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Correspondence

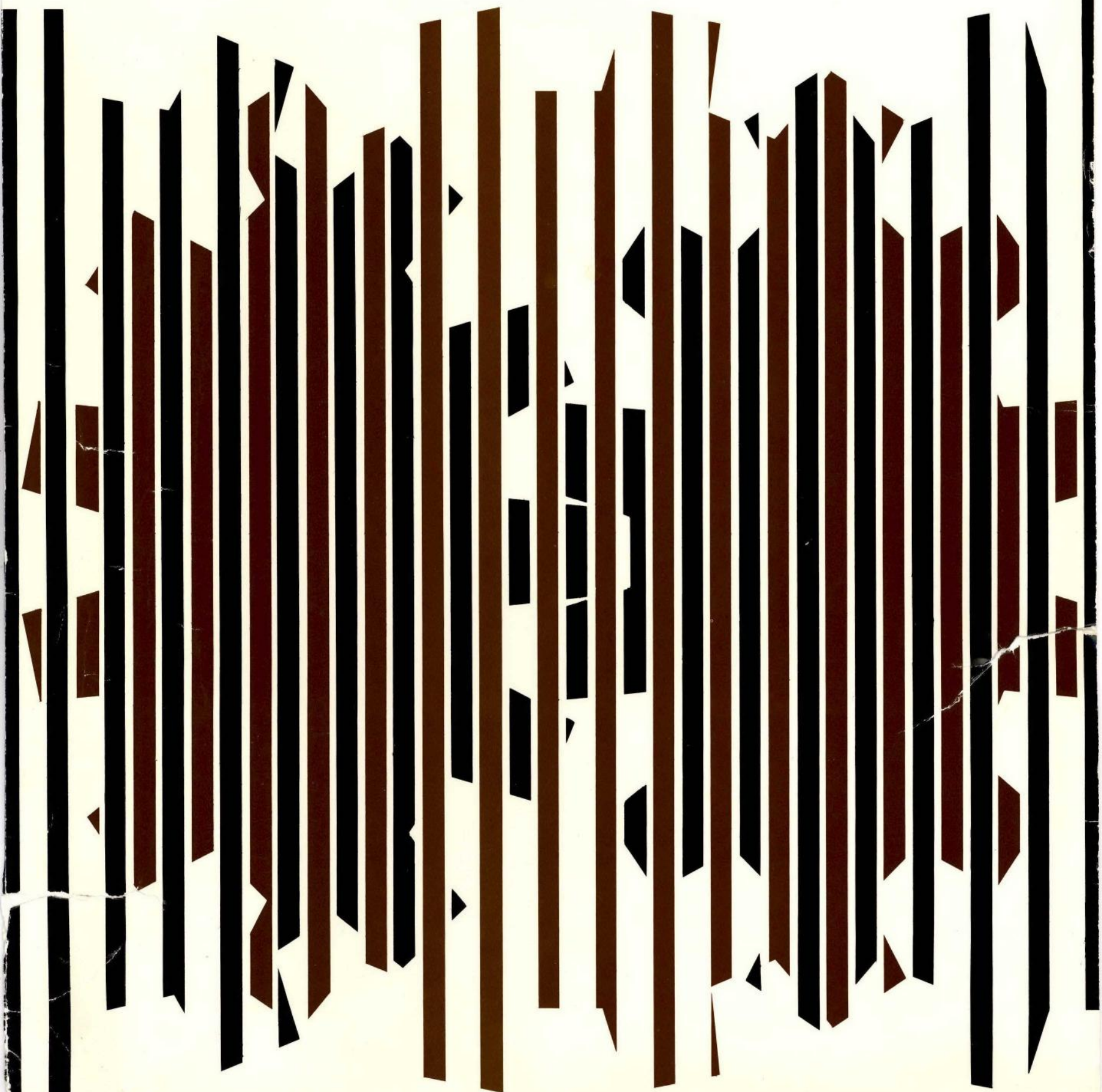
United Nations Industrial Development Organization

UNIDO

Organisation des Nations Unies pour le développement industriel



A



UNIDO

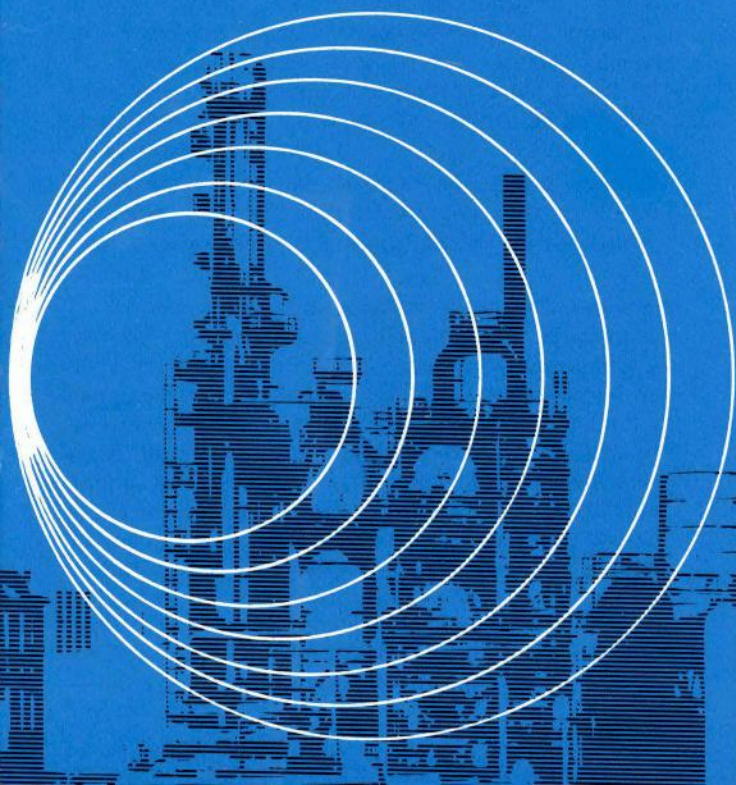


UNITED NATIONS
INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION

What it is

What it does

How it works



WHAT IS UNIDO?

The United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) came into being in January 1967, as a result of resolution 2152 (XXI) adopted two months earlier by the United Nations General Assembly, "to promote and accelerate the industrialization of the developing countries". The mandate also made UNIDO responsible for co-ordinating within the United Nations all activities related to this objective. Vienna was chosen as the headquarters, following an offer from Austria to provide suitable facilities.

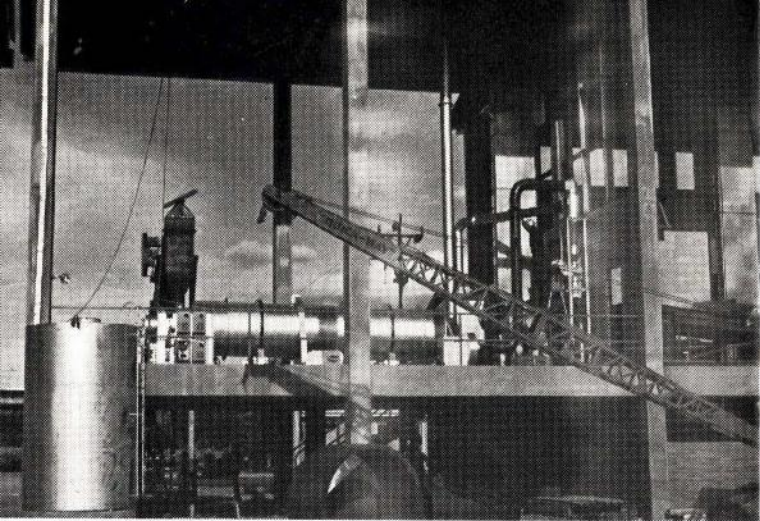
The Executive Director is Abd-El Rahman Khane, a national of Algeria, who succeeded the first Executive Director, Ibrahim Helmi Abdel-Rahman, a national of Egypt, on 1 January 1975.

FINANCE AND POLICIES

Under the terms by which it was established, UNIDO is an integral part of the United Nations. All Member States together with those belonging to the specialized agencies and the International Atomic Energy Agency are eligible for election to the policy-making Industrial Development Board, on which 45 States are represented. At each annual General Assembly, 15 members are elected to the Board for three-year periods under quotas ensuring an equitable geographical representation.

Expenses for the administrative and research activities of UNIDO—approximately \$20 million a year—are borne by the regular budget of the United Nations.

Technical assistance activities are financed mainly by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), partly under its allocations to assist national development programmes. UNIDO expenditure as an executing agency for UNDP is around \$27 million a year, though the total value of projects undertaken during the first nine years, many of which will take years to complete, was over \$250 million. UNDP also earmarks \$3.5 million annually for the Special Industrial Services (SIS) programme devised by UNIDO as a way of meeting emergencies or other needs for which no other budgeting provision has been made. Out of this UNDP allocation, \$1 million is expected to be used on behalf of the least developed countries.



Additionally, UNIDO draws \$2 million a year from the United Nations regular programme of technical assistance. A General Trust Fund of voluntary contributions, for which an annual pledging conference has produced a total of \$21 million since 1968, enables UNIDO to undertake special projects. Other sums are placed in trust with UNIDO by Governments that want work undertaken in their own countries.

In carrying out its task, UNIDO provides technical assistance at the request of Governments under the system of the United Nations by which countries with sufficient money make contributions and recipient countries pay as much as they can afford. Direct assistance, which has been extended to 120 countries, takes the form of providing equipment and using staff members, experts in all branches of industry and consultants; these operational activities are supported by studies, research and dissemination of information.

Ideas about the role of industrialization in national development, and the priorities to be followed, have been continuously modified ever since the United Nations system came into existence, as more and more countries obtained independence and built up experience of their own. United Nations technical co-operation started in regional economic commissions and in agencies when their specialized programmes required industrial support. Development of a co-ordinated approach to industry emerged from a conference of all Member States convened in 1963 to examine the application of science and technology to

development. Agreement in principle to set up an autonomous industrial development organization was reached in 1965 and the final decision made on 17 November 1966.

Evolution continues. Early guidelines for UNIDO were laid down at an international symposium on industrialization held at Athens in 1967. These were subject to amendment as necessary by the Industrial Development Board and were re-examined at a general conference in Vienna in 1971 attended by 104 countries. Here a long-term strategy was put forward, later elaborated by high-level experts and an *ad hoc* committee set up by the Industrial Development Board. Policies were further influenced by international crises after 1973, the decision of the United Nations General Assembly in 1974 to establish a new international economic order, and views expressed at a series of important international meetings held since then.

For UNIDO a milestone was reached at its Second General Conference, held at Lima, Peru, in March 1975. Here the standpoints of various groups of countries were brought closer together and a sense of international interdependence demonstrated with the adoption of the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development and Co-operation, subsequently endorsed by the United Nations General Assembly.

The central decision at Lima was that the share of world industrial production by the developing countries should reach 25 per cent by the year 2000,





against the present figure of 7 per cent. Nearly three quarters of the globe's population live in developing countries.

A need for UNIDO to strengthen its ability to advise on industrial developments, strategies and trends was stressed in the Declaration and Plan. UNIDO was further asked to organize international consultations on all aspects of industrialization and where necessary to serve as a forum for negotiations on redeployment of productive capacities. Ways of strengthening UNIDO so that it could co-ordinate more effectively industrialization activities within the United Nations system were also recommended.

As a means of improving the ability of UNIDO to contribute to the production target, the Lima conference recommended that the organization be transformed into a specialized agency, independent of the United Nations for finance and administration. The process of implementing the recommendation, which also includes the establishment of an Industrial Development Fund of voluntary contributions for special operational tasks, has been initiated, starting with a committee open to all Members of the United Nations, the specialized agencies and the International Atomic Energy Agency, to draft a constitution for the new UNIDO.

FUNCTIONS

In fulfilling its mandate, UNIDO:

- Provides assistance to developing countries, particularly to expand, modernize and operate their industries, including agro-based or agro-related and basic industries;
- Undertakes operational activities, including measures for effective application of modern methods of industrial production, programming and planning, establishment and strengthening of industrial institutions; development, adaptation and transfer of technology; and training of personnel;
- Provides a forum and acts as an instrument for the developing and industrialized countries in their contacts, consultations and negotiations directed towards industrialization of the developing countries;
- Assists developing countries in obtaining external financing for industrial projects;
- Offers advisory services, in co-operation with other United Nations bodies, on the exploitation and efficient utilization of natural resources, industrial raw materials, by-products and new products;
- Co-operates with regional commissions in industrial development planning and in regional consultations, with particular attention to the needs of the least developed countries;
- Develops concepts and undertakes action-oriented studies and research programmes to facilitate the activities mentioned;
- Works to co-ordinate all activities of the United Nations system relating to industrial development.

OPERATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Services available from UNIDO to Governments of developing countries that so request are extremely varied. Setting up and initiating the operation of factories, launching pilot or demonstration plants, promoting domestic or outside investment, improving infrastructure and other activities meant carrying out more than 10,000 projects in 10 years.

All these programmes entail assignments of experts, at present around 1,300 a year. By 1976, UNIDO had supplied equipment and contracts for consultancy work amounting to about \$40 million. Included in the activities have been schemes for using hides and skins to make leather goods in Fiji, India, Mongolia and Yemen by large and small enterprises; for producing pollution-free pesticides in Swaziland and neighbouring African countries; for encouraging standards of quality to improve exports from Brazil, Ecuador, Ghana, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Nigeria and Thailand; for building up knowledge of the use and production of fertilizers in many areas where the high cost is of urgent concern, as in Egypt, Ethiopia, Ivory Coast, Jamaica, Syrian Arab Republic and Togo; for developing the textile industry in Egypt, Indonesia, Mongolia, Pakistan and Thailand; for improving land and sea transport for Bhutan, Costa Rica, India, Iran, Mauritius and Peru; and for improving food processing in Afghanistan, Bolivia, Madagascar, Morocco and Romania.

Most of these examples relate to agriculture. UNIDO has also helped many countries of Asia and Africa to produce agricultural tools and machinery and seven countries of the Sudano-Sahelian zone to improve irrigation.

Random instances of projects in the metal-products industries include a pilot mechanical workshop and foundry in Somalia and the Sudan, a research and development centre in the Philippines and large-scale tool and die production in Trinidad and Tobago. Projects covering all aspects of electrical machinery and apparatus from the preparation of performance specifications to physical and electrical design of products, components and process-control systems have been implemented in Bulgaria, Hong Kong and the Republic of Korea to a value of about \$2 million. A boat-building facility is being established for the United Republic of Tanzania at Lake Victoria to encourage fisheries. Maintenance and repair facilities are being improved in Colombia, Egypt, Jamaica, Mali and Morocco. Nearly 100 small-scale metallurgical projects have been initiated. Active work in two continents has been in progress for some time on the processing of ilmenite concentrates, while the Third Interregional Iron and Steel Symposium, organized by UNIDO in 1973, has led to much preliminary research



work. Large-scale efforts to ensure sources of metallurgical technology have been undertaken in Chile, Egypt, India, Mexico, Pakistan, Turkey and Yugoslavia. Chemicals, petrochemicals, pharmaceuticals, woodworking, ceramics and printing are other industries being promoted in many countries.

An integrated industrialization process involving all sectors is necessary, according to the Lima Declaration and Plan. Steel, metallurgical and petrochemical industries are among those constituting the indispensable basis, and these have also been given priority by UNIDO in arranging international consultations. A report on the iron and steel industry as a whole, and on prospects for expansion through international cooperation, has been prepared as a follow-up to the Third Interregional Iron and Steel Symposium. Efforts to create, transfer and apply metallurgical know-how have been initiated with UNIDO assistance in Chile, Egypt, India, Mexico, Pakistan, Turkey and Yugoslavia. The drive to economize in costs of fertilizers has led to missions and study meetings in Asia, Africa, Australasia, Europe and the Middle East, and Latin America, and projects to assist production in a number of countries. Projects concerned with the establishment of plants and laboratories for the production of plastics and with quality control and testing have been undertaken in Argentina, Burma, India, Kuwait, Rwanda, Syrian Arab Republic and Uruguay. Training courses and other meetings have been held in Argentina, Austria, Colombia, Federal Republic of

Germany, Iran, Netherlands, Romania and Yugoslavia. These are in addition to the permanent joint UNIDO/Romania Centre for research and development, which in late 1975 and early 1976 sent a 13-man team on a three-month expedition to the Sudano-Sahelian area to demonstrate the processing and use of plastics for water conservation, especially in desert conditions.

Adequate standards of packaging can make the difference between profit and loss to industry. As a result of growing interest in the subject, UNIDO has given assistance to more than 70 developing countries. A new approach will allow for the organization of national, regional and interregional centres according to specific conditions. Standardization, quality control and metrology have also brought market improvements when seriously applied, as in Thailand. Large-scale projects have been established in Brazil, Iran, Mexico, Nigeria, Turkey, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zaire and short-term assistance given in many others.

THE LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Special programmes are being devised to meet the desperate needs of the least developed of the developing countries, especially those having the additional disadvantages of being either land-locked or surrounded by large expanses of ocean. UNIDO follows resolutions of the General Assembly and the Industrial Development Board as well as the demands of the Lima Declaration in formulating special action. The United Nations listed 29 of these countries in 1975. All but 7 of them were also included among the 44 countries most seriously affected by economic crises.

In addition to arranging the mobile demonstration of plastics for agricultural use, UNIDO has sent missions to Bangladesh, Nepal, Sudan and Uganda to prepare for projects and identify areas for further co-operation and has made arrangements to examine the short- and long-term needs of industry. Money earmarked by UNDP for the SIS programme has been used to meet the costs of exploratory efforts by the countries themselves. Other UNIDO initiatives have included interregional plans to manufacture agricultural tools, implements, machines and power equipment, participation in meetings and joint studies

of export-oriented industries. Regional efforts include assistance, centred at Dakar, Senegal, in developing solar or other forms of energy for drought-affected countries and help in obtaining financing for special enterprises.

Progress in carrying out the projects is often held up while the basic physical, intellectual and financial lacks are being remedied. Physical needs are for road, rail, water and communications services; intellectual needs are for training, information and technology; and financial needs are for domestic or outside mobilization of resources and ways of relieving the crippling effects of debts or soaring prices of goods. All these problems are being studied by UNIDO.

"FIRE BRIGADE" SERVICES

Sometimes described as the UNIDO "fire brigade", the Special Industrial Services programme is a way of bypassing rigid rules in an emergency. Urgent problems arising in the operation of plants, disasters, and a sudden need for information affecting investment have brought calls for help.

Examples of SIS assistance have included rehabilitating devastated industrial plants in Romania, studying the feasibility of a modern mill for locally grown cereals in Upper Volta, planning the development of petrochemicals in Peru and advising on the establishment of an investment promotion centre in Lebanon. Others among more than 1,000 requests met have been for soap and glycerine making in Iran, manufacture of agricultural machinery in Jordan, reorientation of the textile industry of Brazil and measures to promote Malaysian exports.

Originally, funds for this programme came from voluntary contributions; but when these were exhausted, the Governing Council of UNDP agreed to earmark funds, now amounting to \$3.5 million annually. Out of this amount \$1 million is expected to be used for the least developed countries.

SUPPORTING THE OPERATIONS

Field operations cannot be carried out in a vacuum; background information or preparations are essential to make them effective. Supporting programmes



include studies, research, exchanges of information, training to upgrade skills, help with product adaptation to meet market requirements and promotion of investments or joint enterprises.

About 60 international meetings, enabling experience to be shared or special problems to be examined, are organized every year, many of them in collaboration with Governments or industrial organizations. Those taking part range from personnel wishing to increase their knowledge and improve their skills through experts discussing modern techniques to high-level government and business officials, and the conclusions or recommendations are published. Subjects in recent years have included the manufacture of agricultural machinery in developing countries, ways of increasing exports, natural and artificial materials for cheaper housing, packaging, developments in iron and steel, ecological effects of industries, use of skins and hides, marketing strategies, industrial free zones, food processing and fertilizer production.

In-plant training programmes provide opportunities for engineers and technicians from developing countries to receive practical industrial training in advanced countries and to catch up with technological developments. Countries with specialized experience co-operate by providing facilities, instruction and sometimes the finance. By the end of 1976, more than 150 programmes had been carried out, from which nearly 3,000 trainees benefited. Besides the basic industries and the related engineering techniques, the

programmes have included subjects such as industrial co-operatives, industrial information, integrated management and quality control.

One of the functions of UNIDO is to provide a clearing-house for industrial information covering all aspects and all available technology. Factors affecting prospects for industrialization in developing countries have been reviewed in six periodic Industrial Development Surveys, the last being especially prepared as a comprehensive basic document for the Second General Conference. These volumes are unique assemblies of statistics and data from many sources. They also review developments and trends. After the Lima conference, UNIDO set up an International Centre for Industrial Studies, marking an advance from action-oriented studies directly related to developing countries to global and conceptual, regional and country, and sectoral research, including development and transfer of technology. The work is now designed to benefit the entire world community.

A section of the Centre includes a library and an Industrial Inquiry Service. Establishment of national and regional information centres, services and systems and continuing collaboration with them is part of the development of industrial infrastructure. The free inquiry service uses its own files, headquarters specialists and a network of correspondents. Industry is assisted to select appropriate equipment and technologies, and a computerized roster of available consultants is maintained.



STIMULATING PARTNERSHIP

As a middleman, UNIDO encourages direct contact between the financial and business communities of the industrialized world and their counterparts in the developing countries, to the profit of both. By laying the groundwork and sponsoring meetings at which the two sides can decide how to combine resources of money, know-how or marketing expertise with ideas for projects, natural resources or plentiful labour, UNIDO seeks to liberate vast reserves of resources not normally available through an international organization. Early meetings in Africa and Asia brought proposals for potential investments of billions of dollars, but more recently the tendency has been to concentrate on selected sectors.

A series of meetings made possible by a Government's gift of special funds has resulted in an international exchange, between bankers concerned with development, of information related to industrialization.

Through its Fair Promotional Activities, UNIDO has taken advantage of more than 20 industrial and trade fairs to activate contacts between businessmen from advanced and developing countries. Industrialists use a centre established by UNIDO at each fair to register their special interests and needs and to indicate the type of counterpart they would like to meet. Confidential negotiations, sometimes with the help of UNIDO advisers, are then arranged.

Contributions from the Belgian Government have enabled UNIDO to set up a promotion service, with an office in Brussels, to facilitate contacts and consultations between businessmen from developing countries and their counterparts in European industrial and financial organizations. Besides promoting investments in proposed projects, the office assists in the search for appropriate technologies, fosters or organizes consultations between the two sides, furnishes facilities and advisory services especially for those who have no investment or promotion office in Europe, makes information available and organizes visits likely to improve contacts. Help is also provided in arranging training. The office was set up in 1976, and its experience may lead to an extension of the service to other parts of the world.

THE MACHINERY

Within UNIDO, the Executive Director is responsible for all programmes and organizational matters by which the guidelines laid down by the Industrial Development Board are implemented. He has created five divisions, subdivided into appropriate sections and has emphasized the intention to promote teamwork. Two divisions are located within the Executive Director's office—the Division of Policy Co-ordination, which also has liaison offices in New York and Geneva; and the Division of Conference Services, Public Information and External Relations. The other three are the International Centre for Industrial Studies, the Industrial Operations Division and the Administrative Services Division.

UNIDO-appointed industrial development field advisers co-ordinate projects within countries. They establish direct contact with Governments and with UNDP resident representatives to deal with specific matters relating to industrial development and the formulation of requests for technical assistance.

The Industrial Development Board at its annual meeting decides on policies after hearing reports from the Executive Director and from its own subsidiary Permanent Committee, whose twice-yearly meetings examine UNIDO activities in detail. The Board then reports to the United Nations General Assembly through the Economic and Social Council, and the Assembly takes decisions as the final authority. Among past decisions have been the convening of general conferences and a request in 1971 that the Secretary-General appoint a group of high-level experts to recommend long-term strategy for the organization.



Conversion of UNIDO into a specialized agency will call for a decision by States on a new chain of authority, possibly from a periodic general conference of Member States through the Board to the head of the agency. It will also bring responsibility for budgetary matters and for administrative questions, all now decided entirely by the United Nations.

INTERRELATIONSHIP

Much of the work of UNIDO is directly concerned with problems critical for the world—food shortages, multiplying populations, pollution. Other United Nations bodies are also closely affected, and the need for collaboration stressed at Lima becomes ever more urgent. An Inter-Agency Programme Co-ordination Section is now operating in the Division of Policy Co-ordination and is continuing the co-operative work undertaken since UNIDO came into existence. An Investment Co-operative Programme Office in the Industrial Operations Division administers a programme jointly with the World Bank under which loans of more than \$20 million have been made for projects in Yemen and Yugoslavia.

UNIDO is also engaged with the World Bank and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) in studies of fertilizer requirements and production, the complexity of which has changed with soaring increases in costs. With the World Health Organization (WHO), UNIDO is tackling such problems as the technology of manufacturing pharmaceuticals at fair prices; with the International Labour Organisation (ILO), it collaborates in improving productivity and developing management standards. Applied research is undertaken in co-operation with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), while market studies and export promotion campaigns necessarily require agreement with the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). Investigations on environmental effects of industry are being made in a programme arranged with the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). Links between all United Nations bodies are being drawn closer through the work of a new advisory committee, with UNIDO providing the chairman.



ROUTING SLIP / FICHE DE TRANSMISSION

TO: Ms. Gloria Scott
 A: Ms. Gloria Scott

FROM: Sjamsiah Achmad
 DE: Sjamsiah Achmad

Room No./NO de bureau	Extension/Poste	Date
E1206 CSD/HA/BAW	4247	5 May 1983

FOR ACTION		POUR SUITE A DONNER
FOR APPROVAL		POUR APPROBATION
FOR SIGNATURE		POUR SIGNATURE
FOR COMMENTS		POUR OBSERVATIONS
MAY WE DISCUSS?		POURRIONS-NOUS EN PARLER?
YOUR ATTENTION		VOTRE ATTENTION
AS DISCUSSED		COMME CONVENU
AS REQUESTED		SUITE A VOTRE DEMANDE
NOTE AND RETURN		NOTER ET RETOURNER
FOR INFORMATION	X	POUR INFORMATION

With the agreement of UNIDO attached herewith, for your information, the contribution of UNIDO to the preparation of Questionnaire for the Review and Appraisal Report to the World Conference to Review and Appraise the UNDW.

Also attached the contribution of FAO for your information.



UNIDO

UNITED NATIONS INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION

VIENNA INTERNATIONAL CENTRE

P.O. BOX 300, A-1000 VIENNA, AUSTRIA

TELEPHONE: 26 310 TELEGRAPHIC ADDRESS: UNIDO VIENNA TELEX: 135612

REFERENCE:

22 April 1983

Dear Ms. Sellami-Meslem,

I refer to the recommendations of the First Interagency Meeting on the preparations for the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women.

As you are aware, UNIDO was nominated as the lead agency for that section of the review and appraisal concerned with industry. In the interim period we have had the opportunity to study the draft prepared by ILO concerning participation of women in the labour force. A number of the questions which UNIDO would have raised in relation to industry are indirectly incorporated in this section of the questionnaire. It would, therefore, be advisable to break down those general questions so as to collect data in respect of the manufacturing sector, e.g. questions regarding employment, legislation and training, such as I.2, I.5, I.8, and II.1.iv (which should be enlarged to cover industry as a whole), III.2, III.5, III.12, IV.7, V.5, VI.1, VI.4.

Certain items are of particular interest to UNIDO. These include firstly the extent to which women are involved in government planning, notably the drawing up of industrial development plans. A second point of specific interest is the extent to which training schemes have been introduced to enhance the managerial skills of women particularly in those industries where a large element of the work force is female. We feel that the questionnaire should specifically emphasize these points.

There are, however, a number of specific questions, regarding industry, which we would wish to be incorporated in the final questionnaire. These are:-

Ms. C. Sellami-Meslem
Director
Advancement of Women Branch
CSDHA
Vienna International Centre

A. Technological Developments

1. Have new industrial technologies been introduced since 1975 which affect the role of women as producers? If so, indicate the specific industrial sectors and technologies.

(i) Have these new technologies served to ameliorate conditions of life for women? If yes, specify how and to what extent.

(ii) Have these new technologies had a negative impact on women? If yes, specify how and to what extent.

2. Have new industrial technologies been introduced since 1975 which affected women as users of these technologies? If so, indicate the specific technologies.

(i) Have these new technologies served to ameliorate conditions of life for women? If yes, specify how and to what extent.

(ii) Have these new technologies had a negative impact on women? If yes, specify how and to what extent.

(In examining women as "users of technologies", what UNIDO had in mind is e.g. the introduction of such technologies as biogas and solar pumps, which in a number of countries have had a substantial impact on the workload of women.)

B. Industrial Infrastructure

1. Has new industrial infrastructure (e.g. industrial estates and export processing zones) been established since 1975?

(i) If so, do these estates operate under national labour legislation?

(ii) Have any training facilities been established within the new infrastructure?

(iii) In which industrial sector?

2. In the case of new industrial infrastructure, to what extent do transnational corporations benefit from these developments? (Specify industrial sectors of TNCs.)



3. What is the percentage of female labour in:
 - industrial estates and export processing zones?
 - transnational corporations?
4. Wage differentials in relation to 3. above.

C. Industrial Sectors

1. Which industrial sectors and subsectors have developed since 1975, which have a decisive impact on the role of women as part of the industrial labour force?
2. What is the current percentage of women employed in industrial sectors, using the International Standard Industrial Classification (at the level of 3 digits)?
3. In which sectors/subsectors of industry would special programmes be required to improve women's participation?

I trust that this contribution will be of assistance to you. However, in the event that you feel a different approach is necessary in the questionnaire, we would be prepared to discuss the matter further.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read 'D.G.A. Butaev'.

D.G.A. Butaev
Chairman

Interdivisional Working Group
on Integration of Women
in Industrial Development



FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS
ORGANISATION DES NATIONS UNIES POUR L'ALIMENTATION ET L'AGRICULTURE
ORGANIZACION DE LAS NACIONES UNIDAS PARA LA AGRICULTURA Y LA ALIMENTACION

التحفة لاذم الزراعة
Ms. Sellami

Via delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100 - ROME

Cables: FOODAGRI ROME

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Ref. UN 3/74 In reply please mention
our subject and ref.
and date of this letter
Dear Ms. C. Sellami-Meslem,

APR 27 1983
3032/8

As agreed at the Inter-Agency Meeting on Preparations for the 1985 UN Conference for Women (Vienna, 21-22 February 1983), we have enclosed FAO's draft Rural Development Section for the Questionnaire on Review and Appraisal. We would appreciate your review and comments to be received by cable or telephone by Monday, 9 May 1983.

To ensure a more comprehensive response, it is important to involve various government ministries (such as Agriculture, Rural Development and Planning) as well as Women in Development Mechanisms in this reporting exercise. Therefore, the questions have been grouped to facilitate responses by different government units.

We have also suggested a fixed choice type of questionnaire rather than open-ended question for the following reasons:

- a fixed choice questionnaire provides for easier completion;
- questions are specific enough to yield useful information for the 1985 Conference, the UN Commission on the Status of Women, FAO and also for government;
- fixed-choice options maximize the comparability of responses;
- vague or evasive responses are minimized;
- the response will be easier for the Agencies to process;
- by presenting a series of options, the questionnaire can be a vehicle for raising consciousness of issues which might otherwise be overlooked.

Please cable or phone your comments to Ms. Alice Carloni, FAO Consultant (FAO 5797 ext: 4762) or Ms. Paula Goddard (FAO 5797 ext: 3548). We apologize for the delay in submitting these draft questions, but are grateful for your collaboration in undertaking this important review and appraisal and your comments by the 9th of May.

With best wishes.

Yours sincerely,

REGISTRY

Ms. C. Sellami-Meslem
Director
Branch for the Advancement of Women
CSDHA, Vienna International Centre

Ruth Finney
Chief, ESHH

33 MAY 3 17:16

COLLABORATING AGENCIES/ORGANIZATIONS--RURAL DEVELOPMENT SECTION

UN QUESTIONNAIRE--REVIEW AND APPRAISAL

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Vienna International Centre

Ms. C. Sellani-Meslem
Director
Branch for the Advancement of Women
CSDHA
Vienna International Centre

RURAL DEVELOPMENT

1. Integration of women in rural development policies and strategies

1.1 Indicate whether rural women are explicitly identified as a target group in the National Development Plan, sectoral plans, proclamations or other policy statements regarding the following: (yes/no)

Agriculture

- Food crops
- Cash crops
- Livestock, poultry or dairy
- Fisheries
- Forestry
- Agricultural exports
- Agricultural employment

Food policy and security

- Food production
- Food processing and storage; prevention of food losses
- Food marketing
- Food preferences (including import substitution)
- Nutrition

Agrarian reform

- Receipt of land allotments
- Settlement/resettlement

Rural institutions

- Farmers' cooperatives
- Village organizations
- Women's cooperatives (and pre-cooperative groupings)
- Rural women's organizations

Rural services

- Agricultural training and extension
- Home economics extension/nutrition education
- Agricultural credit
- Drinking water/rural water supply
- Family planning/population education
- Literacy *
- Primary education *
- Primary health care/mother-child health*

1.2 Specify the main target groups identified by policy makers and planners: (check categories receiving explicit attention)

- farm families (no separate mention of rural women)
- rural women (no mention of specific categories of women)
- female heads of households
- women in areas of high male out-migration
- women in small farm households
- women in landless rural households
- female wage labourers
- teenaged girls
- pregnant and lactating mothers
- other (specify: plantation workers, nomads, refugees, etc.)

* These items may overlap with other agencies' questions

1.3 Indicate whether the following data items are available at the national level (include percentages, where available, and source of data):

- women as a percentage of the agricultural labour force _____

SOURCE:

- female wage workers as a percentage of women economically active in agriculture _____

SOURCE:

- percentage of rural households headed by women _____

SOURCE:

- percentage of landless rural households headed by women _____

SOURCE:

- women as a percentage of holders of agricultural land _____

SOURCE:

1.4 Indicate which of the following information is available through surveys at the village or project level:

- tasks performed by men and women in agriculture _____

SOURCE:

- time allocation by sex for farm production _____

SOURCE:

- time allocation by sex for domestic tasks _____

SOURCE:

- percentage of rural households headed by women _____

SOURCE:

- women as a percentage of the members of farmers' cooperatives _____

SOURCE:

- women as a percentage of the recipients of agricultural loans _____

SOURCE:

- women as a percentage of the recipients of land allotments in agrarian reform, settlement schemes, irrigation schemes _____

SOURCE:

- women as a percentage of the participants in farmer training programmes _____

SOURCE:

- women as a percentage of the participants in field days and demonstrations of agricultural techniques _____

SOURCE:

1.5 Rural action programmes

- Total number of ^{government} action programmes operating in rural areas: _____
- Number of these which explicitly indicate women as a target group _____
- Number of rural action programmes designed exclusively for women _____
- Total budget allocation for rural action programmes (government + foreign assistance) _____
- Total budget allocation for action programmes benefitting rural women as an explicit target group _____
- Total budget allocation for action programmes designed exclusively for rural women _____
- Total number of beneficiaries of action programmes operating in rural areas _____
- Number of beneficiaries of action programmes which explicitly identify women as a target group _____
- Number of beneficiaries of action programmes designed exclusively for rural women _____

1.6 Rural action programmes benefitting women

(a) Indicate the number of programmes benefitting rural women operated by the following ministries:

- Agriculture _____
- Social Affairs/Social welfare _____
- Health _____
- Education _____
- Rural Development/Agrarian reform _____
- Cooperatives _____
- Planning _____
- National women's machinery (bureau/unit) _____
- Other _____

(b) Indicate the number of rural action programmes benefitting women operated by Non-Governmental Organizations: _____

(c) Indicate the number of rural action programmes providing the following types of assistance to rural women:

- agricultural training and extension _____
- home economics extension/nutrition education _____
- family planning/population education _____
- credit _____
- marketing assistance _____
- literacy training _____
- health care _____
- other _____

1.7 Indicate which problems of rural women are given priority by the national machinery for women (start with 1 for the most important and number in descending order of importance):

- equality of legal status _____
- participation in village government _____
- employment _____
- literacy/education _____
- health _____
- family planning/population education _____
- child care _____
- rural water supply _____
- rural home technology, labour-saving technology _____
- agricultural training/extension _____
- income-generating activities _____
- leadership training, organization _____
- monitoring and evaluation _____
- data base on rural women _____

1.8 Indicate whether links have been established between the national machinery for women and:

	<u>none</u>	<u>informal</u>	<u>formal</u>
Economic planning units	_____	_____	_____
The Central Statistical Office	_____	_____	_____
Agricultural planning units	_____	_____	_____
Rural Development Monitoring and Evaluation Units	_____	_____	_____
Agricultural training institutions	_____	_____	_____
The Agricultural extension service	_____	_____	_____
Agricultural Credit/Savings Banks	_____	_____	_____
NGO's working in rural areas	_____	_____	_____

1-9 What unit(s) is(are) responsible for coordinating programmes and services benefitting rural women?

2. Women's access to land, water and natural resources

- 2.1 Do women have the right to own, inherit and control land and property in their own name? (indicate yes or no) _____
- 2.2 By law, do sons and daughters inherit equal shares of land? _____
If not, what is a daughter's share as a percent of a son's? _____
- 2.3 Are widows entitled to a share of their husband's land? _____
- only if there are no sons _____
- widows have usufruct rights but do not inherit land _____
- 2.4 Do female heads of households qualify for receipt of allotments on: _____
- agrarian reform schemes _____
- settlement schemes _____
- irrigation schemes _____
- 2.5 Are farmers' wives granted separate access to land in any of the above schemes: _____
- on an individual basis _____
- a collective plot is reserved for women _____
- 2.6 Under customary systems of land tenure, do women have the right to claim individual plots? _____
Among what ethnic groups: _____

3. Women's participation in rural organizations

- 3.1 Do women have the right to full membership in agricultural cooperatives? _____
- female heads of households only _____
- female household heads and wives of migrants only _____
- farmers' wives can join in their own right _____
- farmers' wives can only join separate women's cooperatives _____
- 3.2 What percentage of the members of farmers' cooperatives open to both men and women are female? _____
- 3.3 What percentage of the officers of agricultural cooperatives are women? _____
- 3.4 Have quotas or similar mechanisms been established to ensure women's representation in farmers' cooperatives? _____
If so, describe: _____
- 3.5 Do rural women have the right to form separate cooperative groupings apart from farmers' cooperatives? _____
- 3.6 Indicate the following (if available):
Total number of farmers' cooperatives _____ total membership: _____
Total number of women's cooperatives (rural only) _____;
Total membership of women's cooperatives: _____.

3.7 What types of village women's organizations exist, apart from cooperatives?

- government sponsored:

- NGO sponsored:

- other (e.g. customary women's groups)

3.8 Indicate the type of activities undertaken by these organizations:
(check appropriate spaces)

	<u>women's cooperatives</u>	<u>government women's orgs.</u>	<u>NGO women's orgs.</u>
handicrafts	_____	_____	_____
agriculture; food processing	_____	_____	_____
marketing/cooperative shops	_____	_____	_____
community self-help	_____	_____	_____
literacy	_____	_____	_____
leadership training	_____	_____	_____
family planning	_____	_____	_____
home improvement/sanitation	_____	_____	_____
nutrition education	_____	_____	_____
other (specify)	_____	_____	_____

3.9 Are figures available (even from a village survey) on the participation of the poor in village women's organizations? _____

If so, give source:

3.10 Have special measures (quotas, incentives) been introduced to ensure women's representation in village government? _____

If so, describe:

3.11 Are figures available on the percentage of village officeholders who are women? (give percentage if available) _____

4. Women's access to agricultural credit, inputs and services

4.1 Do women have a legal right to apply for agricultural loans? _____

- only female household heads (widows, divorced women, etc.) _____

- married women require their husband's signature _____

- married women can apply without husband's signature _____

4.2 Is land title required as collateral for agricultural production loans (or cattle in lieu of land title)? _____

4.3 Are cooperative members eligible for agricultural production loans without land or cattle as collateral? _____

4.4 Have any revolving funds or loan programmes been established exclusively for rural women? _____

If so, specify the number of beneficiaries of such programmes: _____

5. Women's access to agricultural education, training and extension

5.1 Are any studies available at village or project level which compare extension contact with male versus female farmers? _____

If so, report findings and source (use back of this sheet)

5.2 Indicate whether it would be socially acceptable for a male extension worker to demonstrate improved farming techniques:

- on farms where a woman is farming without an adult male _____
- on farms managed by a woman past childbearing age _____
- to farmers' wives in the presence of their husband or an adult male household member _____
- to a group of women in a public place in the village _____
- to a group of women in the fields _____

5.3 Village level extension workers currently in service:

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>% Female</u>
Agricultural extension workers				
Home economists				
Other (specify)				

5.4 Rural extension workers receiving in-service training (1981-84)

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>% Female</u>
Agricultural extension workers				
Home economists				
Other (specify)				

5.5 What is the percentage of females among persons receiving professional certificates, diplomas and university degrees in the following fields:

	<u>Certificate</u>	<u>Diploma</u>	<u>University</u>
Agriculture			
Home economics			

5.6 Have special provisions (quotas, incentives, scholarships) been introduced to increase the number of women trained in agriculture? _____

If so, specify:

5.7 Have any changes been introduced in the training of home economists to increase their expertise in agriculture? _____

If so, specify changes:

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NATIONS UNIES

VIENNA INTERNATIONAL CENTRE

P.O. BOX 500, A-1400 VIENNA, AUSTRIA

TELEPHONE: 26 310 TELEGRAPHIC ADDRESS: UNATIONS VIENNA TELEX: 135612

REFERENCE: SD 3012/14

4 May 1983

Dear Ms. Scott,

Subject: Request for comments on the Draft Questionnaire
Part I "General Development for the Advancement
of Women" for the Review and Appraisal Report

..... Enclosed is a copy of the Draft Questionnaire Part I "General Development for the Advancement of Women" prepared by CSDHA/BAW for your comments. You will note that the Draft Questionnaire does not strictly adhere to the changes relating to sections B(c) "Statistics, indicators and data collection" and C "Research, analysis and dissemination of information" agreed during the Inter-agency meeting. It was realized during the preparation of the draft that the changes did not provide the most appropriate support to the formulation of a comprehensive and integrated questionnaire. Moreover, both sections, in fact, represent two important functions that need to be performed by the national machineries. Accordingly, both sections B(c) and C have been incorporated into the various sections, in particular, sections B and E.

It will be much appreciated if your comments could be received during the first week of June, at the latest.

Looking forward to continued cooperation and consultations in this undertaking,

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Chafika Bellami-Meslem'.

Chafika Bellami-Meslem
Director

Branch for the Advancement
of Women
Centre for Social Development and
Humanitarian Affairs

DRAFT QUESTIONNAIRE

PART I: General Development for the Advancement of Women

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CSDHA/BAW

Vienna, 26 April 1983

DRAFT QUESTIONNAIRE

Part I: General Development for the Advancement of Women

A. National Policy and Plan to improve the Status of Women

- (1) Briefly describe national policies and plans contained in the overall National Development Policy and Plan (or analagous policy document, where no plan exists).
- (2) Briefly describe the process of formulating such Policies and Plans as well as the principal participants in that process (representatives of government departments, regional governments, professional societies, academic/research institutions, women's organizations, other organizations).
- (3) List specific targets and strategies contained in the national programme as well as areas accorded high priority, taking into consideration the relevant paragraphs of the IDS for the 3rd UNDD, which give emphasis to:
 - (a) the need for a substantial improvement in the status of women so as to facilitate the attainment of the ultimate aim of development, which is the constant improvement of the well-being of the entire population on the basis of its full participation in the process of development and a fair distribution of the benefits therefrom (Chapter I Preamble, para 8).
 - (b) the active role women should play in the development process as well as the need to pursue the objective of securing women's equal participation both as agents and beneficiaries in all sectors and at all levels of the development process (Chapter II Goals and Objectives, para 51); and
- (4) Describe results achieved with respect to the specific targets with special emphasis on the areas in which most as well as least satisfactory results^{1/} have been achieved.

- (5) Specify major difficulties encountered in the implementation process, measures taken to overcome them, and planned strategies and measures to prevent such difficulties in the future.
- (6) Identify the factors specifically facilitating the achievement of the most satisfactory results as well as those contributing to the least satisfactory results.

B. Institutional Arrangements for policy formulation, implementation, monitoring progress and review and appraisal of achievements

- (1) Please provide the following information on structure and functions of national machineries:

(a) Interdisciplinary and multisectoral national body

- (i) Name/Title:
- (ii) Governmental, semi-governmental or non-governmental status?
- (iii) Date of establishment or of significant restructuring?

(iv) Functions relating to the advancement of women:

do these exist in regard to:

formulation of national policy: as leading agency?
as major advisor?
as participant?

formulation of national plan and programmes: as leading agency?
as major advisor?
as participant?

preparation of national programme budget: as coordinator?
as advisor?

monitoring progress achieved in the implementation of plans and programmes?

data collection, and development of indicators?

research, analysis and dissemination of information?

review and appraisal?

promotion of establishment of grass-root organizations of women and provision of guidance and support to activities of women's organizations?

(v) Functions relating to overall national development:

do these exist in regard to:

formulation of national policy: as advisor?
as participant?

formulation of national plans as advisor?
and programmes: as participant?

(vi) Organizational structure:

please provide a diagramme which shows its organizational structure and its position within the national government structure.

(vii) Budget:

describe the level of total budgetary provision as compared to the total national budget. If possible please indicate percentage of that provided for general development for the advancement of women and that provided in various sectoral areas.

(viii) Working relations:

describe working relations (i.e. level of formality, frequency of contact at decision-making/professional levels) with:

- (i) the national planning body
- (ii) sectoral ministries/national bodies
- (iii) regional governments
- (iv) academic/research institutions
- (v) women organizations
- (vi) other relevant organizations (national, regional and international).

(b) Provincial machineries: If they exist, briefly describe their status, organizational structure, functions etc.

(c) Sectoral machineries (i.e. in various ministries/national bodies)
If they exist, briefly describe their status, organizational structure, functions etc.

- Trade
- Industry
- Food and Agriculture
- Science and Technology for development
- Energy
- Transport/Communication
- Environment
- Human Settlements
- Education
- etc.

(d) Do other National machineries exist designated to carry out work on:

- data collection and indicators?
- research?
- training?
- information dissemination?
- etc.

(e) Please list major non-governmental organizations active in women's issues at various levels:

- national: provincial/regional: district/local:

Identify non-governmental organizations active in the following roles:

- (i) formulation of policy
- (ii) formulation of plans/programmes
- (iii) implementation of plans/programmes
- (iv) monitoring progress
- (v) data collection/indicators
- (vi) research
- (vii) training
- (viii) dissemination of information
- (ix) mobilization of financial resources

(2) (a) Describe briefly major results achieved with respect to each of the functions of the interdisciplinary and multisectoral national body, such as adoption of comprehensive national policy; national plans and programmes as integrated part of the overall national development plans and programmes; compatible sectoral programmes; comprehensive monitoring system; indicators for measuring progress; methodology for data collection and analysis; priority areas for research/training; network of information dissemination systems; periodic reporting and review and appraisal system.

(b) Indicate main obstacles encountered in the functioning of these machineries, measures taken to overcome them and strategies as well as measures envisaged to prevent the occurrence of such obstacles in the future.

- (3) (a) Is improvement of the present organizational structure essential?
(b) If yes, what are considered the principal reasons?
- (4) (a) Did lack of budget and qualified staff form principal constraints in the functioning of the national machineries?
(b) If yes, identify ways and means to eliminate such constraints in the future.
- (5) (a) Is the present working relation with other institutions satisfactory?
(b) If not, what measures are envisaged so as to ensure more effective working relations in the future.
- (6) Briefly describe **concrete** measures as well as ways and means being undertaken or planned so as to ensure more effective institutional arrangements (for policy formulation and implementation, monitoring of progress as well of review and appraisal of achievement) for the achievement of the goals and objectives of the UND for Women beyond 1985.

C. Legal Status of Women

- (1) The principle of equality between women and men
 - (a) Briefly describe existing Legislative provision(s) as well as other measures and date of its (their) adoption.
 - (b) Indicate its (their) relationship with the Mexico World Plan of Action and Copenhagen Programme of Action and the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women.
 - (c) Briefly describe progress achieved^{1/} in the implementation of the rights recognized in the convention and in national legislative provisions.
 - (d) Identify the main obstacles encountered in the implementation process, and briefly describe measures taken to overcome them, as well as planned strategies and measures so as to facilitate maximum realization of the rights recognized in this Convention and legislative provisions. If possible indicate specific targets anticipated within a fixed time frame (1985-1990; 1985-1995; 1985-2000).

(2) Status of Women in Marriage and Family Life

- (a) Briefly describe existing legislative provision(s) as well as other measures and date of its (their) adoption.
- (b) Indicate its (their) relationships viz
- the 1957 Convention on the nationality of Married Women
 - the 1962 Convention on Consent to Marriage, minimum age for Marriage, and Registration of Marriage.
 - the Mexico World Plan of Action and Copenhagen Programme of Action.
- (c) Briefly describe progress achieved ^{1/} in the realization of the rights recognized in these Conventions and legislative provisions.
- (d) Identify the main obstacles encountered in the implementation process, and briefly describe measures taken to overcome them, as well as planned strategies and measures so as to facilitate maximum realization of the rights recognized in these Convention and legislative provisions. If possible indicate specific targets anticipated within a fixed time frame (1985-1990; 1985-1995; 1985-2000).
- (3) (a) Briefly describe existing legal provision(s) as well as other measure(s) relating to the 1949 Convention on the Suppression of Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others and the 1956 Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade, and Institutions and Practices similar to Slavery, and date of its (their) adoption.
- (b) Indicate its (their) relationships with these conventions as well as with the Mexico World Plan of Action and Copenhagen Programme of Action.
-
- (c) Briefly describe progress achieved ^{1/} in the realization of the protective measures contained in these conventions and legislative provisions.

- (d) Identify the main obstacles in the implementation process and briefly describe measures taken to overcome them, as well as strategies and measures so as to facilitate maximum realization of the protective measures contained in these conventions and legal provisions. If possible indicate specific targets anticipated within a fixed time frame (1985-1990; 1985-1995; 1985-2000).

D. Political Participation, International Cooperation and the Strengthening of Peace

(1) Equality of political rights

- (a) Briefly describe existing legislative provision(s) as well as other measures and Date of its (their) adoption, particularly in
- (i) the right to vote in all elections
 - (ii) the right to be eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies
 - (iii) the right to vote in all public referenda
 - (iv) the right to hold public office and exercise all public functions.
- (b) Indicate their relationship with the 1952 Convention on the Political Rights of Women, the Mexico World Plan of Action and the Copenhagen Programme of Action, the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women and the 1982 General Assembly resolution (37/63) on the Declaration on the participation of Women in Promoting International Peace and Cooperation.
- (c) Briefly describe progress achieved^{1/} in the implementation of these provisions and measures.
- (d) Identify main obstacles encountered in the implementation process, and briefly describe measures taken to overcome them, as well as planned strategies and measures so as to facilitate maximum realization of the rights recognized in these provisions and measures.

If possible indicate specific targets anticipated within a fixed time frame (1985-1990; 1985-1995; 1985-2000).

(2) Women's participation in political life

(a) Briefly describe existing provision(s) and measures to facilitate and promote:

- (i) the exercise of women's right to vote
- (ii) the election of women for membership in the legislative body, at national, provincial and local levels.
- (iii) the appointment of women in the public offices, at national, provincial and local levels.
- (iv) the participation of women as members in (major) political parties.
- (v) the election of women for membership in the executive body of (major) political parties.

(b) Indicate relationships between these provisions and measures and the Mexico World Plan of Action and the Copenhagen Programme of Action.

(c) Briefly describe progress achieved 1' in the implementation of these provisions and measures, such as

(i) Election
National

Year (between 1975 - 1985)	Population Fligible for Voting			Population Voted		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women

Provincial/Regional

Year (between 1975 - 1985)	Total		Level I		Level II		Level III		Others	
	Men	Women	Men	Women ^{3/}	Men	Women ^{3/}	Men	Women ^{3/}	Men	Women

District/Local

Year (between 1975 - 1985)	Total		Level I		Level II		Level III		Others	
	Men	Women	Men	Women ^{3/}	Men	Women ^{3/}	Men	Women ^{3/}	Men	Women

(iv) Membership in Major Political Parties

Name of Party	Year (between 1975 - 1985)	Total Members		Total Members of the executive body	
		Men	Women	Men	Women ^{4/}

- (d) Identify main obstacles encountered in the implementation process and briefly describe measures taken to overcome them as well as anticipated strategies and measures so as to facilitate maximum participation of women in political life. If possible, indicate specific targets anticipated within a fixed time frame (1985-1990; 1985-1995; 1985-2000).

(3) International Cooperation and the strengthening of peace

- (a) Briefly describe specific measures taken to facilitate and encourage women's participation in and benefit from:

- (i) organizations (national, regional, international) which have as their goal the establishment of friendly relations among nations and the strengthening of international peace and disarmament.
 - (ii) international and regional meetings at all levels (governmental, non-governmental, semi-governmental), in all developmental sectors (food, agriculture, industry, communications, etc.) or areas (peace, disarmament) and in all scientific and technological disciplines (biology, geology, physics, sociology, anthropology etc.).
 - (iii) technical cooperation activities.
 - (iv) foreign affairs department or international relations units of sectoral departments.
- (b) Indicate measures taken to increase the awareness of women of the importance of promoting and maintaining friendly relations among nations, and of strengthening international peace and disarmament and their crucial role in this endeavour, particularly in instilling in their children these most essential values for the survival of the human race.
- (c) Indicate relationship between these measures and the Mexico World Plan of Action, the Copenhagen Programme of Action and the General Assembly resolution 37/63 on the Declaration on the Participation of Women in Promoting International Peace and Cooperation.

- (d) Briefly describe progress achieved^{1/} in the implementation of the measures mentioned in a and b above.
- (e) Identify major obstacles encountered in the implementation process and briefly describe measures taken to overcome them as well as planned strategies and measures so as to maximize women's participation in and benefit from international cooperation activities and the strengthening of peace endeavours. If possible specify targets anticipated within a fixed time frame (1985-1990; 1985-1995; 1985-2000).

E. General Assessment of achievements within the United Nations Decade for Women

- (1)(a) What does the Government consider to be the most significant achievement with regard to women's role and status in the country within the framework of the implementation of the World Plan of Action and the Programme of Action for the second Half of the Decade since the declaration of the United Nations Decade for Women; Equality, Development and Peace 1976-1985?
 - (b) Briefly describe specific circumstance(s) or facility(ies) which government considers to be the main determinant(s) of such achievement.
-
- (2)(a) What does the government consider to be the area(s) in which there were least progress?
 - (b) Briefly describe specific circumstance(s) or obstacle(s) which prevented satisfactory achievement.
 - (c) What measures have been taken^{5/} to overcome such constraints, and what other measures does the government consider essential in the future. Specify policies, strategies, plans and programmes as well as targets^{6/}.
- (3) In this connection what measures does the government consider essential in the future^{6/} at the regional and international levels, particularly those relating to:
 - (a) form of technical cooperation: provision of advisory services, research and training facilities, financial assistance, joint

projects, etc.

- (b) areas for technical cooperation, such as development of
- (i) methodology for data collection and analysis to support the formulation of policies, plans and programmes.
 - (ii) indicators for measuring prevailing circumstances and progress /achieved.
 - (iii) system for monitoring progress of implementation.
 - (iv) methodology for periodic review and appraisal of the achievement of goals and objectives of the Decade.
 - (v) methodology for dissemination of information to develop
 - an appropriate public opinion on and attitude towards the status and role of women in family as well as all other sectors of community life.
 - to inform women of their rights and roles in development as well as in the pursue of a lasting peace.
 - (vi) network (national, regional, international) for the exchange of information and experience among policy makers, planners, researchers. etc.

FOOTNOTE INDEX

1/ As far as possible in quantitative terms (statistics, percentage) and within a fixed time-frame (1975-1984 for general aspects; 1980-1984 for detailed aspects).

2/ Specify sector or group represented.

3/ Specify sectors, such as food and agriculture, industry, environment, social affairs, foreign affairs, etc.

4/ Specify area of responsibility.

5/ Within a fixed time frame (1975-1984 for general measures; 1980-1984 for detailed measures).

6/ If possible within a fixed time frame (1985-1990; 1985-1995; 1985-2000).

file

AMALIA MAY DAHL, VIENNA INTERNATIONAL CENTER, RM. D-1886
P.O.B. 300 VIENNA, AUSTRIA

RE: REQUEST FOR 2 CONSULTANTS IN FOOD PROCESSING & TEXTILE INDUSTRIES. GLORIA SCOTT HAS REFERRED YOUR REQUEST TO ME FOR ACCESS TO VITA PROFESSIONAL CONSULTANTS RESOURCE BANK. 13 POSSIBILITIES HAVE SURFACED OF WHICH SUGGEST FOLLOWING: SYLVIA BLANCHET, SANTA CRUZ, CA. USA - CONSIDERABLE PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION, INTENSIVE FOOD PRODUCTION, COTTAGE INDUSTRIES, SOME KNOWLEDGE FRENCH, SPANISH, SWAHILI PARAGRAPH MANMATH PATNI 'MANKAMAL' - INDORE INDIA, MEMBER INSTITUTE OF FOOD TECHNOLOGISTS USA & INDIA, SPEAKS ENGLISH & HINDI PARAGRAPH EMERX CARLA - WROTE OLD FASHIONED RECIPE BOOK, RAN SCHOOL OF COUNTRY LIVING @ YEARS, WORKED IN TAIWAN 1-1/2 YEARS PARAGRAPH MARGARET HART -- VERMONT USA, PEACE CORP EXPERIENCE IN KENYA, SPEAKS SWAHILI & FRENCH, MEMBER HAND WEAVERS GUILD OF AMERICA & VERMONT COUNCILOR OF THE ARTS PARAGRAPH LEONARD REED - LONG TERM VITA VOLUNTEER, AGE 60s, EXTENSIVE EXPERIENCE IN W. AFRICA & NIGERIA - 2-1/2 YEARS, PROFESSIONAL IN TEXTILES PARAGRAPH LESLIE TILLET - NEW YORK USA, WORKED IN SISAL, BATIKS, FIGURE WEAVING, CONSIDERABLE OVERSEAS BUT MAINLY SPANISH SPEAKING COUNTRIES - CROSS FERTILIZATION OF IDEAS POSSIBILITY

Chris Aehrens

Gloria L. Scott *h o h*

PAS-PASDR 321-05

0 START
HERE
1 TO

CITY/
COUNTRY
MESSAGE
NO.:

4 IF YOU WISH FURTHER INFORMATION ON THESE OR OTHERS RESULTING
5 FROM OUR SEARCH OR REQUIRE VITA AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS ON
6 FOOD PROCESSING & TEXTILES, NOT HESITATE CONTACT VITA OFFICE
7 MY ATTENTION. SINCERELY, CHRIS AHRENS, VITA/WORLD BANK PROJECT
8 OFFICER, SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY UNIT WORLD BANK. AT VITA TELEX
9 440191 VITA UT, CABLE-VITAINC, ST. ADDRESS VITA, 3700 RHODE
10 ISLAND AVE. MT. RAINIER, MD. 20822, USA.

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AMALIA MAY DAHL, VIENNA INTERNATIONAL CENTER, RM. D-1886
P.O.B. 300 VIENNA, AUSTRIA

RE: REQUEST FOR 2 CONSULTANTS IN FOOD PROCESSING & TEXTILE INDUSTRIES. GLORIA SCOTT HAS REFERRED YOUR REQUEST TO ME FOR ACCESS TO VITA PROFESSIONAL CONSULTANTS RESOURCE BANK. 13 POSSIBILITIES HAVE SURFACED OF WHICH SUGGEST FOLLOWING: SYLVIA BLANCHET, SANTA CRUZ, CA. USA - CONSIDERABLE PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION, INTENSIVE FOOD PRODUCTION, COTTAGE INDUSTRIES, SOME KNOWLEDGE FRENCH, SPANISH, SWAHILI PARAGRAPH MANMATH PATNI 'MANKAMAL' - INDORE INDIA, MEMBER INSTITUTE OF FOOD TECHNOLOGISTS USA & INDIA, SPEAKS ENGLISH & HINDI PARAGRAPH EMERX CARLA - WROTE OLD FASHIONED RECIPE BOOK, RAN SCHOOL OF COUNTRY LIVING @ YEARS, WORKED IN TAIWAN 1-1/2 YEARS PARAGRAPH MARGARET HART - VERMONT USA, PEACE CORP EXPERIENCE IN KENYA, SPEAKS SWAHILI & FRENCH, MEMBER HAND WEAVERS GUILD OF AMERICA & VERMONT COUNCILOR OF THE ARTS PARAGRAPH LEONARD REED - LONG TERM VITA VOLUNTEER, AGE 60s, EXTENSIVE EXPERIENCE IN W. AFRICA & NIGERIA - 2-1/2 YEARS, PROFESSIONAL IN TEXTILES PARAGRAPH LESLIE TILLET - NEW YORK USA, WORKED IN SISAL, BATIKS, FIGURE WEAVING, CONSIDERABLE OVERSEAS BUT MAINLY SPANISH SPEAKING COUNTRIES - CROSS FERTILIZATION OF IDEAS POSSIBILITY

Chris Aehrens

Gloria L. Scott

PAS-PASDR 321-05

0 START
HERE
1 TO

CITY/
COUNTRY
MESSAGE
NO.:

4 IF YOU WISH FURTHER INFORMATION ON THESE OR OTHERS RESULTING
5 FROM OUR SEARCH OR REQUIRE VITA AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS ON
6 FOOD PROCESSING & TEXTILES, NOT HESITATE CONTACT VITA OFFICE
7 MY ATTENTION. SINCERELY, CHRIS AHRENS, VITA/WORLD BANK PROJECT
8 OFFICER, SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY UNIT WORLD BANK. AT VITA TELEX
9 440191 VITA UT, CABLE-VITAINC, ST. ADDRESS VITA, 3700 RHODE
0 ISLAND AVE. MT. RAINIER, MD. 20822, USA.

END
OF
TEXT

From Gloria Scott.

To send names to May.

UNITED NATIONS INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION

PROJECT PROPOSAL

PART A - BASIC DATA

Interregional
(Colombia, Cuba, Ghana, Indonesia
and United Republic of Tanzania)

PROJECT TITLE:

Effective Integration of Women in the
Development of Food Processing and
Textile Industries

PROJECT NUMBER:

UNIDO CONTRIBUTION:

US \$ 80,000
(excluding US \$11,200 for 14 per cent
overhead cost)

SCHEDULED START:

September 1980

GOVERNMENT CONTRIBUTION:

In kind - support by local authorities
and research institutions

SCHEDULED COMPLETION:

March 1981

ORIGIN AND DATE OF OFFICIAL REQUEST:

Resolution ID/CONF.4/RES.1 (para. 10(a))
adopted by the Third General Conference
of UNIDO

CURRENCY REQUIRED FOR UNIDO INPUT:

CONVERTIBLE:

US \$ 80,000 (excluding US \$ 11,200 for
14 per cent overhead cost)

OTHER: --

HOST GOVERNMENT COUNTERPART AGENCY:

Local research institutes (food pro-
cessing and textile)

UNIDO SUBSTANTIVE BACKSTOPPING SECTION:

ICIS/GLO

PROPOSAL SUBMITTED BY:

N. Ramm-Ericson
N. Gehart

DATE OF SUBMISSION:

16 June 1980

PROGRAMME COMPONENT CODE:

62.1.Z

CONTACT

Ms May Dahl.
UNIDO.

UNITED NATIONS INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION

PROJECT PROPOSAL

PART A - BASIC DATA

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(Colombia, Cuba, Ghana, Indonesia
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PROPOSAL SUBMITTED BY:

N. Ramm-Ericson
N. Gehart

DATE OF SUBMISSION:

16 June 1980

PROGRAMME COMPONENT CODE:

62.1.Z

PART B - NARRATIVE

1. Background and Justification

The project is to be carried out in pursuance of Resolution ID/CONF.4/RES.1 (operative para. 10(a)) adopted by the Third General Conference of UNIDO and previous mandates from the Industrial Development Board. Within the framework of a full and proper utilization of human resources in the national development efforts of developing countries, a review and assessment will be made of the current and potential contribution of women as an economic force in the development of selected industries such as electronics, food processing, pharmaceutical and textile industries.

Although women's role, and their potential for increased participation in socio-economic development has lately been recognized in most countries, their apparent and/or real contribution is still minimal. There exists throughout the world attitudinal barriers or social concepts which limit the opportunities for recognized economic contributions by women outside the home and family sphere and, more precisely, for their effective participation in industrial development. Thus the potential female input has been seldom, if ever, taken into account in the formulation of industrial development policies and plans.

However, evidence has recently been given by many governments of their political will to bring about a fuller and more effective contribution by women to industry. This process would entail important changes in present policies at national and international levels and in order to achieve it, it would be necessary to encourage decision makers and managers by increasing their awareness of the specific benefits to be derived from an effective mobilization of female work force in particular industries. For this purpose, a realistic information base of the existing resources and possibilities in relation to specific industries is required.

Although a number of studies has been carried out on the subject of women and economic development, including their participation in industry in general terms hardly any systematic research directly related to specific industrial sectors has been made in respect of any group of countries. Consultations in this regard have been held with FAO, ILO and the UN Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs.

The industrial sectors selected for the project were identified and recommended by the Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries organized by UNIDO in November 1978. Subsequently, those

recommendations were endorsed by the IDB at its 13th session and more recently by the Third General Conference of UNIDO in the resolution cited above.

2. Special Considerations

Following consultations within UNIDO and other UN agencies it is proposed to carry out the first phase of the project in 1980 concentrating on case studies on the food processing and textile industries in a small number of countries. The countries have been selected on the basis of considerations such as the significance of those industrial sectors to the national economy, the number of women already involved in those industries, existence of local institutions which would participate in the project, private and/or public sector industries, and preliminary soundings with SIDEAs. Financing is requested from UNIDF for the first phase in 1980, which will cover two sectors - food processing and textiles - in five countries. A request has been made in the "Proposed revision of the UNIDO work programme for 1981" (document ID/B/243, page 20), for some inputs into a second phase covering further sectors (such as electronics or pharmaceuticals) and other countries.

3. Objectives

A. Development Objectives

The purpose of the studies is to increase, within the framework of national development efforts of developing countries, the current and potential contribution of women as an economic force towards the development of the food processing and textile industries.

B. Immediate Objectives

The studies will be action-oriented and will aim at providing guidance and recommendations for improving women's contribution to these sectors. They will be carried out with active participation of national institutions.

Specifically the studies will:

- (a) review and assess existing policies, measures and social attitudes in developing countries which promote or inhibit female participation in food processing and textile industries;
- (b) identify and assess activities in those sectors where the contribution of women is, or can become significant;

- (c) assess the impact of existing technologies on women's contribution;
- (d) identify the socio-economic factors which affect both the demand for and supply of female labour;
- (e) outline both short-term and long-term policy measures as well as project concepts and specific proposals for enhancing the contribution of women in those industries.

4. Project Outputs

Two final reports will be prepared consolidating the findings of field research in the five countries of study - one report on food processing and a second on textile industries. In these reports, an analysis will be made of concepts for the enhancement of women's participation in these industries at two levels: those concepts that are applicable specifically to the countries studied and those applicable to developing countries in general. Furthermore, specific policy measures and concrete programmes will be recommended.

5. Project Activities

The project will be carried out in three phases, namely:

- Phase A - (i) Collection and analysis, at UNIDO HQ, of factual information on:
June-Sept. 80
(UNIDO Hqs)
- (a) characteristics of the food processing and textile industries in the developing countries of special relevance to women's participation in those industries;
 - (b) number and size of food processing and textile industries existing in the countries of study;
 - (c) extent of female participation in the food processing and textiles industries;
 - (d) special factors relevant to existing female work force in these industries (such as demographic and employment problems due to migration of women to localities of the industries; special legislation regarding working hours, night shifts, etc.; unionization; inter-relation between job and family structure).

- (ii) During this phase, detailed terms of reference will be prepared for the country studies to be carried out in phase B of the project. The terms of reference will identify the specific branches within the food processing and textile industries which will be studied in each country.

Phase B - -
Oct. 80-Jan. 81
(Field Research)

Case studies on women's participation in the food processing and textiles industries will be carried out in selected countries in different regions, namely:

Africa: Food processing industries: Ghana

Textile industries: United Republic of Tanzania

Asia: Food processing and textile industries: Indonesia

Latin America: Food processing industries: Cuba

Textile industries: Colombia.

In each of these countries, enough industrial enterprises will be covered so as to ensure that the different arrays of small, medium and large firms, different technologies, rural and urban locations, different socio-economic groups and important industrial sub-groups are included. The sample size ultimately utilized in the study would be such that the ~~results obtained are generalisable at least for each country.~~

The research will focus on those branches of the food processing and textile industries in respect of which concepts and proposals for effective integration of women could be expected to be of particular relevance.

Attempts will be made to collect primary information from the relevant respondents. Special questionnaires will be used at interviews at governmental, managerial and factory levels as appropriate in order to facilitate subsequent analysis of data.

Each country study will be expected to cover the following aspects:

- indications of the extent of women's participation in the economy of the country and in particular in its industrial development;
- existing policies and legislation in respect of women's work. Legal disposition and daily practices within the framework of existing social, cultural and industrial constraints;

- views and opinions of decision-makers in the government, industries and workers organizations regarding the pertinent issues;
- data on the food processing and/or textiles industries (raw material base including seasonal factors, location of the industry, national industry or TNCs, export-orientation, quality requirements etc.);
- data on women's participation in the country's food processing and/or textiles industries (by their role as entrepreneurs, in management and as workers, and by socio-economic groups);
- analysis of specific factors related to women's work in the food processing and/or textiles industries (such as job suitability, productivity, skill levels, equality of opportunities for up-grading of skills and promotion, training, shift work, wages and fringe benefits, job mobility and seasonal aspects in view of raw material supply, job security);
- analysis of the impact of work in food processing and/or textiles industries on the women employees, inter-relation between job and structure of family and time disposition vis-à-vis other activities;
- analysis of the impact of technology changes on female participation in the food processing and/or textile industries;
- assessment of the potentials for improving the contribution of women to the development of the food processing and/or textiles industries and, in general, to the country's industrialization process;
- formulation of specific concepts and proposals for action at policy making, programme formulation and project level aimed at increasing women's effective participation in the food processing and/or textiles industries in the country.

