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9. ABSTRACT

Eight country reports and a bibliography were prepared to provide background information for this project to identify the needs of low income families and the child care needs in selected LDCs, which if met, could enable women to work outside the home. Such activity would lend to economic betterment of family and community life and to sustained national development. It would enhance the children's health and nutrition status. The countries studied include: Colombia, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Peru, Jordan, Korea, Malaysia and Sri Lanka. Factors such as demography, political and economic situation, social customs, traditions, and kinship systems were studied. The specific objectives of the Project on Child Care Needs of Low Income Families are: 1) To gather information on how child care needs are presently being met in the LDCs studied; 2) To get a sense of low-income women's desire to participate in developmental activities; 3) To study the effect of existing child care patterns on opportunities for women from low-income families; 4) To enable families to define their own needs for child care and recommend acceptable alternatives; 5) To organize an international forum to review the field research data and recommendations based on field information. Country-by-country reports are included.

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**PROJECT ON**

**CHILD CARE NEEDS OF LOW INCOME FAMILIES**

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## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the Project is to identify, in selected LDCs, low income families' needs in general, and child care needs in particular, which if met, may enable women to participate in activities leading to economic betterment of family and community life, and to sustained national economic development; and enhance the children's health and nutrition status.

### The specific objectives of the Project are:

- a) To gather information on how child care needs of low-income families are presently being met in selected developing countries;
- b) to get a sense of low-income women's desire to participate in developmental activities;
- c) to study the effect of existing child care patterns on opportunities for women from low-income families of the third world countries to become partners in developmental activities;
- d) to enable low-income families in selected developing countries to define their own needs for child care and recommend acceptable alternative solutions to their needs;
- e) to organize an international forum for the purpose of (i) reviewing the field research data and recommendations (ii) suggesting alternative child care programs based on field information. The seminar participants will be policy makers and program developers from selected less developed countries and international organizations.

To provide background material for the Project, eight country reports and a bibliography have been prepared.

### Country Reports:

The Project directives intended these reports to supply background information that would be useful in the selection of countries for field research. For this purpose eight countries were selected: Colombia, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Peru,

in Latin America; Jordan, Korea, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, in Asia. The selection of these countries was based on discussion with AID, Nutrition office; OEF Project Committee, and OEF Regional Program Developers for Asia and Latin America. In addition criteria such as presence of voluntary agencies with commitment to work with urban and rural low income groups; voluntary agencies' potential for program planning and implementation; research needs of countries; political realities; timetable, distances, and budget; were used. In the preparation of these reports factors such as demography; political and economic situation; social customs, traditions and kinship systems were studied.

### Bibliography:

The literature search was undertaken to (a) identify information and data on child care systems and models; (b) identify persons involved in child care projects and research on child care needs; (c) identify those LDCs which have representative systems that might be studied through field research; and (d) to supply background information which would assist in the selection of countries, and in the development of the field research design. To complete the literature search prior to country selection and preparation of the research design, parameters were chosen to identify the literature most appropriate for the Project's objectives. These parameters were: material written after 1966, in English language, pertaining to developing countries. Some works with highly developed systems of public day care facilities were included because they are comparative studies and have relevance to LDCs.

The bibliography is divided into three sections: 1) an annotated listing of books, papers, reports, theses, etc. 2) a list of journals and periodic publications which occasionally contain articles on child care in developing countries; and 3) a list of relevant bibliographies.

More than 300 institutions, libraries and agencies all over the world were contacted for the literature search. These included public and private international development organizations, private voluntary organizations, United Nations agencies, governmental agencies, schools of social

work, and universities. Seven computer searches were made.

An extensive amount of literature on child health and nutrition in LDCs and on women in development has become available in the last decade. However, little research on child care needs of low income families in LDCs has been done, and to date very little has been published. This is evidenced by the country reports and the bibliography. This lack of information underlines the importance of the Project on Child Care Needs of Low Income Families.

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## COLOMBIA

### Geography

Colombia is the fourth largest country in South America and has the third largest population. It is the only country on the continent with coast lines on both the Atlantic and the Pacific.

Nearly 55% of the area is almost uninhabited lowland with only 1.3% of the population. Forty-five percent of the land concentrates 98.7% of the population, mostly in the narrow valleys and isolated intermittent basins, each with its distinctive soil, climate, and pattern of life.

### Population

The population of Colombia (24 million) is heterogeneous, ranging from pure white, pure Indian, and pure black to blood mixtures of all three. Sixty-five percent of the population is urban; 35% rural. The largest city and the national capital is Bogota, with a population of 3.5 million inhabitants.

In 1970, 30.72% of Colombians were children under age 10. The rest of the population was composed of 25.54% people between the 10 and 19 years; 24.46% between 20 and 39 years; 12.97% in the age group 40 to 59 years; and 4.69% above 60 years.

In 1976 at 38.6 per thousand, Colombia registered one of the highest birth rates in Latin America. This birth rate was despite a population planning program presented to the Colombian Congress in 1968. Amongst its goals the plan aimed at:

- a. raising the age of marriage (to be accomplished through a child and adult education program);
- b. creating equal opportunities for women in socio-economic and political life to be accomplished through incorporation of women in social services and supervised fulfillment of equal pay and equal opportunities; and
- c. improving the welfare of children through greater maternal and child care programs.

The plan also called for the upstart of a massive family planning program which went into operation after initial resistance from the strongly-rooted Catholic church. Statistics show that a year to two later, one-half of all Colombian women of childbearing age had access to family planning services.

The death rate is 15 per thousand and both the death rate and the birth rate are significantly higher in rural areas. Average life expectancy is 61 years with females living a few years longer than males.

Between 1951 and 1964 the urban population increased 51% over the rural population despite a 20% higher birth rate in the rural areas. More females between the ages of 5-19 years, and 35 years and older migrated to urban areas during 1965-70. During the same period more males between the ages of 20 and 34 years migrated.

