the ESCAP region play a role in the collection and dissemination of information. Information is exchanged in workshops, seminars, meetings and conferences. There are library services, documentation centres, statistical units, liaison offices, news services and public information sections. Another important method of sharing information is through technical co-operation among developing countries (TCDC) which is becoming an important aspect of most development programmes in the Asian and Pacific region. The principal locations of these data sources within United Nations agencies of the region will not be indicated here because of the complex structures of these regional bodies.

Annex I

MAJOR SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON WOMEN'S CONCERNS PRODUCED AT HEADQUARTERS OF UNITED NATIONS ORGANIZATIONS

1. United Nations Compendium of Social Statistics

The *Compendium* is a collection of data describing social conditions and social change. It is intended to serve as a source book by providing the building blocks for social indicators. It is prepared by the Statistical Office of the United Nations with the collaboration and assistance of the United Nations Population Division, the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat), the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, the International Labour Office, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and the World Health Organization. In addition to these principal contributors, data are supplied by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, the Universal Postal Union, the International Statistical Institute and the World Bank. The *Compendium* contains gender-specific data on population, education, literacy, health and labour. It is issued irregularly.

2. United Nations Demographic Yearbook

The *Demographic Yearbook* is one of a co-ordinated and interrelated set of publications issued by the United Nations and specialized agencies to supply basic statistical data for demographers, economists and sociologists. Under the co-ordinated plan the *Demographic Yearbook* is the international source of demographic statistics. Some of the data are reprinted in the *World Health Statistics Annual* to make them more readily available to the medical and public-health professions. Published by the Statistical Office of the United Nations, the *Demographic Yearbook* contains gender-specific data on population, natality, infant mortality, general mortality, nuptiality and divorce, and information on maternal mortality. In addition, each issue contains detailed statistics on special topics. Demographic data is obtained through the co-operation of national statistical services. Some tables contain United Nations estimates.

3. UNESCO Statistical Yearbook

The *Statistical Yearbook* contains information about education, science, technology, culture and communications. It is prepared with the co-operation of UNESCO national commissions and national statistical services, and of the Statistical Office and the Population Division of the United Nations. Member states are requested to

report periodically to the Organization on laws, regulations and statistics relating to educational, scientific and cultural matters. The principal sources of data are official replies to questionnaires and surveys as well as official reports and publications. These statistics are supplemented by information from other sources, both national and international. Gender-specific data are available on the illiterate population, educational attainment, school enrolment of several levels, enrolment ratios and teaching staff. Statistics are available at the tertiary level for field of study by sex. The *Yearbook* also contains data on female scientists, engineers and technicians as well as women engaged in research and technology.

4. ILO: Yearbook of Labour Statistics

The principal international source of quantitative data on women's participation in the labour force is the *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*. Most of the data are obtained from national statistical services and official publications. Reporting agencies are requested to supply labour statistics which conform as closely as possible to international standards. Gender-specific data are available for employment, unemployment, hours of work and wages. Other statistics relate to labour cost, consumer prices, occupational injuries and industrial disputes.

5. WHO: The World Health Statistics Annual

Contains vital statistics, vaccination statistics and statistics on infectious diseases, health personnel and hospital establishments. It contains gender-specific data on: (a) life expectancy, number of survivors, and chances per 1,000 of dying from specified causes, at selected ages, by country; and (b) causes of death by age and country.

Annex II

LIST OF REGULARLY-PUBLISHED WOMEN-RELATED STATISTICS IN MAJOR UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATIONS

Statistical series	Publication (see list of abbreviations, below)
1. DEMOGRAPHIC STATISTICS	
(1) Population Statistics	
A. Geographical distribution of the population	
(a) Localities by size class of locality:	
(i) For each sex	UNDYB
B. Characteristics of the population	
(a) Demographic characteristics	
(i) Population by sex	UNSYB, UNDYB, UNSOCL, ESCAPSYB, ECASYB, ECWASTABS, WHOANL, ECLASYB, ILOYLS
Sex ratio	UNDYB
(ii) Population by age	
Percentage distribution, by sex	UNDYB
(iii) Population by marital status	
By sex	UNDYB
Proportion of population never-married	
By sex	UNDYB, UNSOCL
(iv) Female population	
By age	UNDYB, ESCAPIND
By number of children born alive	UNDYB
By number of children living	UNDYB
By urban/rural residence	UNDYB
(v) Population by place of birth	
Native population	
By sex	UNDYB
(vi) Population by country of citizenship	
By sex	UNDYB
(b) Selected economic characteristics	
(i) Economically inactive population	
By sex	UNDYB
(c) Cultural characteristics	
(i) Ethnic or nationality composition of the population	
National or ethnic group by sex	UNDYB
(ii) Population by language	
By sex	UNDYB
(iii) Population by religion	
By sex	UNDYB
(iv) Population projections	
Sex/dependency ratio	UNSOCL

* Source: United Nations Statistical Office, *Directory of international statistics*, Volume 1, United Nations, New York, 1982.

Annex II. *Continued*

Statistical series	Publication (see list of abbreviations, below)
(2) Vital Statistics	
A. Natality statistics	
(a) Number of live births	
(i) By sex	UNDYB, WHOANL
(ii) By age of mother	UNDYB
(b) Birth rates	
(i) By age of mother	UNDYB
B. Mortality statistics	
(a) Late foetal mortality (28 weeks or more)	
(i) Number	
By sex of foetus	UNDYB
By age of mother	UNDYB
(ii) Ratio	
Specific for age of mother	UNDYB
(b) Neonatal mortality	
(i) Number	
By sex	UNDYB
(ii) Rates per live births	
By sex	UNDYB
(c) Infant mortality	
(i) Number	
By sex	UNDYB, UNSOCL, WHOANL
According to cause by ICD,[1] A list	
By sex	WHOANL
According to cause by ICD, B list	
By sex	UNDYB, WHOANL
(ii) Rates per live births	
By sex	UNDYB, UNSOCL, WHOANL
According to cause by ICD, A list	
By sex	UNSOCL, WHOANL
According to cause by ICD, B list	
By sex	UNDYB
(d) General mortality	
(i) Number	
By sex	UNDYB, UNSOCL, WHOANL
By age	
As a percentage of all deaths, by sex	UNSOCL
Maternal deaths	UNDYB, UNSOCL
According to cause by ICD, A list	
By sex	WHOANL
According to cause by ICD, B list	
By sex	UNDYB
According to cause by sex, age and groups of ICD, A list	
By sex	WHOANL

[1] ICD — International Classification of Deseases.

Annex II. *Continued*

Statistical series	Publication (see list of abbreviations, below)
(ii) Rates	
By sex	UNDYB, ESCAPSYB, UNSOCL, WHOANL
Maternal deaths	UNDYB, UNSOCL
According to cause by ICD, A list	
By sex	UNSOCL, WHOANL
According to cause by ICD, B list	
By sex	UNDYB
According to cause by sex, age and groups of ICD, A list	
By sex	WHOANL
C. Life tables	
(a) Expectation of life at specified ages, by sex	UNSYB, UNDYB, UNSOCL, ESCAPSYB, UNCTADHBK, WLDBNKIND, ECLASYB, WHOANL
(b) Mortality rates at specified ages, by sex	UNDYB, WLDBNKIND
(c) Survivors out of 100,000 live born at specified ages, by sex	UNDYB, ESCAPSYB, WHOANL
(d) Chances per 1,000 live born of eventually dying from specified causes, by sex	UNSOCL, WHOANL
D. Marriage statistics	
(a) Number of marriages	UNDYB
(b) Marraige rates	
(i) By sex	UNDYB
(ii) Among marriageable population, by sex	UNDYB
E. Divorce statistics	
(a) Number of divorces	
(i) By age of wife	UNDYB
(ii) By duration of marriage, cross-classified by age of husband and of wife	UNDYB
(b) Divorce rates	
(i) By age of wife	UNDYB
F. Vital statistics, n.e.c.[1]	
(a) Natural increase rates	
(i) Legally induced abortions	
By age and number of previous live births of mother	UNDYB
(3) Migration Statistics	
A. International migration	
(a) Departures to other countries by major categories (emigration)	

[1] n.e.c. — not elsewhere classified.

Annex II. *Continued*

Statistical series	Publication (see list of abbreviations, below)
(i) Long-term (more than one year) emigrants	
Demographic characteristics	
Age groups for each sex	UNDYB
(b) Arrivals from other countries by major categories (immigration)	
(i) Long-term (more than one year) immigrants	
Demographic characteristics	
Age groups for each sex	UNDYB
(4) Demographic statistics, n.e.c.	
A. Family planning statistics	
(a) Number of acceptors/users	
(i) Sterilization, by sex	ESCAPIND
2. EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS	
(1) Education characteristics of the population	
A. Literacy	
By sex	UNDYB, UNSOCL, UNESCOSYB
B. Illiteracy	
By sex	UNDYB, UNSOCL, UNESCOSYB
C. Educational attainment and qualifications	
By sex	UNDYB, UNSOCL, UNESCOSYB
D. School attendance	
By sex	UNDYB
(2) Enrolment	
A. Total enrolment, by level and type of education	
(a) Enrolment by sex at each level and type	UNSYB, UNSOCL, UNESCOSYB
(b) Enrolment by grade at the first and second levels	UNESCOSYB
(3) Teachers	
A. Number of teachers by sex, at each level and type	UNSYB, UNSOCL, UNESCOSYB
3. HEALTH STATISTICS	
(1) Infectious disease cases and prophylatic vaccinations	
A. Cases by sex and age distribution	
(a) By sex	WHOANL
4. HOUSING STATISTICS	
(1) Characteristics of buildings in which living quarters are located	
A. Type of building	UNSOCL
B. Year or period of construction	UNSOCL

Annex II. *Continued*

Statistical series	Publication (see list of abbreviations, below)
(2) Characteristics and facilities of living quarters	
A. Location of living quarters	UNSYB, UNHOUSE, UNSOCL
B. Total and percentage distribution by type of living quarters	UNSYB, UNSOCL, UNHOUSE
C. Occupancy status	UNSYB, UNSOCL, ESCAPSYB, UNHOUSE
D. Number of rooms	UNSYB, UNSOCL, ESCAPSYB, ECLASYB, UNHOUSE
E. Number of occupants	UNSYB, UNSOCL, ESCAPSYB, ECLASYB, UNHOUSE
F. Water supply system	UNSYB, UNSOCL, ESCAPSYB, ECLASYB, UNCTADHBK, UNHOUSE
G. Toilet facilities	UNSYB, UNSOCL, UNHOUSE
H. Type of lighting	UNSYB, UNSOCL, ECLASYB, UNHOUSE
I. Bathing facilities	UNSOCL, UNHOUSE
J. Cooking facilities	UNHOUSE
(3) Number and characteristics of occupants of living quarters	
A. Households	UNSYB, UNDYB, UNSOCL, ESCAPSYB, UNHOUSE
B. Tenure	UNSYB, UNSOCL, ESCAPSYB, UNHOUSE
C. Occupants	UNSYB, UNDYB, UNSOCL, ESCAPSYB, UNHOUSE
(4) National estimates of housing needs for varying periods	
A. Number of dwellings required	UNSOCL, UNHOUSE
(5) Housing statistics, n.e.c.	
A. Household projections	UNHOUSE
5. LABOUR STATISTICS	
(1) Economically active population or labour force	
A. Economically active population	
(a) Total	
(i) By sex and age group	UNDYB, UNSOCL, ECLASYB, ECASYB, ECWASTABS, ILOYLS
(ii) Female by marital status	UNDYB
(b) By industry, by status and by sex	ILOYLS
(c) By occupation, by status and by sex	ILOYLS
(d) By industry, by occupation and by sex	ILOYLS

Annex II. *Continued*

Statistical series	Publication (see list of abbreviations, below)
B. Labour force estimate	
(a) By sex and age group	UNSOCL, ILOLFP
(2) Employment	
A. Employment	
(a) General level, by sex	ILOYLS
(b) By industry, by sex	ILOYLS
(c) By occupation, by sex	ILOYLS
B. Paid employment in non-agricultural activities, by sex	ILOYLS
C. Paid employment in manufacturing	
(a) All industries, by sex	ILOYLS
(b) By industry, by sex	ILOYLS
D. Paid employment in mining and quarrying, by sex	ILOYLS
E. Paid employment in construction, by sex	ILOYLS
F. Paid employment in transport, storage and communication, by sex	ILOYLS
(3) Unemployment	
A. Unemployment	
(a) General level, by sex	ILOYLS
(b) By sex and age group	ILOYLS
B. Unemployed by work experience	
(a) General level, by sex	ILOYLS
(b) By industry, by sex	ILOYLS
(c) By occupation, by sex	ILOYLS
(4) Labour force projections	
By sex and age groups	UNSOCL, ECLASYB
(5) Hours of work	
A. Hours of work per week in non-agricultural activities, by sex	ILOYLS
B. Hours of work per week in manufacturing	
(a) All industries, by sex	ILOYLS
(b) By industry, by sex	ILOYLS
C. Hours of work per week in mining and quarrying, by sex	ILOYLS
D. Hours of work per week in construction, by sex	ILOYLS
E. Hours of work per week in transport, storage and communication, by sex	ILOYLS
(6) Wages and salaries	
A. Wages in non-agricultural activities, by sex	ILOYLS
B. Wages in manufacturing	
(a) All industries, by sex	ILOYLS
(b) By industry, by sex	ILOYLS
C. Wages in mining and quarrying, by sex	ILOYLS
D. Wages in construction, by sex	ILOYLS
E. Wages in transport, storage and communication, by sex	ILOYLS
F. Wages in agriculture, by sex	ILOYLS

Annex II. *Continued*

Statistical series	Publication (see list of abbreviations, below)
6. SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY	
(1) Scientific and technical manpower	
A. Stock of scientists, engineers and technicians	
(a) Scientists and engineers, total	
(i) Female	UNESCOSYB
(b) Technicians, total	
(i) Female	UNESCOSYB
(2) Research and Experimental Development (R & D) activity	
A. Personnel engaged in R & D by type of personnel	
(a) Scientists and engineers, total	
(i) Female	UNESCOSYB
(b) Technicians, total	
(i) Female	UNESCOSYB
(c) Auxiliary personnel	
(i) Female	UNESCOSYB
B. Scientists and engineers engaged in R & D by field of science and time devoted to R & D	
(a) Female in full-time equivalent	UNESCOSYB
C. Personnel engaged in R & D by sector of performance and industry group or field of science	
(a) Productive sector, integrated R & D, total	
(i) Scientists and engineers and time devoted to R & D Female	UNESCOSYB
(b) Productive sector, non-integrated R & D, total	
(i) Scientists and engineers and time devoted to R & D Female	UNESCOSYB
(c) Higher education sector, total	
(i) Female	UNESCOSYB
(d) General service sector, total	
(i) Scientists and engineers, and time devoted to R & D Female	UNESCOSYB

Abbreviations of names of publications

Abbreviation of publication	Frequency[1]	Title	Organization
ECASYB	A	African Statistical Yearbook	Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)
ECLASYB	A	Statistical Yearbook for Latin America	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)
ECWASTABS	A	Statistical Abstract of the Arab World	Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA)
ESCAPIND	Q	Statistical Indicators for Asia and the Pacific	Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP)
ESCAPSYB	A	Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific	Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP)
ILOLFP	A	Labour Force Estimates and Projections	International Labour Organisation (ILO)
ILOYLS	A	Yearbook of Labour Statistics	International Labour Organisation (ILO)
UNCTADHBK	A	Handbook of International Trade and Development Statistics	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)
UNDYB	A	Demographic Yearbook	United Nations Statistical Office
UNESCOSYB	A	UNESCO Statistical Yearbook	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
UNHOUSE	A	Compendium of Housing Statistics	United Nations Statistical Office
UNSOCL		Compendium of Social Statistics	United Nations Statistical Office
UNSYB	A	Statistical Yearbook	United Nations Statistical Office
WHOANL	A	World Health Statistics Annual	World Health Organization (WHO)
WLDBNKIND	A	World Development Indicators	World Bank

[1] A: annual
Q: quarterly

Annex III

NUMERIC INFORMATION SERVICES FOR THE ASIAN AND PACIFIC REGION IN THE REGIONAL OFFICES OF THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM

A. ESCAP

Population Division

The ESCAP Regional Population Information Centre includes a population Data Bank which contains, among other information, population data consisting of: (1) basic statistics collected in censuses, surveys and vital registration systems; family planning service statistics, etc., and (2) multi-disciplinary research findings generated from basic research, applied research, and operations research.

These data on age, sex education, employment, unemployment, fertility, mortality, morbidity, nuptiality, urbanization, migration, health, nutrition and aging as well as household characteristics, population policy, family planning etc. appear in the following series which include some tabulations which are gender-specific: *Country monograph series*, *Asian population studies series*, and *Comparative study on migration, urbanization and development in the ESCAP region: country reports.*

Social Development Division

A Social Development Data Bank within the Social Development Division includes approximately 100 indicators pertinent to social development. Among them are data on population, marriage, education, health, aging and economic activity which are broken down by sex. Special indicators on women include: female population aged 15-45 years; female shares of employment in agriculture, manufacturing and services; and maternal mortality.

Statistics for the data bank were collected from international publications[1] and country sources and disseminated to government agencies, non-governmental organizations and interested parties in 1985. These data will be updated and consolidated.

Statistics Division

The Statistics Division of ESCAP processes, stores and disseminates information on the region. Completed questionnaires

[1] Information sources include: *United Nations demographic yearbook; UNESCO statistical yearbook; ILO yearbook of labour statistics; ADB key indicators;* World Bank, *World development report*, and *world tables*, Vols. I and II (Baltimore, Johns Hopkins University Press, 1984).

which are sent directly from member countries of the ESCAP region to the Statistical Office of the United Nations are copied to the regional office where statistical information is transferred to a computer system. Unfortunately, few gender-specific data are published. Some member countries report a few demographic data for women, which appear in *Statistical Indicators for Asia and the Pacific* and the *Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific.*

B. UNICEF

UNICEF has collaborated with ESCAP in producing an *Asian and Pacific Atlas of Children in National Development.* Although this is not a regular publication, it is periodically updated. The *Atlas* grows out of a recognized need to consider children's status in their surrounding environment.

The 1987 edition will include the following data on women: maternal mortality, life expectancy, literacy rates, economic activity, credit availability, school attendance and the percentage of mothers breast-feeding at three six and twelve months. The data are collected from United Nations and national sources through UNICEF country offices.

C. UNHCR

The *UNHCR Refugee Biodata System* is a computerized system for the collection, recording and processing of biodata statistics and resettlement data for Indochinese refugees in Hong Kong, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand.

In this sense, it is a subregional system. Although refugee data are stored at the Geneva headquarters, the best access to the Biodata System is through branch offices in individual countries.

Information from family heads and about individual refugees is collected from registration forms. Other information is obtained from governments, embassies, delegations, organizations and agencies involved in refugee protection, assistance and resettlement.

Although tabulations are not broken down by sex in weekly and monthly reports, the system contains gender-specific data on country arrival, first camp, arrival date, nationality, country of origin, ethnicity, religion, marital status, urban-rural status, special problems (such as medical priority case, rape victim case), number of persons in case, relationship to head of family, date of birth, country of birth, type of education, length of education, mother tongue, foreign languages, occupational classification, health status and resettlement information. UNHCR meets reasonable requests to produce gender-specific tabulations of certain variables.