Phase C
Feb. 81
(UNIDO Hqs)

- The information gathered through the country studies will be consolidated at UNIDO HQ in two final reports - one for each industry sector. An analysis will be made of concepts for the enhancement of women's participation in these industries at two levels: those concepts that are applicable specifically to the countries studied and those applicable to developing countries in general. Furthermore, specific policy measures and concrete programmes will be recommended.

6. Project Inputs

UNIDO Inputs

Although Headquarters staff will be directly involved in all phases of the project, including the initial activities of field research, it is foreseen that consultant services will be needed for a period of five months in order to assist in the implementation of the project as follows: Participation in phase A: 1/2 month; phase B: 3-1/2 months; phase C: 1 month. Two consultants will be hired by UNIDO, one with expertise in the food processing industry and the other in textile industry.

Agreements will be made with local institutions for provision of research data in respect of the two sectors.

National Participation

The co-operation of staff from local institutions concerned with the development of the two industrial sectors will be sought for carrying out the field research, so that activities under this project are fully integrated in the substantive work of those institutions.

7. Evaluation Plans

These studies will be followed by a meeting to be attended by representatives of some 15 developing countries in order to assess, for follow-up purposes, the recommendations of general applicability contained in the final reports. (See "Envisaged Follow-up" below.)

8. Envisaged Follow-up

It is intended to discuss the recommendations of general applicability, for follow-up purposes, at a meeting to be attended by representatives of some 15 developing countries. This meeting is to be part of the second phase project covering also other sectors (see paragraph 2 above).

Recommendations specifically applicable to the countries studied will be taken up, i.e., in connexion with UNIDO technical assistance projects. The operational sections concerned in UNIDO as well as SIDFAs and UNDP will be involved in discussions with the respective governments for implementation of such projects as appropriate in each case.

PART C: CLEARANCE AND APPROVAL

CLEARED BY:

DATE: 17 June 1980

E. Manning, Acting Head,
Agro-Industries Section, IOD

M.A. Siddiqui, Director, ICIS



19.6.1980

APPROVED BY:

DATE:

AMOUNT APPROVED:

SOURCE OF FUNDS:

CONVERTIBLE CURRENCY:

UNIDF

OTHER:

DATE PAD REQUESTED:

ANNEX I

PROJECT BUDGET

		US \$
11.01	Consultant - food processing (fee, initial travel, DSA Vienna)	20,500
11.02	Consultant - textiles (fee, initial travel, DSA Vienna)	20,500
15.00	Travel, DSA for consultants' field research	18,700
16.00	Travel, DSA for staff	8,300
29.00	Local institutions - fees (6 x \$2,000)	12,000
		<u>80,000</u> =====



UNIDO

PROJECT BUDGET/REVISION

3. COUNTRY Interregional	4. PROJECT NUMBER AND AMEND.	5. SPECIFIC ACTIVITY
10. PROJECT TITLE Effective Integration of Women in the Development of Food Processing and Textile Industries		

15. 10. 11	PROJECT PERSONNEL EXPERTS / Post title	16. TOTAL		17.		18.		19.		20.	
		m/m	\$	m/m	\$	m/m	\$	m/m	\$	m/m	\$
11-01	Food processing consultant	5	20,500	3	12,250	2	8,250				
02	Textile consultant	5	20,500	3	12,250	2	8,250				
03											
04											
05											
06											
07											
08											
09											
10											
11											
12											
13											
14											
11-99	SUBTOTAL:		41,000		24,500		16,500				

21. REMARKS



PROJECT BUDGET/REVISION

2. PAD NUMBER

4. PROJECT NUMBER	16. TOTAL		17. 1980		18. 1981		19.		20.	
	m/m	\$	m/m	\$	m/m	\$	m/m	\$	m/m	\$
12.01										
13.00										
14.00										
15.00		18,700		13,500		5,200				
16.00		8,300		4,300		4,000				
17.01										
17.02										
19.00										
20.										
29.00		12,000		10,000		2,000				
30.										
31.00										
32.00										
33.00										
34.00										
35.00										
39.00										
40.										
49.00										
50.										
51.00										
52.00										
53.00										
55.00										
59.00										
99.		GRAND TOTAL:		80,000		52,300		27,700		

Class of Service: **TELEX**

Date: **AUGUST 13, 1980**

Telex No.:

Originators Ext: **76975**

12

10

0 START
HERE

1 TO

UNIDO

CITY/COUNTRY

VIENNA, AUSTRIA

MESSAGE
NO.:

4

FOR MAY DAHL.. HAVE REQUESTED OUR VITA CONSULTANT TO CONTACT YOU

5

DIRECTLY WITH NAMES FOR TEXTILES AND FOOD PROCESSING PROJECT.

6

THEIR COMPUTERISED ROSTER IS LINKED INTO SEVERAL SOURCES INCLU

7

DING DEVELOPING COUNTRIES. REGARDS. G.L. SCOTT

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END
OF
TEXT

22

NOT TO BE TRANSMITTED

SUBJECT:

Woman in Development

DRAFTED BY:

G.L. Scott

CLEARANCES AND COPY DISTRIBUTION:

AUTHORIZED BY (Name and Signature):

Gloria L. Scott

DEPARTMENT:

PAS-PASDR (321-05)

SECTION BELOW FOR USE OF CABLE SECTION
CHECKED FOR DISPATCH



Distr.
GENERAL

ID/CONF.4/RES.1
25 March 1980

ENGLISH

United Nations Industrial Development Organization

THIRD GENERAL CONFERENCE OF UNIDO

New Delhi, India, 21 January–8 February 1980

RESOLUTION ADOPTED BY THE THIRD GENERAL CONFERENCE OF UNIDO

ID/CONF.4/RES.1. Women and Industrialization

The Third General Conference of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization,

Mindful that the United Nations Decade for Women was proclaimed to draw attention to the problems faced by women in their daily lives and to stimulate recognition at the national and international levels of the loss experienced where women, accounting for half of the world's adult population, are not given equal opportunity to contribute fully to national development,

Recalling the results of the World Conference of the International Women's Year, held at Mexico City, from 19 June to 2 July 1975,

Recalling also General Assembly resolutions 3342(XXIX) of 17 December 1974 on women in development, and 3524(XXX) of 15 December 1975 on measures for the integration of women in development, in which the General Assembly urged Governments to give sustained attention to the integration of women in the planning, formulation, design and implementation of development projects and programmes,

Further recalling the provisions of the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development and Co-operation^{1/} concerning the full integration of women in social and economic activities and, in particular, in the industrialization process, on the basis of equal rights,

Recalling in particular Industrial Development Board resolution 44(IX) of 25 April 1975 on the integration of women in development,

^{1/} A/10012, chap. IV.

Taking into consideration the recommendations of the Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries,^{2/} held in Vienna from 6 to 10 November 1978,

Taking also into consideration resolution 2 on women, science and technology, adopted by the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development on 31 August 1979,

Having considered in response to the request contained in General Assembly resolution 34/204 of 19 December 1979 on effective mobilization and integration of women in development, inter alia:

- "(a) The impact of new technology and the deployment of modern industries on women's traditional skills and occupations which may be endangered, and
- "(b) The identification of ways and means of enhancing and facilitating the equal participation of women in industrial development, in both rural and urban areas",

Bearing in mind the responsibility of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to develop concrete programmes aimed at integrating women in the industrialization process of developing countries in accordance with the decision taken by the Industrial Development Board, at its thirteenth session,

Mindful that further discussions on the effective integration of women in development, and in particular on the sub-theme "Employment, Education and Health", will take place at the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, to be held in Copenhagen in 1980,

1. Emphasizes that the integration and participation of women at all levels in the industrialization process is a vital prerequisite for balanced and equitable development;
2. Calls on all Governments to seek to promote the involvement and integration of women in the industrial development and to take measures to eliminate discriminatory attitudes and practices hampering the effective participation of women in the development process;

3. Stresses the essential role the United Nations Industrial Development Organization has to play in the integration of women in industrial development;
4. Welcomes as a first step the establishment of an Interdivisional Working Group on Integration of Women in Industrial Development within the Secretariat of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to deal with and co-ordinate activities related to the integration of women in development;
5. Expresses the desire that the Interdivisional Working Group make rapid progress in its work;
6. Urges the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to take further measures to facilitate the work of the Interdivisional Working Group in fulfilling its mandate and to submit to the Industrial Development Board, at its fourteenth session, a preliminary progress report;
7. Requests the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to report on the impact of the industrialization process on women in forthcoming issues of the Industrial Development Survey and in future monitoring of the implementation of the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action;
8. Requests also the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to assist Governments, upon request, in developing data collection systems and reporting methods to provide information - inter alia, for the analyses of the Executive Director - on the integration of women in industrial development, keeping in mind such relevant aspects as employment, training, access to jobs and remuneration;
9. Further requests the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to provide data on participation of women in the activities of the Organization - such as training, fellowship programmes, seminars and courses - in his future Annual Reports and other relevant reports;
10. Invites the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to undertake urgently the studies requested by the Industrial Development Board, at its thirteenth session, on:^{3/}

^{3/} Official Records of the General Assembly, thirty-fourth session, Supplement 16 (A/34/16, para. 137).

- (a) The selected industries, such as electronics, food processing, and pharmaceutical and textile industries, and their impact on women, and
- (b) The possible impact of industrial redeployment on women,

and to submit the reports on these studies to the Industrial Development Board at its fourteenth session;

11. Further invites the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization, in implementing the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action:

- (a) To keep under constant review the impact of these decisions on women,
- (b) To promote the participation of men and women alike in planning and decision-making, both in their own countries and at the international level, as well as in the carrying out of measures to promote industrialization in developing countries, and
- (c) To formulate and implement the industrialization programmes of the Organization with the full participation of men and women alike;

12. Recommends that the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization take measures to ensure the more effective participation of women in decision- and policy-making processes within the Secretariat of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization and in the field, in accordance with the appropriate resolutions of the General Assembly and other bodies;

13. Invites the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to report on the integration and participation of women in the process of industrial development to the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, to be held in Copenhagen in 1980;

14. Requests the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to report on the progress achieved in the implementation of the present resolution to the Industrial Development Board at its fifteenth session.

This news item appeared on page 5 of the November 27, 1979 issue of:

THE INDONESIA TIMES (JAKARTA)

ALL ABOUT EVE

Some Activities of the World Bank Related to Women in Industry

In its efforts to assist the poorest groups in developing countries to find such earning opportunities and to enhance their own productivity, the Bank has been giving increased attention to upgrading artisanal and cottage industries, to small scale enterprises and to means for creating off-farm employment in rural areas. Where it is necessary and/or feasible, special provisions are made to ensure the participation of women in these endeavors, a few examples of which will be cited.

The second urban project in Botswana provides, for a new market, vending shelters, infrastructure for local district commercial centres and low-cost industrial areas for small entrepreneurs in an effort to generate employment and income. Although these measures are designed to raise incomes and generate new employment among the poor in general, they are expected to be of special benefit to women, the group who suffers the highest urban unemployment rate and

who will get an estimated 35% of the jobs newly created or upgraded by the project. Women also predominate among the traders who will rent the low-cost commercial sites. While not a condition for eligibility for the credit scheme of the Botswana Development Corporations which will channel resources to small scale enterprises, employment of women will be one of the criteria by which loan applications are judged.

The Second Urban Development Project in El Salvador provides for a revolving line of credit for small, informal sector entrepreneurs along with technical

assistance, and training. Some 400 small industrial/commercial sites will be developed within the project and other areas. In the first half year of activity over 80% of the loans were made to women. A study is being made of this experience to establish the characteristics both of the women entrepreneurs

and of their enterprises as well as any particular needs they may have for technical assistance, training, and for support services that affect the efficiency of their undertakings.

A rural development project for the Ulla Ulla region of the Bolivian Altiplano includes credit and technical assistance for the development of the wool handicraft industry based on improved supplies of alpacas, llama and vicuna resources which the project will promote. Handicraft production is essentially a family industry in which women play a significant role and a special women's participation component will provide training for women in the techniques of handicraft production and marketing and also assist with the organization of production and marketing groups.

An agricultural consolidation project in the Shire Valley of Malawi includes expansion of the fisheries development programme. Women are involved in the on-shore aspects of the fishing industry and although the project does not specifically identify their engagement, their productivity and earnings should benefit from fish smoking kilns which it provides.

In view of the emigration of the male labor force, the future prospects of the textile industry in the YAR de-

pend to a significant degree on the extent to which women can be employed. A project for the rehabilitation of the industry base made provision for carrying out a study which will assess the potential for increased employment of women in the Sianca textile mill. The study will examine the problems that may be associated with such increased employment and suggest measures that should be taken to overcome them.

The second small scale industry project in Bangladesh includes a component for cottage industry which is designed to assist, in selected areas, artisans working with jute, bamboo and cane. Over 100,000 women in villages throughout Bangladesh are involved in handicraft production using jute as the major raw material and it is

proposed that the project build upon the women's jute cooperatives which have already proven successful. It will make available credits mainly for raw materials and tools, assist with design and market development. It will also provide trainers and extension workers (some of whom will be women) to assist diversification and expansion of the jute crafts, as well as storage which will facilitate bulk handling.

The Bank is rapidly increasing its commitments to operations which will finance labour intensive activities and provide productive employment at low unit capital cost. It will work through, and where necessary create, local financial and technical assistance institutions for this purpose. This effort will inevitably focus increasingly on very small enterprises

and the informal sector. In these areas, it appears that women's involvement, as entrepreneurs, family labour, the principal labour force, etc. will become more important. Women, in common with men in these activities, will need improved access to and information on raw materials; assistance with marketing, including quality control, design, pricing, and packaging; training, technical assistance and extension services for various aspects

of entrepreneurship, and technological innovation appropriate to their level of production and affordability. They need also access to credit that does not require filing complicated forms, providing collateral beyond their means and approaching an impersonal, or worse, a hostile bureaucracy; this credit should be made available on terms more favorable than the street credit they now use.

To ensure that women benefit, some special provisions may be required; determining exactly what these should be will be helped by the monitoring of projects and the findings of special studies such as those referred to above. Experience so far indicates that one such provision will be to relax legal constraints on women's ability to own property which in turn limits their ability to borrow; another will be to overcome their illiteracy (because of not having been permitted to attend school) which hampers their ability to keep records, etc.; still another will be to modify cultural or family constraints on their mobility which limit their seeking new marketing outlets and sources of materials supply, their ability to use the training opportunities or facilities provided in industrial esta-

tes, etc.; another will be to provide female trainers, extension and credit officers where women can only be approached by other women. These needs are enterprise related.

In addition, other needs relate to women's continuing domestic and household responsibilities. One such need is for services such as day care and transportation and accessible markets and shopping facilities. Another is for the development and local production of labour and energy saving tools and equipment for the performance of women's household and domestic tasks, such as fuel efficient cooking stoves, grain storage and grinding equipment, water pumps and vats, and equipment for safe processing and preserving of foods. This need provides a potential for local industry.

The Bank's sector and operational work aims, among other things, at uncovering the need for and viability of such industries, and is sensitive to the enterprise related needs of women mentioned above. These needs will be met successfully only by carefully integrated actions taken simultaneously on a number of points, action which will build up the consciousness of local institutions as well as their capacity to deal with these issues and

the links between them. Coordination of the programmes of financial and technical assistance available from a variety of sources will also be required.

In these efforts the Bank envisages for UNIDO a leading role with three major foci. One focus would relate to the contribution which the industrial expertise of UNIDO could make to the development of viable small industries which enhance women's income earning prospects or meet their needs for tools and equipment. In this connection the Organization's knowledge of technological research and development would be important. A second focus would be related to coordination of technical and financial resources, of industry-related training, and the coordination between enterprises which may enhance or assure the viability of each. The third focus would be the exchange of information about activities related to women in industry which are undertaken by various organizations and programmes. The preparatory meeting would be a first step in establishing the sort of information which it would be useful to exchange and the mechanics for its collection and dissemination. The support of the UNIDO/Bank programmes for these efforts is anticipated.

This news item appeared on page 5 of the November 27, 1979 issue of:

THE INDONESIA TIMES (JAKARTA)

ALL ABOUT EUE

Some Activities of the World Bank Related to Women in Industry

In its efforts to assist the poorest groups in developing countries to find such earning opportunities and to enhance their own productivity, the Bank has been giving increased attention to upgrading artisanal and cottage industries, to small scale enterprises and to means for creating off-farm employment in rural areas. Where it is necessary and/or feasible, special provisions are made to ensure the participation of women in these endeavors, a few examples of which will be cited.

The second urban project in Botswana provides, for a new market, vending shelters, infrastructure for local district commercial centres and low-cost industrial areas for small entrepreneurs in an effort to generate employment and income. Although these measures are designed to raise incomes and generate new employment among the poor in general, they are expected to be of special benefit to women, the group who suffers the highest ur-

ban unemployment rate and who will get an estimated 35% of the jobs newly created or upgraded by the project. Women also predominate among the traders who will rent the low-cost commercial sites. While not a condition for eligibility for the credit scheme of the Botswana Development Corporations which will channel resources to small scale enterprises, employment of women will be one of the criteria by which loan applications are judged.

The Second Urban Development Project in El Salvador provides for a revolving line of credit for small, informal sector entrepreneurs along with technical

assistance, and training. Some 400 small industrial/commercial sites will be developed within the project and other areas. In the first half year of activity over 80% of the loans were made to women. A study is being made of this experience to establish the characteristics both of the women entrepreneurs

and of their enterprises as well as any particular needs they may have for technical assistance, training, and for support services that affect the efficiency of their undertakings.

A rural development project for the Ulla Ulla region of the Bolivian Altiplano includes credit and technical assistance for the development of the wool handicraft industry based on improved supplies of alpacas, llamas and vicuna resources which the project will promote. Handicraft production is essentially a family industry in which women play a significant role and a special women's participation component will provide training for women in the techniques of handicraft production and marketing and also assist with the organization of production and marketing groups.

An agricultural consolidation project in the Shire Valley of Malawi includes expansion of the fisheries development programme. Women are involved in the on-shore aspects of the fishing industry and although the project does not specifically identify their engagement, their productivity and earnings should benefit from fish smoking kilns which it provides.

In view of the emigration of the male labor force, the future prospects of the textile industry in the YAR de-

pend to a significant degree on the extent to which women can be employed. A project for the rehabilitation of the industry base made provision for carrying out a study which will assess the potential for increased employment of women in the Siana textile mill. The study will examine the problems that may be associated with such increased employment and suggest measures that should be taken to overcome them.

The second small scale industry project in Bangladesh includes a component for cottage industry which is designed to assist, in selected areas, artisans working with jute, bamboo and cane. Over 100,000 women in villages throughout Bangladesh are involved in handicraft production using jute as the major raw material and it is

proposed that the project build upon the women's jute cooperatives which have already proven successful. It will make available credits mainly for raw materials and tools, assist with design and market development. It will also provide trainers and extension workers (some of whom will be women) to assist diversification and expansion of the jute crafts, as well as storage which will facilitate bulk handling.

The Bank is rapidly increasing its commitments to operations which will finance labour intensive activities and provide productive employment at low unit capital cost. It will work through, and where necessary create, local financial and technical assistance institutions for this purpose. This effort will inevitably focus increasingly on very small enterprises

and the informal sector. In these areas, it appears that women's involvement, as entrepreneurs, family labour, the principal labour force, etc. will become more important. Women, in common with men in these activities, will need improved access to and information on raw materials; assistance with marketing, including quality control, design, pricing, and packaging; training, technical assistance and extension services for various aspects

of entrepreneurship, and technological innovation appropriate to their level of production and affordability. They need also access to credit that does not require filing complicated forms, providing collateral beyond their means and approaching an impersonal, or worse, a hostile bureaucracy; this credit should be made available on terms more favorable than the street credit they now use.

To ensure that women benefit, some special provisions may be required; determining exactly what these should be will be helped by the monitoring of projects and the findings of special studies such as those referred to above. Experience so far indicates that one such provision will be to relax legal constraints on women's ability to own property which in turn limits their ability to borrow; another will be to overcome their illiteracy (because of not having been permitted to attend school) which hampers their ability to keep records, etc.; still another will be to modify cultural or family constraints on their mobility which limit their seeking new marketing outlets and sources of materials supply, their ability to use the training opportunities or facilities provided in industrial esta-

tes, etc.; another will be to provide female trainers, extension and credit officers where women can only be approached by other women. These needs are enterprise related.

In addition, other needs relate to women's continuing domestic and household responsibilities. One such need is for services such as day care and transportation and accessible markets and shopping facilities. Another is for the development and local production of labour and energy saving tools and equipment for the performance of women's household and domestic tasks, such as fuel efficient cooking stoves, grain storage and grinding equipment, water pumps and vats, and equipment for safe processing and preserving of foods. This need provides a potential for local industry.

The Bank's sector and operational work aims, among other things, at uncovering the need for and viability of such industries, and is sensitive to the enterprise related needs of women mentioned above. These needs will be met successfully only by carefully integrated actions taken simultaneously on a number of points, actions which will build up the consciousness of local institutions as well as their capacity to deal with these issues and

the links between them. Coordination of the programmes of financial and technical assistance available from a variety of sources will also be required.

In these efforts the Bank envisages for UNIDO a leading role with three major foci. One focus would relate to the contribution which the industrial expertise of UNIDO could make to the development of viable small industries which enhance women's income earning prospects or meet their needs for tools and equipment. In this connection the Organization's knowledge of technological research and development would be important. A second focus would be related to coordination of technical and financial resources, of industry-related training, and the coordination between enterprises which may enhance or assure the viability of each. The third focus would be the exchange of information about activities related to women in industry which are undertaken by various organizations and programmes. The preparatory meeting would be a first step in establishing the sort of information which it would be useful to exchange and the mechanics for its collection and dissemination. The support of the UNIDO/Bank programmes for these efforts is anticipated.

Mr. William Clark, VPE

November 27, 1978

Gloria L. Scott (through Mr. Herman van der Tak)

UNIDO Meeting

I attended the UNIDO meeting on the role of women in Industrialization in developing countries held at UNIDO Headquarters in Vienna from 6-10 November. The 50 participants were from developed and developing countries, attending in their individual capacities, and representatives of international organizations. The meeting was attended by only one male (apart from UNIDO staff).

This was UNIDO's first attempt, in response to the Lima Declaration and the mandates of several resolutions to examine women's involvement in industrialization. The purpose of the meeting was to recommend to UNIDO policies and specific activities which in collaboration with UN agencies and relevant international and national institutions would advance women's opportunities in the industrial process. It was unfortunately limited mainly by two factors: firstly the substantive inadequacy of the background paper prepared for UNIDO by a consultant; secondly the size of the meeting (which was to have been a small expert group). There was some useful discussion in working groups and while this may not be reflected in the report of the meeting it will have contributed to raising awareness on some of the important issues.

I have available for reference the papers prepared for the meeting, a report on which will in due course be prepared by UNIDO.

cc: Mr. Gordon



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United Nations Industrial Development Organization

Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing
Countries

Vienna, Austria, 6 - 10 November 1978

ISSUES TO BE CONSIDERED

BY THE UNIDO MEETING ON THE ROLE OF WOMEN
IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES*

compiled by the secretariat of UNIDO

* This paper is a compilation of views expressed by various authors in the documents submitted to this meeting as of 1 November 1978, and does not necessarily reflect the views of the UNIDO Secretariat.

The present paper is an attempt to bring to the attention of the meeting the main ideas expressed in the contributions received by the Secretariat ^{1/} for discussions on the role of women in industrialization in developing countries. Parts of some documents have been included in extenso when they seemed to cover observations made by most authors.

Introduction

1. It is generally recognized that there is inequality between men and women both in developed and developing countries. However, the unequal distribution of economic and political power is more acutely reflected in developing countries where the common historical and political past has resulted in a discrepancy between the incomes of a small minority and the majority of the population, a discrepancy which has affected, above all, women. It is also widely recognized that a new approach to economic development is needed, which would ensure the equal participation of all population groups in the development processes. Only when this is achieved can a nation awaken fully to economic and social stability. If industrialization is an essential part of economic development, conditions must be created for the full integration of women in the industrialization process. This has been clearly stated in the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development adopted by the Second General Conference of UNIDO in March 1975 as well as resolution 44 (IX) adopted by the Industrial Development Board in April 1975.

2. Since Western patterns of industrialization with adverse social effects have often spread across national and cultural boundaries, it is clearly the responsibility of the whole international community to analyse the situation of women in the process of industrialization and to bring about change.

I. CURRENT CONTRIBUTION OF WOMEN TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT AND MAJOR CONSTRAINTS TO AN INCREASED PARTICIPATION BY WOMEN IN THE INDUSTRIALIZATION PROCESS

(a) Current contribution

3. In almost all developing countries the population is heavily concentrated in rural areas, and the modern industrial sector absorbs only a very small proportion of the total labour force. The percentage of

^{1/} This includes documents received at UNIDO Headquarters by 1 November 1978. The list of such documents appears in an Annex.

women in the recognized labour force is very low - approximately one third of the total labour force - and in the majority of cases only 4 - 10% of this female labour force is involved in industry. Women are concentrated in the unskilled, lower grades of industry, where incomes are the lowest and job security practically non-existent. The educated woman has an insignificant role in industry, the number occupying managerial and technical posts being negligible .

4. The female labour predominates in low technology industries such as food, beverages, tobacco, textiles and wearing apparel, specially in rural and cottage industries (weaving, pottery, carving, soap manufacturing, etc.). In addition to their participation as wage earners, women are in many developing countries small producers and traders in their own right. In some cases, women are engaged in building and road construction as well.

(b) Constraints

5. Protective laws for women and laws for equal remuneration seem to exist in most developing countries. However, in most cases protective legislation has not helped to save women from exploitation and discrimination.

6. Centuries old traditions and the resistance of conservative circles have retarded the emancipation of women and their full participation in the economical life as equals to men. The legacy of colonial structures has also played a major role in the exploitation of women (examples: wage discrimination and the reluctance to employ women at higher echelons of industry).

7. The illiteracy of women is one of the major obstacles to draw them into active production and public life. In certain countries - and particularly in rural areas - female illiteracy exceeds 90%. On the other hand, many educated women are idle and economically inactive. A relatively large number of women either do not use the knowledge they have acquired or work in jobs for which they are too highly qualified - a type of brain-drain that should be avoided.

8. It has been demonstrated that during national emergencies and independence movements women have been mobilized to assume important roles at all levels; however, due to the non-existence of institutional mechanisms, these efforts are not subsequently being channelled into development. On the other hand, when there is acute unemployment, the

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promotion of women's employment is considered as snatching chances from men, and women find it particularly hard to find work in industry. According to studies made by the ILO, the level of unemployment in developing countries is nearly 25% of the available work force. It is thus obvious that general unemployment is one of the main reasons for the low percentage of working women.

9. The situation is aggravated by the fact that few women have the minimum technical skills required in industry. Modern and advanced technologies offer less and less job opportunities for women who do not possess the required skills and for whom corresponding training is not being made available.

10. Women's effective contribution to the industrialization process is further limited by the fact that whenever women enter the industrial labour force, they still remain responsible for the household and the care of the family group.

11. One of the main constraints encountered by women in the development of their own industries is lack of finance. Rural women, in particular, are not considered credit-worthy.

12. The lack of proper organization among women is one of the major weaknesses in promoting the integration of women in development in general and in industrial development in particular.

II. SPECIFIC AREAS WHERE WOMEN CAN CONTRIBUTE TO THE INDUSTRIALIZATION PROCESS

13. Three main groups of women can contribute to the industrialization process of the developing countries, if they are properly guided and motivated:

- (1) government administrators, educators, managers and entrepreneurs who can play a key role in policy making and planning;
- (2) technologists, scientists, engineers, educators and managers who can play a role in appropriate institutional/infrastructure development;
- (3) factory managers, technicians and workers (skilled and non-skilled), whose collective force can also play a supportive role to make sure that those policies on behalf of women are implemented.

14. The findings in the above sections would, furthermore, point to the following as areas where there is a potential for increased women participation:

(i) in rural and small-scale industries through

- the use of agricultural technologies and machines, e.g. mills, pumps, carts;
- improvements in the infrastructure (water supply, dairy technology, etc.) which would permit them to spend free time exploiting new options for advancement (education, health practices etc.);
- better utilization of local resources;
- development of appropriate technology;
- more involvement in income-generating activities, if they are granted loans and credits;
- development of their traditional handicrafts to produce marketable goods;
- rural crafts, manufacturing, construction and rural services, e.g. village stores;
- activities in export trade, increasing foreign currency and introducing them to other economic and social issues;

(ii) in large-scale industries through

- participation at all levels within the framework of the industrialization process;
- access to all levels of education and vocational training, including professional careers.

15. In other words, women may contribute to their countries' industrialization process by

- using their entrepreneurial skills and knowledge of local conditions to participate effectively in project planning and design;
- using locally available materials for production of essential items;
- a more active role in obtaining necessary loans;
- promoting the development of industrial co-operatives;
- sharing in the development of tripartite economic structures, participating in chambers of commerce and federations of

industries on the one hand and trade unions on the other, and finally in the national administration at all levels;

- participating in regional/international activities related to industrial development.

III. WAYS AND MEANS OF DEVELOPING AND IMPLEMENTING NATIONAL PROGRAMMES IN THIS FIELD

16. The role of women must be made an integral part of the development programme of each country, and measures to strengthen the contribution of women to industrial development should thus be initiated by Governments. National policies have to be formulated for the improvement of the conditions of women in family laws, in politics and public service, in labour, in education and in business as part and parcel of the overall development programme. The educational system in particular needs to emphasize -- beginning at the pre-school level -- that women can play an equally important role in industrial development as men, that women should not be limited to home-making and that homemakers can also be nation-builders.

(a) Policy for the integration of women in the development process

17. A policy for the integration of women in the development process is a prerequisite for enhancing the role of women in industrial development. Such a policy should include:

- initiating mechanisms for women to have a say in the formulation and implementation of matters which directly affect them;
- stimulating the national decision-makers in defining the resources, programmes and inducement that the nation requires to integrate women into the industrialization process;
- correcting the imbalance between education and job opportunities by restructuring industrialization in a decentralized manner so as to generate job opportunities for the educated female youth; and reorganizing the educational system so as to match jobs with skills;
- making use of the mass media to propagate progressive measures to protect and ensure women's rights and to make known the significance of their participation in production and the inadmissibility of any form of discrimination against women;
- ensuring equal pay for work of equal value;

- providing the necessary facilities to enable women with children to participate in the labour force (day care centres and infant schools, flexible working hours, part-time jobs and leave without pay);
- generating greater opportunity for women to acquire basic skills for self-employment;
- introducing formal courses in management and leadership as well as training in trade union activities; and encouraging women's participation in policy and decision-making as well as technical and managerial positions.

(b) Adequate planning for industrialization

18. At the planning stage of industrial development, the constraints mentioned under Section 2 above should be taken into consideration. Thus in combination with the policy mentioned under (a) the aims and objectives of planning for the increased participation of women in industry should in particular include measures for more employment for women. Self-employment along with rural industrialization seem to be the main answer for this.

19. The planning of the infrastructure must take into account the possible future expansion of industries in the rural sector. Planning must take into account the great need of the moment, i.e. producing in sufficient quantities and acceptable quality those items of food, clothing and household requisites required by the people of the country.

20. Planning for rural industrial development which will result in women getting greater employment opportunities must be a two-pronged effort:

- (i) existing industries must be upgraded so that not only productivity but also product quality is sustained, thus ensuring ready marketability of the goods;
- (ii) new industries, particularly agro-based industries must be developed where women too can actively participate.

The planning of rural industrialization projects should

- provide full-time or seasonal full-time employment
- generate employment at hours suitable for the rural woman
- require low-capital investment and utilize local skills and locally available raw materials
- take a cautious approach to mechanization or rationalization which could restrict women's participation
- provide facilities for leisure and infant-care and be sufficiently attractive to prevent urban migration.

(c) Self-employment projects

21. Experience has shown that projects for self-employment for women should work well if:

- every worker has an interest in the enterprise either by share or in any other capacity which will avoid exploitation
- project reports are drawn up with the assistance of competent and qualified authority till such time as they can manage to organize their own
- availability of raw materials is arranged
- bank financing is provided at concessional rates of interest
- sufficient management and technical training is given to women workers
- residential accommodation for women workers is arranged, if necessary
- day-care centres are organized for the children of working mothers
- technical and expert advice is made available when the units run into problems
- 95 % of the workers are women
- a good sense of trade unionism and joint effort is encouraged
- women are involved at decision-making levels
- special marketing facilities are planned.

(d) Women's groupings

22. While building up the infrastructure, strong national women's organizations have to encourage the movement. Women's organizations and, more recently, women's groups function as consciousness-raising institutions on the one hand and pressure groups on the other. In addition, they are expected to support their members and to prepare rosters of women experts.

23. Since it is essential that all national programmes and economic plans be evaluated and reviewed under women's perspectives, women's bureaux, divisions or commissions should be established as national machinery. They should help male administrators and government-decision-makers to become sensitive to and aware of the achievements of women in the industrialization process. Another aspect of their functions is to make the community understand the implications of planning and working for women.

IV. ROLE OF THE UNITED NATIONS AND OTHER INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND INSTITUTIONS IN THIS FIELD

24. The United Nations and its specialized agencies are already involved in various activities aimed at integrating women in development, some of them related to the industrialization process of developing countries as can be seen from the documents prepared by representatives of the UN system. In the contributions received, an appeal has been made, however, for assistance by the international community as follows:

(a) Legislation and conscience-raising

- (i) Proposals for enactment and legislation to remove discrimination against women, e.g. to ensure everyone's entitlement to work according to her/his ability; equal pay for equal value; security of health and life and adequate risk insurance; and employment combined with active parenthood.
- (ii) Assistance in re-designing the educational system to supply women with appropriate skills to enter the market competitively.

- (iii) Seminars and workshops for women to create awareness and review problems and prospects.
 - (iv) Media campaigns to accept women's potential in industrialization.
- (b) Research, information and promotion
- (i) Monitoring of trends and policies related to women in industry.
 - (ii) Improvement of statistics giving a picture of women's position in the developing countries and preparation of national surveys in the developing countries on the status of women in the basic sectors of the economy, the possibility of increasing female employment and ways of improving their working conditions in general.
 - (iii) Co-ordination of research and fact-finding on the current status of women in industry and identification of potential new areas towards which women could be geared.
 - (iv) A forum for exchange and dissemination of information on questions related to women in industrialization. In this connexion proposals are being made for the establishment of
 - a committee connected with the UN (or UNIDO) national committees in each country to be a source of information on questions related to women; or
 - some other regional or sub-regional network for that purpose.
 - (v) Creation of a UN Office with qualified personnel for the development and promotion of industries for women especially in those countries where industrialization is now beginning.
 - (vi) Preparation of regional or international directories of women experts in industrialization.
- (c) Direct assistance to the participation of women in industry
- (i) Training programmes and job orientation for women both in rural areas and in depressed areas in the urban sectors, particularly vocational training and training in production and managerial skills for entrepreneurs.

- (ii) Creation of a special fund to be used for training in production and managerial skills, purchase of raw materials and equipment, loans, etc.
- (iii) Training and motivating women for more effective trade union participation.
- (iv) Regulating employment practices by transnational corporations in developing countries, practices which affect women in particular.
- (v) Studies on various factors of industries such as raw material availability and technical co-operation which are likely to have an effect on women's participation.
- (vi) Identification of industries with high female component to determine their common interests and their order of significance to national/regional development. Also identification of specific needs of those industries.
- (vii) Planning and formulation of pilot projects for women in industry.
- (viii) Establishment of infrastructural services in rural areas.
- (ix) Promotion of regional co-operation and definition of the role of women therein.

1 November 1978

ANNEX

List of Documents

submitted to the Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing Countries

Women, industrialization and under-development, paper prepared by E. Flegg, UNIDO consultant	ID/WG.283/1
Country paper on Sri Lanka, by N. Fernando	ID/WG.283/7
Country paper on the Philippines, by R.L. Bautista	ID/WG.283/12
Country paper on Ghana, by E. Ocloo	ID/WG.283/13
Country paper on India, by L.D. Menon	ID/WG.283/14
Country paper on Tanzania, by K.T. Mtenga	ID/WG.283/17
Country paper on Turkey, by A Kudat	ID/WG.283/18
Country paper on Thailand, by M. Sundhagul and O. Tanskul	ID/WG.283/19
Country paper on Nigeria, by B. Awe	ID/WG.283/20
The Soviet Union and the Role of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries, by Ye. A. Bragina, USSR	ID/WG.283/15
The Role of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries, by D. Gaudart, Austria	ID/WG.283/5
Women and Industrial Development, by M. Boesveld, Netherlands	ID/WG.283/9
Contributions by the United Nations:	
- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations	ID/WG.283/2
- United Nations Development Programme	ID/WG.283/3
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization	ID/WG.283/10
- Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs, United Nations	ID/WG.283/6
- The World Bank	ID/WG.283/11
- Asian and Pacific Centre for Women and Development	ID/WG.283/4
- Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific	ID/WG.283/8

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United Nations Industrial Development Organization

Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women in
Industrialization in Developing Countries

Vienna, Austria, 6-10 November 1978

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REPORT

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PREFACE

In both developing and developed countries men and women are treated unequally. This is even more acute in developing countries, whose historical and political development has been marked by income disparities that have particularly affected women. Full participation of all sectors of the population is essential to a balanced development process leading to social and economic equality. Just as the industrialization process is crucial to economic development, so is the full integration of women in that process which was recognized in the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development and Co-operation (ID/CONF.3/31, chap. IV)^{1/} adopted by the Second General Conference of UNIDO in March 1975, as well as in the Industrial Development Board resolution 44 (IX).^{2/}

As industrialization, with its adverse social effects, extends beyond national and cultural boundaries, action must be taken at an international level to analyse the current status and potential role of women in the process of industrialization with a view to positive change.

To bring about a fuller and more effective contribution of women to industrial development will require first the political will of governments. Such action would entail a change in present policies at national and international levels, and the introduction of a number of prerequisites. First, decision-makers would need to be aware of the potential benefits to be derived from the increased participation of women in the industrialization process and encouraged to further such participation. The decision-makers should offer women every opportunity to upgrade their status. While, for their part, women in industry should organize themselves for the improvement of their working conditions and assurance of their rights.

Although women's role, and their potential for increased participation, in socio-economic development is generally recognized in most countries, their contribution to the industrialization process is still minimal. However, were women to be fully involved in industrial development, it would ensure not only the effective utilization of all available labour, but also an improvement in the quality of life of both sexes with consequential sharing of responsibilities and benefits.

^{1/} Transmitted to the General Assembly by a note from the Secretary-General (A/10712).

^{2/} Official Records of the General Assembly, Thirtieth Session, Supplement No. 16, annex I.

Furthermore, achievement of the Lima target of increasing the share of the developing countries to at least 25 per cent of total world industrial production is contingent upon the full participation of women. However, it must be ensured that such participation does not follow past trends in the industrialization process, which have had a negative impact on employment conditions of women; women, regardless of their social status, must enjoy the same opportunities for gainful employment as are available to men.

Social prejudices and attitudinal barriers towards women in industrial development and employment exist throughout the world. Economic and cultural concepts tie women to the confines of home and hearth, and they are seldom included in the planning of industrial development and formulation of policies on employment, wages and education, which are frequently based on inadequate information on the capabilities of women. National income accounts usually fail to reflect the total contribution women do make to the economy.

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INTRODUCTION

1. The Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries was organized by UNIDO and held at Vienna from 6 to 10 November 1978.
2. The purpose of the Meeting was to discuss the role of women in developing countries with reference to the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action which, among other things, called for the developing countries to adopt policy measures aimed at achieving the full utilization of their available human resources and creating conditions that would make possible the full integration of women in social and economic activities, in particular, in the industrialization process, on the basis of equal rights (ID/CONF.3/31, chap. IV, paras. 29 and 30).

RECOMMENDATIONS

At the national and local levels

3. The Meeting made the following recommendations:

(1) Developing countries should create or strengthen national commissions or any other appropriate machinery at the planning, institutional and operational levels to generally promote and co-ordinate the integration of women into the industrialization process, and specifically to ensure the implementation of the ensuing recommendations of this Meeting.

(2) National legislation should be reviewed with a view to abolishing all forms of discrimination and promoting equality of opportunity and treatment for men and women.

(3) Developing countries should ensure the effective implementation of conventions and recommendations approved in international forums, particularly ILO, to prevent discrimination against women in employment.

(4) Governments in developing countries should adopt policies and introduce incentives to eliminate discrimination against women in recruitment practices, career development, on-the-job training and job security, and also against employed women, especially when they need maternity leave.

(5) Governments should organize media campaigns at the national and local levels to break down prejudice against women and disseminate information on women's potential in industrialization. Campaigns should also be organized to encourage men to share equally the responsibilities of the household and family, thereby providing women with sufficient time to be actively engaged in industry.

(6) In the identification of national priority industries - small-, medium- and large-scale - Governments should examine their present criteria to select projects that will encourage women's employment, both in rural and urban sectors, taking into account technology, product design and marketing organization. Industries oriented to household labour-saving devices and infrastructure projects that would increase women's free time and facilitate their entry into the job market should be given high priority.

(7) When considering foreign investment requests, Governments should examine the existing policies of foreign enterprises, i.e. transnational corporations, that affect women workers, particularly in large-scale industries, to rectify any discriminatory practices.

(8) Measures should be taken at all levels to ensure effective participation of women in all decision-making/planning bodies and in unions.

(9) Governments should adopt policy measures to improve the working and living conditions of women workers, including those dealing with out-work and piece-work, and to ensure equal remuneration for work of equal value (including wage supplements for jobs of low satisfaction), equal access to industrial occupations and improved working facilities such as children's day-care centres and rest areas.

(10) Banking regulations and policies concerning industrial credit should be reviewed with the objective of modifying them to facilitate the financing of women's industrial projects.

(11) Governments should adopt measures to ensure equal access by women to all forms and levels of education and training, and in particular:

(a) To review basic educational systems to ensure, among other things, that:

- (i) An educational system is introduced that aims at combining educational, with job, opportunities;
- (ii) Technical education, including that directed towards industrial employment, is offered;
- (iii) Technical education is offered to girls;
- (iv) Educational materials are prepared to change the attitudes towards traditional sex roles;
- (v) Career guidance is provided based on information on available educational offers and job opportunities;
- (vi) Reorientation courses are arranged for teachers to ensure implementation of the above reforms;

(b) To provide extramural education, duly co-ordinated with the private sector, for the formation and upgrading of skills including scientific, technical, administrative and managerial ones. The timing of the programmes should be suitable for working women;

(c) To increase women's participation in training programmes. For this purpose, studies should be conducted on the desirability of legislation requiring enterprises and government training institutions to allocate a percentage of their training resources for women.

(12) Governments should give priority to developing industrial projects in the rural areas to benefit the poorer sections of the population. In the formulation and execution of these projects, attention should be given to the possibilities of employing women.

(13) Governments should create or strengthen special assistance units for women industrialists and entrepreneurs, particularly in small- and medium-scale industries. Such units would assist women in the selection of technology appropriate to local conditions and in the preparation of projects for loan applications. The units should also undertake continuing studies of measures designed to improve productivity and working conditions.

(14) Governments and responsible non-governmental organizations should promote the organization of women into co-operatives and other industrially registered organizations to enable them to undertake viable industrial projects, particularly in small- and medium-scale industries.

(15) For proper industrial planning, data should be extracted on the actual contribution of women in the production process (including work done at home).

At the international level

4. The following recommendations were made to UNIDO:

(1) To create institutional machinery, such as an interdivisional working group on women in industry, to implement and follow up the relevant recommendations and resolutions adopted in various forums of the United Nations system related to the integration of women in development as well as the recommendations below.

(2) To make concrete efforts to have women included in international conferences, workshops and training programmes organized by UNIDO. In particular, special effort should be made to have women workers at the grass-roots level represented at meetings on industrialization.

(3) To develop project concepts and proposals for the involvement of women in industry and to provide assistance in implementing these programmes when so requested by Governments.

(4) To undertake studies related to selected industries, such as electronics, food processing, and pharmaceutical and textile industries, and their impact on women, taking into account reports on these subjects by other agencies such as FAO, ILO and WHO. Any preliminary results of such studies should be included in the documentation for the Third General Conference of UNIDO and submitted to the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women in 1980.

(5) To take into account factors that are likely to adversely affect women in the production process when technical assistance is provided to project feasibility studies or when technologies are selected.

(6) To undertake intensive research on the type of technologies that aid women in existing jobs.

(7) To undertake studies on the experience of women already active in small- and medium-scale industries both in rural and urban areas for subsequent dissemination to all developing countries.

(8) To take into consideration the possible impact of industrial redeployment on women in the consolidated report that the secretariat is preparing on the subject for submission to the Third General Conference of UNIDO.^{1/}

(9) To formulate, at the request of Governments, pilot projects in areas of rural industrialization where women can be employed, such as agricultural modernization, raw material and agricultural processing, and construction materials. Special funds for this purpose might be allocated from the UNIDO Industrial Development Fund.

(10) To improve data collection and research methodology for better industrial planning by extracting data on the actual contribution of women in the production process (including taking measures to quantify goods produced and consumed in the household).

(11) To take special measures to increase the participation of women in the training programmes of UNIDO, in particular:

(a) To reorient the UNIDO training and fellowship programmes at the managerial and technical levels to ensure a greater participation of women. In reorienting the training programmes, UNIDO should emphasize developing training programmes for women trainers; and strengthening existing national centres or institutions for that purpose. In carrying out this task, UNIDO should consult with other United Nations agencies that are involved in vocational training and education, such as ILO and UNESCO;

(b) To organize special subregional training programmes for women, particularly in industries already planned for the subregion;

(c) To organize meetings of experts to exchange experience concerning training of women, especially for existing industries with a good potential for participation of women;

(d) To revise the suggestions of UNIDO to Governments for the nomination of female candidates for UNIDO training and fellowship programmes;

^{1/} See "Industrial redeployment in favour of developing countries" (A/33/182), para. 37.

(e) To design managerial and training programmes in order for women to keep up to date with the latest technological developments in industry;

(f) To allocate resources from the UNIDO budget for technical co-operation among developing countries to give women the opportunity to upgrade their technical skills through personnel exchange programmes;

(g) As a follow-up to resolution 44 (IX) on the integration of women in development adopted by the Industrial Development Board in 1975 ^{2/} and the recommendations of that meeting, the Board may wish to consider (a) requesting the secretariat of UNIDO to design and execute projects for training of women at higher technological and managerial levels; and (b) allocating a portion of the funds available for training under the Regular Programme of Technical Assistance and allocating other funds specifically for this purpose.

(12) To include qualified women at the managerial, administrative and technical levels both in the secretariat and in projects at the country level.

(13) To take into consideration in the work programme of UNIDO the ideas expressed in the discussions and documentation of this meeting.

(14) To submit the report of this Meeting to the Industrial Development Board at its next session and to use it as a UNIDO input to the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development under the relevant agenda item.

5. The following recommendations were made to UNIDO in co-operation with other United Nations agencies:

(1) Appropriate United Nations agencies and organizations should include women's interests in the codes of conduct currently under negotiation relating to transfer of technology and transnational corporations.

(2) In the light of the decentralized nature of UNDP operations, UNIDO and other United Nations organizations responsible for the promotion of women's participation in industrial development should provide appropriate instructions and guidelines to their field staff and to the UNDP resident representatives. Such guidelines should also be available to government officials and interested non-governmental organizations in the relevant working languages.

(3) Women workers should be properly represented at any future meetings organized by the United Nations on the subject of participation of women in development. The United Nations should encourage Governments to invite women workers from both rural and urban areas to participate actively in the policy-

^{2/} Official Records of the General Assembly, Thirtieth Session, Supplement No. 16, annex I.

making decisions at all meetings related to industrialization, technology transfer, technical training and programme evaluations, so that the actual needs of women can be taken into consideration with first-hand knowledge.

(4) UNESCO, ILO and UNIDO should provide assistance to national governments in connection with educational reforms to improve women's technological and scientific skills.

(5) An interagency task force on technical co-operation between developing countries in industrial development should be established under the leadership of UNIDO to deal particularly with the transfer of technology and entrepreneurship development programmes for women.

(6) All interagency reports prepared by the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination of the United Nations concerning women in development should include the topic of women in industry. The topic should also be covered in the regional reports to be prepared for the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women, which are provided for in paragraph 9 of the Economic and Social Council resolution 1978/32/Rev.1.

I. ORGANIZATION OF THE MEETING

Opening of the Meeting

6. The Meeting was opened by the Director of the Division of Policy Co-ordination, UNIDO. A statement was also given in the course of the Meeting by the Chief of the Section for Economic Co-operation among Developing Countries. Both statements were distributed at the Meeting.

7. The Meeting was attended by 44 participants from developing and developed countries and from international organizations. UNIDO staff also participated. All those attending the Meeting did so in their individual capacity, not as representatives of Governments, organizations or institutions. A list of participants (ID/WG.283/16/Rev.1) was issued.

Election of the Officers

8. Bolanle Awe (Nigeria) and Dora Rives (Cuba) were elected Chairman and Vice-Chairman respectively. Lilia Bautista (Philippines) was elected Rapporteur.

Adoption of the agenda

9. The Meeting adopted the following agenda:

1. Opening of the Meeting.
2. Election of officers.
3. Adoption of the agenda and organization of work.
4. Current contribution of women to industrial development and major constraints to an increased participation by women in the industrialization process of developing countries.
5. Specific areas where women can contribute to industrialization in developing countries.
6. Ways and means of developing and implementing national programmes for the increased participation of women in the industrialization process.
7. Suggestions as to a more effective role for the United Nations and other international organizations and institutions in this field.
8. Review and adoption of conclusions and recommendations of the Meeting.

Establishment of working groups

10. The Meeting held two plenary sessions and thereafter decided to break up into two groups, one to discuss the role and participation of women in small-scale and medium-scale industries and a second group to discuss the role and participation of women in large-scale industries. For the purpose of preparing an integrated report, a drafting group was organized.

11. Subsequently, the report was discussed and adopted at a plenary session on the last day of the Meeting.

Documentation

12. A list of documents presented to the Meeting is attached as the annex.

II. SUMMARY OF DISCUSSIONS

Participation of women in industry

13. The Meeting noted that, depending upon the level of industrial development and cultural characteristics, women were already participating, mostly at subordinate levels, in industrial production, especially in certain sectors and types of industry. It was agreed that a fundamental change was needed in the nature and structure of such participation.

14. The Meeting noted the magnitude of women's present involvement in industrialization which was of some 400 million women already engaged in industry in the developing countries. However, on a country-to-country basis, the participation of women in the industrial labour force in developing countries was only a very small percentage of the total.

15. Different country studies presented at the Meeting indicated a number of major production lines, which more commonly involve women, such as food processing, textiles, animal products, household equipment manufacturing, plastic materials, pharmaceutical and medical products, paper and cardboard, electronics, building materials and standardized handicrafts. However, for the most part, women's participation in industrial production was confined to (a) industries with low technology, low capital requirements and low productivity; or (b) industries that, in spite of high capital requirements and sophisticated technologies, were highly labour-intensive. The common factors for women workers in these two types of industries are low wages and poor working conditions.

16. Women's industrial involvement may take various forms ranging from participation in large industrial firms to cottage industry. However, it was considered by the Meeting that special efforts were needed to avoid stereotyping or limiting the type of work women should be engaged in, thereby ensuring that all jobs related to industrial production were accessible to women.

17. The Meeting recognized that in many developing countries women had substantially contributed to the development of traditional lines of small- and medium-scale industries that still accounted for major industrial production and that, in some cases, had provided for the countries' entry to the world market.

18. It was noted, however, that, in the present situation, regardless of the sector and type of industry, women mostly participated in the production process at the lowest level of skill requirements and consequently obtained marginal remuneration, either in the form of salaries or wages.

19. It was also recognized that the pattern of industrial growth in developing countries had tended to favour only a small part of the population, often those living in urban rather than rural areas. That called for increased efforts to develop industry in rural areas on a greater scale than heretofore. For that to be achieved, there was a need for women in the rural areas to participate in the industrialization process.

20. A number of constraints to a fuller participation of women in the industrialization process of developing countries was noted by the Meeting. Those were mainly of an economic, political, social, legal and psychological nature. The Meeting considered the following specific constraints of primary importance:

Social, attitudinal and institutional barriers

21. Centuries' old traditions and the resistance of conservative circles had retarded the emancipation of women and their full and equal participation with men in economic development. The legacy of colonial structures had also played a major role in the exploitation of women. Social and attitudinal barriers were reflected in such discriminatory practices as unequally remunerative wages, reluctance to employ women at higher echelons of industry, and lack of facilities for assisting women to set up their own enterprises. In certain countries, social and attitudinal aspects of discrimination towards women have been legally institutionalized, for instance, in legislation that requires male authorization for women, below a certain age or married, to participate in organized labour, engage in business, obtain credit or benefit from tax incentives.

Insufficient employment opportunities for women

22. The Meeting observed that the existing division of the labour market along sex lines was a cause of prohibiting women's entrance to new lines of production and to their promotion to higher levels of employment. It had been demonstrated that during national emergencies and independence movements women had been mobilized to assume important roles at all levels; however, due to the non-existence of institutional mechanisms, those efforts were not subsequently channelled into development. On the other hand, at times of acute

unemployment and underemployment, the promotion of women's employment is considered as depriving men of their right to work, and women find it particularly hard to find work in industry. It is thus obvious that general unemployment and underemployment are two of the main reasons for the low percentage of working women in developing countries.

23. The Meeting noted the inadequate industrial capacity of developing countries as a major constraint to creating increased employment opportunities.

24. Moreover, the Meeting was of the opinion that no special consideration was being given in the developing countries to the promotion and development of industrial projects that women could initiate. Lack of effort in that regard was most apparent in small-scale industry and in the rural regions where, it was felt, women had the potential to play a significant role in industrial development. Before that could happen, however, special measures were needed to remove a number of constraints such as: (a) lack of information on investment opportunities; (b) lack of available finance, rural women in particular do not appear to be considered credit-worthy; (c) lack of entrepreneurial, managerial and technical skills, particularly among rural women; (d) lack of sufficient training and skill improvement facilities, particularly those leading to overall entrepreneurship development such as marketing, credit and production management; and (e) lack of information for women on existing facilities and programmes related to industrial development.

Education and training

25. It was stated that a high illiteracy rate was one of the major obstacles preventing women from participating in active production and public life. In certain developing countries, and particularly in rural areas, female illiteracy exceeded 90 per cent.

26. Furthermore, concerning industrial production, few women had the minimum technical skills required in industry, particularly those required by modern and advanced technologies. That problem was compounded by the fact that there appeared to be discrimination against women when it came to placement in existing industrial training programmes including on-the-job training. In fact, technological advancements in industry were often used as a pretext for excluding women from high-paying positions in industry, while little was done to upgrade women's skills to correspond to such technological changes.

27. A further constraint noted by the Meeting, both for the integration of women in industry and for general industrial development in developing countries, was that a number of women who were adequately trained to undertake industrial activities were being left idle, or were performing tasks at lower levels than their qualifications warranted - such inadequate utilization of qualified women should be avoided if maximum human resources were to be mobilized to implement the industrialization targets set by the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action.

Employment conditions and environment

28. Women were often relegated to low-productivity jobs requiring low skills which therefore have lower salaries. Furthermore, even when occupying higher ranks, women's salaries were considered as complementary income, and thus put at a lower level than men's. That fact had led to an inequitable distribution within the economy in favour of men.

29. Women's effective contribution to the industrialization process was further limited by the fact that whenever women entered the industrial labour force they still remained responsible for the household and the care of the family group. The lack, or the ineffectiveness, of legislation for social facilities, maternity and social security benefits was underlined by the Meeting in that respect. Likewise, the inadequate administrative regulations on working hours, organization of shifts and lack of health and safety regulations and facilities for women hampered their involvement in industry.

30. It was further noted by the Meeting that women's possibility of advancement, particularly in large-scale industries, was impeded by the lack of on-the-job training programmes to upgrade skills.

31. It was also observed that under the present international economic system, most transnational corporations located industries in developing in order to exploit cheap and relatively unorganized labour. Some enterprises particularly sought female labour because it was the most easily exploited in industries such as electronics, textiles, food processing industries etc. Some transnational corporations were, in effect, often exporting a part of the production process that was labour-intensive to the developing countries, in which adverse employment conditions for women were created while maintaining

capital-intensive, highly-skilled and more productive stages of the labour process in the industrialized countries, thereby inhibiting the transfer of technology to the developing countries.

32. Another aspect of the existing inequitable international economic system that was pointed out was that many industrialized countries import cheap migrant labour to do work in areas of industry that workers in the developed countries were unwilling to accept. That sometimes involved migrant women workers, but where it involved men, women were also adversely affected because families were split up and women were left with a heavy burden of responsibility for the maintenance of the family, without opportunities to acquire jobs and skills in the domestic economy.

Lack of participation in decision-making and planning bodies

33. Women's interests were usually excluded from the decision-making and planning bodies involved in the industrialization process, with the result that project ideas developed by women for their own benefit often never reached the decision level, and that industrialization plans with adverse effects on women might easily be approved and implemented. The Meeting was of the opinion that there was a lack of women's involvement at all decision-making levels of formulation of industrialization strategies and plans, as well as development and execution of specific industrial development projects. It was felt that until a significant degree of involvement of women in decision-making could be secured, discrimination against women in industry would continue. To bring that about, special measures should be called for, as below.

The national level

34. Women should be associated with the decisions at all stages of formulation, planning and implementation of industries, including designing, planning of pre-investment and operations at all levels:

- (a) Executive, including public service;
- (b) Judicial, including industrial tribunals and quasi-judicial bodies;
- (c) Legislative;
- (d) Industrial boards and boards of directors of state-owned enterprises.

The local level

35. Women should be encouraged to participate in local councils and appropriate municipal boards.

The enterprise level

36. Women should be encouraged to participate in planning, decision-making and management in industrial enterprises, chambers of commerce and industry, professional bodies and unions. Where there are no unions, women should participate in unionization.

Lack of organization and participation of women in trade unions

37. The lack of proper organization among women is one of the major weaknesses in promoting the integration of women in development in general and in industrial development in particular. In the latter case, the Meeting noted the lack of organization and effective participation of women in trade unions at the level of members and administrators as well as lack of participation in international organizations involving labour. Where women had attempted to start small industrial units, they had run into constraints that might have been avoided had they been organized into economically and legally viable groups such as industrial co-operatives.

Information

38. Women are not properly informed of the opportunities available concerning their potential involvement in the industrialization process or of the possibilities of improving their skill capabilities to meet the needs of industry.

Data and methodology on women's contributions

39. Data and proper methodology for measuring women's existing and potential contributions to industrialization were crucial to effective planning of industrialization programmes aimed at fully utilizing available human resources in developing countries. In most developing countries, however, the research required to develop such data and methodology was still to be undertaken.

Annex

LIST OF DOCUMENTS

- ID/WG.283/1 Women, industrialization and undevelopment
E. Flegg
- ID/WG.283/2 FAO approach to enhancing the role of women in rural economies
Home Economics and Social Programmes Service
- ID/WG.283/3 Note on the role of women in industrialization in developing countries
United Nations Development Programme
- ID/WG.283/4 Note on the activities of the Asian and Pacific Centre for Women and Development relevant to the role of women in industrialization in developing countries
Asian and Pacific Centre for Women and Development, ESCAP
- ID/WG.283/5 The role of women in industrialization in Developing Countries
D. Gaudart (Austria)
- ID/WG.283/6 Note for the preparatory meeting on the role of women in industrialization in developing countries
Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs
- ID/WG.283/7 The role of women in industrialization in Sri Lanka
N. Fernando
- ID/WG.283/8 Note on activities of ESCAP related to women in industry
ESCAP
- ID/WG.283/9 Women and industrial development
M. Boesveld (Netherlands)
- ID/WG.283/10 UNESCO activities relevant to the role of women in industrialization in developing countries
UNESCO
- ID/WG.283/11 Note on some activities of the World Bank related to women in industry
World Bank
- ID/WG.283/12 The role of women in the industrial development of the Philippines
L.R. Bautista
- ID/WG.283/13 The role of women in industrialization. Country paper on Ghana
E. Ocloo

- ID/WG.283/14 Women in industrial development - India
L.D. Menon
- ID/WG.283/15 The Soviet Union and the role of women in industrialization
in developing countries
Ye. A. Bragina
- ID/WG.283/16/Rev.1 List of participants
- ID/WG.283/17 The role of women in industrialization in developing
countries. Country paper on Tanzania
K.T. Mtenga
- ID/WG.283/18 Role of women in industrialization. The Turkish case
A. Kudat
- ID/WG.283/19 The role of women in industrialization in Thailand
M. Sundhagul and O. Tanskul
- ID/WG.283/20 The role of women in industrialization in developing
countries. Country paper on Nigeria
B. Awe
- ID/WG.283/21 Provisional agenda and work programme
- ID/WG.283/22 Issues to be considered by the UNIDO Meeting on the Role
of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries
UNIDO secretariat
- ID/WG.283/24 The role of women in industrialization; Country study on
Peru
M. Salazar
- ID/WG.283/25 The role of women in industrialization; Country paper on
Morocco
F.Z. Bennani-Baiti
- ID/WG.283/26 The role of women in industrialization in Egypt
S. El-Shamy
- ID/WG.283/27 The role of women in industrial development, Country paper
on Pakistan
B. Nasim Jehan
- ID/WG.283/28 The role of women in the industrial development in Romania
M. Groza
- ID/WG.283/29 Activities of the Swedish International Development Authority
(SIDA) relating to the role of women in the industrialization
of developing countries
J. Kann

- ID/WG.283/30 The status of women, fertility patterns and industrialization
in developing countries
I.A. Subramaniam
- ID/WG.283/31 The role of women in industrialization in Brazil
M. Souto Machado
- ID/WG.283/32 A brief summary of ECA involvement and programme for women
in industry
J. Dhamija
- ID/WG.283/33 Women and development
M.C. Uribe
- ID/WG.283/34 Women in industry in developing countries; An ILO research
(ILO/W.6/1978) note
ILO, Office for Women Workers' Questions
- ID/WG.283/35 Employment situation and outlook-women; Excerpt from draft
five-year plan of India for 1978-83



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United Nations Industrial Development Organization

Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing
Countries

Vienna, Austria, 6 - 10 November 1978

NOTE ON SOME ACTIVITIES OF THE WORLD BANK RELATED TO WOMEN IN INDUSTRY *

prepared by

The World Bank

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id.78-5925

In two recent papers, Rural Enterprises and Non-Farm Employment (January, 1978) and Employment and Development of Small Enterprises (February, 1978) the World Bank has outlined its policy of reducing poverty by helping to increase the availability of economically productive employment and earning opportunities. Because of the Bank's focus on project lending, its activities relating to women in industry are carried out largely as part of its project work. Project design is increasingly taking into account the role of women in all sectors. Some examples in the industrial sector follow.

In its efforts to assist the poorest groups in developing countries to find such earning opportunities and to enhance their own productivity, the Bank has been giving increased attention to upgrading artisanal and cottage industries, to small scale enterprises and to means for creating off-farm employment in rural areas. Where it is necessary and/or feasible, special provisions are made to ensure the participation of women in these endeavors, a few examples of which will be cited.

The second urban project in Botswana provides for a new market, vending shelters, infrastructure for local district commercial centres and low-cost industrial areas for small entrepreneurs in an effort to generate employment and income. Although these measures are designed to raise incomes and generate new employment among the poor in general, they are expected to be of special benefit to women, the group who suffers the highest urban unemployment rate and who will get an estimated 35% of the jobs newly created or upgraded by the project. Women also predominate among the traders who will rent the low-cost commercial sites. While not a condition for eligibility for the credit scheme of the

Botswana Development Corporations which will channel resources to small scale enterprises, employment of women will be one of the criteria by which loan applications are judged.

The Second Urban Development Project in El Salvador provides for a revolving line of credit for small, informal sector entrepreneurs along with technical assistance, and training. Some 400 small industrial/commercial sites will be developed within the project and other areas. In the first half year of activity over 80% of the loans were made to women. A study is being made of this experience to establish the characteristics both of the women entrepreneurs and of their enterprises as well as any particular needs they may have for technical assistance, training, and for support services that affect the efficiency of their undertakings.

A rural development project for the Ulla Ulla region of the Bolivian Altiplano includes credit and technical assistance for the development of the wool handicraft industry based on improved supplies of alpaca, llama and vicuña resources which the project will promote. Handicraft production is essentially a family industry in which women play a significant role and a special women's participation component will provide training for women in the techniques of handicraft production and marketing and also assist with the organization of production and marketing groups.

An agricultural consolidation project in the Shire Valley of Malawi includes expansion of the fisheries development programme. Women are involved in the on-shore aspects of the fishing industry and although the project does not specifically identify their engagement, their productivity and earnings should benefit from fish smoking kilns which it provides.

In view of the emigration of the male labor force, the future prospects of the textile industry in the YAR depend to a significant degree on the extent to which women can be employed. A project for the rehabilitation of the industry has made provision for carrying out a study which will assess the potential for increased employment of women in the Sanaa textile mill. The study will examine the problems that may be associated with such increased employment and suggest measures that should be taken to overcome them.

The second small scale industry project in Bangladesh includes a component for cottage industry which is designed to assist, in selected areas, artisans working with jute, bamboo and cane. Over 100,000 women in villages throughout Bangladesh are involved in handicraft production using jute as the major raw material and it is proposed that the project build upon the women's jute cooperatives which have already proven successful. It will make available credits mainly for raw materials and tools, assist with design and market development. It will also provide trainers and extension workers (some of whom will be women) to assist diversification and expansion of the jute crafts, as well as storage which will facilitate bulk handling.

The Bank is rapidly increasing its commitments to operations which will finance labour intensive activities and provide productive employment at low unit capital cost. It will work through, and where necessary create, local financial and technical assistance institutions for this purpose. This effort will inevitably focus increasingly on very small enterprises and the informal sector. In these areas, it appears that women's involvement, as entrepreneurs, family labour, the principal labour force, etc. will become more important. Women, in common with men in these activities, will need improved access to and

information on raw materials; assistance with marketing, including quality control, design, pricing, and packaging; training, technical assistance and extension services for various aspects of entrepreneurship, and technological innovation appropriate to their level of production and affordability. They need also access to credit that does not require filing complicated forms, providing collateral beyond their means and approaching an impersonal, or worse, a hostile bureaucracy; this credit should be made available on terms more favorable than the street credit they now use.

To ensure that women benefit, some special provisions may be required; determining exactly what these should be will be helped by the monitoring of projects and the findings of special studies such as those referred to above. Experience so far indicates that one such provision will be to relax legal constraints on women's ability to own property which in turn limits their ability to borrow; another will be to overcome their illiteracy (because of not having been permitted to attend school) which hampers their ability to keep records, etc.; still another will be to modify cultural or family constraints on their mobility which limit their seeking new marketing outlets and sources of materials supply, their ability to use the training opportunities or facilities provided in industrial estates, etc.; another will be to provide female trainers, extension and credit officers where women can only be approached by other women. These needs are enterprise related.

In addition, other needs relate to women's continuing domestic and household responsibilities. One such need is for services such as day care and transportation and accessible markets and shopping facilities. Another is for the development and local production of labour and energy saving tools and equipment for the

performance of women's household and domestic tasks, such as fuel efficient cooking stoves, grain storage and grinding equipment, water pumps and vats, and equipment for safe processing and preserving of foods. This need provides a potential for local industry.

The Bank's sector and operational work aims, among other things, at uncovering the need for and viability of such industries, and is sensitive to the enterprise related needs of women mentioned above. These needs will be met successfully only by carefully integrated actions taken simultaneously on a number of points, action which will build up the consciousness of local institutions as well as their capacity to deal with these issues and the links between them. Coordination of the programmes of financial and technical assistance available from a variety of sources will also be required.

In these efforts the Bank envisages for UNIDO a leading role with three major foci. One focus would relate to the contribution which the industrial expertise of UNIDO could make to the development of viable small industries which enhance women's income earning prospects or meet their needs for tools and equipment. In this connection the Organization's knowledge of technological research and development would be important. A second focus would be related to coordination of technical and financial resources, of industry-related training, and the coordination between enterprises which may enhance or assure the viability of each. The third focus would be the exchange of information about activities related to women in industry which are undertaken by various organizations and programmes. The preparatory meeting would be a first step in establishing the sort of information which it would be useful to exchange and the mechanics for its collection and dissemination. The support of the UNIDO/Bank cooperative programmes for these efforts is anticipated.

cc: Mrs. Scott
file

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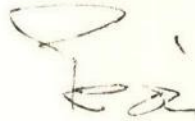
Dear Shirley,

Thank you for your letter of 25 August 1978. I am delighted that our forthcoming meeting on the role of women in industrialization in developing countries has brought us into contact again!

Many thanks for your "Note on Some Bank Activities related to Women in Industry". This is indeed very much to the point, and I do hope that the Bank will be able to send a representative to our meeting.

With best regards,

Yours sincerely,



Peider Künz
Director
Division of Policy Co-ordination

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INTEGRATION OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

Report by the Executive Director

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Introduction

1. This is the third report of the Executive Director to the Industrial Development Board on the implementation of resolution 44(IX), adopted by the Industrial Development Board at its ninth session. The present report covers the activities of UNIDO in 1977 related to the integration of women in development.
2. When making an inventory of the progress achieved in integrating women in the process of industrialization, account should be taken of the various factors and constraints that might obscure the results of the efforts made by UNIDO in this field. The process of integrating women in development is, of necessity, multi-faceted and long-term. UNIDO is aware of the fact that one of the most important elements required in this process **is to bring about a change** in the prevailing attitudes in project formulation at both the national and international levels. Such a change, however, can only take place gradually, particularly in view of the complexity of the subject and the diversity of socio-economic factors operating in the developing world.
3. Another immediate inhibiting factor in the Organization's efforts to develop specific projects related to women is the lack of human and budgetary resources since these resources have already been allocated to other priority areas.

EFFORTS TO INTEGRATE WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

Technical assistance

4. The Secretariat is continuing to increase its efforts to give greater attention to the integration of women in development during project formulation and appraisal. Following the example set by UNDP, instructions have been issued to all Professional staff members in UNIDO (a) to give consideration, to the extent possible, to the ways in which specific UNIDO technical co-operation projects might bring particular benefits to women and (b) to try to introduce into projects elements designed to solve the special problems women face in participating in, and benefitting from, the process of industrial development.
5. As mentioned in an earlier report,^{1/} it is the policy of UNIDO to support efforts, through its entire programme of technical and industrial training activities, to increase the number of women in policy- and decision-making positions. The experience gathered during the past few years, however, shows that a drastic increase cannot be expected in the number of female fellow-ship holders and participants in training programmes. The few statistics available reveal that the number of women employed in higher technical and managerial positions in industry and related institutions in most developing countries is very low and that there are therefore relatively few female candidates eligible for UNIDO training activities. Only an increase in the number of female college and university graduates and their acceptance in the industrial sector will bring a noticeable rise in the percentage of women participating in the UNIDO training programmes.

