

Withdrawal/Redaction Sheet

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DOCUMENT NO. AND TYPE	SUBJECT/TITLE	DATE	RESTRICTION
001. memo	Nadine Hack to Rick Inderfurth (3 pages)	01/08/1993	Personal Misfile
002. letter	Swanee Hunt to Anne Bartley (2 pages)	02/09/1993	b(6)

COLLECTION:

Clinton Presidential Records
First Lady's Office
Melanne Verveer
OA/Box Number: 10255

FOLDER TITLE:

Swanee Hunt [2]

2013-0534-S

rc1620

RESTRICTION CODES

Presidential Records Act - [44 U.S.C. 2204(a)]

Freedom of Information Act - [5 U.S.C. 552(b)]

P1 National Security Classified Information [(a)(1) of the PRA]
P2 Relating to the appointment to Federal office [(a)(2) of the PRA]
P3 Release would violate a Federal statute [(a)(3) of the PRA]
P4 Release would disclose trade secrets or confidential commercial or financial information [(a)(4) of the PRA]
P5 Release would disclose confidential advice between the President and his advisors, or between such advisors [(a)(5) of the PRA]
P6 Release would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy [(a)(6) of the PRA]

C. Closed in accordance with restrictions contained in donor's deed of gift.

PRM. Personal record misfile defined in accordance with 44 U.S.C. 2201(3).

RR. Document will be reviewed upon request.

b(1) National security classified information [(b)(1) of the FOIA]
b(2) Release would disclose internal personnel rules and practices of an agency [(b)(2) of the FOIA]
b(3) Release would violate a Federal statute [(b)(3) of the FOIA]
b(4) Release would disclose trade secrets or confidential or financial information [(b)(4) of the FOIA]
b(6) Release would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy [(b)(6) of the FOIA]
b(7) Release would disclose information compiled for law enforcement purposes [(b)(7) of the FOIA]
b(8) Release would disclose information concerning the regulation of financial institutions [(b)(8) of the FOIA]
b(9) Release would disclose geological or geophysical information concerning wells [(b)(9) of the FOIA]

DEVELOPMENT FUND WOMEN

WHAT IS UNIFEM?

UNIFEM is a fund which supports the development initiatives of poor women in Latin America/Caribbean, Africa, Asia and the Pacific. Created in 1976 by the United Nations General Assembly, it was first called the Voluntary Fund for the UN Decade for Women. Renamed the UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), in 1985, it works in autonomous association with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

WHAT ARE ITS PRIORITIES?

UNIFEM has two primary objectives:

- to provide direct financial and technical support to women involved in cooperative activities, food production, fuel and water supply, health services, small businesses, management, and planning; innovative approaches are preferred;
- to ensure that the needs of both women and men receive consideration when large-scale assistance is given to developing countries - through involvement in programming and project design, monitoring and evaluation.

WHERE ARE THESE PROJECTS?

- In 104 different countries.
- Special priority is given to projects in the least developed, landlocked and island countries among developing countries.

HOW DOES THE FUND WORK?

- The Fund works in partnership with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). UNDP provides administrative support to project appraisals and execution, especially through its 112 field offices. The United Nations specialized agencies (FAO, ILO, UNIDO, etc.) also assist some projects. UNIFEM provides technical assistance to financial institutions such as banks and development funds, to leverage large-scale resources for women.
- A Consultative Committee representing Member States of the 5 regions of the world advises on the use of the Fund's resources. The Administrator reports each year to the Governing Council on the Fund's activities and then to the General Assembly. Present members of the Consultative Committee are: Kenya (Chairperson/Rapporteur), Colombia, German Democratic Republic, India, and Norway.

WHY WAS THE FUND ESTABLISHED?

- The Fund's establishment recognizes that women are central figures in their national economies - in families, communities and countries, together with their need for access to resources such as training, technologies and credit to make their development work more fruitful.

HOW MUCH MONEY DOES THE FUND HAVE?

- US\$1.8 million has been contributed by individuals and non-governmental organizations.
- US\$39 million has been contributed by Governments.

HOW IS THIS MONEY USED?

- The Fund has assisted more than 400 projects and other activities including 100 project development missions since becoming operational in 1978. Some 200 projects are ongoing.
- Project size ranges from US\$2,000 to US\$400,000; the average size is US\$100,000
- Of the projects approved in 1987-1988:
 - 34% involve employment-generating activities, appropriate technologies and rural/urban development activities;
 - 32% involve human resource development;
 - 24% are concerned with development planning, project design and research;
 - 10% are concerned with information/publications;

WHAT ARE SOME EXAMPLES OF PROJECTS?

- GREENADA: Training women as motor mechanics to enable them to find employment opportunities in non-traditional areas.
- The GAMBIA: Strengthening the national women's machinery to involve women in national planning.
- PAPUA
NEW GUINEA Providing women with access to improved food production technologies and to marketing opportunities.
- BOLIVIA: Organizing one-hundred and fifty women and their families into small dairy farming cooperatives.
- KENYA: Training women in processing and marketing fish and in fisheries management.
- INDIA: Establishing a marketing system in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh and offering design support to women's income-generating activities.

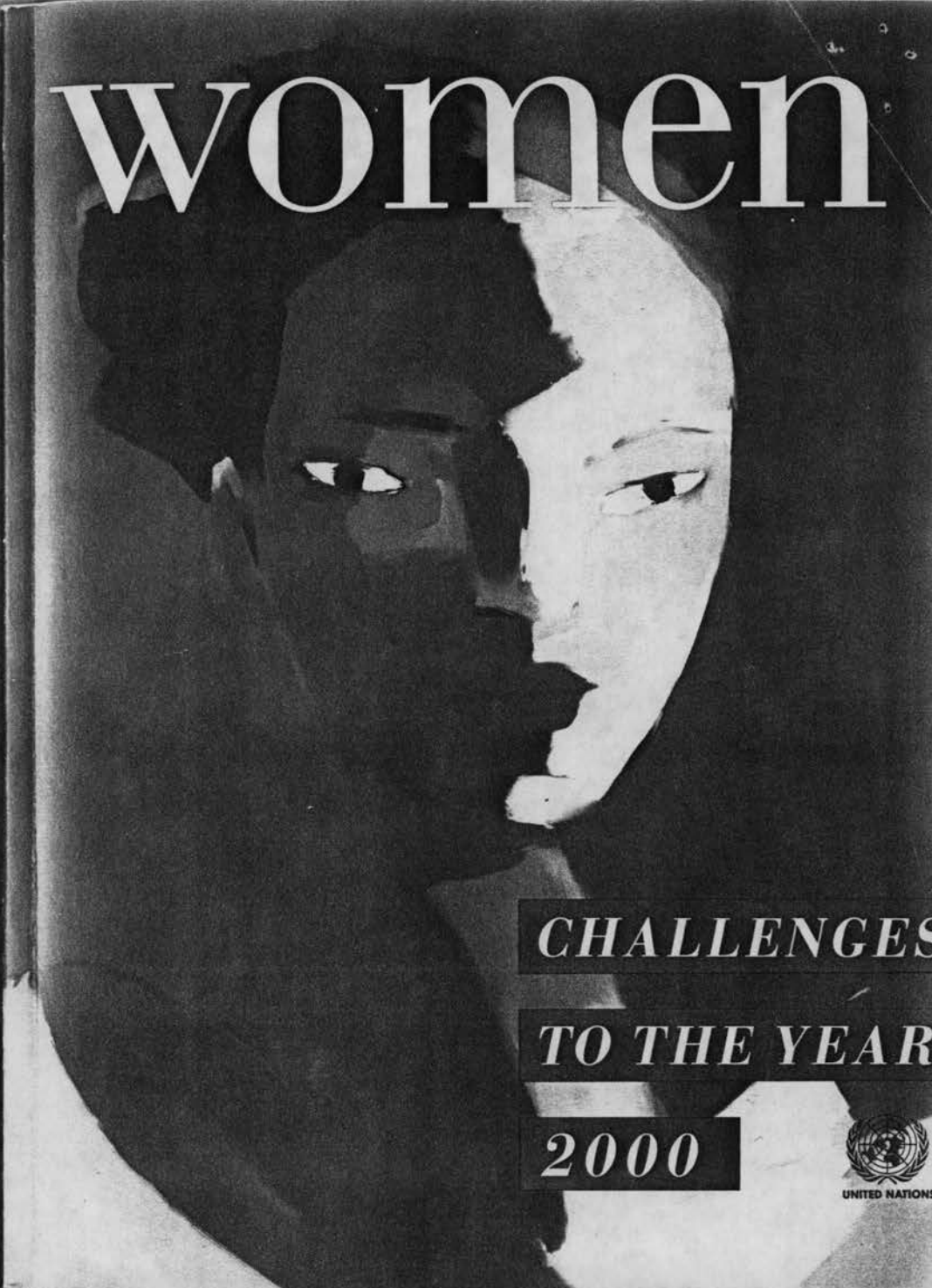
HOW CAN CONTRIBUTIONS BE MADE TO THE FUND?

- Any individual or organization may contribute money to the Fund by contacting the address given below.
- Governments are invited to contribute at the annual United Nations Pledging Conference held in November.

For further information contact:

The United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)
304 E. 45th Street, 6th floor
New York, NY 10017 - Telephone: (212) 906-6400
Facsimile: (212) 599 0885

women



CHALLENGES

TO THE YEAR

2000



UNITED NATIONS

UNITED NATIONS FOCAL POINTS AND BODIES DEALING WITH QUESTIONS RELATING TO WOMEN

The Division for the Advancement of Women

Centre for Social Development and
Humanitarian Affairs
United Nations Office at Vienna
Vienna International Centre
P.O. Box 500
A-1400 Vienna, Austria
Tel.: (431) 21131-4270
Fax: (431) 232156
Telex: 135612

United Nations Office at Vienna (UNOV)

Liaison Office

Room S-2925
United Nations Headquarters
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (212) 963 5634
Fax: (212) 963 4185

The Division for the Advancement of Women, part of the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs located in Vienna, Austria, is the United Nations system's focal point for all activities relating to women. Its programmes relate particularly to monitoring and appraising implementation of the *Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies* adopted by consensus at the 1985 Nairobi World Conference which concluded the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace. The Division acts as secretariat both for the Commission on the Status of Women and for the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women.

The Division also undertakes research studies and coordinates research, expert group meetings and advisory seminars, particularly on priority themes

selected for each year by the Commission on the Status of Women (see list below). It also publishes periodicals, such as *Women 2000* and the *Data Highlights* series on women. A complete list of publications is available from the Division.

The Division maintains a major data bank on women. The **Women's Information System** is a computerized bibliographic data bank comprising some 2,000 United Nations documents which represent much of what the United Nations system has produced on paper on women's issues since January 1985. This data is readily available to all users, from governments to individuals, by contacting the Reference Room of the Division at the telephone/telex/fax numbers listed above, with specific requests. Users in Vienna enjoy immediate visual access to documents described in the data bank. For users from afar, a mailing list of publishers is provided along with the printout.

Commission on the Status of Women

c/o Division for the Advancement of Women
(See address above)

The 45-member Commission on the Status of Women was set up in 1946 to promote women's rights in political, economic, social and educational fields and to make recommendations on problems requiring immediate attention. To this end, it collects and analyses data to monitor the status of women around the world and prepares recommendations and reports on issues which affect women, including their role in development.

Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)

c/o Division for the Advancement of Women
(See address above)

The United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women is composed of 23 experts (jurists, lawyers, teachers, diplomats and

experts on women's affairs), acting in their individual capacities rather than as representatives of governments. Elected by States that have ratified the Convention, it is their job to monitor implementation of the 1979 *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*.

Department of Public Information (DPI)

Project Manager for Women's Issues
United Nations Room S-1040
New York, NY, 10017 USA
Tel.: (212) 963-0352
Fax: (212) 963-4556

The Department of Public Information produces printed information products, films and videos, as well as radio and television programmes on women, organizes special events, conducts briefings, responds to requests for information, and maintains active liaison with the media and organizations dealing with topics related to women.

United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW)

P.O. Box 21747
Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic
Tel.: (809) 685 2111
Fax: (809) 685 2117
New York Liaison Office
Tel.: (212) 963 5684

The International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women was created by the Economic and Social Council in response to the 1975 World Conference call for a United Nations body to develop and expand research, training and information activities related to women and development. It serves as a clearing-house for research and information and fosters coordination of individual and institutional research and training efforts for women.

Located in Santo Domingo in the Dominican Republic, INSTRAW is completely financed by voluntary contributions.

Department of International Economic and Social Affairs (DIESA)

Statistical Office
Room DC2-1554
United Nations
New York, NY, 10017 USA
Tel.: (1) (212) 963-4939
Telex: (1) (212) 963-4116

DIESA maintains the United Nations Women's Indicators and Statistics Database for microcomputers (Wistat) which is a focal point for compilation of statistics on women from throughout the United Nations system. It is available on diskette as a machine-readable sales product and may be requested at the above address.

United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)

304 East 45th Street, 6th Floor
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) (212) 906-6400
Fax: (1) (212) 906-6705
Cable: UNDEVPRO New York

Originally called the Voluntary Fund for the United Nations Decade for Women, UNIFEM was created in 1976 to provide direct support for women's projects, and to promote the inclusion of women in the decision-making processes of mainstream development programmes. Financed by voluntary contributions from over 100 donor countries, international and non-governmental organizations, private individuals, UNIFEM has improved the lives of tens of thousands of poor women throughout the world by providing them with access to credit, training and technologies.

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United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

Director, Division for Women in Development
1 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) (212) 906-5082
Fax: (1) (212) 906-5365
Cable: UNDEVPRO New York

The United Nations Development Programme is the world's largest grant development assistance organization with a network of field offices in 112 developing countries. Within UNDP there is a special Division for Women in Development which maintains a close working relationship with the field offices and promotes concrete action to ensure the participation of women in UNDP-funded projects. It also assists governments in integrating women into their development activities.

United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)

Special Unit for Women, Population and Development
220 East 42nd Street
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) (212) 297-5141
Fax: (1) (212) 297-4095
Telex: 422031

UNFPA was established in 1969 and has always sought to ensure that its programmes and projects increased women's opportunities to participate in development as decision-makers, programme planners and community workers. In 1975, UNFPA became one of the first UN bodies to issue guidelines for involving women in population and development activities and now has a special unit for women, as well as an advisory panel of women to provide expertise on the systematic integration of women's concerns into all development programmes.

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

Women in Development Section
3 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (212) 326-7000
Fax: (212) 888-7465
Telex: 239521

Established in 1946 as the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund to aid children in post-World War II Europe, UNICEF today serves 128 countries. Because of the obvious links, both biological and socio-economic, between women and children, UNICEF is a strong advocate for improvements in the status of women.

United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)

Focal Point for Women and the Environment
1889 F Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20006, USA
Tel.: (1) (202) 289-8456
Fax: 000-120-237-107-47
Telex: 89-506 UNINFOGEN WSH

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)

Senior Coordinator for Refugee Women
Case postale 2500
CH-1211 Genève 2 Dépôt
Tel.: (41) (22) 739-81 11
Telex: 28741 HCR CH Geneva (Switzerland)

United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA)

Chief, Office of the Commissioner General
Vienna International Centre
P.O. Box 700
A-1400 Vienna, Austria
Tel.: (43) (1) 211310
Fax: (43) (1) 2307487
Telex: 135310 UNRWA A

World Food Programme (WFP)

Policy Development Officer
Office of the Executive Director
Via Cristobalo Colombo, 426
00145 Rome, Italy
Tel.: (39) (6) 57971
Fax: (39) (6) 57975652
Telex: 626675 WFP

World Food Council (WFC)

Senior Economic Affairs Officer
Via delle Terme di Caracalla
00100 Rome, Italy
Tel.: (39) (6) 57971
Fax: (39) (6) 574-5091
Telex: 610181 FAO I

United Nations Centre for Science and Technology for Development

Associate Economic Officer
1 United Nations Plaza
DC1-1044
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) (212) 963-8603
Fax: (1) (212) 963-1267

United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR)

Under-Secretary-General
801 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) (212) 963-8621/2
Fax: (1) (212) 697-8660

United Nations University (UNU)

Vice Rector, Programme Division
Toho Seimei Building
15-1 Shibuya 2-chome
Shibuya-ku, Tokyo 150, Japan
Tel.: (81) (3) 499-2811
Fax: (81) (3) 499-2828
Telex: J25442

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)

Chief, Women in Agricultural Production and Rural Development Service
Via delle Terme di Caracalla
00100 Rome, Italy
Tel.: (39) (6) 57971
Fax: (39) (6) 5146 172
(39) (6) 5797 3152
Telex: 610181 FAO I

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

Co-ordinator for Activities relating to the Status of Women
7, place de Fontenoy
75700, Paris, France
Tel.: (33) (1) 4568 10 00
Fax: (33) (1) 4567 16 90
Telex: 270 602 PARIS
204 461 PARIS

International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)

Chief, External Relations Office
Suite 327
1000 Sherbrooke Street West
Montreal, Quebec H3A 2R2, Canada
Tel.: (514) 285-8219
Fax: (514) 288-4772
Telex: 05-24513

World Health Organization (WHO)

Director
20, avenue Appia
1211 Geneva 27, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) (22) 791 21 11
Telex: 41 54 16

World Bank

Chief, Women in Development Division
1818 H Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20433, USA
Tel.: (1) (202) 477-1234
Fax: (1) (202) 477-6391
Telex: RCA 248423

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

Director
700 19th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20431, USA
Tel.: (1) (202) 623-7000
Fax: (1) (202) 623-4661
Telex: RCA 248331 IMF UR

Universal Postal Union (UPU)

Director-General
Bureau International de l'Union
Postale universelle
Case postale
3000 Berne 15, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) (31) 43 22 11
Fax: (41) (31) 43 22 10
Telex: 912761 UPU CH

International Telecommunications Union (ITU)

Secretary-General
Palais des Nations
1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) (22) 730 51 11
Fax: + (41) (22) 733 72 56
Telex: 42100 UIT CH

World Meteorological Organization (WMO)

Executive Assistant to the Secretary-General
41 avenue Giuseppe-Motta
Geneva, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) (22) 730 81 11
Fax: (41) (22) 734 23 26
Telex: 23260

International Maritime Organization (IMO)

Focal Point for Women-in-Development
4 Albert Embankment
London SE1 7SR, England
Tel.: (44) (1) 735 7611
Telex: 23588

World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)

Head, Section for Relations with Int'l Organizations
and Promotion of Innovation in Developing
Countries
34 Chemin des Colombettes
1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) (22) 730 91 11
Fax: (41) (22) 733 54 28
Telex: 412 912 ompi ch

International Fund for Agriculture Development (IFAD)

Technical Adviser, Women in Development
Via del Serafico, 107
00142 Rome, Italy
Tel: (39) (6) 54591
Fax: (39) (6) 5043463
Telex: 620330

United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)

Co-ordinator, Unit for Integration of
Women in Industrial Development
P.O. Box 300
Vienna International Centre
A-1400, Vienna, Austria
Tel.: (43) (1) 211310
Fax: (43) (1) 232156
Telex: 135612

International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)

Division of Nuclear Power
P.O. Box 100
Vienna International Centre
A-1400 Vienna, Austria
Tel.: (43) (1) 23600
Fax: (43) (1) 234564
Telex: 1-12645 atom a

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)

Director, External Relations Division
Centre William Rappard
154, Rue de Lausanne
1211 Geneva 21, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) (22) 739 51 11
Fax: (41) (22) 731 42 06
Telex: 412-324 gatt ch

International Trade Centre UNCTAD/GATT (ITC)

External Relations Officer
Palais des Nations
1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) (22) 730 01 11
Fax: (41) (22) 733 44 39
Telex: 28 90 52 ITC-CH

SELECTED UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATIONS IN THE FIELD OF WOMEN'S ISSUES

The following list is only a small selection of United Nations publications which are relevant to women's issues. Many of the publications are free and may be ordered directly from the agency listed. However, some major United Nations books are also issued as sales publications. For more detailed information, a *United Nations Publications Catalogue* may be obtained from:

United Nations Publications Orders and Inquiries	
United Nations	Palais des Nations
Room DC2-853	CH-1211 Geneva 10
2 United Nations Plaza	Switzerland
New York, NY, USA 10017	Tel.: (41) (22) 734 6011
Tel.: (212) 963-8302	Fax: (41) (22) 733 3246
Fax: (212) 963-4116	

United Nations Charter: The Preamble, Article 1, Article 55

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (DPI/993)

The Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women to the Year 2000 (DPI/926)

Investing in Women: The Focus of the '90s (UNFPA)

State of World Population 1991: Choice or Chance (UNFPA)

UNIFEM Annual Reports (UNIFEM)

Women in Development (UNDP)

1989 World Survey on the Role of Women in Development (CSDHA)

The Work of CEDAW 1982-1985 (DAW/CSDHA)

Violence against Women in the Family (DAW/CSDHA)

IN BRIEF

Human Rights at the United Nations: Women's Rights are Human Rights

A Publication of the International League for Human Rights
432 Park Avenue South, New York, NY 10016 Tel. (212)-684-1221

November 1989
No. 24

INTERNATIONAL HUMAN RIGHTS LAW AND THE STATUS OF WOMEN

International human rights treaty law has addressed itself to issues on the status of women since the earliest years of the 20th century — well before there was a League of Nations, an International Labor Organization, or a United Nations. The earliest treaty law on women — in the beginning of the twentieth century — was motivated in large part by utilitarian concerns: efforts to combat the spread of venereal disease, the desire to protect child-bearing age women from unhealthy work conditions threatening their offspring and an interest in correcting international conflicts over differing nationality status afforded women and children of mixed nationality marriages. Only considerably later, with the establishment of the United Nations and the adoption of basic international human rights instruments, did a whole strand of new international treaty provisions concerning women more commonly begin to reflect interest in promoting gender non-discrimination as an overarching moral precept of value in itself.