Annex IV

REGIONAL INFORMATION NETWORKS OF THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM WHICH CONTAIN INFORMATION WHICH IS OF INTEREST TO WINAP

A. ESCAP

Agriculture Division

Members of an Agricultural Information Network of correspondents occasionally submit articles to the *Agricultural Information Development Bulletin* which is published by the Agriculture Division to provide reference material for policy makers. The *Bulletin* also includes useful information on agricultural development reprinted from other publications and supplied by news services.

Population Division

The Population Division of the ESCAP secretariat serves as a regional centre for the Asia-Pacific Population Information Network (POPIN). The objectives of the ESCAP Population Information Section (formerly the Clearing-house and Information Section) are:

(a) To provide training, technical assistance and technical backstopping to national population information centres in order to enhance their capability to respond more effectively to the need for timely and reliable population data and information to support their national population programmes;

(b) To co-ordinate the further development of the Asia-Pacific Population Information Network (POPIN);

(c) To disseminate data and information to ESCAP members and associate members on the population situation in the region through a series of specialized publications; and

(d) To maintain a regional population data bank.

The data bank has the following functions: management of the ESCAP census and survey data bank; provision of specialized bibliographies on request; interactive searches of the computerized EBIS/POPFILE data base, the POPLINE subset data base, MANPINS (Malaysian National Population Information System), and external data bases, as appropriate, using the Communications Authority of Thailand (CAT) telecommunications link; computerization of specialized directory data bases; and training, technical assistance and advisory services in the use of microcomputer technology in population information centres.

Social Development Division

Within ESCAP, the Inter-divisional Task Force for Women in Development serves as a network to promote co-ordination and consultation and to ensure that the concept of the integration of women in development is reflected in programmes and activities of ESCAP.

Another network is the Inter-agency Committee on Women in Development which was established to promote co-operation within the United Nations system in activities on women's concerns in the region.

B. UNICEF

UNICEF has a knowledge network on women's activities composed of UNICEF staff (from field offices and UNICEF headquarters) and government representatives. The network serves as a forum for the exchange of experiences and ideas. It has been used to discuss issues relating to improved services for women, policy guidelines, programming procedures, and support activities relating to research and advocacy for special target groups.

The Division of Information and Public Affairs of UNICEF HQ, New York has set up an electronic information network which includes an electronic bulletin board and full-text data base, both of which contain information on women. Telecommunications linkages now provide access to more than 130 users in some 30 locations, including several UNICEF offices in Asia: Australia, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Korea and Thailand. The network continues to be widened to include other UNICEF field locations.

C. UNHCR

The UNHCR Refugee Biodata System serves as a network of information on Indochinese refugees in South-East Asia.

D. UNESCO

Two regional networks were identified as actual and potential sources of information on women relating to population education and the social sciences:

(a) The Population Education Clearing House of the UNESCO Population Education Programme Service acquires, analyzes, transforms and disseminates to population professionals in Asia and the Pacific information relating to all aspects of population education. "Women's programmes" is one of fourteen subjects related to population education.

(b) The Asia Pacific Information Network in Social Sciences (APINESS) was recently organized by the Regional Unit for Social and Human Sciences in Asia and the Pacific (RUSHSAP) in collaboration with the Association of Asian Social Science Research Councils (AASSREC). It is hoped that a sub-network on issues relating to women will be incorporated into APINESS.

Another network which operates within the Asian and Pacific region is part of a global project organized by the Population Division of UNESCO headquarters: Feature Services and Audio-Visual Banks on Women and Population. Within the region it is under the Philippine Press Foundation of Asia (PFA) as DEPTHNEWS Women's Feature Service. The purpose is to influence public opinion through mass media by featuring news on women in development in newspapers and magazines and on radio and television. Articles focus on population dynamics, family welfare and children's lives.

E. FAO

The FAO has established technical bodies and regional associations to promote co-operation and collaboration. Some of the information available in these bodies may be of interest in specialized studies of women's role in agricultural production. The specialized technical bodies are:

(a) Asia Pacific Plant Protection Commission (APPPC);

(b) Asian and the Pacific Commission on Agricultural Statistics (APCAS);

(c) Animal Production and Health Commission for Asia, the Far East and the Southwest Pacific (APHCA);

(d) Indo-Pacific Fishery Commission (IPFC);

(e) Asia Pacific Forestry Commission (APFC);

(f) FAO Regional Commission on Farm Management for Asia and the Far East (FMCAFE).

The associations are:

(a) Asia and Pacific Regional Agricultural Credit Association (APRACA);

(b) Association of Food Marketing Agencies in Asia and the Pacific (AFMA).

F. ILO

The ILO has five major programmes in Asia and the Pacific which serve as clearing houses for information in different areas:

(1) The Asian and Pacific Skill Development Programme (APSDEP) centred in Islamabad was established to examine policy issues in vocational and technical training; exchange information and experience; train policy-makers and key personnel in various aspects of vocational and technical training; and provide a framework for co-operation in the field of vocational training. Within APSDEP is a women's co-ordinating unit;

(2) The Asian Regional Team for Employment Promotion (ARTEP) is located in New Delhi. It provides technical assistance, advisory services and training programmes designed to help national planners overcome the problems of unemployment and poverty;

(3) The Labour and Population Team for Asia and the Pacific (LAPTAP) centred in Bangkok is responsible for population related activities in the Asia-Pacific region. It provides assistance in the formulation and implementation of projects relating to population, which includes conducting training courses and producing educational materials;

(4) The Asian and Pacific Project for Labour Administration (ARPLA) centred in Bangkok assists participating countries to establish networking arrangements for sharing training facilities, expertise and information within the framework of technical co-operation among developing countries (TCDC);

(5) The ASEAN Project on Industrial Relations for Development (ASEAN-IR) aims to promote industrial peace by improving and strengthening the systems and practices of industrial relations in ASEAN countries.

G. WHO

Under the South East Asia Regional Office (SEARO) there are three networking systems:

(1) The HELLIS (Health, Literature, Library and Information Service) network of health service libraries was established to supply easy access to relevant information to all health personnel and other potential users. The national focal points are located in libraries of health ministries and medical schools. The regional focal point at the WHO regional office co-ordinates the national focal points and serves

as liaison to WHO regional offices, non-governmental organizations, various international agencies and other networking systems such as MEDLINE;

(2) The HSR (Health Services Research) network was established to co-ordinate information and activities related to health services;

(3) The PHC (Primary Health Care) network was established to improve information flows on primary health care which is the key approach of WHO in its efforts to achieve "Health for All by the Year 2000."

III. METHODOLOGY FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING OF THE CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN AT THE NATIONAL LEVEL*

(Document No. SD/RWINS/2)

INTRODUCTION

One of the most significant accomplishments of the United Nations Decade for Women is the adoption by the United Nations General Assembly on 18 December 1979 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. Opened for signature on 1 March 1980, it went into effect on 3 September 1981.[1] By March 1986, 87 States had ratified or acceded to the Convention, 21 others who had signed have not as yet ratified or acceded. Under the 30-article convention, States Parties bind themselves to pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating discrimination against women in all fields — civil, political, economic, social, and cultural — regardless of their marital status. It calls for the adoption, if they have not already been adopted, of constitutional, legislative, judical and administrative measures embodying the principle of equality of men and women; prohibiting discrimination on the basis of gender including sanctions where appropriate; and repealing measures which constitute discrimination. The adoption of temporary special measures aimed at accelerating *de facto* equality between men and women is, however, allowed.

Article 17 of the Convention provides for the election by States Parties from among their nationals of a Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) for monitoring the progress made in the implementation of the Convention.

Each State Party is entitled to nominate a national of "high moral standing and competence in the field covered by the Convention." From the list of persons nominated and submitted by the

* This paper was prepared by Irene R. Cortés, Executive Vice-President and Vice-President for Academic Affairs, University of the Philippines and is reproduced as submitted, without formal editing. The views expressed are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect those of the United Nations Secretariat.

[1] Under Art. 27 the Convention went into force on the thirtieth day after the deposit with the United Nations Secretary General of the 20th instrument of ratification on accession.

Secretary General in conformity with the Convention, the States Parties chose by secret ballot 23 experts taking into account the equitable geographical distribution and the representation of different forms of civilization as well as principal legal systems.[2]

In April 1982 the full 23 membership of the CEDAW was elected.[3] Its organizational meeting was held in Vienna in October 1982. The CEDAW normally meets annually alternating between the United Nations Headquarters in Vienna and in New York.

CEDAW members serve in their individual capacity for a staggered term of four years. Among those first elected, 12 members chosen by lot by the Chairman served for only two years. Thereafter, all members elected serve a term of four years without limit of re-election.[4]

Article 18 of the Convention requires every State Party to submit to the Secretary General of the United Nations for consideration of the Committee a report of the legislative, judicial, administrative or other measures which have been adopted to implement the provisions of the Convention. The first report is made within one year after entry into force of the Convention as to the State Party concerned. Thereafter, a report is to be made at least once every four years or whenever the CEDAW so requests.

The written reports of member States Parties sent to the United Nations Secretary General for consideration by the CEDAW are scheduled for discussion at the CEDAW annual meetings. In scheduling the reports geographical distribution, levels of development and socio-economic systems of the reporting State are considered.

At the 23rd meeting of its second session on 11 August 1983 the CEDAW drew up and adopted general guidelines on form, content and dates of States Parties' reports.[5] The general guidelines are intended not only to assist the States Parties in fulfilling their obligation under Article 18 of the Convention but also to enable the CEDAW and the States Parties to have a complete picture of implementation of the Convention, the problems encountered relative thereto, and the progress achieved.

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[2] Article 17, para. 1.

[3] When the State Parties met to elect members of the CEDAW 35 States had already become parties to the Convention. Hence, the full 23 membership was elected in accordance with Art. 17.

[4] This paper presenter was elected to the CEDAW and served for four years, 1982-1986.

[5] CEDAW/C/7.

The guidelines provide for a report in two parts. Part I calls for a description of the actual general, social, economic, political, and legal framework within which the State Party approaches the elimination of discrimination against women in all its forms as defined in the Convention; any effects the ratification of the Convention had on these; and whether any provision has been made for institutions or agencies whose task is to ensure that the principle of equality between men and women is complied with. It inquires into whether remedies are available to women who have suffered discrimination; whether the provisions of the treaty can be directly invoked before and enforced by the courts or other tribunals of the State Party.

Part II requires specific information in relation to provisions of the Convention, among others the: (a) constitutional, legislative, administrative, and other measures in force relative to equal rights between men and women; (b) developments that have taken place and the programme and institutions that have been established since the entry in force of the Convention; (c) any restrictions or limitations, even of a temporary nature, imposed by law or practice or in any other manner on the enjoyment of each right; (d) any other factors or difficulties in the exercise of the right; and (e) other information on the progress made.

The reports are to be accompanied by copies of principal legislative, judicial, administrative, and other texts, and should include information on actual conditions. Where empirical data are given, a breakdown on the category of sex is requested.

The following is the procedure taken in considering the reports: The Secretariat of the Committee notifies the States Parties regarding the date their reports are due. When the written reports are received, texts are distributed among the Committee in the different working languages of the members, which under the Convention are Arabic, Chinese, English, French and Russian. The members are informed as to which reports will be taken up. At the CEDAW meeting a representative of a State Party introduces the report. The introduction not infrequently contains information additional to the written report.

The Convention provides that the first report by States Parties made within one year after the Convention went into force for the State concerned, should indicate "the legislative, judicial, administrative, or other measures which they have adopted to give effect to the provisions of the present Convention and on the progress made in this respect." However, it is necessary to give a general background of the status of women in the State Party up to the first year of operation of the Convention to serve as baseline information to determine progress under the Convention. Whatever advances have

been achieved up to the time of the initial report regarding the status of women are useful information. The report has to cover every operative article of the Convention. The CEDAW calls not only for provisions of the Constitution, statutes, administrative or other measures, but inquires into hard data concerning women in every facet of civil, political, economic, social, and cultural life.

Articles 1 to 16 are the substantive provisions of the Convention. Article by article, paragraph by paragraph of these provisions are the bases of comments, questions, and requests for elaboration or additional information directed by CEDAW members to the representative of a State Party presenting its reports.

The State Party representative, assisted by members of the permanent mission in New York or in Vienna or by members of the delegation sent to present the report may be able to furnish the data requested by the CEDAW at the date scheduled for the replies, otherwise the information sought may be given at a subsequent report.

This lengthy reference to monitoring by the CEDAW of the Convention has been presented since it also operates as a guide for States Parties in their implementation and monitoring of the Convention at the national level.

A. Indicators on the status of women

The status of women in different States Parties to the Convention varies because of historical, economic, political and other factors, but certain indicators may be used to gauge this status.

In the Philippines it has been suggested that the indicators on the status of women can be categorized into: policy indicators, institutional/programme indicators and socio-economic indicators.[6]

The policy indicators refer to national policies affecting women. These can be found in the constitution, in legislation and administrative regulations issued to implement them.

From example, the constitutional guarantees of due process and equal protection of the laws found in the 1935 and 1973 Constitutions and incorporated verbatim in the 1986 draft applicable to men and women provide:

> "No person shall be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law, nor shall any persons be denied the equal protection of the laws."

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[6] Acknowledgement is hereby made of the assistance extended by Manuela M. Silva of the NCRFW who generously made available information and materials pertaining to the Philippines.

All citizens, regardless of sex, who satisfy age and residence requirements and are not otherwise disqualified by law have the right to vote. They may also be elected to public office at all levels of government provided they have the prescribed qualifications.

Universal education was introduced by legislation at the beginning of this century. Both the 1935 and 1973 Constitutions included provisions on education which the proposed draft further expands.

"Equal work opportunities regardless of sex, race or creed" was among the provisions made in the 1973 Constitution. The 1986 draft in Article XIII on Social Justice and Human Rights contains detailed provisions on labour, agrarian and natural resources reform, urban land reform and housing, health, women, etc.

Restrictions on the nationality rights of women found in the 1935 Constitution and implemented by legislation were lifted by provisions of the 1973 Constitution. The last vestige of the consequence of those restrictions as they affect children of any woman married to an alien will be finally removed under the 1986 constitutional proposal.

Article II of the draft enumerates a number of state policies affecting the family, women, children and youth. The "fundamental equality before law of women and men" is explicitly guaranteed.

Constitutional policies may need implementing legislation for the establishment of mechanisms to be charged with their enforcement and the filling out of details.

Legislatures are policy-making bodies. Through the enactment of statutes they define policies and provide for their implementation. However, planning agencies may be established by the constitution or statute. Thus, in the Philippines there is a National Planning and Development Authority which draws up development plans and participate in formulating national policies. These usually include provisions on women.

Institutional/programme indicators identify organized efforts of both the government and the private sectors to carry out national policies. The government, through the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW), the Ministry of Labor and Employment and its Bureau of Women and Minors, the Ministry of Agriculture's Bureau of Agricultural Extension, and the Ministry of Social Services and Development undertake programmes affecting women.

Among the NGOs whose focus of organized activities is women's concerns are: The Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines (CAWP), Balikatan sa Kaunlaran (BSK), Trade Union Congress of the Philippines (TUCP) Department of Women, and the Rural Improvement Clubs of the Philippines. Women's cause-oriented groups figured prominently in the February revolution. Among these are the GABRIELA, the Women in Media Now (WOMEN), and the Alliance of Women for Action Towards Reconciliation (AWARE).

The socio-economic indicators describe the actual situation of women in terms of statistical data which reflect the impact of policy and the measures taken to implement them.

A picture of the Philippine situation in the socio-economic fields may be drawn from the publication, *Philippine Socio-Economic Indicators*, released by the NEDA. Official statistics are generated by the National Census and Statistics Office.

The three general categories of indicators discussed above could be useful to other countries in the region. However, in view of differences in political, socio-economic and other factors, indicators used may vary. Developed countries like Japan may utilize indicators not applicable to developing countries, those useful to countries with market economies may not necessarily apply to those with centrally planned economies.

B. Implementation and monitoring at the national level

The CEDAW is the machinery provided for monitoring on the international level the implementation of the Convention by States Parties, for assessing the progress made and obstacles encountered through an examination and discussion of States Parties' reports. Under Article 21 the CEDAW in turn makes an annual report to the General Assembly through the Economic and Social Council, making suggestions and general recommendations on the basis of its examination of States Parties' reports.

This discussion paper on methodology for implementation and monitoring at the national level of the Convention will address the questions of who implements, who monitors, what is to be implemented and monitored, and how these are done, i.e., the methodology of implementation and monitoring.

1. Who implements?

The Convention comprehensively covers the political, economic, social, cultural, and civil life and aims to eliminate discrimination against women both in law and in fact.

In discussing States Parties' reports the CEDAW inquires into whether the Convention has become a part of the positive law of the State and can be directly invoked in the courts. Some parties have enacted legislation making the Convention fully operative as part of the law of the land. Others will have to adopt legislation to carry out their undertakings under various articles of the Convention. The Convention provides that the States Parties "shall take appropriate measures to" or "shall grant" — hence, legislatures will have to adopt measures to carry out these obligations if none have yet been adopted.

But between the letter of enacted laws, be they constitutional, legislative, administrative or whatever, and the actual implementation, a wide gap exists. The CEDAW guidelines having this in mind, recommend that the reports should "include information indicating how these legal instruments are reflected in the actual economic, political and social realities existing in their countries. Data concerning these realities and conditions should also be supplied with a breakdown of statistics on the category of sex."

The implementation of the provisions of the Convention necessarily involves the whole governmental system. The measures adopted or to be adopted will range from the fundamental law or constitution to other positive enactments adopted by national as well as local legislatures and administrative bodies. It will involve the executive arm which carries out legislative measures as well as the judiciary which applies these provisions in actual cases. In the private sector, the NGOs also have an important role in the implementation since not only *de jure* but *de facto* discrimination is covered and a modification of social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women is sought to be achieved.

2. Who monitors?

In the United Nations international conferences on women held in Mexico City, Copenhagen and Nairobi, the national machineries on women's concerns were the focus of much attention. In 1975 the States parties were urged, if they had not already done so, to establish national machineries to carry out the World Plan of Action. This was reiterated in Copenhagen in relation to the World Programme of Action. At the close of the decade in Nairobi, among the resolutions presented were those addressing the need to strengthen the national machineries and establish networking among them, the better to pursue the Forward-looking Strategies until the year 2000.

It will thus fall upon the specially created national machinery, if there be one, or whatever national agency is charged with women's

concerns to monitor the measures adopted to carry out the provisions of the Convention.

3. What is to be implemented and monitored?

Articles 2 to 16 of the Convention contain the obligations which the States Parties undertake to carry out subject to reservations. Article 28, para 2, however, explicitly states that "a reservation incompatible with the object and purpose of the present Convention shall not be permitted."

Most reservations relate to Article 29. This provides that disputes regarding the interpretation or application of the Convention not settled by negotiation or by arbitration may be referred by anyone of the parties to the International Court of Justice.

But an increasing number of reservations have been made on the application of specified substantive provisions. Concern in the CEDAW was raised from the start on whether reservation can be made respecting these. The Convention itself does not specify the procedure for determining the validity of particular reservations. At its session in 1986 the CEDAW agreed to ask for the inclusion of the matter of reservations in the agenda of the third meeting of the States Parties. At this meeting the States Parties decided to request the Secretary General to seek the views of the States Parties on the subject and to include these views in his report to the 41st session of the General Assembly.[7]

Assuming that reservations to the provisions of Articles 2 to 16 can be made, then the States Parties who have made reservations on specified articles would be exempt from implementing them on the national level. A State Party like the Philippines which ratified without reservation would have to implement and monitor compliance with the obligations spelled out in the Convention.