#### Government

Colombia is a unitary republic established by the 1886 constitution and reinforced by amendments. The current chief of state is Alfonso Lopez Michelson a Liberal Party member, elected in 1974 for a four year term. His administration follows a decade of social unrest manifested in both rural and urban areas, stemming chiefly from socio-economic inequities and dissatisfaction with the government's economic policies.

The government's stated goals concentrate on solving broad economic problems such as inflation, unemployment and income distribution. President Lopez Michelson's government is attempting to remedy the social and economic discrepancies by means of a development plan entitled "To Close the Gap: Social, Economic and Regional Development Plan, 1975-78". The plan is aimed at decreasing the gap between rural and urban incomes by reforming the land tenure system, providing technical assistance to the rural sector and small industry, creating new jobs, providing additional credit for small farmers, improving the education and health systems, and promoting exports.

The government conducts its foreign policy within the traditional groupings at the United Nations and the Organization of American States (OAS), and maintains diplomatic and trade relations with both the West and the East. Although in recent years Colombia has traded chiefly with the Western nations, the government signed a trade pact with the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in 1976.

Colombia and the U.S. enjoy good diplomatic and trade relations and Colombia has in the past, argued in favor of continued U.S. participation in the OAS, if only for hemispheric security reasons.

The country continues to be the recipient of U.S. foreign aid, although recently disenchantment has been expressed by Colombians over the lack of tangible benefits of massive foreign aid for development.

### Economy

Colombia has an agriculture economy, agriculture accounting for 26.7% of the Gross National Product (GNP) and one-half of the labor force. It is the second largest exporter of coffee in the world and coffee accounts for 50% of the nation's foreign exchange receipts. Bananas, rice, corn, sugarcane, plantains, cotton and tobacco are other major crops.

Manufacturing makes up 20.4% of the GNP, producing textiles, processed food, clothing, footwear, beverages, chemicals, metal products and cement. Commerce accounts for 16.8% of the GNP, and personal service, 6.7%. Construction accounts for 4.9%, while government, transportation, mining and petroleum account for 1.3%. Gold, emeralds, copper and nickel are the chief mined products.

Manufacturing and industry are concentrated in four major regions: the Atlantic coast (Barranquilla), the Southwest (Cali), the Northwest (Medellín), and Center (Bogotá).

Colombia has an overall growth rate of 6.2% (1974). Of this 5.6% is attributed to agriculture, and 7.2% to industry. Manufacturing has increased in importance due to government support.

Inflation remains high at 25% and is a major source of government concern. Emphasis on curbing inflation through cut-backs in government spending is stressed in the country's economic plan.

Figures for 1970 estimate that nearly 45% of women between the ages of 20-24 worked. This figure demonstrates a considerable rise in female employment in this particular age group since 1964, when 35.2% were working. However, there is a progressive decline of female participation in the work force beyond that age group, which is said to be the result of marital and family responsibilities. Historically there is also a decline in male labor force participation after age 45.

The percentage of women involved in economic activity is 19.48% (1964), which is below the Latin American mean of 23.99%. The percentage of women active by occupation and by industry was as follows:

Economic Activity of Women, Colombia (1964)

<u>Sector, by Occupation</u>	<u>Index of Femaleness (a)</u>	<u>Distribution Index (b)</u>
professional and technical work	47.29%	9.85%
administrative and managerial work	14.84	2.06
clerical work	24.08	5.00
sales work	25.51	7.62
service work	74.55	44.29
agriculture and related work	4.38	11.00
production and related work	20.17	20.17

Sector, by Industry

agriculture and related industries	4.78%	11.69%
mining and quarrying	24.77	2.03
manufacturing	27.21	18.06
electricity, gas, water and sanitary service	7.74	0.10
construction	1.57	0.35
commerce	24.67	10.95
transport, storage and communication	6.43	1.24
service	59.59	35.50

(a) The Index for Femaleness is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of laborers both male and female in that same category, for example, it shows the percentage of women who are in the agricultural labor force.

(b) The Distribution Index is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of females in all categories;\* the total of the distribution index figures may not be 100% due to rounding.

\*for example it shows the percentage of women employed in agriculture within the total female labor force.

Data on rural and urban unemployment rates by sex and geographic region show that unemployment runs highest among rural women. The low percentage of women in the work force is attributed to the role of women, the existence of a relatively large proportion of the population in rural areas where there is little opportunity for female employment, and the relatively poorer ability of women to find employment in an increasingly competitive urban market.

None of the available statistics cited, labor laws applicable to women and children, but children as young as ten years were in fact included in the statistics on the "economically active" segment of the population. A 1950 labor code provides for severance pay and up to 75 days of compensation for dismissal of laborers without cause, but there is no formal unemployment insurance program.

The social security system, initiated in 1946 and administered by the Instituto Colombiana de Seguro Social, provides a broad range of benefits covering employment injuries (although not all workers, particularly those in agriculture are covered), as well as sickness, maternity and family allowances, old age and disabilities benefits.

The government owns approximately one-half of the land available for cultivation and has sponsored a system of "communal enterprises" whereby the land is given to a group of families who work cooperatively and distribute the profits according to the percentage of work of each member. Within Colombia's land tenure system, the balance of farms are worked either under tenancy or mixed tenancy. During the last few years cooperatives and collectives have also flourished independent of government sponsorship.

### Service Sector

Health and Nutrition: In 1964 Colombia spent only 5.4% of the national budget on health care, but during the early 70's that percentage rose to about 15% largely due to internal political pressures.

In the urban regions the number of hospital beds per 1,000 inhabitants was 3.7, whereas there were only 2.2 per 1,000 in the outlying areas. In 1971 there was a total of 773 hospitals with 46,000 beds, but hospitals and treatment centers were still virtually nonexistent in the countryside. The population per physician was 2,400 in 1960, and 2,160 in 1970; the population per nurse in 1960 was 3,520 and was 1,040 in 1970.