In the following pages, we review the development of international law on human rights, and the nature of some of the treaty law concerning women. We then examine some of the continuing tensions in the drafting of international human rights law, laws on non-discrimination, and the treaty

law on the status of women. Finally, we discuss a variety of political factors in the United Nations system that affect the drafting and implementation of international human rights instruments that address gender non-discrimination.

International Law Focusing on Rights of Individuals

In international law in the 19th century, states were the actors and treaties did not address the treatment of the individual human person. Two major exceptions to this pattern were international treaties on the treatment of victims of war, and international efforts focused on slavery. These were essentially *ad hoc* initiatives.

In the early twentieth century, several international treaties addressed conflicts of national laws on marriage, divorce and child custody, and others focused on measures to combat traffic in women for purposes of prostitution.

Early major advances outlining global efforts to protect human rights can be found in the mandates and minorities protection treaties of the League of Nations, and the attempts to codify labor standards by the International Labor Organization. Both of these institutions were of course set up in conjunction with the World War I peace settlement. The Covenant of the League itself called for humane working conditions for all, irrespective of sex, and for the suppression

of traffic in women. And the League appointed an expert committee in 1937 to make a comprehensive study of the legal status of women; unfortunately the demise of the League also ended this hopeful initiative.

In 1945, when the Charter of the United Nations was adopted, some of the smaller countries wanted it to include a Bill of Rights or provisions on the protection of human rights. This did not prevail, but the Charter cites as one of its four purposes:

To achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, and religion. [Art. 1(3)]

The Charter repeatedly refers to efforts to "promote" human rights, implying a weaker obligation on states than would efforts to "protect" them. The drafters of the Charter expected that instruments would be codified and enforcement mechanisms developed.

In fact, efforts to codify international human rights law and to implement it have occupied the time, energies, and resources of the many UN human rights bodies since the UN was established.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1948, proclaims numerous rights—civil, political, social, economic, and cultural—to which people everywhere are entitled. Called "a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations" when adopted, it includes the rights to:

life, liberty, and security of the person; freedom from slavery; freedom from torture and cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment; equal protection of the law; effective judicial remedy for violations of human rights; freedom from arbitrary arrest, detention or exile, a fair trial and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal; freedom from arbitrary interference with privacy, family, home, or correspondence; freedom of movement including the right to leave any country and to return to one's own country; a nationality; contract a marriage and found a family; own property; freedom of thought, conscience and religion; freedom of opinion and expression; freedom of peaceful assembly and association; participation in one's government; social security; work and free choice of employment; equal pay for equal work; just and favorable remuneration; form and join trade unions; rest and leisure; a standard of living adequate for health and well-being; right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or circumstances beyond one's control; protection of motherhood and childhood; education; participation in the cultural life of one's community; and more.

Beyond the Declaration

The Declaration was followed by other instruments: prominent among them were the Convention against Genocide (1948), the Convention on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (1965), and, in 1966, two overarching human rights treaties: the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. The Covenants, together with the Declaration, form the International Bill of Human Rights. The Covenants elaborate the same rights noted above, but with many new details. The instruments also address the protection of particular categories of people, e.g., refugees, married women, children, etc.

Since the adoption of the Covenants, UN human rights bodies have continued a major effort to define international human rights standards and to take up the major challenge of ensuring their enforcement. Other major treaties have addressed gender non-discrimination and torture. A number of the major treaties have established treaty supervisory committees to monitor implementation of the particular treaty regime.

The dominant recent trend in the UN's establishment of international human rights enforcement mechanisms has been to accord a substantial priority to ending the more severe human rights abuses perpetrated by state agents against the physical integrity of an individual: arbitrary executions, "disappearances," and torture and cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment. A combination of creative new mechanisms established by the UN Commission on Human Rights in the past decade, along with those mandated by the various interna-

tional human rights treaties has publicized such abuses and, through targeted action, has brought pressure to end them.

The combined existence and actions of the UN's Disappearances Working Group and the Special Rapporteurs on Arbitrary Executions and Torture have created an international rapid response mechanism for the first time in history—a kind of "international habeas corpus" for individual victims of human rights violations.

More than half the members of the UN are party to the two covenants. Even larger numbers of states are parties to the race and gender discrimination conventions.

Unresolved Conflicts

As international human rights treaty law has developed, there have been a variety of tensions that have affected both the drafting and the interpretation and implementation of the norms agreed upon. Such tensions remain unresolved.

First, international human rights law begins with a major tension between the desire of governments to maintain national sovereignty and the intention of the new instruments to establish guarantees on matters previously understood to be within the domestic jurisdiction of the state.

There are also continuing differences over the role, importance, and expectations of implementation of civil and political rights on the one hand, and economic, social, and cultural rights on the other. Some governments emphasize one or the other set of these rights as preeminent and fundamental. For their part, human rights NGOs overwhelmingly emphasize civil and political rights in their case work.

As understood by the drafters, civil and political rights are expected to be implemented by states immediately; economic, social and cultural rights are understood to be something that governments will strive towards achieving eventually, but which cannot be realized instantly.

International human rights law has also evidenced tension over the degree to which it extends its reach beyond the sphere of public life into private life. "Intrusion" of international human rights standards into private life could extend to such matters as family life, religious responsibilities, and potentially into areas arguably "protected" from intrusion by guarantees of freedom of expression and association, among others.

On the commonly expressed requirement of establishing state responsibility for human rights violations—since the states are the parties to the treaties—there is a tension in assessing the responsible role of the state as an active agent engaged in carrying out or sanctioning violations and its passive role as being complicit in a social/political order that may countenance violations such as race or gender discrimination.

Similarly, there is the tension between assessing overt political violence by state actors (causing "disappearances" and extrajudicial killings, inflicting torture, etc.) and covert complicity in structural violence (such as discrimination, domestic violence and imbalanced or non-prosecution of rape).

Often, one hears from government representatives and many international human rights experts that a matter—such as domestic violence or rape—is not an international human rights violation, but a

matter of common criminal law. Two issues are among the concerns of the international women's movement, and as a matter of course are of concern to women activists that struggle to continue because of state violence countenanced state.

Human Rights Treaties: The Status of Women

International treaties with the status of women to the very turn of the century documents were primarily legislative, largely a matter of health, employment, and nationality. The following surveys the subjects of progression of these instruments. Over time, many of these instruments that were drafted included early in the century have been refined, amended, replaced by ones produced in the years since the formation of the UN. The newer ones are more main, less protective, and oriented towards either action or non-discrimination.

Prostitution

International treaties since 1904 have outlawed "white slavery" as it was called at the turn of the century, and "the traffic in women" as it was called in a 1951 convention. Also forbidden are a number of related practices; measures also included to punish those who exploit others for the purpose of prostitution.

Maternity

The ILO Convention concerning the Employment of Women Before and After Birth (1919) and the Convention Concerning Maternity Protection (Rev. 1952) require all er

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Often, one hears from government representatives and many international human rights experts that a matter — such as domestic violence or rape — is not an international human rights violation, but a

matter of common crime. Yet these two issues are among the foremost concerns of the international women's movement, and it is taken as a matter of course among women activists that such actions continue because of structural violence countenanced by the state.

Human Rights Treaties Addressing the Status of Women

International treaties dealing with the status of women date back to the very turn of the century. Such documents were primarily protective legislation, largely addressing matters of health, employment or nationality. The following briefly surveys the subjects covered by a progression of these instruments. Over time, many of these instruments that were drafted and concluded early in the century have been refined, amended, and/or replaced by ones produced during the years since the formation of the UN. The newer ones are, in the main, less protective, and more oriented towards either corrective action or non-discrimination.

Prostitution

International treaties dating from 1904 have outlawed "white slavery", as it was called at the turn of the century, and "the traffic in persons", as it was called in a 1951 convention. Also forbidden are a number of related practices; measures are also included to punish those who exploit others for the purpose of prostitution.

Maternity

The ILO Convention No. 3, concerning the Employment of Women Before and After Childbirth (1919) and the Convention No. 103, Concerning Maternity Protection (Rev. 1952) require all employers,

even in agriculture and home industry, to provide for at least six weeks of pre-natal leave without loss of seniority.

Political Rights

In 1952, the UN GA adopted the Convention on the Political Rights of Women, which provides a variety of political rights on equal terms with men: the right to vote in elections, to be elected, and to hold public office. To a significant degree, these provisions were designed to correct past injustices proscribing women from political participation in society and to assure future political participation on a non-discriminatory basis.

Nationality

In 1957, the UN GA adopted the Convention on the Nationality of Married Women which assures that a married woman's nationality is not automatically altered because of her marital status and the nationality of her husband. Instead, she retains rights to her own nationality. This is designed to prevent the hardships caused by involuntary nationality changes that had been required for women who married foreign nationals. Again, early twentieth century corrective treaty law has been largely replaced by non-discriminatory provisions.

Consent to Marriage

The full and free consent of both parties to a marriage is required under a 1962 Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriage. While this addresses both males and females, it was in fact aimed primarily at the problems faced by women in some countries. The Convention asks states to establish a minimum age for marriage but does not set one.

Employment and Labor Conditions Non-Discrimination

Early legislation in this area prohibited women from night work and work in mines, largely on the concept that this was societally undesirable, unhealthy to the potential mother, or too vigorous physically for women.

Such protective treaty law provisions are to be found in the ILO Convention Concerning Night Work of Women Employed by Industry (drafted in 1919, revised in 1934 and 1948); and the ILO Convention Concerning the Employment of Women on Underground Work in Mines of All Kinds. Additionally, there are ILO conventions that address employment of women before and after childbirth, and ones providing insurance for widows and orphans.

Such protective legislation stems from acceptance of the traditional stereotype of women as wives and mothers; work outside such sanctioned areas is restricted or forbidden altogether. Abundant evidence has shown that protective legislation keeps women from entering many areas of employment, restricts their promotion and progress on many jobs, infantilizes them in choices available, and in the end, actually serves to discriminate against women rather than to "protect" them. For this reason, the trend in the development of gender-based treaty law has been, in the main, to move away from protective legislation.

Equal Pay

The ILO Convention Concerning Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value (1951) sets forth standards of equal pay for men and women for work of "equal value".

The ILO Convention on Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupation (1958) is designed to develop national policies and conditions that promote "equality of opportunity and treatment in respect of employment and occupation with a view to eliminating any discrimination..." Protective laws under other ILO conventions are not, under this convention, deemed discrimination. Gender is one of the prohibited grounds of employment discrimination under this treaty.

Most recent is the non-discriminatory language of the ILO Convention on Equal Opportunities and Equal Treatment for Men and Women Workers: Workers with Family Responsibilities. It is aimed at protecting both men and women from job discrimination because of family responsibilities.

Education

Unesco's 1961 Convention on Non-Discrimination in Education provides for equal access to educational training, facilities, etc. for all. Again, gender is one of the prohibited grounds for discrimination in this field.

As will be described later, most of the provisions of these treaties – with many differences – have been incorporated into the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979), which is the most comprehensive treaty of its kind on the subject of women's status.

Prevention of Discrimination

The UN Charter calls for "human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion." The Universal Declaration of

Human Rights developed this concept, adding to the prohibited distinctions: "color", and "political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status."

Later human rights instruments have generally used the term "discrimination" rather than "distinction" when explaining the concept. Not all differences in treatment are forbidden, only those that are considered "arbitrary" or "unreasonable." More recent human rights documents prohibit distinctions, exclusions, restrictions and/or preferences based on one of the proscribed categories that have the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing equality of treatment. Among the treaties that generally follow this approach are ILO Convention 111, the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (1958), the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.

In general, these treaties permit special corrective measures, particularly temporary ones, taken to insure equality of treatment for distinct groups that have suffered past discrimination. Such measures are considered permissible until such time as the inequality is remedied.

Of the four categories noted in the UN Charter, most progress has proceeded in the UN's work on preventing racial discrimination and gender discrimination. By comparison, the UN has made little progress in codifying measures to prevent religious discrimination and still less for linguistic discrimination.

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)

More than any other instrument, the CEDAW, drafted by the UN over a five-year period and approved on December 18, 1979 brings together the two major strands we have been discussing: "mainstream" international human rights treaty law and special treaties that address the status of women.

CEDAW contains a mixture of non-discriminatory, corrective (affirmative action) and protective provisions. Yet the protective elements are less obtrusive than in prior international instruments. The corrective elements, which are permitted and defined to be non-discriminatory, are envisioned as temporary.

According to the UN:

The 30-article Convention sets out in legally binding form internationally accepted principles and measures to achieve equal rights for women everywhere. Its adoption climaxed consultations over a five-year period by various working groups, the Commission on the Status of Women and the GA.

The comprehensive Convention calls for equal rights for women, regardless of their marital status, in all fields: political, economic, social, cultural and civil. ...

Other measures provide for equal rights for women in political and public life; equal access to education and the same choice of curricula; non-discrimination in employment and pay; and guarantees of job security in the event of marriage and maternity. The Convention underlines the equal responsibilities of men and women in the context of family life. It also

stresses the social services needed especially child-care facilities for combining family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life.

Additional articles of the Convention call for non-discriminatory health services for women, including services related to family planning; and a legal capacity identical to that of men, with States parties agreeing that all contracts and other private instruments that restrict the legal capacity of women "shall be deemed null and void". Special attention is given to the problems of rural women.

The Convention sets up machinery for the international supervision of the obligations accepted by States once they have ratified or acceded to it. The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), made up of 23 experts serving in their personal capacity and elected by States parties to the Convention, monitors progress made in its implementation.

The CEDAW falls short of other new major international human rights treaties in that it has no individual complaint procedure, even as an "optional protocol" along the lines found in the Civil and Political Covenant, or those in the Torture or Race treaties. Further, that there are a large number of states parties to CEDAW is undercut considerably by the fact that a very large number (compared to other treaties) have entered reservations on the substance of the treaty, many of which are viewed as quite fundamental. In recent years, much has been made of the woefully inadequate staffing and support provided by the UN Secretariat for CEDAW meetings.

Tensions in Treaties on the Status of Women

The many treaties on the status of women reveal continuing differences on the issues. These include

– whether and how to differentiate and impose standards that go beyond public life into spheres of private life;

– the degree of emphasis placed on altering national laws as opposed to changing custom and informal behavior;

– the degree to which legislative provisions on the status of women are primarily protective as opposed to focused on non-discrimination or equality; and

– the degree of emphasis on achieving equality of opportunity as opposed to equality of result; and how to evaluate both the purpose of permissible distinctions as well as their effect.

Assessing CEDAW

The CEDAW's definition of discrimination quite clearly extends the purview of concern into areas of private life (by dropping the phrase of the CERD Convention "in public life" from the definition). It moves beyond de jure discrimination into de facto discrimination, clearly seeking to alter the discriminatory role of custom and informal behavior. On the matter of protective legislation, while the CEDAW is less committed to such formulations than prior treaties addressing the status of women, it not only allows for protective legislation – but deems that such provisions shall not be deemed "discriminatory." This matter was the subject of considerable contention during the drafting process, with the USA and USSR squaring off on opposite

sides about the desirability of maintaining any protective legislation (USA: no; USSR: yes). [Burrows, p. 442] Finally, on the matter of equality of opportunity vs. equality of result, the CEDAW presents some ambiguities: it clearly wishes to see both result from its implementation. Affirmative action-type corrective provisions are encouraged, and are also deemed "non-discriminatory."

Continuing Progressive Status of International Human Rights Law

International human rights treaty law largely reflects the consensus of the international community at the time of the drafting of the relevant code. Efforts to codify international human rights law are still very much in progress and in flux. The guarantees in the treaties are not set in stone; the international process is moving and a further refinement of the guarantees achieved to date depends in large part on how they are actually monitored, expanded upon, and implemented. Both governmental and non-governmental participants in the process have a heavy responsibility and an exciting opportunity to contribute to its refinement.

How Women's Rights Treaties Challenge the International Human Rights "Mainstream"

Issues of women's status and gender non-discrimination are covered rather comprehensively in CEDAW. That convention actually presents problems that the mainstream international human rights law-makers haven't yet resolved, even for simpler issues.

For example, where the international human rights laws are still struggling over how to give priority to civil and political rights over

economic, social and cultural rights issues, the CEDAW convention boldly and thoroughly mixes both of them together. And, where the international human rights community acknowledges the requirement to implement civil and political rights immediately and economic and social rights only gradually, the CEDAW convention seeks to implement both simultaneously in the effort both to radically and promptly change society's discrimination against women, and to implement affirmative action changes immediately as well.

Again, while the international human rights community continues to struggle with the appropriateness of intrusion into private life — seen as possible rights violations — the CEDAW convention seeks precisely such intrusiveness. Moreover, while international human rights law and implementation mechanisms are ill-suited to deal with issues of covert structural violence, the CEDAW wants — indeed needs — to address such matters to extirpate many forms of gender-discrimination.

It thus becomes apparent that any attempt to address the issues included in CEDAW present serious pressures on international human rights bodies. The issues are complicated, broad, and hard to deal with. In large part for this reason, women's issues are *not* commonly dealt with in the mainstream international human rights debates and bodies of the UN, or by the international human rights NGOs.

Why International Human Rights Bodies and Organizations Don't Address Women's Rights

All of this takes place in a political context that is not conducive to the integration of international human rights matters and concerns

over the status of women.

First, the treaty provisos are made and implemented by states. Their wishes predominate in the drafting, and they are largely bound by custom and have a tendency to perpetuate usual practices.

Second, and very important, is the structural division in the United Nations: the human rights division is located in Geneva; the women's division, in Vienna. There is little or no "crosstalk" between the two.