C. Methodology for monitoring

The guidelines of the CEDAW for the reports of States Parties indicate how the implementation of the Convention at the national level and its monitoring can be done.

Where the State Party has adopted a policy for correcting the inequalities which law and social practice have imposed on women, the implementation of the Convention and the monitoring of measures taken can be more easily made.

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[7] Letter from United Nations Vienna Office, SD 3012/8, 30 May 1986.

The State Party may have established a national machinery for the purpose or there may be pre-existing agencies given the task to look after women's concerns.

A model of national mechanism to monitor the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women is presented at Annex I.

The Philippine experience

The Philippine experience on the matter has been that while the agitation for extending to women equal rights with men can be traced to the first decade of the century, it gained momentum in the planning for participation in the first United Nations International Conference for Women in Mexico City in 1975 and continued through the Women's Decade. Joining as a State Party to the Convention has ensured that the policy of eliminating all forms of discrimination against women will be sustained.

The National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW) is the mechanism established in 1975[8] which will undertake the monitoring functions. It has specific authority to monitor compliance by all ministries, offices, agencies, local government, and government-owned and controlled corporations directed by law to:[9]

— take affirmative steps to implement the constitutional, treaty and statutory mandates for the promotion, regardless of sex, of equality in employment, equal pay for work of equal value;

— afford women opportunity to participate in planning, policy and decision making;

— eliminate in government or private enterprises, subject to the offices' jurisdiction or with which these offices deal or transact business, practices which, contrary to provision of the Constitution, laws and international conventions and other agreements entered into by the Philippines, discriminate against women where no reasonable bases for classification on the basis of sex exists.

By the last paragraph the Letter of Instruction reaches out to the private sector under this item.

[8] P.D. No. 633, 6 January 1975.

[9] LOI No. 974, 5 January 1986 supplemented by a Memorandum from the Executive Secretary dated 2 April 1986.

It will be noted that the implementation of treaty obligations like those assumed under this Convention is explicitly mentioned above.

The NCRFW has been authorized to undertake the task of monitoring and assisting in the implementation of the Convention. The steps it has taken so far include an information and education campaign on the Convention, the establishment of an Interagency Committee composed of representatives from various ministries and other agencies[10] and the preparation of the first Philippine report to the CEDAW.

Experience of other Asian countries

The reports made to the CEDAW of three States Parties in the Asian and Pacific region yield valuable information on the implementation and monitoring of the Convention.

The People's Republic of China, Mongolia and Viet Nam cited provisions of their constitution, legislation and other measures taken to eliminate discrimination against women and the machinery in place.

China's first report to the CEDAW stressed the role of the All-China Women's Federation, a mass organization that enjoys strong backing from the government, actively participates in the formulation of the constitution, government policies, decrees and plans and monitors their implementation. Between the winter of 1983 and the spring of 1984 a vigorous nation-wide education programme on the legal protection of the interests of women and children was co-sponsored by relevant government departments, the All-China Women's Federation of Trade Unions and the Communist League. The activities pursued were referred to as showing how serious the People's Republic of China is in implementing the convention.

Two other socialist Asian states describe the activities of women's organizations working closely with government. The Committee of Mongolian Women directs the activities of some 3,000 women's councils throughout the country. Functions worth noting are its participation in the drafting of legislation in favour of mothers, children and women in general and the monitoring of the implementation of that legislation.

[10] The Interagency Committee (IAC) is composed of representatives from the Ministries of Labor, Health, Social Services and Development, Education, Culture and Sports, Agriculture, Land Reform, Local Governments, and Foreign Affairs. The National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA), the Commission on Elections and Commission on Civil Service also sent their representatives.

The Vietnamese Women's Union is an NGO with members representing one third of the female population. It is empowered to submit to the National Assembly draft legislation affecting the status and interest of women.

D. Methodology for measuring compliance

Whatever agency has been set up or assigned by a State Party to monitor compliance with the obligations arising from the Convention will need:

1. To have a thorough knowledge of the actual conditions in the areas covered by the Convention. A situationer on the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or other fields as they relate to women is the starting point in the monitoring function.

    1.1. Existing data on these fields will have to be collated or generated. The establishment of a clearing house or data base on women would be essential.

    1.2. Network among various agencies, public and private.

2. To keep tab on every measure taken whether by government or the NGOs that contribute to the elimination of all forms of discrimination.

3. To make periodic assessment of the progress made.

States Parties which had participated in the United Nations International Conventions in Mexico City in 1975, in Copenhagen in 1980 and in Nairobi in 1985 will have taken each of the above steps. Some, more systematically than others.

The presentation of facts and figures relative to women requires a disaggregation of data on gender basis in the fields of employment, education, labour, political participation, health, among various areas covered by the Convention. A State Party may not have this disaggregation or whatever there is of it may be limited.

This is true of the Philippines. The NCRFW had to make representations with the National Census and Statistics Office requesting separate data on women in more fields than were earlier available. In other instances the NCRFW had to send out teams to do an actual head count, e.g., the women component in the various professions. It has been necessary to get the co-operation of various agencies which have computerized or are in the process of computerizing their operations to make sure that this disaggregation of data on the gender basis was input.

The national mechanism or appropriate state machinery assigned to monitor the Convention could establish a data bank on women. Computerization and networking will make the accumulation and retrieval of data more efficient, not only for monitoring purposes but also for policy makers, scholars, researchers, and others interested in information on women. In this matter, the assistance of appropriate United Nations agencies and other international organizations such as UNESCO, WHO, UNICEF, ESCAP, ILO, among others, may be obtained.

Periodic assessment and evaluation are necessary to determine if progress is being made and to indicate directions to be taken in the implementation of the objectives of the Convention.

E. Monitoring specific provisions

The Convention defines in Article 1 the term "discrimination against women" and states what is comprehended in it. Every State Party condemns this discrimination and has agreed to adopt a policy to eliminate it. The monitoring process is expected to deal with every substantive article, determine what the situation is, what has been done on the matters covered, and the obstacles encountered.

A table indicating indicators of implementation and enforcement is attached as Annex II.

Article 2. Policy to Eliminate Discrimination.

This article reiterates the States Parties' condemnation of discrimination against women in all its forms and categorically states that they agree to pursue by appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating this discrimination. It enumerates the various means through which this end can be achieved, leaving to the States Parties the determination of what is appropriate.

The monitoring agency on the national level will have to obtain specific information on both positive law and actual practice existing in the country.

The CEDAW calls for a citing of specific texts and statistical data regarding their implementation.

The writing of a new constitution may give women the opportunity to come together and press for provisions recognizing their human rights to equality with men in the various fields of human endeavor.

In the Philippines, for example, where a new constitution is being formulated, proposals encapsulating the undertakings of the Philippines as State Party to the Convention have been presented and if adopted will solve the problem of purging from the statute books scattered but interlocking provisions particularly in family law which discriminate against women.

A wall chart indicating women's progress towards equality prepared in 1985 by IPPF. PEOPLE was distributed to participants in both the United Nations Conference and the NGO forum in Nairobi, Kenya. The chart shows in which national constitutions there are provisions on women. The provisions come under the categories of general equal protection provisions, sexual equality provisions, civil, political, economic, social and cultural affairs, marriage and the family and employment. The countries referred to are grouped geographically under Africa, the Americas, Asia and Oceania and Europe.

Examples of specific provisions dealing specially on women are given. The Philippines does not appear on the chart, possibly for one of the reasons the authors gave, namely, that "there is a conflict as to which constitution is legitimate." The 1986 draft constitution if ratified will extend guarantees to women in more specific terms.

Monitoring on the national level will have to tackle the following questions:

1. If this principle of equality does not as yet form part of the constitution or other appropriate legislation, what steps are being taken to incorporate it into the legal system?

2. If the principle of equality is already part of the law, what steps have been or are being taken to translate it to practical reality?

3. On measures of punitive character, what has been done to prohibit discrimination and what sanctions have been provided? The monitoring agency will have to cite both the law and how it works.

4. Are there national tribunals or other public institutions that protect the rights of women on an equal basis with men against acts of discrimination? There may be tribunals but can women avail themselves of them? What are the statistics on this? Records of courts and other agencies will have to be examined for actual cases in which relief was sought, and data on relief obtained. Not many States Parties particularly in the developing world will have sophisticated storage and retrieval facilities on this matter.

5. Has the State Party refrained from any act or practice discriminating against women? Are there instances of non-complinance?

What steps are being taken to ensure that agencies of the States comply?

6. Has the State Party taken appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women by any person, organization, or enterprise? This reaches out to the private sector and would call for even more comprehensive data.

7. Finally, what measures, including legislation have been or are being taken to abolish existing laws, regulations, and practices which constitute discrimination against women including repeal of national general laws?

Article 3. Development and Advancement of Women.

This provision calls for information on steps taken to ensure full development and advancement of women to guarantee their exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedom on the basis of equality with men. The items covered in this general provision may be subsumed in the more specific ones that follow.

Article 4. Special Measures.

Special measures adopted to accelerate *de facto* equality of women with men to alleviate their life and working conditions are permitted under this provision. Here mention should be made of development plans which include measures intended to stimulate women's participation in developing efforts. Some States Parties like Bangladesh and Egypt, for example, reserve a quota for women in elective or appointive public offices. In the Philippines the Constitutional Commission's proposal on sectoral representation in the lower house of the legislature mentions women as one of the sectors.

The various measures aimed at protecting maternity will also be considered in monitoring the rights of working women. The monitoring process should include data on the kind, duration, extent of benefits provided and the number of beneficiaries. Some States Parties extend a corresponding paternity benefit. Facts and figures will also be needed, if the benefit has been provided.

Article 5(a). Modification of Social and Cultural Patterns of Conduct.

Discrimination brought about by positive law may be expunged by the stroke of a pen but social and cultural patterns of conduct and attitudes of a discriminatory character are harder and take longer to change, but the Convention addresses these too. States Parties undertake to adopt all appropriate measures to modify attitudes and

practices based on the idea of inferiority or superiority of either sex.

Since education is basic in the process of attitudinal change, monitoring on the national level will have to identify attitudes of a discriminatory character and determine what steps have been adopted through education to modify or eliminate them.

In the Philippines for example, research on attitudes, an experiment on the integration of sex-role concepts in school syllabi to determine their effects on student values and attitudes, and a study on TV commercials portraying women, have been undertaken. These are intended to influence policy makers and to awaken public awareness on the subject of inquiry and the findings of the studies.[11]

Education is basic to any attempt at change. Instructional materials in use in schools at different levels may impart ideas on stereotyping and prepared materials depicting a positive approach to counteract the stereotyping of men/women roles and ideas of superiority or inferiority at all levels of the school system.

Article 5(b). Maternity as Social Function.

Constitutional and legislative provisions relating to the family particularly on a proper understanding of maternity as a social function and a recognition of the common responsibility of men and women in the upbringing of children may have already been adopted. How they are implemented will be important areas in the monitoring process.

The national agency charged with the monitoring function will have to put on record the steps being taken.

In the Philippines the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports includes programmes on the dissemination of information on responsible parenthood, homemaking and management, family planning and population development.

The Ministry of Social Services and Development conducts family enrichment services which embraces effective parent service, family counselling therapy, family planning counselling service, population awareness, sex education, and pre-marital counselling.

The Constitutional Commission proposes to expand previous constitutional provisions on the family and the joint responsibility

[11] The NCRFW commissioned, co-sponsored, or itself undertook the studies.

of parents in the upbringing of children by incorporating a separate and detailed article on the family.

Article 6. Prostitution.

Traffic in women and exploitation of prostitution are age old problems which States Parties barring none take measures to eliminate. These are social problems whose roots can usually be traced to poverty.

On the national level States Parties' policies on prostitution itself may vary. In some penal sanctions are imposed on prostitutes as well as those who exploit them. Other States Parties approach prostitution as a social problem for which measures to rehabilitate prostitutes have been adopted. There are States Parties who report having eliminated prostitution.

The methodology for monitoring will need to be based on the magnitude of the problem and the steps taken to eliminate it. Statistical data, again are necessary. In this area the NGO inputs are particularly important.[12]

Article 7. Participation in Political and Public Life.

The methodology for monitoring the progress of women's participation in political and public life involves not only determining whether having the right to vote, they exercise it but also an inquiry into their participation in policy and decision making.

Hard data will have to be continually obtained and updated to show the percentage of women in the country's electorate, their turn-out during elections, plebiscites or referenda as compared to the men, the percentage of women in elective or appointive positions, the level of such positions in the hierarchy, the role of NGOs, among other things.

The Philippines for example extended suffrage to women in the 1930s, but while their turn-out percentage in elections usually was higher than that of men, the number of women elected was small, almost token. However, Filipino women have achieved positions of responsibility and influence and more so lately with women

[12] An NGO with the acronym STOP which stands for Stop Trafficking in Pilipinos composed of two government agencies and 15 NGOs has launched an intensive campaign against prostitution. Its networking activities reach 8 provincial chapters and NGOs in foreign countries. Recently it pushed through the adoption of a Metro Manila ordinance penalizing prostitution and sexual exploitation of minors. It also appeared in hearings on proposed bills presented on the subject in the defunct legislature.

holding the positions of President of the Republic, President of the Constitutional Commission, Chairperson of the Civil Service Commission (a constitutional body), cabinet ministers, members of the judiciary from the Supreme to the lowest court, presidents of universities, etc.

Article 8. Representation at the International Level.

Women's participation equal terms with men at the international level would be relatively easy to monitor. The number of women in diplomatic or foreign service, their rank and assignments are readily available.

Participation in international conferences is easily documented.

The Philippine experience reveals that an increasing number of women have achieved the rank of ambassador and been posted in key assignments. They have also headed or been members of government delegations.

Article 9. Nationality.

Laws governing nationality have not infrequently placed married women in a position subordinate to that of men. The monitoring of the implementation of this provision of the Convention would require an inquiry into the effects of marriage on the nationality of married women as well as the nationality of their children.

The States Parties' constitutional and statutory provisions on this matter will have to be the starting point of the monitoring process. The developments that have taken place to remove the discriminatory provisions on women will have to be traced.

In the Philippines for example, the constraints imposed on women marrying aliens have been removed, but it has taken time. The last aspect of discrimination on such women and their children will, with the adoption of the proposed constitution be completely removed.

Article 10. Education.

In monitoring the progress a State Party has achieved in the education of its women, basic data must begin with literacy rates. In most, if not all, countries the percentage of illiteracy among women is higher compared to men. What positive steps are being taken to eliminate illiteracy? Is education compulsory? Is it free? Up to what level?

The Philippines has by constitutional provisions provided for a complete and adequate system of education, free at the elementary school level and where funds permit up to the secondary level. Access to education is open regardless of gender.

The Constitutional Commission now drafting a new constitution proposes free education up to the secondary level and compulsory elementary education. It also proposes that in the budgetary allocation of funds priority should be given to education.

According to the 1980 statistics the literacy rates in the Philippines were 83.9 per cent for men and 82.8 per cent for women. But female students outnumber the males in tertiary education. In elementary and secondary schools, female teachers outnumber the males. In the tertiary level a high percentage of the teaching force are female.[13]

In monitoring women's progress in education, the following are relevant inquiries:

1. Is there equal access to education for women at all levels, in rural and urban areas?

2. What provision is there for pre-school children? Are nursery schools or day-care facilities available? What are the statistics on this?

3. Are career and vocational guidance open to both women and men? Is there any evidence of stereotyping?

4. Are curricula, types of examination, teaching staff, qualifications, equipment and other facilities equally available to men and women students?

5. Are scholarships and other study grants given on the same basis to women as they are to men?

6. Are there opportunities for continuing education, adult and literacy programmes to reduce the educational gaps between men and women?

7. What is the comparative drop-out rate between female and male students? What steps are being taken to ensure education and training of those who leave school prematurely?

[13] An example is the University of the Philippines faculty. As of 1984-1985 of 2752 full-time faculty members 55.3% were female.

8. Are women given equal opportunities to participate in sports or physical education?

9. Do women have access to information on health, family care including family planning?

These items call for statistical information. Some States Parties have computerized their data on these matters. Others may have some data in place, still others may have to start a systematic data gathering and retrieval process.

It is in this area that developing countries need assistance from agencies of the United Nations and other funding organizations.

For reporting to the CEDAW States Parties are expected to have the information available. But even more important to the States Parties are the means required for effective monitoring of progress achieved in eliminating discrimination against women, if it still exists in the field of education.

Strategies adopted in the area of non-formal and informal education, in distance learning as well as various innovative schemes at achieving functional literacy are vital factors in the implementation of the Convention and in the monitoring of progress achieved on the national level.

Article 11. Employment.

The situation of working women is a matter of special concern under the Convention. The reports of States Parties to the Convention reveal that among industrialized market economies significant progress has been achieved towards attaining equality for women in employment, although there still remain some problems. The States Parties with centrally planned economies report even greater strides towards equality for women.

In developing countries discrimination against women in the field of employment exist in law and in practice. Constitutions and statutes may provide specifically for equal rights for employment, assure equal pay for work of equal value and the enjoyment of equal rights and benefits of men and women. But economic conditions may be such that in actual fact the larger percentage of unemployed, unpaid or underpaid workers are women.

The three main paragraphs of Article 11 and their subdivisions cover the extent of States Parties' undertakings under the Convention to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment. They include provisions on the right to work as an

inalienable right; the right to the same employment opportunities; free choice of profession or employment, right to promotion, job security, training; equal remuneration for work of equal value; to social security in case of retirement, unemployment, sickness, old age, etc., to protection of health and safety measures in the work-place.

Special provisions are made to prevent discrimination against women on the grounds of marriage or maternity.

States Parties undertake to prohibit, subject to imposition of sanctions, dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy, maternity leave, or marital status.

In monitoring compliance with these provisions on the national level, it will be necessary to determine what measures have been adopted to implement these provisions. Where maternity leaves with pay are provided, how much and for how long are these available?

Has there been established a network of child-care facilities? What protection is provided women during pregnancy as to types of work which may be harmful to them? How do the measures taken operate in fact? The monitoring of implementation of these provisions on the national level has to be assessed both quantitatively and qualitatively on the basis of data available.

Besides taking steps in the areas covered by the provision, the States Parties undertake to review periodically protective legislations relating to these matters.

Ministries of labour and employment may have sections/divisions charged with protection and promotion of the welfare of women. Such offices are expected to maintain records of measures taken, services rendered and benefits extended.

Statistics on women's participation in national productivity do not completely include their contribution to development. There are studies going on to determine how women's contribution as unpaid workers can be captured and included in the statistics on GNP.

On the Philippine scene, an increasing number of women have sought overseas employment. This began with nurses and the medically trained exercising their professions abroad. The later development of women going into domestic service in foreign countries has been the result of a severe economic set back suffered by the country. Are there steps taken to protect the interests of these women? Monitoring of the operation of the Convention will have to reflect this.

Women's entry in non-traditional fields can be shown by the areas they have entered and their participation in training programs like automotive mechanics, appliance repair/production operation, carpentry/construction, etc. Reports of the Philippine National Manpower and Youth Council (NMYC) indicate the non-traditional fields women have started to enter.

Article 12. Health Care.