^{1/} ID/B/186, para.3.

6. Although UNIDO drew the attention of national authorities to the need for female nominations, the number of women nominated for UNIDO training programmes does not exceed 5 to 6 per cent of the total; however, the acceptance rate of female candidates is somewhat higher than that of male candidates. As regards individual fellowship holders, 61 out of 638 fellows placed in 1977 were women, which represents an increase from 6.4 per cent in 1976 to 9.6 per cent in the year under review. In the group training activities, female participation remained at almost the same level as in previous years; out of a total of 725 participants in 1977, 58 were women, i.e. 8 per cent as compared to slightly over 7 per cent in 1976. In 1977 the main fields of training in which women participated were again quality control; documentation and information services; and chemical industries. By way of example, in group training courses in chemical industries, female participants accounted for 20 per cent of the total attendance.

7. Owing to financial constraints, the Secretariat was unable to hold in 1977 the proposed seminar on UNIDO operations^{2/} where preference would have been given to female participants. UNIDO is, nevertheless, still giving strong consideration to the holding of such a seminar since it is felt that only by being acquainted with the possibilities available through UNIDO can women get really interested and involved in its work and thus in the projects executed or planned for execution by UNIDO in their own countries.

8. UNIDO is engaged in a number of activities that are expected to have a bearing on the improvement of working conditions of women in many developing countries; an example of such activities is the involvement of UNIDO in the inter-agency exercise on rural development in various countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America, an exercise carried out under the aegis of the Task Force on Rural Development of the Advisory Committee on Co-ordination. Other activities that would contribute to the improvement of the socio-economic conditions of life, particularly for women, are the development of small-scale industries (e.g. assistance to a cotton spinning and weaving co-operative composed exclusively of women in Chad, and technical assistance to a female entrepreneur in Liberia) and the promotion of industrial co-operatives. Assistance in this latter field has so far been provided only through training, but UNIDO is currently considering other ways of promoting the establishment and strengthening of industrial co-operatives in developing countries with a view to creating more employment opportunities for women.

9. UNIDO had planned to hold in 1977 a meeting of high-level women representatives from developing countries in preparation for a policy/technical meeting on the participation of women in industrial development. Financing for this preparatory meeting was, however, obtained only in January 1978; the meeting is now expected to take place at Vienna in mid-1978.

Studies

10. A study on societal participation in decision making in industry is currently being conducted in co-operation with two research institutes in developing countries. In this study consideration will be given to the participation of women in the process of industrialization.

^{2/} Cf. ID/B/186, para.4.

^{3/} Cf. Ibid., para.8.

11. In December 1977, UNIDO held an expert group meeting on industrialization in relation to integrated rural development at which the participation of women in rural industrialization was also discussed. As a follow up to the recommendations of this meeting, case studies of successful rural industrialization programmes will be undertaken by UNIDO in 1978 and 1979. Some of these studies will relate to the role of women in rural industrialization; in particular, the studies will seek out and analyse current experiences and the potential role of women's groups as institutional mechanisms for organizing and operating rural industrialization programmes.

12. It should also be noted that in the first questionnaire, transmitted to Governments in developing countries in connection with the monitoring of the progress towards the implementation of the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action, the attention of Governments was drawn to the relevant paragraph in the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on the need to ensure the full integration of women in the industrialization process. In the second round of the monitoring exercise, UNIDO is continuing to draw the attention of Governments to the social objectives of industrialization, which include the full integration of women in this process.

13. The Secretariat has duly noted the suggestions made by the Industrial Development Board at its eleventh session^{4/} that UNIDO (a) carry out a study on the possible detrimental effects of industrialization on the socio-economic condition of women in developing countries, and (b) compile a country inventory of female participation in development. UNIDO is, however, trying to secure the resources required for these two projects before embarking on their preparation.

Contribution of UNIDO to joint efforts within
the United Nations system

14. In addition to co-operation with other United Nations organizations in various activities that are of relevance to the integration of women in development, such as the inter-agency exercise on rural development launched by the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination and the preparations for the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development, UNIDO is also engaging in other joint efforts.

15. UNIDO was represented at the Ad Hoc Inter-Agency Meeting on Preparations for the World Conference on the Decade for Women 1980 and Related Questions that was held in Geneva in July 1977, and has committed itself to participate actively in the preparations of the World Conference, provided the necessary funds can be made available.

16. UNIDO participated in the Colloquium on Women and Decision-making in the United Nations which was organized by the United Nations Institute for Training and Research in Austria in July 1977. The recommendations adopted by the Colloquium were brought to the attention of all pertinent officers in the Secretariat.

17. UNIDO also sent an observer to the ECA Regional Conference on the Implementation of the National, Regional and World Plans of Action for the Integration of Women in Development, which was held in Nouakchott, Mauritania in September/October 1977.

^{4/} A/32/16, para.197.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN THE SECRETARIAT AND IN THE FIELD

Secretariat staff

18. Close attention continued to be given to the need for recruiting more women into the Secretariat in accordance with the policy enjoined by various legislative organs and the Secretary-General. In view of the complex factors that have always affected and no doubt will continue to affect the availability of qualified women candidates for the kinds of vacancies which are traditional in UNIDO, no dramatic breakthroughs can be expected and none are pretended. Nevertheless, persistent measures will be pursued on as many fronts as possible with a view to achieving steady progress over time. Some of these measures, which will have to be co-ordinated on a United Nations Secretariat-wide basis, are expected to include the following: preference for women for certain posts and for those in respect of which the qualifications of a female candidate are at least as good as those of a competing male candidate, subject of course, to the requirements of geographical distribution; some relaxation of the rules regarding geographical distribution and those regarding the employment of members of the same family; direct advertising of vacancies to women's organizations; promotion of qualified staff to the Professional category on the basis of competitive examinations and greater emphasis on on-the-job training.

19. The table to Chapter VIII of the Annual Report of the Executive Director (document ID/B/200) gives the number of women employed in the Professional and higher categories as of 31 December 1977. It is worth noting that, of the four General Service staff members promoted to the Professional category in 1977, three were women, all of different nationalities.

20. The Joint Committee on Staff Training and Career Development, which was established in 1977, was requested to give particular attention to the training requirements and career development of female staff members. A first report with recommendations in this respect will be submitted to the Executive Director before mid-1978.

21. The Standing Committee on the Employment of Women in the Secretariat, established in 1976, submitted its first report dealing with the situation of female Professional staff to the Joint Advisory Committee (JAC) in December 1976. Various recommendations related to the employment of women in the Secretariat were also submitted to the JAC in 1977. In addition, the Standing Committee did the ground work for a survey on attitudes towards women in the Secretariat, based on similar studies carried out by other United Nations organizations (United Nations, New York, UNESCO and WHO). For that purpose, a "Questionnaire on the Status of Women in the Secretariat" was distributed to all staff members on 20 January 1978 under cover of a note from the Officer-in-Charge, Administrative Services Division. The Committee is presently engaged in the compilation of material for its second report which will deal with the situation of staff in the General Service category.

Project personnel

22. The idea of increasing the number of female experts in the field, with a view to encouraging a greater participation of female counterparts, is still being pursued by the Secretariat. As explained below, although no significant progress can be reported in quantitative terms, it should be noted that female experts recruited in 1977 covered a wider variety of fields than in the past, which brings new hopes of a greater involvement of women in industrialization.

23. Progress in terms of a more widespread appointment of women as project personnel has been somewhat limited and disappointing in 1977 owing in large part to the obstacles mentioned in last year's report.^{5/} Added to this was the need during 1977 to implement posts on an urgent basis, thereby leaving insufficient time to explore new recruitment sources.

24. On the more positive side, women have been recruited in several fields other than the usual ones of the past. In a pilot programme on low cost housing in Ecuador, a female expert was assigned to assist with furniture and plastic production, the preparation of building manuals and the preparation of plans for effective use of other wood products and minerals available locally. Another female expert was assigned to the Syrian Arab Republic for the operation of spectrographs; she also carried out the necessary preventive maintenance, assisted in the training of local counterparts and was involved in qualitative and quantitative analysis. As in the past few years, women were also recruited in the information and documentation fields. Though the number of women recruited in the UNIDO technical assistance programme is still very low (see table, Chapter VIII, ID/B/200) it is hoped that through the efforts of even these few experts, their impact will trigger a greater willingness on the part of counterpart organizations and host Governments to promote the professional competence of women both as part of the work in their own development projects and also by the support of candidatures of qualified women to serve elsewhere with the United Nations.

25. The UNIDO Secretariat had the opportunity throughout 1977 to discuss with officials from organizations such as the International Federation of Business and Professional Women and the World Federation of Engineering Organizations ways and means of accelerating the recruitment of women; efforts are being combined with these organizations to develop new recruitment sources. Contact will be established with other organizations of professional women, in both developing and industrialized countries, to explore the possibilities of their co-operation and assistance in UNIDO technical assistance programmes. National Committees for UNIDO have also been requested on various occasions to stress the nomination of women candidates within all UNIDO project activities.

26. Concerning the Industrial Development Field Adviser programme, it is regrettable that UNIDO has been unable to locate any qualified women interested in an assignment under this programme. Encouraging, however, is the increase in the number of female Junior Professional Officers (JPOs) assigned to the field as assistants to the SIDFAs. From 29 JPOs on board, six (i.e. 20 per cent) are women, which means that the percentage of women has doubled since 1975. In particular, of the 14 JPOs who were recruited in November 1977, five of them (i.e. more than 30 per cent) were women.

^{5/} ID/B/186, paras.18 to 20.

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Vienna, 6-10 November 1978

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WOMEN, INDUSTRIALISATION AND UNDERDEVELOPMENT *

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I. INTRODUCTION

This paper aims to provoke discussion, rather than to provide extensive empirical data on the situation of women in relation to industrialisation in developing countries. It is argued that a discussion of industrialisation per se does not contribute anything much to understanding unless it is set in a context. National policies of individual countries in regard to industry must be seen in relation to other sectors of the economy - most importantly, to agriculture - both by researchers and by government planners themselves. Of course, the development of industry creates options in relation to mechanisation (and the raising of productivity generally) in agriculture, as in other spheres. This involves a consideration of the questions of 'technology transfer' and 'appropriate technology'. This is one aspect of the inter-relationship between different sectors of the economy. Another is the subsidy that the agricultural sector provides for industry, in terms of the creation of surplus and the production of a supply of labour.

In relation to the question of women, the argument for such an integrated approach is even more telling. In order to analyse and to anticipate the effects of industrialisation on women, it is necessary to discover the determinants of the sexual division of labour in the society and economy as a whole. Because industrialisation produces profound and often rapid change, such an analysis

must be dynamic: historical changes in the nature of the sexual division of labour and its implications for women must be the object of analysis.

It is common, particularly in United Nations circles, to speak of the "integration of women" in the national economy. "The integration of women" has now become a catch-phrase, and yet as a concept it has no specific meaning other than to express the rhetorical idea that the situation of women should be improved. The expression can safely be used by any party precisely because it is rhetorical, conveys no analysis and no prescriptions for action: those who oppose the advancement of women, or who have no genuine interest in it (which is probably more common) can express the wish to "integrate women" and then do nothing significant about it. This is one reason why people concerned to emancipate women would do well to avoid the use of this expression.

A more important, and perhaps more subtle reason for rejecting the term, is that it actually constitutes a mystification of the question of women. The term suggests that women have somehow been 'left out' or 'left behind' by the development process (so called), and that the question is how to bring them in - to "integrate" them with the wider, "modern" economy. While an adequate critique of such ideas cannot be developed here, one of the contentions of this paper is that women - specifically, women's labour - are, and must necessarily be, an integral part of any economy. The problem is therefore not how to integrate women, but to discover how they have been, and are being, integrated, and to change the basis of that process so as

to lessen the burdens on women, and ultimately to emancipate them entirely from their position of inequality.

This question is not a semantic nicety but is fundamental to any attempt to understand and thereby to change the conditions of women's work and lives. This poses the following questions, which must be continually kept in mind, even if they cannot yet be adequately answered:

- * What is the sexual division of labour in different sectors of an economy, and how are the sectors related to each other in terms of the division of labour by sex?
- * What functions does this sexual division of labour serve, and what determines it?
- * What, therefore, are the implications (political, social, economic) of attempts to change the division of labour?

In the light of this approach, strategies to improve the position of women can be assessed, and alternatives could be put: the criterion being how far such strategies actually address the root causes of the oppression of women. Strategies which do not affect the basis of women's social condition will not fundamentally alter it.

II. INDUSTRIALISATION AND UNDERDEVELOPMENT

Any discussion of the process and nature of industrialisation in developing countries will involve assumptions about the causes of "underdevelopment". Strategies to promote industrialisation will reflect these assumptions, on the part of government, planners and aid agencies. Currently, the concept of a New International Economic Order

is the subject of much discussion in international organisations. The 'new order' challenges the hold that the highly industrialised countries have over the world market, the terms of trade, and relations of dependency. Nevertheless, no consensus exists about the causes of dependency. It must therefore be appreciated that the question of women and industrialisation cannot be divorced from these broader considerations, and that strategies for the improvement of women's position will equally reflect other underlying assumptions. In other words, the consensus over the desire to "integrate women" does not represent any real consensus over the causes of women's oppression or the strategies to end it. The point here is merely that these problems must be recognised consciously in international arenas concerning the woman question, if these discussions are to produce any significant clarification of the issues at stake.

A point to be borne in mind is that in discussing women and industrialisation, one is not referring to a universal, historically uniform process. The conditions of industrialisation in the advanced capitalist countries - Western Europe, the U.S.A., the British dominions, Japan - will not and cannot be duplicated in the countries of the Third World, for many reasons: the most obvious being that the former countries are now economically dominant in the international system. The capital and technology that they export to the developing countries, and their dominance in determining terms of trade, partly determines the process of industrialisation in the latter. Similarly, the existence of industrialised countries in the socialist

bloc also affects patterns of industrialisation - as in the export of capital and technology from the U.S.S.R. to China, Cuba and elsewhere. (The process of industrialisation in the U.S.S.R. itself, without assistance from another socialist country, was therefore unique in some respects).

Accordingly, in discussing women and industrialisation in the developing countries, one is for the most part referring to countries which are the recipients of investment by large, foreign, multinational corporations, and which are normally not able to generate sufficient surplus to industrialise from their own economic resources. In discussing the effects of industrialisation on women in this particular context, therefore, the terms of the discussion embrace not merely national economics and governments, but an international system and an international division of labour. This consideration is particularly important in the constraints it places on governmental strategies and policies.

Given this situation, it is clear that the trajectory of the development of the female labour force in the Third World is different from that of women in the West. For that reason, it is mystifying to refer to the effects of "modernisation" on women, as is commonly done. The naive assumption is often made that industrialisation has brought many beneficial effects for women in the West - from electric vacuum cleaners to less tangible phenomena - and that such beneficial results will also accrue to women in the developing countries eventually, as they proceed along the same path. Modernisation, whatever it means, is consequently seen as a "good thing" and as beneficial to women. As has been shown, this trajectory does not actually exist in the way assumed by such a view.

It is immediately evident that another flaw in that view is that it is precisely in these advanced capitalist countries that the struggle against women's oppression has become most vocal and most acute. The achievement of the vote, and more recently of legislation on sex discrimination, has not produced the emancipation of Western women. This experience when absorbed by those struggling for the emancipation of women in the Third World, will open up new strategies and objectives of struggle.

Additionally, it is now well known that economic change in the developing countries has in many respects had dire consequences for women. In some cases their position has deteriorated, and in nearly all cases their relative position to men has worsened: i.e., the differentials have increased. In agriculture and food processing, women have often lost what control they previously had over the process of production and the distribution of the product. Cash-cropping is increasingly dominated by men, who have access to agricultural extension services, credit facilities etc., which are not extended to women. On plantations, female labour is even more intensely exploited than male labour, and women are increasingly relegated to more labour-intensive and less remunerative tasks.

The self-employment of women in petty trading, home brewing, and handicraft production is increasingly marginalised by the growth of large-scale enterprise. Thus with the development of a cash economy, women have far less access to monetarised employment, and frequently lose the income and status they formerly had in other forms of economic

activity. This process has been described as the relegation of women to the 'private sphere' while men are increasingly drawn into the public sphere. Domestic labour, in the realm of the family, remains unmonetarised and becomes private, while men are drawn into waged employment and other forms of contact with the wider world beyond the family. However, many countervailing tendencies also exist which will be referred to below. In general though, the increasing privatization of the sphere of the family is a characteristic of the expansion of the cash economy.

In the urban areas, where most of the employment in industry is found, women's position is even less secure than that of men. It is generally more difficult for them to find jobs, and their rates of pay are lower. Their responsibility for feeding and caring for children weighs heavily in conditions of bad housing and overcrowding, bad sanitation and so on. The tendency away from the extended family system in the towns means that mothers are deprived of help in child-care that they formerly received from female relatives, while the conditions of waged employment are generally incompatible with the care of babies and children. Moreover, the social disruptions caused by urbanisation and economic change frequently mean that mothers are left to support children on their own, with little or no assistance from the father.

In all of these senses, then, "modernisation" cannot be seen as an unmixed blessing for women. If industrialisation is to produce substantially better conditions of life for women, this will only come about when women demand

and receive equal conditions of work, including wages, with men, and when domestic labour, including child-care, is either socialised or shared equally between the sexes. This again can only come about in a context of full employment. Unemployment and underemployment are severe problems in developing countries, and therefore the intention to ameliorate women's position will remain hollow unless measures can be taken to increase remunerative employment for the population as a whole and women in particular.

III. WOMEN AND INDUSTRIALISATION IN UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES.

In order to understand the position of women in the economy as a whole in developing countries, where capitalist relations of production are being imposed in industry as in other sectors (mainly through the agency of foreign capital), it is necessary to analyse the economy in terms of the articulation of different modes of production. The oft-employed notion of the 'dual economy', incorporating a 'backward', 'traditional' rural sector, and an urban, industrial, 'modern' sector is misleading, in the same sense as the notion of the 'integration' of women is misleading.

There are not two economies existing side by side, with the modern sector gradually replacing the traditional sector, but one economy, in which the relations of production in the dominant, capitalist sphere dominate and distort the previously existing pre-capitalist relations of production. The division in any case is not a clear rural/urban dichotomy since large scale capitalist agriculture is on the increase in the rural areas, while an 'informal' sector of petty production is found in urban areas.

Moreover, this framework is particularly pertinent in relation to women's labour, which serves particular functions across these divisions.

In this context, the most germane component of women's labour is the unremunerated, 'private' labour of the reproduction of labour power. This function of women's labour, expressed in the institution of the family, is found throughout the world; for analytical purposes, this function within particular modes of production must be comprehended.

In the rural areas, when there is heavy male migration to towns, to foreign countries, or in seasonal agricultural labour in other areas, women are left to provide for the family by maintaining subsistence production. The sphere of subsistence production also depresses the male wage by the subsidy it provides (or is supposed to provide). Women's labour here produces labour power for the future in the form of the rearing of children, and it helps to reproduce the labour power of the male wage-earner by providing food and services especially in periods of unemployment. By absorbing the aged, the sick and the infirm, women's labour in the subsistence sector saves the employer and/or the state from providing social services or adequate remuneration to cover the costs of the reproduction of labour. In this sense, the industrial sector in the national economy and in foreign countries (in the case of labour migration abroad) directly exploits the labour of women in subsistence production.

On small-holder farms engaged in commercial production, female and child labour helps to produce for the market, in labour-intensive and unremunerated work. The surplus is

then generally distributed within and outside the family by the man, while the woman is again responsible for the cultivation of food crops (and sometimes the rearing of livestock) for consumption by the family. Again, this work, and allied jobs - the collection of water and fuel, the processing and preparation of food, the care of children, etc., - reproduces the labour power which produces crops for internal and external markets, and which services and produces surplus for the development of industry. Women also frequently work as hired rural labour on farms and plantations while performing some of these other functions as well, or form part of the rural landless proletariat. In the latter case their situation resembles that of the female urban proletariat, in that they are paid even lower wages than men while having to perform domestic labour within the family as well.

In the urban areas, women's role in the reproduction of labour-power is equally arduous and unrewarded. They perform the essential economic function of producing the labourers of the future, their children, usually with no support at all from employers or from the state, and often with little or no support from the children's father. They are frequently actually penalised for this work they perform by employers - both private and public - who sack them when they become pregnant. While the role of women in the family, as reproducers of labour power, has common features the world over, its nature is determined by specific conditions in each economy and by the relationship between different sectors in the same economy.

Because of the central economic role performed by women's domestic labour, it is a cardinal error to relegate

the woman question to a ghetto in terms of research, planning and policies. The tendency to do so reflects the tokenism of much current discussion of women's position, in the United Nations as in other fora. It also reveals the failure to comprehend the totality of economic systems in which women's labour, both remunerated and unremunerated, necessarily plays an integral and crucial role. The fact is that without an understanding of the role of women, there is no real understanding of the processes of development and underdevelopment. It is necessary therefore to grasp the determinants and the functions of the sexual division of labour in a society, not only to understand (and to change) the position of women, but in order to predict and to plan the patterns of overall economic development.

IV IMPLICATIONS FOR WOMEN OF THE PATTERNS OF INDUSTRIALISATION AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGE

1. The degree and nature of industrialisation

Because of the concentration of industry in urban areas, the phenomena of industrialisation and urbanisation are closely related. In examination of the implications of these processes for women, data on both employment and demographic change are required. Unfortunately such data are not readily available, and are often partial or unreliable. The paucity of this kind of documentation is a reflection of underdevelopment itself, since developing countries do not have the resources to carry out extensive surveys and censuses; also the patterns of demographic change are such that conditions often make adequate collection of data difficult or impossible. Many cities, for instance, have large areas of 'shanty towns' or their equivalent, and urban dwellers and workers often have no fixed residence or employment.

Recently, because of greater concern about the question of women and the introduction of new legislation affecting women in employment (and in other fields), the more industrialised countries have researched and published data on women workers and related subjects. Most of the developing countries have not been able to match this, and so there is little information on which to base a comparison between the more and the less industrialised countries in regard to the employment of women. A comparison between developing countries in this respect might be even more instructive but is hampered for the same reasons. The problems of paucity of data on women workers in the Third World may be gleaned from publications of the International Labour Office.⁽¹⁾

Unfortunately it is also the case that many governments in the developing countries do not perceive the need to collect such information, since the question of women is not accorded priority or even much significance. And yet without this information, it is impossible to establish what the present position is, let alone to assess the rate of progress in the implementation of what policies there are to ameliorate women's situation.

Information on the following subjects in the developing countries is required:

- a) The age and sex structures of the industrial labour force (and other sections of the labour force). This will enable comparisons between countries, and assessments of changes over time - e.g. in the 'feminisation' or defeminisation of certain sectors of employment.

(1) See, for instance, "Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers".

- b) The age and sex structures of urban populations. This will facilitate an understanding of the nature of demographic movements, and of family structures (which affect women especially). In comparison with a), it should show the relative and absolute level of female employment and unemployment in towns.
- c) The relative labour conditions for women in comparison with men. This would include wage levels and income, hours of work and other conditions of employment. It should enable an assessment of the effectiveness of any labour legislation affecting women. Data on the absolute and relative level of unionisation of women workers should also be collected.

Some broad generalisations can be made on the basis of existing evidence. Firstly, in many developing countries with a low level of industrialisation, urban populations are predominantly male and have fewer very young or old people than do cities in the more industrialised countries. This reflects the fairly recent large-scale migration to towns of male work seekers, who are unmarried or whose families remain in rural areas. The low number of children reflects the relative absence of women. In these conditions, the industrial labour force shows an even heavier preponderance of young men than the urban population profile itself. This pattern is common in Africa. The women who came to town in this context are sometimes joining their husbands, but often they come to find new opportunities for themselves. Few employment opportunities are open to them, and they are often self-employed: in petty trading, beer-brewing, food preparation and sales, prostitution and the like. Marital stability is low and casual liaisons,

producing illegitimate children largely provided for by the mother, are common.

In Latin America the proportion of women in towns has tended to be much higher than in Africa. This reflects the different role of women in agricultural production, and a slightly different history of industrialisation, which offered more employment openings to women. However the trend appears to be changing, and the rate of female labour force participation has levelled out, or - especially in industry - is even in decline. (2)

A number of features are notable. In most parts of the Third World, there is a high rate of migration to urban areas from the countryside, often coupled with a high overall rate of population growth. The causation of this phenomenon is complex, but the changing pattern of land ownership and land use are important factors; i.e., the trend towards concentration of land-holdings and the development of large-scale farming and plantations, often employing capital-intensive techniques of production. These processes push people off the land; some find employment as a landless rural proletariat, while others flood to the cities to seek work.

Because of the low level of industrialisation in most Third World countries, job opportunities in the cities are scarce: competition for work is fierce, and the less advantaged suffer - particularly women, but also people with poor health or disabilities, and older people. Amenities are poor, particularly social benefits - unemployment benefit, sick leave, maternity leave, medical care and so on. (These factors directly contribute to the relative exclusion of the disadvantaged groups

(2) Contrast Boserup on women in Latin America, p.187, with Safa, pp 130-131 in Latin American Perspectives, Issue 15.

from employment). Wages for women are almost invariably lower than for men - often very markedly so. Women, then, usually have either a very low income or none at all, and often cannot rely on a male breadwinner; in these conditions, they must care for children and other dependents - the aged, sick and infirm. Poor sanitary conditions, the relative absence of cheap fuel and of many other facilities, hit women hardest of all and force them to spend many hours a day in taxing domestic labour.

A feature of this process of industrialisation is the changing age and sex composition of the labour force. It is well known, especially from early Victorian England, that large-scale, brutal exploitation of female and child labour took place in many sectors of employment. This gradually changed - partly as a result of the activities of social reformers, but more importantly as a result of the changing labour needs of modern industry (just as the abolition of the slave trade reflected changing economic conditions). Child labour was largely abolished, while some sectors of employment became 'masculinised'. Women were pushed into service industries and distribution, and into low-paid professions - as nurses, clerks, secretaries and teachers. However, some sectors of industry were 'feminised' - often involving work traditionally associated with female labour, such as textiles, garment making, food processing and the like. The ideology of men working for wages to support a family, while women worked for "pin-money" (even though it usually did not reflect the reality), became entrenched.

This ideology contributed to the paying of lower wages to women, but low wages also reflected the fact that women were - and are - a vulnerable section of the labour force. It is well known that it is not always the most exploited or brutalised section of the working-class that is the most

militant - indeed, the reverse is rather the case. Women work in industries that are largely ununionised, and where it is particularly difficult to organise; where job security is low, work is relatively unskilled, and labour turnover is relatively high. Often they do "out-work", i.e. they perform part or all of the labour process in their own homes; this reinforces the privatisation of women's work, and militates against unionisation (to fight for better wages and labour conditions). Additionally, women's familial responsibilities allow them less time and opportunity for union organisation.

Because of the inability of the advanced capitalist countries to provide full employment, and because of the vulnerability of women, female labour functions as a 'labour reservoir' in these countries (and probably does so, to greater or lesser extent, throughout the world). It is well known that the international capitalist system passes through cycles of booms and depressions (e.g. the depression of the 1930s, followed by the post-war boom, followed by the contemporary recession) - in periods of economic growth, female labour is taken on, while it is cast off in periods of recession. This applies to the labour force as a whole, of course, but the most vulnerable sectors - who are least able to resist, and least likely to provoke political unrest - experience it the most acutely: viz. women, as also immigrant workers. Immigration can be controlled by the state, while women are supposed to be 'reabsorbed' into the family and domestic labour, relying on the male head of the household (if there is one) for support.

The phenomenon of the female labour reservoir is most clearly illustrated by the labour force participation of women during and after the second World War. In England, for instance,

a campaign was launched for women to support the national economy by maintaining production levels in industry and agriculture while the male workers were away at the front. Female labour ran the economy and produced munitions. Incentives for this patriotic duty were provided, in the form of child care and other supports to working women. After the war, men were re-hired and many of the nurseries were closed. This reflected a similar process during the First World War, after which women were given the vote as a palliative.

In Third World countries, many of these broad patterns are reflected, but economic and other conditions are very different. This is due, in large part, to the imposition of new economic relations from the metropolitan countries onto the colonies and post-colonial countries. The legacy of colonial employment practices and ideology combines with the export of capital, under conditions controlled by the investors (often with the active collaboration of host governments) to the Third World countries. These investors, as is well known, have often exported the 'dirty industries', in which their own labour force is less willing to work, and also so as to escape pollution controls and safety standards which reduce profits. The attractions of the new production locations include cheap, relatively passive labour, and financial incentives such as low taxation (these factors are often actively advertised by the governments concerned, in order to attract foreign capital).

However, it is not only labour-intensive industry which is exported - indeed, the trend is towards higher and higher levels of capital-intensity (therefore creating fewer job opportunities). It is common now for a relatively labour-intensive section of the labour process to be exported, in an

industry which is highly capital-intensive. Car and vehicle assembly is a case in point. An example which applies significantly to women is in electronics - transistor assembly. Often, where the industrial labour force shows an unusually large proportion of women, one will find the existence of an industry such as this; it is very noticeable in Malaysia and Singapore, where women constitute the majority of those in wage employment in some urban areas.

Electronics is one of those industries which shows a predilection for female labour. Such industries should be thoroughly researched for what they can reveal about the patterns of exploitation of female labour, and the reasons for it. (3) Employers maintain that women show an "aptitude" for this work, which requires high levels of manual dexterity. However, the work also has other features which make a passive and vulnerable labour force desirable, such as highly repetitive, relatively unskilled labour, and low pay.

In general, the relegation of sectors of employment to either sex passes through phases. Under colonialism, many jobs which were first dominated by men, later increasingly passed to women: from domestic service to all kinds of relatively low-status professions: nursing, teaching, secretarial and clerical jobs. Machines such as typewriters and sewing machines were often utilised mainly by men (contemporary instances are still widely found). Such jobs were feminised as new, usually better remunerated jobs became available to men; while the better-paid jobs in those fields, requiring higher levels of education and training, were increasingly taken over by 'middle class' women (who, amongst other things, are able to employ domestic

(3) See the fascinating, though shocking, study by Linda Lim (unpublished).

servants - usually female : - to lighten their household duties).

In industrial employment proper, the feminisation of certain sectors is probably very complex in terms of causation. It reflects the predilection of employers - such as in electronics, already mentioned, or in textiles (the majority of workers in Shanghai or Hankow in China in the 1920s being mainly female textile-workers, for instance),⁽⁴⁾ but also cultural factors regarding wage employment of women; additionally, it will reflect economic changes pushing either sex more than the other into wage employment. All these factors themselves will relate to changes in labour needs, and patterns of foreign investment, in the metropolitan economies.

2. Labour migration and subsistence production

The role of women in subsistence production in the context of labour migration has been briefly discussed above (Section III, fourth paragraph). It provides a particularly clear example of the relegation of women to unremunerated work, and to the role of reproduction of labour power. The migration of labour - whether cyclical or semi-permanent - is experienced throughout the Third World, but it is particularly widespread in some regions. Cases in point are the migration of labourers from Mexico to the plantations of Southern California,⁽⁵⁾ the immigration of foreign, low-paid workers to Kuwait, and labour migration from North and West Africa to Europe, (particularly to France). In Africa, there are often high rates of migration between (as well as within) countries. South Africa is the

(4) See Suzette Leith, "Chinese Women in the Early Communist Movement", p.57, in Marilyn B. Young (Ed.)

(5) See the interesting article by Burawoy which compares Southern Africa and the U.S., and provides a theoretical discussion of the nature and function of migrant labour in general.

best known, drawing on hundreds of thousands of workers from neighbouring countries as well as from the "Bantustans". The Ivory Coast, however, probably employs even more foreign migrant labour than South Africa does - as many as two million workers, mainly in commercial agriculture, who come from the most underdeveloped countries of West Africa (amongst the poorest countries in the world).

With certain exceptions, this migrant labour is predominantly male; women and children remain behind, mainly in rural areas, where they engage in subsistence production. Often, the nutritional needs of the family cannot be met from "subsistence" production - as in South Africa's Bantustans, or in the Senegal River valley (in Senegal, Mali and Mauritania) which has also been affected by many years of drought. Nevertheless, this sector is expected to subsidise the low wages paid to migrant workers - a subsidy provided largely by women's labour. Naturally enough, such a system produces declining productivity in the subsistence sector, and aggravates problems of malnutrition, poor health, and even famine.

Given these problems, as well as an unmanageable rate of urban influx, and the fact that many Third World countries import staple foods, a project for economic development and industrialisation must involve a strategy for land use and food production which will mitigate, and hopefully overcome, these obstacles. (It should be borne in mind that some countries, such as India actually export staple cereals, while still suffering from problems of underemployment and malnutrition). Such a strategy can only succeed by dealing with the structural causes of the problems, which are beyond the scope of this paper. Let it be said, however, that the remuneration of

women's labour should receive priority in any schemes, as well as the consideration of ensuring an equal role for women in administration of projects and decision-making. In such projects, this is practically never the case. (6)

3. The development of a cash economy and the impact on the family

Relative familial instability is a characteristic of the penetration of the cash economy in underdeveloped countries. Migrant labour is an important factor; but more generally, as has already been said, there is a tendency for the extended family system to break down, especially in urban areas. At the same time (again, particularly in cities) extra-marital relations become more frequent, and marital stability is lessened. Couples may establish 'common-law', i.e. unofficial, marriages; these are often temporary liaisons. Men, therefore, are not always present as heads of families and as the main 'breadwinner'. These phenomena are reflected in the high rates of 'female-headed' households found in census returns in some Third World areas; this is well-known in the Caribbean. It is revealing that this is also found amongst under-privileged groups in the advanced capitalist countries - e.g. in the black community in the United States. (7)

In these conditions, the responsibility of maintaining children and other dependents weighs very heavily on women. It is vital, therefore, that women are assured adequate incomes and that public provision is made for child-care and other

(6) For some useful insights on the alleviation of women's burden of labour in the rural economy, see Razavi and Farvar.

(7) Female-headed families were blamed by the Moynihan Report for the prevalence of crime amongst black Americans. For a critique, see Lee Rainwater and William Yancey, The Moynihan Report and the Politics of Controversy, Cambridge, M.I.T. Press, 1967.

forms of social welfare. Instead, the dominant view appears to be that of a puritan reaction to "sexual promiscuity", familial breakdown, etc., and female-headed households are regarded as "deviant". Women are thereby punished, and further victimised, by a system for which they are not to blame; whereas the only responsible response would be for the society as a whole to recognise women's vulnerability and attempt to ameliorate it. This will not be achieved by a puritanist scare about "immorality" and by attempting to reinstate patriarchal control, but rather by ensuring women economic security (and thereby lessening their economic dependence on men). It should be obvious that crime and delinquency, as well as ill-health (mental and physical) and a whole host of problems, are basically caused by poverty and stress - not by women, who are in fact the main victims.

V. PROSPECTS FOR CHANGE

1. Education and Training

The question of adequate education and training for women is a vital factor in promoting female status in the labour market. The effective, if not always intentional, discrimination against girls and women in this field is a particularly glaring example of sexual inequality. The problems are well known, and a mere outline is given here.

The end result of systems throughout the world (though important differences exist) is that men as a group end up better qualified than women, and that many jobs and professions end up sex-specialised, with "women's jobs" always occupying the lower end of the scale either in terms of pay or of status, and usually both. Women, when they are trained at all, are

usually trained in the "caring" professions: teaching, nursing, child-care, social work, etc.; or else in low status/low pay technical jobs: laboratory assistants, radiography, etc. Men dominate the rest: the top levels of medicine, engineering, architecture, and so on ad nauseam. In manual labour in industry, the picture is the same. Hardly any apprentice training schemes include girls or women.

In education, as in all forms of sex-role specialisation, the problem starts at the beginning. Little boys are treated as future men; girls as women; with all that that entails: in the family and the home, on the street, and in the school. In poor families in the Third World, parents often find the education of their children an immediate economic cost: even where it is "free", schooling removes children from performing household and productive labour. Parents usually make the simple economic calculation that the education of boys is a better investment in terms of opportunity cost; girls also are needed by their mothers to lighten the burden of the housework that men cannot or will not share. These questions are partly to do with ideology, but not wholly: only a total economic and social transformation would fundamentally alter them, and they cannot be tackled at the level of attitudes alone.

Governments and educational institutions could do much, although on the whole they do not. Policy could be revised so as to counter-act educational sex-role specialisation, at every level. At the very least, however, women should not be unnecessarily disadvantaged (as they are being): for instance, agricultural extension services should be directed at women where women are partly or mainly responsible for cultivation; instead such services are actually being directed at men. Ultimately, however, such educational reforms would be futile if women could not take up the employment for which they were qualified: either because of domestic responsibilities, or because of unavailability of job opportunities. In a situation of less than full employment, that is not merely likely, but inescapable.

2. Legal reform and industrial legislation

All manner of legal reforms and innovations affecting women's status are being introduced in Third World countries, covering marriage and divorce in particular. The most important in protecting women are provisions for mothers to claim child support from the children's father, whether or not the parents are officially married (i.e. including the recognition of illegitimate children); the ability of women to sue for divorce, and to receive protection from male desertion and/or the arrogation of rights to children, protection from assault or battery by male kin; and the right to inherit, own, and pass on property. These reforms should be seen as essential minima. Other rights are less widely accepted, though equally basic, such as the right of women to control their own biological reproductive process, through access to contraception and abortion (see below). The position varies greatly from region to region in the Third World,

according to accepted notions of women's status; in fact in some countries the legal position of women is in certain respects more favourable than it is in the West. The main task is to extend the reforms to new areas in some countries and in all directions in other countries, so as to standardise practice up to the highest level.

The area of industrial legislation is fraught with problems. Most legislation in this field is borrowed from the practice in the highly industrialised countries, usually through the agency of international fora such as the I.L.O. There has been considerable disagreement over whether the extension of some of these provisions to Third World women has actually served the latter's interests, and indeed whether some of them are still appropriate at all. This applies particularly to the vexed question of protective legislation for women workers. A sore point of a different kind is equal pay, on which some have taken the position that equal pay should not apply to developing countries where there is a very high rate of male unemployment, since job competition between the sexes might cause some families to suffer having no breadwinner at all (or some variation on this theme). *

On the question of equal pay (for male and female workers, for work of equal value) there is a basic question of principle involved. To make concessions, on the grounds that particular circumstances are adverse or whatever else, is to deny even the attempt to give women a measure of equality, and is therefore

* One illogicality of this position is that many women are in fact the sole breadwinners for their families. This is even more common in many parts of the Third World than elsewhere, because of the high number of female-headed households.

an inadmissable position in any forum which is genuinely seeking to emancipate women. There are further grounds, well established within the international labour movement, for rejecting such a position: namely, that the existence of any group of disadvantaged, lower-paid workers undermines the position of the working-class as a whole. It enables employers to play off the disadvantaged group against the others, and thereby to threaten the fundamental interests of all working people.

Beyond this, however, there are severe difficulties in the implementation of the rather abstract notion of equal pay, deriving mainly from the difficulty of evaluating jobs - i.e. of deciding what "equal value" means. The fact that women are often employed in labour ghettos in 'feminised' labour sectors, means that there may not be a male 'standard' against which to measure a woman's wage, in order to demonstrate that she is being relatively underpaid. Moreover, women are usually absolutely underpaid - i.e. their jobs have low status, which means that it is necessary to compare work that women do with different jobs that men do, in terms of rather intangible criteria such as skill, intensity of work, social value (usefulness), etc. These questions are not essentially resolvable by legal methods, and must depend upon the social evaluation of work and the purposes of work, as well as the ability of such evaluation to find expression in order to change employment practices.

It is already well established in the industrialised countries where the principle of equal pay was introduced some time ago, that legislation has not tackled the basic problems - since women still earn far less than men. The small

improvements that have been made will be greatly enhanced when, and if, female labour ghetto-isation is ended, which in turn hinges upon the ending of sex-role specialisation in employment. It will be seen, therefore, that legislation of itself cannot produce the required change - although of course it is a necessary prerequisite and should by no means be ignored.

The question of protective legislation is even more intractable since here no consensus has been reached on the principle, let alone the practice. Protective legislation exists in order to protect women in their function as biological reproducers, but more than this, it "protects" them in their domestic role of reproduction in a wider sense: e.g., by prohibitions on night work. The assumption is that women should not be exposed to occupational health hazards during pregnancy and nursing, but also that they should be enabled to carry out "normal" domestic labour by not being allowed to work "unsocial" hours. This immediately reveals that some aspects of protective legislation actually reinforce women's role in the family, thereby preventing them from achieving equality with men; of course it also means that they can be discriminated against in hiring practices, as well as having less opportunity to earn a higher income. Moreover, it is entirely paternalistic in that it ordains women's position and does not allow women any choice, or the opportunity to take responsible decisions affecting their own lives.

However, since women in fact do still have to do two jobs, in waged employment (if they can get it) and in the home, would not the removal of protective legislation promote their greater exploitation? On another tack, arguing that all workers (not just women) should be protected from hazards to their health or from unsocial work hours, should not one fight to retain

protective legislation but to extend it to all workers? The correct strategy in particular circumstances can only be decided by women's and workers' organisations.^x In the meantime, it must be acknowledged that the existence of protective legislation is in fact a reflection of women's oppression, even if it is thought to be an undesirable necessity. Women workers in the Third World, who have specific problems of their own should be guided by their own interests as they perceive them - especially since there are no clear guide-lines for action.

While there are biological differences between men and women in terms of physical structure, hormones and so on, these are not the main determinants of sex-role employment specialisation. For one thing, if strength was such a factor, then strong people would do jobs requiring strength and vice-versa - given that there are greater differences within each sex than there are between the sexes as a whole. It is also easy enough to demonstrate that many women do, or have done, work that is extremely taxing physically. Moreover, with industrialisation and the introduction of more sophisticated techniques of production, brute strength becomes less and less important in the process of production. Therefore, the only significant biological difference is that women alone bear, give birth to, and nurse children. (This itself is modified by the fact that with increasing levels of industrialisation, women tend to have fewer children, and it is possible - though it may not necessarily be desirable - to replace breast-feeding with bottle-feeding).

^x Unfortunately, though, workers' organisations are almost invariably male-dominated, and they do not liaise with women's organisations. Women workers' problems derive from their general position as women not just their position as workers; forms of organisation will have to be built in order to reflect this.

In the discussion of protective legislation, we saw that the biological function of women in reproduction is socially recognised by this legislation; but also that the effect of the legal provisions may be to penalise women in important respects. Evidently, given a desire to emancipate women, we should move towards the social recognition of women's contribution to society through biological reproduction, without their being penalised for it. This involves making the production and rearing of children a less private, more social, process. It should be something that men take responsibility for in addition to women, and that society as a whole takes responsibility for, in order to allow adults, male and female, to discharge their roles adequately both as parents and as producers. Ultimately, this poses many questions about the nature of the family and its future as an institution - but these are questions capable of many different resolutions, which the people of the future will decide if and when they are eventually free to do so.

In the immediate future, the most pressing question is that of provision of social facilities for child-care, for it is the burden of child-care that chiefly prevents women from entering the labour market on equal terms with men. Recognition of this social need means avoiding treating women workers as a 'special case' - it means regarding children as the children of all workers, not just women; it means a social responsibility for the children of today, who are the society of the future. In fact, however, employers, the state, and most social institutions regard children as the mother's responsibility,^{*}

^{*} This blinkered view can take on quite astonishing proportions. From the author's own experience, an English employer (when pressed by trade unionists in his employ to open a creche at the place of work) was heard to say: "How do I know that the creche will only be used by my employees, and not by the men's wives' children as well"

and make motherhood a liability for women - instead of compensating women for a biological process (let alone the social processes) that they undergo on behalf of society in general.

Public facilities for child-care cost money. They are abysmally inadequate in most of the advanced capitalist countries, though they are much better in the socialist industrialised countries. This reflects the fact that more has been done to emancipate women in the latter; it is also probably quite significant that women's labour is more in demand there (we saw that public facilities were provided for women in the West when they were needed in the labour force). Who, then, will pay the cost of providing the facilities? From the employers' point of view, it normally represents merely an unwelcome cost which eats into profits. Governments, in narrow economic terms, will only see a benefit if they require the economic contribution of women's (waged) labour, i.e. if there is a labour shortage.

This shows us two things quite clearly. Firstly, there is a close correlation between provision of child-care facilities and full employment. Secondly, the social merits of the question will only be taken up to the extent that popular pressure for them exists, and is capable of reflection in Governmental policy. Popular pressure itself will only exist when women are cognisant of the origin of their problems, organised to express them, and capable of moving society as a whole towards the recognition of the wide social questions involved in the emancipation of women.

Concretely, though, what are the options for policy-makers in the developing countries? It must be acknowledged that the provision of facilities by the state constitutes a cost, in

terms of immediate outlay, which it is difficult for the poorer countries to meet. However, there are a number of considerations which mitigate, or even negate, that cost. Firstly, it need not involve a very big capital outlay. In warm climates there is not the same need for large, heated buildings and so on. 'Educational toys' can be simple - playing with sand and water and sticks can provide as much stimulation and amusement as any technological gimmick can. The training of child-minders need not be costly, and would constitute a tremendously valuable asset to the society - not only in terms of providing employment to the people concerned. Moreover, pre-school education is only now beginning to be accorded the importance it deserves - in theory, that is - in the industrialised countries, and the developing countries have much to gain from this new knowledge.

Experience has shown that by the time children come to school at five or six years old (perhaps older in the Third World), their ability to respond to stimulation in the outside world has already largely been formed. This means that children from backgrounds which are deprived in terms of positive learning experiences, are at an enormous disadvantage which the large majority of them never overcome, however many years they spend in formal education. Much of the money which is put into education, therefore, could be better spent on providing more and better nurseries: a conclusion whose importance should not be lost in parts of the Third World where the costs of education are felt so acutely. In the Third World, therefore, many opportunities exist to avoid the errors that have been made historically in the industrialised countries.

The education of pre-school children may not be seen as a priority now, when the rate of industrialisation is low, and the extended family often still exists to care for children; but clearly it is sound policy to plan according to the trends, rather than attempt to undo the harm when it has happened. This applies as much to health as to education. The creation of properly supervised nurseries, as of adequate pre- and post-natal care for mothers, offers perhaps the best opportunity there is to improve the general health of the population; since disease and malnutrition in early life also largely forms the health of the adult.

Moreover, the government need not foot the bill alone - private employers can and should be made to pay for facilities for their workers. Legislation can be introduced to oblige them to do so. Here it is important that women do not become further discriminated against in employment, by making it "uneconomic" for employers to hire them - i.e. all enterprises which employ more than a certain number of workers (male or female) should be obliged to provide for a certain number of creche places. The staff to run the creche could then be provided by the state, in conjunction with the trade unions or workers' organisations - who should be encouraged to take responsibility themselves. This will help to involve men, and people collectively, in the care of children.

These creches must provide facilities for the care of infants as well as children, so that women with young babies need not leave work to care for them, and also so that the babies can be breast-fed during work hours. Breast-feeding is not only much better for the child's health - vitally important in underdeveloped countries - but is the only sensible thing when people, or the country as a whole, cannot afford substitutes.

With these conditions established, it can now safely be made illegal for employers to sack married or pregnant women (which they often do). Obviously, though, it will be more difficult for individual countries to institute such provisions on their own; there must be efforts to concert such policies. In this as in all other respects, Third World countries can do much to influence the operations of foreign capital if they act together - so as to lessen the chances of being victimised by the withdrawal of foreign investment.

There is no reason for the developing countries to accept the tutelage of the industrialised countries in the field of child-care. Obviously, all opportunities should be sought, and accepted, to study the methods used abroad, or to receive economic and technical assistance; but a healthy scepticism should be adopted towards other practices. Even in the socialist countries, where the provision is relatively good, wrong notions persist or emerge anew - for instance, sex-role indoctrination of young children is often strong, and surprisingly the idea remains that child-care is a woman's job. Third World women must decide their own pace of change, but there is no reason to start off unknowingly on the wrong foot.

3. Development Projects

Aid agencies, as well as government policy-makers, are starting to devote more attention to women's specific problems. There is currently a welter of good intentions, with relatively little clear strategy behind them. Most volunteer projects appear to adopt a liberal, rather paternalist approach, and to move very cautiously for fear of upsetting the 'establishment' - governments, local planners, village authorities, local elders

and patriarchs, etc. Since most of the agencies are rather unclear about their interventionist role in foreign countries in any case, this is hardly surprising. The dilemma of the agencies on the question of women reveals a more basic dilemma about their purposes in general - reveals it rather clearly in fact.

What projects do they in fact engage in? Much attention is devoted to lightening the burden of women's domestic labour - the procuring of water and fuel, and the processing of cereals. This probably does little harm and might do quite a bit of good. Other projects relate to the creation of income-earning handicrafts industries for women; this is more problematic. Firstly, it runs the considerable risk of creating new employment ghettos for women. Secondly, these projects are frequently tied to a luxury or exotic export market. The women are paid low wages, the marketing is controlled by foreign middle-men, and in general one could say that such production has little use-value and serves to tighten the links of dependence on the metropolises, not to loosen them. Where the handicrafts are not exported they are usually bought by the consumerist middle-class in the country of origin; little is gained except for some pocket-money for the women workers, who really have no prospects other than that. They do not achieve any real economic independence as a result.

Other schemes are directed at 'home-economics' - teaching women more sophisticated techniques of nutrition, cooking, and home medicine. This is very popular with 'do-gooders' in the countries concerned as well, and it is probably the most dangerous trend of all. As a result of such projects, women are more entrenched than ever in the roles of wife, mother, nurturer and provider; they are additionally mystified by the imposition

of Western bourgeois cultural values. Of course questions of nutrition and home medicine, for instance, are very important; and one cannot evade the fact that women are the people most closely affected. The point, though, must always be to help women, and the society as a whole, to progress, without creating new problems or exacerbating existing ones: knowledge must serve to liberate us, not to enslave us.

Hardly any aid projects concern themselves with women workers in the urban areas, although this is an area in which the need is great as also the opportunities for useful work. Aid agencies could help to finance and administer nurseries, and to assist women workers to form trade unions and women's organisations. In general, the most useful thing that volunteers could do would be to help women to find the self-confidence and determination to understand and to act upon their situation. This is done through encouragement, through the provision of organisational skills, and above all through bringing to women wherever they are the history and the experience of the international struggle of women. Knowledge and confidence, however bleak their situation, will do more than anything else to provide women with the courage to fight and secure their rights.

4. Population Control

The right of women to control their own reproductive process is a fundamental right which is basic to the emancipation of women. The objective should be for all women everywhere to have the right to free abortion and contraception on demand, however great the obstacles in the way and however slow the progress. This principle does not involve any coercion of any kind - on the contrary, the objective is to allow women

the maximum choice, and freedom to control their own lives. Those who have objections on religious or cultural grounds should be free to observe their own objections, but not to impose them on women who do not share these views.

Naturally, in most developing countries the conditions for the implementation of the principle do not exist - apart from the many cultural obstacles (which also exist elsewhere), the medical infrastructure is usually inadequate. But this does not alter the fact that anything else forces women to be the victim of their own bodily functions in a way that fundamentally affects their lives, including their health; they may bear children they do not want at all, or do not want at the particular time; they may die unnecessarily in child-birth or through the complications of self-induced abortions. Such suffering is commonplace for millions of women every day.

'Population control' is another matter. It does not address itself at all to the rights or the sufferings of women: it is about control. The way that this control has been exercised by governments and international agencies has frequently operated not only against the interests of women, but against the interests of the Third World as a whole. The topic cannot be adequately covered here, but it is raised since it is a vital question for women and for economic development itself. The population scare constitutes one of the worst mystifications and manipulations that agencies from the Western World have imposed on the developing countries.

These agencies have blamed poverty and underdevelopment on the myth of over-population - a simple problem with a brutally simple solution, or so it would appear: Women in developing countries have frequently been sterilised without their knowledge or their consent. The methods of contraception which are exported are often experimental, and drugs which have not been passed by administrations in Western countries are 'donated' free of charge to Third World countries. The women there are effectively used as guinea pigs, having no knowledge of any dangers to which they are exposed, and no medical back-up to protect them.

In the Western countries themselves, it was not mass campaigns of sterilisation, abortions and contraception which brought down the population growth rate to its present level: it was industrialisation and economic growth. Accordingly, in the Third World it is not a high population growth which has produced poverty, but the other way round. It is widely noted that with economic development, the birth rate falls: richer countries have a lower rate than poorer countries, upper classes have a lower rate than lower classes, etc. However, with increasingly capital-intensive techniques of production, there is a tendency for the increasing creation of 'surplus population' i.e. of the unemployed, and it is the extension of this process

to the Third World which is largely responsible for what are known as "population" problems.

In many Third World countries, the labour-power of the population is almost the only valuable resource. And in many of these countries - particularly in Africa - the population levels are actually very low. The only sense in which such countries could be said to be 'over-populated' is that the economies are incapable of supporting even a small population: over-population is of course a relative, not an absolute, phenomenon. This begs the question of why Third World countries are economically backward (if one rejects the notion that it is due to "over-population"). Some suggestions are implied in the argument of this paper; but for present purposes let it merely be said that the objective must be to increase production in these countries through the full deployment of the labour force, the equitable distribution of wealth, and judicious investment of the surplus.

When economic growth takes place on this basis, the development of industry can be controlled and planned; medical facilities can be expanded and extended to all, and the women whose economic options are improved in the process will tend to have fewer children - partly because they will know that the children they do have are now likely to survive their infancy.

VI Conclusion

Many of the propositions that have been put forward in this paper might be thought to be unrealistic, or extreme. But it is not argued that the objectives are all capable of immediate implementation. Also, the problem of women's oppression goes very, very deep: there is no superficial or rapid solution to it. The arguments of the paper, therefore are based on an

analysis at a radical level - which yields radical solutions. It is not intended to leave the impression that the problems are intractable: on the contrary, many things can be done and should be done as soon as possible. The plea is merely that, in any short-term project for women, the long-term goals should be kept clearly in mind - however far away they seem. In so doing, short-term policies which actually counter-act the ultimate objectives can be avoided. The point is to define the direction, and then to adhere to it.

In conferences on economic development, discussion of immediate issues can easily lose touch with wider fundamental questions; also, the voices of the weak or politically disadvantaged may not be heard at all. One important group in the latter category is women; another is children. Let us remind ourselves, therefore, of two very basic and very telling things. Firstly, that the surest index of the physical health of a population, as well as of its economic well-being, is its rate of infant mortality.⁽⁸⁾ The second point is not unconnected with the first, though it is less tangible: namely, that the surest index of the degree of development or advancement of a country is the relative emancipation of its women.

(8) It has been neatly - if brutally - demonstrated for two cities in Brazil that the infant mortality rate correlates directly with the level of the real minimum wage. See Charles H. Wood, "Infant Mortality Trends and Capitalist Development in Brazil: the Case of Sao Paulo and Belo Horizonte," in Latin American Perspectives, Issue 15.

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FAO APPROACH TO ENHANCING THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN RURAL ECONOMIES *

prepared by

Home Economics and Social Programmes Service
Human Resources, Institutions and Agrarian Reform Division

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

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INTRODUCTION

The inter-relationship between agriculture and industry is viewed by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) within the context of integrated rural development. Thus FAO emphasises increased farm production and provision of technical inputs and services, along with such aspects of the development process as the satisfaction of basic needs, expansion of income and employment opportunities for the rural poor, improved consumption patterns, increased mobilization and motivation to achieve effective participation of the rural people in the decision-making and rural development process.

FAO, within the limits of its mandate, reflects increased concern for the modernization and transformation of the agricultural and rural sectors, for the participation of rural women at policy and programme development levels and assurance that rural women and their families are brought into the mainstream of development. FAO gives high priority to rural development approaches, with the rural poor as the target audience, mainly the small-scale farmers, tenants and landless labourers, including men and women. In the production and employment sectors, it is agreed that there must be full and equitable involvement of rural men and women. Thus, integration in this context means the participation of women in productive, socio-economic and political activities required for rural development.

FAO also recognizes the critical importance, within the framework of integrated rural development, of the creation of agriculturally related and other non-farm employment opportunities, particularly if the growing numbers of rural people are to be accommodated in productive employment in many developing countries. In most cases, agriculture alone cannot provide adequate increased opportunities. At the same time, increased emphasis on self-sufficiency in development requires that both the demand and supply side of production and technology be considered within sub-national area and regional units. In these terms the activities of our two organizations can support each other, in the field of rural development.

Many governments have now recognized the need for full and effective integration of women in development goals and processes. At the same time, there is the realization that, to varying degrees in all developing countries, rural women constitute a socially and economically marginal group. Even where the equality of men and women has been specified in legislation, too often the marginalization of rural women continues, especially among the rural poor. Also technological and scientific advances have in some instances, further contributed to women's marginality. FAO programmes are increasingly based on the need to reverse this process, where rural women are often the main contributors to agricultural production, and yet, do not receive the technical and financial support essential to become more effective producers. In addition, rural women perform familial roles and are generally also deeply involved in production and processing activities. These are often not directly amenable to measurement, such as, maintaining the home, care of livestock, food processing for domestic consumption, and handicraft production.

Income provided by these time consuming and back-breaking activities still remain nominal, due to the low opportunity cost of women's labour.

In this paper is presented a summary account of policies and programmes of FAO dealing specifically with women's activities in rural economies which have a bearing on agro-industrial production. Examples are given of several FAO programme activities which aim to increase income and employment opportunities for rural women. These may provide a basis for discussion for possible future FAO/UNIDO collaboration in this programme area.

FAO Policy related to Women in Developing Rural Economies

In response to a resolution on "Integration of Women in Agricultural and Rural Development and Nutrition Policies", passed by the 65th Session of the FAO Council and reaffirmed by the 18th Session of the FAO Conference, 1975, FAO's policies and programme implementation are aimed toward increasing women's participation in all sectors of food, agricultural and rural development. The policy of the Organization is now directed towards:

- the development of food production, food availability and utilization, reduction of food losses and the improvement of the quality of life through the full integration of women in rural development;
- assistance to Governments of Member Nations in their efforts to increase women's participation on an equitable basis with men in the policy making, planning and implementation processes in all food, agricultural and rural development programmes;
- a review by all its Departments and Divisions of country programmes and projects in nutrition, agriculture, fisheries, forestry, etc., to ensure that rural women are provided with the benefit of education, training, extension, cooperative activities, credit/marketing and other productive and social services that enable them to participate fully in agricultural and rural development.

The implementation of these policies are, in part, being facilitated by an official FAO Inter-Divisional Working Group on Women in Development (FAO/IDMC/WID), which has prepared inventories, guidelines, and seeks ways and means to coordinate and intensify programme activities. In FAO Regional Offices, interdisciplinary committees have been organized for action at the regional level.

Issues concerning social and economic conditions of rural women and recommendations for future action were also discussed at the recent 14th FAO Regional Conference, July 1978, for Asia and the Far East. In the provisional agenda, one of the items included in the background document (PERC/78/3, May 1978) for discussion was on the situation of women's participation. Attention was drawn to the substantial economic role played by Asian women:

"It has been traditional in Asia to base group action on elder males. Women, who constitute half of the population, have generally been denied participation. This deprives the community of their experience and their contribution. Governments should be encouraged to quantify the national monetary value of women's contribution to rural development so that national plans can reflect the inputs and needs of women. They should increasingly be involved in the decision-making process where this is concerned with the development of rural families. Countries would benefit tremendously if more attention were paid to this positive, substantial economic role played by Asian women.

It is equally important that women are informed of the existing laws in relation to women's rights to access, use, and ownership of land. Women must be kept informed about government decisions in relation to agrarian reform and the consequences of such decisions. If people are to participate in their own development, they must know why they should participate and what it will mean to them in terms of their own quality of life."

Similarly, at the 9th FAO Regional Conference for Africa in November 1976, emphasis was given to the need for women's involvement in training programmes. A background document on the "Orientation for the Future Work of FAO in the African Region" (ARC/76/9) stated:

"The key role women play in agricultural production will continue to be recognized, and in line with emphasis being laid on their effective participation in rural development, FAO will intensify its women's training programme to enable them to acquire the necessary skills in agricultural production practices. Particular attention will be paid to the responsibilities of women in the home and on the farm, the local development of tools and equipment to facilitate the revolution of agricultural production and rural development in general."

In the recent November 1977 FAO Conference, a resolution (77/14) was adopted with reference to the forthcoming World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD) to be held in Rome in July 1979, calling for action to achieve the full incorporation of women in social and economic development processes in their respective countries, to the Conference for review and consideration.

The WCARRD Secretariat has included a sub-agenda item on the participation of women in agrarian reform and rural development. FAO urges that women be included as members of governmental delegations attending this Conference.

For the 1978 World Congress on Forestry, being held in Indonesia, FAO has included an item on "Women in Forestry", which will help identify areas in which women could participate and benefit from forestry-related activities. An essay competition on "Women and the Forestry Profession" has taken place among students in forestry institutes throughout the world. The winners of this essay contest will attend the Conference and present their winning essays.

FAO has for many years, provided assistance to its Member Countries in the areas of agricultural and specialized programmes for women and youth. Collaboration between FAO and other international agencies concerning programmes and projects for women and rural family workers is of long-standing duration.

Close working relations are also strengthened by the formulation of the plans of action for the integration of women in development in the regions and the establishment of projects, training centres, action research and programmes benefitting rural families and communities.

Yet another approach to implement programme policies is through consultations with nationals of the developing countries. An Expert Consultation on the Integration of Rural Women was convened in Rome, 19-23 September 1977, to advise FAO on strategies and programme approaches. The Consultation recommended that firm national policy commitment was needed to minimise the existing constraints to rural women's participation in development, and that there was need for:

- inclusion of women in decision-making from the grassroots level up;
- redefinition of employment to give statutory recognition to women's unpaid labour in farm and family enterprises;
- inclusion of women in the economically active labour market at all levels;
- training in planning, management and administration making women competent for sharing complementary responsibilities with men.

It was concluded that rural development concepts must be clearly defined and encompass the basic social and economic needs of rural women and families, particularly as related to agriculture, reduction of food losses, fisheries, animal husbandry, small industries, trading, marketing, cooperatives, credit and other sectors. There was strong support for the establishment of regional and group country mechanisms (or networks) to promote development programmes for women in the agricultural sectors.

FAO activities for rural women's development now exist in all the Regions; and a major effort in the FAO biennium 1978/79 is being made to intensify the programme in Asia and the Far East and the Near East Regions. There are global, inter-regional, regional, group-country and country activities, including studies, meetings, institution building, training and action programmes.

FAO Programme Orientations for Rural Women in Socio-Economic Development

Some of the major FAO programme orientations for rural women are through programmes of home economics, food and nutrition, population programmes for better family living, agricultural extension and training, rural cooperatives, prevention of food losses, marketing and credit, agrarian reform and comprehensive rural development schemes. Opportunities for women are now being developed in the fisheries and forestry sectors, particularly in Asia and the Far East Region.

There has been a growing interest in directing FAO activities for better employment and income-earning opportunities enabling rural women, especially the rural poor, to make a fuller contribution to the socio-economic development of their country. Action is taken especially through the establishment of projects related to village level small-scale enterprises in food storage and processing, cottage industries, and consumer goods. Efforts are made to involve women in all industries which are labour-intensive and which require a simple technology as well as minimal financial investment. Facilities are being established to help women acquire new skills and to assure their participating in rural enterprises as other than unskilled or semi-skilled operators. Training in relevant managerial, financial and administrative skills is included as an important component of a project. Women's familial roles are taken into consideration and provisions made for physical and social services, carry-home work, and part time work wherever feasible.

In part, because of their traditional familial roles, and other values and customs limiting women's mobility, the centralization of economic, managerial social and political functions under modernization, has resulted in women being increasingly excluded from them. Greater decentralization of organizational forms for the technology of work and production, with local needs in view, will favour the participation of women as demonstrated in several countries of the Far East.

Appropriate Technology, Credit and Marketing

A consensus is evolving that the approach to women's problems should be oriented not only to "welfare" and household activities but towards development and based on women's meaningful participation in the economic sphere, higher productivity and higher income. Paradoxically, women, and especially those living in the rural areas, are so over occupied at low levels of skill and technology that they cannot add new activities. Some examples of FAO programme activities are described briefly in the following paragraphs.

Activity 1

Some essential needs of rural women are to alleviate the time and energy expended in their current arduous activities; to increase their efficiency and returns and increase the public visibility and social status of their work. The following project is developed as an experimental approach to such needs:

"Experimental Credit to Ujamaa Village Women, Tanzania": The outcome of this project would be the provision of credit by the Tanzania Rural Development Bank to rural women for productive enterprises. To initiate this project, a FAO consultancy is provided to:

- (i) identify suitable labour saving household and farm devices, which can be produced locally, particularly in the Ujamaa villages to involve women in such enterprises; and
- (ii) advise on possible small village handicraft enterprises in consultation with FAO and other appropriate agencies.

The project is aimed to bring about some diversification of the Ujamaa village economy. Especially, women will be encouraged to form themselves in groups, possibly based on the ten house cell concept for production purposes and receipt of credit. An essential feature of the project will be that women will be encouraged to save a portion of their incomes from their productive activities and reinvest them.

Collaboration for advice and guidance on developing new village level technology will be made with national institutes such as Tanzania Agricultural Machinery Testing Unit and the National Small Scale Industries Corporation. The Bank and an ongoing UNDP project (URT/42 SWI) will provide advice on appropriate credit arrangement. The project includes arrangements with concerned government departments for organizational and technical support as well as vocational training required by women participating in this economic activity.

Activity 2

"Credit Scheme for a Training-cum-Production Centre - Income Generating Activities for Women" is a project approved for India. A Non-Government Organization (NGO) is responsible for this project. The long-term objectives are:

- (a) Development of centres accessible to rural women to promote different types of small scale cottage and agro-based industries for gainful employment. It will provide income and contribute to the well being of the family, and to the personal development and status of rural women.

- (b) Depending on needs and developments of the project, to gradually seek to diversify the training for other income generating activities which might be deemed suitable and profitable, e.g. machine embroidery, quilt making, woollen and cotton handloom weaving, food processing of marketable products, and others.

The short term objectives are: (i) to initially promote among a specific group of 500 village women the know-how of the participatory concept and entrepreneurship; in terms of monitoring a business, investing the profits and decision-making as recipients; (ii) to establish the main Training-cum-Production Centre with the NGO and provide training for village women in the initial project to produce goods of improved designs with the traditional embroidery called "kasooti"; and (iii) to establish marketing channels, beginning with a systematic market research survey to identify the kinds of products that are in demand for the national and export purposes.

In this project too, factors stressed are participation of local women both urban and rural, guidance and advice from the national bank, and other national institutes which are well established in these activities provide technical advice.

For the two projects mentioned above, FAO has provided funds (up to US \$ 50,000), technical assistance, and facilitated their establishment with national expertise and institutes. This process tends to build to self-reliance and economic independence within the countries.

Activity 3

"Women's Programme in Agricultural Credit and Banking for selected West African Countries", is a potential project proposal. This proposed programme for the African region would be an integral part of FAO's overall programme in the region for promoting this important sector of FAO's work. It is planned that a woman credit officer would be posted at the FAO Regional office for Africa, in Accra, Ghana, where she will have the technical support of a Regional Credit and Marketing Officer. The main objective would be to assist agricultural credit institutions in member countries for Africa in formulating practical projects and/or programmes which would qualify larger numbers of farm family members, and women in particular for access to institutional credit and savings facilities. The priority countries for the programme would be Ghana, Liberia and Sierra Leone where the agricultural credit institutions already exist.

In the course of preparing, implementing and assessing such projects it will become necessary to encourage employment of women credit officials from the Africa region to carry out much specific project work at the agricultural credit institutions and their branch office. The important goal would be to influence policies of the existing credit institutions and government supporting services so as to be more amenable to favourable credit and banking facilities benefitting rural women.

Such programmes/projects after having been tested on a pilot basis in conjunction with some of the most viable credit schemes (such as the production credit and small farmer credit schemes of the Agricultural Development Bank of Ghana), might be then introduced to the other countries/institutions.

Activity 4

"Processing and Storage of Food Grains by Rural Families", is an important aspect of activity in the prevention of post-harvest losses, to which FAO is currently giving high priority.

As stressed by Member Nations during the 19th Session of the FAO Conference, December 1977, emphasis is being laid on the important role of rural women in production, processing and conservation of food. Consequently, it has been decided to compile information on the processing and storage of food grains in the developing countries by rural families farming primarily to meet their own food needs. These methods may be traditional, and have proved their worth through generations of use and adaptation, or recent and relatively simple adaptations of traditional structures, procedures or equipment or they may be examples of appropriate technology which have been successfully transferred to the villages. This material when compiled will be made available to Member Nations to facilitate dissemination of information concerning tried and proven techniques in this area of basic importance to the well-being of the rural family. FAO has, therefore, contracted a specialist in the use of appropriate technology in rural development programmes, to compile this information.

The specialist will make a study of present traditional post harvest activities in the developing countries with special reference to the part that women play in the processing of food grains. Suggestions as to how their present often unnecessarily hard labour could be reduced by the introduction of simple technologies at village level, which would, at the same time, reduce present losses due to inefficient methods. The study will also cover traditional storage practices, the merits and demerits of existing storage structures and how these could be improved to decrease losses from rodents, mould and insects.

Activity 5

In addition, the FAO Programme for Prevention of Food Losses, launched in 1978, in reporting on the status of projects requested by member governments by mid-1978 included examples of several with components focussed on rural women. For example:

- (1) Swaziland, "Reduction of Post Harvest Losses (Phase I)"
- Establishment of a coordination unit which will work with many government agencies and programmes including Home Economics Extension, Programmes for Better Family Living, and the FAO/SIDA Project at the College of Agriculture.

- (ii) Liberia, "Reduction of Post-Harvest Rice Losses in On-Farm Operations and Primary Marketing"- Activities will include training of home economics extension personnel.
- (iii) Nepal, "Rural Save Grain" - Some activities will focus on rural women through the Home Economics Extension Programme.
- (iv) Guatemala, "Reduction of Post-Harvest Losses Through Cooperative Organizations". Some activities will also be directed at women members of cooperatives.