Third, the preeminent trend in international human rights bodies and among the private human rights NGOs has been to work on ending violations against the physical integrity of the person perpetrated by state actors — torture, extrajudicial killings, disappearances. Comparatively little has been done regarding enforcement of prohibitions on discrimination, and especially little has been done on gender discrimination. Put simply, the human rights organizations do not rank the problem very high on a hierarchical list of human rights violations.

The reasons for this include:

(1) A sociological factor. Most of the delegates to UN human rights bodies are men; most are lawyers. They tend to look principally at due process questions and traditional formal procedures. The same is true of nongovernmental human rights organizations.

(2) The *de facto* hierarchy of international human rights practice is to favor civil and political rights over economic and social. To the extent the latter are considered at all, it is from a development perspective, not in terms of gender or other discrimination.

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(3) There is a lack of conscious-
ness of gender discrimination
among the human rights organiza-
tions. In part, this is due to a lack of
information regularly transmitted.
Women become visible to many
human rights groups only when
they are "victims" of traditional
mainstream violations: torture,
arbitrary arrest and imprisonment.

(4) There is a widespread sense
that gender discrimination issues
are private and outside the respon-
sibilities of government. Even
issues like forced prostitution are
seen as private matters not involv-
ing the government.

What Can Be Done to Alter This?

There is a great need for recon-
ceptualization of the issues. The
human rights community has done
this in the past. For example, the
phenomenon of "disappearances"
has been chronicled and major
efforts have been launched to end
the practice. This has occurred
during the last ten years even
though the practice goes back far
longer. But the practice was not
conceptualized as such earlier. It is
an assault on the physical integrity
of the person that denies due
process rights. Gender-related
rights violations such as rape can
be reconceptualized and brought to
the attention of international human
rights bodies. But it will require
considerable persistence. A valu-
able beginning, for example, has
been made in looking into ways of
combatting domestic violence by
the UN Committee on Crime Pre-
vention and Control, which is part
of the UN's Vienna-based "social"
division, and is often overlooked by
"mainstream" international human
rights organizations.

Once reconceptualized, the
issues must be made visible.
Documentation is a key factor.

They must then be transmitted to
the appropriate UN and other inter-
national human rights bodies. More
status-of-women issues should be
put onto the agenda of the Com-
mission on Human Rights, the
treaty bodies and others.

Adequate staffing and financing
of UN human rights bodies are
needed. Without this, there will be
no room for growth and innovation.
There is also a personnel question.
In the UN, efforts must be made to
get delegations to upgrade the
personnel they send to the UN
Commission on Human Rights and
the Commission on the Status of
Women, as well as those nominat-
ed for CEDAW.

Finally, there is the matter of
"people power". To get international
human rights organizations to take
up mainstream gender discrimina-
tion questions, there is a need for
mass involvement by the women's
movement into the human rights
field.

This *In Brief* was prepared by Felice
Gaer of the International League for
Human Rights.

The International League for Human
Rights, founded in 1942, works to end tor-
ture, disappearances, religious intolerance,
censorship and other human rights abuses.
It is a private, non-governmental human
rights advocacy organization that has
consultative status with the United Nations,
where it often speaks out against human
rights violations by member states. As a
matter of principle, the International League
accepts no funding from any government
or intergovernmental body. The Chairman
of the League is Jerome J. Shestack. Its
President is Leo Nevas.

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19. Rights of the Child
21. Religious Intolerance II
22. World Public Info. Campaign
23. Refugees and Human Rights
24. Chile: Returning to Democracy

Convention on the Rights of the Child
Analysis -- 9 October 1990

Generally

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child was adopted on 20 November 1989. It has been open for signature since 26 January 1990. As of 18 June 1990, 92 states had signed the Convention; only Belize, Ecuador, Ghana, Guatemala, the Holy See, Mongolia, and Vietnam had ratified it. The Convention will come into force after 20 states have ratified it. The drafting of the convention was done on the basis of consensus, rather than voting. A U.S. delegation participated in the drafting process.

CSCE Context

The Copenhagen Document, agreed in June 1990, state in part,

The participating States decide to accord particular attention to the recognition of the rights of the child, his civil rights and his freedoms, his economic, social and cultural rights, and his right to special protection against all forms of violence and exploitation. They will consider acceding to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, if they have not already done so, which was opened for signature by States on 26 January 1990. They will recognize in their domestic legislation the rights of the child as affirmed in the international agreements to which they are Parties.

Paragraph 13. The U.S. delegation to the Copenhagen meeting received no comments from the Department regarding this provision when the draft document was sent to Washington for review.

U.S. Position

According to the treaty office in L (Dave Balton), the U.S. is considering signing this treaty. It has been sent to five government agencies which would be responsible for implementing it in the event it becomes law. They are to provide comments and a determination, if appropriate, that U.S. law is in accordance with the treaty's provisions.

The primary concern Legal has is that much of what this treaty covers is, under U.S. law, the virtually exclusive domain of the states (the "federalism" problem). In cases where a right or practice under the laws of the 50 states is so well established that it is unthinkable to imagine any of the states denying that right, administrations may decide undertake treaty obligations as regards that subject. This administration may conclude that the rights covered in this treaty are sufficiently "ensured" under state law for the federal government to undertake international obligations as regards them.

There are a few specific areas where the administration has a substantive disagreement with the treaty, e.g., art. 37 states, "Neither capital punishment nor life imprisonment without

possibility of release shall be imposed for offenses committed by persons below 18 years of age." The Supreme Court recently upheld the Constitutionality of executing persons whose offenses were committed as minors. The administration would probably attach a reservation to that provision before submitting it to the Senate for advice and consent.

Likewise, references to economic, social, cultural rights are troubling to the administration. (See, for example, art. 24, right to access health care services; art. 26, right to social security; art. 27, right to adequate standard of living; and art. 28, right to education). It is not clear whether there is sufficient room to interpret this language in accordance with the views of the USG, or whether it would be necessary to attach reservations, understandings, or declarations here.

Finally, it is of note that art. 1 defines a child as "every human being below the age of 18;" some drafters wanted this to include, specifically, the unborn. The preamble states that ". . . the child . . . needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth."

**FINDING THE TIES THAT BIND:
BEYOND HEADSHIP AND HOUSEHOLD**

**Judith Bruce
Cynthia B. Lloyd**

October 1992

Judith Bruce is Senior Associate, Programs Division, and Cynthia B. Lloyd is Senior Associate and Deputy Director, Research Division, The Population Council, New York. This is a fully collaborative paper. Both authors take full responsibility for its contents.

This is a substantially revised version of a paper presented at the Workshop on Intrahousehold Resource Allocation: Policy Issues and Research Methods, 12-14 February 1992, at the International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C. It is forthcoming in Intrahousehold Allocation: Policy Issues and Research Methods edited by Lawrence Haddad and John Hoddinott.

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For further information on the seminar series, "The Determinants
and Consequences of Female Headed Households" sponsored jointly by
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Abstract

The last decade has seen renewed research and policy attention to the issue of female-headed and -maintained households in developing countries. This paper takes stock of the knowledge gained and the lessons learned from the rapidly growing body of literature on households and headship for the purpose of outlining a new research and policy focus on the family. The first half of the paper combines a review of recent literature on female-headed and -maintained families and a reanalysis of newly available data on family circumstances and the living arrangements of women and children. The evidence presented leads the authors to conclude that "headship" alone cannot be used as a policy tool for identifying vulnerable households, women, and children, or indeed for isolating the main sources of their support. The second half of the paper draws out lessons for future research priorities and population and development policy. The paper proposes a new research focus on the family that transcends the physical and temporal boundaries of the household and a policy focus that inquires into meaningful family relationships. Special emphasis is placed on the specification and support of parenting roles--particularly fathering roles--in fulfilling the social and economic needs of children.

The last decade has seen renewed research and policy attention to the issue of female-headed and -maintained households in developing countries. This attention has been motivated by three major concerns: (1) identifying vulnerable households for purposes of targeting special resources; (2) studying women's particular economic links to children; and (3) defining women's economic contribution to families. In the absence of detailed data on intra-family relationships and resource flows, household headship has been seen by many as a means of gaining insight into the household and, by extension, into the family. Rapidly growing knowledge about the composition of households and the characteristics of headship has provided a broad statistical profile of women's and children's economic and social circumstances within different household types. At the same time, there is a growing recognition of the limitations of the concepts of "headship" and "household" for a full understanding of family dynamics and intra-family resource allocation. The meaning of family necessarily transcends the boundaries of the household and, in the long run, the strength of family links, rather than living arrangements, may be the more important determinant of women's and children's welfare and the viability of households.

In this paper, we review the literature dealing with households and headship to lay the foundations for a new research and policy focus on the family. The first half of this paper assesses recent literature on female-headed and -maintained families and newly available data on family circumstances and living arrangements of women and children to answer three broad questions with important implications for research and policy: (1) what is the operational meaning of headship? (2) is the household concept a useful guide for understanding the family relationships that determine children's welfare? (3) is the household a sufficient context for understanding women's economic roles and vulnerabilities? The second half of the paper draws out lessons from these conclusions for both population and economic development policy. There we build the case for a new research focus on the family that transcends the physical and temporal boundaries of the

household, and for a policy focus that inquires into meaningful family relationships. We emphasize the specification and support of parenting roles--particularly fathering roles--in fulfilling the social and economic needs of children.

HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES: WHAT HAVE WE LEARNED?

Co-residential arrangements and family relationships form the context within which resource sharing and exchange among individuals takes place. Households are the institutions within which we usually study these interpersonal transactions at the micro level. Because residentially distinct households are relatively easy to identify in most settings, they provide efficient units within which to study people's domestic lives and assess their relative welfare. In the short run, it is reasonable to assume that the members of any particular household are bound together by ties of mutual interest that surpass the possibilities for sharing and support available in alternative living arrangements. However, not all resources of household members are fully shared, and households rarely contain within them a closed circle of interpersonal transactions.¹ The maintenance of networks of mutual obligation and support between kin does not require co-residence or even physical proximity (Thadani, 1978; Stone, 1977). Most household members are likely to have family members residing outside the household with whom they have long-term economic connections. Thus, a wider view of intra-family connections and resource flows--particularly important when considering children's well-being--requires looking beyond the immediate residential household. In the discussion that follows, we define the family as a group of individuals related by blood or marriage and a household as a group of individuals living together and sharing meals.

A. Headship: A Window into the Household?

The designation of a household member as its "head" is commonly used in censuses and surveys to identify a "reference person" to whom individuals are linked and by whom they are counted and their characteristics recorded. The head is not usually defined by any objective criteria,² but instead by the subjective criteria that he or she is so designated by other household members. Among the attributes commonly assigned to the "head" are that s/he carries primary economic responsibility, functions as the primary decision-making authority, or is the most respected person. There is a tendency in many cultures for household members to name the oldest male affiliated with the household as its head, even when he is no longer economically active or even in regular residence. Thus, the meaning of headship is far from standard and its social meaning is likely to vary cross-culturally as well as among members of the same household.

A comparison of households according to the sex of the head has often been used as a means of learning indirectly about the relative roles of men and women in household production and resource allocation. A key analytic dilemma in studying the differences between male- and female-headed households, however, is the asymmetry of their structure. A household labeled male-headed almost invariably has one or more females present, including the spouse of the male head. A female-headed household, on the other hand, is most often a male-absent household. In comparing these two household types, we deal with analytical problems implied by this asymmetry, not just once, but at every point in the research and in interpreting the findings for policy. In the discussion that follows, we focus on the relative household responsibility and authority of male and female heads and its implications for the allocation of resources in these two household types.

In developing countries, where much production occurs outside the market sector, it is often difficult to evaluate the relative economic roles of household members. In male-headed households, where men and women are co-resident and often work side-by-side in

family farms and businesses, a comparison of their earnings will confirm the economic advantage of the male "head." The male advantage stems from two sources: the male typically earns more for the same effort and he is awarded control over the cash collectively generated because of his position of authority (and sometimes the explicit biases of a development policy). According to Sen (1990), such joint economic activities often create "systematic biases in the perception of who is 'producing' what and 'earning' what" (p. 130) within the household.

An alternative approach to the analysis of relative economic contributions is a comparison of work effort between household types, or the proportion of total household work hours contributed by male and female heads. Lloyd and Gage-Brandon (1993), in a comparison of the relative work hours of men and women in Ghana, showed that, controlling for other relevant factors, household heads work longer hours, on average, in the market than other adult household members whether they be men or women, confirming that heads do carry extra responsibility in the household. Furthermore, they found that female heads work significantly longer hours on average than male heads when domestic work was taken into consideration, corroborating findings by Rosenhouse (1989) for Peru. However, comparisons of the share of total household work contributed by male and female heads in these two studies revealed that female heads are much more likely to be primary workers³ in the household than male heads, who often share a significant work responsibility with at least one other member. Indeed, in 30 percent of male-headed households in Ghana, the spouse of the head was identified as a "main worker." In Peru, 40 percent of the households in which the primary worker was a woman were actually reported to be "male-headed."

There is little information on the relative decision-making responsibility of male and female heads, but data on relative economic responsibility suggest that the authority structure in female-headed households may be more cohesive because of the absence of adult male members (Dwyer and Bruce, 1988). Male-headed

households and multi-generational households tend to be larger and to have more earners, so the potential for conflict is much greater (Doan and Bisharat, 1990). In Ghana, household members were asked who was best informed about different activities within the household such as agriculture/livestock tending, non-farm business, and food purchasing. In male-headed households, the spouse of the head was named as the best informed about non-farm business in 52 percent of the cases and about food purchases in 69 percent of the cases (Haddad, 1990). In female-headed households, the female head was almost always declared the most knowledgeable in all areas of household activity. While knowledge is not synonymous with control, it is certainly a precondition. Such evidence supports the view that authority is more fully vested in one person in female-headed households and more variably distributed in male-headed households. Thus, with regard to both productive work effort and degree of authority, women who are named household heads appear more likely to fulfill the range of assumed roles of head than men so named for the very reason that female heads rarely live with other adults who could compete for such roles.

Evidence is growing that the internal distribution of resources in female-headed households is more child-oriented than in male-headed households. This evidence is primarily derived from comparisons of the overall pattern of household consumption and the types of foods purchased and consumed by members of male- and female-headed households. One hypothesis is that women can implement their priorities more easily, and hence redirect resources more efficiently to children when they are fully in charge of the household. For example, recent evidence from Jamaica indicates that female-headed households consume foods of higher nutritional quality and spend a larger share of their income on child goods and a significantly smaller share on alcohol (Horton and Miller, 1989; Louat, Grosh, and van der Gaag, 1991). Selective evidence of the longer-term impact on children of these expenditure differences between male- and female-headed households is primarily derived from data on child nutritional status.⁴ Despite lower

household incomes, a smaller percentage of children in some types of female-headed households in Kenya and Malawi are moderately to severely malnourished than in male-headed households (Kennedy and Peters, 1992).

Observed differences in child welfare and in expenditure patterns by headship status provide an indirect way of assessing the implications for the household of women's greater access to and control over household income. Several careful empirical studies of the distribution of income and expenditures within the household provide direct evidence for the contrasting expenditure priorities of men and women and support the hypothesis that women in a variety of household types--including male headed--are more child-oriented in their expenditures. Hoddinott and Haddad (1991), using household expenditure data from Côte d'Ivoire, show that a doubling of the income under women's control would lead to a 2 percent rise in the budget share going to food and a dramatic decline in the budget share going to alcohol (-26%) and cigarettes (-14%). Using household budget data from Brazil, Thomas (1992) confirms that additional income in the hands of women leads to a greater share of the household budget going to human capital goods as well as higher per capita calorie and protein intake. Finally, in a sample of peri-urban children in Guatemala, Engle (forthcoming) has estimated that the attainment of an additional half a standard deviation in a child's weight-for-height would require \$11.40 per month if earned by the mother and \$166 per month if earned by the father. Based on the same Guatemalan data, Engle (1991) also found that the higher the share of total household income earned by a child's mother, the higher the child's nutritional status.

B. Children's Living Arrangements: The Ties That Bind

The data on children's well-being in female-headed households suggest that the female stewardship of resources is especially beneficial to children. Data more descriptive of intra-household processes, such as those analyzed by Thomas and Engle (above), further suggest a differential propensity on the part of mothers

and fathers to spend on children. As these intra-household data are less easy to come by than the more commonly available headship data, an important research and policy goal has been to assess the value of headship information as a means of identifying the family links through which child welfare is determined? Do headship and related household structure data accurately direct us to the resource base of children? An unspoken assumption in linking child welfare to the characteristics of the head is the notion that the head somehow acts on behalf of the children and the household. This is presumptively through biological links. Implicit in much child welfare research is the assumption that the household head is the biological parent of the children residing in the household. But are children who reside in male-headed households in fact residing with both parents? Are children who reside in female-headed households residing with their mother?

In most countries of North Africa, Asia, and Latin America, all but a few percent of children under the age of 5 reside with their mother (see Table 1). In sub-Saharan Africa, the proportions of younger children living apart from their mother can be higher--e.g., 11 percent in Liberia and 19 percent in Botswana. As children age, the proportions living away rise in all regions, but only in Africa do they represent a substantial minority of children. For mothers with partners who have limited resources, sending a child to another household may enhance the child's access to resources or minimize the disadvantages for children still co-resident with the mothers. Lloyd and Desai's (1993) analysis of children's living arrangements showed that the probability a child will be fostered away from its mother is significantly greater when the mother has no residential spouse or partner and when there is competition from younger siblings.⁵ Thus, in such circumstances, a child may be transferred from a "poor" female-headed household to

Table 1
Percent of Children Living Away
from Mothers By Age

	TOTAL	0-4	5-9	10-14
<u>Sub-Saharan Africa</u>				
Botswana	27.6	18.7	32.2	33.7
Burundi	4.8	1.2	6.4	9.5
Ghana	15.2	4.2	18.2	29.4
Kenya	6.8	2.8	7.7	11.4
Liberia	25.3	11.2	33.0	40.9
Mali	10.5	3.6	13.5	17.8
Senegal	13.6	5.7	16.3	24.0
Zimbabwe	14.3	6.8	15.9	22.8
<u>Asia and North Africa</u>				
Indonesia	3.7	1.5	3.3	6.5
Morocco	2.8	0.9	2.6	5.7
Sri Lanka	2.7	1.2	2.9	4.2
Thailand	7.0	4.0	6.5	10.4
Tunisia	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.9
<u>Latin America and Caribbean</u>				
Brazil	4.0	2.6	4.3	5.7
Colombia	6.0	2.8	6.3	9.6
Dominican Republic	12.4	6.6	12.9	18.8
Ecuador	3.7	1.5	3.6	6.6
Peru	3.5	1.3	3.1	6.5
Trinidad and Tobago	5.7	3.3	5.7	9.1

SOURCE: Lloyd and Desai (1993)

a presumptively richer male-headed household; yet it is not clear that the child is advantaged by the move as neither of the child's biological parents is the household head, hence neither of the child's most immediate protectors or supporters is in the strongest position to direct resources to that child. If we drew an unexamined conclusion from the data about this child, we would conclude that s/he is in a male-headed household living with both parents when in fact this child is living with neither parent. A recent analysis from Ghana indicates that while 71 percent of school-age children live in male-headed households, 42 percent of school-age children are not co-residing with their father.⁶

Furthermore, living in a female-headed household is not synonymous with living in a mother-headed household. Table 2 presents data from 17 developing countries that show the proportion of childhood years living in mother-headed households and in households headed by other women, often grandmothers.⁷ While mother-headed households represent the majority of female-headed households in most countries (except in Senegal, Sri Lanka, and Thailand), between 5 and 10 percent of children's lives in 7 of the countries shown here are spent in households headed by women who are not their mothers.