Steps taken in the field of health care and family planning may take the form of constitutional provisions guaranteeing health services and family planning as well as legislation to implement them. The text of these measures are the fundamental public policies the implementation of which is placed in the hands of appropriate ministries. In the Philippines the Ministries of Health, of Social Services and Development, and Education, Culture and Sports and the lead ministries. The National Development Plans indicate the thrusts at particular periods. How these measures are carried out can be shown by statistical data on activities pursued, the people served, the results produced, e.g. birth, mortality and morbidity rates, the population growth. Equally important are the state of nutrition especially of children and corollary to this, the pregnancy and lactation-related services and beneficiaries.

Article 13. Other Areas of Economic and Social Life.

The implementation of the provisions of this article relating to areas of economic and social life of women vary among States Parties. Do women enjoy family benefits, if so what kind? What is their participation in economic life? Do they have access to bank loans, mortgages or other forms of credit?

Do women have equal access to recreational, sports and other cultural activities? If not, why not? If there are no obstacles to their participation, do they fully avail themselves of these? Types of participation and data to illustrate would be useful information.

Article 14. Rural Women.

Since at least 60 per cent of the population usually are in the rural areas, rural women are a subject of much concern under the Convention. Their work in the non-monetized sectors has not entered into the statistics gathered to record productivity. Transfer of technology in agriculture has not generally benefited them.

In monitoring implementation of the Convention, the measures affecting rural women, e.g., as participants and beneficiaries of development programmes, information, services and counselling on family planning; provisions on social security, if any; training and education particularly to increase their technical efficiency; opportunity for employment, participation in community activities, extending loan and other financial facilities, housing, sanitation, electricity, water supply, transport and communication should be inquired into and reported to record progress achieved in the implementation of the Convention.

For developing countries these are undertakings under the Convention which will take time and resources to implement. What measures have been adopted? Has there been any perceived improvement introduced in the life of rural women? Has their burden been lightened by the introduction of water and power supply?

Land reform, development plans, legislative enactments directed at the rural areas can be cited as part of the implementation of Convention provisions, so are outreach programmes adopted by both governmental and NGOs. Texts of measures adopted serve to indicate the direction of policy implementation.

Article 15. Equality before the Law.

Equality legally ordained, even by the constitution as supreme law, does not automatically erase all forms of discrimination against women. But repealing or amending discriminatory provisions of law is a necessary beginning.

Some States Parties have already adopted measures constitutional and legislative, to ensure equal rights of men and women before the law. Others have yet to do so, but in monitoring progress every corrective measure and its implementation are forward steps to the desired goal.

The method adopted to accord equality of men and women before the law may be through a comprehensive constitutional provision that will erase existing discriminatory statutes, or it could be by piecemeal amendment or repeal of those statutes.

The monitoring of compliance with Article 15 in the matter of legal capacity in civil matters, in entering into contracts, and in the right of movement or choice of domicile, the text of the amending or repealing laws should be furnished. But this will not suffice to establish that women have achieved equality in these matters. It will have to be shown how the law operates in fact.

Article 16. Marriage and Family.

It is in the field of family law where many discriminatory provisions relating to women still remain. The age at which a woman can legally marry may be set lower than that of men; the right of a married woman to act may be subject to limitations not imposed on the husband; some restrictive provisions of law may be imposed on unmarried women as well. In the exercise of parental authority or the choosing of family residence the law may give the final decision to the husband. The husband may also exercise superior right over the administration, management or disposition of property.

In monitoring progress in the areas included in this article, not only should the relevant laws be given, but any amendment introduced should be included. There may be instances when the law imposing restrictions on women, e.g., those on dowry, allowing betrothal or marriage of a child may have been repealed, but tradition and practice may survive the legal change. The monitoring of compliance with the Convention will have to make reference to this and include statistical data where available.

Obstacles to Implementation and Enforcement

The CEDAW convention comprehensively covers areas of discrimination against women. States Parties undertake to eliminate all forms of discrimination, but the convention does not impose on them the obligation to do this all at once and in all areas.

Problems of implementation and enforcement may be caused by an obstacle encountered by developing countries, namely, lack of material resources. States Parties developed or developing still face deep-rooted traditions and persistent attitudes regarding the subordinate status of women as obstacles.

F. CEDAW Convention and other major conventions on women

Some States Parties may have ratified or acceded to earlier conventions covering various articles of the CEDAW convention. But while many provisions of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women may already be found in earlier conventions, some CEDAW convention provisions are more specific and go further to illustrate:

1. Article 7 on political or public rights reiterates the principle that women have the same political rights as men to vote and be voted for in elections and to participate in referenda as provided in the Convention of the Political Rights of Women as well as in Article 27

of the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. But it (Art. 7) goes further to ensure the "Right to participate in the formulation of government policy and the implementation thereof." The CEDAW convention in Art. 14, para. 2(a) provides that women in rural areas shall be ensured the right "to participate in the elaboration and implementation of development planning at all levels."

2. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights provides that "everyone has the right to a nationality." The 1957 Convention on the Nationality of Married Women provides that neither marriage nor its dissolution nor the change of nationality of the husband should automatically change that of the wife. The CEDAW convention gives men and women equal rights to acquire, change or retain their nationality. It also makes specific provision on the nationality of children in relation to the mother.

3. Article 16 on matters pertaining to marriage and family relations repeats provisions of the 1962 Convention on the Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriage. But it incorporates in para. (d) a provision on single parents and (e) on family planning. It covers provisions of Article 23 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.

Even where the CEDAW convention merely repeats provisions of conventions to which a state may already be a party, the reiteration places emphasis on the rights provided and may thus reinforce them.

G. Conclusion

This paper on the Methodology for Implementation and Monitoring of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women has been prepared for the Regional Seminar on the Development of a Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific.

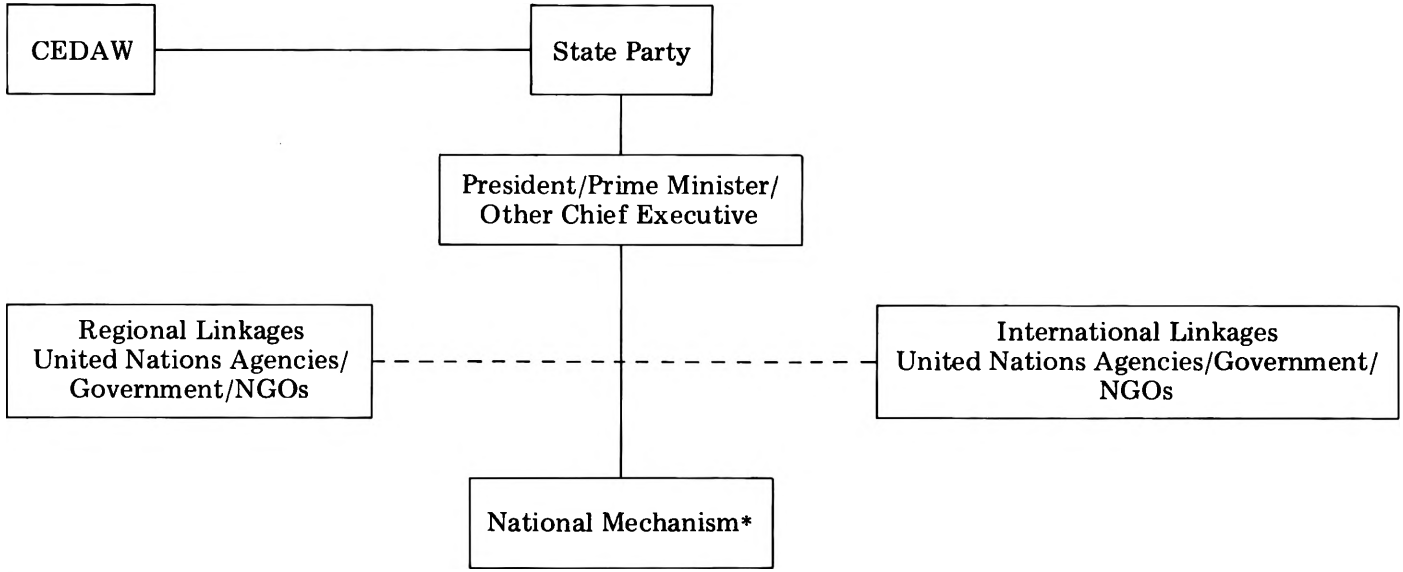
The CEDAW in performing its assigned functions under Article 17 of the Convention, has in a way established a clearing house on women with inputs from States Parties. States Parties' reports present not only the text of constitutional and statutory provisions but also statistics on the various items covered by the Convention. The reports follow CEDAW guidelines. The presentation of reports, the comments on them, the questions raised and replies made, reflected in the minutes of the CEDAW sessions, form a reservoir of information on women. Should it be fully computerized and made available generally, it would serve a most useful purpose.

The documentation placed in the hands of the 23 CEDAW members could be the beginning of a network in various geographic areas, political and economic systems and stages of development among countries from which the CEDAW members are drawn. However, except for the annual report of the CEDAW to the General Assembly, the information is of limited circulation (for members only). Furthermore, the composition of the CEDAW also changes after the biennial elections.

This seminar organized by ESCAP for the Asian-Pacific region will contribute significantly to the establishment of the women's information network system envisioned, particularly as it relates to the Convention.

Annex I.

MODEL OF NATIONAL MECHANISM TO MONITOR THE CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN



*1. Collegial, but not more than 15 members.
2. Drawn from government and the private sector.
3. Adequate power to monitor and to redress, directly or by referral.

Annex II

INDICATORS OF IMPLEMENTATION AND ENFORCEMENT OF THE CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

PROVISIONS OF CONVENTION	INDICATORS	
	IMPLEMENTATION	ENFORCEMENT
PART I (GENERAL)		
Art. 1. Discrimination defined.	Art. 1. Guide to states parties.	Art. 1. Refer to indicators under subsequent articles.
Art. 2. Policy of eliminating discrimination against women.	Art. 2.	Art. 2.
(a) Principle of equality.	(a) & (b) Constitutional/legislative/administrative provisions; ratification or accession to international conventions.	(a) & (b) Specific cases invoking the constitutional, legislative and administrative provisions. Cite where available.
(b) Prohibition of discrimination/sanctions.		
(c) Legal protection through tribunals/other institutions.	(c) Tribunals with jurisdiction over cases of discrimination; other machinery.	(c) Application of measures by courts and tribunals in cases brought; grievance machinery to assist women citing statistics and other data.
(d) Refrain from discriminatory acts.	(d) No positive action required for implementation.	(d) Penal sanctions against discriminatory acts.
(e) Positive measures to eliminate discrimination by NGOs.	(e) Legislative or administrative measures directed against discriminatory acts of the private sector.	(e) Monitoring of private sector's discriminatory practices by withholding licenses or other government privileges from violators; other sanctions. Supporting data.
(f) Modify, abolish discriminatory laws, regulations and customs.	(f) Constitution or legislation.	(f) Cite provisions repealed or modified.
(g) Repeal national penal provisions discriminatory to women.	(g) Legislation.	(g) Cite penal laws repealed.
Art. 3. Full development and advancement of women — Statement of general policy.	Art. 3. Positive measures including legislation in the political, social, economic and cultural field.	Art. 3. Enforcement indicators can best be shown under relevant articles that follow.
Art. 4. Accelerating de facto equality.	Art. 4. Constitution, legislation or administrative measures.	Art. 4. Special measures for women e.g. quota in elective/appointive positions in government; line up of party list; admission to educational institutions. Number and percentage of women beneficiaries.
Art. 5. Elimination of stereo-typing of roles.	Art. 5.	Art. 5.
(a) Eliminating prejudices and customary practices based on idea of inferiority or superiority of either sex.	(a) 1. Measure adopted by government aimed at modifying attitudes — through education. 2. NGO activities towards same end.	(a) 1. Women in media. 2. Changes perceived in attitudes, if any, through observation, surveys. 3. Participation in NGO activities: Number of beneficiaries.
(b) Family education on maternity as a social function; common responsibility of men and women in upbringing of children (children's interest paramount).	(b) Constitutional, legislative or administrative measures.	(b) Number of family counselling agencies; juvenile and domestic relations courts or counselling organizations maintained by NGOs. Statistics on clientele.
Art. 6. Suppression of traffic in women and exploitation of prostitution.	Art. 6. Legislation/administrative measures; penal sanctions; ratification or accession to international conventions.	Art. 6. 1. Institutions maintained by public and private sector for rehabilitation. 2. Data on beneficiaries. 3. Statistics on arrest, prosecution and conviction for offenses penalized.
PART II		
Art. 7. Equal rights with men in political and public life.	Art. 7. Constitution, legislation, administrative measures; international conventions. NGOs activities.	Art. 7.
(a) To vote in elections and referenda and to stand for election in all publicly elected bodies.		(a) Percentage of women voters and their turn-out in elections/referenda, compared to men.
(b) To hold public office; participated in government policy formulation and implementation.		(b) Number of women elected to public office at various levels of government holding policy-making governmental positions, compared to men.

Annex II. *Continued*

PROVISIONS OF CONVENTION	INDICATORS	
	IMPLEMENTATION	ENFORCEMENT
(c) Participate in NGO organizations concerned with public and political rights.		(c) Data of women membership in political parties; inclusion in party list; women's NGOs concerned with political or public affairs. Number of NGO, their activities and membership.
Art. 8. Women as government representatives in international conferences. Work in international organizations.	Art. 8. Legislation/administrative practice; international conventions.	Art. 8. 1. Number, position and posting of women in foreign service. Comparative male/female data. 2. Data on women as head/member of government delegations to international conferences. 3. Statistics on women working in international organizations. NOTE: For those in the United Nations and its various organizations and agencies United Nations data may be available. Total number and percentage of women employees, age and nationality.
Art. 9. Nationality. Equal rights with men to acquire, change or retain nationality.	Art. 9. Constitution or legislation; international convention.	Art. 9.
(a) Effect of marriage to man of another nationality.		(a) Woman retains nationality and continues to exercise political, civil and other rights pertaining thereto after marriage to alien.
(b) Effect of husband's change of nationality.		(b) Woman retains nationality despite husband's acquisition of another nationality.
(c) Right of women to change nationality.		(c) Women on their own acquire or change nationality.
(d) Nationality of children.		(d) Children acquire mother's nationality.
PART III		
Art. 10. Education. Eliminate discrimination and ensure on a basis of equality of men and women.	Art. 10. Constitution, legislation, administrative measures; international convention.	Art. 10.
(a) Access to schools at all levels/types in rural and urban areas.		(a) Literacy rate, number and percentage; age and sex; urban and rural. Average years of education completed: sex; rural and urban. Enrolment rate at all levels, preschool, primary, secondary, vocational, technical, tertiary; age, urban and rural.
(b) Access to same curricula, examinations, teaching staff, facilities.		(b) Co-education — availability and extent; if not co-educational, comparable facilities.
(c) Elimination of stereotyped concept of roles by revision of textbooks, school programmes, teaching methods.		(c) Revision of instructional materials and programmes to eliminate stereotyping.
(d) Opportunities for scholarship and other study grants.		(d) Scholarship and other study grantees: sex, school level, urban or rural.
(e) Continuing education for adult and functional literacy programme.		(e) Continuing education, adult education and functional literacy: sex, number and percentage, urban or rural.
(f) Reducing female drop-outs; programmes for drop-outs.		(f) Programmes of non-formal and informal education for drop-outs, total number and percentage, urban or rural.
(g) Opportunities for sports and physical education.		(g) Sports and physical education facilities: availability, participation, sex and age, urban and rural, and in competitions: local, national, regional, international.
(h) Access to educational information including health and well-being and family planning.		(h) Programmes for health/family planning education, participation; sex and age, urban or rural.

Annex II. *Continued*

PROVISIONS OF CONVENTION	INDICATORS	
	IMPLEMENTATION	ENFORCEMENT
Art. 11. Employment.	Art. 11.	Art. 11.
1. Elimination of discrimination against women to ensure on the basis of equality with men.	1. Constitution, legislation, administrative measures, court decisions, ILO conventions.	1.
(a) Right to work.		(a) 1. Labour force participation: number and percentage, sex and age, urban and rural.
		2. Employment rate: number and percentage, sex and age, urban and rural.
		3. Underemployment rate: sex and age, urban and rural.
(b) Right to free choice of profession or employment.		(b) 1. Distribution of employment, type of industry: sex and age, urban and rural.
		2. Overseas employment.
		3. Professions: number and percentage, sex and age.
(c) Right to promotion, job security, benefits and condition of service.		(c) Compensation (legislated minimum wage, if any), comparative rates, sex and age, urban and rural.
(d) Right to training, retraining, apprenticeship.		(d) 1. Training, retraining and apprenticeship programmes — areas covered, beneficiaries: sex and age, urban and rural.
		2. Number of graduates.
(e) Right to social security (retirement, unemployment, inability, old age, other incapacity).		(e) Coverage of social security and similar benefits: number and percentage, sex and age, urban and rural.
(f) Right to protection of health and safety measures including safeguarding function of reproduction.		(f) 1. Labour cases handled, settled and disposed — number and percentage affecting women.
		2. Injury — frequency rate — number and percentage affecting women.
2. Pregnancy, maternity and marital status.	2. Constitution, legislation, and administrative measures.	2.
(a) Prohibition subject to sanctions, dismissal on ground of pregnancy, maternity leave or discrimination based on marital status.		(a) Mechanisms or redress procedures to protect against discrimination based on pregnancy, maternity or maternal status — number of cases, handled, disposed and settled.
(b) Maternity leave with pay on compensable social benefits without loss of employment, seniority or social allowance.		(b) Maternity leave or other benefits — coverage, amount and duration, consequence to employment status; programmes for re-entry training where woman leaves the work force for maternity reason.
(c) Supporting social services, in particular network of child-care facilities.		(c) Number and scope of child-care facilities. Number of beneficiaries.
Art. 12. Health care and nutrition.	Art. 12. Constitution, legislation and administrative measures.	Art. 12.
1. Eliminate discrimination against women in the field of health care including family.		1. Health services:
		(a) Number of medical doctors, nurses and other health personnel in relation to population.
		(b) Average life expectancy: male and female.
		(c) Mortality: i. crude death rates: male and female, urban and rural. ii. maternal and infant mortality rates, urban and rural.
		(d) Morbidity — major causes of death.
		(e) Delivery of services — percentage of public budget for health, number and distribution of hospitals, health centres, maternal and child clinics, urban and rural.
		(f) Coverage of immunization programme — urban and rural.