In 1972, statistics showed 10,085 medical doctors (or 1 per 2,200 people), of which 91% were practicing in the urban areas. The 1965-66 statistics show 1,259 trained nurses and 10,818 midwives and nursing auxiliaries.

In 1964, 180,000 mothers were attended at the maternal and child care centers. In the same year 192,700 children of one year or under, and 195,000 children between the ages of one and five were also treated in these centers.

The most prevalent diseases appear to be those related to dietary deficiencies and lack of sanitation including gastritis, enteritis, colitis. These diseases are followed by respiratory ailments, such as influenza, pneumonia, bronchitis, tuberculosis and whooping cough.

Malnutrition coupled with one or the other digestive tract illness appear to be the leading contributors to infant mortality, particularly in rural areas where dietary deficiencies and lack of medical treatment are common. In 1966 a higher number of male children than female children died in infancy - 29,346 males, 23,742 females.

The adult populations in urban areas, the major causes of death are (in order of significance) diseases of the circulatory system (heart failure, stroke); cancer; automobile accidents; and tuberculosis. In the smaller towns an adult is more likely to die of tuberculosis than automobile accident. Overall, in the urban areas men are more likely to die of a circulatory illness than women, whereas the incidence of cancer is greater in women than in men.

In 1966 there were 2.4 maternal deaths per 1,000.

In the rural areas strong beliefs in traditional folk medicine prevails. This coupled with a lack of transportation often prevent utilization of the limited medical services available.

Bread, potatoes, rice and sugar account for a large portion of the food consumed. While milk is consumed in some proportion by all segments of the population, fish and eggs are rarely consumed in the rural areas, and only a small percentage of the fruit and vegetables grown there find their way into the diet of the growers and villagers around them.

Beef is the most popular food item and accounts for 18.9% of the average food budget in urban areas. However, beef is also often out of reach for the rural population.

Dietary deficiencies are said to be the result of lack of protein calories and certain minerals (iron, for example) and vitamins A and C. These deficiencies are evident in the urban population as well as the rural - although the deficiencies are more

pronounced in the rural areas.

In the last few decades Colombia has been confronted with a high percentage of alcoholism and a number of urban treatment centers are operating to deal with this problem.

**Education:** In the current development budget, the government has allocated as much money for education as for all social services combined. The school enrollment is up six times over five years ago.

In Colombia, the school system has traditionally been subject to political and regional pressures. There are many separate quasi-independent systems and co-education has traditionally been regarded as morally undesirable. One of the largest criticisms of the school system is that instead of ameliorating social mobility the school system reinforces social stratification, and that too much emphasis is placed on old values rather than new skills.

There are a few schools in rural areas and even fewer above the primary level. In the rural schools, as in many countries, the education is inferior to that in the cities. In 1971 it was estimated that 78% of urban children, between the age of 7 and 11 and 60% rural children in the same age, attended a new curriculum announced in 1963 required a five year primary school program, but by 1966 80% of the rural schools offered no more than a 2 to 3 year program. Traditionally there was an emphasis on academics, with little vocational or technical training. However, as the secondary schools opened in the 1970's, technical training as well as academic courses are offered. An anticipated capacity of 79,000 students was predicated for 1976.

There are 135 public and 98 private teacher training schools, training teachers for primary education only.

Institutions for higher education are expanding at a rapid rate. The predicated enrollment for 1977 was 217,000. A 1975 international register lists 22 public institutions and 17 private. The National University, in Bogota is the largest.

Traditionally, vocational skills are viewed as having little social value, hence the heavy emphasis on training for white collar jobs. A few vocational programs for training in commerce, banking, industry and business are available in the urban areas, and a few programs offer training in carpentry, drafting, electrical mechanics, metalwork, printing, smelting and welding. In 1963 there were 80 small technical secondary level agricultural institutions, teaching soil science, animal husbandry, farming and irrigation techniques and farm administration. The National Apprenticeship Service (SENA) has been operating for over 15 years training semi-skilled and skilled workers for industry, and it provides an employee job placement

program.

The major concern of adult education programs, is literacy. In the industrial centers the national government maintains several nursery schools for children of working mothers.

### Social Organization

The family as an institution has an extremely high place in the Colombian society, although heavy rural to urban migration in recent decades has tended to slightly weaken its importance. Families tend to be patriarchal in the middle and upper classes, with husbands and fathers in a position of authority, and wives and daughters in charge of domestic tranquility and well-being. After decades of debate, a law permitting divorce was passed in 1970 and women have had full political rights since 1958.

Due to economic necessity, lower class women in urban settings will often work outside the home and tend to move towards more egalitarian relationships within the family. These women often have more freedom, and less control is exerted by husbands or fathers compared to the upper and middle classes.

Because of the central position of the family as an institution in Colombia, child care is traditionally the responsibility of the mother, and other women of the family.

### Basic Human Needs

**Food:** The government has expressed a commitment to a national nutrition program designed to educate the population on patterns of consumption and nutrition.

The prices of a few food items - milk and wheat - are controlled by the government but opponents of price control maintain that it limits production of these commodities.

**Clothing:** Like most consumer goods in Colombia, clothing is of local manufacture.

**Housing:** There is a growing housing shortage in Colombia, principally in the urban areas. The government's Instituto de Crédito Territorial and international assistance organizations are pumping money into construction, but the bulk of housing construction remains in the private sector.

Transportation: Towns in many areas of the country are connected by plane, but there are few railways and few roads. In the jungle, most transportation is by canoe or launch. Mules and pack trails are still in use in the rural areas, although trucks are common. Cars are concentrated in urban areas - for example, Bogota with 12% of the population, has 35% of the cars.