Finally, a child's consumption and human capital investment prospects are determined not only by whether living arrangements permit one or both parents to direct resources to him or her, but also by the number of siblings (both resident and non-resident) with whom s/he is competing. If either parent has had children with one or more other partners, the number of "same-mother" siblings a child has will differ from the number of "same-father" siblings (Lloyd and Gage-Brandon, 1993). Extramarital childbearing, divorce, remarriage, and polygamy are all factors leading to this result. Data rarely allow a glimpse of the potential importance of the presence of half- and step-siblings to parental investments in children. One problem is that fathers may be reluctant to acknowledge all their children, if they no longer

Table 2
Percent of a Child's Years Spent in
Female-Headed Households by Household Type

	Headed by Mother	Headed by Other Female	Mother-Headed As a Percent of Female- Headed Households
<u>Sub-Saharan Africa</u>			
Botswana	31	18	63
Burundi	8	4	67
Ghana	21	12	64
Kenya	18	5	78
Liberia	10	9	53
Mali	4	1	80
Senegal	2	6	25
Zimbabwe	29	7	81
<u>Asia and North Africa</u>			
Indonesia	3	3	50
Morocco	7	2	78
Sri Lanka	5	7	42
Thailand	7	9	44
Tunisia	5	1	83
<u>Latin America and Caribbean</u>			
Colombia	8	5	62
Dominican Republic	15	2	88
Ecuador	6	3	67
Trinidad and Tobago	5	1	83

SOURCE: Calculated from Tables 4, 5, and 6, Lloyd and Desai (1993).

have any links with the child's mother. In Ghana, school-aged children have roughly 2 more "same-father" siblings on average than "same-mother" siblings. A child with more "same-father" siblings than "same-mother" siblings inevitably has a smaller proportional claim on the father's resources than on the mother's.⁸

Women's Living Arrangements: Is there a Safe Place?

Women's commitment to and need for the family has traditionally been much greater than men's because basic economic survival and the acquisition of valid social roles have been difficult for women to achieve outside of marriage and childbearing. Yet families, even traditional extended ones, do not always provide women with reliable economic protection. As the proportion of female-maintained households rises over time, the likelihood that a woman will become the principal economic support for her family, at least for some portion of her life cycle, increases as well. Knowledge or fear concerning the likelihood of becoming a widow or losing the economic support of a spouse has been shown to influence women's fertility choices in high-mortality settings such as Bangladesh (Cain, 1986). The risk of widowhood is just one of the factors leading to women living without partners and to female headship in developing countries. Other factors, many of which may be growing in importance, include migration (of both men and women), unpartnered (usually adolescent) fertility, marital instability, and the competing sexual relations of one partner or the other. Women's awareness of these possibilities provides them with an important motivation for achieving some control over resources even when living with an economically active spouse.

A comparison of data on the likelihood of marital disruption in very different settings in the developing world reveals a not inconsequential likelihood that a married women will experience the death of a husband or divorce or separation by her mid-40s.⁹ The proportion ranges from roughly one-quarter of women in Asia/North Africa, to roughly one-third in Latin America and the Caribbean and

in sub-Saharan Africa (see Table 3). While some of these women form new unions, those having children from earlier partnerships are no longer residentially linked with those children's father(s).

Women's insecurity arises not only from the instability of male/female partnerships and their own circumscribed access to labor markets, but centrally from their motherhood status. Becoming a mother for many women is a greater disposing factor to poverty than gender alone. The economic implications of uncommitted or unstable male/female relationships are greatly magnified when the loss of a partner jeopardizes not only a woman's livelihood, but also her dependent children's access to support. Thus, the father's economic relationship with the children is very much part of the economic portfolio of a woman who is a mother.

In the United States, the economic circumstances of mothers and their children are greatly affected by fathers' presence or absence from the household (Weiss, 1984; Macunovich and Easterlin, 1990). While there is no direct evidence from developing countries on the extent of a father's economic support for children when the parents are no longer in a marital union, indirect evidence can be drawn from comparisons of self-declared female-headed households by marital status in Ghana and Ecuador. These data indicate that the partnership circumstances of the female head is a powerful predictor of her economic circumstances. In Ghana, households headed by a married woman whose husband resides elsewhere--whether because of migration, polygamy, or matrilineal custom--are significantly better off than those headed by women who are divorced, separated, or widowed (Lloyd and Gage-Brandon, 1993). By contrast, married women who claim household headship status in Ecuador tend to be worse off than other female heads because the source of their headship is the outmigration of the husband in search of work (DeGraff and Bilsborrow, 1992).

Other factors besides marital status are likely to be important in determining the extent of a mother's financial responsibility for her children. When husbands and wives live

Table 3
Percent Of Ever-Married Women (Aged 40-49)
Whose First Union Has Dissolved*

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	
BOTSWANA	32.1
BURUNDI	38.3
GHANA	60.8
KENYA	24.2
LIBERIA	56.4
MALI	6.9
NIGERIA (ONDO STATE)	23.6
SENEGAL	42.2
ZIMBABWE	35.3
AVERAGE	35.5
ASIA & NORTH AFRICA	
EGYPT	22.8
MOROCCO	31.2
SUDAN	28.1
TUNISIA	11.1
INDONESIA	37.3
SRI LANKA	15.5
THAILAND	24.7
AVERAGE	24.4
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	
BOLIVIA	25.3
BRAZIL**	22.7
COLOMBIA	32.3
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	49.5
ECUADOR	28.9
GUATEMALA**	29.4
PERU	26.2
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	26.2
AVERAGE	34.2

* Marital dissolution includes widowhood, divorce, separation, and remarriage.

** Based on ages 40-44

SOURCE: Lloyd (1992)

apart because of job migration or customary residential arrangements, the contribution of fathers to the support of the household is likely to diminish. Polygamy also increases a mother's financial responsibility for her own children. In Table 4, we show the importance of marital and living arrangements in several sub-Saharan countries, using synthetic cohort estimates of the proportion of a woman's reproductive years she would spend in different residential and marital statuses if her experience over the life cycle replicated the current experience of women at each age. In Ghana, 23 percent of a woman's reproductive years are spent married to a man who resides elsewhere; in Kenya, Mali, and Senegal the percent ranges from 12 to 15. For Ghana, if women's time spent single, widowed, divorced, and living apart is added together, fully 50 percent of their reproductive years are spent living without a co-resident partner. The equivalent figures are somewhat lower for Kenya, Senegal, and Mali. Of the remaining years, some will be spent residing with a polygamous husband who has concurrent responsibilities to other mother-child families, either in the same household or elsewhere. Co-residential polygamy is most important in Mali and Senegal, where women spend 35 to 37 percent of their reproductive lives in that situation. As a result, in each of these countries only between 32 and 43 percent of women's time is spent living in the same household with a man in a monogamous relationship.

As shown in the last line of Table 4, headship is by no means automatically linked with the absence of a residential partner, however. Indeed, household living arrangements often evolve in response to underlying economic conditions. In all four countries, the percent of a woman's reproductive years spent as a household head is substantially less than the percent spent without a residential partner. In many cases, the absence of a partner from the household, at least initially, is a strategy for preserving and protecting the household through the search for improved employment opportunities away from home and the remittance of earnings. With partners gone, the residential options available to these women

Table 4
Percent of a Woman's Reproductive Years Spent in
Different Marital and Living Arrangements

	GHANA	KENYA	MALI	SENEGAL
Single	15	19	4	13
Divorced/Widowed	11	9	4	6
Married, partner not resident	23	15	12	15
Married, partner resident				
Polygamous	16	14	37	35
Monogamous	34	43	43	32
TOTAL	100	100	100	100
No resident partner ^a	50	43	20	33
Household Head ^b	20	17	5	2

a Includes time spent single, divorced, widowed, and married but without a co-resident partner and is equal to the sum of the first three rows of the table. Due to rounding, the percent of years spent with no resident partner may not correspond exactly to the sum of the individual components.

b Represents the proportion of a woman's reproductive years spent heading her own household.

SOURCE: DHS Standard Recode Tapes

will vary depending on personal circumstances, the availability of kin, and culturally specific household formation rules (De Vos, 1987). In Africa, for example, where households are structurally complex, tend to be larger, and are likely to include three generations and/or extended kin, a woman with dependents, lacking support of a spouse, is apt to be under considerable pressure to live with and seek the support of other family members within a larger household.

Family members live together within households, but it is important to recognize that family relationships often transcend the geographical boundaries of the household. As the discussion above indicates, family relationships are fluid and the implications of this--at least in the economic sense--are probably more crucial for women than for men. That is, the economic fate of women more than men, and of female-headed households more than male-headed households, is determined by extra-household relationships. Some female-headed households are not only well off compared to male-headed households, but are even better off because of a particularly important extra-household economic link--that of remittances (Kennedy and Peters, 1992; Lloyd and Gage-Brandon, 1993). Other female-headed households have limited resources and no extended support systems. Indeed, the very poorest of mother-child groupings are unlikely to be found in the residentially distinct female-headed category; owing to their disadvantaged circumstances, they are often incorporated into larger households (Buvinic et al., 1992). The wealth or poverty of mothers and their children is determined to an important degree by whether fathers, regardless of marital or residential arrangements, contribute economically to their children. Given women's limited economic power relative to men, a non-contributing father in any household type is among the most severe welfare risks mothers and children face.

In sum, "headship" and the household boundaries it implies cannot be used as a policy tool for identifying vulnerable households, women, and children, or indeed for isolating the main

sources of their support. Even when headship status can be cross-referenced with parental responsibilities to derive more refined categories of households such as "mother-centered," we still require additional data on economic linkages between family members, such as remittances, before reaching conclusions about the degree of need or vulnerability. Indeed, some of the women most in need are likely to be embedded within larger households that have normatively ascribed male heads. Children's living arrangements are also considerably more complex than we have appreciated. The current way in which household and headship data are gathered generates unreasonable assumptions about the economic links between resident children and the household "head" while obscuring where the child's most likely supporters--their parents--reside. The head--whether male or female--is not necessarily the child's parent, and the child's other siblings--who represent both sources of support and competitors for resources--may not all co-reside within a single household.

WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE?

In developing research and policy implications from the points outlined in the previous section, we focus on two policy arenas: (1) population and family planning and (2) economic development. In both arenas, rather lopsided and ill-founded views of the family have been central. In the case of family planning and population programs, data collection procedures track offspring through their links with the biological mother without a trace of interest in the father. The development paradigm, on the other hand, centers all of its attention and expectations on the head of the household, implicitly male and presumably a dutiful parent. We believe it would further the effectiveness of population and development policies if these were founded on a more balanced and empirically based view of family demography, of male and female roles in households and as parents, and of intra-family sharing.

In the discussion that follows, we center our attention on a subject of importance to both population and development policy--

the parent/child relationship. We selected this from the many family relationships under strain because the parent/child link seems to be the one we should fight hardest to protect and whose rupture carries the most grievous consequences. To be more specific, it is owed this special attention on the basis of three criteria: (1) its stability over time, (2) the intrinsic vulnerability of one of its members, and (3) its potential for long-term productivity gains. Many other family relationships, such as those between spouses and between adult children and their parents, will frame and influence the parent/child relationship. Indeed, an interest in women's well-being is served by this focus to the extent that a woman's own poverty is traceable to the biased attention to women only as mothers and the societal neglect of fathers' roles and responsibilities.

In centering our interest on children, we are in good company. National governments and international agencies repeatedly call for investments in children, such as mandatory school attendance and invigorated efforts to ensure child survival and extend primary health care. Population policy's version of child-centered language suggest that families would be better off if couples invested more fully in each child--popularly expressed as "smaller families are happier families." Indeed, it is key to the fertility decline that children become more costly to parents. But, in fact, not much real thought has been given to intra-household processes in framing these policies. Though implicitly affirming the prerogatives of parents over children and husbands over wives, neither type of policy really confronts or purposely crosses the public/private boundary to deal with family relationships. Data collection procedures themselves often obfuscate the empirical boundaries of families and perpetuate a distorted view of their internal workings. In the discussion that follows, we suggest three directions for future research and policy effort that would promote equity between men and women, encourage productivity, and promote investments in children based on a better understanding of family processes. These are: (1) the articulation of culturally

appropriate children's rights, (2) the further specification of and support for fathers' social and economic responsibilities to children, and (3) equity for women as individuals in the labor market.

Children's Rights

The time has come to broaden our policy purview beyond the mother-child link and to focus on something bigger and more important--the rights of children as individuals. Regardless of the potential devotion of mothers, there is general consensus among social scientists and practitioners that children are entitled to a fair share of the social and economic resources of both of their biological (or culturally ascribed) parents.¹⁰

"Who pays for the kids?" should become an explicit and fundamental issue of development policy (Folbre, 1992). The articulation of norms, procedures, and laws that entitle children directly to both parents' human and economic resources regardless of a child's birth circumstances or the marital or sexual relationship of the parents would create a serious counter-pressure to the tendency of gender, combined with parental status, to be the key determinant of wealth and well-being. Unfortunately, children in industrialized and developing countries alike are voiceless--even where they are demographically predominant. Therefore, researchers and policymakers have to analyze issues from children's perspectives and act on their behalf. Most industrialized countries have found that it is not sufficient to treat the support and socialization of children as a purely private issue (a debate during the 1992 presidential campaign in the United States is a recent example). Certain efforts in developing countries indicate an increasing recognition of this principle as well (Women and Law in Southern Africa Research Project, 1990).¹¹ In both developing and industrialized countries, to the extent that children's rights are articulated at all, they are implicit in their parents'--usually their mother's--marital status. As we have seen above, that status is not so stable or predictable in form as to provide

reliable or enduring protection. That status does not automatically ensure that fathers provide adequate resources for their children. To the extent that there are policies which directly entitle children to parental resources, they are largely unknown and unimplemented. The protection of children's rights is vital to long-term national development goals. The human capital embodied in the next generation forms the basis of future economic development.

The explicit definition and location of child costs is also a keystone of progressive population and reproductive health policies. Reproductive choice, as currently framed, is defined by whether a specific pregnancy was planned and wanted, not by whether the preceding sexual act was mutual and voluntary, nor by whether the resulting child is supported by both parents or by the mother only. The reproductive choice paradigm should be expanded to encompass the cost to women and children of women's powerlessness, relative to men, in all phases of reproduction--from sex to pregnancy and childbirth to childrearing possibilities. In many parts of the world, efforts to reduce fertility are thwarted by men who experience no personal cost to having many sexual partners and fathering children with several women (Cain, 1984; Buvinic et al., 1992).

In a few countries--Kenya and Nigeria, for example--substantial arguments have occurred between parliamentarians and women's groups over laws of affiliation (laws that identify fathers on birth certificates) precisely because these laws would provide the basis for economic and social claims by mothers on behalf of children they have difficulty supporting. Typically, the tendency of policymakers when faced with the social consequences of marital instability and the abandonment of children by fathers is to suggest limiting divorce and penalizing out-of-wedlock childbearing, as if these outcomes--rather than the social processes that led to them--were the problem. A national debate over child maintenance laws should not be perceived as a male/female power struggle, but rather as a fundamental debate over

how society views children and gives meaning to their citizenship. By establishing children's rights rather than by imposing constraints on adult sexual and marital arrangements, a child's perspective is brought to the attention of sexually active adults.

Identifying effective policies and programs to entitle children will be as challenging in developing countries as it continues to be in industrialized countries. As a start, programs that deal with children should establish expectations for the participation of both mothers and fathers and systematically portray this in media, outreach, and program design. Policies--setting as their goal equality of opportunity among children--should base their programmatic expression on a deepened knowledge of how existing family and household arrangements can jeopardize care or economic support. Programs in many countries are already giving additional attention to the female child because of widespread discrimination against girls in access to proper nutrition and schooling. If the roots of discrimination against girls is sexual inequality in the wider society, such programs should challenge parents' ideologies about girls that may seem to justify their neglect.

Parental migration presents a particular challenge to the full attainment of children's rights. As mentioned above, parents typically migrate in search of work to help their families. Yet we know relatively little about how parental migration affects children's well-being and their prospects over time. As the long-term value to sending countries of outmigration is increasingly questioned (Papademetriou and Martin, 1991), we need more information about the long-run returns to sending families, particularly children. Some receiving-country migration policies differentiate between the rights of fathers and mothers to bring in children (Lim, 1990). It is important to assess policies that, though established with hard currency considerations in mind, may have unexpected returns to the custodial parent and children. For example, seasonal workers from Jamaica to the United States are paid the majority of their wage in Jamaica. In the Philippines,

when shipping crews are contracted for, the contractor must pay 70 percent or more of the sailor's wage to a designated person or family in the Philippines. Do such policies increase the possibility that absent fathers provide economic support for children?

Finally we come to issue of child maintenance. Explicit costs and economic expectations must be assigned to those who bear children, and penalties must be imposed on those who try to avoid their responsibilities. Though the struggle continues to be long and hard, in most countries where child maintenance laws have been effectively implemented, results have been dramatic. In Australia, after child payments began to be deducted from a non-resident father's wages under a new Child Support Scheme, the proportion of sole parents receiving maintenance payments rose by a third, from 27 to 36 percent, and the average payment rose by 30 percent in a two- year period (Harrison et al., 1991). Where relatively few fathers are absorbed into formal wage labor or are unemployed, the means of extracting child support payments are substantially reduced. However, norms should be set in place so that the employed elites who guide and make policy can begin to experience the meaning of these norms for themselves. It would be hard to imagine a policy argument against child maintenance simply because it was difficult to enforce. Its absence, on the other hand, is an unmistakable message. Over time--if development efforts are successful--child support policies will be more and more implementable.

Effective definition of policy in this area will require further research on children's residential arrangements and access to parental and other family support in different cultures and countries and on the consequences for children of different types of parenting arrangements. We need to know much more about the relationship between parents' residential and marital arrangements and their children's claim on their resources. We also need to know more about how the number and sex of a child's siblings (including half- and step-siblings) are likely to affect his or her

opportunities. Finally, further research is needed to identify the sources of inequality in parental investment in children according to their gender, circumstances of birth, living arrangements, and whether or not the child's birth was wanted.

Support for the Father's Role

There is no compelling reason why the father-child link is any less important than the mother-child link. At the level of program, policy, and social debate, the value of the father's role, expectations of fathers and incentives for "good" fathering, and sanctions for "poor" fathering must be defined. Without these efforts and in light of the changeable marital and residential arrangements of parents, we are likely to see an increasing proportion of children in developing countries with inadequate access to their fathers' economic and emotional resources--a trend only too familiar in the industrialized countries.

We have channeled most of our policy interest in children through mothers, as if they were the sole solution to the need for generating additional income and rendering appropriate childcare. A recent US study on race, family structure, and changing poverty among children (Eggebeen and Lichter, 1991) found that, without the significant increases in the labor force participation of mothers that occurred between 1960 and 1980, the rise in the proportion of children living in poverty in the 1980s would have been even greater than it actually was. Though there may be more to learn about what women can do to restructure their time or redirect their income to benefit children, it is unlikely that there is nearly as much room to maneuver here as there is with respect to fathers' behavior, time investments, and income use vis-à-vis children. Our lack of interest in the topic is reflected in how little we know about fathers' roles in supporting their children. Time budget data show that fathers' total work time (market and domestic) increases less than mothers with the arrival of each additional child (Boulier, 1977; Fried and Settergren, 1986) and sometimes does not increase at all (Desai, forthcoming).

On the matter of behavior and social support, we find a parallel lacuna in concern about the father's role. A study of the effects of maternal mortality on children in Southern Africa illustrates the point (Defense for Children International, 1991). Because only mothers are provided with information on their children's nutritional needs at the time of delivery, fathers have no sense of their parental responsibilities in the event of the mother's death. As a result of inadequate child care arrangements and the provision of insufficient money for food, the children's health and nutrition suffered. Nonetheless, because people did not see a child's nutrition as a father's responsibility, people in the community did not expect any more of the father. Engle (1990) recounts the results of a recent study in Nigeria, which found that 35 percent of men whose children were hospitalized for malnutrition attributed this to problems in mothering and the home environment, rather than to food sufficiency in which they have a role (Ojofeitimi and Adelekan, 1984).