Annex II. *Continued*

PROVISIONS OF CONVENTION	INDICATORS	
	IMPLEMENTATION	ENFORCEMENT
		(g) Coverage of medicare programme: sex and age, urban and rural.
2. Appropriate services in connection with pregnancy, confinement, post-natal care nutrition.		2. Nutrition — Malnutrition (percentage) per capita (calory supply per day), feeding programmes, researches on and educational campaign on nutrition.
Art. 13. Other areas of economic and social life.	Art. 13. Legislation, administrative measures. Private facilities. NGO initiative.	
Measures to eliminate discrimination in		
(a) Right of family benefits.		(a) Benefits/assistance to women as single parent.
(b) Financial credit.		(b) Credit available to women without security or if married without husbands' intervention; data on loans received, amount, period, interest; membership in co-operatives.
(c) Recreational activities, sports and cultural life.		(c) Facilities and opportunities open to women in sports, recreation and other forms of cultural life. Participation in sports competitions — local, regional or international.
Art. 14. Rural women.	Art. 14. Legislation, administrative measures. NGOs activities.	Art. 14.
1. Application of provisions of Convention to women in rural area.		1. Programmes in operation in rural areas in the field of education, health, political participation, etc.
2. Participation and benefits in rural development.		2.
(a) Participate in elaboration and implementation of plans.		(a) Number and percentage of participation in planning and implementation: sex and age.
(b) Access to adequate health facilities.		(b) Extension services for women in the rural areas undertaken by various bureaus of government in the field of education and training, employment, etc.
(c) Social security programmes.		(c) Social security programmes, coverage, number of women beneficiaries.
(d) Training and education, formal or non-formal including functional literacy; benefit from community and extension services.		(d) Functional literacy, adult education and income generating projects. Number and type, government or NGO.
(e) Organize self-help groups and co-operative.		(e) Co-operative and other movement and NGOs of rural women.
(f) Community services.		(f) Community services, rural health services, NGO projects, sports, recreation and other facilities for women's participation.
PART IV		
Art. 15. Women and the law.	Art. 15. Constitution, legislation, judicial decisions, administrative measures, international convention.	Art. 15.
1. Equality of men and women before the law.		1. Statement of general principles.
2. Legal capacity of women identical with that of men particularly to enter into contracts, administer property, and to equal treatment in all legal proceedings.		2. That there are no limitations on the capacity to act imposed on women not applicable to men.
3. Nullification of contracts or private instruments directed at restricting legal capacity.		3. Contracts or other private instruments restricting women's legal capacity not legally enforced.
4. According to women same rights as men regarding law on movement of persons, choice of residence and domicile.		4. Number of women who travel, choose residence or domicile.

Annex II. *Continued*

PROVISIONS OF CONVENTION	INDICATORS	
	IMPLEMENTATION	ENFORCEMENT
Art. 16. Marriage and family.	Art. 16. Constitution, legislation and international conventions.	Art. 16.
1. Eliminate discrimination and ensure on the basis of equality with men relative to the		1. Repeal or amendment of laws on marriage discriminatory against women.
(a) Right to enter into marriage.		(a) & (b) In practice — do women have freedom to marry spouse of their choice?
(b) Freedom to choose spouse; free and full consent.		
(c) Rights and responsibilities during marriage and after dissolution.		(c) Machinery for implementation of equal rights and obligations during marriage and after its dissolution. Illustrative cases.
(d) Rights and responsibilities of parents irrespective of marital status; interest of children predominant.		(d) Women as single parents invoke their rights and responsibilities.
(e) Family planning.		(e) Availability to women of information and means of contraception or other family planning methods. Number of acceptors, rate of population growth.
(f) Guardianship, wardship, trusteeship and adoption of children, latter's interest being predominant.		(f) Data on award of custody of children to women under arrangement mentioned in the article. Age and number.
(g) Choice of family name, profession, occupation.		(g) Number of women who choose family name. Number and percentage of women in various professions and occupations.
(h) Property rights.		(h) Data on property holdings of women.
1. Prohibition against child betrothal and marriages, minimum age of marriage, compulsory registration of marriage.		2. Minimum age for marriage; number of marriages performed and registered.
PROCEDURAL ASPECTS		
PART V		
Art. 17. Creation of CEDAW. Election and term of members. Filling of vacancies.	Art. 17. Convention, legislative and administrative measures.	Art. 17. Participation in states parties' meetings. Nomination and election of CEDAW members.
Art. 18. Reports.	Art. 18. Convention, legislative and administrative measures.	Art. 18. Timely submission of reports. coverage, supporting data.
Art. 21. CEDAW report and suggestions.	Art. 21. General Assembly action on general recommendations.	Art. 21. States parties' comment/action.
PART VI		
Art. 23. Effect on existing legislation on convention more conducive to equality.		Art. 23. Existing legislation and convention provisions maintained.
Art. 24. Adopt all necessary measures at national level to achieve realization of rights under Convention.	Art. 24. Legislation, administrative measures.	Art. 24. See previous articles.

IV. MEASURES TO IMPROVE INFORMATION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN DIFFERENT SOCIO-ECONOMIC SITUATIONS: AN ASIAN-PACIFIC PERSPECTIVE*

(Document No. SD/RWINS/1 and add. 1)

INTRODUCTION

This paper focusses on practical measures for improving information on the status of women in different socio-economic situations. It recognizes that resources are likely to remain limited and is based on the premise that it better to achieve modest goals than to strive after unattainable ideals. With this perspective, considerable emphasis is placed upon making increased (and more imaginative) use of data which are already available or can readily be made available with a minor additional allocation of time and money. Sometimes it is a good tactic to place all of one's demands on the table at the start. However, in this instance more is likely to be achieved by a more gradual approach which converts everyone concerned to the practical utility of having such data because they have seen it in use.

There are also very good technical arguments in favour of an incremental approach. One of the major obstacles to changes in statistical data collection systems is the fear of losing comparability with earlier data series. An incremental approach, which takes earlier questions and data and then adds to them, maintains comparability and allows the development of new and more informative approaches. It is especially important that with data on women we do maintain the possibility of comparisons with earlier periods. Often there is a general belief that very rapid changes in the situation of women are underway — but it is only possible to check the validity of this belief if we preserve some comparability with data from the past, however imperfect they may have been. It is also true that improvements in the data for women will inevitably entail improvements in the data for men. To take but one example, data on the labour force participation of women are exceptionally poor,

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but improvements in such data will necessarily entail improved reporting on the informal work patterns of men and women alike.

The paper also stresses the collection of data which will be of immediate practical use — especially in development planning and in enabling women to lay an effective claim to equal rights of participation in society. In a world of limited resources available for women's concerns, data which do not have a practical use are a luxury. Again, to take an example, the collection of time use data has a fascination of its own. It is very easy to get carried away collecting information on the hours which women spend in productive tasks and the very limited time available to them for any form of leisure or additional activity. Yet, the uses to which such data will be put should strongly influence the questions which are asked and the ways in which the data are analyzed. If one use is to be to examine the economic returns to the provision of readily accessible sources of drinking water then it is clearly necessary that the data should distinguish between time spent collecting water and that spent collecting fuel. Similarly, if the time budget data are to be used as background to an investigation of possible new income generating activities, then it is important that the data should be analyzed in such a way as to suggest areas where women's existing tasks can be reduced, for example by the introduction of mechanical grain grinders. In order to avoid the need for a whole series of time budget studies, each directed to different policy goals, it is very important that the planning for any time budget study should take into account the range of possible uses of the data and endeavour to provide for as many major uses as possible. Hence the importance of having persons with practical experience of development planning on the committees which are involved in designing the surveys.

A. Using existing data

This paper places considerable emphasis upon the better utilization of existing data. There are a number of reasons for this: (1) this is a very cost effective approach where considerable advances can be achieved with minimal resources; (2) many of those who have written of the gaps or deficiencies in existing data on women have tended to overstate their case, perhaps because they do not fully appreciate the uses to which the data already at hand can be put; (3) the best way of finding out where the needs for additional data are is through the analysis of existing data. There is a wide range of published studies which take the available data on women and show how they can be put to use — some are more specialized than others — but all open up new paths for analysis (Boserup 1970: Boulding 1976; Data Use and Access Laboratories 1981; Dixon 1982; Jahan 1983; Mason 1984; Retherford 1975; Sivard 1984;

US Bureau of the Census 1980; Von Buchwald and Palmer 1978; Ware 1981).

The paper also concentrates on numerical data which can be used to quantify the qualitative aspects of women's lives. Although in-depth studies of individual women's lives do have a vital role to play in pointing up the issues, they always leave unanswered the question as to how representative their situations are of women in general or of women in particular categories. Similarly, anthropological studies are important in showing the cultural norms of society but numerical data are needed to show how far these norms are actually observed. Therefore the concentration on information which can be obtained in censuses and household surveys. Table 1

Table 1. Data needs and sources

Data needed on:	Sources		
	Census	Household	Other
Women's legal rights	Nil	Maybe**	Land registers, divorce statistics, criminal statistics, etc.
Women's education	Good	Good	Educational institutions own statistics.
Women's health	Nil	Fair	Health institution statistics, death registrations, special studies e.g. nutrition.
Women in the media	Nil*	No	Figures obtained from the media.
Women in politics	Nil*	Grass roots level	Figures obtained from political institutions, unions, the parties, etc.
Women's economic activities	Poor	Can be good	Unemployment registration special surveys employer data, etc.
Women's incomes	Nil or poor	Fair	Income tax data, and wage data.
Women in the family	Some	Superficial	Fertility surveys.

* Unless the occupational data are detailed enough to pick them up.

** For example by collecting data on land holdings and inheritance patterns

shows some basic data needs and the most effective source of information: census, household surveys, or other resources. It should always be remembered that one option may be to collect the data from a central source, such as educational data from the government department concerned or data on politicians from the legislative body.

B. Data on women in different socio-economic situations

Many formal data gathering procedures favour the depiction of the situation of those who already hold privileged situations in life. Thus, for example, data on those with secondary education or beyond are almost invariably better than the data on the primary educated which, in turn, are better than the data on those who have no formal education. Given that women are, on average, less well educated than men, this will also serve to disadvantage women. There are a whole range of reasons for the correlation between the level of education and the quality of data. Some would be that educated people find it easier to communicate with educated interviewers; that they know more exact facts about themselves (such as date of birth) and are more accustomed to presenting a logical account of their lives in response to questioning; that they are more likely to speak the national language of the survey rather than just a localized language or dialect. It should be noted that for each of these factors women are likely to be at a disadvantage relative to men not only because of their lesser education but additionally because of their situation in society. Thus even amongst the illiterate, men are more likely to be fluent speakers of a lingua franca and to be familiar with the idea of an official form than are women.

In order to improve the information available on the status of women in different socio-economic situations it is important to make a special effort to redress the balance in favour of disadvantaged groups. The most obvious example of this would be to focus on rural rather than urban populations. If 90 per cent of the population live in rural areas a common assumption is that special efforts must be made to weigh the sample etc. so as to ensure an adequate representation of the urban population. An alternative approach would be to have a survey restricted to the rural areas, possibly with a small, separate urban study. The advantage of the latter approach is that the direction of the questioning is not biased by the need to cover relatively rare urban occupations, etc. A study limited to the rural areas has to focus on the question of how to present an accurate portrait of rural life. If the focus is upon ensuring an accurate portrait of rural women then full attention can be paid to distinguishing among them. Take the case where census studies show that 80 per cent of rural women are classified as being "housewives" in farming households and that 65 per cent of rural women are

illiterate "housewives" in farming households. Evidently the need is to see whether it is possible to make useful further distinctions among these women. A first option would probably be to examine the economic roles played by these farm housewives: do all of them participate in the farm work but only at seasons of peak labour demand such as planting and harvest or are the patterns much more varied?

Since data on those at the top of the social pyramid are usually relatively abundant and well defined it is important to redress the balance by a special examination of those at the bottom. Sometimes those at the very bottom tend to actually disappear from view. The very poor may not even live in households: few surveys pick up those who are obliged to sleep behind bill-boards or under temporarily disused market stalls. Interviewers are often reluctant to interview in the very poorest areas which may be perceived as harbouring criminal or unruly populations. Some occupations of the very needy (such as begging, rag-picking, prostitution) rarely appear in survey or census records.

C. A focus on very poor women

It is worthwhile considering how to set about ensuring that good quality information is available about very poor women. Several studies have suggested that the essential is to ensure good data on female household heads (Buvinic et al. 1979; Yousseff and Hetler 1984). But this is an oversimplification. Undoubtedly a disproportionate number of lone widows, deserted wives with young children and other female household heads are to be found amongst the very poor. But it is still almost certainly true that the majority of very poor women will be found in households where there is a resident adult male. Certainly, we will never know whether this is true or not unless we gather good data on households with and without adult males present.

In order to ensure the collection of good data on very poor women there are a number of areas where a special focus is needed. These include:

(1) Landless rural households;

(2) Informal occupations of all kinds but especially those which have such low status (e.g., begging) as to be likely to become invisible;

(3) Failure to meet basic needs (e.g., if there are institutions dealing with the destitute what is the ratio of females to males);

(4) Groups which have already been defined as very disadvantaged by earlier studies (e.g., some minority ethnic groups; groups of women found to experience exceptionally high levels of infant mortality, etc.);

(5) Those at a very high risk of poverty (e.g., women with very low levels of human capital resources).

The table which follows lists a number of special groups of women who merit particular concern in data collection exercises.

Special groups of women meriting particular attention

1. *Women with unusual living arrangements:*

(a) Living alone;

(b) Living in servants' quarters;

(c) Living in dormitories, boarding houses and other communal arrangements;

(d) Living in households with more than one married couple (e.g., as daughter-in-law).

2. *Women with special demographic characteristics:*

(a) Never married adult women;

(b) Separated/divorced women (especially with children);

(c) Childless wives;

(d) Widows.

3. *Women with other special characteristics:*

(a Migrants;

(b) Refugees;

(c) Non-migrants with migrant husbands;

(d) Rural elites;

(e) Members of ethnic minorities;

(f) Members of minority religious groups;

(g) Women in illicit occupations e.g., prostitutes, brewers, unlicensed traders etc.

4. Women who are typical but often ignored:

(e.g., if 60 per cent of adult women in the country are rural women working on family farms — then a special effort should be made to provide more information on the other characteristics of this major group, e.g., the proportion literate, access to credit, landholdings, sources of cash income, crops grown — for home consumption, sale, export, etc.).

D. Educational data

For most countries we have data by sex on literacy rates; educational enrollments at the primary, secondary and tertiary level and on the educational achievements of the adult population. Thanks to the censuses and the educational institutions such data are well provided. The picture may be a depressing one, as in India, where 19 per cent of females as compared with 47 per cent of males are literate — but the information needed for action is certainly available. It should also be noted that there is little reason to believe that the quality of the educational data for women is inferior to that for men — possibly the reverse since men with formal jobs may be more likely to maintain face by exaggerating their educational qualifications.

Owing to the primary impact of education on behaviour, all surveys need to collect information on the educational characteristics of the sample. There are also some types of educational data which are still in short supply. These are (1) data on training outside the formal school system such as by apprenticeships. For example, it is important to know whether women have marketable skills which they are not using and whether, for the same level of training, males and females are paid the same. The other area which needs to be covered is (2) data on the inputs into education and the quality of education. For example at the national level, what proportion of the national educational budget is spent on female education? 20 per cent? Are girls' schools less well equipped and staffed. At the family level, what is spent on the education of sons and daughters, no only for fees but also for books etc. We know that girls are usually less likely to be enrolled at each level, but amongst those who are enrolled how far is it that the girls are kept home to care for children or to cope with any domestic crisis in a way which boys escape? Finally, (3) there is the question of science and technology and how far girls are excluded from these specializations.

E. Demographic data

Demographic statistics are perhaps the only type of statistics which actually provide more information about women than they do

about men. Demographic surveys are most unusual amongst household surveys in seeking out women as the *preferred* respondents. Women interviewed in such surveys are also asked questions about the household in general which gives an opportunity to examine their perspectives. Thus, for example, it would be possible to compare the responses on economic activities given by female respondents in a fertility survey with the responses on the same topic given by males interviewed in labour force or agricultural surveys. Such opportunities, however, are rarely used. Sometimes it is argued that women should not be asked economic questions such as the household income because they are alleged not to know the answers. If true, this is obviously highly significant — but analysts should be wary of their logic in arguing that income levels (unknown to the women concerned) have a strong determining influence on their fertility. Whilst the focus on women in fertility surveys is refreshing in treating them seriously as sources of information on a range of topics, it can also have the disadvantage of implying that the nation's population problems are somehow caused by women alone.

Demographic data on women are often of greater quantity but lesser quality than those on men. Where the data on women are of high quality this is because demographers (especially those with a focus on fertility) are often especially interested in women. Certainly demographic data have the great advantage that they are almost invariably available by sex. One of the first tests of quality for almost any survey which collects data on the population as a whole should be an examination of the sex ratio of the population — both overall and for a variety of age groups. Differences which show an excess of one sex past the age of 14 may well reflect migration patterns and clearly if the sex differential in migratory behaviour is strong enough this may well affect the sex ratio in the population as a whole. Strong differentials at younger ages are much more open to suspicion. The sex ratio at birth is usually approximately 105 males to 100 females — any excess of males greater than 110 amongst young children is very likely to indicate low status for women — either because young girls are actually more at risk of death than young boys due to differential treatment, or because young girls are simply overlooked when parents are asked to list their children.

Clearly, a finding that young girls are at greater risk is only a first step — the next steps are to look at possible differentials in the treatment of young children. Examples of the kind of data which are needed are nutritional data (are boys breastfed longer, given more food overall, more protein-rich food?); health care data (are girls less likely to be immunised, or less often taken to clinics, or taken later in the course of an illness, or taken to less well-trained and resourced healers?); and accident and injury data (in Western societies, boy children experience more accidents than girl children but this may

not be universal, especially in contexts where some accidents, such as scaldings, may be related to household chores or may not be altogether "accidental"). There have been some classic studies of sex biases in the family allocation of food and health care in the rural areas of the Indian sub-continent (Wyon and Gordon 1971; Chen et al. 1981). One study in Bangladesh showed that even where health services and transport to them were both provided without financial cost, parents were still 66 per cent more likely to take boys with diarrhoea to health centres than they would girls (Chen et al. 1981). The same study showed that 14 per cent of female children as compared with 5 per cent of male children were severely malnourished. The methodologies for collecting such data are available. However, they are extremely time intensive and costly to collect. It does not suffice to ask parents whether their food allocation practices are the same for both sexes of children — it is necessary to actually measure food distribution. In the case of adults there is often open recognition that women are fed less because it is argued that they need less (which is partially true) (Katona-Apte 1975). So measurement again becomes necessary to establish how much of men's and women's needs are being met (Martorell 1982).

The ultimate measure of discrimination between the sexes comes in mortality data. Studies in this area are somewhat complicated by the fact that all the evidence suggests that in a non-discriminatory world women would live some three to four years longer than men on average because of an inborn biological advantage. The strength of this advantage is such that male infant mortality will always exceed female mortality unless there is very marked discriminatory treatment of female infants (Ruzicka and Lopez 1983). Owing to the female biological advantage, anywhere where female mortality exceeds that of males in any age groups should be a cause of concern. The classic case, and one where measurement is still highly defective, is where female mortality aged 20-24 exceeds that of males because of the high level of maternal mortality (Chen et al. 1974; Tietze 1977). One problem with the measurement of excess female mortality is that the phenomenon is generally only to be found in highly traditional societies where statistics are usually highly difficient — it is not found in societies with high levels of literacy (Ware 1981).

The Physical Quality of Life Index was designed as a measure of basic needs (Morris 1979). It combines data on infant mortality, life expectancy at age one and literacy in a single index. Such data are available for a wide range of countries for both sexes (i.e. 73 countries in 1979). However, practical experience shows that, owing to the biological advantage discussed above, the two mortality measures incorporated in the index are not well suited to picking up discrimination against females (Samarasinghe 1983). Where it is

available, information on the sex differential in mortality at ages 1-4 or 5-9 is much more sensitive. (Obviously care has to be taken that the data for these age groups are drawn from life and not from models which assume higher male than female mortality at these ages — as all the standard demographic models do assume). Constructing an index specifically for measuring differences in the quality of life between the sexes one would probably aim at an index incorporating a measure of literacy; a measure of mortality at ages 1-9; and, most controversially, a measure of participation in public life — perhaps the proportion of women amongst those working in administrative or managerial positions or the proportion of women in the national legislature or similar body.