### Service Agencies

The voluntary sector in Colombia has grown rapidly in the last two decades. During this period so many organizations with varying activities and number of members have come into existence that a parent coordinating agency, ACOVOL, was formed in the late 1960's. According to a 1976 press report, ACOVOL has 7.5 million members.

Other women's organizations include: the Federación Nacional de Cruzada Social, the YWCA, the Union Femenina de Colombia, Union de Ciudadanas de Colombia, the Asociación de Mujeres de Negocios y Profesionales de Colombia, the Coordinación de Asociaciones Voluntarias, the Asociación Antioqueña del Voluntariado and others, all acting for the well being, education, rights and recognition of women in Colombia.

Some fifty US Voluntary agencies are acting in Colombia, of which more than 20 are missionary groups. Others include Accion, AFL-CIO, CARE, CUNA, Family Planning International, Ford Foundation, Foster Parents Plan, Goodwill Industries, Pan American Development Foundation, Project Hope, Planned Parenthood, PACT, Rockefeller Foundation, etc.

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## DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

### Geography

The Dominican Republic occupies the eastern 2/3 of Hispaniola Island, and the remainder is occupied by Haiti. There are marked differences between the two countries both as regards to people and their socio-cultural traditions. The climate is tropical but tempered by sea breezes. The land is fertile and rainfall is ample.

### Population

The population of the Dominican Republic is about 5,000,000, with over 1,000,000 in the capital and chief seaport of Santo Domingo. Hispaniola was discovered by Columbus on his first voyage to the New World, and Santo Domingo was founded in 1496. The Dominican Republic was the first Spanish colony in the New World, and Spanish Expeditions to subsequent colonies were launched from Santo Domingo. The Indian population was annihilated early in the colonial period, and African slaves were imported to work the fields, with the result that the population is predominantly mulatto. In recent years, the overall population has been growing at a rate of over 3% per year, and urban at 6% per year (1970), but government and other family planning programs have slightly reduced the annual growth rate.

### Government

The Republic has the conventional type of presidential system with separation of powers, but in practice, for many years, it has had a tradition of paternalism and dictatorship. There is a heavy emphasis on public works. Government sponsored community development and technical assistance at the grass-roots level are not widespread throughout the country.

Relations between the Dominican Republic and the U.S. are cordial. The government policy strives to encourage foreign investment and to provide the investor with an inviting and secure political climate.

There are several political parties in the country, but the President's Partido Reformista is the predominant one. Elections will be held in May of 1978, and it is anticipated that President Balaguer will be reelected. He came to power in 1966.

### Economy

The economy is predominantly agricultural. The Dominican Republic is the principal supplier of sugar to the U.S. market, and sugar exports account for about 50% of foreign exchange earnings. The government owns many sugar plantations, and the largest U.S. company is the Central Romana, a Gulf and Western subsidiary, which has its primary interests in sugar. The Dominican Republic also produces and exports cane by-products, chocolate, cacao, coffee and tobacco. Fruit production is primarily for domestic consumption. Nickel mining and refining, oil refining, gold and silver mining are the main industries, and foreign investors are heavily involved in these operations.

The labor force is predominantly in agriculture - 55% in 1970, as opposed to 11% in industry. High unemployment is a serious problem. It was estimated by the Secretariat of Labor to have been over 20% during later years of the 1960's. Other estimates of the late 1960's and early 1970's range as high as 35% nationwide and 50% for the slum neighborhoods of Santo Domingo. Underemployment is also chronic, and the rate is estimated to be at least 20% of the labor force.

The percentage of women involved in economic activity is 11.3%, which is ranked 86th out of 98 countries worldwide, and is the lowest in Latin America (the mean for Latin America is 23.99%). In 1960 the percentage of women active by occupations and industries was as follows

Economic Activity of Women, Dominican Republic (1960)

<u>Sector, by Occupation</u>	<u>Index of Femaleness (a)</u>	<u>Distribution Index (b)</u>
professional and technical work	52.98%	14.00%
administrative and managerial work	11.66	0.43
clerical work	26.64	8.31
sales work	20.23	10.52
service work	72.23	42.11
agricultural and related work	1.72	9.92
production and related work	10.68	14.70

Sector, by Industry

agriculture and related industries	1.75%	10.20%
mining and quarrying	0.84	0.02
manufacturing	17.49	13.51
electricity, gas, water and sanitary service	4.22	0.16
construction	0.34	0.08
commerce	21.79	13.76
transport, storage and communication	1.49	0.37
service	58.58	61.90

(a) The Index for Femaleness is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of laborers both male and female in that same category for example, it shows the percentage of women who are in the agricultural labor force.

(b) The Distribution Index is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of females in all categories.\* The total of the distribution index figures may not be 100% due to rounding.

\* for example, it shows the percentage of women employed in agriculture within the total female labor force.

The country has no defined development plan. The government is relying to some degree on foreign investment to generate new jobs. Tourism is being developed by the government and foreign investors as one source of foreign exchange reserves. There is virtually no handicrafts tradition, but development agencies are fostering the formation of artisans as an income-generating activity which will complement the influx of tourists. Generally the economy is expanding, though not necessarily in the direction of self-sufficiency. The government is the single largest employer, a major land holder and a major industrialist in part because it took over the extensive properties of former dictator Rafael Trujillo.

### Service Sector

**Health:** Most of the population relies on public medical services. Concentration of services is heavy in Santo Domingo - the capital city has 50% of the doctors, nearly all of the graduate nurses, 50% of the hospital beds and over 25% of the hospitals. The bed-patient ratio per 1000 population was 7.6 in the capital, 1.8 elsewhere in the country. The number of physicians in the country has declined due to emmigration to the United States, and elsewhere.

The principal cause of death is gastro-enteritis (18% of all recorded deaths), diseases of early infancy are the second major killer.