If child welfare programs continue to center their attention on mothers'/women's roles, while neglecting even the imagery of fathers'/men's roles, vital opportunities will be lost. Prenatal and postpartum programs have no mechanisms for engaging fathers who accompany their partners for care. There are fledgling efforts that lessons could be drawn from, such as the inclusion of male imagery in an oral rehydration campaign. It was found that, when male figures appeared in the instruction pamphlet, the message was remembered better by both males and females than when the message was solely directed to women (Zimmerman et al., 1982).

Finally, there is a good side of this story to tell. A few studies indicate an association between the father's commitment to the family and the child's well-being. For example, Engle (forthcoming) found that in Guatemala, the proportion of the father's income devoted to the family, more than the absolute amount of his income directed to the family, was associated with the child's welfare as measured by weight-for-height. If a father's interactive time with children increased during the early

years, so might his propensity to support children should a marriage fail or should he migrate.

In order to devise policies that attract more men into the business of caring for their children, we need to learn how a father constructs his parenting role. Does he define his responsibility as one that flows through his relationship to the child's mother, as Furstenberg and Cherlin (1991) suggest for some fathers in the United States? Is it heavily conditioned by the circumstances of the child's conception? the existence of other sexual relationships? the continuing rapport between the parents? his co-residence with the child? the child's gender? When does the father view his relationship to the child as permanent and one of obligation?

Economic Equity for Women

Nothing in the research we have reviewed above suggests to us that women in developing countries will be under less pressure to contribute substantially to the well-being of themselves and others in the coming decades. It is clear from all the information about how households and families operate and the volatility of partnerships that there is no one the adult woman or mother can rely on absolutely except herself. The available information on changing family structures, female headship, and maintenance of families argues for an intensified effort to increase the hourly return on women's work effort.

In past generations and in subsistence economies, a mother may have been able to obtain acceptable outcomes for herself and her children by growing and processing more food for home consumption and gathering fuel from longer distances, among other efforts. But increasingly, to enter the modern economy women and their dependents require cash for school fees, transportation, and the purchase of modern medicine, and food of adequate nutritional quality.

In the 1970s and 1980s investigators often used a "full income" concept¹² to give a clearer picture of the tremendous

resourcefulness and hard work of the poor in garnering resources for survival. If such exercises continue to be useful in thinking about the total sum of effort in making up an economy, and particularly in reevaluating women's contributions, it works against poor people, and especially women, when this attributed value is mistaken for purchasing power. The fact that so many impoverished women are producing reasonable livelihoods for dependents--though not necessarily for themselves--has distracted us from the question of how economic growth and adequate investment in human capital can best be achieved. More balanced attention to men's and women's roles, realistically viewing both as producers and reproducers--as workers and parents--will provide a better basis for evaluating the adequacy of income or quality of life. If gender equity is to be achieved in development policies, men and women should be able to produce their fair share of a basic standard of living for themselves and their dependents through relatively comparable work efforts and time expenditures.

The tendency of welfare assessments to emphasize outcome over process is also shortsighted. When outcomes and processes are discordant--the outcome is good and the process is bad--then a bad outcome may be just around the corner. Processes more than outcomes can be used to predict favorable future responses on which policies can be built or to define behavior so iniquitous as to be unsustainable (e.g., Haddad, 1991). The outcome question, for example with reference to the welfare of children in mother-headed households, has been "how bad is it?" The process question is "how much better could it be?" If one finds, for example, that the key issue for mother-supported households is their poor wages, the process question is "how much greater would household income be and who would benefit if we removed gender-based discrimination from the labor markets?"¹³ If women's time and income use is found in a given society to be child centered, why not estimate the productivity and human capital gains that would be attained if fathers' time and income were allocated more like mothers'?

Current policies encumber women's livelihoods in two respects: (1) they do not accommodate women's special family responsibilities, and (2) they tie women's access to resources, including labor markets, to marital or sexual relationships with men or to their fertility status. In the formal labor market, maternity leave provisions and child care arrangements are the exception rather than the rule; and in the informal sector and the domestic arena, the lack of infrastructure and of complementary productive inputs (such as land of adequate quality and appropriate capital equipment) keeps women's productivity low and reduces the time and energy available for their children (Desai, 1992). Another source of women's economic inequality derives from the law and traditional practice. When women are treated as legal juniors in family law and economic policy, this prejudices their access to family-based productive resources. With the mounting evidence of shifting family arrangements, diminishing co-residence of spouses, and women's growing economic responsibility for children, there is no plausible basis for policies that limit women's economic access based on marital or fertility status. The requirement of a husband's (father's/son's) consent for women's access to credit, market activity, migration for work, or asset ownership is as unproductive as it is offensive. Women's access to a fair share of marital property on the occasion of divorce or death of a spouse is as necessary to their survival as it is fair. There is little systematic information about the specific legal, administrative, and social barriers to women's rights and economic independence that remain codified in regulations and customary practice. A more systematic analysis of the ways in which presumptions about women's family roles inhibit their access to vital resources is called for.

The removal of gender bias from economic policy must include removing explicit and implicit constraints on women based on family or reproductive roles. A test of women's unencumbered access should be: "Can a celibate, childless woman own property?" "Can a pregnant, unmarried woman hold a job?" Though women will always be economic assets to their households and families, this dividend

to society arises from the more fundamental recognition that women as individuals have rights to livelihoods on their own behalf.

CONCLUSIONS

Our analysis of the operational meanings of headship and household in defining both the economic contributions and vulnerabilities of women and their implications for the children they support points up the important economic contribution that women make in all types of households and families, regardless of their headship status. Owing to the complexity and flux in family types, women's marital status and living arrangements provide an insufficient framework for studying their economic vulnerability and often project a false picture of either economic security or poverty. By extension, children's welfare is less conditioned by their parents' marital status than current policies and normative approaches would have us believe. The wealth or poverty of mothers and their children is determined to an important degree by whether fathers, regardless of marital or residential arrangements, contribute economically to their children, not by the family's normatively ascribed headship or household type. Indeed, household living arrangements are the outcome of family survival strategies and as such are more likely to be the consequence of underlying economic circumstances than a determining factor in those circumstances.

The likelihood of increases in the extent of family separation due to the widening search for livelihoods, as well the destructive forces of civil unrest, famine, and war, lends urgency to the pursuit of new research and policy initiatives that focus on the links between men and women, parents and children, both within and between households. We must not let the structure of existing data on households blind us to the full complexity of the family as we seek to learn more about intra-family connections and resource flows and design policies that will strengthen these connections--

particularly the neglected father-child link. For example, the collection of new data on mothers and children, as it is typically done in fertility, family planning, and child health surveys, needs to incorporate ways to link children to their biological fathers, even if they reside outside the household, as well as to gather more information from men about their childbearing and rearing roles. Even in the absence of full information, however, certain principles and priorities are clear: the recognition of children's right to a fair share of both parents' social and economic resources, the importance of fathers to their children's well-being and future development, and women's economic equity achieved under circumstances that are sensitive to, yet unencumbered by, family roles.

Notes

1. The degree to which such a closed circle of transactions does not exist is likely to vary cross-culturally. To take an extreme example, an in-depth anthropological study of a residential neighborhood of Accra (in Ghana) concluded that most productive as well as key consumption activities occurred outside the household, that household members usually performed these activities separately, that sexual activity more often occurred between men and women from different households rather than from the same household, and that most children had primary relationships of socialization with adults living in other households (Sanjek, 1982).
2. Except possibly by duration of residence.
3. The primary worker is defined as the household member with the greatest share of the household's total hours of market work.
4. The literature on female-headed households and child nutrition has been recently reviewed by Kennedy (1992). Evidence on differences between children's educational attainment in female- and male-headed households is less clear. In Botswana, children in female-headed households receive more education than children in male-headed households, controlling for income (Kossoudji and Mueller, 1983); but in rural Ecuador, headship does not seem to matter except in the case of households headed by widows, where children's educational enrollment is noticeably disadvantaged (DeGraff and Bilsborrow, 1992).
5. This analysis included 7 sub-Saharan African countries as well as Thailand and the Dominican Republic; in all of these countries, significant numbers of children live apart from their mother.
6. Lloyd and Gage-Brandon (1992) and special tabulations from the Ghana Living Standard Measurement Survey in 1987/88.
7. These are synthetic cohort estimates calculated by adding age-specific proportions of children living in households that are mother-headed, other female-headed, and male-headed for single years of age from 0-15 and dividing by 15. The effect is to standardize for differences in children's age distribution for comparisons across countries.
8. These estimates are based on the reports of all men and women in the household about children residing in the household as well as outside. It very is limited to siblings under the age of 30.

9. Unfortunately, we cannot look beyond age 49 because the DHS data were restricted to reproductive-aged women.
10. Some societies define parenthood more broadly. However, we believe that the role of grandparents, aunts, and uncles and other normatively ascribed parent surrogates will begin to diminish as social mobility and economic pressure tend to decrease family size and homogenize family concepts. With time, we expect a more uniform, cross-cultural definition of parental responsibility to emerge.
11. Following the 1985 Nairobi Conference, lawyers and jurists from six southern African countries discussed constitutional and legal priorities. The highest among these for women and children, in their view, was a rationalized, explicit approach to child affiliation and maintenance laws. To this end, "maintenance" reports were prepared for the six countries. In March 1989, the groups met to formally commence a multi-country effort to improve the clarity and equity of existing laws regarding maintenance. For a full set of reports and readings, write Women and Law in Southern Africa Research Project, PO Box 918, Harare, Zimbabwe.
12. Full income is defined as income earned for hours worked for pay plus imputed income from non-market hours of work (assumed equal to the hours in the day remaining after allowing for necessary hours for sleep) plus unearned income.
13. A recent study by the World Bank using data from 10 Latin American countries estimated that if women's wages were set equal to men's within each industry, there would be only a minor reduction in male wages and a substantial increase in women's wages even if the elasticity of substitution between men and women in production were relatively low. Because of the prevailing pattern of mother-child economic exchange, such an adjustment would benefit women, their children, and productivity. (Tzannatos, 1991).

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The
World's

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Trends and Statistics

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Women

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1970-1990



United Nations
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Annex II

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women

On 18 December 1979, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women was adopted by the General Assembly. It became an international treaty on 3 September 1981 after the twentieth country had ratified it.

Bringing the female half of humanity into the focus of human rights concerns, the Convention establishes not only an international bill of rights for women but also an agenda for action by countries to guarantee those rights.

Governments are committed to:

- creating conditions within which women can exercise and employ basic rights and freedoms.
- affirmative action for women until parity with men is achieved.
- abolishing all forms of slavery and prostitution of women.
- securing women's right to vote, stand for election and hold public or political office.
- providing equal opportunity for women to represent their countries internationally.
- allowing women the right to change or retain their nationality and that of their children, regardless of marital status.
- ensuring girls' and women's equal access to quality education in all subjects and at all levels, including continuing and vocational programmes for women.
- ensuring equal employment opportunities, promotion, vocational training, job security benefits and equal pay for work of equal value. In addition, they must ensure that women who are married, pregnant or have children have the right to work and the right to maternity leave and other benefits; they must also ensure that child care is available and that pregnant women are protected from work that may be hazardous to their health.
- providing adequate health services, including family planning where necessary, and pre-natal and post-natal care, including nutrition for pregnant and lactating mothers.
- ensuring access to financial credit and family benefits, and the right to participate in recreational, cultural and athletic activities.
- giving special attention to all the provisions of the Convention to women living in rural areas.

- ensuring equal rights to choose a spouse, name or occupation; marry and divorce; own, buy, sell and administer property; share parenting, regardless of marital status; and choose the number and spacing of their children, including adoption or guardianship. In addition, governments are committed to establishing a minimum age for marriage and to ensuring that all marriages are entered into freely, by mutual consent.

States which have ratified or acceded to the Convention

(102 as of 1 June 1990)

Developed regions (32)

Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, Canada, Cyprus, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, German Democratic Republic,¹ Germany, Federal Republic of,¹ Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Yugoslavia

Africa (28)

Angola, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Congo, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Liberia, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Tunisia, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia

Latin America and the Caribbean (30)

Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Barbados, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Trinidad and Tobago, Uruguay, Venezuela

Asia and the Pacific (12)

Bangladesh, Bhutan, China, Indonesia, Iraq, Lao Peoples Democratic Republic, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Mongolia, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Viet Nam

**States which have signed
but not ratified the Convention (14)**

Developed regions (3)

Netherlands, Switzerland, United States of America

Africa (5)

Benin, Cameroon, Gambia, Côte d'Ivoire,
Sierra Leone

Latin America and the Caribbean (1)

Grenada

Asia and the Pacific (5)

Afghanistan, Cambodia, India, Israel, Jordan

**States which have neither signed
nor acceded to the Convention (45)**

Developed regions (3)

Albania, Holy See, Malta

Africa (16)

Algeria, Botswana, Central African Republic, Chad,
Comoros, Lesotho, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco,
Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa,
Sudan, Swaziland, Zimbabwe

Latin America and the Caribbean (2)

Bahamas, Suriname

Asia and the Pacific (24)

Bahrain, Brunei Darussalam, Burma, Fiji, Iran,
Kiribati, Democratic People's Republic of Korea,
Kuwait, Malaysia, Nauru, Nepal, Oman, Pakistan,
Papua New Guinea, Qatar, Samoa, Saudi Arabia,
Solomon Islands, Syria, Tonga, Tuvalu, United
Arab Emirates, Vanuatu, Yemen

Note

- 1 Through the accession of the German Democratic Republic to the Federal Republic of Germany with effect from 3 October 1990, the two German States have united to form one sovereign State. As from the date of unification, the Federal Republic of Germany acts in the United Nations under the designation "Germany".

Annex III

Geographical groupings of countries and areas

Developed regions¹

Albania
Australia
Austria
Belgium
Bulgaria
Canada
Czechoslovakia
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany²
 Federal Republic of Germany
 former German Democratic Republic
Greece
Hungary
Iceland
Ireland
Italy
Japan
Luxembourg
Malta
Netherlands
New Zealand
Norway
Poland
Portugal
Romania
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom of Britain and
 Northern Ireland
United States of America
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Yugoslavia

Africa

Northern Africa

Algeria
Egypt
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Morocco
Sudan
Tunisia
Western Sahara

Sub-Saharan Africa

Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
Côte d'Ivoire
Djibouti
Equatorial Guinea
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritania
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger

Nigeria
Reunion
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zaire
Zambia
Zimbabwe

Latin America and Caribbean

Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Bolivia
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
French Guiana
Grenada
Guadeloupe
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti

Honduras
Jamaica
Martinique
Mexico
Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Puerto Rico
St. Kitts and Nevis
St. Lucia
St. Vincent/Grenadines
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Uruguay
United States Virgin Islands
Venezuela

Asia and Pacific

Eastern Asia

China
Hong Kong
Korea, Democratic
 People's Republic of
Korea, Republic of
Macau
Mongolia

South-eastern Asia

Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
East Timor
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines
Singapore
Thailand
Viet Nam

Southern Asia

Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
India
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka

Western Asia

Bahrain
Cyprus
Iraq
Israel
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Oman
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Syrian Arab Republic
Turkey
United Arab Emirates
Yemen

Oceania

Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
New Caledonia
Pacific Islands
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Vanuatu

Notes

- 1 Comprising Europe and the USSR, northern America, Australia, Japan and New Zealand. Where used in the present publication, "eastern Europe" refers to Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Germany: former German Democratic Republic (see note 2 below), Hungary, Poland and Romania.
- 2 Through the accession of the German Democratic Republic to the Federal Republic of Germany with effect from 3 October 1990, the two German States have united to form one sovereign State. As from the date of unification, the Federal Republic of Germany acts in the United Nations under the designation "Germany". All data shown for Germany in the present publication pertain to end-June 1990 or earlier and are indicated separately for the Federal Republic of Germany and the former German Democratic Republic.

U.S. Legislation Relating Human Rights to U.S. Foreign Policy

By

INTERNATIONAL HUMAN RIGHTS LAW GROUP
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**UNFPA****FNUAP**United Nations
Population FundFonds des Nations Unies
pour la population**DR. (MRS.) NAFIS SADIK**

Dr. (Mrs.) Nafis Sadik is the Executive Director of the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and holds the rank of Under-Secretary-General. She is the first woman ever selected in the history of the United Nations to head one of its major voluntary-funded programmes.

As chief executive of UNFPA, the world's largest source of multilateral assistance to population programmes with a programme level of approximately \$224.2 million in 1991, Dr. Sadik directs a worldwide staff of about 700. In 1991, UNFPA funded 3,910 projects in over 147 countries and territories throughout the world. Since its inception in 1969, cumulative pledges through 1991 totalled about \$2.4 billion from a total of 159 donors.

In June 1990, the Secretary-General of the United Nations appointed Dr. Sadik as Secretary-General of the International Conference on Population and Development, 1994. The Conference will examine closely the relationship between population, environment, development, family planning and such related subjects as the status of women, ageing and migration.

A national of Pakistan, Dr. Sadik was born in Jaunpur, India, the daughter of Iffat Ara and Mohammad Shoaib. Mr. Shoaib served as Finance Minister of Pakistan and as Vice-President of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank). Dr. Sadik was educated at Loreto College (Calcutta) and received her doctor of medicine degree from Dow Medical College (Karachi). She served her internship in gynaecology and obstetrics at City Hospital in Baltimore, Maryland (USA). Dr. Sadik completed further studies at The Johns Hopkins University (USA) and held the post of research fellow in physiology at Queens University, Kingston, Ontario (Canada).

From 1954 to 1963, Dr. Sadik served as civilian medical officer in charge of women's and children's wards in various Pakistani armed forces hospitals, directing a medical staff of up to 50 officers. In 1964, she was appointed Head of the Health Section of the Government's Planning Commission, responsible for developing, preparing and evaluating a five-year health and family planning programme as part of the nation's overall development plan.

**UNFPA**United Nations
Population Fund**FNUAP**Fonds des Nations Unies
pour la population

- 2 -

In 1966, Dr. Sadik became Director of Planning and Training of the Pakistan Central Family Planning Council, the Government agency charged with carrying out the national family planning programme. She was appointed Deputy Director-General in 1968 and Director-General in 1970. Dr. Sadik joined UNFPA in October 1971, and became Chief of the Programme Division in 1973. From 1977 until 1987, she was Assistant Executive Director.