Activity 6

Within its regional activities, FAO is emphasizing a "Small Farmer Development Programme" which is on-going in rural areas of eight countries (Bangladesh, Nepal, India, Sri Lanka, Philippines, Thailand, Indonesia and Korea). In this programme, poor rural families, men and women are organized into small groups for the purpose of increasing their income through livestock production, crop production, rice milling, mushroom growing, fish net-making and other economic activities.

Activity 7

In the same region, another programme jointly conducted is the "ESCAP/FAO Inter-Country Project for the Promotion and Training of Rural Women in Income-Raising Group Activities". Rural women in most countries of this region, particularly those from small farm families, are traditionally engaged in economic activity, helping with the family farm or supplementing family subsistence or income in other ways. Little has been done, however, to increase the productivity and efficiency of such activities without passing them into the hands of men, by working through groups of women in the same community. There is a large reservoir of female labour and managerial capacity in rural areas that can be up-graded and much more effectively utilized to help increase the income of small farm families. It is necessary, therefore, to initiate more programmes to assist women to increase the productivity of their existing economic activities and to train them to undertake new ones. There are many instances in countries of the region, of rural women undertaking successful and replicable income-producing activities such as agricultural production, processing and marketing supplemented by the provision of credit. Such activities have often been built on the initiative of the women concerned, with or without outside assistance. These cases are worthy of study with a view to learning from their experience and encouraging their replication by women in other villages. With this proposed project ESCAP and FAO wish to assist Governments in the region to study some of these cases.

The objective of this project is to promote income-raising activities by groups of rural women especially from small-farm and rural labouring families. Case studies are now in progress of existing successful income-raising activities of groups of rural women. These will be presented to other village women leaders and officers of government and non-government agencies in a country workshop to be held in a rural area in each participating country. It is hoped, by this means, that other women will

be encouraged to replicate the successful activities in their own villages.

The project is primarily a national one with ESCAP/FAO acting as sponsor and assistant. Nine participating Governments (Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka and Thailand) have nominated a national counterpart agency to carry out the project in their own countries and a national coordinator for the project who would be responsible for the country-level programme.

The project has three phases. The first is the Joint Planning Meeting of national coordinators to prepare for the country programmes, including an agreed format for case studies and a unified approach to the country workshops. The second covers the activities at the country level including the preparation of the case studies and the organization and execution of the country workshops and follow-up evaluation. The third phase is composed of a regional follow-up meeting to discuss the experience gained in the country workshops, to evaluate the problems encountered in such a programme and to formulate follow-up programmes. It is also expected that the material arising from the country workshops, case studies and workshop reports, will be used to prepare training material for use throughout the region.

Research and Socio Economic Data Collection

Several countries lack the statistical information and socio-economic data on rural women's labour force participation, impact of agricultural technology on the displacement of women, their problems, and constraints to rural development. FAO supports research, case studies and compilation of other materials on the issues of rural women whose plight has been overlooked in the past. Priority is given to data and analyses that are likely to have an impact on those who can intervene with appropriate programmes such as, the national planners, project personnel or the country women themselves. Support to national institutions is given through grants, fellowships and technical expertise, examples of which are:

- A study on "Rural Household Resource Allocation", is being conducted in several rural villages of Indonesia and is designed to identify important data about rural women's activities.
- Two studies have been completed on the "Participation of Women in Rural Development" in Indonesia and the Philippines.
- The Report of another study was completed on the "Role of Women in Banking and Rural Credit" in the countries of Malaysia, India and the Philippines.
- A study on "Rural Family Life Styles in Nigeria" was conducted on selected aspects of the life styles of 64 rural families living in eight different geographic areas located throughout Nigeria. The purpose was to seek information on division of labour, decision-making by sex for selected household and farm activities and utilize the implications for planning a FAO-supported project, "Home Economics Planning for Rural Development"

in relation to family roles and styles in the rural areas of Nigeria.

- Papers have been prepared by consultants on the "Integration of Women in Agricultural Reform and Rural Development" in the FAO Regions as an input to the documentation of the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development.
- Comparative studies on the Role of Women in Rural Development with Special Emphasis on Production and Utilization of Food are planned to be conducted in Saudi Arabia, Jordan and Egypt.
- A case study on Rural Family Resource Allocation is being finalized by the Institute for Women's Studies in the Arab World, Beirut, Lebanon. The study deals with the sex/age distribution of responsibilities among household members, participation in decision-making and in income-earning and utilization and differential opportunities (social and economic) open to boys and girls, men and women. A Rural Family Life study being planned by the Somali National University, will include many similar factors.

A number of other applied research activities, planned or in the planning stage strengthen the basis for action programmes benefitting rural women. Such activities initiated during 1976-1977 include the following:

- 1) Feasibility mission to Zaire and Ghana in November 1976 to study the possibilities of introducing population/family life concepts into training activities for women in cooperatives. Draft reports are being finalized.
- 2) Case studies on the Role of Women in Marketing Local Farm and Marine Produce in West African countries.
- 3) Population, nutrition and food data analysis - study of relations between socio-economic factors and population variables. Study in Zambia completed and reported in June 1977.
- 4) A global study to develop criteria for establishing home economics training for professional staff in rural development. The study completed and reported in August 1977, is being printed in three languages (English, French and Spanish).
- 5) Study of the Role of Women in Agrarian Reform and Rural Development in Ethiopia. An FAO/UNDP research project being added to an on-going Land Reform Administration and Settlement project.
- 6) A "Preliminary Survey of Income-Earning Activities and Spending Patterns among Members of Women's Cooperatives

in Selected IRDP Villages in Bangladesh" was initiated in 1977 and will be followed up by the government department responsible. The survey also emphasized rural women's involvement in decision-making regarding the spending of benefits accrued.

- 7) A "Study of Rural Households and the Role of Women in Two Villages in West Java", Indonesia was initiated during 1977 by an national Institution: the "Rural Dynamics Study" of the Agro-Economic Survey, Ministry of Agriculture (TF/INT.247/SWE). The final report is expected at the end of 1978.
- 8) A "Survey on Labour-Utilization Patterns and Decision-Making Transmigrants, Pematang, Panggang, Sumatra" is being undertaken in Indonesia as a basis for the identification of training needs among female settlers in pilot transmigration scheme in South Sumatra, Indonesia. The survey is a component of a FAO Technical Assistance Project, "Pilot Extension Training Programme for Transmigration Settlement Schemes" (6/INS/01/T). The final report will be ready at the end of 1978.
- 9) As a part of the UNDP/FAO project: "Institute of Land Development" (MAL/74/009) an assessment of the socio-economic aspects of the training programmes for settlement staff and for settlement families, was made; it also included proposals for case studies, e.g. "The Actual and Potential Role of Women in Land Development and Settlement". A report on "Social Aspects of Land Development and Settlement in FELDA Schemes", was proposed.

Other Activities:

To ensure continued and effective implementation of policies, FAO has provided channels to promote increased concern for rural women and indirectly focussed on women and in some cases initiated activities on behalf of rural women.

A. FAO has given considerable priority to grassroots level training programmes for rural women, and to the strengthening of training institutions, home economics extension and family life development, and applied nutrition programmes in the countries of Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Nepal, Malaysia, Papua New Guinea, Fiji, Thailand, Philippines and India.

B. The major thrust of FAO activities related to the implementation of the African Plan of Action has so far been in the general area of education and training. A few selected programme examples related to socio-economic aspects are:

- Home Economics Planning for Rural Development in Nigeria.
A home economics extension programme was established at the national level with the Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development and to coordinate activities with programmes located in other Ministries at Federal and State levels.

Curriculum development, women power planning and rural family life styles were major components of work.

- College of Agriculture, University of Liberia — establishment of a Department of Home and Community Development with emphasis on community development training, nutrition related to agriculture, management of resources and consumer education.
- Bahare Home Economics Training Centre at Musoma, Tanzania — home economics training, child care centre, outreach programme based on family living study.

C. In the area of employment, FAO programmes are aimed to prepare and improve skills and qualifications of women in food, agricultural and rural development programmes or for self-employment in the home or on the farm. High priority is being given to rural women both as producers and consumers of food, and assistance is provided to increase their participation in rural organizations, especially in rural cooperative movements. Examples of such projects can be found in Mexico and Honduras. Two 1978-79 UNFPA proposals are of special interest in this respect: 1) Interrelations between Fertility and Employment Patterns of Rural Women in the Agricultural Sector, and 2) Statistics on Women's Participation in Agricultural Production.

D. Seminars, workshops, study tours, fellowships have been yet another FAO activity concerning rural families. Many of these have been funded through joint efforts of FAO, UNICEF, UNFPA and private organizations. A few selected examples from the social and economic spheres are:

- A seminar was held in December 1977, in Ghana for West African Countries on the Role of Women in Marketing Local Farm and Marine Produce. Similar activities are being planned in the Andean Region of Latin America and Haiti.
- FAO/ECA Itinerant Training Workshops for Rural Family Workers were held in Benin, Cameroon, Central African Empire, Congo, Gabon, Mauritania, Rwanda, Senegal, Sudan and Upper Volta.
- ECA/FAO/UNICEF Workshop on Food and Preservation held in Kibaha, Tanzania, July-August 1975.
- FAO/DANIDA/Ethiopian Government Workshop on Role of Women in Rural Development, Debra Zeit, Ethiopia, November 1976.
- Series of Training Workshops for Women's Groups in Kenya (within Kenya PBF project), during 1975, 1976 and first half of 1977.

POTENTIAL COLLABORATION BETWEEN FAO AND UNIDO

Collaboration is already established through the FAO/UNIDO Joint Technical Working Group on Food and Agriculture Products, Conservation and Processing Industries. There are also about 35 joint FAO/UNIDO projects in relevant areas of interest to both organizations, however thus far little attention has been given to their impact on Women and families of the rural poor.

FAO, in keeping with its policies would be interested in developing collaboration programmes benefitting rural women, primarily in the food and agriculture sectors, but also the possibilities for women's participation in other rural economic activities. Full involvement, by all concerned, at all stages of programme planning, implementation and evaluation would be desirable. Possible ideas of collaboration could be:

1. Consultation at the earliest stages of joint programme planning to identify major areas of collaboration, at global, regional and country levels.
2. Unified plans of action in selected countries, where FAO has on-going (or projected) major agricultural and rural development programmes.
3. Training, research or publications, in collaboration with FAO programmes based on the following issues:
 - rural women being adversely affected by technological advancements that may reduce their drudgery but not advance their economic and social participation
 - rural women need meaningful training and job opportunities in order to increase their income, socio-economic mobility and status within the family and community
 - means of avoiding technological choices restricting women to traditional female household chores, creating new institutions to include men, women, children and adults that can improve family life as a whole
 - programmes encouraging new roles for women and men and bringing them together in the sharing of responsibilities in and outside the family.
4. Collaboration on various studies related to the problems of women in agriculture and rural development.
5. Programmes of multi-disciplinary training, including such areas as development of new skills, appropriate technology, food processing and storage, agriculture, leadership, management and administration.

6. Collaboration on determined regional and country workshops, seminars, consultations and review missions.
7. Collaboration in the exchange of information, reports and documents.

The FAO activities that have been listed in the foregoing section may also pose some possible areas of collaboration in the future.



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Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing
Countries

Vienna, Austria, 6 - 10 November 1978

NOTE ON THE ROLE OF WOMEN
IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES *

prepared by

United Nations Development Programme

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Introduction

1. As noted in the invitation to the Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries, there is an urgent need for improved understanding of the constraints to and potentials for increased participation of women in industrial development. UNDP therefore welcomes UNIDO's initiative to convene a meeting on the subject.
2. In presenting this Note, at the request of UNIDO, UNDP lays no claim to any special mandate or competence in the area of women's participation in industrial development but merely hopes that a few observations may contribute to a useful discussion by the Preparatory Committee. The outline of the Note follows suggestions made by UNIDO.
3. Because of the difficulties faced by women in industry and their limited participation in industrial development, UNDP's experience in technical cooperation in this area of work is also very limited. For example, a few vocational training projects may facilitate industrial employment but whether, in fact, they do so is not known and would require a special investigation. Most vocational training programmes for girls (there are very few) do not seem to aim at the industrial labour market. In Latin America, with a relatively large number of women working in industry, two regional projects, the Inter-American Centre for Labour Administration (CIAT) and the Inter-American Centre of Research and Documentation on Vocational Training (CINTERFOR), have in recent years addressed themselves to problems of special interest to women in industrial as well as other employment.

Constraints to women's participation in industrial development

4. In seeking an effective role in industrial development, women are faced with a number of serious constraints of different kinds. While closely inter-related, they may for the sake of convenience be divided into two main categories: social and cultural constraints and lack of training and education.

5. Social and cultural constraints refer to women's role as mothers and to the common traditional reluctance to allow women to associate with strange men, as is often required in manufacturing employment. As mothers, women have great difficulties absenting themselves from their children for a full working day and they cannot, without serious consequences, mingle with strange men if this is not socially acceptable.

6. Women's relative lack of education and training is well-known. For industrial employment, which at all levels puts a premium on education and training, this is a severe handicap. At the lowest level, literacy and numeracy are highly desirable, if not necessary; at higher levels, technical and professional competence becomes mandatory. Women are at a disadvantage at all levels. Even at primary school level, girls' school attendance continues to lag behind that of boys, though the difference is now generally diminishing. At higher levels, particularly as concerns vocational training and technical and professional education of interest to industrial enterprises, girls' and women's educational level is usually substantially below that of boys and men. Many kinds of vocational training and technical education are often closed to girls. Additionally, even if they are formally open to girls, the attendance of girls may be very limited due to the anticipated difficulties of actually utilizing such education in industrial employment.

7. In spite of these rather severe constraints on women's industrial employment, women are not totally absent from the industrial scene. In most countries there is some female employment in manufacturing production; in some, such employment is rather substantial. A closer look will usually reveal that the bulk of female industrial employment is in unskilled, low-paying work in certain specific sectors of manufacturing. Traditionally, the industries primarily involved have been the textile, food-processing and pharmaceutical industries. More recently, certain branches of the electrical and electronics industry may be added to the list, possibly others as well. The point is merely to indicate that female industrial employment is not non-existent in spite of the serious constraints just mentioned; it is, however,

highly selective. It is also worth noting that industrial employment tends to remain sex-segregated even in highly industrial countries. Because of the greater industrial diversification, the situation in the developed countries may, however, need to be analysed on the basis of occupational classification rather than on the basis of industrial sub-sector only.

8. The explanation for the apparent anomaly of relatively high levels of female employment in certain manufacturing branches in spite of the general constraints on such employment appears to be a combination of economic factors - low wages - and women's greater aptitude for certain types of work - female workers are, for example, preferred for tasks that require manual dexterity and patient attention to monotonous detail. Another characteristic of women's work is that it must not require a great deal of physical strength. Unskilled heavy work will be performed by men.

9. The typical low level of pay for women workers is motivated, among other things, by the assumption that women's work is supplementary to that of male members of the family. Employers may, for example, mainly recruit young unmarried women, who are expected to leave when they marry and have children. The employment, or need for employment, of female heads of families is not a factor taken into account on the industrial labour market. Nevertheless, if necessary as a means of assuring a female supply of workers, employers will often provide certain special services and facilities, such as lodging and day-care facilities. On the other hand, even when such services are legally prescribed, as they often are nowadays, many employers will evade their responsibilities if supervision is slack. In industries where large numbers of women are employed, low-level supervisory functions may also be assigned to women, although high management positions generally remain the preserve of men. Women may be employed as professional workers in lines of work that do not involve major decision-making responsibilities, such as research.

10. A final common constraint to women's employment in industry on an equal footing with men is women's reluctance or inability to actively participate in trade unions and, through the unions, press for more favourable treatment by employers. Whether male resistance to women's participation in union management or women's lack of initiative and persistence in these matters

(prompted by the social problems they face), is the explanation for this state of affairs would seem to be a moot question. Most likely the two factors are mutually reinforcing. While formal organization may not occur among professional workers, one may presume that women at the professional level in principle encounter the same kind of problems as women at the lower levels, i.e., a combination of male and female attitudinal problems and social constraints. As noted, women very rarely attain high positions.

Specific areas where women can contribute to the industrial development of developing countries

11. In a growing number of developed and a few developing countries, women are already employed in a large number of manufacturing industries. This may well become the future pattern for all countries. In the meantime, it would seem that those developing countries where women's role in industrial development is minor, that is, the majority, may as a strategy for changing this situation to advantage commence with those industrial sectors where women workers are already employed. The general goal should be to increase the productivity and pay of women's work and to improve working conditions, i.e., through the provision of special services for working mothers.

12. Additionally, the potential for women's contribution to industrial development through the establishment of manufacturing enterprises in areas of production where women's role traditionally is strong and where technological advance calls for a shift from small-scale artisan production to larger-scale industrial production may be considered. Such development may be facilitated by an intermediary stage of more specialized but still basically non-industrial production. A general principle should be to build upon and utilize whatever relevant experience women already have. As circumstances permit, women's participation may be expanded to include entirely new areas of activity.

Ways and means of developing national programmes for women's participation in industrial development

13. Any significant change in women's role in industrial development will as a rule depend on a change in Government policies and plans. This will require analysis of women's current and potential contribution to industrial development, taking into account the specific features of the economy of each country and cultural and social norms governing men's and women's interaction with each other.

14. As the general experience in deliberate planning for women's participation in industrial development is very limited, new and innovative approaches are called for. Additionally, to ensure that women's interests are properly understood and taken into account, women with appropriate training and experience should be active participants in the planning.

15. In any attempt to analyze women's participation in industrial development, there is a need to approach existing statistics on women's share of the economically active population with some caution. For a large number of developing countries, existing figures are grossly misleading because unpaid family labour is not counted as an economic activity. The resultant distortion is most obvious for rural areas but also affects urban areas where women may do unpaid work in family enterprises of different kinds. To obtain a reasonably accurate estimate of the relative importance of women's employment in manufacturing industries, it will generally be advisable to compute such employment as a share of total non-agricultural employment rather than of total female employment.

16. For detailed planning, it will generally also be advisable to undertake special surveys concerning women's needs and demand for employment, taking into account the implications of women's role as mothers. Problems demanding special attention would include the possibility of providing part-time work for married women. While women's incomes may in many instances be complementary to those of men, they may all the same be an absolute necessity if the family is to escape the multiple and debilitating problems of severe poverty. Additionally, there is a need to study the relationship between the provision of such services as health care, crèches and kindergartens and the common problems of low work productivity and absenteeism. In general, the combination of women's work as mothers and homemakers with a meaningful working career outside the home needs to be given careful and systematic attention. In traditional, basically agricultural societies, women have always played a very important role as economic producers although the economic and social importance of this fact has until recently been largely neglected. In the modern world, with

its increasing dependence on industrial and other non-agricultural production, there is an urgent need to devise new ways and means for women to maintain their productive role without serious hardships for themselves and their families. In the absence of a solution to this problem, women cannot contribute their full share of development and society as a whole is held back.

17. As the more direct means of enabling women to play a more active role in industrial development, women must be given improved and increased opportunities for education and training. Currently, to the extent that vocational and technical schools for girls exist at all, the types of training offered are very often limited to typically female occupations, such as health care, secretarial work, teaching, beautician's work, sewing and cooking. Even agricultural training, for which rural women have such an obvious need, is often closed to women. Vocational and technical education and training, including on-the-job training, aimed at industrial employment appears to be the most rare of the scarce educational facilities for girls and women. Until and unless this situation is changed, it is difficult to see how women's position in industry can change in any significant way. It may be added that training in such subjects as accounting, planning, business administration and economics, co-operative organization, marketing and finance are of special importance if women are to play an active role in industrial development. Last but not least, credit facilities must be provided to women. Initially, it may be most constructive to provide women with the necessary training and credit facilities for establishing small-scale industrial enterprises.

18. Finally, there is a need to educate the public about the benefits to be derived from increased participation of women in industrial development (as well as other areas of development) and what needs to be done to facilitate such a course of action.



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NOTE ON THE ACTIVITIES OF THE
ASIAN AND PACIFIC CENTRE FOR WOMEN AND DEVELOPMENT RELEVANT TO
THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES *

prepared by

Asian and Pacific Centre for Women and Development, ESCAP

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PREPARATORY STATEMENT OF THE ASIAN AND PACIFIC
CENTRE FOR WOMEN AND DEVELOPMENT

BACKGROUND

The Asian and Pacific Centre for Women and Development is a training and research centre of the United Nations regional commission for Asia and Pacific (ESCAP). It was inaugurated early in 1977 and its overall objective is to ensure the full participation of women in the economic and social development of their communities.

Its functions include advisory service to the governments of the region, training activities, research and the establishment of a clearing house for the collection and dissemination of information relating to the women of the region.

RELEVANT ACTIVITIES

1. TCDC Workshop

A Workshop on Technical Co-operation Among Developing Countries and Women was convened in Tehran from 24-26 April 1978. The Workshop was held in the belief that for any developmental strategy to be successful women and their concerns must be fully integrated from the initial formulation through to the eventual implementation. Otherwise each strategy merely creates a new developmental imbalance between women and men, between the rich and the poor.

The impact on women of various patterns of industrialisation and of the transfer of technology, capital resources and product from developed to developing countries were considered.

The Workshop felt that the mixed performance of industrialisation and technology as it affects the sexual division of labour and of work conditions needs to be studied at much greater length to determine the influence of different industrialisation strategies and the influence of foreign capital. This should also bring more light to bear on the vexing issue of job preference by sex in situations of general high unemployment.

2. Case Studies

A number of Case Studies have been commissioned of situations experiencing the impact of change. Those relevant include the modernisation of the traditional handloom weaving industry in Jammu and Kashmir in India, the economic interventions which create and support the informal sector in Colombo, the role of women in a food processing industry in Thailand and the social and economic impact on a small rural community in Fiji of a transnational exploratory mining venture.

The aim of the Case Studies is to provide sufficient understanding of the effects of such interventions to provide a guide to planners and policy formulators.

3. Regional Training Seminar for Development Planners

The seminar was held from the 14 September to 25 October; the participants were drawn from sectoral and central planning offices from Asia and the Pacific.

The course aimed to acquaint development planners with the concepts required for planning for women in all sectors, including industry; to critically examine the national plans of selected countries to assess the adequacy of their data base and their impact on women; and, to alert planners to groups of women in special need.

4. Future Activities

(a) A workshop on employment planning for women to identify the issues relevant to the formulation of national employment policies for the female labour force.

(b) A multicountry research project on the social and economic impact of industrialisation on women in Asia and the Pacific. The study would look at the corporate structure, recruitment and employment procedures and practices, host government concessions and associated social impositions. The study would focus on industry area where the producers and/or workers were predominantly women and would also look at the distribution of gains.

It is hoped that this project will be designed and implemented in collaboration with UNIDO.

UNIDO and APCWD

There is much scope for collaboration in this area. One suggestion is to follow up the November meeting with a joint regional workshop to design in detail the multi country research project and to identify activities of pressing need, such as counselling service for women workers, protective associations and skill training needs.

The possibilities of further collaboration could develop out of this workshop.

It is also important that APCWD design an effective means of liaising with the UNIDO field staff in the region who are an invaluable source of information and practical knowledge of trends and problems.

It is the policy of APCWD to work, whenever possible, with existing UN agencies and organisations in joint activities or to assist them in carrying out their own mandate in their area.



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THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES *

prepared by

Dorothea Gaudart **

* The views and opinions expressed in this paper are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the secretariat of UNIDO. This document has been reproduced without formal editing.

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1. ACTIVITIES BY AUSTRIA RELATING TO THE ROLE OF WOMEN
IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

1. The Austrian Delegation to UNIDO has repeatedly referred to the importance of a better integration of women in development. At the twelfth session of the Industrial Development Board, the Austrian Delegation especially stressed the urgent need for a wider participation of women in UNIDO-assisted programmes and projects.

2. It also recalled the progress that had been achieved in this regard in the framework of bilateral co-operation between Austria and developing countries. In recent years, the number of female applications for scholarship programmes financed by the Austrian Government has steadily increased. At present, one third of Austrian technical advisers and experts serving in the field are women.

3. The Catholic Women's Movement is promoting projects which are either specifically designed for girls or women or integrate women in rural development projects. The organization provides financial assistance to developing countries through a special committee responsible for the administration of funds collected on an annual Family Day of Fasting (Familienfasttag). Twenty scholarships are granted to students from developing countries for their education in Austria. ⁽¹⁾ The Protestant organization "Women's Work" is equally involved in assistance programmes for developing countries. Other women's organizations seek direct co-operation with partner organizations in developing countries.

4. The Vienna Institute for Development is concerned with the promotion of cultural, social and economic co-operation in favour of developing countries and undertakes research on particular aspects of development policies. ⁽²⁾

2. MAJOR CONSTRAINTS TO THE ACHIEVEMENT BY WOMEN OF AN EFFECTIVE ROLE IN THE INDUSTRIALIZATION PROCESS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

5. According to recent reports from different parts of the world, women in developing countries could not achieve effective roles because they have been excluded to a large extent from the industrialization process. (3, 4, 5)

Some of the studies have shown that industrialization has even produced negative effects on women:

(i) in rural sectors

- * training in agricultural technologies and the use of machines is provided only to men;
- * women continue to do the hardest types of work in the fields and as machines and other mechanical devices set the pace in specific agricultural work processes, have to increase their work input;
- * the evolution of new economic patterns devalued rural work as a means of making a livelihood for women;
- * the impact of agricultural technology has led to the displacement of women from rural sectors;

(ii) in non-rural development

- * land tenure and loans are only given to men;
- * women have lost their traditional small retail trade to men who raise crops commercially;
- * women have lost marketing opportunities and, as a result, purchasing power;

(iii) in small-scale industries

- * working places were primarily created for male workers only;
- * women lost their original working opportunities as domestic workers, e.g. handweavers (with only a small number of men finding work in relevant industries);
- * in some countries female participation in the total work force declined in all sectors of the economy; (3)

(iv) in large-scale industries

- * employment in large-scale industries has frequently led to the displacement of women, e.g. from domestic hand-weaving to textile industries, or, in the service sector, from trade to commerce;
- * women are only employed as unskilled workers (mostly due to a lack of training opportunities);
- * in moving to work places in industry, women were cut off from supporting family groups and were confronted with the negative effects of urbanization.

6. Some of the causes for such constraints can be seen in the social, cultural and religious values influencing the attitudes and behaviour of women and men, the division of labour and the relative position of the sexes (gender roles) in the power structure at all levels of society. Similar to the situation in Western societies, women are ascribed inferior positions in their non-domestic relations and, consequently, in the industrialization process. At the same time they remain responsible for all household consumption and maintenance, as well as for the care of the family group. The Western concept of a male supporter of the household has been transferred to the Basic Needs Approach for developing countries. ⁽⁴⁾ This concept has proved detrimental to the role of women in the development process. ⁽³⁾ Consequently, rather than focusing on the household or the family, basic needs should be identified with reference to the individual.

7. In this connection due account must be taken of the increasing number of sole female supporters which comes close to 25 - 33 per cent and represents the poorest group of the female population, especially in certain age groups. ⁽⁶⁾

3. SPECIFIC AREAS WHERE WOMEN CAN CONTRIBUTE TO INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

8. The examples for constraints mentioned above can, however, also be cited as areas in which women can contribute to the industrialization process:

(i) in rural sectors

* women and men, girls and boys, should receive formal and informal training in agricultural and agricultural extension work through the use of agricultural technologies and machines, e.g. mills, pumps, carts;

- * material improvements (water supply, dairy technology, etc.) should permit women to spend free time exploiting new options for advancement (education, health practices, etc.)

(ii) in non-rural development

- * women should be trained in income-generating activities;
- * women should be given their own land and granted loans and credits;
- * they should be allowed to sign loan applications and receipts;

(iii) in small-scale industries

- * women should develop their traditional handicrafts to produce marketable goods;
- * rural crafts, manufacturing, construction and rural services should be developed and run by women, e.g. village stores;
- * women should expand their activities in export trade, increasing foreign currency and introducing them to other economic and social issues;

(iv) in large-scale industries

- * women should receive vocational training for gainful economic activities;
- * more employment opportunities for women should be created within the framework of the industrialization process;
- * women should have access to all levels of education and vocational training, including professional careers and top level positions;
- * women workers should receive further training including management skills, in order to provide them with business contacts in other countries.

9. To summarize, women may contribute to their countries' industrialization process by

- a) using locally available primary products to develop a range of goods for domestic markets;
- b) using locally available materials for production of essential items;
- c) obtaining loans to finance the purchase of equipment;
- d) promoting co-operatives and other self-help schemes in food production, animal husbandry, marketing, housing and health;
- e) developing training skills for different occupations in industries, e.g. textiles, clothing, electronics, food processing, chemicals;

- f) encouraging their entrepreneurial skills and improving their retail trading abilities;
- g) gaining professional knowledge to carry out effectively industrialization tasks, e.g. banking, transportation, communication;
- h) developing and training their management skills;
- i) participating in project design and planning, and industrial management;
- j) sharing in the development of tripartite economic structures, participating in chambers of commerce and federations of industries on the one hand and trade unions on the other, and finally in the national administration at all levels;
- k) obtaining and ascertaining information on projects of industrialization at the local, regional and national level;
- l) identifying the decision-makers and defining the inducement they require to integrate women into industrialization projects;
- m) making use of opportunities to engage women in the industrialization process not readily apparent to male officials and industrial planners;
- n) increasing women's participation in technical and managerial positions as well as in policy- and decision-making positions;
- o) increasing women's eligibility for international activities.

4. WAYS AND MEANS OF DEVELOPING AND IMPLEMENTING NATIONAL PROGRAMMES IN THIS FIELD

10. Women's achievements must be included as objectives in national programmes and economic plans. This goal must be generally recognized. Its realization should be verified at certain intervals. All administrative officials should receive special instruction to this area.

11. The possibilities as they exist in individual communities must be clearly defined. Women must be provided with the necessary means, such as training, appropriate machines, credits, etc.

12. Possible ways and means for furthering the process of industrialization must be chosen depending on the prevailing structures in a given country. Sometimes the capability of central units to support local administrative bodies must be improved, in other cases it is the local administration which needs assistance from the central government. Promotion and assistance must be forthcoming from organizations and institutions capable of implementing programmes relating to the role of women in the industrialization process (administrative authorities, political parties, employers' or workers' organizations, professional associations, women's organizations, etc.).

13. The potential role of women's organizations as institutional mechanism for promoting the industrialization process must be seen from different angles. Historically, women have found it easier to develop their ideas in confrontation with other women. Women's organizations and, more recently, women's groups function as consciousness-raising institutions on the one hand and pressure groups on the other. In addition, they are expected to support their members and to prepare rosters of women experts.

14. Since it is essential that all national programmes and economic plans be evaluated and reviewed under women's perspectives, women's bureaux, divisions or commissions should be established as national machinery. (7)

They should help male administrators and government decision-makers to become sensitive to and aware of the achievements of women in the industrialization process. Another aspect of their functions is to make the community understand the implications of planning and working for women.

15. As development plans are, as a general rule, designed by urban middle class men whose own wives, mothers and sisters do not participate in the industrialization process, it must be the most important goal to change the attitudes of the male society in the direction of a greater acceptance of female participation. (3) If special machinery does not exist or if there are no sensibilized female or male individuals to draw public attention to the role of women, only a long learning process will alter the situation.

16. In setting up national programmes and economic plans for the industrialization process, all aspects of the humanisation of labour should be promoted in parallel, protecting women against discrimination. Legislation, protective measures and collective agreements should apply to all workers, female or male.

17. For successful project formulation, planning and implementation, the closing words of the above-mentioned Report of the Asian and Pacific Center for Women and Development on "The Critical Needs of Women" could be cited as a general conclusion:

- "there must be genuine political will on the part of government,
- a new understanding on the part of men and
- a commitment and vision on the part of women that accepts and transcends differences and unites us in our demands for a new world order". (3)

5. SUGGESTIONS AS TO A MORE EFFECTIVE ROLE FOR THE UNITED NATIONS AND OTHER INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND INSTITUTIONS IN THIS FIELD

18. Since the mid-seventies, economic concepts on the one hand and concepts promoting the status of women on the other - both

developed in the United Nations and other international organizations- have approached one another.

19. General Assembly resolutions 3201 (S-VI) and 3202 (S-VI), of 1 May 1974, containing the Declaration and Programme of Action on the Establishment of a New International Economic Order, supplemented the promotion of "economic advancement" by "social progress of all peoples". Furthermore, GA resolution 3281 (XXIX), of 15 January 1975, containing the Charter of Economic Rights and Duties of States enlarged the primary responsibility of every State "to promote the economic, social and cultural development of its people" with inter alia the aim "to ensure full participation of its people in the process and benefits of development". (8)

Can one not rightly assume that women are fully included in these concerns ?

20. More specifically, since women are entrusted with the upbringing of future generations (feeding, clothing, education etc.) should they not share, for instance, in the responsibility for the protection, preservation and enhancement of the environment as called for in article 30 of the Charter of Economic Rights and Duties of States ?

21. GA resolution 3362 (S-VII), of 16 September 1975, on Development and International Economic Co-operation, requests the Secretary-General of the United Nations, together with the relevant organizations of the UN system, in regard to Section VI (Co-operation among developing countries) to undertake studies, inter alia, on the utilization of know-how and skills available within developing countries for promotion of investments in industry, agriculture, transport and communications. (9)

A relevant provision of the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development and Co-operation (see UNIDO A/10112, annex, chap. IV) recognized the importance of ensuring an adequate role for the public sector in the expansion of the industrial development of developing

countries. The conclusion may therefore be drawn that, in the context of economic self-reliance, the training of national skills of both men and women should receive priority. The public sector may be expected to play a pace-setting role in this regard.

22. Concepts promoting the status of women, mostly seen under social auspices, are contained in the following international documents:

In 1975, The General Assembly of the United Nations proclaimed the Decade for Women (1976-1985) and endorsed the World Plan of Action, Res. 3520(XXX), of 15 December 1975, which was the first socio-economic plan devised on a global scale to improve the situation of individuals. (10)

This comprehensive World Plan of Action for the Implementation of the Objectives of the International Women's Year was addressed to governments, inter-governmental organizations, non-governmental organizations, institutions of various kinds, and individuals.

A world movement was set in motion and should alert the general public to recognizing that development cannot succeed without the involvement of women.

23. The links between women-oriented and economic instruments have originally been established by the Center for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs. The following resolutions, adopted by the Economic and Social Council, are cases in point: E/RES/2059/LXII, of 23 May 1977, on Training for the preparation and implementation of project proposals, E/RES/1978/27, of 24 May 1978, on Institutions responsible for implementing the World Plan of Action within the framework of the United Nations Decade for Women, and E/RES/1978/34, of 25 May 1978, on Women in development and international conferences.

24. The Industrial Development Board of UNIDO, at its ninth session, adopted resolution 44(IX) on the Integration of Women in Development. The Executive Director reported on

UNIDO's efforts in technical assistance, in the field of studies, on the contributions of UNIDO to joint efforts within the United Nations system, and on the employment of women in the secretariat and in the field. (11)

25. In implementing all these measures the United Nations system has had a world-wide impact on the role of women in industrialization in developing countries. Never before have these issues received so much international attention. Nevertheless, the effectiveness of the role of the United Nations and other international organizations and institutions in this field depends upon the representatives of member states. These highly-skilled individuals with great diplomatic abilities and administrative power are usually male. They ordinarily have no gainfully employed women at their homes and often lack insight into the needs of the vast majority of the female population. Therefore, an important suggestion centers on a constant rise in the participation of sensibilized female representatives (delegates, high-level officials, policy planners, educators, etc.) on an equal footing with males.

26. In this context it should be emphasized that the improvement of female participation need not turn out to be a zero-sum game, taking into account the enormous amount of work to be accomplished at the national and international level in implementing the objectives of the New International Economic Order.

27. In the meantime,

- a) relevant information about women's integration in development processes must be disseminated;
- b) mechanisms and guidelines must be developed in order to ensure that this information is taken into account for the development of global, regional, national and local programmes and economic plans;
- c) the involvement of women in all spheres of public life must be enhanced by making full use of the work done by national and international research and training institutes. (12,1

6. OTHER RELEVANT POINTS CONSIDERED OF PARTICULAR IMPORTANCE

28. Of particular importance in all fields is the relationship between the sexes. Difficulties arise in view of the underlying expectations and conceptions for the roles women and men have to play. They form part of the value system which is embodied in the national culture and crystallize only through socialization. As long as women and men consciously or unconsciously submit to these expectations and conceptions no changes should be expected. This vicious circle will be broken by new achievements only. Positive examples of effective roles of both women and men in the industrialization process will influence and gradually change the existing value system.

29. In some countries more equality in status and behaviour has been realized by implementing the concept of partnership in social and economic life. The relative position and participation of women and men in power structure are by no means static. Consequently, the gender roles in a given society should be fully analyzed before setting out to improve the role of women in the industrialization process in developing countries. Action-oriented research will yield best results in this respect.

It should not be overlooked however, that sexual considerations continue to be prevalent and sometimes prevent objective and functional approaches. (12, 13, 14, 15) The prevailing differentiation between the sexes as regards feelings, thinking, talking, acting is not absolute and qualitative, but rather relative and qualitative in physical and psychological terms. (16)

30. At the international level another relevant point might be considered in some detail. Transnational corporations, which have their seat in countries that apply legislation on equal pay and equal employment opportunity, have developed positive or affirmative action programmes. (17)

These affirmative action programmes involve a series of positive steps undertaken by employers to remove systematic barriers to employment and to achieve measurable improvements in hiring, training and promoting qualified workers who have in the past been denied access to certain jobs. (18)

31. Transnational corporations could transfer those affirmative action guidelines and necessary consultative services to improve and enhance employment opportunities for women in all areas of the work force to their affiliated companies in developing countries. This would have a double effect. Qualified women of developing countries would be given access to the accelerating industrialization process. Female managers of developed countries would not be handicapped in their business transactions with their male counterparts who so far have lacked experience in doing business with women in developing regions.

32. It would thus be desirable to increase the number of female professionals in developing countries through training and exchange as envisaged by UNIDO-assisted programmes and courses.

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in Industrialization in Developing
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Vienna, Austria, 6 - 10 November 1978

NOTE FOR THE PREPARATORY MEETING ON THE ROLE OF WOMEN
IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES *

prepared by

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This brief note reviews the main activities carried out by the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs dealing with the various aspects of women's engagement in industry in developing countries, as well as it is an attempt to put forward suggestions for future collaboration between the CSDHA and the United Nations Industrial Development Organization which could be discussed at the preparatory meeting on the role of women in industrialization in developing countries. Since the Centre will send a representative to this preparatory meeting, more detailed information concerning the ongoing work and future projects allowing for co-operation with UNIDO may be presented on that occasion.

The Role of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries

In the developing countries the emergence of modern industry has had consequences which are often controversial if not outright unfavourable to the socio-economic status of women. Industrialization has in many instances eliminated existing artisan industries - traditional employers of women, - while at the same time did not facilitate women's incorporation in the new jobs. Moreover, where new employment opportunities have been opened women have been frequently cheap-labour targets and they have remained underrepresented in the higher paid and highly qualified positions.

Thus, for example, in many Latin American countries import-substitution processes in the industrial sector, using imported capital-intensive technology, have restricted the incorporation of labour into the industry for both men and women. However, the presence of a substantial male labour force in the urban areas prevented women from being absorbed in blue-collar jobs and confined them to marginal employment and petty trade. More recently, however, in some developing countries the growth of what is often termed "offshore sourcing" (the location by transnational corporations of plants in developing countries to manufacture consumer products and components for export) has particularly incorporated women in the new industrial jobs.

In contrast to the import-substitution pattern of industrialization, where the main attraction for foreign capital is the existence of protected markets created by favourable government policies, the export-oriented industries are in search of low cost labour. Because of the importance of low wages for them, even while they were operating in their mother countries, such firms (i.e. electronics, textile, clothing) employed those segments

of the labour force which were less qualified, less likely to organize in unions and willing to work for very low pay. In the United States, for example, this labour tended to be predominantly female and non-white, as it remains until today. In recent years, cost-cutting competitive market pressures drove a large number of international firms to search for low wage workshops, mainly in Asia, but also in the Caribbean Islands and in Central America. In general, it is the female labour-intensive industries which have had the greatest propensity to move offshore; and in their Asian and Caribbean plants these industries continue to employ mostly women.

The employment opportunities opened to women by this industrialization were likely to be in subordinate and unskilled jobs, a situation which has raised questions about the conditions of work and the opportunities for improvement of women's socio-economic status created by such industries. In particular, it has been pointed out that most of the workers are paid a subsistence wage with little hope for a raise; sometimes institutional pressures are exerted in order to prevent the organization of unions, so as not to discourage foreign investment. Finally, the skills taught in most of these industries are not transferable, thus increasing the insecurity of the workers in a situation where employment would be highly dependent on the fluctuations in the world market.

Two studies undertaken by the CSDHA attempted to analyse some of the effects of industrialization on women's employment and working conditions in developing countries: a) The participation of Women in the Development of Latin America, UN document ESA/CSDHA/AC.10/4/Rev.1, 1976; b) Effective Mobilization of Women in Development: report of the Secretary-General, to be presented at the 33rd session of the General Assembly. However, there is a real need for more careful and detailed analysis of the major determinants of women's employment in industry in developing countries, especially in a cross-cultural perspective, beyond the general descriptions and characterizations contained in these studies (and summarized above). For example, very little is known about the impact of hiring and wage policies of transnational corporations on the social, economic and cultural status of women in developing countries. In this respect, also, the effect of technological choices on the role of women in industrial employment has to be evaluated, and in particular, its impact on the job opportunities and qualitative changes in wages, working conditions, health hazards, skills,

participation in decision-making and management. It was felt, therefore, that more investigation should be done concerning women in industry in developing countries, with special attention to the above mentioned aspects, and the Centre intends to undertake further research along these lines. Since UNIDO is planning to carry out a study on the "possible detrimental effects of industrialization on the socio-economic conditions of women in developing countries (*) it would be recommended that the research efforts of UNIDO and the CSDHA be co-ordinated so as to avoid possible duplication.

Rural Development, Rural Industrialization and Access to Incentives and Assets

It is a well-known fact that economic growth has in many instances brought the deterioration of employment opportunities and the worsening of working conditions for women in the rural areas. Moreover, because most development plans and programmes usually exclude the women's component, the benefits and incentives thereby generated, such as access to training, land, loans credit, participation in management and decision-making and better job opportunities, are usually available to men only. In addition, these programmes seldom extend the access and availability of possible technological benefits to vulnerable communities in need of appropriate technology for domestic use which could alleviate women's heavy work load and facilitate their integration and participation in the mainstream of economic development.

In view of the above, the evaluation of the consequences of economic growth for the socio-economic status of rural women (**) and the support of efforts to make available those incentives (such as appropriate technology (***), training, credits, land) necessary for the full integration of the rural women in the process of economic development are of paramount importance. In this respect, the initiative of UNIDO in undertaking case studies on successful rural industrialization, the role

(*) see: Integration of Women in Development, ID/B/202, para.13

(**) see: "Women's economic role and working conditions in agriculture: a general survey", in Effective Mobilization of Women in Development, op. cit.

(***) On appropriate technology for rural women, see two studies by the CSDHA
a) Water, Women and Development, UN document E/CONF.70/A.19, 1977;
b) Appropriate Technology for Developing Countries and the Needs of Rural Women, ESA/S + T/AC.7/CRP.3/Add.3, 1977.

of rural women in this process and the impact of the changes on women's welfare is noteworthy (*). Rural industrialization programmes which in general are part of developmental strategies aiming at a more equilibrated pattern of economic development and income distribution between the rural and the urban areas should include special provisions ensuring an equitable share of the tasks and benefits from such programmes for both men and women, thereby facilitating the achievement of the programmes' objectives.

In its own efforts to guarantee to women these incentives indispensable for the enhancement of their well-being, the CSDHA, in accordance with the General Assembly resolution 31/133, has recommended for approval to the Voluntary Fund for the United Nations Decade for Women (**) primarily such projects that would provide craft training, labour saving and income-generating activities to the poorest groups of women and in particular to rural women (***). It might be expected that, in the future, co-operation between the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs and UNIDO in reference to the activities of the Voluntary Fund will develop; in particular such co-operation would include the identification of those projects on rural industrialization for which support from the Voluntary Fund might be appropriate.

(*) see UN document ID/B/202, op. cit. para.11

(**) On the Voluntary Fund see UN document A/32/174, 1977

(***) One project which has been recommended for approval is an activity which will assist women with the extraction of salt in Niger. Projects that help women in utilizing techniques of food storage and preservation, and training of women in agriculture and horticulture techniques, have also been recommended for approval.



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THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN SRI LANKA *

prepared by

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INTRODUCTION

Sri Lanka earlier known as Ceylon is a small beautiful island with an area of 25,332 sq. miles (70,330 km), and a population of 13.94 million people. Sri Lanka's size is comparable to that of Tasmania. Her population is about that of Australia.

The people belong to various races - Sinhalese 72%, Tamils 10%; the balance is made up of Moors, Muslims and Burghers.

The people of Sri Lanka also belong to different religions — Buddhists 68%, Hindus 18%, Christians 8% and Muslims about 6%. Sri Lanka is basically an agricultural country. Agro-based industries have been in existence for many years. Most other industries sprang up in the 1960's. About 3,000 industries have been established since 1960. You will therefore see that industrialization in Sri Lanka is fairly recent.

CURRENT CONTRIBUTION OF WOMEN TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

Although almost half of the number graduating from the Universities in Sri Lanka are women, it is a very regrettable fact that educated women in Sri Lanka constitute a grossly under-utilized resource. It will also be seen that the areas where there is high participation of educated women are in no way linked with industry.

TABLE (1) - % of women in workforce as skilled and non-skilled vs educated

Approx.% of women in workforce	OCCUPATIONAL / CAREER AREAS	
	NOT LINKED TO EDUCATION	LINKED TO EDUCATION/TRAINING
80 - 100	Handloom industry	
	Batik industry	
	Garment industry	Nursing
	Packing & Labelling	
	Other industries	Midwifery
	Plucking, sorting etc. in the Plantation Sector Cane & Basketware	
40 - 80	Rubber Plantation	Teaching, Medical Profession
	Farm work	Medical Technician
	Ceramic Industry	Lab. Technicians
	Brick & Tile Manufacture	Stenographers, Typists
	Coir & Fibre Industry	Telephone Operators, Hostesses
10 - 40	Waitresses	Lawyers, Tax Officers
	Screen printers	Banking, Journalism
		Postal Officers
		Librarians, Biologists
Less than 10		Managers, Engineers
	Cooks	Research Officers, Accountants
	Bus conductors	Architects, Surveyors
	Traffic wardens	Quality Controllers, Administrators
	Film actresses	Film Directors/Editors, Vet. Surgeons

TABLE (2) - % of Women Employees by major occupational categories - 1976

MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY	(%) - 1976
1) Administrative & Managerial Workers	6.7
2) Professional, Technical & Related Workers	12.0
3) Clerical & Related Workers	17.6
4) Sales Workers	15.4
5) Forewomen & Supervisors	9.9
6) Skilled & Semi-skilled Workers	33.7
7) Unskilled Workers	39.8

Source — Department of Labour - Employment Survey 1976

TABLE (3) - % of Women in total workforce by major divisions of industries

MAJOR DIVISIONS OF INDUSTRIES	% OF WOMEN TO TOTAL NO. OF EMPLOYEES
(1) Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing	51.7
(2) Mining and Quarrying	15.4
(3) Manufacturing	31.4
(4) Electricity, gas and water	3.2
(5) Construction	5.3
(6) Wholesale & Retail Trade (Restaurant & Hotels)	16.5
(7) Transport & Storage	1.7
(8) Finance, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	16.8
(9) Community, Social & Personal Services	14.8
% of Women Workers in all Industries	<u>34.0</u>

Source — Department of Labour Employment Survey- 1976

TABLE (4) - No. of Employees by Sex in Industry - 1976

SEX	PRIVATE SECTOR	PUBLIC SECTOR	TOTAL
Males	148,890	547,381	696,271
Females	79,594	279,780	359,374
TOTAL	<u>228,484</u>	<u>827,161</u>	<u>1,055,645</u>

Source - Department of Labour Employment Survey - 1976

From the above tables one fact emerges clearly i.e. the educated woman plays a very insignificant role in industry. The number of women in management, administrative and executive posts and in the technical sphere in industry is negligible.

Table (2) shows that more women are employed in the lower rungs of the occupational scale.

Table (3) serves to indicate that more than $\frac{1}{3}$ of the workforce are women and that they predominate in the agricultural and manufacturing industries, and are concentrated in the unskilled grades in estates and in the skilled and unskilled grades in the manufacturing sector.

Given the facts that about 50% of the population of Sri Lanka are women and that 34% of the total workforce are women - one might get an erroneous idea about the status of women in employment in Sri Lanka.

The thrust of the women's workforce is in the lower occupational rungs where incomes are the lowest.

Much has to be done to roll away the unseen and intangible barriers which seem to lock-out women from entry into the higher rungs of occupation in industry.

THE MAJOR CONSTRAINTS CONTRIBUTING TO POOR PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

Although the female population of Sri Lanka is about 50%, the various traditions, religious beliefs and cultural beliefs have all played various roles in retarding the emancipation of women and their participation in the industrialization and technological development of Sri Lanka.

History, too has contributed to constrain in achieving effective participation of women in industry today. During 1505-1656 the Portugese dominated Ceylon. This was followed by a period of Dutch Rule during 1656-1796. The era of British rule was from 1797-1948. During these periods women were employed only in the plantation and rural sector where female labour was exploited.

Fortunately, in 1931 Universal Franchise was granted in Ceylon to those over 21 years, in 1959 this age limit was reduced to 18 years. Since 1931 women have been in politics and this to a great extent helped to encourage women to participate in the socio-economic development of Sri Lanka.

Since 1945, elementary, secondary and tertiary education has been free. This coupled with the rapid expansion of educational facilities and institutions matched with the social demands and with the added advantage of instruction in the mother tongue have significantly helped to transform an elitist ex-colonial society to a more egalitarian social structure. Women have been equal beneficiaries of all these social and educational changes with the result that the rate of literacy among women is about 72% compared to 85% among men. Thus the women of today are more capable of benefiting from the employment opportunities generated by the development of agriculture and industry.

There is however a major national problem that might retard the pace of women's increased participation in industry. There is an ever increasing unemployment problem of educated youth. Today's figure stands at about 1.2 million - both male and female products of a general education. The massive unemployment problems might have the retrogradory and undesirable effect on women's job opportunities which will become more vulnerable in a shrinking labour market.

So far there has been no national policy of the women's role in the socio-economic progress of the country. A certain amount of integration of some of the 32 women's organisations in the country will help to formulate policies and focus attention on the participation of women in industrial and technological development of Sri Lanka.

Proposals are now afoot to set up a women's bureau in Sri Lanka. I will deal with the proposed functions of this bureau later on in this paper.

Professional women in Sri Lanka receive equal pay with men and have a sense of economic independence. Yet their absence in the higher echelons of industry indicates that there still exist undefined prejudices about their employment in this sphere.

There is gross exploitation of women in the labour force. The key area of exploitation is in the wage area. There is a definite wage discrimination in small industries, cottage industries and in the plantation sector.

Even where there is legislation with regard to wages, one finds that different wages are prescribed for men and women.

Wages are related to job classification which are based on sex- differentiation for example -

Class A jobs - for males

Class B jobs - for females

Remuneration attached to Class B is lower than that attached to Class A. In other instances where wages for the different industries are laid down by the Wages Board and published from time to time in the Sri Lanka Labour Gazette a straight-forward demarcation of rates of minimum pay applicable to males and females is made. Minimum wages for females being about 65-80% that of the males.

These lower rates of pay in occupations which are already the lowest paid in Sri Lanka have a deterrent effect on women's entry to the workforce.

Another form of restraint which affects the educated women is through what in Sri Lanka is known as the "Quota System." Up to recently in the Administrative Service the limitation was up to 25%. This limit of 25% also imposed on women entrants to the General Clerical Service.

The adoption of this quota system had been possible because in the Chapter on Fundamental Rights and Freedoms in the Constitution of Sri Lanka, there was a clause about non-discrimination in appointments on the grounds of race, religion, caste or sex, which however, embodied the following proviso provided that in the interest of such services, specific posts or classes of posts may be reserved for members of either sex

I am pleased to announce that this limiting proviso has been deleted in the new constitution of the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka which came into effect on 7 September 1978.

A further restricting factor is the lack of well equipped training centres which can impart mechanical skills to women. In 86 Trades, catered for by the National Apprentice Board only 10 have any women apprentices. While tradition and religious beliefs have constrained women from greater entry into industrial activity, I must mention that prejudices against women and certain myths about women's inability to wield authority and lack of responsibility, have been used by men in power to suppress women from rising to managerial positions in industry.

POLICY

A Policy has therefore to be formulated : -

- 1) To correct the imbalance between education and job opportunities by
 - a) Restructuring rural industrialisation in a decentralised manner so as to generate job opportunities for the educated female youth.
 - b) Changing the content of education by linking it to the socio-economic changes
- 2) To generate greater opportunity for women to acquire basic skills for self employment.
- 3) To specialise in new skills for new tasks and those tasks which were predominantly men's jobs. These should be identified and catered for so that women can be integrated into national reconstruction and development programmes. The methodology in which this type of training could be imparted, must be determined.
- 4) To provide women with an opportunity to have a say in the formulation and implementation of matters which directly affect them - in Sri Lanka most decisions about women are taken without them.
- 5) To create an awareness perhaps through mass media, that -
 - a) Woman is no longer an appendage of her husband, an ornament in the home, a mere household manager and a child-bearer, but that she is an independent human being with distinct rights, opportunities and responsibilities.
 - b) Woman is a productive worker and a valuable resource of the country.
- 6) To ensure equal pay for work of equal value.
- 7) To make available to women with small children, a few years no-pay leave without losing employment or to provide creches and infant schools and playing facilities.
- 8) To make available to women part-time jobs, so that household incomes would increase.
- 9) To introduce the concept of flex-hours so that women can attend to the needs of children when required.
- 10) To introduce formal courses in management and leadership and also training in trade union activities.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND INDUSTRIALISATION

Rural development and industrialisation will create the potential to absorb more and more women in various processes. With improved infrastructural requirements and better technology it will be possible for these industries to provide better jobs, better wages and to significantly increase productivity and to provide more employment opportunities for educated women in the administration of these industries.

Sri Lanka has many material resources in the rural areas which are not fully utilized. Although some of these industries have been in existence for many years—the productivity and profitability are low due to lack of proper technology, poor inter-institutional co-ordination, lack of integration, poor planning of Raw Material supply, production and marketing and last but not least the lack of quality consciousness and quality control.

The new Government of Sri Lanka, which incidentally, since from September 7, is known as the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka, has already given a clear indication that the thrust of the development effort will be in the rural areas with the supporting participation of the people using locally available resources and skills.

With in view steps have already been taken to set up one Rural Development Society in each village. There are 20,000 villages in Sri Lanka and 70% of the population live in these rural areas.

The proposed Rural Development Societies will help the villagers to organize themselves to control and utilize their socio-economic environments so as to optimize productivity, generate self-employment and raise their standard of living. Leadership training is to be provided to the poor landless and the educated unemployed youth - both male and female. Only persons with staying power will be selected for camp leadership training.

They will be responsible for bringing about changes in the village and will be known as "Change Agents."

PLANNING FOR RURAL INDUSTRIALISATION

The aims and objectives of planning for the increased participation of women in industry in Sri Lanka should include : -

- 1) The identification of projects and the development of industries which use in the main, locally available Raw Materials and local female skills.
- 2) Introduction of technologically improved industrialisation which will result in higher productivity so that high incomes can be assured and workers get not only better job satisfaction but also better take home pay packages.
- 3) The provision of financial assistance to set up village department stores which can serve to stabilize prices in the whole country and help entrepreneurship, as well as the consumer. The advantages of these are : -
 - a) in the case of perishable items they can pay the farmer or supplier on the spot and arrange for collection of the goods by the central distributing organisation in the area.
 - b) in the case of articles produced by artisans and entrepreneurs, they can purchase when the market prices are low and sell at reasonable prices when they are rising.
- 4) Project planning for the involvement of women in industry like any other project planning must be carefully identified. The potential of women must be evaluated. Indiscreet mechanisation and rationalisation which tend to restrict women's participation in the organised sector must necessarily be avoided.

The Projects could be planned to give full-time or seasonal full-time employment or subsidiary or supplementary self-employment. Planned projects should have the inherent capacity for generating employment at hours suitable to the rural woman. They should be of low capital investment and utilize local skills for processing locally available Raw Materials.

The planned projects should be of diverse types so that they can be suited to the different rural localities.

The projects should be planned so as to attract women to stay at home and work for the project or come to work from their homes so as to avoid urban immigration and the consequential innumerable problems that stem from this. For this, the rural sector projects must provide facilities for leisure and pleasure and perhaps provide creches, infant schools etc. It is here that the State has to play the most important role.

In a developing country such as Sri Lanka project planning cannot concentrate only on production quantities and productivity. We have rather an obligation to think of -

- 1) WHAT is to be produced ?
 for example bread (made of imported flour)
 or Rice and Rice-based products
 Terylene or Cotton
 Electricity for air-conditioning or for
 village electrification and rural industry.
- 2) WHERE is the project to be sited ?
 Rural or Urban
- 3) WHAT TECHNOLOGY should be used ?
 Automatic capital intensive
 or low cost, labour intensive ?

These aspects must be given the most careful thought, in the very minutest detail so that women can get increasing job opportunities with reasonable wages and without the inconveniences and family problems that arise if they have to migrate to urban areas in search of employment.

Planning of the infrastructure must take into account the possible future expansion of industries in the rural sector.

Mass media must be utilized to break through traditional and cultural barriers which prevent the fuller participation of women in industry and to awaken the consciousness of women for the need of developing their own areas as part of their contribution to national development.

Planning must take into account the great need of the moment i.e. producing in sufficient quantities and acceptable quality, those items of food, clothing and household requisites required by the people of the country.

Planning for rural industrial development which will result in women getting greater employment opportunities must be a two-pronged effort.

- 1) Existing industries must be upgraded so that not only productivity but also product quality is sustained, thus ensuring ready marketability of the goods.
- 2) Newer industries, particularly agro-based industries must be developed where women too can actively participate.

FUNCTIONS of the proposed Womens' Bureau which I referred to earlier will be : -

- i. To identify all areas, projects and institutions related to women in Sri Lanka and work for the improvement of their quality of life
- ii. To continuously review and evaluate the extent to which women have been integrated in the economic and social life of the country on a basis of equality with men.
- iii. Make recommendations from time to time with a view to guaranteeing full equality for women before the law in all sectors where such equality does not presently exist.
- iv. To ensure the preservation of Sri Lanka culture and traditions by fostering moral and ethical values so far as they affect the role of women in the process of modernization.
- v. To foster and encourage greater participation by women in the various spheres of national life.
- vi. To promote the availability of training and educational facilities, both formal and non-formal, thereby providing greater avenues for socially meaningful action by women.
- vii. To conduct research and collect and disseminate information on all matters pertaining to the achievement of the above objectives.
- viii. To initiate and monitor projects financed with both national and foreign funds with the objectives of ensuring that the position of women is thereby improved.
- ix. To advise the Government in formulating policies and implementing programmes for increased participation of women in national development.

The Bureau will also serve as a Central Agency to channel foreign assistance from International Organisations interested in promoting projects and programmes related to the welfare of women in Sri Lanka.

CASE STUDY

At the helm of industry in Sri Lanka one finds only a sprinkling of women. They are either in the creative arts or handloom sectors. Hence, rather unhappily, I am perforced to cite myself as the subject of the case study.

I terminated my education at the secondary stage because purely academic studies held no attraction for me. I was more mechanical and business minded but had little opportunity for furthering studies in these directions. Furthermore I had a strong passion for doing something practical, yet something off the beaten track.

My first challenging interest was the running of a taxi service - which was a domain dominated by man. While engaged in this activity I was toying with the idea of emerging into the manufacturing business. I explored the possibilities and feasibilities of manufacturing either blades or nails, which at that time were not made in Sri Lanka. These ideas however met with strong opposition from friends and family members who were the potential major investors.

My thoughts were next directed to the Food Processing Industry because a German friend of mine embedded the germ of the idea in my mind. The meat processing idea then became the focus of my attention. I still cannot think what made me dare to venture into this field which was at that time the sole monopoly of a well organized and large foreign controlled establishment. It has indeed been a privilege to have ventured out and participated in this industry which in my country had always been looked upon essentially as a male preserve.

Having decided the field of industry which I wished to break into I had to overcome the most difficult obstacle that came in the way of transforming dream into reality, namely getting Government approval and sanction to proceed abroad to study the subject and to acquire the necessary training and select the range of machinery required.

Having cleared this obstacle, I had to choose a firm which was prepared to collaborate in the training process. I had the good fortune of being associated with Firma Stockmeyer in Versmold Westphalen in West Germany. They helped to give me the necessary training and technological know-how to achieve what I am proud to say has been a very successful business endeavour in my country.

The crash training programme launched by them was successfully completed by me in just one year. During this period I was given the opportunity to work with the very machines I intended to purchase for installation in the factory in Sri Lanka.

I returned to my homeland fired with the zest of forming the company and seeing the machinery installed in a building as soon as possible. Within 6 months the factory was built and machinery imported and installed and the company, of which I am the Chairman and Managing Director was formed.

The next obstacle was to obtain a butchers licence. In Sri Lanka by tradition only a member of the family gets a new licence. I had to make out a case that I was not going to slaughter cattle for sale as fresh meats but to convert the meat to serve as the starting Raw Material for processed finished goods. With some luck, I obtained the licence from our Municipal Authorities. Originally, it was intended to handle three carcasses of pigs a day. This has now increased to twenty pigs per day and could increase to more except for the non-availability of greater numbers of pigs.

In order to increase employment and also not to be hampered by having to purchase the pigs in the open market, I have now commenced the distribution of piglings to villagers who rear them and sell them back to me for processing.

I have also diversified the range of products manufactured by our Company known as Ceylon Meat Products, which now manufactures a total of thirty five products of standard quality.

Furthermore the islandwide distribution of our goods is handled by our sister Company GOLDI ENTERPRISES LIMITED. 70% of the GOLDI products feed the Tourist Industry of Sri Lanka.

From the aforementioned you will see that the entry into industry and the climb-up has not been a path strewn with roses.

The choice itself was difficult

Achieving the objective was difficult

Keeping production targets is difficult

Facing stiff competition is difficult

Overcoming constraints and keeping up profitability is difficult

Yet it has been achieved, is a going concern and will I hope with God's Help, grow bigger and help to generate more employment to our people.

MATTERS FOR CONSIDERATION BY UNIDO

Proposals for enactments and legislation to ensure that irrespective of sex :

- 1) everyone be entitled to work according to his or her ability
- 2) everyone be entitled to equal pay for work of equal value
- 3) everyone has security of health and life and adequate risk insurance
- 4) everyone must be entitled to combine active parenthood with employment.

CONCLUSION

Women in Sri Lanka, particularly the educated women have not entered the sphere of industry in a proportion in any way linked to the access they have had to education.

With the establishment of the Womens' Bureau in the Ministry of Plan Implementation which functions directly under the President of the Republic there is a great expectation that the interests, welfare and the role that women can play in enhancing the socio-economic development of Sri Lanka will be more carefully identified and all forms of existing discriminations will be removed very early.

I wish to thank the organisers of this meeting for having invited me to this Seminar and given me the opportunity to speak at this **Forum**.

I would like to state, with no offence to any organisations, that often, resolutions are made, programmes planned, meetings held - yet after a lapse of time we find that the situation remains much the same.

I am however confident that the profitable exchange of ideas we have had at this meeting, will give us the necessary impetus to play a more significant role in industry. It now remains for us women who are of different nations, different backgrounds and different views to ensure that the proposals suggested here and those submitted to UNIDO for consideration will be translated into meaningful action in our own countries with the least possible delay.



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Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing
Countries

Vienna, Austria, 6 - 10 November 1978

NOTE ON ACTIVITIES OF ESCAP RELATED TO WOMEN IN INDUSTRY *

prepared by

Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

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(a) Activities carried out by ESCAP which deal with various aspects of women in industry in the developing countries

In its resolution 2770 (XXVI), the General Assembly recognized the important role of youth in the realization of the purposes of the Charter of the United Nations, in particular those concerning the promotion of higher standards of living and conditions of economic and social progress and development.

In view of the above and in recognition of the increasingly important role that young women are playing in supporting the industrial activities of countries in the ESCAP region, a study on the role of young women in the development process, especially in industries in selected countries of the ESCAP region, is being undertaken by ESCAP. Four countries - Hong Kong, the Republic of Korea, Singapore and Thailand are being covered by the study.

The study aims at:

- (1) Identifying constitutional provisions and/or existing legislation having a bearing on the welfare and development of young women;
- (2) Identifying laws, regulations and policy statements which have specific articles and provisions concerning young women as well as programmes currently in operation in implementing these laws and policy statements and the organizations/departments responsible for their implementation;

- (3) Providing an in-depth review of the above including suggestions on their adequacies and inadequacies and their effectiveness in the emerging social situations and over-all national development goals, especially as they relate to the welfare and development of young women.

This study would provide pertinent information for the policy guidance of ESCAP member countries with regard to promoting the welfare and development of women for more effective roles in national development, especially in industries.

(b) Possible area for a UNIDO contribution to the work currently undertaken by ESCAP in this field

It is proposed that a training workshop for workers among young women in industry be organized. This workshop will bring together personnel at policy-making levels and front-line workers having an influence on the role, welfare and development of young women in the industrial sector for an intercountry exchange of experiences and ideas on promoting the role of young women in industry. The need for such a regional exchange is pertinent in the light of the significant involvement of young women in supporting the industrialization programmes being vigorously pursued in many of the ESCAP member states.

In particular, the Workshop will:

- (i) Identify and assess the current position of young women in industrial activities in various countries;

- (ii) Discuss the needs, problems and potentials of this target group within their respective social, economic and political and national situations;
- (iii) Examine strategies for promoting their role in national development, particularly in industry;
- (iv) Provide the relevant knowledge and skills to stimulate the establishment of relevant policies and programmes to ensure the welfare and development of young women in industry and thereby enhance their contribution to national development.



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WOMEN AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT *

prepared by

Mary Boesveld **

* The views and opinions expressed in this paper are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the secretariat of UNIDO. This document has been reproduced without formal editing.

** University of Leiden, Holland

1. Introduction

The basis of the Lima Declaration and Action Plan accepted by the UNIDO General Conference in March 1975 is the acknowledgement that the common development strategies pursued until recently, based on a purely quantitative economic approach, have not managed to reduce poverty. On the contrary, the situation of large number of the world's population has deteriorated in both relative and often absolute terms.

The explosive growth of the world economy since 1945 has mainly benefited the rich Western capitalist countries and small elite groups in the developing countries.

The inordinately disproportionate division of economic and political power between rich countries and developing countries is reflected in class distinctions at national and local level which are often very great in developing countries because of the tremendous and increasing discrepancy between the incomes of the ruling elite and those of the majority of the population. Focusing on the situation of women, we can observe that growing inequality between population groups in many places is coupled to a growing inequality between the sexes.

The realization has consequently dawned that to solve development problems an approach is required in which a more just distribution of wealth and well-being is given priority alongside economic growth. The essential elements of this approach are the social aspects of development, such as a more equal distribution of income, knowledge and power and the participation of all population groups, especially women.

Special attention was paid to the participation of women in the Lima Declaration and Action Plan and this was expanded upon in Resolution ID/B/RES. 44 (IX):

- " (a) The importance of securing for women, regardless of their marital status, the same opportunities as are available to men for gainful employment, and the importance of the economic independence derived from such employment for the promotion of the status of women in society;
- (b) Ensuring the fullest possible use of available human resources by incorporating women into training activities linked to industrial development at all levels and for all professional specializations from management to shop floor;
- (c) Equal remuneration with men and equality of treatment, in respect of work of equal value, for women in industry;
- (d) The promotion in rural areas of the processing of agricultural products and manufacturing industries, particularly small-scale industries, which will provide regular employment for women in such areas ".

There are a great many obstacles to converting these principles into practical measures. If the situation of women is to be improved, radical changes are needed in production and consumption patterns and in the composition of the labour market. What is more, there will have to be changes in the existing relationships between men and women. A more just distribution of wealth and well-being and the participation of all population groups demands far-reaching structural changes in the international economic order (Ul Haq, 1976; Emmerij & Verloren van Themaat, 1977; Jolly, 1977). The modernization which has taken place to date has been determined by the existing imbalance in the power structure and has led to greater inequality. Ways of promoting the

participation of women in industrialization and improving their situation cannot be dissociated from modernization in general, and must be examined in the context of the power hierarchy which determines the structure of the world economy and in the light of the balance of power between men and women.

For the purposes of this paper I have confined myself to an extremely simplified framework which distinguishes the three major power structures:

- (i) the unequal distribution of power between industrialized countries and developing countries;
- (ii) the unequal distribution of power at national level between elite groups and the majority of the population;
- (iii) the unequal distribution of power between men and women.

This cuts across other socio-economic inequalities, and places women at a disadvantage in relation to men in practically all areas and at all levels. The inequality of men and women is the basic theme of this paper and some remarks on this follow in the second section. The influence of modernization on this inequality in rural areas, in industry and in education is examined in the next three sections. I define modernization here as the social changes introduced by the West involved mainly in industrialization, the mechanization of agriculture and economic integration into the world market. Lastly, an attempt is made to draw parallels in a wider context with reference to the modernization programme in Guatemala. Some very general proposals which could promote the participation of women in the modernization process are presented in the conclusion.

2. The unequal distribution of power between men and women

The crucial issue in the unequal distribution of power between men and women is the division of labour arising from the fact that women are made responsible for caring

for the family because they bear and suckle children.

Elise Boulding calls this the 'breeder-feeder role':

"From the earliest and simplest hunting and gathering folk to the most industrialized society of the twentieth century, the breeding of babies and the feeding of humans of all ages is almost exclusively the work of women, above and beyond other productive processes in which she is engaged" (Boulding, 1977:55).

This imbalance is grounded in the fact that the breeder-feeder-role is assigned exclusively to women all over the world. They are more vulnerable than men because they are primarily responsible for the survival and well-being of children and often other members of the family too. Women are the ones who are most affected by the uncertainties of existence (Postel & Schrijvers, 1976).

The large majority of women, and particularly poor women, also fulfil other productive roles: they work on the land or take part in other subsistence activities, selling their labour or the products of their labour. All these women have a dual task and are therefore doubly vulnerable (Postel and Schrijvers, 1976; Tinker 1976).