Other diseases of major proportions are cancer, diseases resulting from nutritional deficiency, heart disease, tetanus, pneumonia, influenza, malaria, venereal disease, whooping cough, measles, trachoma and tuberculosis. A major malaria eradication program has drastically reduced the number of cases. Tuberculosis is a particularly serious problem in the crowded urban slums of Santo Domingo.

Diseases of the digestive system have been least susceptible to elimination through health campaigns. Lack of potable water and generally unsanitary conditions have made gastro-intestinal diseases endemic in the entire country.

**Nutrition:** A 1969 government survey of 552 Santo Domingo families in various income levels provided a general picture of urban foods consumption. Rice is the most important cereal food followed by wheat products such as bread and pasta. Potatoes and cassava are the most important starchy root crops, and popular vegetables are onions, tomatoes, peas, garlic and red peppers. Bananas are the most regularly eaten fruit, citrus consumption is minor, and consumption of papayas and mangoes is negligible.

The survey showed beef to represent about half the cost of all

meat purchases, with poultry next, and limited purchases of pork, and goat. Virtually no lamb or veal is eaten. Fish and seafood consumption is minor, and limited primarily to the upper income levels.

The rural localities show a similar diet to the working class urban households - rice, kidney beans, starchy roots, bananas, onions, tomatoes and garlic. Green vegetables are rarely eaten and meat, fish and poultry consumption is low.

The Dominican Republic exports fruit, vegetables, and meat. In the late 1960's the value of imported edibles was 20% of all imports, and the per capita domestic food production was on the decline.

**Education:** The cost of public education in the Dominican Republic is borne by the central government. World Bank figures show an increase in current expenditures for education from 9.8% in 1967, to 14.2% in 1973. In 1970 some 40% of the funds appropriated were marked for the primary system, 19% for the secondary system, 19% for the universities, 4% for subsidies to private institutions, 7% for miscellaneous purposes and 11% for general administration.

Almost equal numbers of boys and girls are enrolled in primary schools. Private schools represented less than 9% of the primary school population, but due to increasingly crowded urban public classrooms during the 1960s, private enrollment increased at a rate six times that of the public units.

Primary education is free in the public system and is compulsory for children 7-14. However, because of shortage of classrooms and teachers this rule is not enforced. In 1969 some 19.8% of the children in the 7-12 age group had had no schooling.

Census data show adult literacy rates have risen from 42.9% in 1950, to 64.5% in 1960, to 67.2% in 1970. Other estimates, however, indicate that literacy may be 50% or less. Census figures show rates for men and women as 66.8% and 62.5%, respectively. Estimates indicate the rate in urban localities to be twice that of the countryside.

Women make up the large majority of the teaching staff at primary and secondary levels - about 70% in the late 1960's and early 1970's. University professors are predominantly male and customarily teach a few hours a week.

### Social Organization

The similarities between the Dominican social system and those of other Caribbean countries are particularly marked, however, the

Dominican Republic is unique among its Caribbean neighbors. Dominicans boast the purest Spanish traditions in the Western Hemisphere and 98% of the population is Spanish-speaking and Roman Catholic. As a socio-economic region it can be defined by its plantation heritage and its subsequent polarized class structure.

The lowest social group is the immigrant Haitian population which cuts sugar cane. The middle class is not cohesive, although its numbers are estimated at between 15-30% of the total population. The Dominican Republic does not have a powerful landed oligarchy as do most Latin American countries. Even though the elite has controlled political affairs during most of the period of independence, various events took place that periodically destroyed accumulated wealth and interrupted exercise of power. The people of the city of Santiago de los Caballeros consider themselves more "upper class" than the people of Santo Domingo.

The family is still the most important social unit for the average Dominican. There are three kinds of marital union - civil, church and consensual. The "godparent" system is an important accessory to the extended family. Trujillo and Balaguer both held mass baptisms to become the "compadre" of thousands of peasant children in order to solidify power.

For Dominican men and women, the Latin America tradition of machismo and women's passivity holds true, with differences between the social classes. Women are entering the labor force in greater numbers; indeed, the lower class women have always worked to contribute additional income or to completely support the family.

As elsewhere in Latin America, a double standard prevails with regard to social customs and women's roles. However, there are signs that certain aspects of the double standard, particularly women's confinement to the home, are beginning to crumble. Women are going to work in increasing numbers and in 1970 comprised 25% of the total work force. From 1960 to 1970, the increase of women workers was almost ten times that of male workers. The increase of women in the labor force does not, of course, necessarily mean that women's status is improving. In fact, women tend to be clustered in the lowest paying positions, such as domestic work, textile factories and cigar-rolling plants. However, there are a number of women in high positions in the government. Certain unfavorable work practices affect men and women alike. However, pregnant women workers are subject to special discriminatory practices. Women are increasing in student enrollments: of university students, women account for about half of enrollments, and studies indicate little difference in access to education for men and women.

Mobility among women is shown by the fact that more women than men migrate to the cities, and most of the female migrants are young.

In Santo Domingo there are 100 women for every 83 men. Approximately 60% of all couples are joined in common law unions, and over 60% of all births are out of wedlock. Such social customs are unfavorable to women in the sense that women and their children may be ineligible for social security benefits in the event of nonformalized unions or nonestablished paternity. Many women have the responsibility for economic support of their families.

#### Basic Human Needs

**Clothing:** Clothing consists mostly of factory-made cotton dresses, shirts, blouses and trousers. There is no home weaving, and inexpensive purchased garments are preferred to those made in the home from purchased cloth.

**Housing:** A Dominican Housing expert estimated that in 1967 there was a deficit of 376,495 units. Other estimates indicated that in 1961 about 70% of the housing deficit was in rural localities and that 65% of all units in the country were substandard.