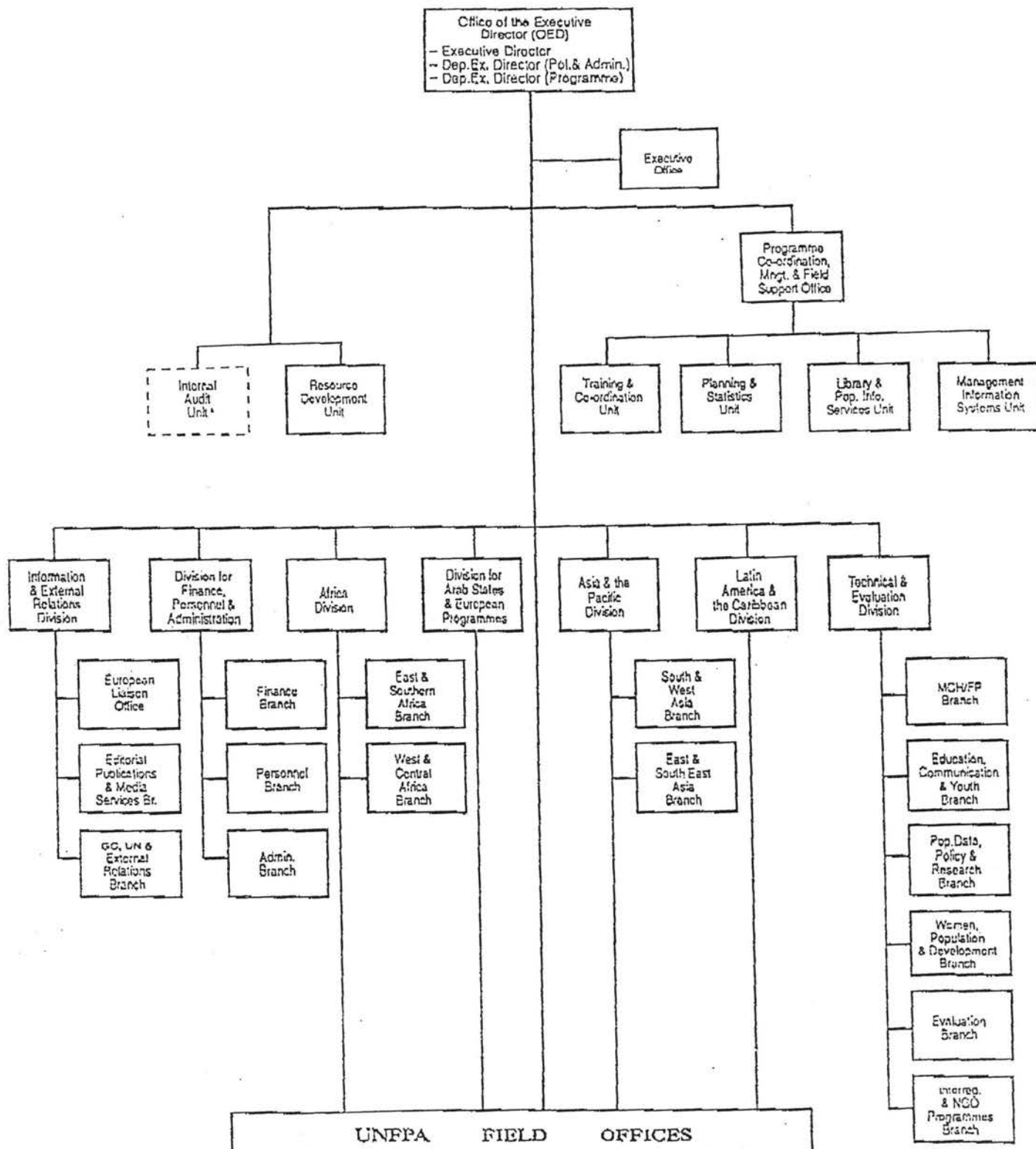
Dr. Sadik is a member of the Association of Pakistani Physicians in the United States, and was elected to the 1988 Fellowship ad eundem of the Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists in the United Kingdom. In May 1989, Dr. Sadik received an Honorary Doctorate of Humane Letters from The Johns Hopkins University. Dr. Sadik is also the recipient of awards from President Soeharto for her participation in developing the family planning programme in Indonesia, and from the Government of Pakistan for her contribution in the field of medicine.

Dr. Sadik has written numerous articles for leading publications in the family planning and health field, and edited two books, Population: The UNFPA Experience (New York University Press, 1984), and Population Policies and Programmes: Lessons Learned from Two Decades of Experience, (New York University Press, 1991). She was the first female recipient of the Hugh Moore Award in 1976, named after a pioneer in the United States credited with calling attention to the world population crisis. Dr. Sadik was cited for her leadership in the family planning field as well as for her leadership in encouraging other women to find careers in the population field.

Dr. Sadik is married to Azhar Sadik, a businessman. They have three children and two adopted children.

June 1992

United Nations Population Fund



6 December 1991

* Internal Audit Unit



The Executive Director

UNFPA
United Nations
Population Fund

10 July 1992

Dear Mayor Dinkins,

I would like to take this opportunity to bring to your attention the critical work of the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), in a world-wide effort to achieve a better balance between population, available resources, environment and development.

UNFPA has a programme of over \$230 million and we have an experience of over 20 years of working together with communities, non-governmental organizations and governments in over 130 countries in all developing regions of the world. Practically all developing countries now wish to bring about a better balance between population pressures and their prospects for development and the demands for UNFPA assistance have far outgrown our ability to respond to these needs.

Our budget is entirely funded from voluntary contributions, and while over 100 countries support the Fund financially, the majority of our resources come from a limited number of major donors (Japan, The Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Germany, Denmark, Finland, United Kingdom, Canada, Switzerland, Italy, France, Australia, Belgium).

To our greatest regret, the United States government is the only major industrialized country not providing any financial support to UNFPA. As you may know, the United States government was UNFPA's major contributor up to 1985. In 1986, and ever since, no United States' contribution has been provided to UNFPA. In the last three years, both Houses of the US Congress have supported restoration of funding to UNFPA but unfortunately the bill has been vetoed by the Administration.

/...

The Honorable David Dinkins
Mayor of the City of New York
City Hall
New York, N.Y. 10007



The Executive Director

-2-

We would be most grateful for any advice and assistance you could provide on this critical matter. The support of American leaders like yourself is of utmost importance for the United States government to rejoin the international consensus in support of UNFPA. I would like to convey to you in advance my sincere appreciation for your kind consideration of this matter.

With kind regards,

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read 'Nafis Sadik'.

Nafis Sadik, M.D.



The Executive Director

UNFPA
United Nations
Population Fund

10 July 1992

Dear Nadine,

It was a pleasure to meet with you again over lunch the other day. I particularly appreciate the useful exchange of views and your many excellent suggestions are most helpful to us.

..... As you had so kindly suggested, I have prepared a letter to Mayor Dinkins which is enclosed, with a copy for your information. I would be grateful for your forwarding the letter to the Mayor.

With kind regards,

Yours sincerely,

Nafis Sadik, M.D.

Ms. Nadine Hack
Commissioner
New York City Commission for the United Nations
and Consular Corps
Two United Nations Plaza, 27th Floor
New York, N.Y. 10017



United Nations Children's Fund Fonds des Nations Unies pour l'enfance Fondo de las Naciones Unidas para la Infancia
Детский Фонд Организации Объединенных Наций 联合国儿童基金会 منظمة الأمم المتحدة للطفولة

JAMES P. GRANT
Biographical information

James P. Grant assumed office as the third Executive Director of the United Nations Children's Fund and Under-Secretary-General of the United Nations on 1 January 1980, succeeding Henry R. Labouisse.

Mr. Grant draws upon a long and distinguished career in the field of development which began with service in China in 1946 and 1947 for the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. He came to UNICEF from the Overseas Development Council, which he served as President and Chief Executive Officer since its establishment in 1969.

Mr. Grant had previously served with the United States Agency for International Development (AID) as an Assistant Administrator (1967-1969) and as Director of the AID programme in Turkey with the personal rank of Minister (1964-67). He was Deputy Assistant Secretary of State for Near East and South Asian Affairs (1962-1964) and a Deputy Director of the International Co-operation Administration (AID's predecessor) with responsibility for world-wide programming and planning (1959-1962). In addition to his work in China and Turkey, his overseas assignments included service as Director of the United States aid mission in Sri Lanka (1956-58), and Regional Legal Counsel resident in New Delhi for United States aid programmes for South Asia (1954-1956).

Mr. Grant has served as director of a number of organizations involved with development issues, including the Commission on Participation in Development of the World Council of Churches, the International Voluntary Services, the Pan American Development Foundation, the Institute of Current World Affairs, Save the Children and the Foreign Policy Association. He served as President of the Society for International Development from 1979 to 1983. He was a trustee of the Rockefeller Foundation and Johns Hopkins University, and a member of the Trustee Visiting Committee, School of Nutrition, Tufts University.

Mr. Grant received a B.A. from Berkeley in 1943, and a Doctorate in Jurisprudence from Harvard University in 1951. He received honorary degrees from the University of Notre Dame and Hacettepe University in 1980, Maryville College in 1981, from Tufts and Denison Universities in 1983 and University of Maryland in 1986. He was also awarded an Honorary Professorship in 1983 from the Capital Medical College of China. He has received a number of awards, including Distinguished Public Service, USAID (1961), Rockefeller Public Service (1980), Gold Mercury International, 1984 by ICC - International Organization for Co-operation, Rome and Lome, the Presidential Citation of the American Public Health Association in 1985 and the Hunger Award from Brown University in April 1989. He was also awarded the Command of the National Order of Mali in October 1989. In 1990 he received the E.H. Christopherson Lectureship Award on International Child Health from the American Academy of Pediatrics; The Diplomatic World Bulletin's 1990 Award of Distinction; and the Leonardo d'Oro Award.

A large number of publications dealing with development matters have been authored by Mr. Grant.

He was born in China in 1922. He has three sons by the late Ethel Henck Grant. In July 1989 he married Ellen Young.

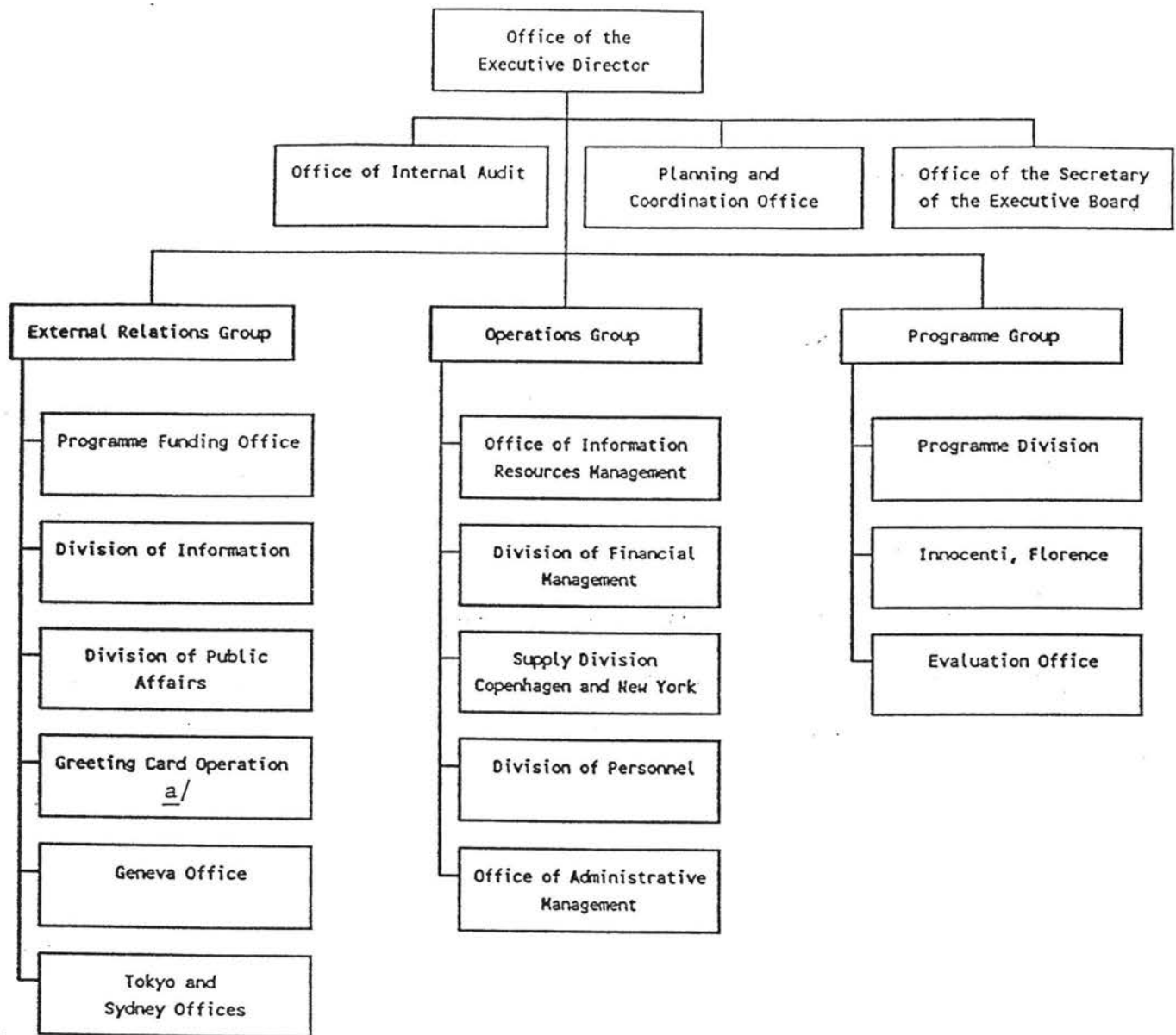
January 1991.

END

Figure I

ORGANIZATION OF UNICEF HEADQUARTERS

(In NYC)

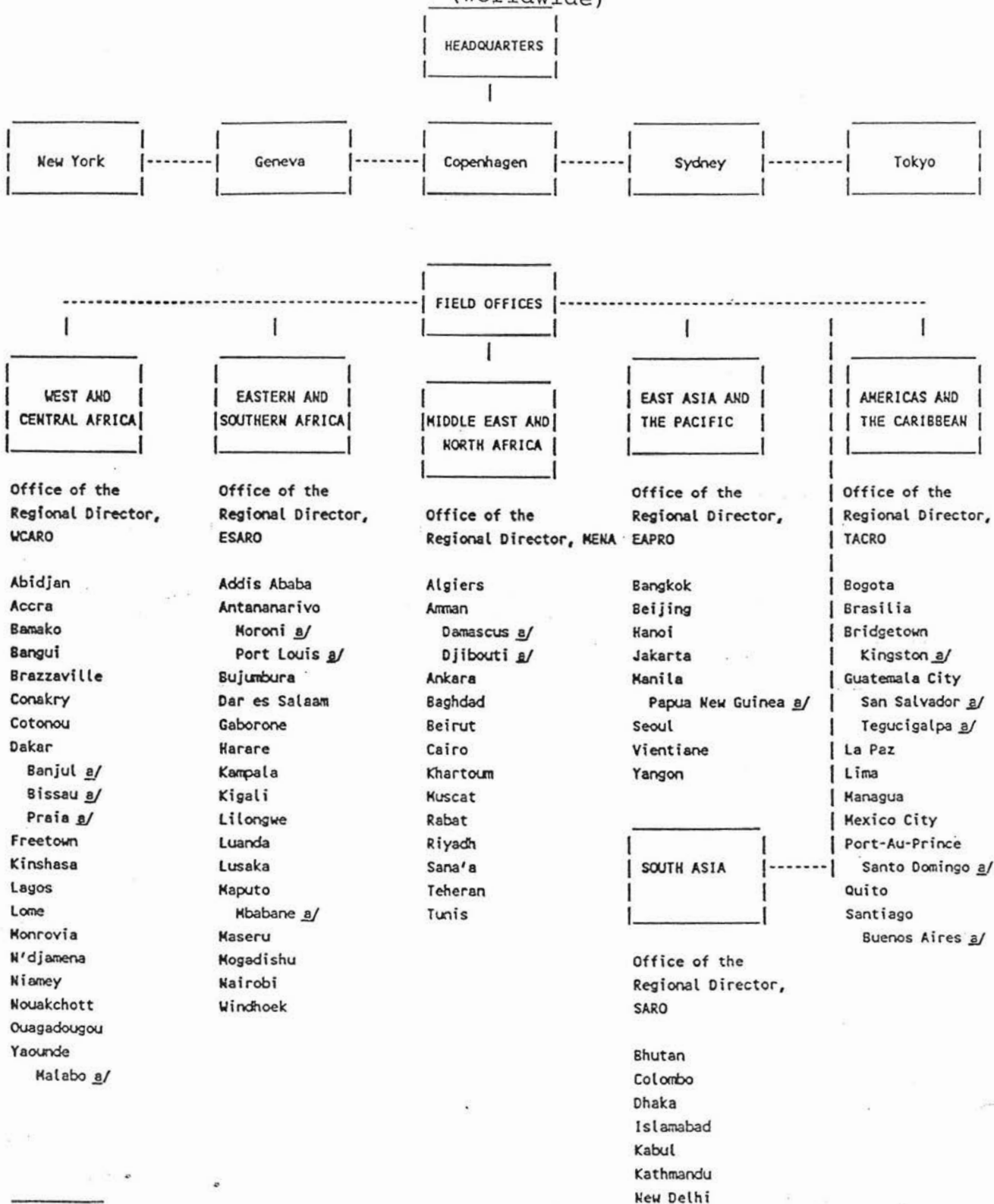


a/ GCO reports to the Executive Director through the Greeting Card Committee and, between sessions, through the Deputy Executive Director, Operations.

Figure II

ORGANIZATION OF THE UNICEF SECRETARIAT
(1992-1993 APPROVED BUDGET)

(worldwide)



a/ Sub-office.

United Nations
Development Programme



World Development

Biographical Note

WILLIAM H. DRAPER III
Administrator
United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

William H. Draper III heads the world's largest source of multilateral grant development assistance, the United Nations Development Programme. His appointment to the post of Administrator by the United Nations Secretary-General was confirmed by the 40th Session of the UN General Assembly on 28 April 1986.

Mr. Draper is by personal and professional inclination a keen and knowledgeable advocate of an expanding world economy. Before joining UNDP, he served five years as President and Chairman of the Export-Import Bank of the United States. In that post Mr. Draper assumed a leadership role in U.S. efforts to sustain world trade in the face of major liquidity problems among the developing countries.

Before joining Eximbank, Mr. Draper was the founder and General Partner of Sutter Hill Ventures in Palo Alto, California. Through Sutter Hill, one of the leading venture capital firms in the United States, Mr. Draper helped to organize and finance several hundred high technology manufacturing companies. Today the companies he helped to launch collectively employ more than 30,000 men and women.

As a civic leader, he has been involved in many community service programs. He served as Chairman of the Board of the American Conservatory Theatre in San Francisco was a member of the Advisory Council of the Stanford Graduate School of Business Administration, and as Director of the Population Crisis Committee in Washington, D.C. He now serves on the boards of the World Rehabilitation Fund, the Atlantic Council, the International Institute of Education, the New York Society for International Affairs and is a trustee on the Board of Yale University. In 1985 he was named as one of the U.S.'s 50 "New Corporate Elite" by Business Week magazine.

Mr. Draper was born in Scarsdale, New York. He received a Bachelor of Arts degree from Yale University in 1950, and a Master of Business degree, with Distinction, from the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration in 1954. He received the Alumni Achievement Award from Harvard University in 1982. He was awarded the honorary degree, Doctor of Laws, by Southeastern University, Washington, D.C., in 1985, and an honorary M.A. by Yale University in 1991.