Traditional cultural notions throughout the world support this unequal distribution of work, tying women's work to the closed sphere of home and hearth and associating men's work with the wider community, the 'public sphere'. The crucial point is that the two are also evaluated differently; greater value in the form of prestige or economic benefits is attached to the public sphere and therefore, generally speaking, to male work. The lower value attached to female work (or in some cases nil value) confirms and reinforces the inequality between men and women. Women are consequently triply vulnerable.

The unequal distribution of power between men and women has the same basis everywhere, but the vulnerability of women and the way in which this is expressed differs considerably, depending on the region and the social class. The differences are exemplified strikingly by the limited opportunities women have to earn their own living and the degree to which society sees the unpaid work of women as a contribution to the family income. Another major factor is the degree to which the male and female worlds are separated (Ester Boserup, 1970; Postel & Schrijvers, 1976).

The women farmers and market women in West Africa, who are largely economically independent, are an example of the regional differences. They take part in public life through clubs and organizations and have a relatively high status. Many women in the Islamic world, on the other hand, live in a closed environment of household and family, often completely cut off from the male world. They make no contribution to the family income and their status in relation to men is low (Postel & Schrijvers, 1976).

If we consider the vulnerability of women in the context of class distinctions we discover that there is a fairly strict segregation between the worlds of men and women in the affluent upper classes of many societies. Women are often economically dependent on their husbands, who, as breadwinners, keep them. Women do not work at all, it is thought, since domestic chores and the upbringing of children do not count as 'work'. Their status derives from that of that of their husbands (Postel & Schrijvers, 1976).

The life style of the upper classes and the attendant values and norms in general constitute the cultural ideals of the lower classes. What is more, those higher up, by virtue of their dominant position, can impose their opinions on others to a certain extent through the social and cultural institutions they control.

In societies where the prevailing ideal is one of women who do not work but sit at home all day there is little if any recognition of the work that poor women have to do by force of circumstances in the home or outside it and there are many obstacles that prevent women being educated and going out to work.

A major factor affecting the relationship between men and women in developing countries is that in the most affluent upper classes in the world, in other words in the rich Western countries, the distinction between the female domestic sphere and the male public arena is clearly accentuated. This has been given an extra boost by modern trends in the West which have led to a strict division between home life and the working world and promoted the isolation of nuclear families. (Actually, there is an interplay of factors here. It is extremely dubious whether modern trends would have assumed this form if the distribution of power between the sexes had been less unequal.)

The idealized picture of the bourgeois Western family has men as breadwinners going out to work and women as housewives who do not work, but who are responsible for the well-being of the family. The idea is becoming old-fashioned but it is certainly not obsolete; witness the fact that it determines the position of women on the labour market in the Netherlands (Schoenmaker and others, 1978).

In many developing countries the ideal of the Western family was originally introduced by missionaries and colonial powers and in many countries it was adopted by the elite. Even today the policies of government bodies, development experts and contractors are based on these notions; when it comes to investment, employment policy, wages policy and education men have priority.

Policy is also affected by a lack of information about what women really do. The ideal of the woman who does not go out to work has an effect on scientific and economic theories, especially the latter, and on the way in which data are collected. Statistics relating to productivity and employment, as well as calculations of the national product and the national income, usually exclude the whole range of productive activities performed by women throughout the world, whether as housewives, women farmers, women working at home or market women. They are a forgotten group in the development process, a group whose living conditions have increasingly deteriorated as a result of modernization.

In the next three sections the changes in the distribution of power between men and women as a result of modern developments in rural areas, in the urban sector and in education are outlined using some general data.

3. Modern developments in rural areas

Women in rural areas work as housewives and farmers, usually without the benefit of modern technology and modern knowledge and skills. Agricultural development and extension projects throughout the world are directed almost exclusively at men.

The fact that men rather than women are brought into the modern sector has plainly had disastrous effects in a number of instances. For example, in Africa it was men in the main who were employed in the large foreign enterprises (plantations and mines). The women who stayed behind while the men migrated to the towns for work were faced with additional work to continue to produce food in the rural areas as subsistence farmers. Moreover, the best agricultural land was sometimes used for cash crops instead of food production, with the result that food production dropped and with it the nutrition and health of the population (Rijpma, 197).

In addition to all this, the transition from a subsistence economy to a money one is often coupled with changes in the pattern of consumption which have a detrimental effect on food consumption. Research has indicated that men do not automatically spend the money they earn in the modern sector on the family's needs, but first and foremost on prestige items such as radios, wristwatches, drink or parties (June Nash, 1975; Schoorl, 1977).

An employment policy which puts men in a privileged position fails to take account of women-headed households, which are extremely common. It is estimated that 38% of all households in the world comprise a women and her children and that in some countries the percentage is even higher than 50 (Boulding, 1977). In Africa this applies particularly in rural areas and the phenomenon is connected with the migration of men to the towns where there is work. In Latin America it is mainly the women who migrate with their children to the towns, often as a result of fewer jobs on the plantations due to mechanization and the fact that subsistence farming does not provide a living. These women frequently end up in the lowest strata of the 'informal' sector (as maids, market women, street sellers, prostitutes) owing to lack of education and job opportunities. Their income is low because of the large numbers of women in this sector. As the modern sector expands it becomes increasingly difficult for them to make ends meet. The ones to suffer most are the market women, who cannot compete with supermarkets (Arizpe, 1977; Moser, 1977).

4. Industry and modern occupations

In almost all the developing countries, especially Africa, the modern industrial sector absorbs only a very small proportion of the total labour force and the percentage of women is very low; 15.3% of all those working in industry are women: this represents 18.7% of all women registered as going out to work (Boulding, 1977). These are world averages.

The ILO's 1975 report on the position of women on the labour market stated:

"The cultural norms of many, if not most, countries remain ambivalent as regards the employment of women. Political constraints reinforce ambivalent cultural attitudes and generate resistance to acceptance of the costs involved in making it possible for women to work outside the home, without discrimination.... Hence the heavy burden of stress imposed on women by unrealistic and inequitable norms and the hard path which they have to pursue in their work and home lives and in society as a whole." (ILO 1975:16)

The inequality of men and women clearly emerges in the difficulties and obstacles with which women are confronted on the labour market. These are based not only on cultural notions but must also be seen in the light of wages policy and employment policy. Up to now analyses have taken the situation in the West as a model, but they can probably be extrapolated to cover the situation in developing countries. A major factor to be borne in mind is that women in developing countries are more often forced to go out to work because they are poor. Better situated women in the West and women of the elite in developing countries can usually fall back on the husband's income. They have the option of working solely at home or taking on a job as well. Poor women and the many single women have no choice; they always have two jobs to do and have to accept bad terms of employment and low wages.

Western women constitute a labour reserve: they are encouraged to work or to be good mothers and housewives depending on the state of the economy and employment policy (Els Blok, 1978). In developing countries poor women are an inexhaustible source of cheap labour for entrepreneurs. The modern sector, however, offers very limited job opportunities. The distribution of women among different occupations and industries is very disproportionate in all countries. Women

usually congregate in a limited range of jobs, considered to be 'feminine' ones. Whatever sector women are in, they will be found to hold the poorest jobs for which the least qualifications are required. This partly accounts for the difficulties in implementing the legislation which exists in many countries on equal pay for equal work (Boserup, 1970).

There have been special measures on the statute books for years in many countries which are designed to benefit working women. Originally, these laws were intended to protect women against unfavourable terms of employment, such as night work, carrying heavy loads etc. Later, stress shifted to the rights of working women, e.g. entitlement to maternity leave, the right of married and pregnant women to retain their jobs and lastly, arrangements for child-care (ILO, 1978). In practice, such measures are circumvented and, moreover, they are used as arguments against employing women in certain industries because they are 'too expensive'.

We will probably only really be able to say that discrimination no longer exists when all the protective measures, including those relating to maternity leave and child-care, apply to men and women alike.

Sometimes women will be deliberately excluded from certain jobs or industries by men who feel a threat to their supremacy or jobs. In Puerto Rico the number of women in industry has dropped considerably since 1930 under pressure from unions and politicians who wanted to reserve the jobs for men (June Nash, 1975; see also Hartman, 1978).

Women appear to take very little part in trade union activities; in the literature there is nothing on the subject in relation to developing countries. Women in industry usually work in

"economically vulnerable, labour-intensive, technologically backward industries, especially the consumer goods industry (textiles and food)" (Hoogenboom & Voets, 1977:136). It is precisely these industries which are transferred, often as 'run-away shops', to developing countries. The women work for extremely low wages and are given no job training or only the absolute minimum; trade union representation is avoided as much as possible (Salaff, 1976). The Dutch textile firms which were relocated in Tunisia as part of reorganization are examples of 'run-away shops' (Baud, 1977). The better trained women in many countries work in the clerical sector, education and nursing - usually in the lowest categories of jobs. Few women are to be found in jobs requiring more qualifications at management level, in advisory functions in companies or in the higher ranks of the civil service.

Lastly, there are the cottage industries, whose mainstay is women in many developing countries (Boserup, 1970). In countries where women's freedom of movement is strictly limited, for the majority of them cottage industries are the only means of earning a living. The intermediaries who act as the outlet for the goods are often men, who make exorbitant profits because the women are dependent on them and are forced to work for extremely low wages (Maria Mies, 1978). Difficulties still occur even when cottage industries are organized into cooperatives; women workers are excluded from the board of the cooperative and have no say in matters such as materials, tools and prices and are forced to accept arrangements which are extremely disadvantageous to them, such as not being paid for inferior products (see Sri Lanka II report). Cottage industries are on the decline as a result of modernization. In the large enterprises which mass produce consumer goods it is usually women who do the work with the effect that the only source of income for large numbers of women disappears.

5. Education

One of the major underlying causes of the poor position of women on the labour market is that women on the whole are less educated than men. The educational disadvantage of women can most clearly be illustrated by some figures. More than 40% of all the women in the world are illiterate (for men the figure is 28%); in the majority of developing countries about 1½ times as many boys as girls attend primary school; in secondary schools there is one girl to every two boys and in tertiary education one in four or five students is a girl (Postel & Schrijvers, 1976).

It is obvious that women's illiteracy and lack of education are an obstacle to their participation in other areas of modern life. Their receptivity to innovations, even those intended to improve their own lot, is limited. New ways of thinking which could furnish them with a new attitude to life, fail to get through. Women go on living in the traditional, conservative daily round (Postel & Coster, 1976, p. 40).

Again, the major obstacle to women's development is the pattern of cultural expectations in which they are seen primarily as future housewives and mothers and which places them within a closed female world. Obviously, in countries where the latter is a major feature of women's life (Islamic areas) the percentage of girls participating in education in any form whatsoever is extremely small (Youssef, 1974). However, in these countries a relatively large number of women from the elite classes have had the benefit of higher education.

The availability and nature of the education often forms a major obstacle to women's participation. In rural areas there are often few schools and the number of girls attending them is much lower than in the towns. The fact that there are fewer skilled jobs in rural areas than in the towns

probably plays a role as well (Boulding, 1977). Higher-level training courses are usually concentrated in the urban areas, which presents difficulties to those who provide facilities on behalf of the government in rural areas; doctors, social workers and agricultural extension workers usually come from the towns. They do not normally live in the villages where they work and are not integrated into village life, a situation which, to say the least, does not benefit the standard of the facilities provided (Van der Most Van Speijk, 1977).

Primary and secondary education is normally strictly formal and trains people for white-collar jobs: greater prestige is attached to mental work than manual work. There is much less incentive to take a vocational training course and very few girls are to be found in this sector. In the majority of cases men are the only ones to benefit from courses coupled to technical aid and agricultural development and from on-the-job training in firms (Boulding, 1977).

Courses in 'female leadership' are given in some countries in which village women are trained to be social workers. This has proved very successful in Egypt (Mandersloot & Boesveld, 1977).

Girls' education also reflects class differences: the greater the poverty, the less the chance that girls will attend school. Often these girls will have important domestic duties; after all a daughter's labour cannot be spared if the mother has a dual burden. What is more, there is a fear among the lower classes that a girl's marriage prospects will diminish if she is educated. A husband's supremacy is threatened by a wife who knows more and may even be able to earn more.

In the upper classes, conversely, girls are encouraged to attend secondary school as a way of finding a good partner. Men in these circles apparently have such an advantage by virtue of their good position that they do not feel threatened by a well-educated woman. In the majority of countries it is extremely difficult if not impossible even for women with a good education to get top-level jobs, though as a rule they find work more easily than women who are not as well educated (De Miranda, 1977).

It can be assumed that in developing countries, just as in the West, there are quite a large number of women who do not use the knowledge they have acquired or work in 'feminine' jobs for which they are too highly qualified. More should be done to combat this type of brain-drain.

Broadly speaking, in the lower levels of the world population modern education has exacerbated the unequal distribution of power between men and women, whereas among the higher classes it has resulted in greater equality.

Educational reform ought in the first place to concentrate on creating good vocational training courses in every field. In addition, as part of the campaign against illiteracy, informal courses should be provided for all those who have had no opportunity of having a formal education. All courses, even the extremely technical ones, must be seen to be open to women. Second, education can be used to undermine the basis of inequality between men and women, i.e. the division of labour within the family, by teaching boys to do domestic chores. This method has been used in Cuba for some years now (Hoogenboom & Voets, 1977).

6. Modernization in Guatemala: a case study

Some idea has been given in the foregoing of the connection between modernization and the greater inequality between men and women in certain areas. A description of an extremely capitalist-oriented modernization programme in Guatemala will serve to illustrate the correlations in a wider context. The case study is based on a general description of changes in Guatemala^a over the last thirty years, supplemented by data from research into conditions in a small provincial town.

In *Industrialization, Monopoly Capitalism and Women's Work in Guatemala, 1977*, Norma Chinchilla gives a general survey of industrial development in Guatemala. In 1954 a new government came into power, bringing with it rapid industrial development based on a capitalist free market economy which placed the interests of foreign and local investors first. The result has been very substantial growth in the national income while the general level of wages has scarcely risen at all in 15 years.

"The hard-line industrial strategy has yielded increased output, but the benefits of increased production have accrued to a very few. The market remains very small, and the jobs created few...

This industrialization, rather than destroying the large agricultural sector, has held intact a sector which produces cash crops for export, but which relies on traditional labour-intensive methods of production, including a large, seasonally employed work-force.

As a result, the number of people working in agriculture and the service sector remains high, and both foreign investors and large landowners have a vested interest in keeping it that way.

Most industries lured by such a scheme are capital-intensive multinational giants which consolidate or eliminate existing industries, replace old job categories with some new ones, and create little overall employment. A

few industries, particularly those in clothing and textiles, are labour-intensive 'run-away shops' that take advantage of the large labour pool." (pp 46-57)

The major sector is large-scale cash-crop farming organized by a few enterprises which together own 2/3 of the available agricultural land. They employ agricultural labourers' families as seasonal workers, paying them impossibly low wages and expecting them to live and work under appalling conditions:

"They live primitively, with as many as 500 workers in large open-air dormitories that have dirt floors and laminated roofs, no sanitary facilities, electricity or potable water ...

They are given about twelve to fourteen pounds of corn per week, one to two pounds of beans, and occasionally some sugar and rice. Children receive half portions and women none if they do not work because of their young children" (p 47).

The subsistence farming from which these families have to live for the rest of the year does not provide an adequate living. The big companies have the best land and tenancy systems were abolished when the previous government tried to give tenant farmers more rights by means of land reform. The meagre harvest reaped from small plots of poor land forces families into debts, which have to be paid off by seasonal work.

The bad conditions affect everybody but women are hardest hit because in addition to their work on the plantations they are responsible for providing food and caring for the children.

Industrial developments have mainly produced benefits for men in the form of new job opportunities. Women, on the other hand, are at an increasingly greater disadvantage. The big companies have squeezed the small trades and cottage industries - where most women were employed - out of the market. No new jobs for women have been created to make up for this. Even in the traditionally 'feminine' industries such as tobacco and textiles there are relatively more men.

Unskilled women increasingly find jobs in the service sector, usually as maids. Women with any education do white-collar jobs, but here too they face even greater competition from the growing number of male secondary-school leavers who are considered to be more entitled to work because they are breadwinners.

Most women who have been well educated become teachers, nurses or social workers. Among the more highly-skilled jobs in particular there are 'feminine' jobs which have relatively low status and low wages. Large-scale unemployment means that wages in general are low but women's earnings are on average about half those of men.

The conclusion to be drawn, therefore, is that "Industrial growth, conditioned by the needs of monopoly capitalism, has meant increasing inequality of wealth and opportunity overall and greater inequality of employment by sex" (p 54). Laurel Bossen (*Women in Modernizing Societies*, 1975) comes to a similar conclusion. She describes the changes in the situation of women as a result of modernization in Tecpanaco, a small provincial town with a population of 5,000 in the western highlands of Guatemala. The town serves as the centre of modern Western technology, institutions and culture for much of the surrounding rural population. Traditionally, the men worked as subsistence farmers, women prepared the meals and both took part in local trade.

"However, in many respects the traditional work patterns have been significantly altered by colonial and modern technology, labour requirements, and market relationships. For instance, in Tecpanaco the traditional method of weaving with a backstrap loom by women has been completely displaced by the large Spanish foot loom which is generally used by men. Much of the clothing is machine made. Food preparation has been simplified by the introduction of power mills for maize; commercial bakeries, and improved water supply. Modern transport has greatly increased the impact of foreign markets and products. As labour-intensive products have been supplanted by capital-intensive products there has been an increasing dependence on cash income. In addition, the general scarcity of land has meant that no households can subsist without additional income. Household industries (particularly weaving), commercialism, and migratory wage labour are established means of acquiring such income " (p 596).

These changes have reinforced the inequality between men and women, especially on the following points:

- "1. Men are generally found in occupations with greater capital investment. ...
2. Relative to men, few women have special skills. ... Occupations held by men use more technology. The greater specialization of at least some men and their association with the more capital-intensive occupations tend to give their labour a higher market value.
3. Due to advances in technology which reduce the time needed for household tasks, there has been a general decrease in the value of female labour. When women generally lack the training, capital, or cultural permission to enter new occupations, this means that they must accept a condition of partial or disguised unemployment as they engage in occupations where their

marginal product approaches zero. Thus, spinning, embroidery, domestic work, and food selling are poorly paid, because there are so many women trying to earn money this way " (pp 596-598).

The educational system strengthens existing differences. In general, it is men who benefit from modern education and vocational courses, which are usually sexually segregated: domestic arts may be offered to girls, while boys are trained in industrial arts.

Bossen concludes that:

"... modern technology does not make its appearance as a neutral factor; it tends to support the structural interests and priorities of the system that introduces, or imposes it. ... One of the structural characteristics of Western capitalist societies is a priority for males in all productive activities and particularly in capital intensive occupations. There is a corresponding preference to assign women to domestic, dependent, and marginal economic roles. ... The impact of the modern capitalist world economy and modern Western institutions may be largely detrimental to sexual equality since women appear to be losing their productive functions as modernization progresses " (pag. 599).

It is apparent from these descriptions of the modernization in Guatemala that the inequality in society, between rich and poor, between men and women, is reinforced by the capitalist free market economy, which protects the interests of the strongest. Women always lose out in the power structure because of their special vulnerability, a vulnerability which becomes greater as the gap between the public, modern sector occupied by men and the subsistence sector of women widens. Women are losing control over traditional sources of aid and have much less access to new knowledge, skills and capital than men. It becomes increasingly difficult for them to earn a living from the work that they do, their productivity drops and their labour becomes cheaper. Together

with their children, they become more and more dependent on male labour.

The increasing inequality between men and women promotes poverty and is an obstacle to development.

7. Conclusions and recommendations

In the above paper an effort is made to give an impression of factors influencing the situation of women in processes of modernization : international and national power relations and unequal distribution of power between men and women.

It is important to acknowledge that the hard core of the development problem is women. "In an unequal world, women are the most unequal, even among unequals." (Krishna Ahooja-Patel, 1977)

A more equitable distribution of income, knowledge and power on an international level among countries and on a national level among population groups calls for fundamental changes in the economic structure of the rich western countries as well as the developing countries. The extensive problems connected with this have been stressed elsewhere, among others in the Lima Declaration. However, no development strategy can function without touching the hard core of the development problem : that is without directly involving women in the fight against hunger and poverty, giving them a more equal share in prosperity and well-being. This means, that in planning policy and action the vulnerability of women should be continuously taken into account, as this vulnerability is the basis of unequal power relations between men and women.

It is not only the participation of women in traditionally male dominated sectors of society that has to be promoted. In order to diminish their vulnerability it is equally necessary to acknowledge the importance of women's work and their lives. Policy should also be directed to participation of men as equal partners in traditional women's sectors of society.

With regard to the participation of women in industrialization, some important points can be mentioned :

- It is of the utmost importance in the development of agribusiness and food industry, to give full attention to women's role in food preparation and food production. Women should be involved in policy and decision-making concerning these matters on all national and local levels.

- In moving toward factory-based manufacturing processes of goods formerly produced by women or to mechanization of women's traditional tasks, women should in the first place be involved at all levels, and should be given the opportunity to earn an income through participating in these modern industries.
- In the promotion of small-scale industries in rural areas priority should be given to applied technology for household and agricultural use. Employment in these industries should be equally available to men and women under equal conditions.
- To create opportunities for self-employment of women and to enhance existing opportunities, it is necessary that credit facilities for women should be available, together with adequate information as to how women can obtain these.
- Policy directed at securing the same opportunities for women as are available for men for gainful employment should be based on the standards elaborated by the United Nations and the International Labour Organization.
They should include legislation stipulating the principle of non-discrimination on the grounds of sex or marital status, guidelines for implementing the principles, appeals procedures, and effective targets and machinery for implementation (Irene Tinker & Michele Bo Bramsen (eds), 1976).
- Special attention should be given to the double workload of combining a job with family and child-care responsibilities. Measures created to lighten this double task should be directed equally at women and men, to give both parents the same opportunities to earn an income as well as fulfilling family responsibilities.
Protective legislation concerning work conditions should be equally applied to women and men.
- Trade Unions, together with governments should take positive steps to ensure equal treatment of men and women at every level from the factory floor through to management.
- Trade Unions in the Netherlands (and other western countries) should pursue active lines for co-operation with Trade Unions in developing countries.

Trade Union membership should be encouraged especially among women.

- To break down sex labelling of jobs - and generally to break down unequal work distribution among men and women - it is necessary to make all levels of education, vocational training and on-the-job training accessible to girls and boys, men and women, without discrimination.

Special efforts should be made to encourage girls and women to participate in technical training and courses, particularly industrial training programmes, formerly reserved for men. At the same time boys and men should be encouraged to take part in training programmes and courses formerly especially designed for women.

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United Nations Industrial Development Organization

Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing
Countries

Vienna, Austria, 6 - 10 November 1978

UNESCO ACTIVITIES RELEVANT TO THE ROLE OF WOMEN
IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES *

prepared by

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

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1. Few activities of Unesco have dealt directly with this topic although certain programmes of Unesco may be of interest in the context of the theme of the meeting.

2. Unesco's programmes for promotion of equality of educational opportunities for women have been directed inter alia to ensuring that women obtain training in scientific, technological and other modern sector-related employment areas. Unesco's revised recommendation concerning technical and vocational education, adopted by the General Conference in 1974, places more emphasis than did its predecessor on the necessity to give equality of opportunity of access to all forms of technical and vocational education to girls and women, so that they can seek wider participation in all kinds of occupations outside family and domestic activities. It stresses the need for particular attention to be given to guidance for girls and women. The relationship of educational and employment opportunities open to women has been the subject of detailed studies in five countries (Argentina, Ivory Coast, Lebanon, Sierra Leone, Sri Lanka) prepared in collaboration with ILO, and programmes have been undertaken in conjunction with ILO on educational and vocational guidance for girls and women. The specific question of obstacles posed to women's employment in scientific careers was also the subject of a special issue of the Unesco journal Impact of Science on Society (Vol. XXV) entitled "Women in Science: A Man's World". In Unesco's Draft Programme and Budget for 1979-80, still to be approved by the Unesco General Conference in October/November 1978, studies are planned on the access of women to science education and training and associated careers. A seminar foreseen in 1979-80 to consider the problem of women's education, training and employment in developed countries may however provide useful findings for UNIDO's planned programme.

3. Unesco has undertaken, in collaboration with the Latin American Faculty for Social Sciences (FLACSO), a survey study to

examine the phenomenon of rural-urban migration in Latin America and its implications for women. It examines inter alia the types and level of entry into employment of women in urban centres, with particular reference to the Buenos Aires region. Many women from the lower socio-economic categories enter into employment in private domestic service, and research has shown that this sector serves as a labour reserve for capitalistic sector activities. Others are employed in low levels of certain industries where women are concentrated, in particular textile and ready-to-wear manufacturing and food processing industries. The ready-to-wear clothing industry is described by A. Marshall in his study Inmigración, demanda de fuerza de trabajo y estructura ocupacional en el área metropolitana argentina as "... a typical sector of employment for migrant women, characterized by piece-work which is basically seasonal and commands the lowest wages". This study, being published in the Unesco series Reports and Papers in the Social Sciences (No. 41), will be followed by case studies conducted by Unesco and FLACSO in selected Latin American countries to examine the situation of women migrants in urban centres and to assist in formulating policies and preparing projects to up-grade the situation of these women. UNIDO, as well as ILO, might wish to consider contributing an input to these studies.

4. In the field of population, Unesco would be interested in collaborating with UNIDO in research on the impact of education on employment in the industrial sector in both urban and rural areas. Also as part of its training of women communicators in development/population issues, Unesco could, with UNIDO inputs and collaboration, undertake and integrate coverage of women in industry in the regular teaching and training programmes of institutes of mass communication. As part of this same programme, it could award fellowships to women communicators to develop programmes (both print and electronic media) on the role of women in population/industrialization processes. Unesco would also be willing

to initiate special workshops and seminars for journalists and communicators on industrial reporting with special focus on women in industry.

5. Some general points of reflection on the question may be noted. It would be necessary to consider the role of women in industrialization in developing countries in a wider developmental context. It is important to ask the question of what type of industrialization is required to meet the country's needs, who will control it, how it is meeting local development needs and drawing on local human resources. Women's integration in the development effort does not mean simply gaining access to positions held by men, but the consideration of structural changes that may in fact bring benefit to both men and women.

6. In many cases the industrialization process may in part be directed so as to utilize and reinforce women's present activities. Many women are engaged in productive and commercial activities in the informal and formal sector and by receiving a few inputs (such as credit facilities, introduction to techniques of organization) they may considerably augment their production.

7. One area that might merit investigation would be the particular role played by transnational corporations in the process of industrialization and their use of feminine labour. It might also be of interest to examine the causes for the "feminization" of certain industries and the mechanisms whereby women are retained in the lowest employment categories.

8. Cooperation between UNIDO, Unesco and other sister organizations, such as ILO and FAO, in this field and other areas is desirable if the impact of the programmes sponsored by the United Nations system is to be tangible and long-lasting. In line with this

idea, it seems that instead of dispersing scarce resources, it would be useful if the concerned United Nations organizations would center their efforts on pre-concerted multi-component programmes to be carried out in selected countries which would fulfill a certain number of technical criteria. Each participating organization would then implement those components of the programmes which are of their technical competence. Unesco looks forward to learning of the results of the UNIDO preparatory meeting and will be pleased to lend its assistance to UNIDO and inter-agency projects proposed.



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THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN THE INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE PHILIPPINES *

prepared by

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1. Introduction

The potential of women to contribute to industrialization and economic development in a country still needs to be tapped. Women are still wanting on the top of the hierarchy of the industrial sector. Furthermore, in a study conducted on the female labor force in 49 selected countries,¹ the percentages of women in the labor force averaged 29.56%, for countries with a development index ranging from 5.07 to 9.89, 26.67% for countries with a development index ranging from 2.52 to 4.96, 26.36% for countries with a development index ranging from 1.21 to 2.46.² The relatively significant percentage of women in the labor force in these countries even during the 60's shows that women represent a potent force which needs to be well guided to serve the needs of industrialization in developing countries.

The Lima declaration stipulates that the share of the developing countries as a whole in total world industrial production by the year 2000 should be at least 25%. To reach that goal, developing countries should harness all their available resources, be they men or women. Indeed women planners and policy makers as well as managers, entrepreneurs and industrial workers, both in the government and the private sectors would be needed to accelerate industrialization.

*Prepared with the assistance of Mrs. Aida Gonzales-Gordon, Asst. Vice-President of the San Miguel Corporation and Mrs. Ofelia Bulaong, Chief Analyst, Philippine Board of Investments.

¹"An International Comparison of Women's Participation in the Professions", Rudolf C. Blitz, The Journal of Developing Areas 9 (July 1975); 499-510

²Ibid.

There is so much to be done that prevailing social attitudes and prejudices against women in industry in some countries should be changed immediately.

In the Philippines, the female population 10 years old and over has steadily, but slightly, outnumbered the male population of the same age. Despite the dominance in number, the female participation in the labor force is continuously outnumbered by the males. The Department of Labor's Bureau of Women and Minors reports that the female labor force has never reached a third of the total labor force for both sexes for May 1969, 1970, 1971 and 1972, respectively. As of November 1972, 3,982,000 or 31.6% of the total number (12,582,000) of employed persons 10 years old and over were females. The trend as of November 1972, was employment of the greatest number of women in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing, which was 1.374 million or 34.5 percent of the female labor force.

The 1974 statistics show that of a labor force (10 years old and over) of 14,244,000, 68% are males and 32% are females. The highest labor force participation of women is in the 25-45 age bracket (40.3%) followed by the 10-24 year old (37.8%). Over the years, the majority of the women in our labor force have been engaged in agriculture and related work, the 1974 figures showing 36.6% of them in said occupational group. Next to agriculture, our women have gone into commerce, 17.9% being in the sales force, followed by an estimated 16.2% in services (domestic and personal), sports and related occupations. Only 9.9% are professional and technical workers and a slim 0.1% are found in administrative, executive and management levels.

As of February 1975, the estimated number of females 10 years of age and over was 14,663,000 of which 35.9 percent were in urban areas and 64 percent were in rural areas. On the other hand, the males numbered 14,287,000 of whom 31.5 percent were in the urban areas and

68.5 percent were in the rural areas.

In urban areas, the ratio of males to females was 854:1,000. In rural areas, the males gained the upper hand with a ratio of 1,042 males to every 1,000 females.

As of February 1975, the female labor force was 4,586,000. Out-numbering the females, the male labor force is 9,700,000 of the same age group. There is indeed a wide gap in actual number between female and male labor force.

In the rural areas, there were 2.626 million employed females. Of this 32.2 percent were 10-24 years old, 39.8 percent were 26-44 years old, 23.5 were 45-64 years old and 3.4 percent were 65 years old and over. As previously indicated, women workers chose to concentrate mostly in agriculture, forestry, hunting, and fishing, where there are 1,502 million of them or 34.1 percent. As of February, 1975, out of every 100 females employed: 20 were in commerce; 15 were in manufacturing; 14 were in domestic service; 13 were in government, community, business, and recreational activities; and 3 were in personal services other than domestic. This indicates that less than 1/5 of the women labor force is involved in industry. The number decreases further as one goes up in the industrial ladder. In policy making, there is only one woman head of a ministry, two (2) deputies and four (4) assistant ministers. Of these numbers, only the minister and one (1) assistant minister has something to do with the industrial sector.

Findings of February 1975 reveal that male workers received greater income than their female counterparts. This disparity in earnings is attributable to the following factors: 1) More males than females worked 40 hours and over during the survey week in February 1975, the males exceeding the females by 1,231,000; 2) More males hold high salary positions e.g., managerial

and supervisory positions. The males exceeded the females in these positions by 64,000.

Recently, an increasing number of rural women have forsaken the fields, lured by the more attractive wages offered by industrial firms in urban areas, particularly those calling for finger dexterity and attention to detail as in cigarette making, electronics, packaging, garment manufacture and the like. Whilst it is true that there is now a marked tendency for women to work in industry, and women have gradually invaded what used to be regarded as exclusively male domain, it is still predominantly the males who are appointed to managerial, executive and supervisory positions calling for decision-making and the exercise of supervision. It is to be noted that in the 1974 statistics, out of 4,412,000 gainfully employed Filipino women, only 33,000 or 0.1% are in the top levels. However, in the last few years, it should be pointed out that a lot of traditions have been broken and Filipino women, particularly the highly educated professional elite have become more accepted and recognized in traditionally male-dominated areas. It is therefore anticipated that more and more Filipino women will join and participate in the labor force as it has now been established that increase of women in the labor force coincides with the economic development of a country.

It is within this context that we believe that UNIDO can spearhead the role of women in industrialization in developing countries, with due consideration to the various recommendations arrived at particularly during International Women's Year 1975, the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development and Co-operation.

2. The Potential Role of Women in National and International Policies on Industrialization

It has been the general impression of representatives from developed countries of the high status of Filipino women who are conspicuously present in academic, in business, politics, in government and

even in international development and diplomatic circles. Studies show that these Filipino women are not representative of Filipino women since they are highly educated and usually come from middle-income and upper-income groups.³ The majority of Filipino women in the labor force are engaged in agricultural work, i.e. rice and corn production, fishing and livestock raising; in services, such as transportation, food trading, home culture and as industrial factory workers.

It is accepted and recognized that the Filipino woman of today is more capable and prepared and can definitely play an important part in the industrialization process of the country. The role that she has to play in this process, however, needs to be defined and uplifted. It can be perceived that there are two groups of women who can be harnessed and properly guided to achieve more effective participation in our national development.

The first group which may be composed of the educators, professionals, lady entrepreneurs and managers can be tapped to play a lead role in policy-making and planning, technology development, restructuring of industry, management, training and entrepreneurship development as well as rural industrialization.

The second group of women whose collective force can also be harnessed to play a supportive role are the lady factory workers themselves which number will definitely multiply as we further industrialize. These two groups together, given the proper role and support can play an increasingly significant role in the industrial sector.

The Philippines from an agricultural economy is moving to more industrialization. The fear that an agricultural economy cannot sustain its ever increasing population, impels its planners to look to industry to supply the much needed employment opportunities and improvement in

³"Women and Labor: Is the Economic Emancipation of the Filipino Working Woman at Hand?", Romero, Florida Ruth P., Philippine Law Journal, Nos. 1-5, Vol. 50, 1975, pp.44-54

the quality of life of its citizenry. According to the National Development Plan, the industry sector is envisioned to grow at an average rate of 10.8% for the next ten years. Its share in net domestic product is targeted to rise from 29.2% in 1978 to 36.9% in 1987 with the manufacturing sector expected to grow at an average annual rate of 10.2%. This would mean that by next year the industry sector will have outpassed the agricultural sector's contribution to total production.

To attain the above targets, some of the strategies that have been adopted are the development of small and medium industries outside the Metro Manila area and encouragement of export oriented industries. In these particular strategies, women have played a meaningful role and can continue to play more active role. In small and medium industries, women entrepreneurs have ventured in handicrafts for exports abroad and women have provided employment in a number of garment and electronic firms that are bringing foreign exchange in the country. These industries involving exports of manufactured products a non-traditional exports helped the country meet its foreign exchange requirements for industrial development. Women potential in the bigger industrial plants still have to be tapped although local universities are turning out women graduates in engineering, chemistry and other technical courses. In the Ministry of Industry proper, its attached agency, the Board of Investments, and other government agencies involved in industry, there are more women division chiefs than men. While in the higher policy making position men still outnumber the women, it would seem that women in the middle management are ready to meet the challenge of higher position in the coming years. In big industrial companies, women in policy making is still rare. However, in small ventures, the number of women entrepreneurs is steadily increasing. They could be the answer to the policy of the government to promote and develop small and medium industries in the country.

3. Current Contribution of Women to Industrial Development

The present experience of the Philippines in "women power" other sectors of the economy can help set the tone for planning and programming the role of women in industrialization. In comparison, with other women of the world, it may be said that the Filipino woman has relatively advanced in many fields where women perhaps of many other countries have not. The number of Filipino women in relation to its size and degree of development, who have occupied and continue to occupy positions in the Cabinet, in the judiciary and in the foreign service is perhaps more than in some countries. It is also true, as has been frequently remarked by others, that at international conferences there is quite often a woman member of the Philippine delegation; in several instances, women have acted as heads of the Philippine delegation and in some instances, women have acted as Chairpersons at important conferences, e.g. Secretary Estafania Lim to the World Population Conference (1974), former Senator Helena Benitez at the Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment (1972) and Commissioner Razon Heresco as Asean Project Team Leader of the Multilateral Trade Negotiations (1974).

In terms of economic contribution, the Filipino woman is now slowly emerging as a new contributor to the family income in her pursuit to help uplift and improve her family life. There is now a growing acceptance in the Filipino society of the dual role of a woman - as more work opportunities are made available with the government's continuing emphasis on labor-oriented large industries and its encouragement for women to engage in small-scale industries. There is now a growing realization that the Filipino female worker is an economic agent and her plight as part of the labor force must be properly attended to.

To further bring into focus the cause of women in the Philippines, a National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women was created on January 7, 1978 with the following functions:

- (1) To advise the President in formulating policies and implementing programs on increased contribution by women in national development;
- (2) To ensure that the gains which Filipino women have achieved because of Philippine culture and tradition will be preserved and enhanced in the process of modernization;
- (3) To continuously review and evaluate the extent to which women are integrated in all sectors of economic and social life at all levels on a basis of equality with men;
- (4) To make recommendations which could guarantee the enjoyment by women and men of full equality before the law in all fields where it does not exist;
- (5) To prepare a national program for International Women's Year which can be implemented throughout the Philippines.

This Commission has collaborated with other national agencies better equipped for a particular task such as the UP Law Center (for the necessary legal reforms), the Katipunan ng Bagong Pilipina (for the integration of women in development programs), the Bureau of Women and Minors (for the survey on the distribution of women), the UP Institute of Population, the Nutrition Center, the Human Settlements Commission, and lately the National Media Production Center (for a study on the image of the Filipina in media). It has also launched the "Balikatan" movement in cooperation with other related government and private institutions to mobilize people at the grass-root level to assess their problems and needs and adopt programs to meet community needs. While the work of the Commission covers all sectors, the Ministry of Industry is an action participant in the Commission.

An interesting case on the successful activities of women in industrialization is the involvement of Madame Imelda Marcos as

governor of Metro Manila area and as the Minister of Ministry of Human Settlements and Ecology (HSE). Madame Marcos directs the activities of the HSE as well as the Technology Resource Center (TRC). The HSE was created to carry-out the government's policy to improve the living and working conditions of the masses. To this end, the HSE has developed a Land Use Plan to effect on national allocation of land resources; has identified growth centers to achieve self-sufficient urban centers; has devised an industry dispersal scheme to guide and control growth of industries in the Metro Manila area; and has actively participated in zoning of communities. The overall impact of the HSE activities will be felt in the future state of industrialization of the Philippines. On the other hand, TRC has established a technology development and delivery program, a technobus, a comprehensive on line for research service, and data services.

In business, several women are included in the Board of Directors of the Philippine Chamber of Industry (PCI). As of 1974, of the 423 members of the Philippine Chamber of Industries (PCI), some 92 firms have women presidents or chairwomen of the Board.⁴ In the Chamber of Commerce of the Philippines (CCP), out of a total membership of 1,300, 146 are women and most of them are involved in management and in the operation of the industries they belong to. Due recognition has also been given to women with significant achievements in the development of the country, such as awards to outstanding women by the Manila Lions International and the Federacion Internacional de Abogadas (Philippines). In addition, there are various professional groups where women are involved which do their share of encouraging more active participation of women in industrialization.

4. Measures to strengthen contributions of women to industrial development

The industrial development of a nation necessarily brings with it concomitant planning and programming for the establishment of in-

⁴"Women and Business", Sanvictores, Lourdes L., Philippine Law Journal, Nos. 1-5, Vol. 50, 1975; 80-87.

dustrial facilities whether large, medium or small-scale industries and support banking and financing facilities; agricultural/and rural upliftment; social welfare and educational institutions; and accompanying infrastructure facilities, such as road, electrification and telecommunications. The monetary and fiscal policies are likewise coordinated with the national development plans. The role of women must be made part and parcel of the development program.

The move to strengthen the contribution of women in industrial development must initially come from government. However, implementation of most of plans and programs prepared by government depends a lot on private sector participation and cooperation, industry being basically in their hands. Measures to improve the conditions of women in family laws, in politics and public service, in labor, in education and in business as part and parcel of the overall development program must be undertaken.

In the field of legislations, efforts are underway to amend laws which discriminate against women. Some of these laws have direct bearing in women's participation in contributing to industrial development. For instance, the husband can object to the practice of a profession of occupation by his wife if his income is sufficient to support the family according to its social standing. In this connection, the husband is designated as administrator of conjugal property and determines the family residence. Such restrictions can be constraining to a wife who might wish to become an entrepreneur or become employed in the industrial sector.

While there are express legislatures prohibiting discrimination against women and providing equal opportunity for work, regardless of sex, there is traditional preference for men in the industrial sector which cannot be legislated away. As one local woman writer observed, to attain success, women have to be excellent, while men need only

to be good. The educational system therefore needs to emphasize that women can play an equally important role in industrial development as men -- that women should not be limited to homemaking and that homemakers can also be nation-builders.

5. UNIDO's Role

For the entry of woman in industry, as policy makers to help chart industrial development or as an industrial entrepreneur or worker or scientist or researcher that can discover new things and new systems to help a country's industrialization, policies must be adopted that will equip women with the necessary skills and education to tackle their chosen role in industrial development. Thereafter, their talents should not be left to waste and both the government and the private sectors should not discriminate against their assimilation in the various sectors of industry or any activity that will help in the country's industrialization. The major problem of developing countries is lack of employment opportunities even for its male population. It is possible that this lack of employment stems from lack of entrepreneurs. Women have great potential for being successful entrepreneurs, being innovative and not being afraid to start on small things first. Women's capacity for details also make them good researchers and scientists which are badly needed in R & D facilities for industrialization. Efforts should be made so that industrial establishments should improve their system of job classification, comparison and evaluation and in practice would not make it difficult for women to gain entry in said offices and at the same time have a chance to be promoted.

In this regard, UNIDO can assist in sending labor experts that will help out in coming up with legislation to do away with discrimination against women. Perhaps the experience in developed countries compulsory ratio of men to female employment in various job categories as well as other similar measures may be examined for the purpose of determining their applicability to developing countries,

countries where the problem is less of job creation. UNIDO can also be instrumental in setting training programs for women in rural areas or in training women in depressed areas in the urban sectors. Experts also may be needed for an effective campaign to change outmoded ideas of a woman's place conducive to waste of her potential to contribute in industrialization. UNIDO can also work on identification of specific opportunities for women in a particular country or help create such opportunity. It can also assist in promoting regional cooperation among ASEAN women, for instance, to define their specific role in the ASEAN scheme. Lastly, UNIDO is expected to be a mechanism where countries can exchange information and experiences on the role of women in industrialization and thus learn from each other.

The proposed meeting of larger policy and technical grouping of leading industrialists from developing^{and} industrialized countries may indeed provide for the necessary political will to integrate women in the industrial development effort of developing countries and accelerate industrialization in these countries. Developing countries are now faced with a number of constraints in their industrialization such as the emerging protectionist policies of developed countries for their own industries. New export ventures or arrangements to provide inputs for industries in developed countries where women can play a role may help their respective countries. On the operational level, discussion of women employment policies and practices of industrialized countries and industrialists may lead to suggested improvements in these policies. In this connection, a topic on major obstacles being encountered by women in the field of industrialization should be discussed together with suggestions on how to overcome these obstacles.

Indeed, it is time for women in developing countries to define their role in their country's industrialization. The opportunities are

wide and varied if prejudices and social attitudes can be overcome. It is not sufficient that legislations of non-discrimination as well as incentives to women's participation be passed. What is important is the sound and effective implementation of legislation and policies to enable women to do their part in accelerating their country's industrialization.



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THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIALIZATION

Country Paper on Ghana *

prepared by

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Ghana is a country which is of the same size as the United Kingdom. It has a population of 10 million and women form 54% of this. Ghana shares boundary with countries like Togo on the east, Ivory Coast on the west and Upper Volta on the north and the southern part lies along the Atlantic Ocean. It lies about 5° north of the equator.

Before the attainment of self-Government (independence of Ghana) in the year 1957, Ghana had very few industries and the majority of these belonged to foreigners. Soon after political independence, the Government realized that unless the political independence was backed by an economic one the former would land on the rocks, and also the country might not be able to become economically self reliant. For this reason an Industrial Development Corporation (IDC) was formed for the promotion and development of industries. Like many other newly independent African States, Ghana did not have enough professional personnels - like experienced technologists, engineers, architects, economists, designers etc. to run the Corporation, it died a premature death, costing the Government a very huge sum of money. This came about because of two main reasons, firstly, the colonials who handed power over to these countries did not gear the education of the natives towards economic independence, so the countries had no choice except to depend on foreign experts whose interests were mainly in selling of their machines more than helping the countries to industrialize. The result was that many industries were set up by the governments themselves upon the advise of some foreign countries with big and expensive machineries depending more on imported raw materials than local ones. Secondly, even where the appropriate type of industries were set up they were not trained, and experienced technical local people to man them. The failure of the IDC was a great draw back to Ghana in industrialization to begin with, but then, I am happy to say that Ghana can now boast of having about one thousand and ninety (1,090) of both servicing and manufacturing industries. There exist in Ghana an organization called Ghana Manufacturers' Association. It

is a voluntary organization, which tries to fight for the right of the manufacturing industries. It has a membership of 600 manufacturing industries, comprising of both small and big industries. The Government has accorded recognition to this body and so it serves as an advisory body to it, having its members serving on many national committees and boards which deal with economic planning, industrial promotion and manpower.

West African women are known all over the world as traders. In Ghana until five years ago women were mainly in control of the retail trade and they are an economic force to reckon with. They sell anything you can find in supermarkets or departmental stores. During the recent seminar held in Accra, the capital of Ghana, jointly by FAO and Council on Women and Development for English speaking countries in West Africa, with the theme "The Role of Women in Marketing of Agriculture and Marine Produce" it was concluded that women traders are the dominant link between food producers and consumers in West Africa. The experience, skills, courage and perseverance, and a hardworking, dependable professional attitude are all characteristics of women traders which make a considerable economic force. What is more interesting about these women is the fact that majority of say 90% of them cannot read or write not even in their mother tongue.

Since the call by the Government of Ghana to the indigenous Ghanaians to catch the commanding height of the country's economy through industrialization, the women also accepted the challenge, and as such now we have got women who own their own industries, both manufacturing and servicing industries, playing the role of managing directors efficiently. These women are found in the fields of garment manufacture, knitting and textiles, leather industries, (manufacturing bags and shoes), food processing, catering, building, road construction, etc. The Ghanaian Women Contractors' Association is quite a force. Although some of these women are not architects or engineers they pay for the services of such qualified and experienced personnel, and manage to get big contracts from the government and other big firms. There is a general observation by the financial institutions, the Government and the firms which award contracts to these women or help them financially that women can often be more reliable than most men. This is

indeed a credit to Ghanaian business women.

Since the International Women's Year in 1975, involvement of women in industries and agriculture has been intensified by the Ghana National Council on Women and Development (NCWD). This body is a Government Agency formed upon recommendation by the United Nations to all Governments as the follow up of the International Women's Year. The councils or the commissions are to implement the recommendations of the conference in Mexico. The NCWD is advisory as well as functional in the sense that it advises the Government on all matters affecting women and it is also helping, especially the rural women, to have money in their pockets.

The Council which was inaugurated by the Head of State in the year 1976 is composed of 15 members of which five are men. Majority of the members were appointed because of their special qualification or contribution to National Development. In doing this, account is taken of every region's representation on the Council. The ministries of Finance and Economic Planning, Education, Agriculture, Health and Social Welfare are also represented. The NCWD has secretariats in all the nine regions of Ghana, and all these secretariats have regional advisory committees. The headquarters has four main departments namely, Administration, Research, Counselling department, and a Technical and Economic Unit. The Council has six committees namely Education Committee, Women in employment Committee, the Home Committee, the Legal Committee and Projects Committee, and each of these committees has drawn up programmes for short and long term projects. The council works with all the existing Government departments and institutions which deal with women affairs. This helps to avoid duplication. A committee has recently been formed to co-ordinate the programmes of all the voluntary women organisations.

Soon after the inauguration of the Council, a national seminar was organized for two weeks involving the leaders of the voluntary women organizations, on the development of small and cottage industries. Apart from talks from experts on how to start and run an industry, costing, simple accounts

keeping etc. there were practical demonstrations on tie-dye and hand printing of textiles, production of potash for the use of indigenous soap manufacture, washing soap manufacture and some handicrafts. The women were informed of the resolutions passed at the Mexico conference and the plan of action. The women were highly motivated and expressed their sincere gratitude to the organizers of the seminar.

As a follow up of the seminar all the regional secretaries were asked to go into the towns and villages to identify any existing cottage industry or crafts which require assistance for development. Appendix 1 shows some of the projects which the NCWD is assisting. The Council's Project Committee who are experts in various fields go out to the regions to assess the viability of the projects before recommending them to the council. Some of these projects are farming and food processing, pottery, weaving of baskets, oil extraction from either coconut, palm kernel or shear butter nuts, baking, beads work, soap manufacture etc. In order to qualify for foreign financial assistance the women are organized into co-operatives. You would be pleased to hear that some women groups are now receiving assistance from USAID and IPPF, the former is for farming and processing of "gari" (this is a local instant food prepared from cassava) and potash for the manufacture of indigenous soap using palm kernel oil. This is a very popular toilet soap in West Africa. It is black in colour. The total amount of money being invested by USAID is \$300,000.00. This money will be used in the purchasing of, tractors, vehicles, machinery and building of common service centres. These common service centres are not only meant for processing gari; the building will have a lecture hall for the teaching of family planning, nutrition, literacy, better ways of farming by qualified agriculture extension officers, home science, food preservation and the use of appropriate technology. The building will also have facilities for the storage of raw materials and finished products, as well as a marketing office. The lecture halls are being attached to the processing units in order to overcome the problem being faced now in getting especially the rural women, to be taught these things.

The fund given by the IPPF has been used for the renovation of basket weaving factory abandoned by the Chinese after the fall of the first Republic, and it is being used both as

a production and training centre for rural women in basket weaving. The NCWD is now negotiating for the employment of a highly qualified crafts designer to come over to Ghana to help with development of the crafts the women are engaged in. This man will help in producing high quality utility and decorative crafts for export. He would also be responsible for making contacts over seas for the exportation of these products. As you would see in appendix I, the women are already in production and the NCWD is arranging for stores in the regions to sell these women's products locally.

Funding of Projects: One of the constraints encountered by these women in development of their industries is finance. These rural women are not considered credit worthy, but the NCWD is helping the women to overcome this by guaranteeing loans for them or having grants from overseas agencies. The ownership of these projects belong to the women groups, but at the beginning after NCWD has managed to get funds for a group either from the financial institutions or overseas agencies it holds itself responsible for the success of the project by giving technical assistance and supervision until the group finishes paying for the investment when the project is handed over to the group. Where it is a loan from the financial institutions the money goes back to them, but where it is a grant, the money becomes a revolving fund held by the NCWD to be used for new viable projects for women.

The problems facing the NCWD in spear heading this industrial development for women are many but the major ones are finance, transport and personnel.

Recommendations: To overcome these problems there is need for the United Nation Agencies charged with the responsibility of the role of women in industrialization, to pull up their resources together. They should have an office with qualified personnel for the development and promotion of industries for women especially in the developing countries where industrialization is now beginning. This will enable the women to take advantage of the situation and get involved along side with the men. To achieve this it would mean training programmes geared towards attainment of practical results. Here I would like

attention to be drawn to what Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) is already doing in Addis Ababa, the capital of Ethiopia. The need to get qualified personnel to run the international office as well as those who will work on the development and promotion of industries in the countries cannot be over emphasised.

For funding, I would also like to draw attention to the effort being made, (as one of the recommendations in Mexico) to set up Women World Banking by a group of some dedicated women with the office presently in New York.

In conclusion, I would say that with availability of funds and qualified technical personnel it would not be difficult to achieve the goal which has been set to involve women in industrialization, whether it is in developed or underdeveloped countries of the world.

NATIONAL COUNCIL ON WOMEN AND DEVELOPMENT
ON GOING PROJECTS 1978
BRONG AHAFO REGION.

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project Ownership	Source of Funds	Remarks
1. Gari Production	Berekum	Gari is being sold to workers Women work on Co-operative basis	Capital raised by members themselves.	Grating machine is needed.
2. Palm Oil Extraction	Kenyase	The women's group extract palm oil and kernel oil for sale Co-operative basis	Capital raised by members themselves.	More Funds are needed to buy caustic soad for the preparation of soap.
3. Gari making	Techiman	Women work on Co-operative basis	Funds raised by individual women. 2300.00 loan from the Bank.	Project is recommended for USAID assistance. Funds needed to make co-operative farm.
4. Canteen Services	Berekum	The Women's group work on co-operative basis.	Capital raised by individuals.	Funds are needed for equipment.
5. Bakery Project	Berekum	The women's Group work on co-operative basis.	5,000.00 loan from Ghana Commercial Bank	Supply of flour should be regular.
6. Cassava and vegetables farming project	Berekum	The Women's Group work on Co-operative basis.	5,000.00 loan from Ghana Commercial Bank	A tractor is needed.
7. Soap making	Benkasa	Women's Group work on Co-operative basis.	Capital raised by members.	Funds are needed to increase production
8. Vegetable Farming	Abesim	Women's Group on Co-operative basis.	Capital raised by members.	Funds are needed to expand farm.

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project Ownership	Source of Funds	Remarks
Crafts and Food Preservation	Sunyani	Women's Group on Co-operative basis	Women's own contribution	Funds are needed to increase production.
10. Maize and cassava Farming	Kintampo	Women's Group on Co-operative basis.	Women's own contribution	A tractor is needed.
11. Soap Making	Kintampo	Women's Group is organised on Co-operative basis.	Women's own contribution	
12. Bakery and Canteen	Kintampo	Women's Group is organised on Co-operative basis.	Women's own contribution	There should be regular supply of raw materials.
13. Cassava Processing	Ntankro/ Kintampo	Women's Group is organised on Co-operative basis.	Women's own contribution	
14. Charcoal Burning	Kintampo	Women's Group is organised on Co-operative	Women's own contribution	Needs funds and tractor to cart charcoal
15. Charcoal Burning	Dorma	Women's Group is organised on Co-operative basis.	Women's own contribution	Funds needed to increase production
16. Bakery	Techiman	Women's Group is organised on Co-operative basis.	Women's own contribution	Needs regular supply of Flour.

NATIONAL COUNCIL ON WOMEN AND DEVELOPMENT
ON GOING PROJECTS 1978

VOLTA REGION

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project Ownership	Source of Funds	Remarks
1. Pottery Project	Kpandu	Women's Association, NCWD sponsorship	Loan from O.G.E.C. ¢500.00	There is transportation problem.
2. Dabala basket Project	Dabala	Common Service Centre-Joint sponsorship by NCWD and IPPF	Loan from I.P.P.F.	Production should be increased.
3. Vegetable Farming	Liatu	Co-operative basis	Loan from NCWD. ¢500.00	
4. Vegetable Farming	Anyirawase	Co-operative basis	¢500.00 Loan from NCWD	
5. Cassava Farming	Avenui	Co-operative basis	¢25.00 Loan from NCWD	
6. Cassava Farming	Sokode Bagble	Bible class Women's group.	¢35.00 loan from NCWD.	
7. Cassava Processing Project.	Maafi-Kumasi	Co-operative basis NCWD and USAID Joint sponsorship	Funding to be done by USAID.	Project at Planning stage.
8. Mat and Hat weaving	Agbekofe	Broad mat and hat weaving by individual women. NCWD sponsorship	Funds raised by individuals.	The women are being organised to form a co-operative society

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project Ownership	Source of Funds	Remarks
9. Groundnut Farming	Borada	Co-operative basis. NCWD SPONSORSHIP	Capital raised from individual contributions	Tractor services are needed.
10. Mat weaving	Akoefe	Individual basis. NCWD sponsorship	Capital raised by individuals.	Funds needed for expansion
11. Pottery	Kpoviadzi	Pots making by women potters. NCWD sponsorship.	Capital raised by individuals.	Funds needed for the purchase of clay.
12. Bags weaving	Hohoe	Individual workers - NCWD sponsorship.	Funds raised by individuals.	

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ASHANTI REGION

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project Ownership	Course of Funds	Remarks
1. Aboabogya Cassava Farming	Aboabogya	NCWD Co-operative Farming	Funds from the Ashanti Regional Secretariat.	
2. Women's Co-operative Farming (cassava and corn)	Buabang	Co-operative farming-NCWD	Ø800.00. Loan from the Ashanti Regional Secretariat.	
3. Cassava Farming	Daaba	" " " NCWD	Ø1000.00 from NCWD Funds-Ashanti Secretariat	- 11 -
4. Bead manufacturing	Daabaa	On Co-operative basis NCWD sponsorship.	Funds from small Business loan. Scheme. Ø5000.00	
5. Maize Farming	Ashanti-Mampong	Co-operative basis NCWD sponsorship	Ø1000.00 from NCWD Funds-Ashanti Secretariat	
6. Asaamang Nkonya soap project.	Asaamang-Nkonya	Co-operative basis NCWD sponsorship.	Funds from Regional Secretariat-Ashanti.	Ø1000.00 invested
7. Pottery Project	Asaamang-Nkonya	Co-operative basis NCWD sponsorship	Funds from NCWD Ashanti.	

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project Ownership	Source of Funds	Remarks
8. Pottery Project	Afari	Co-operative basis NCWD Sponscrship	Funds from NCWD Ashanti	Ø500.00 to be invested.
9. Co-op. Multi-Purpose shop	Kumasi Asafo Market	Cc-operative basis NCWD sponsorship	Members' contribution of Ø2,500.00	

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GREATER ACCRA REGION.

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project ownership	Source of Funds	Remarks
1) Fish Processing	Kokrobite	Fish : women's Co-operative	Funds raised by the women.	Fisheries Department sold ovens to the women on hire purchase system.
2) Vegetable Farming	Oyibi	Vegetable production by Women's curing Copoerative group	Capital provided by the women.	Land clearing was arranged with Ministry of Agriculture.
3) Bakers Co-operative society	Labadi	Bakery -women's co-operative group	Capital provided by the women.	
4) Bakers Co-operative society	Osu	Bakery Women work on co-operative basis.	Funds provided by the women.	
5) Sege cassava Processing Group	Sege	Women are being organised to work on co-operative basis.		

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ON GOING PROJECTS - 1978
CENTRAL REGION

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project Ownership	Source of Funds	Remarks
1. Oil extraction and Kenkey Project	Akobina	Members of the Akobina concert Party process palm oil and kernel oil and make kenkey for sale	Proceeds from concerts. ₵500.00 loan from NCWD.	
2. Soap Making	Saltpond	Catholic Mothers' Association work on Co-operative basis.	contribution from members. ₵500.00 from NCWD	NCWD has given practical training in soap making.
3. Vegetable Farming	Ekumfi Eyisan	Methodist Women's Fellowship	Funds raised from Association coffers	NCWD to organise women to work on co-op. basis.
4. Coconut oil Extraction	Komenda	Women's Group	Funds by individuals	Project needs proper organisation to work properly.

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EASTERN REGION

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project Ownership	Source of Funds	Remarks
1. Potash Project	Kwamoso	Potash production for local soap making by NCWD employees	Funds provided by NCWD.	USAID is processing this project for technical assistance
2. Local Soap making	Nankese	Local soap making by the P.E.A. Women's Group.	Funds raised by members. Loan from NCWD.	Progress impeded by oil shortage. School canteen services is being tried.
3. Palm oil Extraction.	Osiem	Oil processing by Co-operative group.	Members' contribution	No progress due to shortage of oil
3. Bead manufacturing	Aboabo near Koforidua.	Individual workers	Funds provided on individual basis	Attempt is being made to form a Co-operative society.

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WESTERN REGION

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project Ownership	Source of Funds	Remarks
1. Potash Project	Pretsea Oil Mill	Production of Potash from palm bunch waste. NCWD has employed labourers to work on the project	Funds has been provided by NCWD	The produce will be sold to local soap makers.
2. Kernel oil extraction and soap project.	Takorali	Cracked palm kernels are bought from Pretsea oil Mill. NCWD has employed labourers to start the project.	Funds provided by NCWD.	Some interested women should be organised to take over the project A shed is needed
3. Coconut oil extraction	Nsein near Axim	Oil extraxtion is carried out by individual women.	Funds are provided by individuals.	The women are to be organised into proper women's group or co-operation society for effective operation.

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UPPER REGION.

Type of Project	Town/Village	Activities and Project Ownership	Source of Funds	Remarks
1. Crafts and Pottery Group	Walgatanga	Co-operative basis. NCWD sponsorship	Ø500.00 loan from NCWD	
2. Soap making	Sirigu	Catholic Mothers' Association. NCWD sponsorship	Funds provided by members.	
3. Soap making	Wa	Co-operative society. NCWD sponsorship	Funds provided by members.	
Nacowed Multipurpose Co-operative Project	Tanale	<u>NORTHERN REGION</u> Bread makers, kenkey sellers etc. have formed co-operative society	Capital raised by members.	The group has made profit of Ø17,000.00. They are finding difficulty in obtaining flour for the bakers.



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WOMEN IN INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT - INDIA *

prepared by

Leela Damodara Menon **

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Industrialisation had brought multidimensional economic growth during the last five decades in developed nations and given their people life sustenance, choice of work and self-respect. In developing countries the loud cry has already risen "Industrialise or perish". In this context, it is very significant that the Lima Conference and Plan of action call for creation of conditions for full integration of women in an organised manner in the industrial process. The assumption is that only when women are liberated from servitude can a nation awaken fully to economic stability. The International Women's Year had already given a clarion call for the full integration of women in development. Representatives of various nations realistically appraising the problems and capabilities of women all over the world, can help in evolving a new methodology for women's full employment.

Early economic activity.

Women have always worked and they continue to work indeterminate hours doing household jobs which is considered a labour of love, a return for security and a share of responsibilities as mother. From very early ages, they have sometimes also taken up outside their homes, the work left-over by men, in agriculture, spinning, handicrafts and similar home industries. This might have been a rough division of labour when community life started. It is also the beginning of discrimination. As it worked out, these efforts did not give women security of service, proper wages or status of the economically independent. While solving crucial economic issues, it has now become necessary to have a fresh look at gainful employment for women, specifically promoting awareness of woman's place in national progress in equal partnership with man.

Indian attitude to women.

There is a great paradox in the attitude of Indian Society towards women. Cosmic Energy has been deified as Shakti and symbolised and worshipped as the Spouse of the Lord of Universe. The mother is venerated. The wife is "patni" in the Hindu Shastras, the husband's full-fledged companion. It is also stated that in Vedic

times, Indian women had enjoyed equality in all spheres. Yet as far as known, through centuries, woman has been functioning totally subservient to the father, the husband and son and not allowed any freedom of her own.

New trends.

Society in India is at present going through a period of transition due to a national planned development programme and influence of modernisation. As elsewhere, the Indian male is unable to abrogate to himself the responsibility of fully financing his family's needs. Planners also realise that successful economic changes will depend on the productive endeavour of all people, women inclusive. Women have therefore to take new postures to get employment, overcoming discriminatory practices of which they themselves are now aware. Both sexes have contributed to these discriminations and inequalities, directly and indirectly and are called upon now to solve the problems together.

Constitutional Rights.

Indian Women's courageous and outstanding contribution in the national struggle for Independence took them automatically to the status of equality at the dawn of freedom. The Constitution of India guarantees women's equality of status and opportunity, equal rights for adequate means of livelihood, and protection against discriminatory practices. Mahatma Gandhi, the father of the Indian Nation, struck the right note when he said "woman is man's better half. As long as woman has not the same rights in law as man, as long as the birth of a girl does not receive the same welcome as that of a boy, so long we shall know that India is suffering from partial paralysis." Relief has to be found from this paralysis.

Traditional bottlenecks.

General education for women has already opened up new vistas of employment in medical, teaching, clerical and factory sectors. But the percentage of women so engaged is small and the gap is very wide between legal rights and existing realities. Marriage is the main career for a woman. She is thus immobilised and she confines her activity around her home. Lack of skills, tradition, social taboos and submissiveness of woman herself are her main weaknesses. In rural India, even today, a woman's economic status is not determined by the wage she earns but by her husband and her family's status. When there is acute general unemployment in India, it is natural that promotion of women's employment is considered as

snatching employment chances from men. This is one reason for the low percentage of working women.

Present areas of employment

89% of the 273 million Indian women live in rural areas. Women labour force is only 31.3 million. Of them, 80% are engaged in agriculture, 10.5% in industries and 9.5% in tertiary services. In urban area, rigid social barriers are absent and women work in more diversified sectors. The job umbrella of the educated employed women is interesting. There are certain jobs considered women's special preserves. 75% are teachers, the majority of whom are in primary schools. The rest includes typists and stenographers, nurses, physicians and others. 3% constitute administrators, businesswomen, managers, scientists, technicians, engineers and lawyers. From this category have emerged a woman Prime Minister, Cabinet and State Ministers, Ambassadors, Governors, High Court Judges and Executives. The disability for getting into the Indian Administrative Service and some other services (except in some departments of the Military) by married women had also been removed. All-woman Banks, All-woman Police Stations, All-woman Post Offices are introduced to show that Indian women can rise to good levels of competence. But in privileged jobs, the upward mobility for women is extremely difficult.

It is a very disappointing factor that only 13.3% of female population of India has been recorded as "Working population" in the sense that their efforts are socially and economically productive. In industries in the public and private sectors just 10.5% employed are women and only .1% are in the managerial posts, 48% are in very unskilled lower categories in industry. Some of them are paid less wages than even agricultural workers. In Central Government employment, where there is no discrimination between men and women in wages, women constitute 2.5%.

Impact of protective legislation.

A number of protective labour laws have been passed in favour of women, like maternity benefits, inheritance rights and factory acts and even the much talked of enactment for equal remuneration. But so far, these legal powers have not helped to save women from exploitation and discrimination. They have only curtailed off some of the grim realities.

Displacement in traditional and household industries.

Due to a slight increase in women's education, the number of women working in the administrative and other white collar jobs is on the increase. But many educated

women are idle and economically inactive. Yet another factor which cannot be overlooked is that in agriculture as well as in some informal and formal industrial sectors, there has been a massive and alarming decline in the percentage of women workers. This trend is dangerous and shows that modern agriculture, industry and trade services are keeping out more and more women due to their lack of understanding of complex professional skills and marketing systems that have come in these sectors of late and because of which women cannot manage to work as they did.

New programme.

The existing plans for employment of women are found to be very inadequate. But there is a bright silver lining on the horizon. To arrest the trend of increasing displacements, a national policy decision has been taken to make in the Sixth Plan a special provision to enlarge the scope of employment opportunities for women. The plan for accelerated rural industrialisation also will help this policy. The target is to be kept at 25% of the female population brought into productive endeavour for 1980 as against 13.3% now. Even this will be only reaching a position that prevailed 15 years ago, in spite of the fact that more job avenues had opened up for women during these years. There is some loud thinking about reserving a certain percentage of places for female workers in most industrial and other establishments. These objectives added with projects for greater health and literacy facilities to women could trigger off the movement of women's true liberation.

Self-employment.

Only a thorough overhauling change in the economic pattern of society and creation of further avenues of mass employment can thaw a difficult and frozen situation. Employment presupposes economic activity and when men are also in the throes of unemployment, unless there is visible increase in employment opportunities, it could lead to further confrontation between man and woman or at best, a status quo. The employment policy includes both wage and self-employment parameters and any policy for women's employment has to fit within this frame-work. It is in wage or self-employment programmes of the unorganised sector that the clue lies for women's first phase of industrialisation.

Reviewing the overall situation in India, self-employment along with rural industrialisation seem to be the main answer for more employment for women. While maintaining at the national level the steady increase in

production in the hard core industries, the diffusion of industrialisation can be real and general only if it came to rural areas and if there is feed back from the rural sector. In two ways this helps women. It brings the work round the corner to them or to their own homes. The sophistication and high finances necessary to heavy and large industries are not called for. Nor long training in skills. The process is thus simplified.

Self-employment programmes for women will be an exciting adventure and a breakthrough. It is a difficult beginning but a rewarding goal. To mobilise economically weak women with no training, bargaining power or money is not easy. But it is not impossible. One thing is already clear. The Indian woman may be poor, illiterate, but with the right guidance she has shown that she can do well.

Properly trained and organised, women in India can really become very efficient, economically independent groups. This is seen from the exciting story of a group of 6,667 women workers in Ahmedabad engaged as garment-makers, hand cart pullers, vegetable vendors and junk smiths, who were brought together and thus saved from exploitation by money lenders and big traders. Shortage of capital and lack of knowledge in new trends in trade were their problems. With active support of the Nationalised Banks, correct market study and joint operation and management, they are one of the flourishing and powerful groups of independent women workers in the country.

There is another case of a group of 100 women fish-vendors in a village in Kerala. They used to take loans of Rs.30/- to Rs.40/- from private money-lenders each day giving a daily interest of Re.1/- for every Rs.10/-. They organised themselves into a Industrial Cooperative and with aid from the Banks at an interest rate of 4% per annum, they could make many times more money than they did. The number of women in this group is increasing.

New paths have already been cut open. Many young women entrepreneurs have come forward. Manufacture of electric fans, stainless steel vessels, cooking pans and pots, tin containers, leather goods, garments, chemical products, fruit preservation, furniture, export promotion, are some of the new ventures successfully operated in a fairly large scale by women industrialists. One lady is

engaged in a small mining operation. There is another in charge of a shipping line. These women come from the elite educated class. Handicrafts, bamboo work, fruit preservation, beedis, soap, dyeing and printing, handloom are some socio-economic schemes for women organised under the auspices of the Central Social Welfare Board. A women's wing of the National Alliance of Young Entrepreneurs has started attending to the difficulties and problem of women entrepreneurs and encouraging new ventures.

It is among the less-educated that the efforts have to be concentrated. Attempts are made on an experimental scale to operate and tread into areas so far considered man's prerogative as in the case of a foundry and electroplating unit in Kerala. At first it was thought crazy and impossible. But the girls took up the training quickly and it has been a pleasant surprise to see them make the moulds and handle the molten metal with ease. To them 5 Kilograms of metal is as heavy or light as a 5 kilogram baby and the heat from the cupola is not more frightening than the heat in the kitchen. The idea is that in any community with increasing needs, both men and women can strike out new openings for jobs without depending only on traditional type of livelihoods.