A rural house is typically made from palm trees with a dirt floor. Electricity and indoor sanitation are rare. The inhabitants of small towns enjoy more comfort in the way of housing and furnishings. Housing for the urban work class is difficult to secure, although the public housing program has expanded substantially since it was begun in 1962.

World Bank statistics show an average household size of 5.3 persons in 1961. The percent of occupied buildings without piped water was estimated at 92%, without electricity 20%, and rural dwellings with electricity were only 3% (1960).

#### Service Agencies

Women's organizations in the Dominican Republic include the Federacion Dominicana de Mujeres, Consejo Nacional de Mujeres, Federacion de Mujeres de Negocios y Profesionales, the Meda Redonda Panamericana, and the Union de Mujeres Americanas.

American non-profit organizations operative in the Dominican Republic include about fifteen missionary groups, plus the AFL-CIO's American Institute for Free Labor Development, CARE, Community Development Foundation, Goodwill Industries, Heifer Project, the Pan American Development Foundation, Planned Parenthood, and the Population Foundation.

A local Dominican development organization is the Fundacion Dominicana de Desarrollo, which promotes agricultural development

and income generation activities in fifteen of the rural provinces, and provides leadership training, credit opportunities, and technical assistance to peasant associations.

The Consejo Nacional de Poblacion y Familia and the Instituto Agrario Dominicano are attached to the ministries of health and agriculture, respectively, and assist in the resettlement plans. The Oficina de Desarrollo de la Comunidad is also a government agency, in this case responsible for promoting community development in rural areas and agricultural extension in areas not covered by the agriculture ministry. This organization has forty women promoters working throughout the country with mothers' clubs.

Promocion Humana y Campesina is the social promotion arm of the Diocese of Santiago. It works with over 100 base-level organizations in providing training in organizational skills, cooperatives, agricultural extension, health, community development and marketing.

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HONDURAS

Geography

Honduras shares borders with Nicaragua, Guatemala and El Salvador. It has a narrow Pacific coastal strip on the Gulf of Fonseca and a northern coast on the Caribbean Sea. Much of the country is mountainous.

Population

A 1977 estimate places the population of Honduras at 2,800,000. Ninety per cent of the population is "ladino", a term given to those persons of mixed origins.

The bulk of the population lives on the western side of the country, 78% in rural towns and villages in the highland basin, and in urban areas. The largest city and capital is Tegucigalpa, with 210,000 inhabitants. The second largest city, with 160,000 persons, is San Pedro Sula, the agricultural center.

The age and sex breakdown is as follows:

Population of Honduras, by Age and Sex (1967)

	<u>Total</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Total	100.0%	49.6%	50.4%
Less than 5 years	21.4	10.8	10.6
3-14 years	32.2	16.3	15.9
15-19	9.5	4.6	4.9
20-39	24.5	11.6	12.9
40-59	9.8	5.0	4.8
60 plus	2.6	1.3	1.3

The birth rate is 47.3 per one thousand inhabitants, for an annual growth rate of 3.5% (1977). Death rate is 9.5 per thousand, although U.N. statistics indicate that it is closer to 17 per thousand. Nineteen sixty-seven figures show 117 infant deaths per 1,000 live births and during that same period infants under five constituted 45% of the recorded deaths. Life expectancy is an estimated 51 years.

While most countries in Latin America have high rural to urban migration, because of relatively higher pay and greater employment opportunities in the banana industry, the rural population of Honduras has not shifted as radically. The population remains about 75% rural, 25% urban. Women out-number men slightly in urban areas, whereas men out-number women in migratory work areas.

### Government

In recent history, Honduras has been plagued with both political unrest and natural disaster. After a series of civilian elections, a military coup brought Brigadier General Juan Alberto Melgar Castro to power in 1975. In September, 1974, Hurricane Fifi hit the north coast of Honduras, the traditional "bread-basket" of the country, destroying basic grain crops, roads, bridges, homes, schools and health centers.

Honduras has had a history of border disputes with neighboring Guatemala, Nicaragua and El Salvador and as recently as 1969 waged a full-scale border war with El Salvador following a hotly contested soccer match. Following the dispute, the Organization of American States (OAS) established a peace zone along the border, but incidents continue to the present day.

The country has no diplomatic ties with Cuba or any of the communist nations.

Honduras has consistently maintained good relations with the United States and receives large amounts of U.S. aid. Honduras has good relations with the other Central American countries (except El Salvador) and participates irregularly in the Central American Common Market. Honduras also trades with other Latin American countries, Japan and West Germany, although the export base was severely damaged during the 1974 hurricane.

Since the 1974 hurricane the country has become even more dependent upon foreign aid. The present forms of assistance appear to be aimed at reconstructing the economy with an emphasis on rural development. Mention has also been made of the need for augmenting the women's role in Honduras's development and a few of the government's programs take the women's potential economic contribution into account.

Among the goals stated in Honduras's five year reconstruction and development plan are:

- repairs to hurricane damage;
- agrarian reform;
- improved health and nutrition services;
- integration of the rural poor into the economy through support of non-formal education programs and the promotion of small market towns;
- improvement of the tax structure.

### Economy

Honduras is one of the poorest countries in Latin America. The economy is agriculturally based with a well-defined export sector and small but growing industrial component. Major exports include banana, coffee, cotton, and some beef. Bananas are grown in the north and eastern humid lowlands, cattle is raised in the dry south. Agriculture accounts for 38% of the Gross National Product (GNP), manufacturing 16%, and commerce 13.5%. The economic growth rate for 1975 was 1.4%. The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for the years 1955, 1960, and 1967 showed a trend of increasing manufacturing and decreasing activity in agriculture, forestry and fishing.