It is common to find that age data for women are not as accurate as those for men (for example, that far more women than men have ages ending in 0 or 5). Apart from reflecting educational differentials this difference also reflects a lack of contact with officialdom — those who are in regular contact with the bureaucracy tend to adopt a defined birthdate for sheer convenience. High quality data on the marital status of the population, which is likely to be available from almost any census can provide useful information on the situation of women. Are there some women who never marry? Or are all women beyond a certain age married? Are there equal numbers of married men and married women (surprisingly often, even in societies with minimal polygyny, women are more likely to claim to be married than men)? How common is the experience of widowhood for men and women? (In some sections of Bangladeshi society men find widowhood so abhorent and prospective brides so readily available that they commonly remarry within a week of being widowed).

One area of demographic analysis where women have commonly been neglected is in migration studies. Indeed, marriage migration, where women move to live in their husbands' villages at marriage is often simply ommitted from the analysis of migration. This would appear to be the result either (a) of the belief that only "economic" migration is of significance or (b) of a feeling (belied by the facts) that women do not move independently. It is worth pausing to consider this neglect of women's experience for clearly if the great majority of women move amongst strangers at their marriage this has obvious implications for their status.

There is a great wealth of studies of the relationships between women's fertility and their status (Mason 1984). Anyone who is interested in knowing what information is available on the status of women needs to explore these studies. Commonly they provide information on a range of indicators of women's situation such as education, labour force participation, and income (see Table 2).

Table 2. Indicators of female status commonly cited in the socio-demographic literature

Indicator of women's situation	Appropriateness of measurement by household survey
DEMOGRAPHIC INDICATORS	
1. Mortality differential	Yes — for child mortality at least.
2. Female age at marriage	Yes
3. Age difference between spouses	Yes
4. Preference for male children	No — except through attitudinal data.
KINSHIP — FAMILY INDICATORS	
5. Purdah	Yes
6. Widows' marriage to husb's brother	Yes — can measure actual incidence.
7. Polygyny	Yes — " " " "
8. Conjugal family households	Yes — " " " "
9. Emphasis on lineage	No
10. Female property inheritance	Yes — possibly with some difficulty.
11. Women marry into different village	Yes
12. Live with husband's family	Yes
13. Dowry	Yes — unless it is illegal.
14. Arranged marriages	Yes
15. Cross-cousin marriages	Yes
16. Emphasis on virginity of brides	No
17. Sexual double standard	No — except through attitudinal data.
18. Emphasis on woman's youthfulness	No — " " " "
19. Male right to unilateral divorce	Yes — can measure actual incidence.
20. Egalitarian nature of marriage	No — except through attitudinal data.
21. Male feeding priority	No — " " " "
22. Extended kin support for widows and divorcees	Yes — can measure actual incidence.
ECONOMIC INDICATORS	
23. Female employment opportunities	?
24. Female labour force participation	Yes
25. Exclusion of women from estra-domestic activities	?
26. Concentration of women in informal sector employment	Yes
27. Occupational segregation of the sexes	Yes
28. Sex difference in wages	Yes
29. Sex difference in leisure time	Yes — approximately.
30. Female education	Yes
31. Female underemployment	Probably not.
32. Women's work commitment	No — only through attitudinal data and actual record.
33. Women's access to credit	?
34. Women's access to non-familial supports	?

Note: Based upon Mason, 1984, table 1.

Although such surveys contain much very useful but little used data on the situation of women, it should be remembered that the sample frame for such surveys is often restricted to married women or even to currently married women and therefore unmarried women and the divorced and widowed are likely to be excluded. The biases likely to result from the restriction to currently married women will depend upon the topic. The exclusion of young unmarried women is likely to result in an underestimation of the prevalence of secondary and tertiary education for women since there is usually a strong relationship between female education and age at marriage. The exclusion of wives who are not currently married will necessarily result in a biased view of women's experience of poverty since the lack of a husband is a major cause of female poverty. In some fertility surveys a certain amount of data is collected on all household members (irrespective of sex or marital status) and it may be possible to use this data at a minimum to establish the proportion of women who have been excluded from the main fertility survey, and, perhaps, also to examine some of the basic characteristics of the excluded women (such as age, marital status and education).

The tendency to think in a compartmentalized fashion has meant that women's experience as mothers or their fertility has not usually been considered in general studies of their status. Yet in the terms of most Asian and Pacific cultures an individual woman's status is strongly influenced by her fertility or lack of it. In the extreme case of a woman who is unable to have children she may find herself very seriously disadvantaged — perhaps divorced for that reason alone. Yet very few studies have looked at the situation of this group of childless women. One reason for this may be that surveys do not always adequately record such women (especially if they are restricted to the currently married). Thus, for example, the World Fertility Survey in Sri Lanka found a level of infertility amongst married women so low (less than 2 per cent) as either to imply that Sri Lankan women are amongst the most healthy in the world, or that the survey was not accurately recording infertility.

Few if any studies of women have cross-classified them by their maternal status: non-mother, mother, grandmother. Yet this is clearly an important determinant of their roles and responsibilities. If the interest is in women's childcare responsibilities it will be useful also to distinguish between women according to the age of the youngest child: say under 2, 2 to the age where it is culturally acceptable to leave a child alone, older. Fertility also results in considerable and little studied nutritional burdens upon women, especially where they breastfeed for long periods. Such burdens have come under study in the African context (Harrington 1983; Eide and Steady 1980) and in Papua New Guinea (Norgan et al. 1974). Although increasing attention is being paid to the question as to

whether women have enough time available to take on additional activities less attention has been paid to their energy requirements. Yet if food is in short supply it is most commonly the women who go without.

Since demographic data for both sexes are available in lavish abundance. Every possible use should be made of this information which is already to hand. What is needed is an innovative approach which looks at new uses for familiar data. To take an example: data on age at marriage are routinely collected in household and fertility surveys, similarly, censuses collect information on age and marital status which can be used to estimate marriage ages. In general, the younger women are at marriage, the lower their status. There are a number of reasons why this should be so. Women who marry as children never have any experience of independence of a father or husband; young brides have little or no formal education since they are married at an age where others are still in school; parents are eager to marry their daughters off at a very young age because girls are perceived to be of little worth. Thus an examination of age at marriage across different population sub-groups can reveal much about the situation of women. Other data can also be extremely revealing. It has been argued that the best single measure of the status of women in a society is the proportion of women who are married to men who are younger than themselves (Saffilios-Rothschild 1975). This point can be argued but it is certainly true that women who marry younger men have overcome part of the status disadvantage inherent in the common system where wives are almost invariably considerably younger than their husbands who are structurally closer to being fathers rather than equal partners.

Another interesting group revealed by the marriage data are those women who never marry (or who remain unmarried at an age markedly beyond the average age of marriage). In some cultures the only women who are not married are those who are too disfigured or otherwise handicapped to find husbands. In other cultures there are acceptable roles for women who never marry which allow them to maintain their independence and to live satisfying lives. Clearly the situation of women in the latter societies is to be preferred and the options for younger women who wish to pursue independent lives are more open in such societies.

A focus upon data related to age at marriage is only example of the ways in which it is possible to incorporate demographic data into an examination of the situation of women throughout the life cycle. For it is an oversimplification to think of the status of women in a culture to be constant irrespective of the age or life cycle stage of the women concerned. In many cultures where the status of the daughter is a lowly one, the status of the mother is much higher and

that of the mother-in-law is yet higher again. The status accorded to wives varies greatly from culture to culture but in almost all cultures great respect is paid to mothers. From the Asian and Pacific viewpoint, European cultures which pride themselves on the high status which they accord to women are often very deficient in the respect and status which they give to older women. In most cultures the menopause marks a transition in the status of women but the direction of the change varies.

It is important not to romanticize the situation or to assume that the cultural norm is necessarily reflected in actual behaviour. There is still a need for data to show how far traditional obligations are, in fact, honoured. Thus, for example, it is important to examine the situation of widowed women: are they kept in as much comfort at their sons/children can afford or are their widows with surviving children who are not in receipt of such support and are obliged to beg or to rely on charity beyond the family? Do the data confirm the almost universal belief that women with considerable numbers of surviving children are better off in old age than those with few or no children?

F. Economic data

There is no question that the most urgent need is for better economic data on women. Two kinds of data are needed: (1) data on women's contribution to the economy and (2) data on the benefits which women receive from the economy. The essential reason why economic data on women are so imperfect is that the data collection format is based on a model which was originally designed to measure wage labour in industrialized economies. Such a format is of limited applicability to developing economies with large agricultural and informal sectors and of even less utility for studying women's situation in such economies. In the case of men, the saving feature has been the assumption that all adult males who are not incapacitated are to be included in the labour force unless there is some specific reason (such as full-time studies) to exclude them. In the case of women, the situation is much more complex, in large part because of the concept of the role of the housewife: the adult woman whose activities are limited to the home.

In order to improve the data on women's economic activities it is vital to start by looking at all women's activities. One approach is to define a continuum of activities from the most formal and obviously "economic" to the grey area on the boundary with "housework". One example would be:

1. Full-time paid employment in the formal sector;

2. Part-time paid employment in the formal sector;
3. Full-time paid employment in the informal sector;
4. Part-time paid employment in the informal sector;
5. Full-time self-employment in the informal sector;
6. Part-time self-employment in the informal sector;
7. Full-time participation in the family business;
8. Part-time participation in the family business;
9. Full-time participation in the family farm;
10. Part-time participation in the family farm;
11. Seasonal participation only in the family farm.

Clearly, the use of such a scheme requires a definition of terms. For example: part-time equals 20 hours or less per week (or some approximation such as half-day or less). The formal sector comprises government employment plus employment in all businesses and institutions employing 10 or more people (it would be preferable to be able to define the "formal structure" of the institution but this is likely to prove very difficult in actual field situations). All persons defined as being in paid employment or self-employment must have a cash income (it is assumed that self-employment in the formal sector is excluded by definition). Participation in the family business or farm will undoubtedly present definitional problems. The essential question is to look at the actual activities involved. If the family business is a street-side bicycle-repair stall does the person repair bicycles, serve customers, take messages, sell small accessories? In the family farm case the questions should relate not only to work in the fields but also to looking after the livestock (especially small livestock such as chickens), tending a kitchen garden where vegetables and spices are grown, and processing the crop (e.g., by pounding paddy). Often the most useful approach is to have a check list of activities which is based upon local conditions and agricultural practices and to check whether the person has engaged in them and under what conditions. The two tables which follow take up methods of gathering high quality economic activity data on women and the information needed on women's economic activities in various sectors. Clearly, this is a topic which could be dealt with at much greater length (Anker 1980, 1983; Ware 1986) and it is a very high priority for the field adoption of methodological improvements.

a. Methods of gathering high quality economic activity data on women (or men)

1. Time use surveys

(a) Direct observation;

(b) Random instant measurement;

(c) Diaries (including picture charts for illiterates).

References: White 1984; Mencher et al. 1979; Asia Society 1978; Binswinger 1980; Kirkpatrick 1978.

2. Division of labour module

(This lists the range of activities to be performed and asks who perform them including children — Smock used this technique in Kenya "Measuring rural women's economic roles and contributions to Kenya", *Studies in Family Planning* 10 (11 + 12): 385-390 — but it does not appear to have been used in the Asian and Pacific region).

3. Detailed economic activity question sequences

e.g. *Past year* Primary activity during past year ;

Secondary activity during past year;

Total weeks in paid employment, family business, any form of farm work . . .;

Annual earnings;

Estimate of annual earnings for non-wage workers (i.e., wage that would have to be paid for same work)

Past week Hours spent in paid employment; family business; agriculture for family; other agriculture; fetching water; gathering fuel; other household maintenance.

Cash income from wages; family business; sale of agricultural produce; remittances; loans; other. Weekly income relative to annual average.

References: Blacker 1978; Standing 1978; Peluso 1978.

4. Activity checklist

(Presents a long checklist of activities and checks off for each person whether performed, how long for, form of remuneration, place etc.)

References: Anker 1983; Acharya and Bennett 1980; Blades 1975; Stoler 1977.

b. Information needed on women's economic activities

In formal employment:	In informal activity:	
	Non-agricultural	Agricultural
— Job	— Kind of work	— Kind of work
— Hours	— Hours	— Hours
— Wages	— Financial returns (estimate if necessary)	— Financial returns (estimate of replacement cost to hire someone)
— Other conditions of employment	— Organization of work	— Hazards (e.g. accidents)
— Size of enterprise	— Hazards (e.g. legal controls)	— Work participation when pregnant/ children very young
— Public/private employment	— Work participation when pregnant/children very young	— Child care compatability
— Industrial hazards (e.g. chemicals, threat to eyesight)	— Child care compatability	— Organization membership (e.g. co-operative, women's group)
— Maternity leave	— Organization membership (e.g. stall holders association)	— Access to cash
— Child care	— Access to capital/credit	— Access to capital/ credit
— Union membership	— Sex of clients	— Land ownership
— Exposure to sexual harassment	— Seasonality	— Crops grown
— Sex of supervisor	— Any agricultural work?	— Crops for consumption, cash, export
— Returns to education		— Combination with non-agricultural work
		— Care of livestock
		— Seasonality

G. Occupational data

If educational data are the best data on women, occupational data are at the other extreme being of extremely poor quality, essentially because of a failure in the instruments of measurement. Actually there are two main reasons why female economic activities are almost invariably underestimated in censuses and standard surveys. One is because the concept of economic activity is defined so as to exclude or underestimate much female activity. The other is because responses are often inaccurate: men and women alike often do not perceive what women do as being work in the same

way as it is work when men do it. Thus, in Indonesia where men and women work along side one another harvesting rice the men are "harvesting" and women are "helping with the harvest" which is not counted as "working" unless so specified. A man supervising labourers is always considered to be "working", a woman supervising servants is not, even if the servants are directly preparting goods for sale.

There are very real problems in defining "work" or "economic activity" for women. At what point does gardening become "economic activity"? When is caring for chickens "agricultural self-employment"? (The World Fertility Survey in Fiji said when there are more than 9 chickens!) Fetching water is an economic activity if it is for sale or if the fetcher is a servant but not when a woman fetches it for home consumption. Growing one's own food is an economic activity but making clothes for the family apparently is not. Growing crops is allegedly economic activity in a way that processing them apparently is not and cooking them certainly is not. The difficulties of definition especially for those engaged in subsistence or near subsistence agriculture are manifold (Blades 1975). Women are especially affected because there is a standard assumption that adult males if not incapacitated all "work".

Yet the fact that occupational data for rural women are extremely inadequate should not be a reason for ignoring the mass of data which are available from censuses and surveys. As early as 1970 Boserup pioneered in this area and more recently Dixon (1982) has shown what can be done even with the data on agricultural employment. There are no major problems with the coverage of formal wage employment in the urban areas. The consuses correctly record the proportion of school teachers or other public servants of different ranks who are women. They will accurately delineate what is happening in the modern, formal sector. Where they are deficient is in the measurement of informal and possibly illicit urban activities such as petty trading, prostitution, and the home brewing of alcohol and traditional remedies.

H. Women's incomes

Everyone who has considered the definition of women's situation must recognize the more and better data are needed on women's incomes. The difficulty comes in defining how such data are to be secured.

In the case of women who have cash incomes from wages the situation is relatively simple. Still it is surprising how rarely data on sex differentials in wages are published in the region. Much of this

data can be collected from employers without the need to go to individual employees in household surveys. The first step is to look at the wages paid by government instrumentalities who are obliged to publish such information. Are male and female public servants paid the same wages for the same jobs? Even if the formal situation is that the wages are the same for both sexes is there still a difference because of the ways in which male and female employees are classified? It is common to find instances such as that where men and women do the same work but the men are classified as clerks on higher pay whilst the women are classified as clerical assistants and paid lower wages.

The next stage is to look at wages in large scale private enterprises. Here too it is important to look at classifications as well as wages for jobs with the same title. In some factories men and women are not employed on the same work and it may be necessary to compare work at the same skill level: unskilled heavy work, unskilled light work, first stage supervision, skilled work requiring 3 years experience, etc. It may also be necessary to compare the wages paid to levels of skill in different factories or different industries where there is a strong association between the goods produced and the sex of the workers. It may also be important to look at the marital status of the female employees: some factories refuse to employ married women and thus the wages they pay are restricted to unmarried women (Ariffin 1984).

Measuring wages in small scale private enterprises is more difficult, yet it should be possible to secure information on the "going rate" in various occupations. A rapid survey of a number of small enterprises should suffice to get a reasonable indication of the wages paid to shop assistants, waitresses, dressmakers' assistants and the like. In some establishments it will also be possible to find out whether males and females are paid the same for the same work, for example whether waiters are paid more than waitresses (although it will be necessary also to see whether the men work longer hours or do more night work). In some cases it may well be that part of the wages are paid in kind whether in free meals on the premises or in being allowed to take home surplus materials at a cut price rate. Sometimes employees are paid little or nothing on the grounds that they are still being trained, here too there is a need to examine possible sex differentials: are apprenticeship conditions different for males and females, are females expected to serve longer periods as "trainees" than males?

Measuring the returns to self-employment in the informal sector is a notoriously difficult task. Many men and women of minimal education genuinely do not know how much profit they make. They keep household and business monies in one small purse and

know how much or how little they have left at the end of the day but they do not carry out profit and loss calculations nor, often, do they distinguish between turnover and profits. This is not necessarily irrational behaviour but it does make life very difficult for the statistician endeavouring to measure incomes. There are a number of possible approaches to this problem. One is for the interviewer to do the calculations on the spot looking at unit costs and returns (e.g., cost of ingredients to make x snacks plus fuel and other expenses, returns from selling x snacks — not necessarily at a constant price since prices may sink at the end of the day in an attempt to get rid of the last of the stock). Clearly, this is a very time consuming process for the interviewer and unlikely to be attempted in a large sample household survey unless the survey has a very heavy emphasis on income data. Still it can be a very useful way of establishing benchmark data — of selecting a few apparently typical cases in order to have some idea of the incomes of such informal workers. Often the incomes will be found to be extremely small — so small as to raise questions as to the self-employed can meet sufficient basic needs to survive. Which leads to another approach, which is to examine expenditures rather than incomes. If the essential concern is to examine how women meet their basic needs this can be a very useful approach especially where the women are the chief income sources for their households.

Difficult as it may be to measure the incomes of self-employed women who individually sell goods or services in the market place, it is still more difficult to measure the incomes of women who participate in family enterprises or farms. Immediately the measurer comes up against a major definitional problem. Just what is the income of a farmer or a shop-keeper's wife? In rare cases she may be given a proportion of the receipts for herself, more commonly she may have charge of a share to spend on household expenses: buying food and household goods for every household member out of the money given to her. Even more commonly there may be no regular arrangement but rather occasional deals with money being handed over for particular expenses. Many development projects have simply assumed that additional household income will be shared amongst all the household members — commonly expenditure patterns belie this assumption as more money is spent in the local cafes where only males visit or on bicycles which women do not ride. Before one can get at the incomes of women in such households of shared enterprises (or, indeed, in households where a male wage is the only source of cash income) it is necessary to examine how the household income is divided up. In some cultures women rarely get to handle actual cash transactions of any magnitude.