Some ancillary units for women attached to the telephone, electronic and lamp industries, work well because they have no marketing difficulty. But such units are few and are only exceptions to the general rule. They also run into a number of difficulties common to all women's units. With some training, ancillary units can play a major role in women's industrialisation. At the Government level thought is being given to redline ancillaries of public sector industries, which women could take up.

It is found that the projects for self-employment for women should work well if:-

(1) Every worker has an interest in the concern either by share or in any other capacity which will avoid exploitation;

(2) Project reports are drawn up with the assistance of competent and qualified authority till such time as they can manage to organise it on their own;

(3) Availability of raw materials is arranged;

(4) Bank finances are given at concessional rates of interest as to backward sections in the initial stages.

(5) Sufficient management and technical training is given to women workers;

(6) Residential accommodation for women workers is arranged, if necessary;

(7) Creches are organised for the children of working mothers.

(8) Technical and expert advice is made available when the units run into problems;

(9) 95% of these workers are women;

(10) A good sense of Trade Unionism and joint effort is inculcated so that they do not fall prey to fortune hunters of unions;

(11) Women should be involved at decision-making levels;

(12) Special marketing facilities be planned.

While building up the infrastructure, strong national women's organisations have to encourage the movement. Women can be their own enemies. They are easy victims to those forces which have subjugated them for centuries and which can discourage them from taking up economically productive activity, which is still not accepted as women's vocation. They should also realise that good industrialists have to work hard and with dedication and determination. The role of the house-maker should not be an impediment to work. Again, women as employees, are generally acceptable; but their efforts to be independent will have to bear down great resistance.

Being credulous and trained only to obey, trouble can be created among women themselves by interested parties who are sure to crop up as vested interests. These pitfalls have to be foreseen and early action taken. Participation in rural industries must be a properly studied and organised move. Very often there is likelihood of unremunerative units being palmed off to women. Even for rural industries, lack of training can be a serious problem.

There is a new trend regarding capital formation. In spite of legislation prohibiting it, the obnoxious dowry system persists and can only be removed if women are economically independent. So, to lighten the burden of dowry, parents are willing to invest small amounts for their daughters if it will give them employment. That is an important factor when capital for self-employment projects is organised.

The Sixth Plan for development in India has some

special programmes for women's industries. Utilising the blue-prints for these, a good start can be made in initiating women to industries on a large scale in the country, if the right infrastructure is built.

United Nations.

Several meetings of U.N. and specialised agencies have touched upon the subject of women's economic activities and some priority is already given to the subject. But the UN can play a more effective role in

(1) conducting studies through appropriate agencies on various factors of industries like raw material, availability and technical cooperation;

(2) formulation of model projects so that they can illumine the dark path of experimentation;

(3) Assisting in training in skills and job orientation;

(4) planning a few projects for each developing nation to emphasise the participation of young women;

(5) having a committee connected with the national UN Commission in each country which will be the source of exchange of information;

(6) consider appropriate aid programmes in the initial experimental stage;

(7) monitor trends and policies so as to reach desired goals; and

(8) help in establishment of infrastructural services in rural areas.

After considering the programme of women's industrial development from various angles, the main refrain is, "Women, awake".



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THE SOVIET UNION AND THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN
INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES *

prepared by

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Implementation of the economic, political and social rights of women in the developing countries is inseparably linked with the entire set of problems of national construction. The extensive and many-sided participation of women in public life is a guarantee of progressive transformations in all areas. Women fought selflessly against colonial rule and added many glorious pages to the history of the national-liberation movement in their respective countries. At the present stage their work and civic activity have an important role to play in strengthening economic independence and eradicating the aftermath of colonial enslavement.

Women make up about a third of the world's economically active population. Measures taken by the governments in many developing countries have increased the number of women working for hire. More women receive an education and become skilled workers. These positive changes, however, have not yet resulted in qualitative changes in the position of women in the developing countries. Millions of women are unemployed, and the level of their skill and pay is much lower than that of men. Women are frequently oppressed socially and economically, and their rights are infringed in various ways. The eradication of these phenomena is an important element of the progressive transformations in the economic and social structure of the newly-free countries.

Methods of achieving the full emancipation of women, the liquidation of inequality in various spheres of economic and social life and extensive involvement of women in social production depend on concrete historical conditions. The genuine

equality of women is one of the most important achievements of the Soviet Union. Obviously, not all the forms employed in the USSR to bring about the emancipation of women, including the stage of socialist industrialization, can be equally applied in the developing countries. Nevertheless, many of them can be successfully used, taking due account of local conditions. The victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution showed women the way to a new life. The Soviet Union's experience proves that, in the course of economic and social construction and industrialization, women can successfully learn trades formerly the preserve of men. In 1977, women constituted 51.5 per cent of all industrial and office workers in the Soviet Union. Women not only learn new trades but also achieve a high professional level, become managers and administrators and hold high posts in key branches of the national economy. All this has been made possible by the high educational level of Soviet women. Soviet women have every opportunity to acquire a secondary specialized education and higher education on a par with men. In 1976, for example, women made up 51 per cent of the students of higher educational establishments and 55 per cent of the students of secondary specialized schools. Working men and women have practically the same educational level in the Soviet Union.

Women judges, deputies to Soviets, lawyers, architects, managers and even ministers are a typical feature of the Soviet way of life. Millions of women engineers, doctors, judges and lawyers (every third specialist in these fields

is a woman) work with dedication and enthusiasm for the benefit of their country. This demonstrates the success of the socialist policy of equality between men and women in all fields of life.

Particularly striking changes have occurred in the position of women in the Soviet East. In pre-revolutionary Russia, working women in that region were in a worse position than women in the central areas of the country. In the early 20th century the Eastern regions (Central Asia, Kazakhstan and the Caucasus) were characterized by a natural economy mainly employing women. They also had to do all the housework, look after the livestock, work in the vegetable gardens and orchards, weave, and breed silkworms. Nevertheless, they had no rights either in family or in society.

The October revolution altered this situation and gave the women of the Soviet East equal rights with men in family, economic and cultural life. But these were only the first steps. In the specific conditions of the East, the rights granted by the law had to be put into practice. The almost total illiteracy of women was a serious obstacle in the way of drawing women into active production and public life. To help women out of the closed family circle and assist them in realizing and implementing their rights, women's clubs, artels, co-operatives and shops were created first of all in those regions where women, according to tradition, were not allowed to communicate with men. At the same time a broad campaign was under way to stamp out illiteracy. Special schools were set up and special courses organized.

Nevertheless, the Communist Party's policy of socialist industrialization and the creation in the East of modern

industry on a large scale was the most important way of increasing the participation of women in the life of society. The growth of industry was concurrent with the increase in the number of women engaged in this dynamic sector of the economy. For example, women made up 23 and 33 per cent of industrial workers in 1926 and 1937 respectively. The increase was due to the policy of state and public organisations which encouraged in every way the drawing of women of the Soviet East into industry. Special textile enterprises were set up to increase the employment opportunities of women.

The policy of the Party and the government was aimed at raising the level of women's skill in order to make their work more interesting and productive and increase their economic incentive. Local schools, including schools at factories, were opened for the purpose. Thousands of Uzbek, Tajik and other women of the Soviet East were trained at textile mills in Moscow and in other big cities. Experienced workers, technicians and engineers arrived in Central Asia to help the local women learn factory trades.

At the same time as boosting large-scale industrial production, the Party and the government took measures to organize producers' co-operatives. Handicrafts in which many women were engaged were well developed in the Eastern regions, and the protection of women from exploitation, their pooling into artels, and government assistance to them, facilitated their involvement in social production. Many women doing housework and looking after their children joined the co-operatives, worked at home and then turned their products over to the co-

operative. Limited as it was, this measure involved women in the common cause, provided them with a certain degree of independence and an opportunity to earn money. Gradually but steadily, women were drawn into social production and developed new interests.

Kirghizia, Kazakhstan, Turkmenia, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan and other Soviet Republics today have millions of working women, including many in the fields of science and culture, outstanding grain-farmers and leading industrial workers. Their labour has been honoured with government awards and nation-wide recognition.

The Soviet Union's experience in boosting the economy of the formerly backward outlying regions of tsarist Russia is a proof of the decisive role of industrialization. The Soviet methods of economic construction as well as the stamping out of illiteracy among women, work among women of the Soviet East and large-scale organization of co-operatives of farmers and handicraftsmen, who had many women in their ranks - can be effectively used by international organisations and national governments which aim at improving the economic and social position of women in the developing countries.

The attainment of political independence considerably changed the legal status of women in most developing countries. Women have new opportunities to exercise their civil, social and political rights. The newly-free countries have passed laws which make women juridically equal with men. Under the adopted constitutions, women have the right to elect and be elected. An important achievement of a number of the newly-free states is the passing of laws on female labour protec-

tion and the adoption of new family and marriage codes designed to give women equality in the family.

The introduction of these laws is an important victory of the democratic forces in the developing countries. But it is obvious that in the specific conditions of these countries, centuries old traditions and the resistance of reactionary circles handicap the implementation of progressive legislation affecting women. That is why realization of the laws is the key element of the struggle for the genuine emancipation of women and their active involvement in social life. The backward customs and traditions which regarded woman as a second-rate human being have to be radically changed. Women can only be emancipated through drastic changes in the structure of society and through the overcoming of cultural and economic backwardness.

"Equality before the law", stressed Lenin, the founder of the Soviet State, is not necessarily equality in fact.

"We want the working woman to be the equal of the working man not only before the law but in actual fact. For this working women must take an increasing part in the administration of socialised enterprises and in the administration of the state.

"By taking part in administration, women will learn quickly and will catch up with the men".¹

Only the extensive participation of women in social production creates the necessary prerequisites for their genuine emancipation and equality in all spheres of public life. Otherwise the laws on equality are implemented very slowly, and only

¹ V.I. Lenin. Coll. Works, Vol. 30, p. 371.

partially and inconsistently. Economic development and expansion of progressive social institutions dovetail with the vital interests of the peoples of the newly-free countries and are particularly important for the emancipation of women. The increasing professional employment of women not only provides them with economic independence and raises their income but also promotes the shaping of the personality, broadens their outlook, increases their political and civic consciousness and determines their new attitude to work and society.

As women are drawn into social production and their skill grows, their attitude to work changes and cultural demands increase. At the initial stages women's involvement in social production is dictated first of all by material interests while later on increasing importance is assumed by the satisfaction which work gives, interest in the results of work and the social importance of work. It stands to reason that an important factor is the expanding interests of working women and their participation in public life.

Employment which requires skill is an important prerequisite of promoting the intellectual development of women and their selfexpression. At the same time the recognition of the usefulness of their work raises the dignity and prestige of women in the family, helps bring up children in keeping with the time, and orients them in the environment.

These goals can only be achieved in conditions of peaceful creative work. This requires stable peace and a stop to the arms race, which, according to some estimates, devours over one thousand billion dollars a day. The Special Session of the UN General Assembly on Disarmament (1978) discussed the

USSR - proposed comprehensive programme for stopping the arms race, which will make it possible to release huge means for boosting economic development and will contribute more to the general well-being of people everywhere. The Soviet Union's concrete proposals aimed at deepening detente meet the interests of all states, including the developing countries whose peoples are facing gigantic creative tasks. Many representatives from the developing countries were among the 149 states that took part in discussing concrete measures to curb the arms race and eliminate the threat of a world war.

The struggle to strengthen peace and avert the threat of a new war is ardently supported by millions of women in all countries. On behalf of the Women's International Democratic Federation and the Soviet peace champions, Valentina Nikolayeva-Tereshkova urged the United Nations to avert the threat of a nuclear war by stopping the production of nuclear weapons and all other weapons of mass destruction. This meets the vital interests of women throughout the world who are fighting for a happy future for their children and for an opportunity to live and work for the benefit of their respective countries.

International organisations and national governments pay great attention to increasing women's part in public and economic life. It will be recalled that, on the initiative of the UNO, 1975 was proclaimed Women's Year. The World Conference, held in mid-1975 in Mexico within the framework of International Women's Year, passed a World Plan of Action and two regional plans, concentrating on the problem of women in the the countries of Asia. The 34th session of the UN Economic and

Social Commission for the countries of Asia and the Pacific (March 1978) particularly noted the necessity of the extensive participation of women in the process of development as a condition of implementation of the longterm socio-economic programmes of the countries of that region.

The close interrelation between the economic advance of the developing countries and the preservation of peace was stressed once again at the World Conference on Development in Budapest. The speakers noted that an end cannot be put to hunger, poverty and neo-colonialism automatically. It can only be achieved through the unceasing efforts of the progressive forces. At the Conference the representatives of the Women's International Democratic Federation stressed the necessity of making the utmost use of the most valuable of all resources - people, half of whom are women.

Analyzing the prospects of building an independent Indian economy, Jawaharlal Nehru in 1958 wrote that to awaken the people, it was necessary to awaken the women. Their activity would stimulate the economy and activate the countryside and the entire country. The possibility of involving women actively in production depends on the general state of the economy, the rate of its development and, particularly, the number of job openings. In the newly-free countries industrialization is of great importance. This process, aimed at restructuring the material-technical basis of the economy by means of creating large-scale production in all its branches, embraces both social and economic aspects of a nation's development.

To a varying degree industrialization concerns the economy, policy, industry, agriculture, trade and finances of the newly-

free states. At the same time, industrialization is preferred in those branches whose priority development or modernization can, in the existing conditions of a given country, ensure the application of modern scientific and technological achievements and positively affect the rates of economic advance as a whole. This, in its turn, creates real prerequisites for increasing employment. The development of the key branches of the processing industry is the key element of industrialization. Comprehensive industrial development is necessary taking account of the fact that a number of branches (such as the textile industry, electronics) can successfully use mainly female labour. The setting up and expansion of the national base of the manufacturing industry ensures favourable conditions for boosting other economic sectors and first of all for transforming agriculture.

As experience shows, the development rates in industry are nearly twice as high as in other economic sectors in the newly-free countries. A number of Afro-Asian countries have new big industrial centres. The national industry started to produce goods which were formerly imported. Many industrial branches of Asian, African and Latin American countries turn out items to be exported. This is one of the most important achievements of the newly-free countries in their struggle for economic independence.

At the same time the peculiarities of the socio-economic development of the newly-free countries influence the forms and methods of industrialization, which, in its turn, affects the position of women and the struggle for their rights. Without dwelling in detail on many characteristic features of

the industrialization in these countries, it is necessary to single out the question of employment. According to the ILO, the level of unemployment in the developing countries is nearly 25 per cent of the available work-force. Some researchers believe unemployment in those countries is growing by about 8.5 per cent a year which is almost as high as the annual growth rate of industrial production in the second development decade. Against the background of an acute shortage of job openings and a great number of unemployed men, women find it particularly hard to find work in industry, especially large-scale industry. This situation is aggravated by the fact that there are few women (several per cent of the total number of employed women) with a technical education. Most women are unskilled workers.

Industrialization is a long process involving many difficulties, and the state and its economic policy play an important role in overcoming them. National long-term programmes of socio-economic development have won recognition in the newly-free countries. An analysis of such programmes of the Asian, African and Latin American countries leads one to the conclusion that a considerable part of the state investments is designed to create and expand the social and economic infrastructure, which is a necessary prerequisite of expanding production in all economic branches. The creation of an infrastructure and industrialization are closely interrelated and interdependent. This is expressed in the fact that the development of the infrastructure, including the social infrastructure, speeds up the involvement of many sections of the population in active production, ensures conditions for improving public

health, makes education more accessible to broader sections, and stimulates economic activity in remote districts and regions. On the other hand, new means of communication, accessibility of the mass media, expanding national industry and trade, and stronger ties with agriculture awaken the mass of the people from centuries-old apathy and draw them into active life.

Since, at the initial stages, the building of the infrastructure demands low-skilled labour, it can increase female employment. Besides, big state investments in social projects create a basis for increasing women's participation in the life of the country. This gives rise to a demand for teachers, doctors and hospital nurses. To meet this demand, the number of girl students must be increased at all levels of education.

The experience of the Soviet Union, and particularly its experience in overcoming the backwardness of the outlying regions of former tsarist Russia, shows that the stamping out of illiteracy is a necessary prerequisite for women's participation in public life. The newly-free countries face gigantic tasks in this respect. The total number of illiterate persons in the Third World is over 785 million, of which 468 million are women.

The elimination of illiteracy is the first, absolutely necessary step in overcoming women's social, political and economic backwardness. It is not only a question of giving women the minimum of knowledge and teaching them to read. Of no less importance is their involvement in active production work. It can be assumed there is a direct relation between the overcoming of illiteracy and the speeding up of the socio-

economic development as a whole. This problem is particularly pressing for countries with a low national per capita income, most of which are situated in Asia and Africa, where female illiteracy, particularly in rural areas, exceeds 90 per cent. To a certain extent, this situation is similar to that observed in the Eastern areas of Russia prior to the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution. For example, in Turkmenia, with a population of about a million, fewer than 5,000 children, including only several dozen girls, attended schools. A tsarist official serving in Turkmenistan, wrote in 1906 that 460 years would be required to stamp out illiteracy in that area. It took the Soviet government less than 50 years to eradicate the illiteracy of the population, including women. This made it easier for the backward regions of the Soviet East to attain high rates of industrial and agricultural development.

Much attention is given to women's education, for example, in India. The scale of the problem is seen from the following figures. In 1971 the country had 215 million illiterate women whose number reached 230 million in 1976, although the share of literate women also increased to reach about 20 per cent of the entire adult female population. Girls have additional privileges in the field of education in a number of states. Nevertheless, as the Indian Commission on Education notes, very many girls (more than 62 per cent in the primary school) leave school, the main reason being poverty. Female domestic labour is used at such an early age that poor families have to take their girls from school and engage them in auxiliary work. Unfortunately, the lack of statistical data makes it impossible to have exact figures in the field of child labour.

It might be expedient to carry out case studies on a national level by several groups of developing countries with a view to drawing conclusions about possible ways of assisting the poorest families to provide girls from these sections of the population with an opportunity to receive an education. Serious difficulties are presented by the lack of separate schools for boys and girls in areas where customs and traditions prevent their joint education.

The training of qualified female personnel in such spheres as public education, the medical service and social security makes it possible not only to increase female employment but also to provide the national economy with the necessary specialists who, in their turn, will make it easier for millions of women to find the road to a new life. It is clear that women with an education have an especially important part to play in the transformation of society and in the work of enlightenment in places where old customs and traditions are still strong.

In the USSR women play a tremendous role in the social infrastructure: in education, public health and social security. In 1976, women made up 70 per cent of all teachers and 69 per cent of doctors. For the sake of comparison, in 1913 there were fewer than 3,000 women doctors, whereas in 1976 their number was 600,000.¹

The development of the social and economic infrastructure under the aegis of the national state is a necessary condition for increasing female employment in the newly-free countries.

¹ Vestnik statistiki, 1978, No. 1, p. 88.

In their turn, educated women have a beneficial effect on the social climate by sharing their know-how, drawing new categories of women into public life and helping them to realize their civil rights and duties.

Further industrialization, particularly the expansion of the most dynamic branches of industry and the building of big modern projects, especially in the state sector of the newly-free countries, create the prerequisites for increasing the number of economically active women. This is no doubt a progressive phenomenon promoting the social role of women and strengthening their position in society. The high rates of development of the processing industry ensure conditions for a certain increase in employment. Of great importance is a kind of "chain reaction" engendered by the putting into operation of a major project, which requires the products of a number of other industries, new forms of the infrastructure and an expansion of the services sphere. In this case, the possibilities of increasing employment are determined not by the demand of one big enterprise but by the requirements of a whole range of productive and non-productive units.

The employment of women in factories entails considerable complications in the newly-free countries. The know-how obtained in agriculture or housework is of little use in factories. In many Afro-Asian countries women are accustomed to work sitting on the floor or squatting, and find it difficult to stand for the duration of a shift at a lathe. Factory work demands strict discipline to which people from the country-side are not accustomed. Time and preparatory work are needed.

The national long-term plans of many newly-free countries provide for the development of branches of light industry (textiles, clothing and food) which can produce consumer goods using local raw materials. Under favourable conditions, these enterprises can employ women, providing they undergo a course of training. Although work at such projects differs considerably from housework, the experience of many light industry enterprises in India, Pakistan and Algeria shows that women successfully learn the necessary know-how.

It does not mean, however, that it is expedient to limit women's participation in industrial production to light industry. Provided that the necessary training is available, women cope well with the work in many branches of modern industrial production. This makes the problem of women's technical education still more acute. Raising the level of women's skill is of great socio-political importance. Women workers can attain economic equality with men and equal rights to work and pay only by overcoming their cultural and technical backwardness.

In this context one can make use of the rich experience of the Soviet Union in personnel training. Back in the 1930's, in the course of socialist industrialization, factory workshop schools were set up, where young people received both a general education and job training under the guidance of experienced teachers and foremen. The personnel thus trained played an important part in providing industrial production with a skilled labour-force. At the same time this measure allowed hundreds of thousands of young people, including women, to acquire within a short period of time a secondary specialized technical education and a valuable skill. The decisions of the Communist Party

and the Soviet government provide for the further improvement of the system of vocational training. For example, along with increasing the number of vocational schools, it was found necessary to supply them with modern equipment in order to improve the quality of training. Particular attention is paid to the specialization of secondary schools. The role the technical and vocational schools play in training skilled personnel for the USSR's economy is revealed by the fact that over a million people complete the courses at these schools every year.

As has been noted, employment became a particularly acute problem in the developing countries. In these conditions, industrialization based only on modern capital-consuming technology, which has a fairly limited demand for labour-force and needs rather highly-skilled workers, is fraught with the danger of further aggravation of the problem of employment. This is one of the reasons why national long-term plans of the newly-free countries provide not only for the advance of large-scale modern industrial production, primarily in the state sector, but also for the support and encouragement of small-scale industrial production based on labour-consuming machinery with a view to ensuring the employment of broad sections of the population.

The building and expansion of small and medium-sized projects does not require considerable capital investments, imported technology or raw materials. They produce goods mainly on the basis of labour-consuming technology, and this can result in a substantial increase in job openings and a higher demand for an unskilled and low-skilled work-force. Expanded employment leads, to a certain extent, to higher incomes of

the less propertied sections of the population. The growing number of work places, and the possibility of being employed in small-scale industrial production which does not require complex special training, can increase female employment and prevent women from migrating to the big cities, where they encounter additional difficulties of adaptation.

Small-scale industrial production in the newly-free countries, particularly production dispersed in rural areas, somewhat facilitates women's involvement in active production. Such forms as the fulfilment at home of orders from large enterprises, or work at small nearby enterprises, can teach women new types of work and know-how. The experience shows that women who have learnt a certain trade find it much easier to master modern industrial trades. But small enterprises tend to exploit women workers, who have to work longer hours for miserable pay. One of the difficulties is that such enterprises try to escape state control and violate labour protection measures. The setting up of co-operatives is of great importance for protecting these women whose number is great since small enterprises do not require special training and demand cheap female labour. In this case it is easier to attract the attention of state organisations to the state of affairs in the industry with a view to improving working conditions.

Female employment can also be increased through expanding handicrafts, a traditional sphere of female employment in Afro-Asian countries. The demand for handicraft articles is growing on domestic and foreign markets. Improved communication means and road-building facilitate the delivery of

these articles to big cities and tourist centres. The state is interested in increasing exports of such articles in exchange for foreign currency. The organisation of special marketing co-operatives and their better crediting through special banks will favourably affect the position of working people, particularly women, in this sphere and will reduce their dependence on innumerable middlemen and the bondage of debts.

In the USSR, the state support of handicrafts plays an important part in preserving traditional small-scale production. The country has over 200 traditional crafts co-operatives uniting tens of thousands of qualified handicraftsmen. Their output is steadily growing and the quality of the articles made is improving. The government takes measures to improve the supply of high-quality raw materials, equipment and instruments to handicraftsmen. Considerable assistance is given to handicraftsmen working at home, many of whom are women. As a result of the state policy, ancient handicrafts are being revived and preserved in the epoch of the scientific and technological revolution.

Industrialization in the newly-free countries must be co-ordinated with the development of agriculture. These two most important fields of development are mutually supplementary and do not contradict each other. Industry with its higher concentration of production is more easily influenced by scientific and technical progress than is agriculture, and is well ahead of the latter in the development of productive forces. In those countries the productivity of an industrial worker is, on average, 6-8 times as high as that of an agricultural worker.

The redundancy of manpower, the demand for which in other economic branches is very limited, is one of the main reasons for the low labour productivity in the agrarian sector.

Women constitute the bulk of the work-force in agriculture, and the absence of machines makes their work particularly hard and inefficient. The growing tide of migration of men to the towns (which, according to Soviet researchers, is much higher than that of women) puts the main burden of land cultivation and housework on the shoulders of the women. The introduction of highly-productive machinery supplied by the national industry, the application of fertilizers and the use of the latest achievements of agro-technical science will considerably increase labour productivity in agriculture and improve the qualifications of those engaged in this key economic branch of the economy. Certain good results can be achieved by expanding the small-scale production turning out primitive machines and agricultural implements. The true restructuring of backward agrarian relations, however, is accomplished by way of progressive agrarian reforms, big state investments, first of all in irrigation systems, and supplying agriculture with modern technology.

As the experience of many newly-free countries shows, the implementation of communal development projects is of great importance at the present stage: for example, the supplying of pure water to rural inhabitants and improvement of sanitary conditions. These services, provided by the local administration in line with the state policy can have a favourable effect on women's participation in public affairs and increase their contribution to the common good as women are especially interested in the health care of the members of their families especially the children.

The carrying out of progressive agrarian reforms meets the vital interests of agricultural women workers. A positive role is played by the development of co-operatives, including marketing and then production co-operatives. The transformation of the countryside has an important place in the modernizing of agriculture and the boosting of the economy, and the active participation of women in this process is of paramount importance. In the co-operatives, specially trained people can help women to learn the basics of sanitation, hygiene, and family-planning, and to undergo a course of training in new forms of work.

Certain conditions are required to ensure the extensive participation of women in socio-economic construction in the newly-free countries. First in the list comes the health care of working mothers. The Soviet Union has been tremendously successful in this field. Soviet legislation provides special guarantees for the protection of female labour. It is forbidden to employ women in heavy work detrimental to their health. The administration and trade unions must strictly observe sanitary standards and safety engineering at places of work.

Mothers are highly respected in the Soviet Union. Soviet legislation provides for women pre-natal and post-natal leave on full pay, and a number of other benefits. The country has a vast network of maternity consultation centres, polyclinics and dispensaries (over 22,000 in 1976). The development of pre-school educational establishments is of no less importance for women's participation in the sphere of production. In 1976, the country's 117,000 kindergartens and nurseries enrolled 12.1 million children, providing their mothers with the oppor-

tunity to contribute to the economy of the country. The figures showing the growing number of children attending pre-school educational establishments in the Central Asian Republics are particularly significant. For example, Kirghizia had over 7,000 children attending pre-school establishments in 1940, and 127,000 in 1976. The figures for Tajikistan are 18,000 and 91,000, and for Turkmenia - 25,000 and 108,000, respectively.¹ This creates the objective conditions for the participation of women in the national economy on a wider scale.

The development of pre-school establishments, state assistance in organising everyday life and housework, and various benefits to working women and expectant and nursing mothers allow Soviet women to play their part as mothers and to take part in creative work at the same time.

Soviet women are ensured the right to work by the steady development of the national economy, the growing productive forces of Soviet society, the absence of crises and the absence of unemployment. The socialist industrialization carried out in the Soviet Union has secured for women all the necessary conditions for the broadest participation in all spheres of economic and social life. Women have the right to guaranteed wages in accordance with the quality and quantity of their work, free vocational training and re-training, and participation in the running of production.

Article 35 of the Constitution of the USSR reads: "Women and men have equal rights in the USSR. Exercise of these rights

¹ Vestnik statistiki, 1978, No. 1, pp. 93-94.

is ensured by according women equal access with men to education and vocational and professional training, equal opportunities in employment, remuneration, and promotion, and in social and political, and cultural activity, and by special labour and health-protection measures for women; by providing conditions enabling mothers to work; by legal protection, and material and moral support for mothers and children, including paid leaves and other benefits for expectant mothers and mothers, and the gradual reduction of working time for mothers with small children".¹

x x
 x

Women's involvement in social production in the developing countries and the elimination of their lack of rights and social oppression is a long and extremely complex process, in which no easy and rapid victories can be expected. It requires economic, social and political measures planned for a long period of time and carried out at different levels, from the government to rural communes.

National and international measures aimed at improving the position of women are a component part of all progressive socio-economic programmes. Experience shows that the emancipation of women is greatly promoted by the state's participation in economic development, industrialization and expansion of the social and economic infrastructure. All this creates certain prerequisites for increasing female employment and ensures opportunities for acquiring an education.

¹ Constitution of the USSR, Moscow, 1977.

It is expedient to give particular attention to the improvement of statistics giving a picture of women's position in the developing countries. Official statistics often ignores the "helping" family members, most of whom are women engaged in handicrafts, trade and the services. This underrates the importance of women's work for the economy in most developing countries and, what is most important, does not attract the attention of the public and of state offices to the necessity of regulating the work of women employed in auxiliary operations, and of working out legislative measures as regards their pay, so as to prevent various forms of discrimination.

It is believed that the expansion of statistical data available on women's position and the employment of women in various economic branches, particularly in industry, would greatly help national governments in working out and taking decisions aimed at more extensive involvement of women in social production. International organisations can play an important part in this. Necessary information and all-round elucidation of the position of women could be greatly promoted by detailed questionnaires sponsored by sociologists, economists and public health workers. After case (but representative) studies, based on these questionnaires, international organisations and national governments would have important information on this problem in the developing countries. In the future this material could assist in the taking of decisions at various levels.

It is expedient to strengthen co-operation between all UN bodies dealing with the position of women, and to co-ordinate their efforts with a view to the earliest possible implementation

of the great goals of the World Plan of Action. The UN Decade for Women (1976-1985) provides a real possibility of assessing the results achieved in the carrying out of national and international programmes aimed at ensuring women's equality in economic, social and political spheres. The Second World Conference of the UNO, planned for 1980, will take stock of what was done in the first half of the Decade and map out new tasks. Of great importance is the carrying out of national surveys in the developing countries to give a picture of the position of women in the basic sectors of the economy, the possibility of effecting an increase in female employment and ways of raising women's pay.

It is also very important to make wide use of the mass media to propagate progressive measures to protect and ensure women's rights, and make known the significance of their participation in production and the inadmissibility of any forms of discrimination against women. It must be noted in this context that the question of the equality of women in all areas of life has an important place in Soviet literature and art. Films and shows devoted to the new role of women in Soviet society (feature films "A Member of the Government", "The Bright Road", "The First Teacher", etc.) are very popular. The use of TV and the cinema for the great goals of teaching and enlightening women can greatly speed up their involvement in social life and active production.

ILO

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES
(Vienna, 6-13 November 1978)

An ILO Research Note
(prepared by the Office for
Women Workers' Questions)

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WOMEN IN INDUSTRY IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

PART A: THE SIZE OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

This note tries to present the problematique. It is based on fragmentary evidence available from more recent studies and reports of the UN system and selected references from current development literature. Its aim is to pose a few basic questions that may be relevant for policy action at the national level and to explore possibilities of collaboration between the ILO and UNIDO. The questions are:

- What type of economic structure is most desirable to improve the position and welfare of women in developing countries?
- In what way can women make an impact on the processes of production to further economic development?
- In the history and patterns of industrialisation in the world of work, how did the inequalities between men and women emerge?
- In any occupational hierarchy, why do jobs continue to be labelled "male" and "female"; "traditional" and "non-traditional"; "primary" and "secondary"?
- What are the main reasons for continued divergence in work opportunities and income between men and women?
- Why have the main benefits of scientific and technological advance bypassed women?
- What are the main issues that should be placed before the planner and policy maker?
- What role can the ILO and UNIDO (as a part of the UN system) play in clarifying these issues?

In posing these questions, several important issues - the choice of industry or choice techniques in an economy or women in management or industrial relations system or the impact of education structures on the labour market, have been excluded from consideration for lack of space. However, it would not be inaccurate to suggest that there is a vast area of darkness in the present state of knowledge on all these issues. The obscurity becomes even denser when "women", "industry" and "developing countries" - the three general descriptors, are fed into computers: who frequently respond with a two-word magic formula - "insufficient data". Perhaps this is a good starting point for the note.

I. Women in developing countries

1. Some estimates

According to the ILO Bureau of Statistics and Special Studies,¹ during the last quarter of a century the "active" female population of the world more than doubled, i.e. from 231 million in 1950 to 576 million in 1975. By the year 2000, there will be 800 million "women workers" in the labour force. More than half of this increase would have taken place in Asia.

¹ ILO, Labour Force Estimates and Projections, 1950-2000, Second Edition, 1977, and ILO, Womanpower, Geneva, 1975.

² The annual average growth rate of the female labour force in Asia was 2.5 per cent, 3.2 per cent in Latin America and 1.9 per cent in Africa. ILO, Women's participation: Economic activity of Asian countries and African countries, (R. Ducommun), Office for Women Workers, May and September 1978.

These estimates are illustrative and give only orders of magnitude as the definitions of "activity rates" and "labour force" need to be applied with caution as they leave out a large chunk of work done by women, the most outstanding example of which is the category defined as "unpaid family labour", most of whom are female and are counted in most censuses with varying criteria. To this category must be added a range of tasks performed by women in an agricultural setting where the distinction between farm work and house work gets blurred. There is thus urgent need to re-examine, reanalyse and recalculate women's work on the basis of new notions. The simple reason for the need to undertake this exercise is that the current concepts of "employment" and "underemployment" do not fit into the economic and social reality of developing countries and their present development plans mainly oriented towards rapid industrialisation and high rates of economic growth. Presently, what stands out in the landscape of patterns of industrialisation¹ are uncharted contours and undulating hills across different geographical regions and economic and social systems. From this haze, however, a bold outline emerges: it shows that in the modern wage sector of many developing countries with or without a large public sector, that in the organised and non-organised sectors, that in manufacturing or non-manufacturing activities - all over Asia, Africa and Latin America - women workers are squeezed into a narrow range of low-income, low-skilled and low-productivity jobs. More importantly, in any economic crisis,² man-made or natural - women are the first to be "eased out" of the labour market.² Almost everywhere, they seem to work longer hours in unsafe and hazardous conditions of work; almost everywhere more women have lower incomes, inadequate nutrition and lack the most elementary social and health facilities and amenities for child care.

Thus, women are the poorest among the poor (no matter how poverty lines are drawn); the most economically vulnerable (no matter what the nature of the crisis) and are almost always to be found lowest in the occupational ladder of most economies and the last in line as the recipients of benefits derived from modernisation and industrialisation. And all this - even when statistical adjustments have been made and variations between continents, regions and sub-regions are taken into account.

2. Redefining work³

If the official definition of "labour force" were to be employed with the existing economic and social indicators, a world profile of women reveals one-half of the world population and one-third of the official labour force. This means that by the end of the century, there will be a "modest increase" in the economic role of women in the world and only a minority of women will be integrated in economic activities. The striking feature of the existing broad classification is that women work longer hours in both types of activities and that some are defined as "economic", or "marketable" or "monetised", while others are not. But, on the other hand, if a total range of women's "actual activities" were to be taken into account, a different picture could be constructed. For example, using simplified assumptions,⁴ the table below presents the world distribution of work-hours⁵ by sex and by market and non-market activities.

¹ For analysis and classification, see K.B. Griffin and J.L. Enos, "Policies for Industrialisation" in Underdevelopment and Development (ed. H. Bernstein), Selected Readings, Penguin Books, 1976.

² For details on industrialised countries, see ILO, The Impact of the Recent Economic Slowdown on the Employment Opportunities of Women (Diane Werneke), Working Paper under the World Employment Programme Research Series, Geneva, 1977, and Women at Work, No. 1/1978.

³ This section is taken from ILO, "Women, Technology and the Development Process", a paper presented to the African Regional Meeting in Cairo, UNCSTD, 24-29 July 1976.

⁴ The assumptions are: (i) labour force: 1,050 million males and 550 million females; (ii) of which 420 million females of working age actually work, but their activities are not in the market and therefore not included in the labour force; (iii) male labour force work 50 hours per week of which 5 are non-market activities; and (iv) female labour force work 70 hours a week of which 25 are in non-market activities; and women not in the market also work for the same number of hours (70).

⁵ The current terminology in social sciences related to work reflects different concepts of reality. For this reason, here the expression "work-hours" rather than man-hours is employed.

Table 1: World distribution of work-hours by sex and coverage in the labour force (percentage distribution)

	Market	Non-market	Total
Included in labour force			
Male	66	10	44
Female	34	28	32
Not included in labour force			
Male	-	-	-
Female	-	62	24
Total	100	100	100

Source: The estimates give only order of magnitudes for illustrative purposes, ILO, Womanpower (Geneva, 1975).

Thus, it would appear that the first major problem is to redefine the parameters of "work" and what constitutes "market" and "non-market" activity. In describing women's contribution to economy, new meanings need to be given to the notions of "labour", "paid jobs", the concept of "employment" and "productivity" and ideas about "intensity" and "efficiency".

II. The assembly line

As in the labour markets of industrialised countries, so in the "modern wage sector" of the developing countries, the hierarchical distinction based on sex between "male" and "female" tasks continues to operate. However, occupational segregation appears to be caused not just by the labour market but also by the operation of tangible and intangible discrimination at all stages of their entry and exit points - above all the hierarchy - is maintained by the social infrastructure. It also appears to be strengthened by laws prohibiting employment of women in certain occupations.¹ The remarkable feature of the existing unequal division of labour is that irrespective of the economic "model" or the mode of production or the pattern of industrialisation or the stage of development "women perform the least qualified jobs which require supervision while nearly all more qualified jobs are filled by men".

¹ Throughout the world there is a wide variety of occupations which are closed to women on the grounds that these jobs are unhealthy, dangerous, arduous or immoral - and they range from operating circular saws and hoisting equipment to working in bars or gambling rooms; from all kinds of jobs underground and work on scaffolding over 10 m high to transporting or tending cattle and treating rabbit skins for fur.

The history of the last two centuries presents a wide variety of choice in the study of these models. For illustrative purposes, one may select the late nineteenth and early twentieth century British¹ or the Japanese² model after the Meiji Era or the United States³ after the Civil War, occupational segregation between men and women was an integral part of the economy and social organisation. Scientists and technologists; architects and dentists; engineers and physicians are traditionally male-dominated and represent in all countries the peak of the educational ladder. Obviously, the setting in socialist countries is very different, for example, the percentage of women scientists, physicians and engineers is very high in the USSR and Czechoslovakia. The tradition of separation of roles between men and women seems to have been preserved throughout the twentieth century and is perpetrated in the recent experiences⁴ of industrialisation, e.g. in Mexico and Guatemala, in India and Bangladesh, in Morocco and Nigeria.

But this rapid survey of models shows that lines of division between men and women in any occupational hierarchy are constantly shifting, as at various times in nineteenth century teaching, selling in retail stores and office work were each thought to be totally unsuitable for women. "Unsuitability" has been again argued as a reason for not hiring women in similar occupations in some developing countries recently. This "variability of the boundaries" between men's jobs and women's jobs is not a static concept across 200 years of industrialisation in different countries and different periods. But the phenomenon needs to be explained historically, for its consequences on women's work, the wages they receive and the "place" they occupy in society are crucial for understanding the processes of development.

1. Women's work

In the modern sector of many developing countries - a wide spectrum - the profile of a woman "wage and salary earner", reflects some distinguishing features. If the processes of industrialisation and its impact were to be explained by one single factor, that of technological change, it may be usefully noted that its influence⁵ on women's jobs over a period has been profound. Studies and reports written a decade ago and those published recently seem to point to an interesting dichotomy. While technological progress over the years has widened women's employment opportunities in the modern sector, it has simultaneously had the effect of pushing them into less mechanised, less skilled and low-wage jobs. This was recognised by the ILO Panel of Consultants on the Problem of Women Workers as early as 1959. The Panel underlined the positive features of technological developments which reduced the physical effort in a great many jobs, but also noted that wherever employment opportunities for all workers were in short supply, women workers were more likely to suffer the adverse consequences in the transitional period (italics added).

¹ I. Pinchbeck, Women Workers and the Industrial Revolution (1750-1850), London, 1969.

² S.J. Pharr, "Japan: Historical and Contemporary Perspectives" in J.B. Geile and A.C. Smock (Eds.), Women: Roles and Status in Eight Countries, New York, 1977, pp. 227-231.

³ B.M. Westheimer, We were there: the story of working women in America, New York, 1972.

⁴ Mary Elmeudorf, "Mexico: the many worlds of women", in Role and Status in Eight Countries, op. cit., pp. 145-152. N.S. Chinchilla, "Industrialisation, Monopoly, Capitalism and Women's Work in Guatemala" in Women and National Development: the Complexities of Change, the Wellesley Editorial Committee, 1977, pp. 54-56. Ester Boserup, "Women in the labour market", in Devaki Jain (Ed.) Indian Women, New Delhi, 1975. "In India and other countries of old civilisation, where specialised crafts were developed already in ancient times, it is considered normal and natural that independent business and supervision of labour is the preserve of men. But not so in countries which never developed specialised groups of craftsmen and traders and passed on directly from the stage of family production to subsistence to the purchase of imported products from foreign tradesmen", p. 108. Fatima Mernissi, "The Moslem world: women excluded from development" in Women and World Development (Eds. Irene Tinker and Michèle Bo Bramsen), pp. 38-39.

⁵ This part of the note is based on ILO, "Women, Technology and the Development Process", op. cit.

A decade later, in 1967,¹ when at the request of the UN Commission on the Status of Women, the ILO undertook a preliminary survey to analyse the impact of scientific and technological progress on the employment and conditions of work of women in selected industries, the conclusions were again similar. The analysis of various industries such as metal trades, textiles, clothing, leather and footwear, food and drink and printing and allied trades indicated that there is a consistent pattern in the employment of women. A common thread runs through each of the industries and that concerned the introduction of new machinery or equipment. It tended to displace women workers from previously held jobs to low productivity and low wage occupations. To take an example from the textile industry which is a very large employer of women in many countries, an ILO report found that when a new machine is installed, the tendency on the whole was to "substitute male workers for women workers and to keep women workers on the older and non-automatic machinery".²

More recent investigation confirms this view.³ It appears that even in newer industries such as electronics, also a large employer of women in several countries including Southern California, Norway and Singapore, the dynamics of technical change continually displace women into low-skill occupations. For example, in South Korea, the increase in unskilled female labour has been attributed to the mechanisation of production.

Based on comparative analysis of many countries on the employment of women in postal and telecommunication services, an ILO report states that rationalisation measures made possible by the introduction of new technical equipment often entail the abolition of temporary or part-time posts. Automation in telecommunications does away with operators' jobs; computers eliminate much clerical or book-keeping work. "Such posts are frequently occupied by women, it is the female staff who are the most affected by the adoption of new techniques ..."⁴

2. Women's wages

The principle of equal pay *itself* has been pursued for many years; adopted in some constitutions and incorporated in national legislation in many countries. Since 1951 over 90 countries have ratified the ILO⁵ Convention on Equality of Remuneration (No. 100). But the qualifying clauses in national legislation⁶ which make it a precondition that work be of "equal value", or "similar" has raised a host of problems of interpretation and application.

¹ ECOSOC, Commission on the Status of Women, Economic Rights and Opportunities for Women, report prepared by the ILO, 6 December 1967 (E/CN.6/500).

² The ILO studies generally refer to industrialised countries and the research on the impact of technological change in developing countries still needs to be analysed.

³ ILO Report, op. cit. pp. 10 and 13; and ILO, The Effects of Structural and Technological Changes on Industry, Geneva, 1968, General Report and Training Requirements in the Textile Industry in the Light of Changes in the Occupational Structure, Tenth Session, Geneva, 1978. Effects of Technological Changes on Conditions of Work and Employment in Postal and Telecommunication Services, Joint Meeting on Conditions of Work and Employment in Postal and Telecommunication Services, Geneva, 1977.

⁴ ILO, Report on Employment in Postal and Telecommunications Services, op. cit., p. 25. Also report by the US Department of Labor suggests that with the over-all expansion of computerisation one large group of women clerical workers, telephone operators had been greatly affected by the installation of direct dialling ... in factories mechanisation has caused virtual elimination of some of the unskilled manual jobs performed by women. US, Women's Bureau, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, Automation and Women Workers, Washington, 1970.

⁵ Also see other related ILO Conventions and Recommendations, such as Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) (No. 111) of 1958 and Human Resources Development Recommendation (No. 150) of 1975.

⁶ For example, see the Equal Remuneration Act, 1976 (No. 25), India and the Employment (Equal Pay for Men and Women) Act, No. 34 of 1975, Jamaica.

Apart from these legal complexities, the current economic analyses do not show the direct linkage between inequitable occupational distribution and pay differentials between men and women. What is evident, however, is that women workers in almost all jobs in traditional and modern sectors (intra-industry or intra-enterprise) are linked to low wages in the production process. The causes for inequality in wages seem to spill over from the economic sphere to institutional structures and social policies.¹ Unequal wages have been mainly reported in the organised sector, but not much is known about the informal sector where a large number of women work on a monetised basis. Essentially, the lesson to be learned from a survey of existing "pay differentials" is that as yet adequate institutions have not been established which would allow women access to the full value of their labour.²

The International Labour Office inquiry of October 1976, the results of which have been published,³ throws some light on the national situation in respect of six occupations,⁴ in more than 50 countries. The information available as to the gap between women's and men's earnings in these six occupations, although not always comparable,⁵ shows that equal remuneration has not become a reality in many countries, as may be seen from the examples given in the table below.

¹ See F.D. Blau and Carol L. Jusenius, "Economist Approaches to Sex Segregation in the Labour Market: An Appraisal" in Women and the Workplace: the Implications of Occupational Segregation (ed. M. Blaxall and B. Reagan), the University of Chicago Press, 1976, pp. 181-199.

² UNRISD, Monitoring Changes in the Conditions of Women: A Critical Review of Possible Approaches (U. Van Buchwald and Ingrid Palmer), Geneva, 1978. Restricted.

³ For details, see ILO Bulletin of Labour Statistics, 2nd Quarter 1977, pp. 111-145. Also ILO, Women at Work, No. 3/1977.

⁴ These occupations are as follows: weavers, sewing-machine operators, machine-sewing bookbinders, laboratory assistants, sales persons and accounting machine operators. They are the only occupations for which the ILO October inquiry compiled information on earnings by sex.

⁵ The comparability of the data is limited by the fact that the information is not compiled everywhere using identical definitions and methods and that it may be affected by differences in the breakdown by age, length of service or size of establishment.

Table 2: Disparity between men's and women's earnings in selected occupations (October 1976)¹

Type of remuneration, occupation and country	Currency unit	Earnings		Disparity %
		Males	Females	
HOURLY WAGES				
Spinners (textile manufacture)				
Czechoslovakia	Korunas	12.60	11.10	11.9
Germany (Fed. Rep. of)	Mark	10.12	8.72	13.8
Morocco	Dirhams	1.74	1.50	13.8
Singapore ²	Dollars	0.98	0.76	22.4
Venezuela	Bolivares	26.12	19.00	27.3
Sewing-machine operators ³				
Algeria	Dinars	3.89	3.77	3.1
New Zealand	Cents	223.40	199.80	10.6
Pakistan	Rupees	3.25	3.00	7.7
Portugal	Escudos	26.48	19.30	27.1
Switzerland	Francs	9.33	8.50	8.9
Machine-sewing bookbinders				
Australia (Sydney)	Cents	334.75	284.00	15.2
Canada (Montreal)	Dollars	6.85	4.17	39.1
Hong Kong	Dollars	3.42	2.98	12.9
Hungary	Forints	19.41	15.25	21.4
Sweden (Stockholm)	Kronor	27.92	26.22	6.1
MONTHLY SALARIES				
Laboratory assistants ⁴				
Norway ⁵	Kroner	5 602	4 701	16.1
Peru (Lima)	Soles	9 400	8 800	6.4
Venezuela	Bolivares	1 078	910	15.6
Sales persons (retail grocery)				
Honduras	Lempiras	268.75	189.71	29.4
Ireland (Dublin)	Pounds	204.84	166.92	18.5
Mali	Francs	32 480	29 280	9.9
Mauritius ⁶	Rupees	525	415	31.0
Accounting machine operators (banks)				
Finland	Markaa	2 369	2 143	9.9
Haiti	Gourdes	1 000	750	25.0
Malaysia (Sarawak)	Ringgits	489.51	409.42	16.4
New Zealand	Dollars	428.26	417.95	2.4

¹ Percentage by which women's earnings are lower than men's.

² June 1976.

³ Employed in the manufacture of men's cotton shirts.

⁴ Working in the manufacture of chemicals.

⁵ September 1976.

⁶ Statutory minimum after five years' service.

Source: "Results of the ILO 1976 October Inquiry", Bulletin of Labour Statistics, Geneva, 2nd Quarter 1977.

Six occupations out of hundreds - that is not much of a basis on which to draw conclusions, but these are the only ones for which data are available. Another selection might give a different picture. Much progress still needs to be made to analyse the gap between the remuneration of women and of men for work of equal value.

3. Women's workplace

It has often been suggested that the world of work, particularly its institutions, are mainly geared towards male jobs and that participation of women in all sectors of the economy has not yet brought about the desired changes necessary to support such a large number of women workers. Much of the discussion on this has been recently devoted to reconcile the irreconcilable - to find ways to enable women "to fulfil" their responsibilities at home and at work. The diversity and complexity of the subject is immense and yet the premise on which current analysis is based emanates from social mythology and not economic facts. Should women go out to work and contribute to the material well-being of the family and to the country's economy or should they stay at home? The question is posed in mutually exclusive terms on the hypothesis that such choices are clearly given in an economy to women. In developing countries irrespective of the recognition awarded to women about their work, they continue to perform a vast range of jobs from sheer economic necessity. It may be that in the case of a very small percentage of women their participation in productive activities is highly conditioned by their multiple role in the family. But the extent and degree of this conditioning has not yet been established by empiric evidence.

According to an ILO survey on employment of women with family responsibilities,¹ the problems of working women "can only be handled effectively in the context of a broad approach to the problem of women in general ..." and "that the implementation of a policy to help women carrying the dual responsibilities of work and family is most successful when women account for a large proportion of the labour force and when there are conditions of full employment, when the social infrastructure is well developed ..." The conclusions of the world-wide survey indicate that social facilities and services for working women even in industrialised countries - though improving - are still not adequate to meet the needs of a large number of women who have either entered or stayed in the labour force.

Recognising the fact that social services for women workers are urgently required in developing countries, the ILO survey also indicates "that the basic needs in these countries are often so serious that any measures taken for women workers tend to be purely protective and concentrate on the more general aspects of their conditions of work and life".²

In the urban wage sector, these "protective measures" have followed the "unquestioned transfer" of norms and beliefs from the developed to the developing world. Thus, social legislation has focussed on barring women from certain occupations as in underground mines and/or prohibiting night work, irrespective of the social conditions that may or may not support this legal prohibition. What began as a "protective measure" becomes a constraint on employment opportunities and acts as discriminatory in the labour market. In this area, some interesting contradictions between legal niceties and economic reality have begun: on one extreme are some countries, such as Chile, which has recently abolished the prohibition on night work for women, while on the other extreme are some developing countries which have not yet ratified ILO standards which would introduce social legislation to protect women against dismissal in the event of pregnancy or maternity.

III. "Development" as if women mattered

(a) Some conclusions

It need not be reiterated that the questions raised at the outset of this note form part of the current debate in the UN system and outside and are directly relevant to the broader issues of economic structures and the state of the world economy.

¹ ILO, General Survey by the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations, Geneva 1978, p. 50.

² *ibid.*, p. 50.

The role of women in industry in developing countries cannot be set apart from the concerns of the new international economic order or the global strategies for the satisfaction of basic needs. At the same time, the international community and the national planners have not yet admitted into their consciousness the significant fact that any analysis of industrialisation or modes of production or rates of economic growth or equitable distribution among nations and within economies must include a recognition of women's contribution and participation, if the development effort is to be viewed in its totality. Development efforts could be addressed to the entire community, to the needs of both men and women, once it is realised that women's contribution to any economy influences its direction and determines its orientation. The negative or the adverse consequences of omitting women from fully participating in industrial activities and being the beneficiaries of technical and scientific progress have not yet been studied. The success or failure of any policy in such diverse areas as science and technology, education, and nutrition, food processing and distribution, could very largely depend on the extent and degree to which women are involved, neglected or forgotten.

(b) Some areas of collaboration between ILO and UNIDO

The brief analysis of the present status of women in industry indicates that there are various constraints inherent in the employment structures of the developing countries. In the first instance, the following areas could be selected for analysis:

- case studies of urban labour markets and employment of women;
- comparative analysis of industries employing women and wages;
- factors affecting inequitable occupational distribution between men and women within an economy;
- the impact of technological change on the employment of women by industry,¹ e.g. textiles, electronics, food and drinks;
- policy measures to upgrade women's skills, specially in scientific and technological areas; and
- strengthening programmes of national institutions training women in managerial, administrative and technical jobs.

PART B: ILO ACTIVITIES

I. ILO standards concerning women workers

1. List of Conventions and Recommendations

Non-discrimination against women in employment and occupation

Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111) and Recommendation (No. 111), 1958.

Employment Policy Convention (No. 122) and Recommendation (No. 122), 1964.

Human Resources Development Recommendation, 1975 (No. 150).

Special Youth Schemes Recommendation, 1970 (No. 136).

Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention, 1962 (No. 117).

¹ For example see ILO, "Resolution concerning employment of women" adopted by the Second Tripartite Technical Meeting for Food Products and Drink Industries (Geneva), October 1978.

Equal remuneration for work of equal value

Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100) and Recommendation (No. 90), 1951.
Plantations Recommendation, 1958 (No. 110).
Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention, 1962 (No. 117).

Maternity protection

Maternity Protection Convention, 1919 (No. 3)
Maternity Protection Convention (Revised) (No. 103) and Recommendation
(No. 95), 1952.
Plantations Convention, 1958 (No. 110).

Social security

Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102).

Night work

Night Work (Women) Convention, 1919 (No. 4)
Night Work (Women) Convention (Revised), 1934 (No. 41).
Night Work (Women) Convention (Revised), 1948 (No. 89).

Unhealthy or arduous employment

Underground Work (Women) Convention, 1935 (No. 45).
White Lead (Painting) Convention, 1921 (No. 13).
Lead Poisoning (Women and Children) Recommendation, 1919 (No. 4).
Radiation Protection Recommendation, 1960 (No. 114).
Benzene Convention (No. 136) and Recommendation (No. 144), 1971.
Maximum Weight Convention (No. 127) and Recommendation (No. 128), 1967.

Welfare

Welfare Facilities Recommendation, 1956 (No. 102).

Employment of women with family responsibilities

Employment (Women with Family Responsibilities) Recommendation, 1965 (No. 123).

Declarations and Resolutions

Declaration on Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers, 1975.
Resolution concerning a Plan of Action with a View to Promoting Equality of
Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers, 1975.
Resolution concerning Equal Status and Equal Opportunity for Women and Men in
Occupations and Employment, 1975.

2. Regular supervision of standards

In so far as the Conventions relating to women's work have been ratified by member States, it is a regular ongoing task to examine governments' reports on these Conventions and to identify fields in which they are not applied. The following areas are directly relevant to women workers:

(i) Discrimination

Convention No. 111 provides for a national policy designed to promote equal opportunity in employment and occupation with a view to eliminating discrimination on the basis of a number of criteria, including sex.

The Employment Policy Convention No. 122 also has provisions relating to equal opportunity in employment irrespective of sex.

(ii) Equal remuneration

Convention No. 100 provides for promotion and application of the principle of equal remuneration of men and women workers for work of equal value.

(iii) Night work

Conventions Nos. 4, 41 and 89 provide for the prohibition of night work by women in industry with certain possible exceptions which vary in each Convention.

(iv) Dangerous or unhealthy occupations

Convention No. 45 prohibits work underground in mines by women. The White Lead (Painting) Convention, 1921 (No. 13) prohibits the employment of women in painting work of an industrial character involving the use of white lead. The Maximum Weight Convention, 1967 (No. 127) requires that assignment of women to the manual transport of loads shall be limited. The Benzene Convention, 1971 (No. 136) prohibits the employment of pregnant and nursing women in work involving exposure to benzene.

(v) Maternity protection

Conventions Nos. 3 and 103, together with the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102) provide for maternity leave, maternity benefits in the form of cash and medical care and protection against dismissal during maternity leave.

(vi) Social security

In addition to maternity benefit as referred to above, Convention No. 102 provides for the grant of such social security benefits as medical care, sickness, employment injury (industrial accidents and occupational diseases), unemployment, invalidity, old-age, survivors' and family benefits. The requirements under the Convention are equally applicable to women workers. Similarly, recent social security Conventions Nos. 121, 128 and 130 set up advanced standards of employment injury benefits, invalidity, old-age and survivors' benefits, and medical care and sickness benefits respectively. These standards are also applied irrespective of sex.

3. Studying existing standards

In accordance with the 1975 resolutions that "thorough and sufficiently extensive studies on matters relating to special protection for women and men, as the case may be", the ILO has undertaken a study on the various types of special protective measures for women and their adequacy in the light of present circumstances and conceptions regarding the need for protection and for equal treatment of workers of both sexes.

The ILO is also studying the need for a new international instrument concerning equal opportunities and equal treatment for women and men in occupation and employment with a view to supplementing the provisions of the Equal Pay Convention, 1951 (No. 100) and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111).

A general survey, under article 19 of the ILO Constitution, of the application of Recommendation No. 123 (1965) on the Employment of Women with Family Responsibilities was published in 1978.¹ In the light of its findings, it may be decided to place the question of workers with family responsibilities on the agenda of the Conference with a view to the adoption of a new instrument.

A special study on night work and its effects on the health and welfare of the worker was also published by the ILO.² The study came to the conclusion that "night work is medically harmful and raises some contrasting social issues ...". In the case of women, the study said that "... night work is expected to aggravate the disturbances mentioned above, not by lesser biological and psychological aptitudes for night work, but by the social usages". At the same time it was also mentioned that "the present regulations governing night work result in discrimination between men and women in their choice of employment and in the development of their working life".

II. Technical co-operation activities

1. Major emphasis

The major fields of ILO technical co-operation activities for women include vocational training, promotion of employment opportunities, development of co-operatives and rural development. Various ongoing projects seek not only to teach technical skills but also to draw conclusions from practical experience which can be used by other countries. The aim is to advise and assist the member States to assess training needs and employment opportunities for women, to plan, organise, implement and evaluate training programmes for them. Particular attention is paid to the needs of underprivileged women, particularly those in the low-income bracket in rural and urban areas, and those who are the primary earners.

2. Selected examples

Examples of ILO activities include technical co-operation projects launched in the Congo (promotion of women and the family in the regions of Pool and the Koukouya Plateau), Fiji (vocational training for women), Ghana (training for women) and Lesotho (development of handicrafts co-operatives in which almost all workers are women). In India a large-scale vocational training programme for women financed by the Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA) launched in co-operation with the Government of India in 1976. During the first phase three training centres - the main centre in New Delhi and two regional centres in Bombay and Bangalore - have been opened. During the second phase it is planned to establish four additional centres in other parts of the country.

III. Selected research and studies related to women in industry (1978-1979)

(a) Ongoing projects

- Strengthening social infrastructure in developing countries: monographs on conditions of life and work including child-care facilities, working hours and opening hours of shops, etc.
- Selected issues related to employment and basic needs: studies on women's participation in wage labour (agricultural and non-agricultural) and the impact of working mothers' participation in productive activities.

(b) Studies (published 1977-1978)

- Night Work: Its Effects on the Health and Welfare of the Worker, 1972.
- Employment of Women with Family Responsibilities. General Survey of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations, 1978.

¹ ILO: Employment of Women with Family Responsibilities. General Survey of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations, Geneva, 1978.

² ILO: Night Work: Its Effects on the Health and Welfare of the Worker, Geneva, 1977.

- Women's Participation in the Economic Activity of Asian Countries (Statistical Analysis), May 1978, (mimeo.).
- Women's Participation in the Economic Activity of African Countries (Statistical Analysis), September 1978, (mimeo.).
- Labour participation and remuneration of women in Latin America, the USA and Canada, March 1978.
- Female employment: Some factors affecting women's participation in differentiated labour markets, April 1977.

(c) Planned (1980-1981)

General - Employment and unemployment and wage data by sex.

- Study on the training of women in metal trades.
- Study on industrial relations problems of low-paid workers.
- Study on income-generating skills in selected countries of Africa and the Middle East.

(i) Asia

Case studies of trends in women's employment in South and South-East Asia, industry-wise, with reference to their implications for:

- technological displacement in agriculture and small-scale industries;
- wage structures for male and female labour;
- levels of living of low-income groups.

(ii) Latin America

Several studies are planned in which the emphasis would be on factors affecting women's participation in the labour markets of the countries of the region.

IV. Data on labour force participation

1. Working women: 1965, 1975, 1985 and 2000
(in millions)

Major area or region	Labour force			
	1965	1975	1985	2000
<u>WORLD</u>	<u>485.2</u>	<u>575.7</u>	<u>676.5</u>	<u>877.8</u>
More developed regions	180.2	206.7	229.9	260.3
Less developed regions	305.0	369.0	446.6	617.5
<u>AFRICA</u>	<u>39.9</u>	<u>49.4</u>	<u>61.3</u>	<u>90.2</u>
Eastern Africa	13.9	17.1	21.2	30.5
Middle Africa	6.0	7.1	8.4	11.6
Northern Africa	1.7	2.4	3.5	6.2
Southern Africa	2.4	3.7	4.9	8.0
Western Africa	15.9	19.1	23.4	33.8
<u>LATIN AMERICA</u>	<u>16.0</u>	<u>22.8</u>	<u>32.6</u>	<u>56.7</u>
Caribbean	2.3	2.7	3.4	4.9
Middle America	2.7	4.2	6.5	12.8
Temperate South America	2.9	3.6	4.5	5.8
Tropical South America	8.2	12.3	18.2	33.2
<u>NORTH AMERICA</u>	<u>29.8</u>	<u>39.0</u>	<u>46.0</u>	<u>56.1</u>
<u>EAST ASIA</u>	<u>153.7</u>	<u>179.5</u>	<u>206.7</u>	<u>256.5</u>
China	128.7	148.6	170.1	211.0
Japan	19.1	22.7	25.9	30.3
Other East Asia	5.9	8.2	10.7	15.2
<u>SOUTH ASIA</u>	<u>116.9</u>	<u>142.9</u>	<u>175.5</u>	<u>248.9</u>
Eastern South Asia	37.2	45.3	55.9	78.5
Middle South Asia	73.3	90.0	109.9	155.8
Western South Asia	6.5	7.6	9.6	14.6
<u>EUROPE</u>	<u>68.3</u>	<u>76.1</u>	<u>84.1</u>	<u>93.2</u>
Eastern Europe	22.2	25.3	27.4	30.1
Northern Europe	12.1	13.5	14.8	16.8
Southern Europe	13.0	14.4	16.2	18.4
Western Europe	21.0	22.9	25.7	28.0
<u>OCEANIA</u>	<u>2.2</u>	<u>2.9</u>	<u>3.6</u>	<u>4.9</u>
Australia and New Zealand	1.6	2.2	2.7	3.6
Melanesia	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.0
Micronesia and Polynesia	0.05	0.08	0.1	0.2
<u>USSR</u>	<u>58.5</u>	<u>63.1</u>	<u>66.7</u>	<u>71.3</u>

Source: ILO: Labour Force Estimates and Projections, 1950-2000 (Geneva, 1977).

2. Married women aged 15 and over
in selected countries

	Percentage of women in total labour force		Percentage of married women among active women
	All women	Married women	
Argentina	25	9	36
Chile	23	7	30
France	35	12	34
Great Britain	36	22	61
Hong Kong	35	15	43
Hungary	41	28	68
Ireland	26	4	15
Mexico	20	7	35
Morocco	14	6	43
Singapore	26	7	27
Sweden	35	20	57
Switzerland	34	15	44
United States	37	21	57

Source: ILO: Womanpower: the world's female labour force in 1975 and the outlook for 2000 (Geneva, 1975).



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Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing
Countries

Vienna, Austria, 6 - 10 November 1978

THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Country paper on Tanzania *

prepared by

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1. Potential role of women in national and international policies on Industrialization:

The role played by women in a country has been recognized as an important part in achieving a balanced political and socio-economic development. Most countries have achieved notable success during the last decade or two in integrating women in the process of industrialization which makes a major contribution to their national income growth and creates substantial employment opportunities for their growing population. However, the degree of involvement of women in this industrial development has varied from one country to another depending on the stage of development and socio-political set-up of each country.

In many developing countries, including Tanzania, full participation of women in socio-economic activities has been impeded by traditions, customs and the colonial lopsided education system which favoured men, and lack of proper organization among women folk. In Tanzania, since Independence in 1961, the government has been aware of these existing deficiencies in the society and concerted efforts have been made to change education system to provide equal chances to both sexes and to expand the existing educational facilities. The aim of such policy is to train women and men in managerial and technical fields and to upgrade their entrepreneurial skills required in the management of the industrial sector. Through provision of such common educational facilities, traditions among women have been undermined and the psychological barriers reduced. Thus, today, women are not only giving up their traditions and taboos and attending educational institutions in large numbers, but have also gained considerable influence within the society on national and international policies and issues.

Through the Jumuiya ya Wanawake wa Tanzania (Tanzanian Women Organization), women involvement in public affairs has been made more effective and enhanced. This community provides a forum where as a united group, women are able to participate fully in the national policy formulation, as well as in social cultural and economic affairs.

(a) Policy & Planning (Industrialization):

Women have equal rights in participation in industrial policy making and planning. The Tanzanian national policy spells out among other things equality in economic activities and equal participation in decision making.

The national planning mechanism starts from the village, district, regional and national levels. Women participate in these levels so long as they are members of the Planning Committee or groups. In Tanzania, women are members in each of these tiers. At the district level there are women Members of Parliament, District Planning Officers, Area Commissioners, District Development Directors, and Party Officials who all participate in planning and policy making for the District and the nation as a whole. In the Parliament, there are women Members and Ministers who are automatically Members of the National Planning Committee.

(b) Restructuring of Industries:

In the past, industries were in the hands of foreigners for historical reasons. Soon after independence, guidelines were given by the governing party to involve nationals (of all sexes) to use local resources and upgrade the traditional skills through retraining and orientation into better skills. Technical education was introduced to impart special skills to enhance local participation in industry. This way, industry was restructured from foreign to local control.

Government deliberate policy enacted the Small Industry Act in December, 1973 to restructure the industry sector for the purpose of promoting small scale industries through training, marketing, consultancy services, etc. The Organization does not own but promotes small scale industries by stressing the need to help the less privileged areas and groups so as to arrive at equitable participation and distribution in industrial production.

The restructuring of industry has been speeded up through the following measures:-

- (i) The Central Government has special programmes for industrialization financed through national budgets, and international financing institutions or through voluntary and bilateral assistance.
- (ii) Individuals are also given a role to play in the development of industries.
- (iii) In the structuring of the industrial set up, Tanzanian women have been involved right from the beginning in accordance with Party guidelines. At the moment, a large number of workers in public and private industry including small scale industries, are women.

Many units are managed and owned by women throughout the country. They are also involved in Management, promotion, training, etc. in industry as a whole.

(c) Management, Training and Entrepreneurship Development:

In all, women have equal chances in training in national management institutions and universities, etc.

As members of Planning Committees and decision makers in the Organization/Ministry involved in industrial development, women participate fully towards the evolution of policies in industrial management, industrial training and entrepreneurship development. The small industry promotion officer (SIPO) is involved in entrepreneurial development policy in which the speaker is one.

(d) Technology Development:

In Tanzania various measures are being taken to develop and impart technical knowledge to both sexes. Among the most important measures taken are as follows:-

- (i) Technical training centres have been established by Government Ministries, Parastatals and voluntary agencies to train in specific skills for specified periods. Such centres accommodate both sexes.
- (ii) Through study tours, seminars, conferences in and outside the country for the purpose of exchanging and sharing different experiences.
- (iii) Technology is also transferred through on-the-job training.

(e) Rural Industrial Development:

About 94% of the national population lives in rural areas and 6% is urbanized. The main stay being agriculture, there is need to diversify the economy by establishing agro-based industries in the rural areas where the raw materials are available. This move provides alternative employment to people as well as servicing a large sector of the national market. Infrastructure facilities are being improved to industrialize the rural areas.

The Tanzania national plan emphasizes the necessity to distribute industries to rural areas as against the past tendency of concentrating in main towns only. Such measures will not only spread industrial development throughout the country but will reduce the influx of people into towns.

2. Current Contribution of Women to Industrial Development:

(a) Degree of Participation

As mentioned above, women participate in the planning right from the village level to the international industrial forums. Despite the few numbers relative to men, we have women industry promoters, economists and industrial planners, budgeting and programming project officers and entrepreneurs. In all these activities women are put on the same footing and are as competitive as their men folk.

(b) Women Capability to Organize into effective groupings

As mentioned earlier, Tanzania women are given their own forum through the National Women Organization which assists in mobilizing women to form various industrial productive groups. In this case, women have established coherent small scale industrial groups such as weaving, soap making, tailoring, pottery, handicrafts and so forth.

3. Measures to Strengthen Contribution of Women in Industrial Development:

(a) Effective Women's Grouping and its Coordination

This is being done through identifying their current problems. In most cases, the major problems are lack of financial resources to enable them to establish new units and to expand existing enterprises. Effective women's groupings are also being established and given necessary support in project appraisal, provision of raw materials, marketing, upgrading of skills, and by introducing them to financial institutions. The Tanzania government and a few international organizations have plans to support industrial groups through various means. However, the role of industrialization in Tanzania is the concern of both the ruling Party and Government leaders. Therefore, there are coordinated efforts to increase more women groupings in the country.

(b) Measure to Upgrade the Managerial/Technical Knowledge and Skills of Women

As a preliminary measure to upgrade the Managerial/Technical skills, the government has established post-primary technical education schools for both sexes. The university of Dar es Salaam imparting further technical skills in its liberal arts, science, engineering curriculae which is a good basis for teaching other technical personnel in industry.

Management training in such fields as business administration, project supervision, accounting, personnel management and marketing management are given in established local institutions. Also foreign scholarship facilities in Managerial and Technical fields, etc. are welcomed.

(c) Measures to Increase the Consciousness of the Top Management in the Industrial Activities where there is presently Greater Potential for Participation of Women:

The greatest potential for women in industrial development is in industries dealing in food, clothing and health. The top Management in industrial planning recognize the potentialities and give priority to women industrial groups in considering licensing, employment, promotional efforts, training through workers education programmes and improved working conditions. These measures have given courage to women and have led to further development of potential skills in women groupings.