<u>Gross Domestic Product, by Activity</u>	<u>1955</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>1967</u>
1. Agriculture, forestry, fishing	51.5%	44.3%	38.4%
2. Mining	1.1	1.0	1.8
3. Manufacturing	9.0	12.1	15.0
4. Construction	4.9	3.5	4.2
5. Transport, communication, utilities	5.6	6.0	7.5
6. Trade and finance	14.4	14.5	15.8
7. Public administration, defense, other including statistical discrepancy	13.5	18.6	17.3

The National Development Plan is heavily tilted towards improving the economy and specifically towards redistributing income so that the rural areas retain a large share. There is a program to develop nontraditional exports to decrease the dependency on food crops subject to climatic storage and transport difficulties. Development of a potentially large woodpulp and paper products industry necessary for development programs has been stalled in negotiations with U.S. firms.

Traditionally the land has been divided into many small tracts and a few very large holdings. Recent legislation, specifically the Agrarian Reform Law approved in December 1974, attempts to reform land distribution and calls for agrarian cooperatives and

small farmers' organizations. Technical training for this type of reorganization is being provided.

A 1970 labor Code, which provides for minimum wage and hours of work, and collective bargaining, is generally favorable towards the worker. However, adherence to the code is sporadic, and more so in rural areas. In 1971 the National Congress passed a minimum wage act establishing the General Wage Directorate, under the Secretary of State for Labor and Social Welfare, whose primary responsibility is to establish guidelines for a national wage policy. Conditions of life and work are taken into account in policy setting. The Directorate acts to set wages with the participation of both labor and management through an arbitration process. Older and disabled workers are not covered by wage arbitration but the plan does cover all segments of labor except the civil servant. Children over the age of ten are generally counted as part of the work force. During the 1950's labor began to organize and at the present time there are two major labor unions. Attempts are being made by the unions to induce rural worker participation.

By 1970 a social security system covered employee accidents, sickness and maternity benefits. Future plans are underway to provide coverage for occupational diseases, old age; and unemployment resulting from forced industrial shutdowns.

The percentage of women involved in economic activity is 12.6% which is below the Latin American mean of 23.99%. The percentage of women active in occupations and industries was as follows:

Economic Activity of Women, Honduras (1961)

<u>Sector, by Occupation</u>	<u>Index of Femaleness (a)</u>	<u>Distribution Index (b)</u>
professional and technical work	57.15%	11.98%
administrative and managerial work	10.98	0.54
clerical work	33.14	6.14
sales work	35.83	11.77
service work	72.17	47.12
agriculture and related work	0.77	4.21
production and related work	18.23	18.23
 <u>Sector, by Industry</u>		
agriculture and related industries	0.95%	5.25%
mining and quarrying	1.19	0.03
manufacturing	29.06	18.59
electricity, gas, water and sanitary service	5.39	0.06
construction	0.95	0.16
commerce	33.52	13.18
transport, storage and communication	6.73	0.78
service	61.37	61.95

(a). The Index for Femaleness is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of laborers, both male and female in that same category, for example, it shows the percentage of women who are in the agricultural labor force.

(b) The Distribution Index is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of females in all categories;\* the total of the distribution index figures may not be 100% due to rounding.

\*for example it shows the percentage of women employed in agriculture within the total female labor force.

### Service Sector

**Health:** There is a severe shortage of health services in Honduras. UN statistics for the late 1960's cited 233 health establishments including 37 hospitals (with a total of 4,226 beds, or 1.8 per 1,000 persons), 400 physicians and 1,200 nurses. Thirty-four maternal and child care clinics were operating in 1974 providing pre-natal to post-partum services and medical attention to children under five. These facilities treated approximately 70,000 patients that year. But by and large only 25% of all expectant mothers receive any type of medical attention. In 1975 there was one hospital for the mentally ill.

Ninety per cent of Honduras women have access to some form of family planning service, but few women make use of these services. Only 48,000 women took advantage of the services in 1974 and the government recognizes the need for an educational and promotional program on a coordinated basis.

It is estimated that overall 1/3 of the population never receives any kind of modern health care, partly because of lack of services, partly because of belief in traditional form of medicine. Health facilities in rural areas are practically non-existent. Isolation, dirth of trained people, and lack of transportation and communication are obvious hinderances to the availability of health services.

The most prevalent diseases are of the intestinal system; diseases related to dietary deficiencies and malnutrition, malaria and respiratory ailments. Leading causes of death among adults are heart attack, malignant tumors, and strokes.

Infectious childhood diseases, pneumonia, gastro-enteritis and typhoid fever account for the majority of childhood deaths. Deficiencies at birth and accidents also contribute to the high rate of childhood death. Nearly 45% of the recorded d aths occur before the age of 5 and 61% before the age of 15.

On the north coast Hondurans eat much more fish than the rest of the population, which generally relies on beans as its protein source. The major nutritional deficiency is attributed to lack of protein. There are deficiencies of vitamin A, riboflavin, iodine and iron as well. Eighty per cent of the population is said to be deficient in one or more of these vitamins and minerals.

**Education:** One-fourth of the annual budget of Honduras is being spent on education, yet the illiteracy rate continues to be the highest in Central America. In 1974 the literacy rate was estimated to be 45% overall for persons 15 and over, and 25% in the rural areas. Women are 54.46% of all illiterates.

Honduras provides free compulsory primary education, and non-compulsory but free secondary education. Only 8% of the secondary age population was enrolled in 1968. The country's National University is located in Tegucigalpa. Some non-formal vocational training is being given in rural areas with particular emphasis on agriculture production technology. This training is part of the national development plan and focuses on low-income men and women. Several voluntary groups, provide literacy and vocational training and non-formal education through libraries and cultural centers.

### Social Organization

The family in Honduras is the basic social unit around which strong social and kinship ties are formed. Women are considered marriageable at 15 years. Fifty percent of the female population married between the ages of 15-20 in 1965 and 50% of all males between 20-25 were married.

The government recognizes both formal and common law marriage; divorce has been legal since 1957. The practice of arranged marriage which was used to cement social and economic bonds between families is no longer common place, but does still occur in some areas.