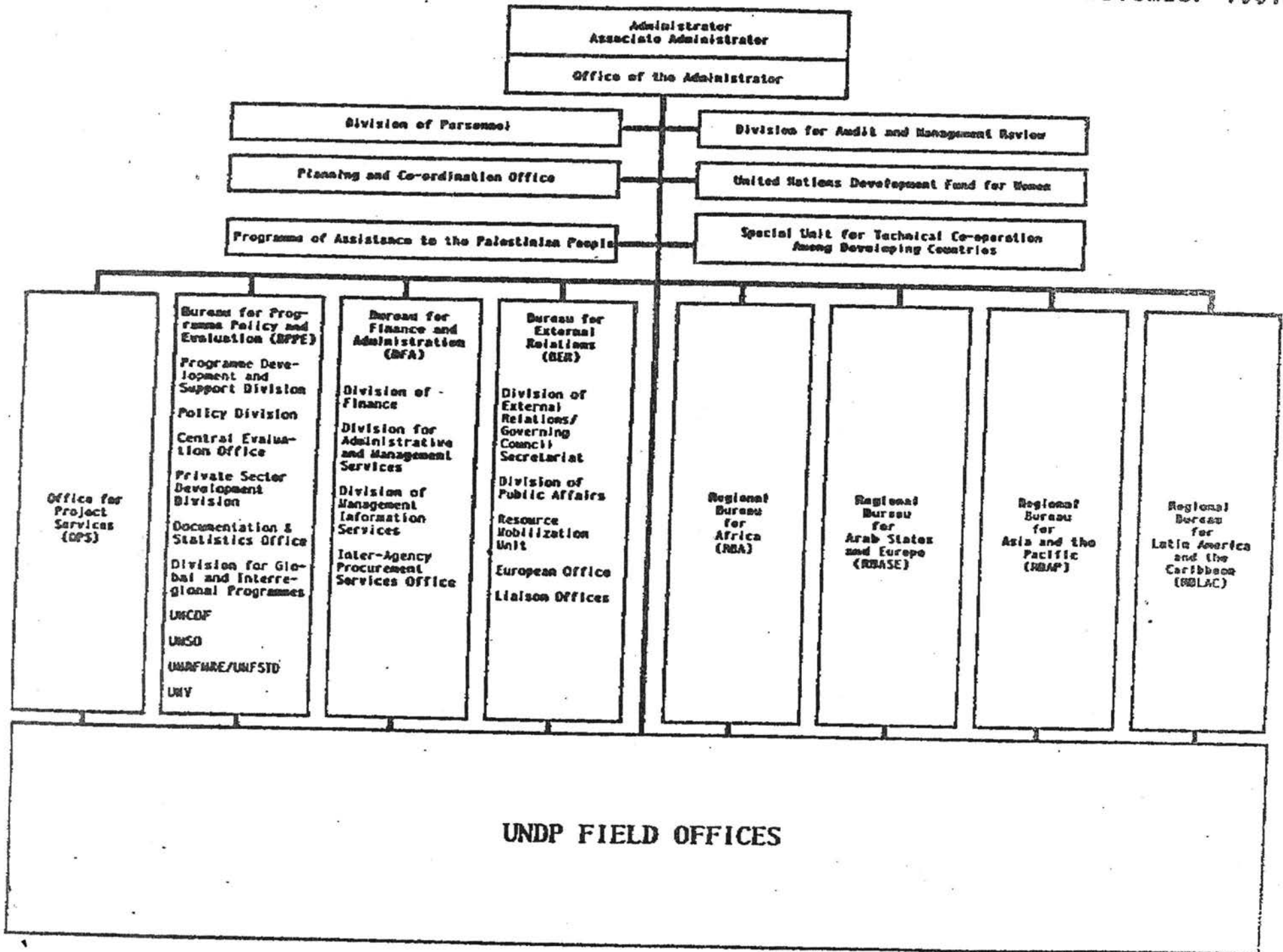
Mr. Draper is married and has three children.



UNDP ORGANIZATION CHART

November 1991

01-07-1993 15:57



Withdrawal/Redaction Marker

Clinton Library

DOCUMENT NO. AND TYPE	SUBJECT/TITLE	DATE	RESTRICTION
001. memo	Nadine Hack to Rick Inderfurth (3 pages)	01/08/1993	Personal Misfile

COLLECTION:

Clinton Presidential Records
First Lady's Office
Melanne Verveer
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FOLDER TITLE:

Swanee Hunt [2]

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rc1620

RESTRICTION CODES

Presidential Records Act - [44 U.S.C. 2204(a)]

Freedom of Information Act - [5 U.S.C. 552(b)]

P1 National Security Classified Information [(a)(1) of the PRA]
P2 Relating to the appointment to Federal office [(a)(2) of the PRA]
P3 Release would violate a Federal statute [(a)(3) of the PRA]
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P5 Release would disclose confidential advice between the President and his advisors, or between such advisors [(a)(5) of the PRA]
P6 Release would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy [(a)(6) of the PRA]

C. Closed in accordance with restrictions contained in donor's deed of gift.

PRM. Personal record misfile defined in accordance with 44 U.S.C. 2201(3).

RR. Document will be reviewed upon request.

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b(3) Release would violate a Federal statute [(b)(3) of the FOIA]
b(4) Release would disclose trade secrets or confidential or financial information [(b)(4) of the FOIA]
b(6) Release would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy [(b)(6) of the FOIA]
b(7) Release would disclose information compiled for law enforcement purposes [(b)(7) of the FOIA]
b(8) Release would disclose information concerning the regulation of financial institutions [(b)(8) of the FOIA]
b(9) Release would disclose geological or geophysical information concerning wells [(b)(9) of the FOIA]

CEDAW FACT SHEET

“Discrimination against women violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity.”

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, 1979.

THE CONVENTION

As of December 1991, 110 States had ratified the *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*, which was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1979 and entered into force on 3 September 1981. The Convention sets the standard for eliminating discrimination between men and women, and is often considered as an international bill of rights for women.

The Convention provides an agenda for women's civil, legal and reproductive rights, as well as for national legislation to end discrimination against women. In its multi-dimensional approach, the Convention is the only human rights treaty to affirm women's reproductive rights and to target culture and tradition as important forces shaping gender roles.

THE COMMITTEE

The *Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women* (CEDAW), established in 1982, monitors the implementation of the Convention and performs advisory functions for the UN General Assembly.

It comprises 23 members who are elected in their individual capacities by States parties under the criteria that they be experts “of high moral standing and competence in the field covered by the Convention”. The members are elected for a four-year term, and the officers of the committee are elected for a two-year term.

CEDAW convenes for two weeks a year to consider the progress made in implementing the Convention and to make suggestions and general recommendations based on the examination of reports and information received from States parties. It makes an annual report on its activities to the General Assembly through ECOSOC.

RECOMMENDATIONS

At the annual meetings, CEDAW may make general recommendations to States parties based on its examination of reports. Past general recommendations have included:

Education to eliminate sex stereotyping

States parties to the Convention should adopt education and information programmes to eliminate sex stereotyping which hinders women's full equality.

Temporary special measures

States parties should make more use of temporary special measures, such as positive action, preferential treatment or quota systems to advance women's integration into education, the economy, politics and employment.

Women in international organizations

States parties should implement Article 4 of the Convention to ensure to women equal opportunity to represent their governments at the international level and to participate in the work of international organizations.

Violence against women

States parties should include in their reports statistical information on violence against women and measures to eradicate it, including support services for women who are victims of aggression or abuse.

Equal pay

States parties should compare typical women's jobs and typical men's jobs, and, where applicable, ensure adherence to the principle of equal pay for work of equal value.

Female circumcision

States parties should take measures to eradicate the practice of female circumcision, including infor-



mation about this “traditional practice” and problems arising from it; appropriate national health policies; support for political and religious leaders, women’s organizations and leaders in the arts and media striving to eradicate this practice.

Women and AIDS

States parties should intensify efforts to inform the public of the risk of HIV infection and AIDS. These programmes should give special attention to the rights and needs of women and children, the reproductive role of women and their subordinate position in some societies, which makes them especially vulnerable to HIV infection. The impact of AIDS on women should be included in the Member States’ reports to the Committee. Women’s role as primary health-care providers and educators should be utilized as a resource.

Women in the informal sector

States parties should include in their reports statistical data on the legal and social situation of women who work without pay and on the availability of social security and social benefits in family-owned enterprises, as well as initiating action to secure these benefits.

Unpaid domestic work

States parties should encourage research and studies to measure and value women’s unpaid domestic work. They should also take steps to quantify this type of work and include it in the gross national product.

Disabled women

States parties should provide in their periodic reports information on disabled women, including

measures taken to deal with these women’s special needs, such as equal access to education, employment, health services and social security.

1992 MEETING

At its 1992 meeting (20-31 January 1992 at the United Nations Secretariat in New York), CEDAW reviewed the reports of nine countries, three initial or consolidated reports and six secondary reports submitted after four or more years:

Initial reports

Barbados
Ghana
Honduras

Secondary reports

China
Czech and Slovak
Federal Republic
El Salvador
Spain
Sri Lanka
Venezuela

SPECIAL FOCUS: VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

The 1992 CEDAW meeting also focused special attention on the issue of violence against women. In 1991 the Committee had decided that its 1992 session would review the implementation of Article 6 of the Convention, which deals with trafficking, exploitation and prostitution of women and “other articles related to violence towards women and the sexual harassment and exploitation of women”. This review will be based on information provided to the Committee in reports by States parties.

CEDAW also had before it for comment the report of the *Expert Group Meeting on Violence against Women* which was convened by the Division for the Advancement of Women from 11 to 15 November 1991 and which includes a proposed draft declaration on violence against women to be considered by the Commission on the Status of Women at its 1992 session in March.

1992 MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE

Mervat Tallawy—Chairperson	Egypt
Ryoko Akamatsu—Vice-Chairperson	Japan
Zagorka Ilic—Vice-Chairperson	Yugoslavia
Ana Maria Alfonsin de Fasan—Vice-Chairperson	Argentina
Chryssanthi Laiou-Antoniou—Rapporteur	Greece
Charlotte Abaka	Ghana
Emna Aouij	Tunisia
Desirée P. Bernard	Guyana
Dora Gladys Nancy Bravo Nuñez de Ramsey	Ecuador
Carlota Bustelo García del Real	Spain
Ivanka Corti	Italy
Elizabeth Evatt	Australia
Grethe Fenger-Möller	Denmark
Norma Monica Forde	Barbados
Aida González Martínez	Mexico
Tatiana Nikolaeva	Russian Federation
Edith Oeser	Germany
Teresita Quintos-Deles	Philippines
Hanna Beate Schöpp-Schilling	Germany
Lin Shangzhen	China
Kongit Sinigiorgis	Ethiopia
Rose N. Ukeje	Nigeria
Kissem Walla-Tchangai	Togo

102D CONGRESS
1ST SESSION

H. RES. 116

Urging the President to complete the review of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women in order that the Senate may give its advice and consent to ratification.

IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

MARCH 20, 1991

Mr. YATRON (for himself, Mr. FASCELL, Ms. SNOWE, Mrs. SCHROEDER, Mr. HAMILTON, Mr. OWENS of Utah, Mr. FEIGHAN, Mr. WEISS, Mrs. MEYERS of Kansas, and Mr. GREEN of New York) submitted the following resolution; which was referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs

RESOLUTION

Urging the President to complete the review of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women in order that the Senate may give its advice and consent to ratification.

Whereas the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (hereafter referred to as the "Women's Human Rights Convention") seeks to advance the status of women worldwide for the purpose of guaranteeing the human rights and fundamental freedoms of women on a basis of equality with men in all respects: political, civil, social, cultural, and economic;

Whereas the Women's Human Rights Convention was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on December 18, 1979;

Whereas the United States was an active participant in drafting the Women's Human Rights Convention and signed the Convention on July 17, 1980;

Whereas on November 12, 1980, the President transmitted the Women's Human Rights Convention to the Senate, but at that time did not submit the necessary reservations, understandings, and declarations required for Senate advice and consent to ratification;

Whereas ¹⁰⁸~~104~~ nations have ratified and acceded to the Women's Human Rights Convention;

Whereas there is a continuing gap between the status and rights of women and men, and there is still no nation in the world where this gap has been eliminated in all major fields of activity;

Whereas the Women's Human Rights Convention calls on nations which are parties to the convention to take all appropriate measures to ensure women, on an equal basis with men, access to education, economic opportunities, legal protection, representation in government, and health care;

Whereas two-thirds of the world's illiterates are women;

Whereas women produce more than half of the food in developing countries, as much as 80 percent of the food produced in Africa, and perform two-thirds of the world's work hours, yet receive only 10 percent of the world's income and own less than 1 percent of the world's property;

Whereas worldwide, including in the United States, women earn only two-thirds as much as their male counterparts, contributing to the growing feminization of poverty;

Whereas as a result of unequal economic opportunities women are the growing majority at the poverty level worldwide, and approximately 78 percent of all people living in poverty in the United States are women and their children;

Whereas in many nations women do not have the same legal or constitutional rights as men, particularly regarding family law—marriage, inheritance, property rights, divorce, alimony, and child support;

Whereas enactment of laws ensuring the rights and fundamental freedoms of women are ineffectual unless governments are willing to enforce them;

Whereas in most countries women attained the right to vote only in the last 35–45 years, and in some countries women still do not have the right to vote;

Whereas only 9.7 percent of the representatives in the world's parliaments are women;

Whereas childbearing carries the highest risk of death for women of reproductive age in the developing world, resulting in approximately 500,000 deaths each year, the majority of which could be prevented with adequate health care;

Whereas the Women's Human Rights Convention calls on nations which are parties to the convention to take measures to modify the social and cultural practices of men and women with a view to eliminating prejudices and practices which are based on the belief of the inferiority or superiority of either of the sexes;

Whereas violence against women is the extreme expression of the belief in women's inferiority and occurs in all cultures and countries;

Whereas there is a high degree of official and social tolerance of violence against women, and family violence is the most prevalent form of violence against women;

Whereas trafficking and slavery of women and female children for the sex trade and as forced labor takes place in many regions of the world and is a result of the subjugation of women;

Whereas preference for sons results in the severe neglect of daughters with respect to food, medical care, and education, and as a consequence girls aged two to four die at twice the rate of boys in some regions, female infanticide is practiced, and worldwide female children are three times more likely to suffer from malnutrition than male children;

Whereas the Women's Human Rights Convention emphasizes the equal responsibilities of men and women in the context of family life, and until that occurs women will never be able to exercise and enjoy full equal rights and they and their children both will suffer;

Whereas when women are better informed and educated, their family's health and income benefit, and when women are given training and skills, their nation's productivity increases and its economy grows;

Whereas worldwide there are women's and human rights groups working under adverse circumstances to promote and implement the principles of the Women's Human Rights Convention; and

Whereas by ratifying and acceding to the Women's Human Rights Convention the United States will become a more credible proponent of the rights of women and a more effective advocate in encouraging other countries to protect the human rights and fundamental freedoms of women: Now, therefore, be it

1 *Resolved*, That it is the sense of the House of Rep-
2 resentatives that—

3 (1) the full realization of the rights of women
4 is vital to the development and well-being of people
5 of all nations; and

6 (2) the President should, therefore, promptly
7 complete the review of the Women's Human Rights
8 Convention and submit to the Senate any res-
9 ervations, understandings, or declarations that he
10 considers necessary in order that the Senate may
11 give its advice and consent to ratification.

O

CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

The States Parties to the present Convention,

Noting that the Charter of the United Nations reaffirms faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women,

Noting that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirms the principle of the inadmissibility of discrimination and proclaims that all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights and that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, including distinction based on sex,

Noting that the States Parties to the International Covenants on Human Rights have the obligation to ensure the equal right of men and women to enjoy all economic, social, cultural, civil and political rights,

Considering the international conventions concluded under the auspices of the United Nations and the specialized agencies promoting equality of rights of men and women,

Noting also the resolutions, declarations and recommendations adopted by the United Nations and the specialized agencies promoting equality of rights of men and women,

Concerned, however, that despite these various instruments extensive discrimination against women continues to exist,

Recalling that discrimination against women violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity, is an obstacle to the participation of women, on equal terms with men, in the political, social, economic and cultural life of their countries, hampers the growth of the prosperity of society and the family and makes more difficult the full development of the potentialities of women in the service of their countries and of humanity,

Concerned that in situations of poverty women have the least access to food, health, education, training and opportunities for employment and other needs,

Convinced that the establishment of the new international economic order based on equity and justice will contribute significantly towards the promotion of equality between men and women,

Emphasizing that the eradication of apartheid, of all forms of racism, racial discrimination, colonialism, neo-colonialism, aggression, foreign occupation and domination and interference in the internal affairs of States is essential to the full enjoyment of the rights of men and women,

Affirming that the strengthening of international peace and security, relaxation of international tension, mutual co-operation among all States irrespective of their social and economic systems, general and complete disarmament, and in particular nuclear disarmament under strict and effective international control, the affirmation of the principles of justice, equality and mutual benefit in relations among countries and the realization of the right of peoples under alien and colonial domination and foreign occupation to self-determination and independence, as well as respect for national sovereignty and territorial integrity, will promote social progress and development and as a consequence will contribute to the attainment of full equality between men and women,

Convinced that the full and complete development of a country, the welfare of the world and the cause of peace require the maximum participation of women on equal terms with men in all fields,

Bearing in mind the great contribution of women to the welfare of the family and to the development of society, so far not fully recognized, the social significance of maternity and the role of both parents in the family and in the upbringing of children, and aware that the role of women in procreation should not be a basis for discrimination but that the upbringing of children requires a sharing of responsibility between men and women and society as a whole,

Aware that a change in the traditional role of men as well as the role of women in society and in the family is needed to achieve full equality between men and women,

Determined to implement the principles set forth in the Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and, for that purpose, to adopt the measures required for the elimination of such discrimination in all its forms and manifestations,

Have agreed on the following:

PART I

Article 1

For the purposes of the present Convention, the term "discrimination against women" shall mean any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.

Article 2

States Parties condemn discrimination against women in all its forms, agree to pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating discrimination against women and, to this end, undertake:

- (a) To embody the principle of the equality of men and women in their national constitutions or other appropriate legislation if not yet incorporated therein and to ensure, through law and other appropriate means, the practical realization of this principle;
- (b) To adopt appropriate legislative and other measures, including sanctions where appropriate, prohibiting all discrimination against women;
- (c) To establish legal protection of the rights of women on an equal basis with men and to ensure through competent national tribunals and other public institutions the effective protection of women against any act of discrimination;
- (d) To refrain from engaging in any act or practice of discrimination against women and to ensure that public authorities and institutions shall act in conformity with this obligation;
- (e) To take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women by any person, organization or enterprise;
- (f) To take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs and practices which constitute discrimination against women;
- (g) To repeal all national penal provisions which constitute discrimination against women.

Article 3

States Parties shall take in all fields, in particular in the political, social, economic and cultural fields, all appropriate measures, including legislation, to ensure the full development and advancement of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on a basis of equality with men.

Article 4

1. Adoption by States Parties of temporary special measures aimed at accelerating *de facto* equality between men and women shall not be considered discrimination as defined in the present Convention, but shall in no way entail as a consequence the maintenance of unequal or separate standards; these measures shall be discontinued when the objectives of equality of opportunity and treatment have been achieved.
2. Adoption by States Parties of special measures, including those measures contained in the present Convention, aimed at protecting maternity shall not be considered discriminatory.

Article 5

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures:

- (a) To modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customary and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women;
- (b) To ensure that family education includes a proper understanding of maternity as a social function and the recognition of the common responsibility of men and women in the upbringing and development of their children, it being understood that the interest of the children is the primordial consideration in all cases.

Article 6

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to suppress all forms of traffic in women and exploitation of prostitution of women.

PART II

Article 7

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country and, in particular, shall ensure to women, on equal terms with men, the right:

- (a) To vote in all elections and public referenda and to be eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies;
- (b) To participate in the formulation of government policy and the implementation thereof and to hold public office and perform all public functions at all levels of government;
- (c) To participate in non-governmental organizations and associations concerned with the public and political life of the country.

Article 8

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure to women, on equal terms with men and without any discrimination, the opportunity to represent their Governments at the international level and to participate in the work of international organizations.

Article 9

1. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men to acquire, change or retain their nationality. They shall ensure in particular that neither marriage to an alien nor change of nationality by the husband during marriage shall automatically change the nationality of the wife, render her stateless or force upon her the nationality of the husband.

2. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men with respect to the nationality of their children.

PART III

Article 10

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

- (a) The same conditions for career and vocational guidance, for access to studies and for the achievement of diplomas in educational establishments of all categories in rural as well as in urban areas; this equality shall be ensured in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education, as well as in all types of vocational training;
- (b) Access to the same curricula, the same examinations, teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard and school premises and equipment of the same quality;
- (c) The elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education by encouraging coeducation and other types of education which will help to achieve this aim and, in particular, by the revision of textbooks and school programmes and the adaptation of teaching methods;
- (d) The same opportunities to benefit from scholarships and other study grants;
- (e) The same opportunities for access to programmes of continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programmes, particularly those aimed at reducing, at the earliest possible time, any gap in education existing between men and women;
- (f) The reduction of female student drop-out rates and the organization of programmes for girls and women who have left school prematurely;

- (g) The same opportunities to participate actively in sports and physical education;
- (h) Access to specific educational information to help to ensure the health and well-being of families, including information and advice on family planning.