4. Measures to be taken by UNIDO to strengthen Contribution of Women in Industrial Development:

The measures taken by the Tanzania Government and her national Parastatal (SIDO) as enumerated above are encouraging. These measures could be enhanced through international support.

It is therefore proposed that UNIDO should establish a special fund for the fuller involvement of women in economic activities. Specifically the fund would be used for training women in specific production and managerial skills to enable them to establish small businesses. The fund would also be used to purchase machinery and equipment where necessary which could be loaned to groups of women. The purchase of initial raw materials alongside such equipment would be necessary. The Organization of workshops and seminars for women to create awareness of such opportunities and to review problems and prospects would also be necessary. UNIDO would need to identify suitable local organizations in each country for implementing such a programme.



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ROLE OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIALIZATION
- THE TURKISH CASE - *

prepared by

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Potential Role of Turkish Women in National and
International Policies on Industrialization:

In focusing on the potential role of women in policies on industrialization two rather separate groups of women need to be considered: those currently employed in industry and those "opinion leaders" outside it indulged either in their individual capacity and / or as members of various women's associations.

The former group of women have little direct role in effecting policies on industrialization in planning, restructuring, management, technology development or rural industrialization. Rather, it is the latter group of women who act on behalf of the former to influence the public opinion as an input to the formulation of such policies. It needs to be pointed out, however, that even the elite women manifest little solidary action and / or effectiveness in influencing policies -directly or indirectly. Whatever has been achieved for the working women is a product of legislation designed by men for the working populations as a whole.

Specifically, either type of women's role in policy, planning, management and technology development in industry is, to say the least, negligible. Women do not occupy positions either within the industry or in the relevant bureaucratic/political areas to be able to have any impact on the policy and planning for industrial development in the country. This holds true for the policy issues concerning the working conditions of women in industry.

However, a slightly more optimistic statement may be made concerning the restructuring question. Recently, the Turkish academics and some segments of the political apparatus have been showing great interest in implementing a participatory mode of management. Naturally, the state enterprises constitute the first area of trial. An informal ministerial announcement has already been made to start participatory management in a state enterprise employing women exclusively. The radical union seem no longer to be categorically against the application of such a model. Should such a step be taken, the very choice of an industry employing women might enable them to be the first implementors of a new form of industrial democracy in the country. Should they, or the supporting institutions give a chance to some women to acquire management and training skills during this process, such skills, in return could give these women an opportunity to act as trainers and advisors to labor in other industries set apart for restructuring.

Another optimistic statement relates to rural industries provided that more than a locational reference is made with the term. Still negligible steps are taken in "industrializing" certain types of rural production (e.g. poultry) or of handcrafts (e.g. rug-weaving); women's labor concentrates on these small scale industries. One observes a rapid growth of demand for more such job opportunities. However, the labor productivity in these "industries" is very low and the prospects such enterprises offer in contributing in any meaningful way to the overall development process is doubtful.

The great majority of women in the work force are employed in agricultural activities (88%) and only 4% of women are in industry. Those in industry work primarily in textiles, tobacco and food processing and packing industries, mainly in unskilled capacity with low wages and little security. Those employed outside the industry are also heavily concentrated in selected types of jobs: low level clerical jobs in the banks and government, and in education. Indeed, presently employment in banking and in teaching account for 70% of women's employment outside the agricultural and industrial sectors.

Although there are some women at the higher levels of the bureaucracy and of the political parties, in comparative figures the result is dramatic: over the past 40 years not even 2 out of each 100 deputies or senators have been women. Moreover, granted

that it is more difficult for women to get elected, it is hard to explain why, at the same time, only 2.6 % of the parliamentary candidates were women. This representation problem is also apparent in the bureaucracy, in the universities, schools and other institutions employing women. For instance, there are many women academicians; but rarely a woman occupies the position of a dean or a president.

Presently, there are only a number of voluntary women's associations dealing with the problem. These associations have little "pressure group" power and their membership is restricted primarily to upper and upper middle class women of or near the retirement age. One exception to this is an association related to one of the unions; but their activities have also had little impact.

At the legislative level there is hardly any measure which needs to be taken in securing an equal place for women in society and in industry. The major constraints against women's active participation in industry are, on the one hand, the lack of organization and of educational and vocational training opportunities for women, and on the other hand, the societal values hindering women's active use of the existing opportunities. Perhaps government's greater emphasis on families' adherence to obligatory attendance of girls at primary school might be a measure to be taken. Another, and even more important, measure is the reorganization of the educational system so as to match jobs with skills.

A series of specific programs can be developed at the national level, with the assistance of UNIDO and in collaboration with other developing countries. In Turkey the first step should be a "fact-finding" stage concerning the current status and problems of women in industry and the potential new vacancy areas towards which women can be trained. Possibly, basic research data are also unavailable in other developing countries; in that case there is great advantage in conducting such research under UNIDO's coordination. Secondly, immediate policies need to be designed towards a projected demand for female labor. The educational system needs then to be redesigned to supply women with appropriate skills to enter the market competitively. An open system of vocational training which would permit women with literacy skills to acquire training might be a promising idea for UNIDO research. Measures need also be devised to motivate and train women for more effective union participation.



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THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN THAILAND *

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I. INTRODUCTION

Women make up approximately half of the total population of Thailand. The majority of the population engage in agricultural production. Approximately 12 per cent of the total population are employed female workers compared to 20 per cent of employed male workers (see Table 1).

The limited information available for use in the preparation of the present paper concerns mainly the role of women in national development in general. Specific information on the role of women in industrialization, if any, is not available. Being agricultural country, the studies undertaken about Thailand have almost always been in the agricultural sector. However, it is hoped that the present paper provides adequate information to indicate the relative magnitude of women's participation in industrialization in Thailand.

II. CURRENT CONTRIBUTION OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

(a) The role of women in industrial development in Thailand.

Traditionally, women's role in development has always been in their contribution to the support of communities based on family production for subsistence. For Thailand agriculture is mainly a subsistence activity. The majority of the country's labour force, regardless of sex, is in the agricultural sector (see Table 1 & 2). Although the female population in the total labour force is considerably less than the male population (see Table 1), it is believed that, in many cases, women's total input is greater.

In Thailand, women began to take part in specialized production of goods and services at a relatively early stage of industrial development. In addition to participation in the development as wage and salary earners, women are, in many cases, small-scale producers and traders on their own account (see Table 3). Like in many other developing countries, women's participation in industrialization is high in small-scale home industries where it is possible to combine domestic duties and child care with professional non-domestic work. Important home industries which Thai women engage in are sewing, weaving, cooking, artificial flower making, etc. while important mechanized large-scale industries are textile industries and food processing.

(b) Institutional infrastructure and organizations.

One of the non-economic factors which is important for economic growth and development is the organization and improvement of public or private, governmental or non-governmental institutions which perform the duty of solving socio-economical problems. The Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board, which is the main national planning agency, has established the Social Project Division for such purposes. Included in the present Fourth National Economic and Social Development Plan (1977-1981) are statements on policy and planning with regard to the status of women and their role in national development.

Other major institutional infrastructure and governmental organizations dealing with social research and/or development include:

- o The National Research Council's Social Research Division
- o Thailand Information Center, Chulalongkorn University (specializing in social sciences)

- o The Applied Scientific Research Corporation of Thailand (areas of specialization include socio-economic studies and industrial research and development)

Among the several non-governmental organizations active in this field are the following :

- o The National Council of Women of Thailand
- o Business and Professional Women Association
- o Girl Guide Association of Thailand
- o University Women Association of Thailand

Moreover, it should be mentioned that Her Majesty the Queen of Thailand has long been recognized as the leading figure in the promotion of women's participation in national development, particularly in rural industrial development.

Finally, it should be emphasized that one of the significant factors contributing to the success of the several industrial development projects carried out by women in Thailand is the cooperation and coordination between and among these organizations including particularly women organizations.

One specific example was the joint activity carried out by the National Council of Women of Thailand, the University Women Association and the Applied Scientific Research Corporation of Thailand, under the assistance of the Denver Research Institute of the United States of America. A one-week workshop was held to explore ways and means to effectively combine the research and development capability with the women organizations' ability, as effective transfer agents of new technology, for rural development.

III. MEASURES TO STRENGTHEN CONTRIBUTION OF WOMEN TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

(a) National policy and planning

Following are excerpts from the present Fourth National Economic and Social Development Plan (1977-1981) which will provide some indications as to the Government's policy and guidelines on the role of women in national development:

- o "... The status of women and youth will be strengthened so that they can play a more important role in national development".
- o "... In order to encourage women participation in the social and economic development process to the fullest extent, it is necessary to upgrade women skills and their status in society."

Measures and guidelines in the area of education, occupational promotion, revision and modification of certain laws are also provided. For implementation purposes, the Committee on Women and Child Development has been established to formulate the plan of action.

(b) Major constraints in achieving effective participation by women in industrialization.

1. At present, there is only a limited degree of participation by women in the formulation of policy and plan specifically for industrialization. If those policy and plans are going to be effective and successful, then women should actively participate in their formulation as well as in their execution.

2. Although legal discrimination is no longer the main obstacle to improvement in women's participation in industrialization, the traditional attitude concerning women's role in non-domestic areas of development still is. As a

result, men are in practice often given preference in employment, particularly in industry, over women.

3. Women in general are less qualified, educational and otherwise, than men in modern industrial sector employment. This is because, presumably, of the wide gap of literacy between male and female population (see Table 4). Consequently, very limited number of women are employed or able to rise to high-level positions (see Table 5).

4. Because of the widening gap of basic industry-supporting facilities such as water supply, electricity, communication and transportation, between rural and urban areas, the rural people are migrating into big cities looking for employment in industry. Often women are left behind in the village to care for the children and attend to domestic or their home industrial work.

IV. POTENTIAL ROLE OF WOMEN IN NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL POLICIES ON INDUSTRIALIZATION

(a) Policy and planning

In view of the policy stated in the present Fourth National Economic and Social Development Plan, giving equal chances for promotion in the government service, opportunities exist for more and significant member of female staff in key positions, including those concerned with policy and plan formulation. In fact, the present heads of Social Project Division and Technology and Environment Planning Division of the National Economic and Social Development Board are both female. As stated earlier, women's participation is necessary in the formulation as well as in the implementation of policy and plan.

There is, in general, a need to increase women's role in all areas of development planning and implementation at all levels of management and administration, not only nationally but also regionally and internationally.

(b) Rural industrialization and restructuring of industry

It may be stated that the women's participation in rural, small-scale industrialization will continue for a long time to come. Home industries, such as weaving, where production can be carried out on their living premises, make it possible for the women to combine the production with child care and other necessary domestic chores. Improved agricultural technology, i.e. labour-saving machinery, will also give women more time to carry out non-agricultural, including industrial work. Expansion of production will, in many cases, necessitate the relocation to special premises away from home. This could deprive women of their traditional industrial work. On the other hand, it is felt that the restructuring of industry, by women, will be a gradual process considering their relatively traditional attitude.

(c) Management, training and entrepreneurship development

The entrepreneurial function may be basically regarded as an innovating and launching operation rather than a day-to-day managerial work. The 1974 government's survey of entrepreneurship revealed the relatively low number of female entrepreneurs i.e. about 10 per cent of the total labour force. According to the recent (1976) study by the Association of Business Professional Women in Thailand, it was concluded that, because of the traditional attitude of women towards being female leaders in society, the task of creating entrepreneurship in women would be rather difficult.

It has been our observation that, in many cases, the training provided to workers of female-dominated industries,

such as textiles, food processing and electronics, was of a limited nature providing these female workers with the skills just to do an isolated job. We do believe that women workers need specialized vocational training as well as other technical and management assistance to improve their capability for contribution to industrialization.

(d) Technological development

In general, it has been observed that technological development tends to benefit men more than women, often depriving the women of their traditional position as economic producers. This may, in part, be due to the wide gap of literacy between male and female population. In many cases, simple machineries/technologies such as cutters and grinders have been introduced to men instead, even though the work for which they are a substitute traditionally has been done by women. In other cases, such as the introduction of electricity, women benefit from longer working hours resulting in increase in production. For Thailand, development efforts have, for some time, paid attention to the impacts of technology on women, particularly those in rural areas. In this connection, women organizations have been particularly active.

It is felt that in the industries which are either operated solely by women, such as weaving, or those which are composed largely of female employees, such as food processing, direct technical assistance for women should be concentrated.

For women working in small-scale industries and handicrafts assistance, other than technical, is also essential. Some of the non-technical assistance provided to women in rural areas in Thailand have been:

- o Finding markets for their products - the National Council of Women of Thailand has, for example, established a Handicraft center for such purpose.

o Initiating them into clubs or cooperatives, thus providing them with opportunity to receive training, in technical as well as in management and organization.

V. PROPOSED FUTURE PLANS/PROGRAMMES

It is believed that at the national level, a special strategy to improve integration of women in national development, through industrialization, will have to be worked out individually for and by each country, based on the stage of development and, more importantly, the unique social, economic, and cultural conditions of that country. Through regional and international cooperation, experiences and information could be exchanged which will be helpful in the formulation and/or implementation of the policy and plan. On this basis, the following programmes are hereby proposed for consideration:

1. Establishment of Regional or Subregional (ASEAN) Network. (This is for the purpose of exchange of information and implementation of cooperative programmes)
2. Identification of Women-Dominated Industries. (To determine women's industries of common interest and their order of significance to national/regional development)
3. Identification of Specific Needs of Those Industries of Common Interest. (To determine what kind of assistance would be most beneficial)
4. Workshop/Training Courses in Management Development for Women Managers/Administrators (covering topics such as policy and plan formulation methodologies, evaluation etc.)
5. Preparation of Regional or International Directory of Women Experts in Industrialization.

Recent development to be noted is the recent Meeting, the first, of the ASEAN Committee on Social Development held in Bangkok in May, 1978. The Meeting recognized the potential

of women as an aid in national and regional development. It was also realized that there is very limited source within the region to draw upon which could identify the magnitude of women in the region who are contributing to the economic growth or industrial development. It was also found difficult to identify appropriately qualified women who could play an active role in these areas.

Realizing that the process of women development in industrialization is long and gradual for developing countries, particularly where traditional attitude is strong, it is therefore suggested a practical, easy-to-implement approach be taken.

Table 1.
Employed Population in Thailand

Area & Sex	Total	Persons in Labour Force							Persons not in Labour Force			
		Total	Employed Workers			Unemployed Workers			Total	Household Worker	Student	Others
			Total	In Agricultural Sector	In Other Sectors	Total	Work Previously	Never Worked				
Total	41,556,010	13,845,220	13,815,450	8,643,840	5,171,610	129,770	46,410	83,360	13,219,580	3,390,860	4,139,180	5,689,540
Male	20,641,000	8,584,760	8,497,120	5,461,090	3,036,030	87,460	26,030	61,610	4,786,810	299,600	2,285,710	2,201,500
Female	20,915,010	5,360,460	5,318,330	3,182,750	2,135,580	42,130	20,380	21,750	8,432,770	3,091,260	1,852,940	3,488,040
Municipal Area	5,847,210	2,124,080	2,183,300	75,640	2,007,660	40,780	10,370	30,410	2,062,150	688,730	1,109,740	263,680
Male	2,917,930	2,295,030	1,266,520	51,760	1,219,760	28,510	8,090	20,420	773,280	44,710	591,040	137,530
Female	2,929,280	829,050	861,780	23,880	792,900	12,270	2,280	9,890	1,288,870	644,020	518,700	126,150
Non Municipal Area	35,708,800	11,821,140	11,732,150	8,568,200	3,163,950	88,990	36,040	52,950	10,157,430	2,702,130	3,029,440	5,425,860
Male	17,723,070	7,289,730	7,230,600	5,409,330	1,821,270	59,130	17,940	41,190	4,013,530	254,890	1,694,670	2,063,970
Female	17,985,730	4,531,410	5,501,550	3,158,870	1,342,680	29,860	18,100	11,760	7,143,900	2,447,240	1,334,770	3,361,890

Source: Final Labour Force Survey (January-March) of the National Statistical Office, 1976, Page 1

Table 2. Civilian Non-Institutional Women by Employment Status 1976 (in Percentage)

Employment Status	Number	Percentage of	
		Percentage	Total Women Population
Persons in Labour Force	5,360,460	100.00	25.63
Agricultural Sector	3,182,750	59.37	15.22
Other Sectors	2,135,580	39.83	10.21
Unemployed Persons	42,130	0.80	0.20
Persons not in Labour Force including Home Workers, Students and Others	8,472,770		40.32
Persons age less than 11 years	7,121,780		34.05
Total	20,915,010		100.00

Source: Computed from the Whole Kingdom Labour Survey 1975,
National Statistica Office, P. 1.

Table 3. Employed Women by Employment Status and Major Occupation.

Major Occupation	Total Employed Population	Whole Kingdom						Rural Area					
		Total	Employer	Government Employee	Private Employee	Own Account Worker	Family Worker	Total	Employer	Government Employee	Private Employee	Own Account Worker	Family Worker
Total	13,815,450	5,312,350	18,740	209,870	667,000	1,501,130	2,721,590	4,501,550	12,900	100,130	581,220	1,270,800	2,536,500
		(100.0)	(0.35)	(3.9)	(16.30)	(28.23)	(51.17)	(100.0)	(0.28)	(2.22)	(12.91)	(28.23)	(56.34)
Professional, Technical and Related Workers	359,970	159,420	20	116,790	35,540	4,860	2,130	79,640	-	62,950	12,990	2,650	1,150
Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	156,180	19,460	2,900	11,470	540	2,140	2,410	6,140	1,020	2,300	-	780	2,050
Clerical Workers	223,010	82,420	-	43,070	36,240	410	2,690	15,160	-	12,600	2,170	-	390
Sales Workers	1,451,410	814,060	2,360	130	32,900	396,310	382,380	484,750	990	-	8,220	238,160	237,380
Agricultural, Fishermen, Hunters and Forestry	300,320	3,185,400	8,190	60	275,150	738,550	2,163,440	3,161,780	7,990	-	270,860	731,080	2,151,850
Transportation Workers	389,900	11,870	50	3,650	1,970	2,570	3,620	6,890	-	1,890	-	1,820	3,150
Craftsmen, Reproduction Workers and Labourers	2,210,010	855,350	3,510	23,870	347,040	327,670	157,340	695,180	2,400	16,580	248,330	288,460	138,900
Services, Sport and Other Entertainment Workers	401,140	185,850	1,430	10,790	137,460	28,610	7,580	52,010	500	3,910	38,150	7,850	1,600

Source: Classified from January-March 1976 Labour Survey, National Statistical Office

Table 4. Number of Illiterate Population, by Sex, 1947, 1960, 1970.

Year	Population			Illiterate			Percentage		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1947	12,327,386	6,143,460	6,183,926	5,705,269	2,002,942	3,702,327	46.3	32.6	59.9
1960	18,026,404	9,004,412	9,021,992	5,270,054	1,750,812	3,519,242	29.2	19.4	39.0
1970	23,453,313	11,581,756	11,871,557	4,265,424	1,281,880	2,983,544	18.2	11.1	25.2

Table 5. Level of Factory Worker in Bangkok Metropolis by Sex.

Sex	Level								Total	
	Senior Executive		Junior Executive		Labourer		No Answer		Number	Percentage
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage		
Male	18	75	450	71.55	4452	41.56	364	45.61	5284	43.43
Female	6	25	179	28.45	6262	58.44	434	54.39	6881	56.57
Total	24	100	629	100	10714	100	798	100	12165	100

Source: Survey of the Factories in Bangkok Metropolis by Women Development Working Group. July 1978



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United Nations Industrial Development Organization

Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing
Countries

Vienna, Austria, 6 - 10 November 1978

THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIALIZATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Country paper on Nigeria *

prepared by

Bolanle Awe **

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** Commissioner for Trade, Industries and Co-operatives
Oyo State, Ibadan

id.78-7288

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THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIALISATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Introduction:

The Nigerian industrialisation experience provides a good illustration of the Role of Women in industrialization in developing countries in view of the fact that most developing countries share similar colonial, historical and political past as well as similar development parameters such as population, education, natural, physical, geographical and geological endowments as well as financial resources.

2. Developing economies are characterised by the dominance of agriculture which usually accounts for over 60% of the total gainful occupation of the countries while manufacturing and crafts account for about 17%, with distribution sector taking about 13%. Such economies are therefore faced with the challenge and opportunity of creating an industrial base that can guarantee self-sustaining growth.

Parameters for Development:

3. Some of the parameters for self-sustaining development include natural endowments, population, executive capacity, financial resources and size and dynamism of the entrepreneurial group. A dynamic and progressive Government then faces the challenge of

harnessing and articulating the various resources to maximise the national output.

The Role of Women in the Industrialisation Process:

4. The contribution of women to the industrialisation process can be assessed by many factors, especially by their composition in the population mix, the country's customs and taboos, educational opportunities, domestic challenges and societal values. Statistics show that females are increasingly accounting for about 50 per cent of the population of many countries. In 1963, the population of Nigeria was put at 55.6 million and women accounted for about 50%. Their positive contribution to the economy is closely related to the educational opportunities that are open to them as well as societal values placed on women's education. The struggle for women's emancipation in Nigeria was a reaction to anti-women orientation in so far as their education and their societal roles are concerned. In the recent past in the pre-dominantly moslem Northern Nigeria, women were largely to be seen, not heard. It was even difficult to see them in public because of the purdah system that is operational in that part of the country, maybe as a result of religion and custom that are embraced in that part.

5. The Government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria is conscious of the inter-relationship of education and the role of women in the development process. The period up to the first quarter of the 20th century saw very little of women's formal education. The little achievement recorded could be attributed to the activities of the early missionaries who helped in the education of women through the establishment of institutions for primary and post-primary education, although the few schools that existed were filled with male sex. Many parents saw the role of women as being confined to the home. Even where elementary education was provided, there was little or no incentive to go further since there were little or no opportunities to practise the known professions. In spite of this observation however, Nigeria is known to have produced women leaders in the field of education, medicine, law and politics. In this connection, one may place on record the inspiring activities of Mrs. Ayo Manuwa, Mrs. Ransome-Kuti and Mrs. Abimbola Awoliyi all of blessed memory.

6. Government educational policy provides for equal opportunities for all citizens, both male and female. This policy is manifested by the admission of candidates into post-primary institutions. One of the country's Polytechnics will be used to illustrate this point.

ADMISSION OF STUDENTS INTO ONE OF NIGERIA'S POLYTECHNIC BY SEX 1974/75 - 1976/77

1974/75			1975/76			1976/77			ALL TOTAL		
M	F	TOTAL	M	F	TOTAL	M	F	TOTAL	M	F	ALL
1,988	601	2,589	1,803	612	2,415	2,296	716	3,012	6,087	1,929	8,016

A BREAKDOWN OF ADMISSION IN THE FACULTY OF ENGINEERING AND ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES IN THE SAME POLYTECHNIC FOR 1977/78 ACADEMIC YEAR

1. Department of Electrical Engineering

MALE 119

FEMALE NIL

2. Department of Mechanical Engineering

MALE 168

FEMALE NIL

3. Department of Civil Engineering

MALE 153

FEMALE 6

**4. Town Planning and Architecture
Estate Management and Fine Arts**

MALE 119 65

FEMALE 19 7

Members of the Academic Staff

Department of Electrical Engineering

MALE 10

FEMALE 1

Department of Environmental Sciences

MALE 8

FEMALE 1

ADMISSION OF STUDENTS INTO ONE OF NIGERIA'S UNIVERSITIES -
FACULTY OF TECHNOLOGY - THE FIRST INTAKE WAS
in 1972

Department of Petroleum
Engineering
1974/75 Post Graduate

MALE 12 4
FEMALE NIL NIL

1975/76

MALE 22 5
FEMALE NIL NIL

1976/77

MALE 18 1
FEMALE NIL NIL

1977/78

MALE 28
FEMALE 1

Department of Agricultural
Engineering
1975/76

MALE 7
FEMALE NIL

1976/77

MALE 8
FEMALE NIL

Dept. of Forestry Engineering

MALE 2
FEMALE NIL

Dept. of Wood Engineering

MALE 4
FEMALE NIL

Department of Food Technology

1976/77

MALE 12
FEMALE 2

1977/78

36
3

7. As would be observed from the above Tables, there has been gradual improvement in the advancement of women in the field of technical education. The point must be stressed that there is no discrimination in the admission policy of post-secondary institutions in Nigeria as long as prospective students possess the educational requirements. And women are gradually taking their place in the various professions.

Structure and Problems of the Industrial Sector:

8. The growth of the manufacturing sector over the past decade has been rapid and sustained. Between 1962-63 and 1972-73 value added in manufacturing and craft grew at a compound rate of 10% per annum with manufacturing alone growing by 12.2%. As a percentage of the Gross Domestic Product, the manufacturing sector was 5.64% in 1962 and 7.79% in 1972. This percentage share compares unfavourably with the 15 to 20% share attained in many developed economies. However, the potential growth of the sector is considerable.

9. The scope for the contribution of women to industrialization maybe better put into focus if one examines the structure of the manufacturing sector. First is the dominance of low technology light industries such as food, beverages, tobacco, textiles and wearing apparels. All these take about 51% of the value added in manufacturing. Women are very active in this sub-sector especially

in rural and cottage industries in which weaving, pottery, carving and ornamental decorations feature prominently. Women in Kabba area of Kwara State are very active in weaving. Another sub-sector takes care of metal furniture and fixtures, structural metal products and fabricated metal. Unfortunately, the engineering sub-sector, namely the manufacturing of agricultural and special industrial machinery, household electrical apparatus, transport equipment etc., account for only 2.3% of value added in manufacturing. Quite naturally and expectedly, the share of petroleum refining sector is relatively high, taking more than 10%. This high proportionate share of refining and allied activities emphasises the roles of natural resources in determining the industrial structure of the economy.

10. The scope for the operation of men and women in the industrialisation process is a function of the development, and growth of that sector. But unfortunately, the industrial sector suffers from some constraints such as:

- i) the declining agricultural output which affects the quality and quantum of agricultural products, food etc., available to the industrial sub-sector;
- ii) in-adequate infrastructure which increases both the initial and operational costs of projects thereby

- compromising the commercial feasibility of economically desirable projects;
- iii) restrictive industrial policy and administrative practices;
 - iv) shortage of industrial manpower and the relative unattractiveness of manufacturing to indigenous businessmen as compared with quick returns from ordinary trading activities;
 - v) slow implementation of the public sector manufacturing projects, and
 - vi) shortage of development capital.
- 11) Although there are policy objectives directed towards the solution of some of the identified constraints, the effects of the policy measures are slow to materialise. The female sector of the population is also handicapped by some factors such as:
- (a) difficulties in raising substantial finance to pursue industrial projects;
 - (b) social customs and taboos in restricting women to certain jobs; and in limiting their educational opportunities;
 - (c) the legal restrictions on the self-identity and independence of married women;

- (d) the inadequate infrastructure which make it difficult for women to combine domestic responsibilities with industrial ones, and
- (e) the complex and energy-sapping nature of many industrial undertakings.

However, in spite of the identified constraints, Nigerian women successfully rub shoulders with their male counterparts in the following areas:

(i) Building/Construction:

There are women architects, designers, valuers, a few building engineers as well as town planners etc.

(ii) Petroleum:

Looking at Table III once again one could see a breakthrough as it were. There are a few female chemical engineers in Port-Harcourt (Rivers State) working in the oil fields for instance. Also at the Federal Research Institute, Oshodi, Lagos, there are women Chemical Engineers and others holding top managerial/executive posts. There are ladies doing their postgraduate courses in the Department of Chemical Engineering at the University of Ife.

(iii) Food/Hotels Industries

Women dominate these lines both in production and in research institutes in the country. They control the entrepreneurship of quite a substantial part of the hotel industry. It is remarkable to note that a woman is the Assistant Production Manager of a company where edible vegetable oils, Vegetable Oils of Nigeria (VON) are extracted mechanically.

(iv) Manufacturing

(a) Pharmaceuticals:

There are no women entrepreneurs among the few men engaged in this line in the country at the moment. But happily there are many women professionals such as pharmacists and chemists in the employment of such organisations.

(b) Beds and Mattresses (Foams):

One of the leading bed and foam manufacturing companies in the country is owned by a woman entrepreneur.

(c) Electric and Electronics

This is yet at a humble beginning in the country for both males and females, although there are

women entrepreneurs rendering electrical engineering services to construction companies - Lecer is owned by a woman electrical engineer. The University of Ife in Oyo State renders courses in electronics and already a woman has successfully completed the course. Women are employed as programmers in the few computer centres in the country.

(d) Printing, Publishing and Allied Industries:

There are many women in the field of publication. They engage in writing and publication of such work. The printing trade has not attracted many women.

(e) Insurance/Banking:

There are many professional women insurers in the employment of other insurance companies as well as in Banking. There are also many women holding Chief Executive/Managerial posts in the banking industry.

Strengthening the Contribution of Women:

11. In the preceding paragraphs, we have tried to X-ray the problems and prospects of the industrial sector, and the role of women in the process, it is now pertinent to mention very briefly measures that may be taken to strengthen the contribution of women to the industrialisation process. In this

connection, there are some parameters that readily come to mind. The role that is envisaged for women in this direction may be a product of national policy and planning designed to uplift the status of women, enhance their educational opportunities, remove identifiable constraints, re-structure the industrial mix and possibly develop programmes that will facilitate technology transfer.

12. In so far as educational policies are concerned, Nigeria does not give discriminatory treatment to its citizens as there are equal opportunities for both men and women. There are many co-educational secondary grammar/commercial schools and the universities are open to both males and females. The constraints that exist are the result of social conventions which are now gradually dying out; viz the feeling that girls are better kept at home, and that boys need all the education they can get. This accounts for the relatively poor participation of women vis-à-vis men in the higher levels of the industrial sector of the economy. There are women factory hands in quantum in e.g. electronics industries, but no women of managerial status.

13. The participation of women in national policy making and plan implementation is a function of their level of education and their political awareness. Nigeria is witnessing an increasing number

of women particularly in the field of education. With the impending return to civil rule, it is hoped that women will make their impact in politics.

14. Another social constraint is the acceptability of women in the corridors of power. Nigeria gives equal opportunities to men and women and it is the contribution of each individual that counts, irrespective of whether he is a man or a woman. However, physical constraints which make it difficult for women to combine domestic and public roles, the unwillingness of employers and government to take adequate cognisance of this factor by provision of liberal maternity leave, day care centres etc., often prevents the woman of ability to scale the same heights as the man. However, contribution of women to the domestic and public economy is now acknowledged.

15. The various governments can therefore assist in promoting the active participation of women in the industrialisation process by providing nursery and day care centres where women can safely put their children during working hours. There should also be arrangements for part-time employment opportunities for women and, as part of the programme for the upliftment of the status of women, adult literacy classes should be organised for women traders.

16. Since Government is made up of people, an appeal should be

made to the menfolk to allow their wives full participation in the social, economic and political programmes for the development of the country. Knowledge, intelligence and wisdom are not only the preserves of men. Women also have natural endowments and native intelligence. A conducive environment should be created for the full realisation of the potentialities of the women folk.

17. Finally, one must recognise that the factors of production are land, labour, capital and entrepreneurship. Nigeria is fortunate to have enacted the Land Use Decree, 1978, which gives easy access to the ownership of land for developmental purposes. The decree admits of no discrimination sex-wise. On the labour market, men and women are free to contribute their labour depending on the level of physical exertion that is involved in the production process. Entrepreneurship depends on the ability of each individual to innovate and take risks. The big constraint may be accessibility to development finance and it is here that appeal should be made to banking institutions and finance houses to be liberal in their lending policies and accord dignity to women. Where possible, governments should remove legal constraints that impede the totality of development efforts by the women folk.

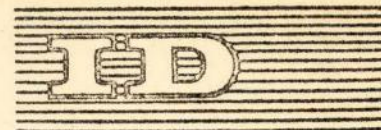
18. During the International Women's Decade, a forum for the dissemination of information on the status and role of women in a changing world of technology should be created with the assistance of UNESCO, UNIDO, FAO and other international organizations for the exchange of views on problems facing the women folk and womanhood in the development process.



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United Nations Industrial Development Organization

Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing
Countries

Vienna, Austria, 6 - 10 November 1978

PROVISIONAL AGENDA AND
WORK PROGRAMME

Monday, 6 November 1978

9.00 - 10.00 a.m.

Registration of participants:
Felderhaus, Rathausplatz 2
A-1010 Vienna
Room F-709

10.00 a.m.

Item 1 - Opening of the meeting

10.30 - 11.00 a.m.

Item 2 - Election of Officers

3.00 - 5.00 p.m.

Item 3 - Adoption of the agenda and
organization of work

Item 4 - Current contribution of women to
industrial development and major
constraints to an increased
participation by women in the
industrialization process of
developing countries.

Tuesday, 7 November 1978

9.00 - 12.00 a.m.

Item 4 - (continued)

2.00 - 5.00 p.m.

Item 5 - Specific areas where women can
contribute to industrialization
in developing countries.

Wednesday, 8 November 1978

9.00 - 12.00 a.m.

Item 5 - (continued)

2.00 - 5.00 p.m.

Item 6 - Ways and means of developing and
implementing national programmes
for the increased participation
of women in the industrialization
process.

Thursday, 9 November 1978

9.00 - 12.00 a.m.

Item 6 - (continued)

2.00 - 5.00 p.m.

Item 7 - Suggestions as to a more effective role for the United Nations and other international organizations and institutions in this field.

Friday, 10 November 1978

- - -

Morning free to allow for preparation of the report.

3.30 - 5.00 p.m.

Item 8 - Review and adoption of conclusions and recommendations of the meeting.
Closure of the meeting.

PROPOSED AREAS OF COLLABORATION BETWEEN UNIDO
AND OTHER U.N. ORGANIZATIONS

ILO

- case studies of urban labour markets and employment of women;
- comparative analysis of industries employing women and wages;
- factors affecting inequitable occupational distribution between men and women within an economy;
- the impact of technological change on the employment of women by industry, e.g. textiles, electronics, food and drinks;
- policy measures to upgrade women's skills, specially in scientific and technological areas; and
- strengthening programmes of national institutions training women in managerial, administrative and technical jobs.

FAO

Interested in developing collaboration programmes benefitting rural women, primarily in the food and agriculture sectors, but also the possibilities for women's participation in other rural economic activities. Full involvement by all concerned, at all stages of programme planning, implementation and evaluation would be desirable. Possible ideas of collaboration:

- Consultation at the earliest stages of joint programme planning to identify major areas of collaboration, at global, regional and country levels.
- Unified plans of action in selected countries, where FAO has on-going (or projected) major agricultural and rural development programmes.
- Training, research or publications, in collaboration with FAO programmes based on the following issues:
 - rural women being adversely affected by technological advancements that may reduce their drudgery but not advance their economic and social participation
 - rural women need meaningful training and job opportunities in order to increase their income, socio-economic mobility and status within the family and community
 - means of avoiding technological choices restricting women to traditional female household chores, creating new institutions to include men, women, children and adults that can improve family life as a whole
 - programmes encouraging new roles for women and men bringing them together in the sharing of responsibilities in and outside the family.
- Collaboration on various studies related to the problems of women in agriculture and rural development.
- Programmes of multi-disciplinary training, including such areas as development of new skills, appropriate technology, food processing and storage, agriculture, leadership, management and administration.
- Collaboration on determined regional and country workshops, seminars, consultations and review missions.
- Collaboration in the exchange of information, reports and documents.

example :

"Experimental Credit to Ujamaa Village Women, Tanzania": The outcome of this project would be the provision of credit by the Tanzania Rural Development Bank to rural women for productive enterprises. To initiate this project, a FAO consultancy is provided to:

- (i) identify suitable labour-saving household and farm devices, which can be produced locally, particularly in the Ujamaa villages to involve women in such enterprises; and
- (ii) advise on possible small village handicraft enterprises in consultation with FAO and other appropriate agencies.

UNESCO

There will be case studies conducted by UNESCO and FLASCO in selected Latin American countries to examine the situation of women migrants in urban centres and to assist in formulating policies and preparing projects to up-grade the situation of these women. UNIDO, as well as ILO, might wish to consider contributing an input to these studies.

UNESCO would be interested in collaborating with UNIDO in research on the impact of education on employment in the industrial sector in both urban and rural areas. UNESCO could undertake and integrate coverage of women in industry in the regular teaching and training programmes of institutes of mass communication. As part of this programme, it could award fellowships to women communicators to develop programmes (both print and electronic media) on the role of women in population/industrialization processes.

UNESCO would be willing to initiate special workshops and seminars for journalists and communicators on industrial reporting with special focus on women in industry.

One area which might merit investigation would be the particular role played by transnational corporations in the process of industrialization and their use of feminine labour. It might also be of interest to examine the causes for the "feminization" of certain industries and the mechanisms whereby women are retained in the lowest employment categories.

WORLD BANK

The Bank envisages for UNIDO a leading role with three major points of focus: One would relate to the contribution which the industrial expertise of UNIDO could make to the development of viable small industries which enhance women's income earning prospects or meet their needs for tools and equipment. In this connexion the Organization's knowledge of technological research and development would be important. Another would be related to co-ordination of technical and financial resources, of industry-related training, and the co-ordination between enterprises which may enhance or assure the viability of each. A third point would be the exchange of information about activities related to women in industry which are undertaken by various organizations and programmes. The preparatory meeting would be a first step in establishing the sort of information which it would be useful to exchange and the mechanics for its collection and dissemination. The support of the UNIDO/Bank co-operative programmes for these efforts is anticipated.

CSDHA

UNIDO is planning to carry out a study on the "possible detrimental effects of industrialization on the socio-economic conditions of women in developing countries (see "Integration of Women in Development", ID/B/202, para.13) and it would be recommended that the research efforts of UNIDO and the CSDHA be co-ordinated so as to avoid duplication.

The CSDHA has recommended for approval to the Voluntary Fund for the UN Decade for Women (see document A/32/174, 1977) primarily such projects that would provide craft training, labour saving and income-generating activities to the poorest groups of women and in particular to rural women. (Projects that help women in utilizing techniques of food storage and preservation, and training of women in agriculture and horticulture techniques, have also been recommended for approval). It might be expected that in future co-operation between the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs and UNIDO in reference to the activities of the Voluntary Fund will develop; in particular such co-operation would include the identification of those projects on rural industrialization for which support from the Voluntary Fund might be appropriate.

ECA

The contribution of the UNIDO in the development of small industries sector would be essential and of great importance. The specific areas of activities in which UNIDO's help has been requested through the Joint ECA/UNIDO Industries Division is:

- a) Development of indigenous materials for building and construction;
- b) Food and Agro-Industries;
- c) Engineering Industry;
- d) Forest Industry.

The assistance is asked for feasibility studies, setting up of pilot projects with expertise from UNIDO and organization of training programmes for women as well as in the integration of women in the UNIDO programmes for the activities proposed in these fields.

ESCAP

It is proposed that a training workshop for workers among young women in industry be organized.

APCWD

A multi-country research project on the social and economic impact of industrialization on women in Asia and the Pacific. It is hoped that this project will be designed and implemented in collaboration with UNIDO.

It is suggested to follow up the November meeting with a joint regional workshop to design in detail the multi-country research project and to identify activities of pressing need, such as counselling service for women workers, protective associations and skill training needs.

ECLA

Attention is drawn to the need of training programmes including quality control of crafts in small-scale family industries, to mention only one issue of interest.

UNRISD

UNRISD intends to extend the scope of its research projects on "The impact on women of socio-economic changes" to problems of female industrial wage labour, once the project is fully implemented. The study will include the following topics: women's occupational passage from the field to the factory; their relations with their original rural milieu; the conditions of recruitment and work; the transformation in their family life (concerning fertility, male-female relationship, social status, food and nutritional situation); and their social class-consciousness, engagement in trade unions.

Future collaboration with UNIDO could be fruitful concerning studies of female industrial wage labour, especially if UNRISD can extend its Women's Project to Latin America and Asia, where these problems are already more pertinent. An exchange of ideas and experience could take place between UNIDO and UNRISD with regard to questions of how women in developing countries are affected by the international division of labour.

UNITAR

UNITAR is seeking funds to carry out a project on "The Involvement and Status of Women in Development" involving cross-national comparison of the extent and nature of women's participation in the development process in selected countries in Latin America. If funding is obtained we should hope that the Project Director would be able to participate in your Preparatory Meeting and would look forward to appropriate co-operation with UNIDO in the conduct of the project.

(From a letter to Mr. Künz, dated 28 July 1978)

UNICEF

Your preparatory meeting could be of interest for UNICEF's future involvement whether it be in urban areas where existing industries tend to be concentrated or in areas of planned rural industrialization. We predict that the meeting will explore the potential role of women in different positions and means of strengthening their contribution to industrial development.

These objectives fall within the scope of UNICEF's concern for the welfare of women, both as beneficiaries of and active participators in the development process.

(from a letter dated 11 September 1978).

The role of
Co-operatives in Industrial Development
their Effective Organization and Operation and Related Activities
of UNIDO^{*/}

Introduction

1. In the last few years we have witnessed the emergence of a number of problems hampering economic and industrial progress. Endemic inflation, wide exchange rate fluctuations and the need to conserve energy, in particular petroleum, coupled with an uncertain climate for international trade, have profoundly affected both the developing and developed world. Effective and equitable long-term solutions to these problems will undoubtedly require concerted efforts through international co-operation regardless of the stage of development of the participants. It will also require national political will and the adoption of appropriate measures by individual developing and developed countries.

2. The United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) was created within the United Nations family to be responsible for the numerous and complex problems relating to the industrial development of the developing countries. Within this context UNIDO has for a number of years been concerned with the role of co-operatives in industrial development and with the problems that need to be tackled to make the co-operative form of industrial organization an effective mechanism for development.

3. It is widely recognized that industrialization can be a dynamic force capable of transforming socio-economic structures and initiating a process of self-generating development in the developing countries. Industrialization on a significant scale has indeed taken place in a number of developing countries and a wide range of manufactured goods has become available from local production. However, while efforts to industrialize in some developing countries have led to encouraging

^{*/} This paper has been prepared by the Secretariat of UNIDO.

results, large segments of their populations have benefited little if at all from the progress achieved.

4. The pattern of industrial growth in developing countries has tended to benefit only a small part of the population, often those living in urban rather than rural areas. This has resulted in a product mix largely oriented towards urban consumption needs and has distorted the distribution of income and employment opportunities. Thus a re-orientation in the nature and pattern of industrial development is required so as to fulfil the aspirations and needs of the majority of the population of developing countries, and in particular those of the poorer sections of the population. Industrial co-operatives could play an important role in this re-orientation.

The Lima Declaration and Plan of Action

5. The Second General Conference of UNIDO held at Lima in March 1975 strengthened the dialogue between industrialized and developing countries on ways and means of arriving at a more equitable distribution of resources, in the field of industrialization, as had been called for by the international community during the sixth special session of the United Nations General Assembly. This dialogue culminated in the Second General Conference of UNIDO adopting the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development and Co-operation which was subsequently endorsed by the United Nations General Assembly thereby establishing it as an essential element in the achievement of a new international economic order.

6. In the Lima Declaration a number of principles are set forth relating to the process of industrialization which in essence comprise a broad strategy of industrial development aimed at strengthening the industrial capacity of developing countries. In particular, a plea is interred for increasing the percentage share of developing countries in total world production to the maximum possible extent and, as far as possible, to at least 25 per cent of total of world industrial production by the year 2000. Over the past two decades individual

developing countries have increased their individual production at different rates, yet taken as a whole the developing countries' share had remained relatively static at around 7 per cent of the world total until the late sixties.

7. It is of importance to note that in the Lima Declaration not only has a global quantitative production target for the developing countries been prescribed, but emphasis has also been given to the qualitative aspects of industrialization. These latter aspects have been highlighted by the call for such steps as: policy measures aimed at achieving greater social justice through a more equitable income distribution and the optimum development and utilization of human resources, including women; self-reliant and participatory development which is self-sustaining; and an integrated and multi-sectoral approach to industrial development, whereby the technological and the socio-economic implications of the process are fully taken into account at both the planning and implementation stages.

8. In the Lima Plan of Action calls are made, inter alia, for: (a) measures of national scope to promote industrial development, to be adopted by both developing and developed countries; (b) co-operation, at the subregional, regional and interregional level, among developing countries thereby bringing into focus the principle of collective self-reliance, in the achievement of industrial development; (c) co-operation between developing and developed countries, perhaps the most important factor being the urgent establishment of a system of consultations with a view to facilitating the redeployment of certain productive capacities; (d) mechanisms to transfer technology and know-how from developed to developing countries on equitable terms; and (e) special measures of assistance to be undertaken by other countries and international organizations in favour of the least developed, land-locked and island developing countries.

9. It is important to note that in addition to the above general measures of national scope the Lima Plan of Action specifically calls,

inter alia, for encouragement and support of small, medium-scale and rural industry and industries which fulfil the basic needs of the population and which contribute to the integration of different sectors of the economy; and to this end due attention should also be given to the industrial co-operatives as means of mobilizing the local human, natural and financial resources for the achievement of national objectives of economic growth and social developments.

Role of Industrial Co-operatives

10. Industrial co-operatives in developing countries have the potential to play a significant role in industrial development. Industrial co-operatives can help to:

- Provide the opportunity to a larger segment of the population to invest in industrial projects and to contribute thereby to the financing of industrial development;
- Develop incentives for a fuller and more effective participation in industrial development;
- Spread industry over wider geographical areas, thus promoting balanced urban and rural industrial development;
- Provide common services to small-scale producers, thus enabling them to make use of larger-scale technologies;
- Make possible the utilization of traditional productive abilities of particular population groups.

11. An expert group meeting recently organized by UNIDO on industrialization in relation to integrated rural development concluded that there had been a tendency in many countries not to recognize the merits of more co-operative forms of organizing production. Their reliance on self-help and the privileges of scale which they confer especially in the production of items for the satisfaction of basic needs and in service industries commonly required by rural communities were thought to be particularly

important. It was recognized by the expert group that such co-operative forms of production were most effective when the initiative and drive for their establishment came from below.

12. Surveys undertaken by UNIDO have revealed that the role of industrial co-operative in industrial development appears to be subject to change, depending on the stage of industrialization. It is interesting to note that while industrial co-operation in developing countries is taking place mainly in rural areas and on a small scale, the structure and principles of co-operation do not preclude large-scale industrial operations. It is conceivable therefore that in the future larger-scale industrial co-operatives might be established in the developing countries. In fact, a few cases where this is taking place can already be noted, e.g. the production of cement in Mexico and textiles in Argentina and the production of fertilizers in India. Nevertheless, UNIDO studies have revealed that in a number of developing countries the contribution of industrial co-operatives to industrial development is minimal and that in order to accelerate their development a number of obstacles will need to be overcome. These obstacles involve problems connected with the organization of new industrial co-operatives as well as with the operation of already established industrial co-operatives.

13. There appears to be a lack of an appropriate legal and institutional framework for promoting and assisting the development of industrial co-operatives in the developing countries, and hence limiting their role in the process of industrialization. Apart from establishing appropriate legislation which takes into account the specific characteristics of industrial co-operatives, institutional arrangements by governments to provide a favourable climate for the development of industrial co-operatives might include: provisions of financial assistance, tax concessions; placing government orders for products with industrial co-operatives; provision of government supplies; and assistance in organizing markets for co-operative products. However, the establishment of suitable legislation and the creation of favourable development conditions by governments do not of themselves ensure an effective growth of industrial co-operatives in developing countries.

14. It needs to be recognized that one of the basic reasons for the relatively slow development of industrial co-operatives is that they are not being properly organized and operated by the co-operative movements in the developing countries. This is probably the result of a lack of dynamism and skills on the part of co-operative leaders and non-existing or poorly organized second or third level industrial co-operative associations to provide support in some of these countries. However, the core of the problem appears to lie in having placed considerable emphasis on the conceptual aspects of co-operation while neglecting the economic and technological aspects which are crucial for the success of any industrial enterprise whether it is privately, publicly or co-operatively organized. The following section of this paper will elaborate further on these economic and technological problems.

Organization and Operation of Industrial Co-operatives

15. UNIDO studies have revealed that industrial co-operatives in developing countries at times suffer from economic and technological conditions which might well have been avoided had careful preparations been undertaken at the organizational stage of establishing them. Furthermore, once industrial co-operatives are registered the economic, technological and managerial problems involved in operating them, as already mentioned, appear to be neglected with the result that in some countries a high percentage of industrial co-operatives have suspended their economic activities or have not even started operations.

16. Effective organization and operation of industrial co-operatives, as the development of other types of industrial enterprises, is directly related to the availability of an efficient system of industrial services and support activities. An illustrative range of such services and activities might be: applied industrial research, industrial design, standardization and quality control, advice on choice of technology, industrial promotion, feasibility studies, financing and training activities. Although all of these are important, perhaps the major obstacles to the effective organization and operation of industrial co-operatives are scarcity of industrial skills,

shortage of capital and inadequate marketing and commercial facilities. Thus, the urgent establishment of support activities to alleviate these problems appear to be essential to the development of industrial co-operatives in developing countries.

16. UNIDO studies, for instance, have revealed that one of the main bottlenecks to the development of industrial co-operative enterprises in developing countries is the lack of qualifications on the part of the leading staff (managers, economists, technicians, accountants) and of skilled personnel involved in the production process. On the other hand, there are few facilities for managerial, economic and technical training within co-operative organizations in developing countries. In many of these countries co-operative training is scarce and at times tends to put the emphasis on co-operative ideology and principles rather than on problems of technology, economy and management.

17. If the co-operative movement is to have an independent and accelerated development it is crucial that it has its own means of financing. The accumulation by the co-operative movements in developing countries of its own funds for financing the development of various co-operative sectors, including industrial production, is seldom to be found. Co-operative owned funds can be accumulated by increasing indivisible reserve funds in primary co-operatives or by collecting a part of available funds by a second or third level co-operative association. Such centralized funds owned by co-operatives constitute a type of interior bank which makes it possible to carry out a credit policy beneficial to the development of co-operatives in less profitable branches of industry and in less developed regions. Moreover such funds will allow less use to be made of external finance. This is of particular importance to industrial co-operatives. On the one hand, they require more capital than other forms of co-operation: partly because of their greater need for costly installations (warehouses, heavy machinery, processing equipment, packaging and transport machinery), and partly because of the longer-term investments involved. On the other hand, banks do not always give credit to industrial co-operatives in develop-

ing countries for two reasons: (a) not all co-operatives are able to give adequate securities, and (b) not all banks are able to contact co-operatives operating in remote rural regions.

18. In a number of developing countries industrial co-operatives are experiencing difficulties in the marketing of their products. Problems of industrial co-operatives in marketing are not limited to the domestic market but also appear in the organization of import and export activities. These problems may be the result of a lack of adequate consideration to market aspects when preparing feasibility studies for the establishment of the industrial co-operatives. These problems also seem to be due to a lack of production planning to suit particular markets, lack of standardization and quality control, lack of adequate packaging, etc. The basic approach that is required for planning purposes, prior to and after the establishment of industrial co-operatives, is the analysis of the present market for various categories of industrial products and the analysis of future needs for manufactured goods expressed by potential consumers. This collection and analysis of market data is outside the scope of most individual industrial co-operatives in developing countries.

19. The illustrative example problems given above make it evident that while an extremely large industrial co-operative may provide for itself much of the services infrastructure required to provide support for its effective development, this is clearly beyond the resources of medium or small-scale industrial co-operatives. There appears to be a need, therefore, for an institutional framework through which assistance can be provided to industrial co-operatives in developing countries in solving their organizational and operational problems.

20. In the developing countries and especially the least developed of these countries, governments have been assuming more and more responsibilities in connexion with social and economic development. In these countries, where also the industrial co-operative movements are in their infancy, a case can be made for substantial government support and intervention in the establishment of the required

institutional services infrastructure. However, experiences in developing countries with fairly advanced industrial co-operative movements would seem to indicate that for a more effective and self-reliant development of industrial co-operatives the operation of such an institutional infrastructure should be mainly in the hands of second or third level industrial co-operative associations themselves. These responsibilities however can only be assumed gradually by the industrial co-operative movements in most developing countries since second or third level associations will first need to be created or strengthened. Governments in developing countries can nevertheless play a significant role in this process by providing the necessary encouragement and assistance for the establishment and strengthening of such associations and by gradually handing over to them responsibilities for the various co-operative support services. There is also an important role in such institutional building activities for assistance provided by international organizations and for co-operation on a bilateral basis from second or third level industrial co-operative associations in the industrialized countries and in the more advanced of the developing countries. The second or third level industrial co-operative associations, once soundly established in the developing countries, can moreover become effective mechanisms for channeling assistance to individual industrial co-operative enterprises, both from governments in these countries and from co-operative organizations abroad and international organizations.

21. In essence, the following appear to be the necessary pre-conditions for the effective organization and operation of industrial co-operatives in developing countries and to which UNIDO has attempted to direct its activities:

- An adequate legal framework, applying specifically to industrial co-operatives;
- Provision for industrial co-operative development programmes as an essential part of the over-all planning for industrial development;
- Suitable facilities and arrangements for financing the establish-

- ment and operation of industrial co-operatives;
- Awareness on the part of key personnel in Government concerning the economic and social benefits to be gained by promoting the development of industrial co-operatives;
 - Adequate training and research facilities and directly available management and engineering advisory services, which are essential for the effective organization and operation of industrial co-operatives;
 - Knowledge on the part of the leaders of the co-operative movement and, in particular, of managers of industrial co-operatives on how to deal with engineering, technical and economic problems related to the organization and operation of industrial co-operatives;
 - Second and third level co-operative organizations with sufficient resources to provide assistance to associated industrial co-operatives and to act as their intermediary with the Government and other organizations;
 - Information on the development, organization and operation of industrial co-operatives in different countries.

The UNIDO Programme of Assistance to Industrial Co-operatives

22. For a number of years Governments members of UNIDO have recognized co-operatives as vital instruments of industrial development. As far back as its third session in 1969 the United Nations Industrial Development Board adopted resolution 21 (III) in which it stressed the importance for industrial development of mobilizing local human, natural and financial resources, which could be assisted by the co-operative movement, leading to the economic activation of less developed regions. The same resolution requested the Executive Director of UNIDO and the Governing Council of the UNDP to give proper attention to government requests from developing countries for technical assistance to the industrial co-operative sector. The interests and responsibilities of UNIDO as regards the development of industrial co-operatives in developing countries were reaffirmed, as has already

been mentioned in the introduction to this paper, in the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action adopted by the Second General Conference of UNIDO.

23. UNIDO's programme of activities in general emphasizes assistance that seeks to establish and promote industrial co-operatives in developing countries and to strengthen the co-operation between them and similar organizations in industrialized countries. For this purpose UNIDO has entered into close collaboration with the International Co-operative Alliance Workers' Productive Committee, the ICA Centre for the Promotion of Industrial Co-operatives and the Central Union of Polish Work Co-operatives. Specifically UNIDO is undertaking technical assistance and identification missions, training, organization of promotional meetings and the provision of information and transfer of technology in collaboration with these organizations.

24. From 1974 to 1977 UNIDO organized four in-plant training programmes in industrial co-operatives in close co-operation with the Central Union of Polish Work Co-operatives. During this period 75 participants from Africa, Asia and Latin America have been trained in courses lasting from 6 to 16 weeks. The objective of the programmes is to upgrade the practical knowledge and develop the skills of government officials and managers of co-operative enterprises from the developing countries in the promotion, organization and operation of industrial co-operatives through concentrated training within a relatively short time. The training programme consists of the following four major parts:

- lectures and round-table discussions,
- in-plant training programmes in selected industrial co-operatives,
- study trips to industrial co-operatives and to second and third level co-operative organizations in Gdansk and other places in Poland and in other European countries,
- preparation of individual reports by the participants on selected topics and evaluation of the training programme.

The in-plant training part of the programme is organized in selected industrial co-operatives, such as leather, clothing, furniture and metal industries and enables the participants (particularly the managers of co-operative enterprises) to familiarize themselves through practical work in the enterprise with the problems and activities related to production techniques, organizational set-up, financial management, standardization and quality control and marketing policy. |

25. Also in co-operation with the Central Union of Polish Work Co-operatives UNIDO organized, on an experimental basis, a promotional activity for industrial co-operatives on the occasion of the Poznan International Fair in 1975. The objectives of the activity were to: (a) give the opportunity to potential buyers to examine samples of goods produced by co-operative enterprises in developing countries and to give their advice to participants from countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America on such commercial and technical aspects as quality, packaging design and prices so as to facilitate marketability of the manufactured goods in the industrialized countries; and (b) encourage direct contact between representatives of industrial co-operative organizations of developing countries and representatives of co-operative, private and public enterprises of the industrialized countries for the purpose of entering into joint ventures and transfer of technology projects. This experimental promotional activity elicited sufficient interest to warrant that it be followed up either on an international basis or as a form of co-operation among industrial co-operative organizations of different countries.

26. The growing interest of the developing countries in the development of industrial co-operatives is expected to result in an increase in technical assistance requests to UNIDO. So far, while UNIDO has provided assistance directly to industrial co-operative enterprises more often such assistance has been included

within broader UNIDO projects of assistance to the small-scale industries sector in developing countries. Nevertheless, this has allowed industrial co-operatives to benefit not only from expertise and training opportunities but also from the transfer of technology from industrialized countries which such technical assistance projects usually involve.

27. Finally, it is of interest to note that the importance given to industrial co-operatives in the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action has given a new impetus to UNIDO activities in this field. Some important new activities and events are briefly outlined below:

- First, in early 1977 senior officials of UNIDO met in Vienna with the executive committee of the ICA's International Committee of Workers' Co-operative and Artisanal Societies to make preparations for long-term plans for co-operation; technical assistance projects in developing countries, including the establishment of industries in rural areas; and the organization of the present world conference on industrial co-operatives;
- Secondly, also in early 1977 an agreement was signed between UNIDO and the Polish Central Union of Work Co-operatives. The Agreement involves a joint programme for international co-operation in the development of industrial co-operatives in developing countries. Specifically the programme comprises: identification of the needs of industrial co-operative movements, provision of technical assistance, transfer of appropriate technologies, organization of training for management and technical personnel, establishment of information services, promotion of co-operative links between industrial co-operatives from developed and developing countries, and organization of various supporting activities such as seminars, workshops and consultations. Under this joint programme a number of identification and preparatory missions are being organized to selected developing countries. The basic objective of the missions is to identify needs in areas of industrial co-operatives development and the

possibilities for co-operation among the industrial co-operatives in the developing countries and similar organizations from developed of other developing countries.

- Thirdly, in late 1977 UNIDO in close collaboration with the Central Union of Polish Work Co-operatives organized in Warsaw a meeting at the ministerial level on international co-operation for establishing and promoting industrial co-operatives in developing countries. The Meeting which was attended by 23 representatives from 13 developing countries and 13 representatives from co-operative organizations in developed countries as well representatives of the ILO and the Executive Director of the ICA, concentrated on discussing the following items: the role of industrial co-operatives in the industrialization process of developing countries; the role of governments in the establishment and development of industrial co-operatives; and the role of UNIDO, ICA and co-operatives of developed countries in promoting international co-operation in the field of industrial co-operatives. In view of their relevance to the deliberations of the present Conference the conclusions and recommendations of the Meeting are provided as an annex to this paper.

Promotional Meeting on International Co-operation for Establishing
and Promoting Industrial Co-operatives in Developing Countries

Warsaw, 28 November - 3 December 1977

Conclusions and Recommendations

Following the conclusions of the Second General Conference of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization on Industrial Development and Co-operation, and recognizing that productivity and industrial production are basic means for economic and social development, the Meeting agreed on the following note of conclusions and recommendations.

A. The Role of Industrial Co-operatives in the Industrialization
Process of Developing Countries

1. Industrial or work co-operatives in developing countries have the potential to play a significant role in assisting and promoting the industrialization process, and the economic and social development.
2. Industrial co-operatives make man the focus of development.
3. Development needs industrial growth, and this includes developing secondary industries and services which can build upon local raw materials, local technological experience and existing community traditions.
4. Industrial co-operatives can play an important role in creating employment opportunities and in economic development of rural areas. Under-employment is the most costly form of waste and a work co-operative, being labour-intensive, reduces this waste and increases employment.
5. Industrial co-operatives assist in promotion of, and depend on, local technology; this enables them to avoid being constricted by the scarcity of foreign exchange, which is a grave hindrance to economic development of developing countries.
6. Industrial productive co-operatives tend to concentrate on small-scale industries and those in which capital investment is on a moderate scale, and as such they are able to supplement the investment of large-scale industries.
7. Development of industrial productive co-operatives in developing countries must not necessarily follow the development of industrial co-operatives in the advanced countries, especially in the rigid sectoral divisions and the single-purpose societies which characterize the advanced countries.

8. Industrial co-operatives lead to a harmonious development by achieving a transition from a traditional to an industrial era. The creation of industrial co-operatives will stem the migration from rural to urban areas and in that sense will forestall a number of evils associated with excessive urbanization.

B. The Role of Governments in the Establishment and Development of Industrial Co-operatives

1. Governments should assist the establishment and promotion of industrial co-operatives by a favourable attitude on the part of governmental development agencies, financial institutions and public opinion.
2. Development of industrial co-operatives should be an object of government policy associated with the overall programme of industrial development.
3. There is need for legislation favouring the development of industrial co-operatives and for their inclusion in national plans and programmes of industrial development.
4. Industrial co-operatives may be assigned to particular sections of the economy, and therefore they should be an integral part of a clearly defined policy of industrial and economic development.
5. Government assistance could consist of: feasibility studies which give governments a more concrete basis on which to base their policies; provision of equipment (not necessarily the most sophisticated); creation of joint bodies; patronage of work co-operatives by placing orders for requirements of state.
6. Specialized finance agencies should be created by the state for industrial co-operatives, while at the same time emphasizing schemes of internal capitalization.
7. Provision of information, especially for policy-making, and government assistance in mobilization of people in rural areas.
8. Government help in education and training, which should start from the motivation of people at the base level. Special attention should be given to training of trainers.
9. The proportion of technical assistance allocated to industrial co-operatives from governmental and UN funds should be increased. For this purpose governments should include in their programmes of technical assistance to be provided by UNIDO and other UN agencies more requests for direct assistance to industrial co-operative organizations and their associations.

C. The Role of UNIDO, ICA and Co-operatives of developed countries in promoting international co-operation in the field of industrial co-operatives

1. UNIDO in co-operation with the International Co-operative Alliance and other UN agencies should provide maximum support to the promotion and establishment of industrial co-operatives in developing countries.
2. Assistance should be provided to the governments of developing countries - upon request - in establishing an adequate legal framework favouring the setting up of industrial co-operatives in rural areas and development and promotion of small-scale industries through industrial co-operative production forms.
3. UNIDO should include in its work programme, and especially in the programme of projects to be financed by the United Nations Industrial Development Fund, projects aimed to assist the establishment and promotion of industrial co-operatives in developing countries.
4. The identification of programmes and priorities in this area should be based on a preconceived strategy aimed at providing comprehensive integrated action in this field. This, inter alia, should include the following:
 - Promotional activities and joint consultations with developing countries on national and international levels, in order to identify ways and means of international co-operation in strengthening existing and establishing new industrial co-operatives in developing countries;
 - provision of technical assistance on multilateral and bilateral bases in preparing feasibility studies, expertise, consultancy, transfer of technology and know-how, selection of equipment and production programmes;
 - organization of training on national and international levels, with particular emphasis on establishment of training facilities in developing countries on national and regional levels;
 - organization of joint extension services such as research, marketing, management and information services for industrial co-operatives and their associations.
5. UNIDO and ICA in close collaboration with co-operative organizations from developed/developing countries should undertake identification surveys of the needs of industrial co-operatives in developing countries. Based on these needs, priority projects should be established and directed towards the elimination of duplication.
6. Considerable scope exists for co-operation between industrial co-operatives from industrialized and developing countries, and in addition among developing countries themselves. Therefore UNIDO and ICA should explore these possibilities of linking these co-operatives in order to promote bilateral co-operation, with special emphasis on programmes of technical assistance and co-operative trade.

7. Emphasizing the need for rural development and the role of industrial co-operatives in achieving national economic and social goals, the Meeting agreed to recommend this subject should be included and discussed in detail during the forthcoming UNIDO Third General Conference, which will be held in New Delhi, India.
8. The Meeting agreed to authorize one of the present delegation - a member of the Industrial Development Board - to present to the Industrial Development Board the findings and recommendations of this conference, which is expected to contribute to the implementation of proposals made as a result of this Meeting, and follow-up action to be taken by UNIDO.

UNITED NATIONS INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION

P.O. Box 707, A-1011, Vienna, Austria



Number 126

October 1978

Women and industry to be topic of meeting

Some 13-15 experts will meet in Vienna next month to discuss the role of women in industrialization in developing countries.

The experts themselves will be from developing countries, and they will be participating as individuals. They will be joined by participants from United Nations agencies and from institutions in developed countries.

The meeting will be held from 6 to 10 November.

Discussion will focus on women's place in the overall strategy of industrialization. The participants will try to determine and recommend to UNIDO the best course to be followed in formulating, developing, and implementing, in co-operation with other United Nations bodies and international and national institutions, activities that will bring women into the industrialization process. They will also suggest to UNIDO specific projects on which immediate action could be taken.

The meeting has its origins in the International Development Strategy for the Second United Nations Development Decade, International Women's Year 1975, the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development and Co-operation and resolution 44 (IX) of the Industrial Development Board (IDB).

Although the situation varies from region to region and country to country, in recent years more recognition has been given to women as a force in society and, in many areas, their role is being strengthened. In the industrialization process, however, women still have a minimal part. Efforts to build or expand industrial capacity have proceeded with little regard for either the needs or the potential contribution of women.

Yet, the involvement of women in industry could be beneficial to humanity as a whole; it would mean that human resources would be used to the full; population growth would be slowed and the quality of life of both women and men would be improved through a sharing of responsibilities and benefits.

Moreover, women could help to strengthen industrial activities at all levels including decision making, planning, top- and medium-level management, and technical disciplines from engineering to field work. At present, however, women are relegated to the less responsible positions.

To broaden women's part in industrial development and ensure an effective contribution, Governments will need first of all to reorient their policies and political wills, at home and internationally. Secondly, measures will have to be taken to develop the abilities of women through innovative educational and training programmes; to make top industrial management aware of the need to raise the level of participation of women; and to organize and co-ordinate the current activities of women in industrialization, particularly in areas of basic needs such as food, health, clothing and shelter which touch their daily lives and in which their involvement is of obvious importance.

INTIB publications available

The Industrial and Technological Information Bank (INTIB) has issued its first three publications on two of the priority sectors which are its main concerns: iron and steel and agroindustries.

INTIB is described in more detail in the "UNIDO focus" article in this issue.

Technological Profiles on the Iron and Steel Industry (UNIDO/IOD.191) consists of four profiles covering world distribution and production of iron ore. Information is given on beneficiation, sintering and pelletizing methods; ironmaking; steelmaking; and different steel-casting processes, including continuous casting.

Industrial Processing of Ground-nuts (UNIDO/IOD.198) is a technical study which was originally prepared in French. It has an extensive bibliography.

Industrial Processing of Cotton-seed (UNIDO/IOD.190), another technical study, was also originally prepared in French, and its information is supported by many tables.

These unedited publications are available in limited number. They are intended primarily for the use of industrial information centres in developing countries, to whom most of the efforts of INTIB are directed, and they may be obtained by writing to the Editor, *UNIDO Newsletter*, and quoting the symbol number and the language required. *Technological Profiles on the Iron and Steel Industry* is available in English only, and *Industrial Processing of Ground-nuts* and *Industrial Processing of Cotton-seed* are available in English or French. All three volumes will appear in edited form later this year.

Experts wanted . . .

A few of the positions for which UNIDO needs candidates. Please note that applicants, if selected, will be appointed directly by UNIDO; no subcontracting arrangement will be made with their employers. Please send inquiries to the Editor, UNIDO Newsletter, quoting the number at the end of the entry.

Africa

Industrial planning. One year. Maseru, Lesotho. Assist the Ministry of Commerce and Industry in implementing its development plan by monitoring progress and, if necessary, suggesting changes. Help draft requests for technical and financial assistance and prepare subsector surveys and programmes; assess legislation and advise on policy; help the industrial section of the Ministry to work out its internal administrative structure and training needs. Advanced degree, preferably in economics, with experience in policy formulation at the government level and knowledge of local conditions and needs in developing countries. English. HW261.

Instant coffee manufacture. Three months, possible extension. Kampala, Uganda, travel within country. Working closely with officials from the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, prepare a prefeasibility study on the manufacture of instant coffee. In particular, identify overseas markets; assess present facilities for making instant coffee and local supplies of coffee beans; determine suitable locations for factory; request quotations from equipment suppliers; prepare estimate of costs including those for various alternatives. Degree or equivalent in chemical, food or industrial engineering and extensive experience. English. HW262.

Building specialist. Nine months. Lama Kara, Togo. Study the organization of the existing building enterprises; suggest ways of improving efficiency, reliability and safety; and train entrepreneurs accordingly. Engineer or high-level building technician familiar with all aspects of the trade and with several years' experience in the small- and medium-scale building industry. French. HW263.

UNIDO profiles

UNIDO and industrial information

The Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development and Co-operation recommended that measures be taken to make available a greater flow of information to the developing countries, permitting the proper selection of advanced technologies. Specifically, consideration was to be given to the establishment of an industrial and technological information bank.

The implementation of such measures is a task of UNIDO in its function of industrial information clearing-house. Although information is constantly being brought to developing countries by way of UNIDO technical assistance operations, industrial studies, publications, consultations etc., the organization's responsibilities as a clearing-house for information are co-ordinated and carried out mainly by the Industrial Information Section.

The Section works with the Development and Transfer of Technology Section in the Technology Group, which reports directly to the Executive Director, and, in relation to specific sectors and aspects of industry, it also co-operates with officers in the substantive sections of the Industrial Operations Division and the International Centre for Industrial Studies. Its activities include the Industrial Inquiry Service; the Selective Dissemination of Information Service; library, abstracting and indexing facilities; and publications.

Recently, the Industrial and Technological Information Bank (INTIB) was set up to complement and strengthen the existing information and advisory services. A pilot operation, INTIB was described in *Newsletter* No. 111.

The Industrial Information Section provides the following services:

Management of information sources

This activity involves the location and utilization of sources of industrial and technological information. These sources include a world-wide network of correspondents and a computerized roster of 1,700 engineering consultants, who are contacted for answers to the technical inquiries from developing countries addressed to the Industrial Inquiry Service and INTIB. The Section also issues the series *Guides to Information Sources*, which are intended to give developing countries direct access to sources of industrial information; the *Guides* currently in print cover 30 branches of industry.