1.	Land ownership	: none
		: average area or less
		: more than average area for region
2.	Ownership of buildings	: none
		: own home
		: own home + other
		: other
3.	Ownership of money	: in debt
		: no money
		: less than a month's living expenses
		: 1-11 months' living expenses
		: 12 or more months living expenses
4.	Ownership of means of transport	: none
		: bicycle
		: animal
		: motorized transport
		: other
5.	Ownership of animals	: none
		. . . . poultry
		. . . . goats
		. . . . cattle (list to be decided by local conditions
6.	Ownership of jewellery	: none
		: value less than a month's living expenses
		: value 1-11 months' living expenses
		: value 12 or more months' living expenses
7.	Ownership of tools of trade	: none

I. Access to credit

Access-to-credit data provide a very good example of the type of data which are best gathered centrally rather than from individuals or households. The problems which are most likely to be encountered are (a) that data on loans are not kept separately by sex and (b) that institutions may be reluctant to allow access to data on borrowers. In many cultures the names of the borrowers (which will certainly be recorded) will show their sex — if someone is available to go through the records and provide anonymous but sex labelled data on loans.

One study of "Access to Development Finance" in the Pacific showed what can be done (Cole 1985). This provides data on loans to women in Fiji, Western Samoa and the Solomon Islands. In Fiji women take out 5 per cent of all loans made by the Fiji Development Bank and 4 per cent of the loans by value. Throughout the eight Pacific countries examined the Development Banks have no policies which specifically discriminate between clients because of their sex. Yet there may be indirect discrimination. Thus in Western Samoa where women take out 8 per cent of industrial and 10 per cent of agricultural loans, bank staff noted that men dominate meetings with extension staff of government departments and the bank, thereby excluding women from access to information on how to put up proposals etc. Elsewhere land may be the most common collateral for loans and women may therefore be excluded because the land is held in their husbands' names. Additional data on the sex of bank staff may give a further insight into how accessible women find the bank — the National Development Bank of Palau has a majority of women on its staff.

Banks are not the only lending institutions. Data on the sex of members of co-operatives is useful in itself and may be of special relevance in this context. There are also a range of traditional credit institutions which may be of particular importance in giving access to credit to women in the informal sector who may be cut off from the more formal lending institutions.

J. Women who are responsible for families

It has become common to call for improved data on female household heads. (Yousseff + Hetler 1984). This call is somewhat confusing as what is usually meant is data on women who are responsible for families because they live in households where there is no adult male present. It is actually very difficult to define who should be described as the household head: the person who owns the house pays the rent; the chief economic provider; the person nominated by

the household members or an arbitrarily defined person such as the eldest adult male present? Given this difficulty it is much simpler and more useful simply to examine the membership of the household avoiding any definition of headship. Take a simple coding to describe household membership:

1. One Female only
2. One Male only
3. One adult Male + one adult Female
4. One adult Male + one adult Female + children
5. One adult Male + one adult Female + children + other adults
6. One adult Male + children
7. One adult Male + any other combination
8. One adult Female + children
9. One adult Female + children + other adult Females
10. One adult Female + other adult Females.

(This coding assumes that people living alone are, by definition, adult. The age at which children become adult can be defined by reference to local conditions — essentially it should be the age at which people are capable of becoming economically independent). In many societies the first four categories will cover the great majority of households enumerated especially if the definition of a household is structured so as to minimize household size by defining out persons such as servants who are not full participants in the household economy. If the first person listed in the coding is defined as the reference person and a cross-tabulation is provided of the marital status of the reference person by the type of household membership then many social categories such as the widow and her children will be clearly evident. Two especially interesting categories will be the never married women with children and the married women (with or without children) with no adult male present in the household. In the Pacific unmarried women are not infrequently found raising their own children. In some Asian cultures it will be more probable that unmarried women with children are looking after younger siblings. In some Asian cultures it is theoretically unacceptable for unmarried women to live alone without male protection — but it is always important to check the theory against reality. (In this context it is instructive to remember the story of Audrey Richards, the anthropologist, who described a society where the cultural norm and the reality was for the majority of marriages to be between cousins. Years later, one of her students re-analyzed the demographic data

she had collected prior to writing her book, showing that her own data revealed that cousin marriages only represented a minority of the total. Cultural norms are often not reflected in statistical norms. Ms. Richards was not exceptional in being misled but only in being honest in her later report).

Talking about women "who are responsible for families" begs a question as to the nature of the responsibility. In some cases women will be responsible for day-to-day eventualities but the economic responsibility lies with an absent male who is the chief economic provider for the household. In other cases the woman in the household is responsible for every aspect of household welfare including the provision of economic support. (It is, of course, possible for a woman living in a household with an adult male present to be the chief economic provider and/or chief decision maker, however, in most Asian and Pacific cultures such women would appear to be relatively rare). Asking, for all households, what is the chief source of income/economic support is an essential question and will clarify this point. Where the chief source of income is a wage then the matter is relatively simple — where there is more than one wage earner, the person who *contributes* most (not necessarily he or she who *earns* most) is the chief provider. In the case of a family farm or business enterprise the situation may well be more complex. Clearly the farm or enterprise is the chief source of support but it cannot automatically be assumed that it is the male participants who make the greatest contribution. Even where data are available on time inputs it is still very difficult to weigh the value of different tasks against one another: say the value of weeding as against the value of ploughing. One obvious approach would be to apply local wage rates for these tasks. However, if women are the weeders and men do the ploughing the difference between the wages paid for these two tasks may reflect cultural factors much more strongly than the economic contribution to the final crop output. In many cultures men may be described as the chief economic providers because they are the ones who sell the crop and receive the cash income even though the women of the household have made a significant contribution to the growth of the crop.

Asking about the economic base of the different types of household is vital to an understanding of the situation of women. Take the case of a widow living alone: is she dependent upon her son in the city, upon occasional remittances from her married daughter, upon her own labours as a traditional midwife, upon gifts and begging or what? Such questioning is very important in showing how close social norms come to matching reality. Conventional occupational questions rarely pick up the more unconventional expedients used to earn a living: prostitution; illicit alcohol brewing/distilling; occasional domestic services and childminding provided for food

or a small fee or even a gift of second hand clothes; or picking over rubbish dumps for saleable or usable items. It may, of course, be true that women are able to rely upon men to support them (as many traditional accounts and models imply) but it is vital to be able to verify this fact.

K. Measuring the situation of women in full households

In many social settings and many social surveys the assumption is made that a married woman shares the status of her husband, indeed that the whole household shares his status. The reason for the assumption is a belief that the standard of living is the same for all household members which again is a presubposition which needs to be checked against the facts. However, measuring the status of the wife as an independent individual does pose a number of problems. One approach is to examine a characteristic which is normally acquired prior to marriage: education. Education also has the advantage of being a measure of the extent of human capital investment in a person and of giving an indication of the income a person might be able to earn for themselves if obliged to turn to the labour market. Some wives will, of course, have occupations and incomes of their own which makes it possible to compare them directly with similarly circumstanced males. The question remains as to how to define the status of a woman who has no independent income or occupation.

If all marriages were partnerships it would be possible and reasonable simply to split the household assets (where there are only two adult members of the household) assigning half to the husband and half to the wife. Reality is almost invariable more complex than this. One possibility is to look at what would happen in the case of divorce or death: what resources would the woman be able to lay claim to in these eventualities? Another possibility is to look at the way in which resources are shared during the life of the marriage. Normally this will involve actually asking what happens to the household income and how it is shared. Often there is a difference of perception on this point, with husbands believing themselves to be more generous than their wives are prepared to give them credit for. A more indirect approach is to look at how the money or other income is spent. Is the standard of living common to all household members? Or is the man or the woman, better dressed, better fed, more able to indulge in small luxuries (such as alcohol, a visit to the cinema or buying a book?) If there is only one watch, bicycle, radio, comfortable chair in the household — who gets to use it? If someone has been on a pilgrimage who is it? Whose parents are given presents on feast days? Who goes to a doctor when ill and whose treatment is confined to home remedies? There are a whole range of questions which can be asked in order to distinguish between the

standard of living of household members. (In the case of the younger generation it can be very informative to ask how much is spent per capita on the education of girls and boys of approximately the same age).

L. Summary

List of Recommendations for Improving Socio-Economic Indicators on Women in the Asian-Pacific Region

1. Make the maximum use of existing data.

(a) Every country should aim at producing a brief pamphlet with the basic data from Censuses, etc., in readily accessible form. (Maximum 10 pages — should cover demography, education, labour force participation, income). This will both spread knowledge and point out gaps.

(b) Ensure that those involved in (i) development planning in general and (ii) in women's policy issues are fully briefed as to the nature and extent of existing data on women.

2. Make minor changes to the on-going collection of data.

(a) Make sure that the government's chief statistical authority has a commitment to improving the quality of data on women. The coverage of women's concerns should be a regular agenda item in all discussion of data collection procedures — especially where changes are already proposed, e.g., a new census round or a labour force survey. Those interested in women's concerns (especially those who are also women) should be represented on all relevant committees, advisory bodies, etc.

(b) Press for the publication of sex-breakdown for all data collected by sex (e.g., hospital statistics).

(c) Press for the collection of data by sex from individuals, e.g., landholdings, driver's license applications — then get this data published.

3. Establish a Women's Socio-Economic Indicators Task Force.

(a) Preferably this should be within the bureaucracy, e.g., with representatives from the Departments dealing with Statistics, Planning, Women's Issues, etc.

(b) If this is not possible — at least get a volunteer body of academics, voluntary workers, women statisticians, etc., going.

(c) The Task Force would have the role of ensuring that:

(i) Indicators (however rudimentary) are produced and publicized;

(ii) Indicators are improved in terms of the mechanics of data collection and analysis;

(iii) Indicators are improved in terms of the relevance of the data to women's pressing concerns (e.g., a mass of data limited to professional women is of little relevance to the majority of women working in the fields in rural areas).

4. Lobby for radical changes to the range and quality of data available.

(a) Data at a national level may be of little use to local planners or women trying to establish their own projects.

(b) The kinds of data available are often remote from the immediate grass-roots needs (e.g., in looking at how to set up an adult literacy programme which works for women — there will be need for information not just on illiteracy rates but on the demand for training, what women are interested in learning about, and what times and seasons they are most accessible).

(c) Some data may not be perceived as important because they relate to what are seen as women's concerns, e.g., data on childcare, data on unemployment and underemployment amongst married women.

(d) Lobbyists will need to establish priorities and target them in particular areas of the bureaucracy, e.g., maternal mortality data with the department dealing with health; household survey data on the hours spent carrying water (by sex, in the wet and dry seasons) with the statistics office and with the department responsible for water supplies.

(e) One device might be to have an award (e.g., a plaque) to be presented by a prominent woman to the sector of government which does the most to improve the data available on women. (Since so much depends upon individual initiative and commitment this can often be an unlikely department). The publicity given to this ceremony will also help publicize the relevant data.

(f) Another device is to target a particular area of concern, e.g., women and landholding, and focus on that at a range of levels

from the legal area concerned with land-titles, to the co-operatives who only give credit to the "land-holder", to a local project in which women themselves are directly involved.

(g) Where women statisticians are hard to find, a special priority may be to encourage young women to train in this area.

A Minimum List of Statistical Information on the Status of Women

There is no one minimum list applicable to all situations. Some countries have much more highly developed statistical systems than others. Some countries have polygamy and regular elections and hence need data on the proportion of polygynous marriages and of women voters — others are differently circumstanced.

The Absolute Minimum List Should Cover Data for Both Sexes on the Following Variables:

1. Demography:
   - — Infant mortality (where available mortality at ages 1-4 is preferable)
   - — Expectation of life at birth
   - — Average age at marriage
   - — Children ever born by age (normally only provided for women)
2. Education:
   - — Literacy amongst the adult population
   - — Proportions attending primary school
   - — Proportions attending secondary school
3. Work:
   - — Proportions in the labour force (however currently defined)
   - — Occupational distribution (however currently defined)
   - — Role in agriculture (whatever realistic data available)
4. Income/poverty: Whatever data are available — partly to stress how little is available. (The only data may be related to wages in the formal sector.)

5. Political participation as appropriate:
   — members of government (national + local)
   — members of political parties
   — members of trade unions
   — voters at elections.

Care should be taken that data are real and are not the result of heroic assumptions as to differences between the sexes, as some demographic estimates are.

A minimum list could also include a few telling negatives that can readily be checked, e.g.,

(a) There is no senior bureaucrat above level X who is a woman;

(b) There are only 2 out of 1,000 agricultural extension officers who are women;

(c) No judge above the most junior local level is a woman;

(d) There are only 10 women amongst 2,000 heads of companies employing more than 100 people;

(e) There are no women in the stock exchange (despite no legal barrier?).

Once data in these basic areas are available then the objective should be to build up in the areas where data are weakest. Very often these will be the areas of data on work (because of inadequate definitions and poor collection techniques) and of data on incomes and poverty (because such data are very hard to collect in general and are exceptionally hard to collect for individual household members who are not assumed to share a single household standard of living).

Data on the proportion of females who are in primary school etc. need to be matched by data on the proportions of primary school students, etc., who are female (with the presentation making it clear that 50 per cent not 100 per cent is the appropriate target).

Moving beyond the absolute minimum then it becomes possible to expand the range of data both in terms of depth and in terms of range.

In terms of range new issues can be taken up, e.g., household-headship, migrant status, coverage by social security legislation, etc.

Greater priority, however, will almost certainly be attached to improving the data on the core economic areas relating to women's inputs to the household and national economy and to their individual economic well-being. In many cases this will involve special concentration on household surveys in general and on labour force surveys in particular. Where national data which take adequate account of women's inputs in agriculture and the urban informal sector are not available, attention may need to start with a localized study which can be used to calculate possible correction factors for the national data (from the censuses, etc.).

Equally, if there is no short-term prospect of obtaining reasonable income/poverty data, then the best approach may be to look for alternative indicators. These could include:

(a) Nutrition data by age and sex (and, preferably, marital status);

(b) Data on the sex of the homeless, and those appealing to voluntary agencies for assistance;

(c) Any data on special at-risk groups such as widows, deserted wives with young children, those applying to food-for-work schemes, etc.

Overall, the plan must be to start with the most immediately available data (normally from Census and National Household Surveys) and then move out from these into those topic areas where the data is either unavailable or of such poor quality as to be almost meaningless for any examination of the situation of women.

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V. REGIONAL WOMEN'S INFORMATION NETWORK FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC: A PROPOSED MODEL*

(Document No. SD/RWINS/3)

INTRODUCTION

Data and information have always been the basis for, and formed part of, any societal activity. However, even though women represent more than half of the world's population, data and information on the status of women in various socio-economic situations need to be improved in order to monitor effectively global progress in this area.[1]

During the last 40 years the amount of information generated, communicated and consumed has grown exponentially to a level where, in effect, an "information society" is being created, and where society's ability to handle information effectively becomes a *sine qua non* for progress and an indicator of its level of development. Timely and reliable data and information are required for a proper understanding of societal problems, such as those affecting women.

It is on the basis of informed awareness that people take action and national policies and programmes concerning women are formulated and implemented. Information is one of the four pillars upon which successful efforts are being based in order to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women; the others are changing socio-economic values, political support, and effective leadership at all levels in both the public and private sectors.

The basic sources of information on the status of women consist of (a) numeric data collected in censuses, surveys, vital registration systems, and other statistical sources; and (b) research studies. These basic data and research findings constitute the body of scientific and technical information required for an understanding of the status of women and for monitoring the advancement of women's status in accordance with the provisions of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. The

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* Prepared by the ESCAP secretariat.

[1] Review and appraisal of the World Population Plan of Action, (ST/ESA/SER.A/99), United Nations, New York, 1986, p. 19.

"knowledge base" of scientific and technical information is recorded in primary and secondary sources in the format of books, journals and documents in print and non-print (electronic and microform) media.

Timely dissemination of relevant, reliable and up-to-date information in appropriate formats essentially to all of the people in a country is required for effective policy formulation and programme implementation and to change people's perceptions and attitudes about the role and needs of women in society. Various types of information units and information professionals with various technical skills and capabilities are needed to accomplish these tasks.

An example can be drawn from the experience gained in the field of population which may have some parallels in the area of women's programmes. Countries in the Asian and Pacific region have achieved a large measure of success in implementing population programmes that have enabled them to make significant progress in attaining their fertility reduction goals. During the past decade or more, information has played a crucial role in changing people's and government's attitudes about population problems and fostering their recognition of emerging population issues. As part of their population programmes, typically, governments in the Asian region have set up three kinds of information units:

(a) *National population information centres* which collect, organize, store, retrieve and disseminate scientific and technical information both in its original format and in repackaged formats to researchers, teachers, university students, policy makers and programme personnel including staff of population education units and communication units;

(b) *Population education units* which repackage scientific and technical information in appropriate formats for in-school and out-of-school students;

(c) *Communication units* which repackage scientific and technical information in appropriate formats for the general public and disseminate it through the mass media and direct campaigns.

Similarly, in the field of population, global and regional forums have recognized the need for ready access to timely and reliable population data and information, and have endorsed recommendations and adopted resolutions aimed at improving their availability and accessibility. Most notable among these from the viewpoint of facilitating global transfer and exchange of population information was the adoption by the United Nations Economic and Social Council of resolution 1979/33 of May 1979, in which it requested the

Secretary-General "to facilitate, in collaboration with the regional commissions and the specialized agencies, the establishment of a Population Information Network (POPIN) as a decentralized network for the co-ordination of regional, national and non-governmental population activities, and to endeavour to obtain extra-budgetary resources for the functioning of an advisory group and a co-ordinating unit."

The global POPIN Co-ordinating Unit was established in January 1981, within the Population Division of the United Nations Secretariat. The 14-member POPIN Advisory Committee meets biennially to provide guidance and advice for the effective operation of the network. The ESCAP Population Division is the regional focal point for Asia-Pacific POPIN[2] which comprises national population information centres and networks in 13 member countries (see annex I for the organizational set-up of Asia-Pacific POPIN).

Asia-Pacific POPIN is one of several information networks co-ordinated by ESCAP. Others include the Trade Information Services Network (TISNET) and the Fertilizer Advisory, Development and Information Network for Asia and the Pacific (FADINAP).

In developing a model for the recently established project on a Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP), the aforementioned networks and the existing women's information infrastructures in countries of the Asian and Pacific region have been taken into account as well as the ultimate role of an information system which is to improve "matching" between problems and solutions at the national level.

A. Networking and focal points

One of the objectives of information networking is to overcome a situation in which an overload of unorganized information or a scarcity of appropriate information exists with regard to women's information. One way to cope with such a situation is to develop and maintain efficient information systems, starting at the national level with a well co-ordinated information network (or networks) linking the national information system components. The overall objective of the information system is to facilitate communication and information transfer in society. From this perspective the information system may be viewed as a decentralized diffusion system.

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[2] "Overview of worldwide population information networking and future strategies for population information networking in the Asia-Pacific region", (POP/EWGPIN/1), ESCAP, 1986, 26 p.

The more decentralized a diffusion system is, the more centrally co-ordinated its information system should be. Such a system will enhance information about "who-needs-what" and "who-knows/does-what". Two main structural elements of a decentralized diffusion system, such as POPIN or WINAP, are networking and focal points.

Networking

In order to develop an effective information infrastructure for a decentralized diffusion system, a well-co-ordinated network is essential. Communication/information networks are "grapevines" linking participants of a diffusion system. They are communication channels for information about various problems, needs, capabilities, and possible solutions (or innovations) generated by the participants of a particular diffusion system.

One of the most familiar forms of networking is a professional association. The fundamental role of a professional association is to facilitate information exchange among its members, giving them a certain sense of community usually through its conferences, meetings, and publications. Other examples of networking include colligeal networks, computer networks, library/information networks, invisible colleges and informal interpersonal networks.

Networking can uniquely facilitate horizontal communication if co-ordinated properly.[3] Networks are, however, difficult to establish and maintain. Success of a network depends largely on its co-ordinating body, i.e., a focal point.