Article 11

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

- (a) The right to work as an inalienable right of all human beings;
- (b) The right to the same employment opportunities, including the application of the same criteria for selection in matters of employment;
- (c) The right to free choice of profession and employment, the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service and the right to receive vocational training and retraining, including apprenticeships, advanced vocational training and recurrent training;
- (d) The right to equal remuneration, including benefits, and to equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, as well as equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work;
- (e) The right to social security, particularly in cases of retirement, unemployment, sickness, invalidity and old age and other incapacity to work, as well as the right to paid leave;
- (f) The right to protection of health and to safety in working conditions, including the safeguarding of the function of reproduction.

2. In order to prevent discrimination against women on the grounds of marriage or maternity and to ensure their effective right to work, States Parties shall take appropriate measures:

- (a) To prohibit, subject to the imposition of sanctions, dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy or of maternity leave and discrimination in dismissals on the basis of marital status;
- (b) To introduce maternity leave with pay or with comparable social benefits without loss of former employment, seniority or social allowances;
- (c) To encourage the provision of the necessary supporting social services to enable parents to combine family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life, in particular through promoting the establishment and development of a network of child-care facilities;
- (d) To provide special protection to women during pregnancy in types of work proved to be harmful to them.

3. Protective legislation relating to matters covered in this article shall be reviewed periodically in the light of scientific and technological knowledge and shall be revised, repealed or extended as necessary.

Article 12

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of health care in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, access to health care services, including those related to family planning.

2. Notwithstanding the provisions of paragraph 1 of this article, States Parties shall ensure to women appropriate services in connection with pregnancy, confinement and the post-natal period, granting free services where necessary, as well as adequate nutrition during pregnancy and lactation.

Article 13

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

- (a) The right to family benefits;
- (b) The right to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit;
- (c) The right to participate in recreational activities, sports and all aspects of cultural life.

Article 14

1. States Parties shall take into account the particular problems faced by rural women and the significant roles which rural women play in the economic survival of their families, including their work in the non-monetized sectors of the economy, and shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the application of the provisions of this Convention to women in rural areas.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, that they participate in and benefit from rural development and, in particular, shall ensure to such women the right:

- (a) To participate in the elaboration and implementation of development planning at all levels;
- (b) To have access to adequate health care facilities, including information, counselling and services in family planning;
- (c) To benefit directly from social security programmes;
- (d) To obtain all types of training and education, formal and non-formal, including that relating to functional literacy, as well as, *inter alia*, the benefit of all community and extension services, in order to increase their technical proficiency;
- (e) To organize self-help groups and co-operatives in order to obtain equal access to economic opportunities through employment or self-employment;
- (f) To participate in all community activities;
- (g) To have access to agricultural credit and loans, marketing facilities, appropriate technology and equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes;
- (h) To enjoy adequate living conditions, particularly in relation to housing, sanitation, electricity and water supply, transport and communications.

PART IV

Article 15

1. States Parties shall accord to women equality with men before the law.

2. States Parties shall accord to women, in civil matters, a legal capacity identical to that of men and the same opportunities to exercise that capacity. In particular, they shall give women equal rights to conclude contracts and to administer property and shall treat them equally in all stages of procedure in courts and tribunals.

3. States Parties agree that all contracts and all other private instruments of any kind with a legal effect which is directed at restricting the legal capacity of women shall be deemed null and void.

4. States Parties shall accord to men and women the same rights with regard to the law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile.

Article 16

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations and in particular shall ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

- (a) The same right to enter into marriage;
- (b) The same right freely to choose a spouse and to enter into marriage only with their free and full consent;
- (c) The same rights and responsibilities during marriage and at its dissolution;
- (d) The same rights and responsibilities as parents, irrespective of their marital status, in matters relating to their children; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;
- (e) The same rights to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means to enable them to exercise these rights;
- (f) The same rights and responsibilities with regard to guardianship, wardship, trusteeship and adoption of children, or similar institutions where these concepts exist in national legislation; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;
- (g) The same personal rights as husband and wife, including the right to choose a family name, a profession and an occupation;

(h) The same rights for both spouses in respect of the ownership, acquisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property, whether free of charge or for a valuable consideration.

2. The betrothal and the marriage of a child shall have no legal effect, and all necessary action, including legislation, shall be taken to specify a minimum age for marriage and to make the registration of marriages in an official registry compulsory.

PART V

Article 17

1. For the purpose of considering the progress made in the implementation of the present Convention, there shall be established a Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (hereinafter referred to as the Committee) consisting, at the time of entry into force of the Convention, of eighteen and, after ratification of or accession to the Convention by the thirty-fifth State Party, of twenty-three experts of high moral standing and competence in the field covered by the Convention. The experts shall be elected by States Parties from among their nationals and shall serve in their personal capacity, consideration being given to equitable geographical distribution and to the representation of the different forms of civilization as well as the principal legal systems.

2. The members of the Committee shall be elected by secret ballot from a list of persons nominated by States Parties. Each State Party may nominate one person from among its own nationals.

3. The initial election shall be held six months after the date of the entry into force of the present Convention. At least three months before the date of each election the Secretary-General of the United Nations shall address a letter to the States Parties inviting them to submit their nominations within two months. The Secretary-General shall prepare a list in alphabetical order of all persons thus nominated, indicating the States Parties which have nominated them, and shall submit it to the States Parties.

4. Elections of the members of the Committee shall be held at a meeting of States Parties convened by the Secretary-General at United Nations Headquarters. At that meeting, for which two thirds of the States Parties shall constitute a quorum, the persons elected to the Committee shall be those nominees who obtain the largest number of votes and an absolute majority of the votes of the representatives of States Parties present and voting.

5. The members of the Committee shall be elected for a term of four years. However, the terms of nine of the members elected at the first election shall expire at the end of two years; immediately after the first election the names of these nine members shall be chosen by lot by the Chairman of the Committee.

6. The election of the five additional members of the Committee shall be held in accordance with the provisions of paragraphs 2, 3 and 4 of this article, following the thirty-fifth ratification or accession. The terms of two of the additional members elected on this occasion shall expire at the end of two years, the names of these two members having been chosen by lot by the Chairman of the Committee.

7. For the filling of casual vacancies, the State Party whose expert has ceased to function as a member of the Committee shall appoint another expert from among its nationals, subject to the approval of the Committee.

8. The members of the Committee shall, with the approval of the General Assembly, receive emoluments from United Nations resources on such terms and conditions as the Assembly may decide, having regard to the importance of the Committee's responsibilities.

9. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall provide the necessary staff and facilities for the effective performance of the functions of the Committee under the present Convention.

Article 18

1. States Parties undertake to submit to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, for consideration by the Committee, a report on the legislative, judicial, administrative or other measures which they have adopted to give effect to the provisions of the present Convention and on the progress made in this respect:

(a) Within one year after the entry into force for the State concerned; and

(b) Thereafter at least every four years and further whenever the Committee so requests.

2. Reports may indicate factors and difficulties affecting the degree of fulfillment of obligations under the present Convention.

Article 19

1. The Committee shall adopt its own rules of procedure.
2. The Committee shall elect its officers for a term of two years.

Article 20

1. The Committee shall normally meet for a period of not more than two weeks annually in order to consider the reports submitted in accordance with article 18 of the present Convention.
2. The meetings of the Committee shall normally be held at United Nations Headquarters or at any other convenient place as determined by the Committee.

Article 21

1. The committee shall, through the Economic and Social Council, report annually to the General Assembly of the United Nations on its activities and may make suggestions and general recommendations based on the examination of reports and information received from the States Parties. Such suggestions and general recommendations shall be included in the report of the Committee together with comments, if any, from States Parties.
2. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall transmit the reports of the Committee to the Commission on the Status of Women for its information.

Article 22

The specialized agencies shall be entitled to be represented at the consideration of the implementation of such provisions of the present Convention as fall within the scope of their activities. The Committee may invite the specialized agencies to submit reports on the implementation of the Convention in areas falling within the scope of their activities.

PART VI

Article 23

Nothing in the present Convention shall affect any provisions that are more conducive to the achievement of equality between men and women which may be contained:

- (a) In the legislation of a State Party; or
- (b) In any other international convention, treaty or agreement in force for that State.

Article 24

States Parties undertake to adopt all necessary measures at the national level aimed at achieving the full realization of the rights recognized in the present Convention.

Article 25

1. The present Convention shall be open for signature by all States.
2. The Secretary-General of the United Nations is designated as the depositary of the present Convention.
3. The present Convention is subject to ratification. Instruments of ratification shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.
4. The present Convention shall be open to accession by all States. Accession shall be effected by the deposit of an instrument of accession with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

Article 26

1. A request for the revision of the present Convention may be made at any time by any State Party by means of a notification in writing addressed to the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

2. The General Assembly of the United Nations shall decide upon the steps, if any, to be taken in respect of such a request.

Article 27

1. The present Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the date of deposit with the Secretary-General of the United Nations of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession.

2. For each State ratifying the present Convention or acceding to it after the deposit of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession, the Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the date of the deposit of its own instrument of ratification or accession.

Article 28

1. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall receive and circulate to all States the text of reservations made by States at the time of ratification or accession.

2. A reservation incompatible with the object and purpose of the present Convention shall not be permitted.

3. Reservations may be withdrawn at any time by notification to this effect addressed to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who shall then inform all States thereof. Such notification shall take effect on the date on which it is received.

Article 29

1. Any dispute between two or more States Parties concerning the interpretation or application of the present Convention which is not settled by negotiation shall, at the request of one of them, be submitted to arbitration. If within six months from the date of the request for arbitration the parties are unable to agree on the organization of the arbitration, any one of those parties may refer the dispute to the International Court of Justice by request in conformity with the Statute of the Court.

2. Each State Party may at the time of signature or ratification of the present Convention or accession thereto declare that it does not consider itself bound by paragraph 1 of this article. The other States Parties shall not be bound by that paragraph with respect to any State Party which has made such a reservation.

3. Any State Party which has made a reservation in accordance with paragraph 2 of this article may at any time withdraw that reservation by notification to the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

Article 30

The present Convention, the Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish texts of which are equally authentic, shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.



UNITED NATIONS

* Major Final Document

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INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE
ON POPULATION
Mexico City, August 1984

Distr.
WELBY

E/CONF.76/L.3
13 August 1984

ORIGINAL: ENGLISH/SPANISH

Agenda item 6

ADOPTION OF THE REPORT OF THE CONFERENCE

Report of the Main Committee

Rapporteur: Miss Mercedes B. Concepcion

1. At its first plenary meeting, on 6 August 1984, the Conference established, under rule 45 of the rules of procedure, the Main Committee and allocated to it item 5. At the same meeting, the Conference elected by acclamation Dr. Frederick Sai (Ghana) as Presiding Officer of the Main Committee.
2. At its first meeting on 6 August, the Committee elected the following officers:

Deputy Presiding Officers: Mr. Luis King (Ecuador), Mr. León Tabah (France) and Mr. Józef Pajestka (Poland).

Rapporteur: Miss Mercedes B. Concepción (Philippines).
3. The Committee had before it the following documents:

(a) Recommendations for the further implementation of the World Population Plan of Action: note by the Secretariat (E/CONF.76/5 and Corr.1 (Chinese only))

(b) Recommendations of the regional commissions for the further implementation of the World Population Plan of Action at the regional level: report of the Secretary-General (E/CONF.76/6 and Corr.1 (Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish only)).
4. The Committee decided to concentrate its work on the formulation of the recommendations for the further implementation of the World Population Plan of Action, taking as the basis of its work the text prepared by the Preparatory Committee contained in document E/CONF.76/5.

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massive community-wide education and mobilization to support these. Special efforts should be made to reach under-served and deprived populations in rural areas and urban slums. The international community should take concerted action to support national efforts to this end.

Recommendation 18

All efforts should be made to reduce maternal morbidity and mortality. Governments are urged:

- (a) To reduce maternal mortality by at least 50 per cent by the year 2000, where such mortality is very high (higher than 100 maternal deaths per 100,000 births);
- (b) To provide premarital medical examinations;
- (c) To provide prenatal and perinatal care with special attention to high-risk pregnancies and ensure safe delivery by means of trained attendants, including traditional birth attendants, as culturally acceptable;
- (d) To give special emphasis in nutritional programmes to the needs of pregnant women and nursing mothers;
- (e) To take appropriate steps to help women avoid abortion, which in no case should be promoted as a method of family planning, and whenever possible, provide for the humane treatment and counselling of women who have had recourse to abortion; *
- (f) To support family planning as a health measure in maternal and child health programmes as a way of reducing births too early or too late in the mother's life, of increasing the interval between births and of diminishing higher birth orders, and by giving special consideration to the needs of those in the post-partum and/or breast-feeding period.

* While joining the consensus the Swedish representative made the following statement:

"In the opinion of the Swedish delegation, effective contraception liberates women from unwanted pregnancies and induced abortions and improves considerably the health of both mothers and children. Prevention of unwanted pregnancies must always be the principal aim. However, illegal abortions performed under unsafe medical conditions represent a very serious health hazard in many countries.

"The Swedish delegation regrets very much that an amendment was adopted to delete the word 'illegal' from recommendation 18 (e) old numbering, which suggests that this Conference failed to recognize the importance of this very serious problem. The Swedish delegation would like to reiterate that a major step towards the elimination of illegal abortions is to provide all women in the world with access to legal and safe abortions."

/...

INSTRAW



Facts

WHAT IS IT?

The International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) is an autonomous body within the framework of the United Nations. It was established by the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) in conformity with General Assembly Resolution No. 3520 (xxx), which was based on the recommendations of the 1975 World Conference of the International Women's Year. It carries out research, training and information activities to help ensure the integration of women into the mainstream of development, particularly in developing countries.

HOW DOES IT WORK?

The Institute acts as a catalyst to promote the full participation of women in all aspects of development through research, training and the exchange of information. The Institute works through existing networks of women's organizations, research institutes and centres, as well as by establishing national focal points throughout the world.

The Institute's programmes are carried out

in close co-operation with the United Nations bodies, specialized agencies and regional commissions, as well as governmental and non-governmental institutions and research centres.

WHAT DOES IT DO?

It carries out research that focusses on current development problems as they relate to women.

It monitors and analyses research findings and methodology relating to the role of women in development processes at all levels.

It organizes seminars, workshops and meetings to provide training for women.

It encourages and helps promote national capabilities in the fields of research, training and information for women. It assists and provides advisory and consultative services to governmental and non-governmental women's organizations.

WHAT ARE ITS PROGRAMMES?

Examples of the programmes carried out by the Institute are:

- Improving indicators and related basic statistics on women.
- The impact of international economic relations on the role and status of women.
- Women's role in the implementation of developing countries' policies of individual and collective self-reliance.

- Incorporation of women into development planning and programming.
- The role of women in the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade.
- The role of women in industrial development.
- The role of women in new and renewable sources of energy.
- Strengthening the role of women in agricultural and food systems.
- Training activities including the preparation of training modules, the carrying-out of training courses and the implementation of a fellowship programme.
- Information, Documentation and Communication activities.

HOW IS IT ORGANIZED?

The Institute functions under the authority of the Board of Trustees. Its 11 members, nominated by governments and elected by ECOSOC, serve in their personal capacities. The Board formulates principles, policies and guidelines, and approves the Institute's work programmes and budget. The Institute is headed by a Director who is appointed by the Secretary-General upon the recommendation of the Board of Trustees of the Institute.

The Institute maintains a small permanent staff and relies on the use of experts and consultants with expertise in specific areas.

WHERE IS IT?

The Institute's headquarters are in Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic. Its premises are provided by the Government of the Dominican Republic. The Institute maintains liaison facilities at the United Nations Headquarters in New York.

HOW IS IT FUNDED?

The Institute is funded solely from voluntary contributions made by governments, non-governmental organizations, philanthropic institutions and individuals. Contributions can be in cash or in kind.

HOW CAN CONTRIBUTIONS BE MADE?

Governments are invited to contribute at the annual United Nations Pledging Conference for Developmental Activities. Contributions from individuals, foundations and other sources can be forwarded to the Trust Fund of the Institute, United Nations, New York, N.Y. 10017, U.S.A.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION, PLEASE CONTACT:

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Fact Sheet
on
INSTRAW

Background:

The United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW), was formed during the 1975 International Women's Year Conference in Mexico and officially founded in 1979. It was set up as an autonomous body within the framework of the United Nations and based in Santo Domingo, the Dominican Republic. INSTRAW also maintains liaison facilities at the United Nations Headquarters in New York and works in close cooperation with INSTRAW national and regional offices (ie. focal points) established in member countries.

The Institute seeks to promote the full participation of women in all aspects of development through research, training and the exchange of information. It conducts research to assess the contribution of working women to national economies in a process requiring statistical studies and methods.

The Institute works through existing networks of women's organizations and research institutes. Its programmes are carried out in close co-operation with United Nations bodies, specialized agencies and regional commissions, as well as governmental and non-governmental institutions and research centers.

INSTRAW addresses both the methodological and the practical aspects of rethinking the role of women in development. In view of the multi-disciplinary nature of programmes related to women and development, there is a need to integrate research, training and information activities. INSTRAW seeks to accomplish this via its varied and comprehensive programme activities.

Programmes and Publications:

Current projects within the programme of activities cover the areas of research and training; information, publications and communications. They can be grouped into categories which include indicators and statistical data, issues of policy analysis and design, and sectoral issues.

Training:

*preparation of a training module for women in managerial and entrepreneurial positions designed especially for developing countries.

*other training activities including the carrying-out of training courses and the implementation of a fellowship programme.

Research & Indicators:

*workshops developed for both users and producers of statistics on designing better questionnaires, measuring women's work and revising the definition of the informal sector.

*improving indicators and related basic statistics on women.

Policy:

*improving the role of women in the implementation of developing countries' policies of individual and collective self-reliance.

Sectoral Issues:

*strengthening the role of women in the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade.

*strengthening the role of women in new and renewable sources of energy.

*strengthening the role of women in agricultural and food systems.

*focusing on the impact of international economic relations on the role and status of women.

Information:

*publication of an international survey of 800 formal and informal training institutions offering courses in women's studies.

Publications:

INSTRAW News: Women and Development, INSTRAW Quarterly Newsletter.

Selected Guidelines and Checklists for Women in Development.

Toward Strategies for Strengthening the Position of Women in Food Production: An Overview and Proposals on Africa.

Women in Economic Activity: A Global Statistical Survey (1950-2000).
(Joint ILO/INSTRAW publication).

Women in the World Economy: An INSTRAW Study by Susan P. Jaekes,
(Oxford University Press, 1987).

Budget:

The Institute is funded solely through voluntary contributions made by governments, non-governmental institutions, philanthropic institutions and individuals. It continues to be underfunded with an annual budget of less than \$1.5 million.

In 1979, the United States Government made an initial contribution of \$200,000 to INSTRAW, but no subsequent contribution was made until Congress appropriated \$200,000 per annum in FY 1989 and 1990.

Countries offer their economic support to INSTRAW at the annual United Nations Pledging Conference for Development Activities. Presently 54 countries support the Institute's programmes, many of them developing nations. The major donor country to INSTRAW is Norway, with a contribution of \$600,000. Other donor countries include such diverse nations as Spain, Senegal, Japan, France, Algeria and Italy.

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FOLDER TITLE:

Swanee Hunt [2]

2013-0534-S
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P5 Release would disclose confidential advice between the President and his advisors, or between such advisors [(a)(5) of the PRA]
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