As part of the link-up with technological data banks and their international networks, the Section draws on the organization's Geneva-based collection of abstracts, which are retrieved and published in the *Industrial Development Abstracts* series. When highly specialized information is needed, various research and consulting institutes are called on. Information on patents is sought from the International Patent Documentation Centre of the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO), which is based in Vienna. Within the Section itself, the UNIDO library regularly acquires up-to-date technical and scientific documents.

Management of information material

The Section maintains, consolidates and updates the UNIDO stock of industrial and technological information material. Documents prepared within or at the instigation of UNIDO are micro-filmed, and two sets of files are maintained: subject files, arranged by industrial branch and especially pertinent to the selection of technology, and country files, containing

material on industrial progress in developing countries. UNIDO documents, reports and publications are briefly described in the *Industrial Development Abstracts*, and a computer storage system permits easy retrieval of information about everything printed by UNIDO on any subject or concerning any group of countries. Furthermore, the computerized mailing list for the *UNIDO Newsletter* classifies the names of 26,000 recipients by sector of interest and type of institution.

Information analysis and processing

The material obtained from the network of correspondents has put the Industrial Inquiry Service in touch with a wide range of industrial activities and problems, from industrial planning and technology selection to the operational difficulties of the shop-floor engineer and the intricacies of marketing. Incoming material is processed so that the information transmitted to developing countries is immediately usable. Frequently, only light processing is necessary or feasible, especially when the information has already been summarized by the correspondent. In answering inquiries about the four sectors on which INTIB concentrates, however, the investigation is much more thorough. These sectors are iron and steel, fertilizers, agricultural machinery and implements, and agroindustries. INTIB analyses of information are published as technological profiles in the *Development and Transfer of Technology* series in order to help in the search for appropriate technology. Such in-depth processing of information material also enables UNIDO to broaden and refine its advisory function.

In the library, a Selective Dissemination of Information Service is maintained, whereby new periodicals and other material are scanned, photocopied and brought to the attention of UNIDO staff at headquarters and in the field.

Linkages among information users

Developing linkages among users of information is essential to the entire programme. The intermediaries between UNIDO and parties in need of information in developing countries are the industrial information centres, many of which have been set up with technical assistance from UNIDO, and the industrial information facilities within other institutions servicing industry, in particular technological research and development centres. The *UNIDO Newsletter* is also important in establishing user linkages.

In the pilot-project stage, INTIB operations have been limited to the provision of services for selected institutions in developing countries; later, services may be extended to firms and individuals.

Network of information systems and services

Every organization in the United Nations system has some form of information service, which has connections with national systems and services. The various operations have been described in the *Directory of the United Nations Information Systems and Services*, published by the Inter-Organization Board for Information Systems as a first step in creating a United Nations-wide network of scientific and technological information systems. The UNIDO Industrial Information System and INTIB were included in the *Directory* (see *Newsletter* No. 122).

Finally, the Industrial Information Section co-operates with regional industrial information networks and takes part in international seminars and conferences concerned with facilitating the exchange of industrial and technological information. A dual-language *Thesaurus of Industrial Development Terms* has been compiled in English and French. As common terminology is necessary to the maintenance of any information network, UNIDO is collaborating with WIPO to establish cross references between the *Thesaurus* and the patent classification system in use at the data bank of the International Patent Documentation Centre.

Industrial opportunities

Information on resources sought by entrepreneurs in developing countries and resources available from industrial firms or organizations throughout the world. Interested parties should send their replies to the UNIDO Newsletter for forwarding to the person(s) concerned. Quote number at end of entry.

Those who wish to have listed the resources they need or have available should submit complete information and a summary to "Industrial opportunities", UNIDO Newsletter.

Inclusion of an entry does not indicate that UNIDO has evaluated or approved it. Identities are confidential; please do not ask for them. UNIDO may only forward your inquiry.

Resources sought

Brazil. Joint venture sought for manufacturing rock-wool and thermal and acoustic insulation material. (126/1)

Brazil. Licence or joint venture sought for manufacturing additives for animal feed, particularly mineral salts, vitamins, enzymes and veterinary products. (126/2)

Egypt. Joint venture sought for manufacturing various types and sizes of fuses. (126/3)

Egypt. Joint venture sought for manufacturing prefabricated wooden doors and windows, and wooden household and office furniture. Products would be distributed to neighbouring African and Arab countries. (126/4)

India. Established firm seeks collaboration for manufacturing 100 tons a year of explosive-grade ammonium nitrate. Marketing assistance from a collaborator in a developing country would be welcome. (126/5)

India. Established firm seeks technical collaboration, preferably with buy-back arrangement, for manufacturing sebacic acid, capryl alcohol etc. from castor oil, sodium chlorate and fatty alcohols. (126/6)

United Republic of Cameroon. Technical and financial assistance and machinery sought for processing tomato concentrate and preserving green beans. (126/7)

United Republic of Cameroon. Entrepreneur seeks joint-venture partnership, to include supply of machinery, for establishing a polyurethane foam industry in Nigeria. (126/8)

Yugoslavia. Manufacturer of sawn timber, chairs, upholstered furniture and furniture from veneered chipboard and solid wood seeks partners for joint-venture companies outside Yugoslavia. (126/9)

Yugoslavia. Textile manufacturer seeks partner for joint venture to produce unwoven synthetic fabrics for use in foundations for asphalt roads and concrete embankments and for other building applications. (126/10)

Yugoslavia. Manufacturer seeks technical know-how and partner for producing street-vending machines for food, beverages, cigarettes, cosmetics etc. (126/11)

Resources available

Belgium. Licence rights available for a process for precision casting of ferrous and non-ferrous metals. The process can be used to make chill moulds for casting and moulds for injection, rotational and blow moulding; thermo-forming and vacuum forming of plastic and glass; die-stamping; core boxes; and small production runs of intricate parts. (126/12)

Ecuador. Joint venture or licences available for manufacturing shock absorbers, mufflers, relays, alternators, starters and related items. (126/13)

France. Licence rights available for an industrial mixer especially suited for the agrofood industry. The mixer has a capacity of 1,250 litres and a hydraulic rocker bowl that can be lifted by a hydraulic arm. It can also be used in the chemical industry and in animal-feed production for mixing powders and pastes. (126/14)

Japan. Joint venture, licensing and know-how available for biomass production by bacteria from methanol using industrial raw materials as the source of protein. (126/15)

Japan. Know-how and licensing available for the neutralization of waste sulphuric acid with a calcium compound that is easily and economically available by the two-stage treatment. (126/16)

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Licence rights available for an installation to manufacture flask-free moulds for making cored and coreless castings of average complexity weighing up to 20 kg from ferrous and non-ferrous alloy. Advantages include a high production rate, direct quality control of the moulds and automatic disposal of substandard moulds, and convenient placing of cores directly into the moulds. (126/17)

United Kingdom. Technical know-how and licence rights available for process for manufacturing dehydrated dairy cream. Complete manufacturing plant can be offered. (126/18)

United Kingdom. Licence rights, know-how and processing plant offered for dehydration process for fruits, vegetables and tomatoes. (126/19)

United Kingdom. Former field expert with experience in a transnational company, and specializing in cosmetics, toiletries, perfume formulation and application, aerosols, household products etc., is available for six-month period to work with government or trade association without salary or fee (expenses and travelling costs only). Speaks Arabic, English and German. (126/20)

Yugoslavia. Technical know-how available for manufacturing plastic ventilators and centrifugal pumps. (126/21)

Publications

A limited number of copies of the following may be obtained free on request from the Editor, UNIDO Newsletter, by quoting title and symbol number. The letters C (Chinese), E (English), F (French), R (Russian) and S (Spanish) refer to the languages in which the document is available.

English

Application of Network Models to Industrial Project Development in Developing Countries. Briefly reviews the application of such network models as the Critical Path Method (CPM) and Project Evaluation and Review Techniques (PERT). 15 pages. PI/62.

Draft Report on Second Consultative Group on Appropriate Industrial Technology, Vienna, 26-29 June 1978. Covers various aspects of the selection and application of appropriate technology under the headings of industrial growth strategy, sectoral linkages, policy issues and international technological co-operation. Gives lists of participants and papers presented. 38 pages. ID/WG.279/12.

Report of the Second Panel Meeting of Industrial Experts on the Pharmaceutical Industry. Gives the conclusions and recommendations of the Meeting on such matters as criteria for selecting drugs for local production, terms and conditions for the transfer of technology and know-how, and co-operation among developing countries and with international pharmaceutical companies. Gives lists of papers and participants. 34 pages. ID/WG.267/4/Rev.1.

Reports on Drugs from the National Drug List Which Because of Their Essentiality Could Be Produced in the Developing Countries. Gives processing details on eleven drugs, indicating raw materials and investment required, names of major producers and patent holders, consumption levels and prices on international and domestic markets. Also includes an industrial profile for a multipurpose plant to manufacture four of the synthetic drugs along with several other commonly used drugs. 82 pages. ID/WG.267/5.

Supplement to "Annotated Bibliography on the Research Done on the Use of Naturally Occurring Adhesives for Wood Processing Industries". An additional 105 abstracts to the 475 already published in ID/WG.248/5 (see *Newsletter* No. 116). 28 pages. ID/WG.248/5/Add.1.

University Involvement in Industrial Development—Initial Responses to UNIDO Survey. Summarizes the areas in which various universities and institutes of higher education in Africa, Asia and Latin America would be able to co-operate with UNIDO in handling local industrialization problems, such as offering training facilities locally and carrying out contract research and technical consultancy. 21 pages. UNIDO/IOD.201.

English and French

Industrial Processing of Cotton-seed. A technical study prepared and translated from French for the UNIDO Industrial and

Technological Information Bank (INTIB). 153 pages. UNIDO/IOD.190.

Industrial Processing of Ground-nuts. A technical study prepared and translated from French for INTIB. Extensive tables. 136 pages plus bibliography. UNIDO/IOD.198.

ORDERING INFORMATION

Because of the rapidly increasing number of requests for UNIDO documents and publications described in the "Publications" column, the *Newsletter* staff in future will handle only those requests that quote the **document symbol**, the title of the item requested and the language desired (if published in more than one language).

Letters that do not specify the document symbol will be returned to the writer, who will be asked to supply the missing information.

UNIDO calendar

In most cases, UNIDO invites participation from persons from developing countries who have been nominated by their Governments. For further information write to the Editor, UNIDO Newsletter.

6-10 November, Innsbruck, Austria. Second consultation meeting on the fertilizer industry; 250.

6-10 November, Vienna. Preparatory meeting on the role of women in industrialization in developing countries; 20-30.

6 November-16 December, New Delhi. Training programme on industrial development banking, English-speaking group; 20.

13-18 November, Arusha, United Republic of Tanzania. Regional expert group meeting on institutional infrastructure for industrial

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development in the least developed African countries; 20-30.

16-30 November, Mexico City. Latin American workshop in industrial design; 40.

20-30 November, New Delhi and Anand, India. International forum on appropriate industrial technology; 300.

20 November-8 December, Dresden, German Democratic Republic. Training programme in the printing industry, English-speaking group; 20.

27-29 November, Vienna. Global preparatory meeting for the First Consultation Meeting on the Petrochemical Industry; 30.

4-8 December, Dakar. Investors' Forum for the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS/CEDEAO); 200.

6-8 December, Vienna. Meeting to review the joint UNDP/UNIDO evaluation study on industrial research and service institutes; 20-30.

11-15 December, Vienna. Permanent Committee of the Industrial Development Board, eleventh session; 300.

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ENGLISH

United Nations Industrial Development Organization

Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing
Countries

Vienna, Austria, 6 - 10 November 1978

DRAFT*

FINAL REPORT OF THE PREPARATORY MEETING

VIENNA
10 November 1978

* As submitted to the Final Preliminary Session on 10 November 1978 at
4. p.m. for consideration and adaptation

REPORT OF THE PREPARATORY MEETING
ON THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIALIZATION
IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Vienna, 6-10 November 1978

INTRODUCTION

1. The role presently played by women in the society is now being recognized and is continuously being strengthened, although the situation varies from region to region and from country to country. In the industrialization process, however, the role of women is still minimal. Industrialization activities have so far not taken into account either the needs of women nor their potential contribution. In general terms, the involvement of women in industry could be beneficial to mankind as a whole in that:
 - (a) all available human resources would be utilized to the maximum and
 - (b) the quality of life of both women and men would be improved through a sharing of responsibilities and benefits.

2. Specifically, women have the potential to make a significant contribution in the full range of activities such as decision-making, planning, top- and medium-level management, and technical fields from engineers down to field workers. The present situation, however, is that women are relegated to the lower levels in each of the above activities.

3. It is generally recognized that there is inequality between men and women both in developed and in developing countries. However, the unequal distribution of economic and political power is more acutely reflected in developing countries where the common historical and political past has resulted in a discrepancy between the incomes of a small minority and the majority of the population, a discrepancy which has affected, above all, women. It is also widely recognized that a new approach to economic development is needed, which would ensure the equal participation of all population groups in the development processes. Only when this is achieved can a nation awaken fully to economic and social stability. If industrialization is an essential part of economic development, conditions must be created for the full integration of women in the industrialization process. This has been clearly stated in the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development adopted by the

Second General Conference of UNIDO in March 1975 as well as resolution 44 (IX) adopted by the Industrial Development Board in April 1975.

4. Since Western patterns of industrialization with adverse social effects have often spread across national and cultural boundaries, it is clearly the responsibility of the whole international community to analyse the situation of women in the process of industrialization and to bring about change.

5. To bring about a fuller and more effective contribution of women to industrial development will require first a re-orientation of present policies and political wills of governments at national and international levels, and secondly a number of measures to (a) upgrade the capabilities of women, (b) increase the consciousness of decision-makers to the potential benefits of increasing the participation of women, and (c) establish mechanisms to organize and co-ordinate the current and future participation of women in the industrialization process.

6. The purpose of the meeting was to discuss the role of women in industrialization in developing countries within the framework of the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action which, inter alia, called for policy measures aimed at achieving greater social justice through a more equitable income distribution and the optimum development and utilization of human resources including women. Specifically, the meeting was organized to recommend to UNIDO lines of action for formulation, development and implementation of specific activities, in co-operation with UN agencies and relevant international and national institutions, to fully integrate women in the industrialization process.

ORGANIZATION AND ATTENDANCE

7. The Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries organized by UNIDO, was held in Vienna from 6-10 November 1978.

8. The Meeting was attended by 50 participants from developing and developed countries and from international organizations. UNIDO staff also participated.

All those attending the meeting did so in their individual capacity and not as representatives of governments, organizations or institutions. A list of participants is given in document No.

9. Ms. Bolanle Awe (Nigeria) and Ms. Dora Rives (Cuba) were elected Chairman and Vice-Chairman respectively. Ms. Lilia Bautista (Philippines) was elected Rapporteur.

10. The provisional agenda and work programme (document No.) was adopted. A list of documents presented to the meeting is provided as document No.

11. The meeting held two plenary sessions on item 4 of the agenda, "Current contribution of women to industrial development and major constraints to an increased participation by women in the industrialization process of developing countries". Thereafter it was decided to break up into two groups, one to discuss the role and participation of women in small-scale and medium-scale industries and a second group to discuss the role and participation of women in large-scale industries.

CURRENT CONTRIBUTION OF WOMEN TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT AND MAJOR CONSTRAINTS TO AN INCREASED PARTICIPATION BY WOMEN IN THE INDUSTRIALIZATION PROCESS

12. The meeting noted that women were already integrated in the economic development process including industrialization. What was needed was a fundamental change in the nature and structure of such integration. Women's participation in the industrialization process was relegated mainly to light industries with a low capital content such as food, beverages, tobacco, textiles and wearing apparel and specially in rural and cottage industries. Within these industries it was, moreover, noted that women were mostly participating at the lowest levels of skill requirements and where, consequently, salaries and wages were low.

13. The magnitude of women's total involvement in industrialization was highlighted when it was noted by the meeting that some four hundred million women were engaged in industrial activities in the developing countries in contrast to one hundred million in the industrialized countries. However, it was noted that when looked at on a country-to-country basis, the participation of women in the industrial labour force in developing countries was only a very small percentage of the total, and was moreover concentrated in low-technology industries.

14. A number of constraints to a fuller participation of women in the industrialization process of developing countries was noted by the Meeting. Generally, these were mainly of a social, psychological and economic nature. The Meeting took particular note of the following factors which were considered of primary importance:

- (1) Where unemployment or under-employment existed, which was the case in many developing countries, the barriers to women participation in industrialization seem to be greater;
- (2) The attitudes of men towards women's participation in economic and industrial activities, derived from traditional, cultural and religious beliefs.
- (3) The fact that women's reproductive role in society was generally looked at as an economic cost in industry

15. The Meeting recognised that to have real influence and effectively bring about a transformation in the factors inhibiting women's integration in industrialization, a basic change in policies and attitudes was needed at all levels of society in the developing countries. For this to come about, it was recognized by the Meeting that women should make increasing efforts to be in the political forefront and become decision-makers.

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1. It is generally recognized that there is inequality between men and women both in developed and in developing countries. However, the unequal distribution of economic and political power is more acutely reflected in developing countries where the common historical and political past has resulted in a discrepancy between the incomes of a small minority and the majority of the population, a discrepancy which has affected, above all, women. A new approach to economic development is needed, which would ensure the equal participation of all population groups in the development processes. Only when this is achieved can a nation awaken fully to economic and social stability.

If industrialization is an essential part of economic development, conditions must be created for the full integration of women in the industrialization process. This has been clearly stated in the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development adopted by the Second General Conference of UNIDO in March 1975 as well as resolution 44(IX) adopted by the Industrial Development Board in April 1975.

2. Since ~~Western~~ patterns of industrialization with adverse social effects have often spread across national and cultural boundaries, it is clearly the responsibility of the whole international community to analyse the situation of women in the process of industrialization and to bring about change.

3. To bring about a fuller and more effective contribution of women to industrial development will require first a re-orientation of present policies and political wills of governments at national and international levels, and secondly a number of measures to (a) upgrade the ^{skills} capabilities of women, (b) increase the consciousness of decision-makers to the potential benefits of increasing the participation of women, and (c) establish mechanisms to organize and co-ordinate the current and future participation of women in the industrialization process. ^{adapted for emphasis}

4. The role presently played by women in the society is now being recognized and is continuously being strengthened, although the situation varies from region to region and from country to country. In the industrialization process, however, the role of women is still minimal. Industrialization activities have so far not taken into account neither the needs of women, nor their potential contribution. In general terms, the involvement of women in industry could be beneficial to mankind as a whole in that:

- (a) all available human resources would be utilized to the maximum and;
- (b) the quality of life of both women and men would be improved through a sharing of responsibilities and benefits.

5. The mode of increasing the share of the developing countries to at least 25% of the total world industrial production will have an impact on women. In this process it is, therefore, important to secure for women, regardless of their ^{social} status, the same opportunities as are available to men for gainful employment. This is especially important to bear in mind, as women are more vulnerable in a situation of massive un- and under-employment prevailing in a majority of developing countries.

6. The economic constraints as declared in the new international economic order, social prejudices and psychological barriers towards the participation of women in industrial development and employment exist throughout the world. They are rooted in economic and cultural concepts that tie women and their work to the confines of home and hearth. ✓

7. When it comes to planning, formulation and implementation of industrial development, employment, ^{labour force} man-power planning, wages and education policy, due to the inherent biases in the institutional structures women are seldom given consideration. Policy especially on the planning level, is based on inadequate information on what women really do or can do. Existing statistic methodologies do not usually include the whole range of productive activities performed by women, for example (e.g.) in national income accounting and the informal sector. X

8. The purpose of the meeting, organized by UNIDO, was to discuss the role of women in industrialization in developing countries within the framework of the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action which, inter alia, called for policy measures aimed at achieving greater social justice through a more equitable income distribution and the optimum development and utilization of human resources including women. Specifically, the meeting was organized to recommend to UNIDO lines of action for formulation, development and implementation of specific activities, in co-operation with UN agencies and relevant international and national institutions, to fully integrate women in the industrialization process.

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CURRENT CONTRIBUTION OF WOMEN TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT
AND MAJOR CONSTRAINTS

1. It was noted that depending upon the level of industrial development and cultural characteristics, women were already integrated in industrial production, especially in certain sectors and types of industry. What was needed was a fundamental change in the nature and structure of such integration.
2. Even considering a low estimate the total number of women in industry totals 400,000,000 in developing countries - in contrast to 100,000,000 in developed countries - the magnitude of the problem discussed called for due attention.
3. Women's participation in industrial production was confined primarily to low technology, low capital intensity and low productivity. Different country studies indicate a limited number of major production lines, among which food processing, textiles, animal products, household equipment manufacturing, plastic materials, pharmaceutical and medical products, paper and cardboard, electronics, building materials and standardized handicrafts more commonly involve women.
4. Women's industrial involvement may take various forms ranging from organized participation in large firms to manufacturing at home. In view of the different socio-economic and political systems it was considered by the meeting that special attention needs to be paid not to exclude certain types of women's work from industrial production.
5. In many developing countries traditional lines of small women's industry has provided the country's entry to the world market.
6. Regardless of the sector and type of industry, women mostly participate in the production process at the lowest levels of skill requirements and consequently obtain marginal remuneration, either in the form of earnings, salaries or wages.

A number of constraints to a fuller participation of women in the industrialization process of developing countries was noted by the meeting. Generally, these were mainly of an economic, social, legal and psychological nature. The meeting took particular note of the following factors which were considered of primary importance.

Social and Psychological Barriers

Century old traditions and the assistance of conservative circles have retarded the emancipation of women and their full participation in the economical life as equals to men. The legacy of colonial structures has also played a major role in the exploitation of women (examples: wage discrimination and the reluctance to employ women at higher echelons of industry). The obstacles are more inhibiting when women, either individually or in groups, try to set up their own enterprises.

Inadequate Industrial Capacity to Create Increased Employment Opportunities for Women

No special consideration is given to the development of projects or possibilities of investment/ for industries where women can participate. In those geographical areas where small industries are traditionally absent, women are excluded from active participation in industry.

The reasons why employment cannot be created fast enough lie in the slow rate of industrialization itself in developing countries. Lack of management for monitoring of production; lack of input organization (insufficient infrastructure, input shortages and input irregularities); lack of design and quality control which affects the marketing, hindering particularly the women's industries as entrepreneurial, managerial and technical skills are absent among the women.

Employment Barriers at all Levels

The existing fragmentation of the labour market along sex lines prohibits women's entrance to new lines of production and hinders their promotion to higher levels, it has been demonstrated that during national

emergencies and independence movements women have been mobilized to assume important roles at all levels; however, due to the non-existence of institutional roles at all levels; however, due to the non-existence of institutional mechanisms, these efforts are not subsequently being channelled into development. On the other hand, when there is acute unemployment, the promotion of women's employment is considered as snatching chances from men, and women find it particularly hard to find work in industry. According to studies made by the ILO, the level of unemployment in developing countries is nearly 25% of the available work force. It is thus obvious that general unemployment is one of the main reasons for the low percentage of working women.

Lack of Organization and Participation of Women in Trade Unions

The lack of proper organization among women is one of the major weaknesses in promoting the integration of women in development in general and in industrial development in particular.

In the latter case, the meeting noted the lack of organization and effective participation of women in trade unions, at the level of members and administrators as well as **lack of** participation in international organizations involving labour.

Where women could participate in and start small units, they are impeded from doing so since they are not yet organized in legally recognized groups such as co-operatives.

Lack of Participation in Decision Making/Planning Bodies

Women's interests are not being taken into consideration due to their exclusion from in decision making and planning at all stages of the development process, for example women are not being consulted at the planning stage; their project ideas never reach the decision level.

Working/Employment Conditions

As mentioned above women are relegated to low-productivity jobs requiring low-skill and therefore with lower salaries. Furthermore, even when occupying higher ranks, women's salaries are considered as a complementary income, and thus lower than men's. This mentality has led to an inequitable occupational distribution within the economy.

Women's effective contribution to the industrialization process is further limited by the fact that whenever women enter the industrial labour force, they still remain responsible for the household and the care of the family group. The lack, or the ineffectiveness of legislation for the social facilities, maternity and social security benefits was underlined in this respect. Likewise the inadequate administrative regulations on working hours,

organization of shifts and lack of health and safety regulation for women hampers their involvement in industry.

Finally, women's possibility of advancement within industry is impeded by the lack of training schemes to upgrade skills in large scale industries. On the other hand, women find it difficult to start small industries due to inexistent systematic training and skill improvement facilities leading to overall entrepreneurship development, i.e. marketing, banking and production management.

Under the present international system, most transnational corporations locate industries in developing countries in order to exploit cheap and relatively unorganized labour. Some industries particularly seek female labour because it is the most easily exploited - such as electronics and textiles. Some transnational corporations are in effect often exporting a part of the production process which is labour intensive, creating bad employment conditions for women, while maintaining capital intensive, highly skilled and more productive stages of the labour process in the industrialized countries, and inhibiting the transfer of technology to the developing countries.

Another aspect of the inequitable international economic system is that many industrialized countries import cheap migrant labour to do work in areas of industry which workers in the developed countries are unwilling to accept. This sometimes involves migrant women workers, but where it involves men, women are also adversely affected because families are split up and women are left with a heavy burden of responsibility for the maintenance of the family, without opportunity for acquiring jobs and skills in the domestic economy.

Discriminatory Legislation

In certain countries legislation on under-aged and married women impedes them from participating in the organized labour or in entrepreneur groups.

Lack of Investment and Credit Facilities

One of the main constraints encountered by women in the development of their own industries is lack of finance. Rural women, in particular, are not considered credit-worthy.

Education and Training

The illiteracy of women is one of the major obstacles preventing them from being drawn into active production and public life. In certain countries and particularly in rural areas - female illiteracy exceeds 90%. A major constraint is that few women have the minimum technical skills required in industry. Modern and advanced technologies offer less and less job opportunities for women who do not possess the required skills, on the other hand, there appears to be discrimination of women when it comes to placement in existing industrial training programmes including on-the-job training.

A basic constraint not only for the integration of women in industry but for the industrialization process in developing countries is the fact that relatively large numbers of women are adequately trained to undertake industrial activities are being left idle, or are performing tasks at lower levels than their qualifications would warrant. A type of brain-drain that should be avoided if maximum human resources are to be mobilized to implement the targets set by the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action.

Downgrading of women's skills due to technological change

Technological advancements are often used as a pretext for excluding women from the high-paying positions in industry. This constraint is compounded by the lack of training opportunities to upgrade women's skills to correspond to technological changes.

Information

Women are not properly informed about the opportunities available concerning their potential involvement in the industrialization process as well as of the possibilities of improving

their skill capabilities to meet the needs of industry.

Data and methodology on women's contributions

Lack of data and proper methodology for measuring women's existing and potential contributions to industrialization, which is crucial for effective planning of industrialization programmes aimed at fully utilizing available human resources in developing countries.

I. Recommendations to UNIDO

It is recommended that UNIDO create institutional machinery such as an interdivisional ^{working-group on women} to implement and follow-up the tasks listed below:

*as requested
to take account
and create
an institution*

AN

1. To take into consideration the discussion of and documentation to the Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries.
2. To provide ^{inform} suitable instructions and guidelines to ^{(appropriate UNIDO-sections and} the field experts and UNDP Resident Representatives regarding the role of women, to ensure that in the on-going, substantive programmes this ^{is} incorporated.
3. To make more specific efforts to include women in international ^{training programmes} conferences, workshops, etc. relating to industrial questions.
4. In the Secretariats of UNIDO, ^{qualified} women should be included at the managerial, administrative and technical levels.
5. To develop project concepts in this area and develop project proposals where women are ^{involved} and give assistance in implementing these programmes.
6. To circulate to the Industrial Development Board of UNIDO ^{(the report of the meeting and} initiate studies relating to selected industries such as electronics, food processing, pharmaceutical and textile industries, which would be undertaken by the UNIDO Secretariat and other relevant agencies such as ILO, FAO, WHO, ^{of which the preliminary reports should} be submitted to the 1980 UN Conference on Women.
7. Where UNIDO and other international organizations provide technical assistance in project feasibility studies or selection of technologies, they should adopt measures for evaluating such activities which are likely to adversely affect women in the production process.
8. UNIDO studies should be undertaken concerning experiences of women already active in small and medium-scale industries both in rural and urban areas for subsequent dissemination to all developing countries; to undertake intensive research on the ^{type} of technologies that aid women in existing jobs.
9. To evaluate ^{the effect on} women's employment of:
 - (a) technology choice
 - (b) implementation of technology

[Handwritten bracket on the left side of items 8 and 9]

10. To give special attention to project development in areas where women can be employed such as:

- a) areas of agricultural modernization
- b) areas of developing infrastructure
- c) areas of raw material and resource availability (including manpower availability)
- d) areas of industrial decentralization (i.e. so-called national priority investment areas which might well coincide with the least developed rural areas).

To formulate together with countries and appropriate UN bodies pilot projects in these areas for which resources in the UNIDO Industrial Development Fund could be available;

To allocate resources from the UNIDO budget to give women the opportunity to upgrade their technical skills through personnel exchange programmes.

11. To improve data collection and research methodology, for better industrial planning, by disaggregating data on the actual contribution of women in the production process (including taking measures to quantify subsistence). *Product*

To re-orient the UNIDO training and fellowship programmes at the managerial and technical levels to ensure a greater participation of women. This should be done after consultations with other UN agencies such as UNESCO and ILO which are involved in education and vocational training respectively and where action is also required to tackle the problem at all levels.

In re-orienting the training programmes, UNIDO should put emphasis on developing training programmes for women trainers; existing national institutions or centres should be used for that purpose.

Organize subregional special training programmes for women, particularly in industries already planned in the subregion.

Organize meetings of experts to exchange experiences concerning training of women, especially for current industries with a large potential for participation of women.

Revise UNIDO's suggestions to Governments for the nomination of candidates for UNIDO training and fellowship programmes, if necessary, in order to increase training opportunities for women.

17. Design managerial and technical training programmes for women in order for them to keep up to date with the latest technological developments in industry.

18. As a follow-up of resolution 44 (IX) on the integration of women in development adopted by the Industrial Development Board in 1975, the Board may consider (a) requesting the Secretariat of UNIDO to design and execute concrete projects for training of women at higher technological and managerial levels and (b) allocating a portion of the funds available for training under the Regular Programme of Technical Assistance specifically for this purpose.

II. For UNIDO in co-operation with the other UN Agencies

1. It is recommended that appropriate UN agencies include women's interest in the codes of conduct currently under negotiation relating to transnational corporations and transfer of technology.
2. Assist national governments in the educational reforms to improve women's technological and scientific skills.
3. UNIDO in co-operation with other UN agencies should include women in the TCDC programme, particularly in the fields of transfer of technology to entrepreneurship in developing programme.

RECOMMENDATIONS AT THE NATIONAL AND LOCAL LEVELS

The meeting recommended the creation ^{or} ~~of~~ strengthening of the appropriate institutional machinery concerned with industrialization at all planning, institutional and operational levels to be responsible for promoting and co-ordinating the integration of women in the industrialization process, inter alia: upgrade the capabilities of women, increase the consciousness of decision-makers to the potential benefits of increasing the participation of women in the industrialization process. Specifically, ~~such machinery will undertake the following:-~~

There should be

1. [^] Effective implementation by developing countries of measures recommended by the UN system, particularly ILO, for the removal of discrimination against women in employment.
2. Policies and incentives should be adopted or strengthened to remove discrimination against women in recruitment practices, career development, on the job training and job security, including measures against discrimination of employed women especially when they are pregnant or on maternity leave and preventing discrimination against women when hiring and firing decisions are made. Studies should also be conducted on the desirability of a quota system for the employment of women at all levels.
3. ~~Dissemination of~~ Information on women's qualifications and jobs, as well as ^{image - building} campaigns to break down prejudice against women and campaigns to encourage men to share equally ^{the} responsibilities within the household. ~~should~~ ^{be disseminated.}
4. ~~Review~~ Existing national legislations ^{should be reviewed} with a view to abolishing all forms of discrimination and promoting equality of opportunity and equality of treatment of men and women. For example, existing legislation requiring male authorization for women to engage in business, obtain credit or benefit from tax incentives, ^{should be repealed}

5. For proper industrial planning, data should be disaggregated on actual contribution of women in the production process (including taking measures to quantify work done at home).

6. In the identification of national priority industries, both small, medium and large-scale, governments should re-examine their present criteria for selection of projects as to their impact on women's employment, both in rural and urban sectors, taking into account technology, product design and marketing organization. Production of labour-saving devices in the household should be considered to facilitate entry into the job market.

7. Policies concerning foreign investment should be examined in the light of practices of existing transnational corporations which affect women's participation.

8. ^{There should be} Effective participation of women, in all decision-making/planning bodies [^] and in unions and unionization.

At the national level women should be associated with the decisions at all levels of formulation, planning and implementation, including designing and planning of pre-investment and operating stages of industries.

- (a) At the executive level, including public service
- (b) At the judicial level, including industrial tribunals and quasi-judicial bodies
- (c) On the legislative level
- (d) At the industrial boards and boards of directors of state-owned enterprises.

At the local level women should participate in the local councils and appropriate municipal boards.

At the enterprise level women should be encouraged to participate in planning, decision-making, management levels; at plant levels, including membership and leadership positions in unions, and when non-unionized, to encourage unionization; ⁱⁿ ~~at~~ ^{Commercial} Chambers of Industries and professional bodies.

9. Special policy measures should be ^{adopted} ~~undertaken~~ to improve work and life conditions of women workers, particularly implementation of equal remuneration and improvement of wages, wage supplement for jobs of low satisfaction, equal access to occupational distribution, improved facilities, such as day-care centres, and protective social legislation (maternity and social security benefits). Particular attention should be given to women performing out-work and piece-work which, by the very nature of their work, ^{they are} ~~may be~~ the subject of discrimination.

10. ^{Assistance should be rendered} ~~Render assistance~~ to women entrepreneurs and women's organizations in their projects for the improvement of women, such as securing financial and technical assistance from international organizations and national financial institutions.

11. ~~Review~~ Banking regulations and policies concerning industrial credit ^{should be revised} with the objective of modifying them to facilitate the financing of women's industrial projects.

12. ^{train} ~~Review~~ ^{should be renewed} Existing educational system, taking into account inter alia:

- (a) that a terminal education system is introduced which aims at combining educational courses with job opportunities;
- (b) that technical education, including education directed towards industrial employment, is offered in the basic school system;
- (c) that technical education lines are offered ^{to} ~~for~~ girls;
- (d) that educational materials for all basic education are prepared in such a way as to change the attitudes towards traditional sex-role patterns; and
- (e) that re-orientation courses are arranged for teachers to ensure implementation of the above reforms.

13. Non-formal education duly co-ordinated with the government and private sector should be available to women for skill formation and upgrading including technical, administrative and managerial subjects. The timing of the educational programmes should be suitable for working women.

14. ~~Provide~~ Career guidance ^(should be provided for) to women together with information on available educational opportunities.

15. ~~Adopt~~ Specific measures to increase women's participation in training programmes. ^(should be adopted) For this purpose studies should be conducted as to the desirability of mandatorily requiring enterprises and government training institutions to allocate a percentage of their training resources for women.

16. For small and medium-scale industries, special assistance units for women industrialists and entrepreneurs should be created or strengthened. Such units will assist women in the selection of technology appropriate to local conditions and potentials.

17. ~~Encourage~~ The organization of women into co-operatives ^(should be encouraged to enable them) to undertake industrial projects, particularly in small and medium-scale industries, with incentives and technical assistance.

18. Continuing studies should be undertaken with a view to adopting measures designed to improve women's productivity and working conditions.

19. National governments should establish or strengthen national commissions and/or special office for industrial promotion and information services for women ^{and} or any other appropriate government agency to monitor and co-ordinate the above activities.

Productivity
Groups

SMALL AND MEDIUM SCALE INDUSTRIES

The mode of increasing the share of the developing countries to at least 25 % of the total world industrial production will affect the women.

In this process it is, therefore, important to secure for women, regardless of their marital status, the same opportunities as are available for men for gainful employment. This is especially important to bear in mind, as women are more vulnerable in a situation of massive un- and under-employment prevailing in a majority of developing countries.

It should also be borne in mind that in the process of job creation the quality of jobs should be considered relevant.

In the promotion of agro-based or agro-related industries it is important that the viability of small-scale technology should be considered.

There is, therefore, a need for mechanisms for

- 1) identification of strategies and procedures for considering equal opportunities for women and for considering a viable role and integrated function of small and medium-scale industries.
- 2) promoting/advocating the necessity of women's participation in industrial development and
- 3) implementation and evaluation of such participation.

This group has proposed a number of mechanisms - as outlined below - for the involvement of women in small - and medium-scale industries.

I. Definition of small and medium scale industries

1. Small and medium scale industries are "units" of production located either at home or at
 - small workshops
 - small associations
 - small factories
 - small neighbouring and kin groups and communitiesusing simple technology but producing (manufacturing and/or processing) standardized products.
2. Typically, both the investment and the operating capital requirements are small.
3. Marketing may either be done on an individual basis or by small groups
4. Although such industries are suitable to women and in accord with their roles, they need not be restricted to them.
5. The concept "small" need not refer to the size of capital but to the production location as multi-nationals or other large national firms may distribute piece work to be performed at home.

The group recommends that the current definition in use be scrutinized in order not to exclude certain female activities observed in different countries.

II. Types of small industries

Currently certain production areas seem to offer greater ease for small-scale industrial involvement for women. These are:

1. Food processing
 - oil extraction
 - baking
 - fish processing
 - fruit and vegetable canning/preservation
 - tobacco
 - flour mills
 - processing of herbal medicines and seasonings
2. Textiles
 - weaving
 - tailoring/garment industries
 - knitting
 - ~~bandages~~ *dying*
3. Animal products
 - milk and meat products
 - leather and skin processing
 - garments
 - shoes
 - bags
 - other items
4. Household equipment/goods, manufacturing
 - soap
 - pottery/cooking utensils/glass industries
 - baskets
 - electrical appliances
 - furniture
5. Plastic materials
6. Pharmaceutical and medical products
7. Paper and cardboard
8. Standardized handicrafts
 - woodwork
 - lapidary work - beads and setting of stones
 - weaving/carpeting
 - cloth printing processes - batik silk
 - embroidery
 - baskets and mats
 - bamboo and straw

*Rechnung
Blat
anmeldung*

III. Current contribution

1. In some areas the major industrial production is still primarily carried out by small and medium-size industries
2. In countries such as those in Africa the traditional lines of small industry have provided the country's entrance into the world market
3. In countries such as those of Africa and India, traditional small women's industries exist and contribute to the countries' total output.

4. Again, efforts are being made to expand the existing industries and to experiment with new lines of production.
5. In such industries (perhaps with the exception of ancillaries of large firms) labour is less alienated and more involved in the decision-making process, and a positive contribution can be said to be made to the democratization process.
6. As production units are small - located at home and/or in the community - almost automatically training opportunities become available for youth and other interested members of the community. Such a multiplier training effect of small-scale industries needs particular attention.

IV. Constraint

1. Lack of data and proper methodology for measuring women's contributions.
2. Lack of investment and initial operating capital; credit and loan *facilities* ~~shortages.~~
3. Lack of management for
 - a) production (monitoring)
 - b) input organization (insufficient infrastructure, input shortages, input irregularity)
 - c) marketing, lack of design (quality control)
4. Inefficient organization of labour, lack of innovative and suitable (legal) ~~forms~~ *means* of production and marketing organization.
5. Lack of systematic training and skill improvement facilities pertaining to different aspects of the production process, i.e. marketing, banking, book-keeping; including lack of expertise to prepare proper feasibility studies.
6. Insufficient information of women about involvement possibilities in the industrialization process; as well as about improvement of working conditions while in this process.
7. Lack of entrepreneurship.
8. Lack of projects and ideas for investment (in geographical areas where small industries are traditionally absent or where women are excluded from active participation.
9. Low productivity and continuous danger of "marginalizing" women's contribution to the economy.
10. Low profitability.
11. Severe competition of
 - a) organized, larger scale industries
 - b) other countries' small industries.
12. Legal constraints applying individually ^{to} organization of women
 - a) under-aged
 - b) married

13. Existing fragmentation of the labour market along sex as prohibiting women's entrance to new lines of production. *Lines*
14. Social resistance and sex role expectations.

V. Recommendations

A. General

1. As different countries have different levels of development and urbanization, recommendations concerning the development of small-scale industry should consider both the rural and urban sectors.
2. A focus on creation of employment relevant to technical training opportunities in the rural sector will both help control haphazard effects of migration to stem migration flows. Industrial efforts should not exclude rural areas.
3. Pilot projects can be supported by international organizations, and UNIDO should be involved in these pilot projects to help improve existing modes of production.
4. As industrial concentration ^{may not} cannot be prevented, special priority can be given to project development in
 - a) areas of agricultural modernization
 - b) areas of developing infrastructure
 - c) areas of raw material and resource availability (including manpower availability)
 - d) areas of industrial decentralization (i.e. so-called national priority investment areas which might well coincide with the least developed rural areas).
5. As shortages of infrastructure do not always allow access to rural and underdeveloped areas, industrial employment efforts might be designed first in areas which have already market potential.
6. Women must be given special training in improving their position in the administrative hierarchy so as to help other women to organize and get support to this end. International assistance and (personnel) exchange programmes can be arranged.
7. As the woman's voice is not normally heard at the national level, the assistance of international organizations is particularly needed to motivate governments to be sensitive to a) ideas generated by women; b) ideas generated for women.
8. International organizations ^{may} must make room for demands made by women's organizations not necessarily expressed via Governments.
9. National and international women's organizations may
 - a) help UNIDO in compiling the inventory
 - b) in creation of projects
 - c) in representing women's groups and in defending their projects
10. Model projects can be set up.

10. National development banks should have ~~a~~ person^s trained to promote the ~~interests of women.~~ *Women's industrial groups*, and international banks could help in the training of such persons.
11. International guidelines on the involvement of women for project application needs to be translated into the most common working languages. All international organizations must instruct their field staff to help initiate projects from among the people of these countries.
13. For promoting the changing role of women, men should be involved to gain full support.
14. Information about steps may be taken to involve women in industrial development and passed to persons who can then influence policies.
15. The U.N. system, - when involved in implementation - should pay proper attention to the decentralization trends in many countries and the implication of these trends - and work not just with the central national level but through the state/local government levels.

B. Job Creation

a) Project preparation

1. UNIDO can be asked to make an inventory of *Small, medium* project areas (identification)
2. UNIDO can be asked to evaluate on country and project bases:
 - a) technology choice
 - b) implementation of technology for women's employment.
3. UNIDO can help give assistance in preparing feasibility studies.
4. UNIDO can be asked to generate data and methodology to measure contribution of women to economy.
5. UNIDO should provide assistance to national women's organizations - to assist in project preparation, monitoring and evaluation.
6. Although having identified the listed industries as possibilities of work for women, we feel that the suggestion made on the floor as to the necessity of an inventory by UNIDO on the identification of industries where women are involved and can be involved should be implemented. In addition, completely new lines of activity may be created as, for instance, those based on agricultural by-products. Such new lines could be:
 - fuel bricks and biogas
 - oil by-products
 - poultry feed and other agricultural inputs
 - toys

b) Credit Programmes

1. Reviews of the legislation on credit granting in different countries should be undertaken in order to eliminate the existing constraints for granting short and long term loans for women. National governments
2. Comparative studies of the credit organizations in the different member countries should be made by UNIDO.
3. There should be a commitment on the part of the credit organizations as to give credit to women's projects taking into account their own financial responsibilities. National governments
4. UNIDO should investigate the possibility of utilizing women's world banking fund - when established - to finance women's projects and spread the information. National governments

5
NBSG - in attached

c) Development of technology

Make technical know-how and knowledge available to women without affecting the already established labour-intensive industries, but increasing productivity and employment potential. Here it is a question of appropriate technology. National government and UNIDO

d) Technical assistance

1. A mechanism to give technical assistance and information at grass-root level industries should be created by the local governments. National Government
2. A special Women's Industries Cell should be created at the Federal Government level in order to activate the national governments in giving assistance and obtaining assistance from international agencies.

e) Production and marketing organizations

1. Local women's organizations should investigate the possibilities of utilizing local raw material in the industrialization of products and also in substituting imported raw material.
2. They should also promote product design from the point of view of
 - consumer needs
 - productivity
 - quality control
 - linkages to input and product markets
 - infrastructural needs.

C. INCREASING ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT

1. An image-building system must be developed to eliminate prejudices and, thus, to ease women's entrance to the job market.

by local and civic groups incl. women organizations, parents groups, women workers themselves, trade unions.

2. Girls should be given career guidance *in collaboration with labour & employment exchanges which should also make special efforts to place female*

by national and local governments, women organizations and trade unions. by respective ministries at national and local government level, and by womens' organs. and trade unions.

3. A technical information system may be developed officially informing on educational opportunities (non-formal as well as formal), as well as designs, availability of raw materials etc.

4. An educational reform system must be developed and implemented including the following:

- (a) a terminal education system is introduced which aims at combining educational offers with job opportunities;
- (b) that technical education, including education directed towards industrial employment, is offered in the basic school system, and
- (c) that technical education lines are opened for girls;
- (d) that the educational material for all basic education is prepared in such a way as to change the attitudes towards traditional sex-role patterns.
- (e) that re-orientation courses are arranged for teachers

by UNESCO, National and Local Governments.

5. (a) Flexible mechanisms must be developed to offer non-formal education to women, aiming at skill-formation or skill upgrading in such fields as various technical topics, book-keeping, management, organization entrepreneurship.

- (b) That such non-formal offers by various agencies are co-ordinated.
- (c) That a system is developed which allows women trained on-the-job to get formal educational recognition.
- (d) That study material and equipment for vocational/technical training is made available for women

by UNESCO, ILO, FAO and respective ministries at national and local government levels

6. That the timing of the educational programmes is suitable to working women

by working women, local communities, women's organizations and national and local governments.

7. Services such as day-care and transportation and accessible markets and shopping facilities should be available.

8. That labour and energy saving tools and equipment for the performance of women's household and domestic tasks, such as fuel-effecient cooking stoves, grain storage and grinding equipment, water supply and

equipment for safe processing and preserving of foods, are developed and made available. (This provides a potential for local industry as well as increasing women's access to employment).

by local communities and women's organizations supported by national governments and international agencies.

9. Particularity for women with family responsibilities. Flexible approaches such as job training and part-time employment should be developed.

SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES

D. Improving productivity and working conditions of women's jobs

- 1. Further research must be undertaken on the determinants of increasing productivity; especially within the field of traditional industrial production.
- 2. It must be ensured that women union workers receive training in trade union participation, management and strategies, in the organized sectors. ILO/National Governments
- 3. Women workers, especially those self-employed or working in the informal sector, must have access to social security benefits and protective services. ILO/National Governments
- 4. That resources must be directed to (i) research and product development (ii) causes or product displacement and development of alternative products, (iii) utilization of by-products of existing processes, and (iv) upgrading and development of technology; UNIDO/National Governments
- 5. Finance institutions must ensure sufficient establishment capital to create optimal size operations; National Governments
- 6. Technical assistance must be directed towards identification of locally available materials, skills and technology for creation of household and village employment. UNIDO/National Governments
- 7. Participatory and group interactive management and work force organizations must be supported and pilot project initiated. ILO/National Governments
- 8. On the job training fellowships and scholarships must be encouraged to overcome problems of low educational levels or functional illiteracy. UNIDO/ILO/National Governments
- 9.a. Design assistance must be provided using foreign exchange and use of irregularly available locally produced inputs must be minimized. UNIDO/National Governments
- 10 Inputs UNIDO/National Governments
- 10a Standard quality control assistance be developed. UNIDO/National Governments
- 11. Foreign donors should lend their weight to increasing women's participation Multi/bilateral sources National Governments
- 12. Women's enterprises must be granted subsidies to enable them to develop skills which are unfamiliar. National Governments
- 13. UNIDO must mount a media development project - making films which will breakdown community resistance to women's expanded employment and provide greater motivation to women workers (an expert committee could be convened to design the "messages" for each film) Film preparation is also necessary for technical training. UNIDO
- 14. Large scale firms must be encouraged to develop small-scale ancillary units to overcome raw material problems for women who want to work in their home environment and piecework rated can be applied where possible to keep up production Transnational domestic firms.

CONCLUSIVE NOTE:

Small-scale industry often suffers from neglect by policy planners and consequent undue lack of resources. The industrialization effort is mainly seen in terms of the establishment of large-scale industry of different kinds. In industrialization, as development in general, is viewed as ultimately dependent on human resources (technical and engineering skills, managerial capability and entrepreneurship), it can with justification be argued that the promotion of large-scale industry, at the expense of the small-scale sector, overlooks very important linkages between the two sectors.

As the group deals with countries of different development levels and rate of industrialization, the social disadvantages and economic advantages of concentration - especially with regard to employment implications of ancillary modes of large-scale firms - should be weighed on individual country bases. Again, national governments may have different incentive schemes for the private sector as related to regional inequalities. These, on the other hand, will effect the relative institutional support for dispersed communities based on small-scale industries. Thus, comprehensive suggestions need to be developed on a country and area basis along general lines indicated on the preceding pages.

It is essential that national industrial policies should introduce special measures supporting the greater involvement of women in industry by reserving specific areas of activities for women. Introducing liberal schemes for grant of loans, managerial and technical assistance as it has done for other weaker groups i.e. such as schemes working in India for educated unemployed etc. The UNIDO could also taken an active part in this by circulating to National Governments measures taken by other countries, and guidelines.

GROUP II - LARGE SCALE INDUSTRIES

P R O B L E M S

- i) Social Prejudice / Psychological barriers
- ii) General lack of industry; lack of job opportunity especially for women
- iii) Employment barriers at all levels : Recruitment
Promotion
- iv) union / non-unionized
 - a) lack of organizations
 - b) lack of participation of women in trade unions at the level of:
 - (i) members
 - (ii) administrators
 - (iii) at international level
- v) Lack of participation in decision making/planning bodies at different levels including the pre-investment stage
 - a) international level
 - b) national level (executive, legislative, judiciary)
 - c) regional level
 - d) local level
 - e) enterprise
- vi) Working / Employment conditions inter alia in transnationals and export processing zones, run-away shops
 - a) low salary / wage
 - b) inequitable occupational distribution within an economy/an industry
 - c) lack of/ineffective legislation for social facilities for women
 - d) lack of training schemes to upgrade skills
 - e) lack of adequate administrative regulations, on working hours shift, underground mines, night work, dangerous occupations, health and safety devices especially designed for women
 - f) maternity and social security benefits
- vii) Lack of education and training
 - a) unequal access / exclusion of women from technical training
 - b) lack of participation in obligatory training schemes in investment agreements in foreign, local and multi-lateral/ bilateral technical and financial assistance programmes
 - c) lack of mechanisms for effective dissemination of labour legislation
- viii) Downgrading of women's skills due to technological change

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR

B: INCREASING ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT

- that an image-building system be developed
 by local and civic groups
including women organizations, parents groups, women workers themselves,
trade unions.
- that girls are being given career guidance
 by national and local governments, women organizations and
 trade unions.
- that a technical information system is developed informing about
educational offers (non-formal as well as formal), about designs,
about availability of raw materials, etc.
 by respective ministries at national and local government
 level, and by women organizations and trade unions.
- that an educational reform system is developed and implemented
including the following:
 - a terminal education system is introduced which aims at combining
educational offers with job opportunities
 - that technical education, including education directed towards industrial
employment, is offered in the basic school system, and
 - that such technical education lines are opened for girls
 - that the educational material for all basic education is prepared
in such a way as to change the attitudes towards traditional sex-role
patterns.
 - that re-orientation courses are arranged for teachers
 by UNESCO, National and Local Governments.
 - that flexible mechanisms are developed to offer non-formal education
to women, aiming at skill-formation or skill upgrading in such fields
as various technical topics, book-keeping, management, organization,
entrepreneurship
 - that such non-formal offers by various agencies are co-ordinated

- that a system is developed which links on-the-job training in the fields of non-formal education with the formal training system

- that study material and equipment for vocational/technical training is made available for women
 - by UNESCO, ILO, FAO and respective ministries at national and local government levels

- that the timing of the educational programmes is suitable to working women
 - by working women, local communities, women's organizations and the national and local governments

- that services such as day-care and transportation and accessible markets and shopping facilities are available and

- that labour and energy saving tools and equipment for the performance of women's household and domestic tasks, such as fuel-efficient cooking stoves, grain storage and grinding equipment, water pumps and vats, and equipment for safe processing and preserving of foods, are developed and made available. (This provides a potential for local industry as well as it increases women's access to employment).
 - by local communities *tw 03.* supported by national governments and international agencies.

GROUP I - Small-scale industries

General recommendations

- For promoting the changing role of women, men should be involved to gain full support.;
- that information about steps to be taken to involve women in industrial development is passed on to politicians who can then act as a pressure group;
- that the UN system - when involved in implementation - pays proper attention to the decentralization trends in many countries and the implication of these trends - and works not just with the central national level but works through the state/local government levels.

JOB CREATION

I Project Preparation

1. The development of project preparation should be taken care of by the national governments and by international organizations, in which case they must have a national counterpart. *The proj. & project should have a plan*

UNIDO

2. Feasibility studies should be made and presented by national governments along with national womens organizations and international agencies.

3. Although having identified the ^{and} below listed industries, as possibilities of work for women, we feel that the suggestion made on the floor as to the necessity of an inventory by UNIDO on the identification of industries where women are involved and can be involved should be implemented.

- List 2 -*
- 1. Food Processing - oil extraction
 - flour mills
 - baking
 - fish processing
 - canning/preservation
 - processing of herbal medicines and seasonings
 - 2. Textiles
 - bandages
 - weaving
 - tailoring/garment industries
 - knitting
 - 3. Animal Husbandry
 - meat and milk products
 - leather and skin processing
 - garments
 - shoes
 - bags
 - other items
 - 4. Household equipment/
Goods, manufacturing
 - soap
 - pottery/cooking utensils/glass industries
 - electrical appliances
 - furniture
 - 5. Plastic materials
 - 6. Pharmaceutical and medical products
 - 7. Paper and cardboard

- 8. Standardized handicrafts - woodwork
 - lapidary work - beads and setting of stones
 - weaving/carpeting
 - cloth printing processes
 - batique - silk
 - embroidery
 - basket and mats
 - bamboo and straw
- 9. Building materials
 - bricks
 - tiles
 - pipes
 - wooden parts

10 Electronics

II Credit Programmes

1. To review the legislation on credit granting in different countries in order to eliminate the existing constraints for granting short and long term loans for women. National Governments
2. Comparative studies of the credit organizations in the different member countries should be made by UNIDO.
3. There should be a commitment on the part of the credit organizations as to give credit to woman's projects taking into account their own financial responsibilities. National Governments
4. UNIDO should investigate the possibility of utilizing womens' World Bank fund to finance women's projects and spread the information.

III Development of Technology

- Make technical know-how and knowledge available to women without affecting the already established labour-intensive industries, but increasing productivity and employment potential. National Government and UNIDO

IV Technical Assistance

- 1) A mechanism to give technical assistance and information ^{or} for grass-root level industries should be created by the local governments. National Government
- 2) A special Women's Industries Cell should be created at the Fderal Government level in order to get direct assistance from international agencies. National Government

activities to be
not only for
any activities

V. Production and Marketing Organizations

1. Local Women's Organizations should investigate the possibilities of utilizing local raw material in the industrialization of products and also in substituting imported raw material.
2. They should also promote product design from the point of view of
 - human needs
 - productivity
 - quality control, and
 - linkages

VI. State Industrial Policies

1. Supportive and protective measures ^{by local Govts} for industrial policies for women in industry.

9/11/78

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

It is widely recognized that to raise the general cultural and educational standards of women to facilitate their participation in industrialization in developing countries, concerted efforts are needed on a wide front i.e. literacy, general education, managerial and technical training and vocational training. UNIDO should therefore work jointly with ILO and UNESCO on such programmes. They should suggest to governments, trade unions and other authorities and organizations in developing countries to take measures in order to ensure equal access of women to all forms and levels of education and training.

Recommendations for UNIDO:-

1. To re-orient the UNIDO training and fellowship programmes at the managerial and technical levels; to ensure a greater participation of women. This should be done after consultations with other UN agencies such as UNESCO and ILO which are involved in education and vocational training respectively and where action is also required to tackle the problem at all levels.
2. In re-orienting the training programmes, UNIDO should put emphasis on developing training programmes for women trainers; existing national institutions or centres should be used for that purpose.
3. Organize subregional special training programmes for women, particularly in already planned industries in the sub-region.
4. Organize meetings of experts to exchange experiences concerning training of women, especially for current industries with a large potential for women participation.
5. Revise UNIDO's suggestions to Governments for the nomination of candidates for UNIDO training and fellowship programmes, if necessary, in order to increase training opportunities for women.
6. Design managerial and technical training programmes for women in order for them to keep up to date with the latest technological developments in industry.
7. As a follow-up of Resolution 44(IX) on the integration of women in development adopted by the Industrial Development Board in 1975, the Board may consider (a) requesting the Secretariat of UNIDO to design and execute concrete projects for training of women at higher technological and managerial levels, and (b) allocating a portion of the funds available for training under the Regular Programme of Technical Assistance, specifically for this purpose.

LARGE SCALE INDUSTRIES

The Problem

1. The economic constraints as declared in the new international economic order, social prejudices and psychological barriers towards the participation of women in industrial development and employment structure exist throughout the world. They are rooted in economic structures and cultural concepts that tie women and their work to the confines of home and hearth. Men's work on the other hand is usually connected with the wider community, and society as a whole. Greater value, in the form of prestige or economic benefits, is attached to men's work.

2. When it comes to planning, formulation and implementation of industrial development, employment, man-power planning, wages and education policy, priority is usually accorded to men due to the inherent biases in the institutional structures. Policy, especially on the planning level, is based on inadequate information on what women really do. Existing statistic methodologies do not usually include the whole range of productive activities performed by women, for example e.g. in national income accounting and the informal sector.

I General Measures - Action at various levels

All these measures could be taken at the following levels where appropriate:

1. National (Government and other institutions)
2. International (UNIDO and other international bodies)
3. Women's Organizations dealing with Industrial Organizations
4. Employers, Trade Union Organizations
5. Mass media and research institutions

General Measures

- i) Creating and/or strengthening within appropriate national authorities special industrial promotion and information services for women;
- ii) For proper industrial planning, data should be disaggregated on actual contribution of women in the production process (including taking measures to quantify work done at home);

- iii) Dissemination of information on women's qualifications and jobs, as well as campaigns to break down prejudice against women;
- iv) Special policy measures should be undertaken at various levels to encourage men to share equally responsibilities within the household.
- v) Adoption, alteration or modification of national legislation to abolish all forms of discrimination with a view to promoting equality of opportunity and equality of treatment of men and women. For example, existing legislation requiring male authorization for women to engage in business, obtain credit or benefit from tax incentives. (ILO Declaration and Resolution on Equality of Opportunity and Equality of Treatment of Men and Women, 1975).

II. Specific Measures

A. Inadequate industrial capacity to create increased employment opportunities for women

1. In the identification of national priority industries, Governments should re-examine their present criteria for selection and incentive schemes, if any, as to their impact on women's employment .
2. Policies concerning foreign investment should be examined in the light of practices of existing transnational corporations which affect women's participation.
3. Where UNIDO and other international organizations provide technical assistance in project feasibility studies or selection of technologies, they should adopt criteria for screening such activities which are likely to adversely affect women in the production process.
4. To recommend to the Industrial Development Board of UNIDO to initiate (i) studies by the UNIDO Secretariat in co-operation with other relevant agencies such as ILO, FAO, WHO, the preliminary results of which should be submitted to the 1980 UN Conference on Women; (ii) pilot projects relating to selected industries such as electronics, food processing industries, pharmaceutical and textiles.

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B. Employment Constraints

1. Removal of discrimination of women in employment recommended by ILO should be fully implemented by the developing countries and international bodies.

2. Measures should be oriented to remove discrimination against women in recruitment practices, job security, career development, and on the job training.

3. Measures against discrimination of employed women especially when they are pregnant or on maternity leave and preventing discrimination against women when hiring and firing decisions are made.

C. Non-participation at all decision-making/planning

1. At the national level women should be associated with the decisions at all levels of formulation, planning and implementation, including designing and planning of pre-investment and operating stages of industries.

- (a) At the executive level, including public service
- (b) At the judicial level, including industrial tribunals and quasijudicial bodies
- (c) On the legislative level
- (d) At the industrial boards and boards of directors of state owned enterprises

2. At the local level women should participate in the local councils and appropriate municipal boards

3. At the Enterprise level women should participate in planning, decision making, management levels, at plant levels, at Chambers of Industries and professional bodies *Trade*

4. At the international level

- (a) existing codes of conduct under negotiation, such as transnational corporations and transfer of technology, women's interest should be included
- (b) At the UN system more specific efforts should be made to include women in international conferences, workshops etc. relating to industrial questions
- (c) In the secretariats of international organizations qualified women should be included at the managerial, administrative and technical levels in developing countries
- (d) in the on-going planned, substantive programmes of UNIDO and other UN agencies, women's component should be incorporated

D. Unions/non-unionized

Special measures should be undertaken to include membership of women in Trade Unions/^{in executive posts of Trade Unions} organized at the national and international levels. Wherever women predominate in industry, special measures should be taken to unionize women.

E. Poor Working Conditions

Special policy measures should be undertaken to improve work and life conditions of women workers, particularly implementation of equal remuneration and improvement of wages, equal access to occupational distribution, improved social facilities, and protective social legislation (maternity and social security benefits).

F. Scientific, Technical and Managerial Skills, Education and Training

1. Specific measures to create new institutions to remove unequal access to the existing training schemes which exclude women so that women's skills can be upgraded at all levels;
2. Special machinery should be created to promote women in more technical and scientific careers and create conditions for effective dissemination of scientific knowledge;
3. In strengthening national machinery for independent technological development, the technical level of all women workers should simultaneously be raised.

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FINAL GROUPINGS AND WORK SCHEDULE

1. Two groups to be established

by formal.
I. Rural industries

(including cottage industry, small/medium scale industry, small co-operatives, rural entrepreneurs, rural labor saving industries, coop service facilities such as raw material supply, marketing)

II. Large Scale Industry

(urban industries, planned priority industries, transnationals)

2. Background Information

- (1) current contribution
- (2) major constraints
- (3) specific areas of potential contributions
- (4) ways and means of developing and implementing national programmes
 - (i) job creation
 - (ii) increase opportunities for employment
 - (iii) improving conditions of women
 - (iv) training

3. Action programmes required at

(i) policy planning level

- Socio economics, legislation, social cost, education, social benefits, finances, public consciousness, conditions of women, training and technical development, organized women's groups, appropriate technology, increase opportunities for employment, improving conditions of women, etc.

(ii) institutional level

- training, appropriate technology, design and development, infrastructure for social amenities

(iii) at factory level

- trade unions, work conditions, training, technical development

4. Special Recommendations to the Governments of Developing Countries

5. Special Recommendations for the UN

6. Specific Project Proposals to UNIDO (types of projects)

Could be in areas of research and promotional activities

- incorporating in existing operational activities
- pilot projects involving
 - * studies
 - * pilot demonstration projects
- co-operation among developing countries
- details of projects

NOTE: A third informal group may contribute as follows:

Women and industrial development: Global constraints in developing countries

- Psychological barrier
- Socio-economic constraints
- Lack of mobilization
- Social attitude
- Education
- Training
- Government Administration attitude
- Lack of planning: design of industrialists
- Lack of public consciousness
- Lack of media propagation
- Industrial policies
- Institutional arrangements for education, training, technology transfer and other related issues

SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES

C. Improving productivity and working conditions of women's jobs

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. that further research be undertaken on the determinants of increasing productivity;
2. that it be ensured that women union workers receive training in trade union participation, management and strategies;
3. that women workers, especially those self-employed or working in the informal sector, have access to social security benefits;
4. that protective associations and services be available to non-unionisable women workers;
5. that resources be directed to (1) research and product development (2) causes of product displacement and development of alternative products, (3) utilization of by-products of existing processes, and (4) upgrading and development of technology;
6. that financial institutions ensure sufficient establishment capital be made available to create optimal size establishments;
7. that technical assistance be directed towards identification of locally available materials and skill and technology transfer for creation of household and village employment;
8. that participatory and group interactive management and work force organizations be supported and pilot projects initiated;
9. that on-the-job training, fellowships and scholarships be encouraged to overcome problems of low educational levels or functional illiteracy.
10. that design assistance be provided to (1) minimize inputs using foreign exchange and (2) minimize use of irregularly available locally-produced inputs.
11. that foreign donors lend their weight to increasing women's participation.
12. that women's enterprises be granted subsidies to enable them to develop skills which are unfamiliar.

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13. that UNIDO mount a media development project - making films which will breakdown community resistance to women's expanded employment and provide greater motivation to women workers (an expert committee could be convened to design the "messages" for each film)

14. that large firms be encouraged to develop small-scale ancillary units to overcome raw material problems for women who want to work in their home environment and piecework rates be applied where possible to keep up production.

PROPOSALS

1. As different countries have different levels of development and urbanization, recommendations concerning the development of small-scale industry should consider both the rural and urban sectors.
2. A focus on creation of employment relevant to technical training opportunities in the rural sector will both help control haphazard effects of migration to stem migration flows. Industrial efforts should not exclude rural areas.
3. Pilot projects can be supported by international organizations.
4. As industrial concentration cannot be prevented special priority can be given to project development in
 - a) areas of agricultural modernization
 - b) areas of developing infrastructure
 - c) areas of raw material and resource availability (including manpower availability)
 - d) areas of industrial decentralization (i.e. so-called national priority investment areas which might well coincide with the least developed rural areas)
5. As shortages of infrastructure do not always allow access to rural and underdeveloped areas, industrial employment efforts might be designed first in areas which have already market potential.
6. Women must be given special training in improving their position in the administrative hierarchy so as to help other women to organize and get support to this end, international assistance and (personnel) exchange programmes can be arranged .
7. As the woman's voice is not normally heard at the national level, the assistance of international organizations is particularly needed to motivate governments to be sensitive to: a) ideas generated by women b) ideas generated for women.
8. International organizations must make room for demands made by women's organizations not necessarily expressed via Governments.
9. UNIDO can be asked to make an inventory of project areas (identification)
10. UNIDO can be asked to evaluate on country and project bases:
 - a. technology choice
 - b. ^{location} implementation of technology for women's employment
11. UNIDO can help give assistance in preparing feasibility studies.
12. UNIDO can be asked to generate data and methodology to measure contribution of women to economy.
13. UNIDO should provide assistance to national women's organizations

.../...

to assist in project preparation, monitoring and evaluation.

14. National and inter^{nat}regional women's organizations may:

- a) help UNIDO in compiling the inventory
- b) in creation of projects
- c) in representing women's groups and in defending their projects

15. International assistance may be offered in development of training programmes for women through mass media.

16. Model projects be set up

17. ~~International~~^{develop} banks should have some person nationally via national banks to look after the women industrial groups.

18. International guidelines on the involvement of women for project application to be translated into the most common working languages.

SMALL AND MEDIUM SCALE INDUSTRIES

I. Definition

1. Small and Medium scale industries are "units" of production located either at home or
 - at - small workshops
 - small associations
 - small factories
 - small neighboring and kin groups and communitiesusing simple technology but producing (manufacturing and/or processing) standardized products
2. Typically both the investment and the operating capital requirements are small
3. Marketing may either be done on an individual basis or by small groups
4. Although such industries are suitable to women and in accord with their roles, they need not be restricted to them
5. There is some question as to whether the concept "small" should refer to the size of capital or the production location as multi-nationals or other large national firms may distribute piece work to be performed at home.

The group calls attention to the difficulty of defining small-scale industries. The group recommends that the current definition in use in each nation be scrutinized in order not to leave out certain female individual activities.

II. Typologies of Small Industries

A typology of small and medium-scale industries mentioned are

- 1.) Food processing
 - oil extraction
 - baking
 - fish processing
 - fruit canning/preservation
 - tobacco

- 2) Textiles
 - weaving
 - Tailoring/garment industries
 - knitting
- 3) Leather processing
 - Garments
 - Shoes
 - Bags
 - Other items
- 4) Household Equipment/Goods, manufacturing
 - Soap
 - Pottery/Cooking utensils
 - Basket
 - Electrical appliances
 - Bamboo works
 - Straw products
 - Furniture
- 5) Plastic materials
- 6) Pharmaceutical and medical products
- 7) Paper and cardboard
- 8) Standardized Handcrafts
 - Wood processing
 - Beads
 - Weaving/carpeting
 - Batique
 - Embroidery

III. Current Contribution

1. In some areas the major industrial production is still done by small and medium-size industries
2. In countries such as those of Africa the traditional lines of small industry have provided the country's entrance into the world market
3. In countries such as those of Africa and India traditional small women's industries exist and contribute to the countries' total output.

4. Again, efforts are being made to expand the existing industries and to experiment with new lines of production
5. In such industries (perhaps with the exception of ancillaries of large firms) labor is less alienated and more involved in the decision making process, and a positive contribution can be said to be made in the democratization process.
6. As production units are small, located at home and or/ in the community, almost automatically training opportunities become available for youth and other interested members.

Constraint 1

1. Lack of data and proper methodology for measuring women's contributions.
2. Lack of investment and initial operating capital, credit and loan shortages.
3. Lack of management for
 - a) production (monitoring)
 - b) input organization (insufficient infrastructure, input shortage, input irregularity, lack of design)
 - c) marketing (quality control)
4. Inefficient organization of labour and lack of new (legal) forms of production and marketing organization.
5.
 - a) Lack of systematic training and skill improvement prior to and pertaining to different aspects of the production process, i.e. marketing, banking, book-keeping;
 - b) lack of information among the participants about their involvement in an industrialization process;
 - c) lack of entrepreneurship;
 - d) lack of expertise to write up proper feasibility studies.
6. Lack of projects, ideas of areas where small industries are traditionally absent.
7. Low productivity and continuous danger of "marginalizing" women's contribution to the economy.
8. Low profitability.
9. Severe competition of
 - a) organized, larger scale industries
 - b) other countries' small industries.
10. Legal constraints applying individually to
 - a) organization of under-aged
 - b) organization of women
 - c) organized women groups (recognition of the legal status of co-operatives)
11. Fragmentation of the labour market along sex as prohibiting women's entrance to new lines of production.
12. Social resistance and sex role expectations.

Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women
in Industrialization in Developing Countries

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