Focal points in the information system

Decentralized diffusion systems need centralized *co-ordination*, i.e., a co-ordinating body. Such a co-ordinating body is often called a "focal point". At the national level, it is a unit that becomes a formal liaison point between its network and its environment (the networks of other countries and organizations external to a focal country), as well as a formal liaison point for its network members. The main objectives of a focal point of a decentralized diffusion

[3] In this context, horizontal communication refers to communication among countries and their affiliated subregional and regional organizations. Within a country, horizontal communication could be defined as communication among members of a particular professional, occupational or community group such as academics, policy makers, grassroots women's organizations and diagonal communication could be used to refer to communication between groups such as academics and policy makers, or policy makers and grassroots women's organizations.

network are to develop and maintain an efficient information system, and to facilitate information exchange among its network members. Specific activities of such a system may include the following:

(a) Management of information, i.e., collecting, processing, organizing, storing, retrieving and disseminating relevant data and information to identified user groups;

(b) Compilation and maintenance of directories;

(c) Publication and distribution of "network newsletters" and/or other types of periodical publications containing up-to-date information targetted for specific audiences;

(d) Organization of meetings, conferences, seminars and workshops among the participants of the system;

(e) Organization of training in skills required by participants of the system;

At the regional level, a co-ordinating unit should in addition to the above provide formal liaison:

(a) Among the countries in its region;

(b) Among the various subregional and regional networks;

(c) Between its region and other regions, as appropriate; and

(d) Between its region and global-level units and organizations, as appropriate.

As previously noted, the ultimate role of the information system is to improve "matching" between problems and solutions at the national level. Any efforts for developing information systems at the regional or global level should always consider development of the national-level systems as the most essential components.[4]

B. Proposed model for WINAP

A recent analysis by the Social Development Division of ESCAP of the existing structures of women's information networks in

[4] Kim, J.I., Technical co-operation among developing countries (TCDC): Improving the flow of TCDC information, prepared for the Conference on Communications, Mass Media and Development, Chicago, Illinois, 13-15 October 1983, 33 p.

countries of the Asian and Pacific region indicates the locus of the national machineries, the government ministries concerned with various aspects of women's affairs, the facilities for (a) data/statistics collection, (b) research, and (c) training, and the linkages abroad with (a) United Nations and other international organizations, (b) national governments and organizations, (c) academic and research institutes, and (d) international and national women's organizations. In addition, nearly 30 international women's organizations dealing with such areas of concern to women as law, labour, education, economics, health, *et cetera*, were identified.

Moreover, the paper prepared for presentation during consideration of agenda item 5(a) points out the valuable reservoir of information being accumulated by the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) through the reports prepared for and submitted to CEDAW by the States Parties.

The paper prepared for presentation during consideration of agenda item 5(b) examines existing data and proposes practical measures for improving information on the status of women in different socio-economic situations.

Existing information flows on women in the political, economic and social fields will be reviewed for their appropriateness in reflecting the reality of women's situations, and their adequacy for meeting the planning needs of governments and other entities and for monitoring the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women during consideration of agenda item 4. Organizational structures of existing information systems and networks in the region will also be reviewed during consideration of this agenda item.

Thus, a comprehensive view of the present situation and environment in which the Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific will function will have emerged during the seminar and will provide a basis for assessing the appropriateness and feasibility of the proposed model for WINAP.

C. Objectives of WINAP

Long-term objective

The long-term objective of WINAP is to improve the availability and accessibility of data and information on women in Asia and the Pacific.

Immediate objectives

The immediate objectives of WINAP are:

(a) To develop further and strengthen existing information systems and networks for women at the national level;

(b) To facilitate the establishment of new national and subregional information systems for women, as appropriate, where none now exist;

(c) To link existing and new information systems for women with the regional network centre established in the Social Development Division of ESCAP;

(d) To provide a channel for promoting co-operative activities among women in Asia and the Pacific;

(e) To provide an effective means of monitoring the advancement of women's status in the region in accordance with the provisions of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.

D. Organizational structure of WINAP

The regional focal point, or co-ordinating body, for WINAP will be the regional network centre established in the Social Development Division of ESCAP. The WINAP regional centre will establish linkages among the existing organizational structures in the region within the following categories:

(a) ESCAP members and associate members;

(b) Non-governmental organizations in Asia and the Pacific;

(c) Subregional groups/organizations;

(d) United Nations organizations with regional offices;

(e) Non-United Nations regional/international organizations;

(f) Other divisions within ESCAP.

Recognizing the global nature of women's issues and the need to improve the worldwide flow of information on women, the WINAP regional centre will also maintain linkages with global United Nations organizations, the activities of which are closely related to women's issues.

WINAP will be a decentralized network with focal points at national, subregional and regional levels and communication links with the types of organizations listed in (a)-(f) above. (see annex II for proposed model for a Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific: WINAP)

E. WINAP network functions

Developing an information system is like building a pyramid. Unless each country has developed its own information infrastructure well to serve as a base, the information system at the regional level will not be as effective and functional as it is expected to be, and the network linkages will be difficult to establish and maintain.

National level functions

In order to improve the availability and accessibility of data and information on women at the national and regional levels, the national women's information focal point in each participating country should:

(a) Collect (from originating or secondary sources), store, retrieve and disseminate numeric data (according to an agreed-upon minimum list of socio-economic indicators) to national policy makers, public administrators, non-governmental organizations, academics and others concerned with women's issues, in appropriate formats, and also provide copies of the data to the ESCAP WINAP regional centre on a regular basis for inclusion in a regional socio-economic indicators data base;[5]

(b) Maintain linkages (national WINAP mechanism) with all government offices, research/academic organizations, training institutes, non-governmental organizations and others concerned with women's affairs in the country;[6]

[5] In countries where facilities for such data collection and dissemination are not available within the national machinery, or where no national machinery has been established, the data collection and dissemination function could be delegated to an appropriate ministry, research institute, information centre, or women's organization. In these countries consideration should also be given to establishing a national women's clearinghouse or documentation/information centre, or designating the functions of such organization to an existing information centre in a related discipline such as population, or science and technology as is the case in Malaysia and Indonesia.

[6] The linkages among these national network units could be established by developing a directory of all such units (if none now exists) and disseminating information to them regularly on socio-economic indicators and trends in women's status, women's issues, women's activities, information resources, training opportunities, meetings, conferences, seminars, workshops, et cetera, through a national "WINAP newsletter".

(c) Monitor and disseminate bibliographic information on a regular basis to the national network units and to the ESCAP WINAP regional centre on the following:

(i) New periodicals relevant to women's concerns produced within the country (basic information to include title, ISSN, publisher, publisher's address, frequency of publication, and cost);[7]

(ii) Bibliographic sources of new studies and research, new projects on women in development and new technologies for women that have been published within the country (basic information to include author, title, publisher, publisher's address, date of publication, number of pages and cost);

(d) Monitor and disseminate information on a regular basis to the national network units and to the ESCAP WINAP regional centre on forthcoming and recently concluded special events relevant to women's concerns such as conferences, meetings, seminars, workshops and training programmes;[8]

(e) Organize meetings, seminars, workshops and training programmes, as feasible and appropriate; and

(f) Repackage information on women's issues in appropriate formats and disseminate it to the general public through the mass media.

Regional-level functions

In order to provide a regular channel of communication and improve the regional flow of data and information on women, the WINAP regional network centre established in the Social Development Division of ESCAP will:

(a) Produce and disseminate a women's information newsletter (regional "WINAP newsletter") on a biannual basis;

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[7] A directory of periodicals produced within the country and relevant to women's concerns, if not already compiled, should be undertaken by the national information focal point, or delegated to another unit within the network. The monitoring of periodicals would be limited to the identification of new periodicals on a continuing basis and the timely dissemination of such information, e.g., through the national WINAP newsletter.

[8] Whenever possible, information on forthcoming events should include information on eligibility requirements for participants and cost, if applicable. Information on special events that have recently taken place should include a brief summary of the proceedings or highlights of the event.

(b) Maintain directory data bases on (i) women experts in the Asian and Pacific region, (ii) national focal points for women, (iii) non-governmental organizations concerned with women's issues, and publish and disseminate the information periodically;[9]

(c) Maintain a numeric data base according to an agreed-upon minimum list of socio-economic indicators (updated periodically as new data are provided by the national women's information focal points) and periodically disseminate the data in appropriate formats to the national networks, subregional, regional and global organizations;[10]

(d) Maintain a bibliographic data base of periodical titles relevant to women's concerns, current studies and research related to women's issues, current projects on women in development, and technologies for women;

(e) Provide on request information search services from the numeric, directory and bibliographic data bases;

(f) Survey existing information regularly supplied by countries to the United Nations (for example, education data to UNESCO; labour force participation data to ILO);

(g) Maintain regular information exchange with (i) non-governmental organizations in Asia and the Pacific, (ii) subregional groups/organizations, (iii) non-United Nations regional/international organizations, and (iv) global United Nations organizations the activities of which are closely related to women's issues;[11]

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[9] Information for creating and updating the directory data bases should be provided to the regional centre by the national women's information focal points on a regular basis.

[10] Tables of socio-economic indicators or summaries of trends in improvements in the status of women could be published from time to time in the regional WINAP newsletter.

[11] These linkages could be established and maintained through the regular exchange of newsletters and other publications and mutual participation at meetings, as appropriate. At the global level, activities and information resources of particular importance to WINAP include the Development of Women Knowledge Bank (DWKB) being undertaken by the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), New York, the development of global socio-economic indicators being undertaken by United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) and the United Nation Statistical Office, and the activities of the United Nations Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs (UNCSDHA) as the global focal point for the advancement of women. Regular exchange of data and information between the WINAP regional centre and these global units would be essential for improving the availability and accessibility of information on the status of women both within the region and globally.

(h) Maintain regular information exchange with regional-based United Nations organizations through the Inter-agency Committee on Women in Development;

(i) Maintain regular information exchange within ESCAP through the Inter-divisional Task Force on the Integration of Women into ESCAP Priority Concerns;

(j) Provide technical support and advisory services to countries to develop their national mechanisms for participation in WINAP;

(k) Organize seminars and training workshops at the national, subregional and regional levels on development and management of women's information network-related projects and programmes;[12]

(l) Undertake research studies on selected issues to monitor the changing situation of women in the region and disseminate the research findings through the regional network mechanisms.

F. Recommended actions for implementation

As previously pointed out, the ultimate role of an information system is to improve "matching" between problems and solutions at the national level. Any efforts for developing information systems at the regional or global level should always consider development of the national level systems as the most essential components. Thus, the early establishment of network mechanisms and implementation of network functions at the national level are of primary improtance to the effective implementation of a regional women's information network.

Country-level actions

(a) Develop an action plan to strengthen organizational structure of the national women's information focal point to include (among others) the following:

(i) Form an inter-agency committee to meet, and

(a) assess the data and information needs for policy formulation and programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation for the full integration of women in development, and

[12] Seminars and training workshops will be designed to upgrade managerial and organizational capabilities in such areas as the development of information systems, use of microcomputers and establishment of data banks.

(b) develop a plan for effecting the needed improvements in data collection and analysis;

(b) Under this action plan, establish linkages with national units and with the WINAP regional centre according to guidelines proposed above in the WINAP model; and

(c) Establish a system of information exchange in accordance with the guidelines proposed in the WINAP model;

(d) Introduce, as appropriate, modern information handling technology, such as microcomputer applications for data and information processing, in the further development of the national information systems.

Regional-level actions

(a) Strengthen regional information flows through WINAP by:

(i) Undertaking an initial survey of existing numeric data and bibliographic information regularly supplied by countries to United Nations agencies; and

(ii) Initiate a mechanism for the periodic collection of numeric data on socio-economic indicators according to an agreed-upon minimum list, and for the regular collection of bibliographic information from the national women's information focal points in accordance with guidelines proposed in the WINAP model;

(b) Strengthen the organizational structure of the WINAP regional focal point by:

(i) Developing coumputerized numeric, directory and bibliographic data bases according to guidelines proposed in the WINAP model;

(ii) Development of regular information dissemination system beginning with issuance of regional WINAP newsletter on a biannual basis;

(iii) Development of information search services for women from the computerized numeric, directory and bibliographic data bases;

(iv) Establishment of linkages for regular information exchange with

a. non-governmental organizations in Asia and the Pacific,

b. subregional groups/organizations, and

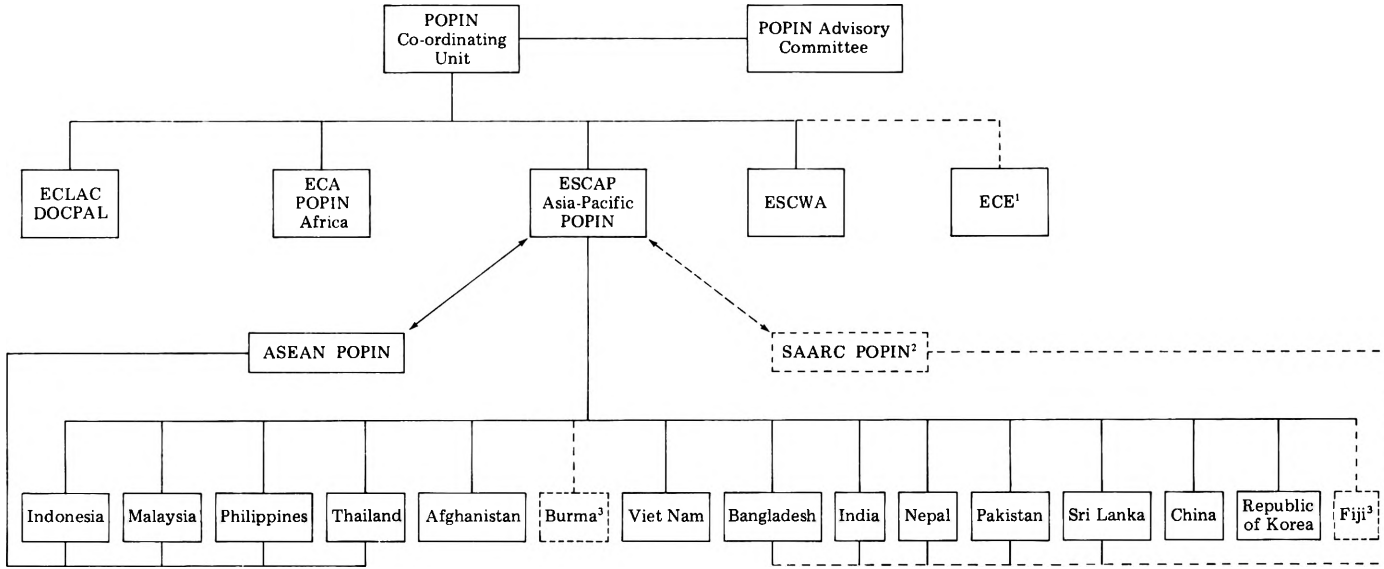
c. non-United Nations regional/international organizations in accordance with guidelines proposed in the WINAP model; and

(v) Establishment of regular information exchange through the Inter-divisional Task Force and the Inter-agency Committee on Women in Development.

(c) Strengthen global-level information flows through the development of linkages for the regular exchange with global organizations of data and information on women in development in accordance with guidelines proposed in the WINAP model.

Annex I

ASIA-PACIFIC POPIN: A DECENTRALIZED NETWORK RESPONDING TO REGIONAL AND NATIONAL NEEDS



[1] Not organized as a "POPIN network". Has its own developed linkages; supports global POPIN.

[2] Potential subregional grouping.

[3] Proposed national centres.

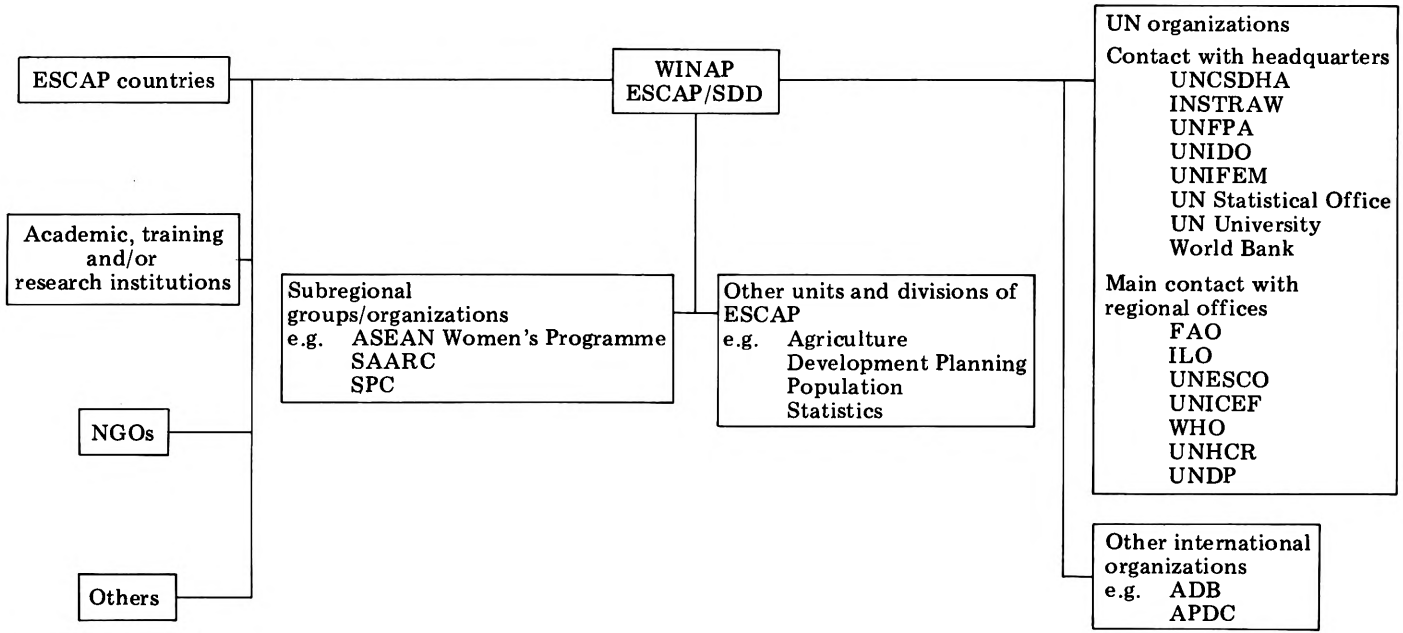
←→ Consultative linkages.

December 1986.

For list of acronyms, see annex III.

Annex II

A MODEL FOR A WOMEN'S INFORMATION NETWORK FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC: WINAP



Notes: All connecting lines represent two-way communication.

For list of acronyms, see annex III.

Annex III

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ADB	:	Asian Development Bank
APDC	:	Asian and Pacific Development Centre
ASEAN	:	Association of South-East Asian Nations
DOCPAL	:	Sistema de Documentacion sobre Poblacion en America Latina (Latin American Population Documentation System)
ECA	:	Economic Commission for Africa
ECE	:	Economic Commission for Europe
ECLAC	:	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
ESCAP	:	Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
ESCWA	:	Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia
FAO	:	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
ILO	:	International Labour Organisation
INSTRAW	:	International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women
NGOs	:	non-governmental organizations
POPIN	:	Population Information Network
SAARC	:	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SDD	:	Social Development Division (of ESCAP)
SPC	:	South Pacific Commission
UNCSDHA	:	United Nations Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	:	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNHCR	:	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	:	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIDO	:	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNIFEM	:	United Nations Development Fund for Women
WHO	:	World Health Organization