The male is traditionally the head of household and the wife's role is idealized as an unselfish, self-sacrificing governess of domestic affairs. This ideal is not as evident in poorer families where the women are often the sole support of the family.

In Honduras, women are permitted to own property in their names and enter into contracts without the approval of their husbands. They were given the vote in 1970.

Although many middle and upper class women are receiving an education and entering business, they are generally expected to relinquish their jobs upon marrying.

Child-rearing is the responsibility of the women of the family. Children are generally breast-fed until 3 months at which time they are converted to family foods.

### Basic Human Needs

**Food:** Honduras give the appearance of being self-sufficient for its food supply and imports very little in the way of food stuffs. But production figures are overstated compared to the actual availability of food, much of which is exported or lost due to improper storage

and lack of transportation. Major health organizations have deemed the Honduras diet inadequate nutritionally. The staple of the typical diet is high-starch foods such as corn, rice, sorghum, beans and wheat. Produce grown locally may supplement the growers' diet, but more often than not, it is sold at the local market and exported to earn cash. Milk consumption in Honduras is minimal.

There is no indication of government price controls on basic food items, nor have there been food price subsidies undertaken to promote price stability.

**Clothing:** Clothing in Honduras is predominantly of local manufacture. There is no indication that the government has ever instituted price subsidies for clothing.

**Housing:** Housing remains one of the most critical problems facing Honduras. In the urban centers, 45% of the existing structures are judged overcrowded by U.N. standards and a 1970 study indicated that 12% of the structures had piped-in water. The bulk of the urban population lives in shacks constructed of sheet metal and cardboard. The rural areas fare even worse although overcrowding is not as severe a problem. Most rural people live in thatched huts of wattle and daub and 91% of the dwellings are without running water. In 1970, 86% lacked drainable latrines.

Government programs to remedy this situation, have proved largely ineffectual. There has been a lack of coordination among housing programs and Honduras has never established a formal system of building codes. Little help has come from the private sector and only a small percentage of home construction is executed by construction companies. Homes built either by the government or private sector are seldom affordable by the low-income segments of the population.

**Transportation:** Honduras has 2,500 miles of roads, mostly unpaved and flooded during the rainy season. The country has three railway systems and 130 air fields (mostly grass strips). Low income rural people often use donkeys to transport goods and there is an occasional truck.

#### Service Agencies

The Commission Interamericana de Mujeres in Honduras is affiliated with the parent Organization of American States group.

It is active in the preparation and training of women at all levels of society, from peasant women to professionals. Achievements include labor legislation protecting all women but single mothers in particular.

The Honduras Family Planning Association provides services and programs in health education and family planning.

The Federacion de Asociaciones Femininas is headquartered in Tegucigalpa.

Housewives Clubs are particularly active in Honduras, somewhat united by Caritas. The Agrarian Reform movement has also created many local men's organizations.

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PERU

Geography

Peru is the third largest country in South America, and is twice the size of France. It is a country of many geographical extremes: the entire western seaboard is desert, with very little rainfall; from the Costa, the snow capped peaks of the Andes rise; at the foot of the Sierra region eastward is the vast jungle of the Amazon basin. Peru shares its northern, southern and eastern borders with Chile, Brazil, Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, and the western border is the Pacific ocean. Most of the industries and large-scale agriculture are located in the coastal areas, and the Andean area produces most of the food crop. Mineral extraction is mostly in the Sierra and there is some petroleum in jungle areas.

Population

In 1977 the population was estimated to be 16.6 million. Of these almost 46% people are Indian; 43% mestizo; 11% Caucasian; and there are small numbers of orientals and blacks. The population distribution is as uneven as the geography is extreme. In 1972 50% of the people were located in the Sierra, forty percent on the narrow coast, and about 10% in the jungle lowlands. According to 1973 estimates, the population density per square mile is 29. In 1970 the overall population growth rate was estimated to be 3%. However, the urban growth rate in the same year was 5%. Estimates indicate that the growth rate in the cities is larger by natural growth than from rural to urban migration.

During 1970-75 the birth rate was 41 per 1000, death rate was 12 per 1000, infant mortality was 110 per 1000; and the average life expectancy is 56 years.

It is estimated that 200,000 people migrate to Lima each year. Most migrants take up residence in the squatter settlements on the fringes of the capital. Since 1970, the population of Lima squatter settlements has doubled from 1,000,000 to 2,000,000. It is estimated that Lima will have 15,000,000 inhabitants by the year 2,000. Other cities also expand through migration though probably at less rapid rates. As in other developed countries, the population of Peru is a young population -- in areas such as squatter settlements it is estimated that over 50% of the population is under 15 years of age.

Government

Since October 1968, Peru has been ruled by a military regime. General Juan Velasco ruled from 1968 until 1975, at which time General Morales Bermudez (finance minister under Velasco) took over the presidency. The Velasco government set in motion a wide variety of reforms and social changes: agrarian reform, worker-managed industries, expanded government role, etc. Morales Bermudez government has been much more conservative. Elections of a congress to draw up a constitution are scheduled for 1978 and presidential elections are scheduled for 1980. The Peruvian military regime is not to be confused with other South American military juntas, such as those in Chile and Brazil; the Peruvian military has worked to introduce progressive reforms and has not been known for being repressive. What happens in Peruvian politics in the near future will be heavily influenced by the economic situation.

Peru and Union of Soviet Socialist Republics have diplomatic relations and a bilateral trade agreement. Peru has been a firm supporter of third world issues. This stand has softened somewhat since 1976 as a result of the need to attract new loans for the faltering economy. But the government insists that these shifts are strategic and not philosophical.

Economy

The National Development Plan, "Tupac Amaru", adopted in October 1977, covers virtually every aspect of national life from customs agents to nuclear energy. The purpose of the plan is to consolidate and complete reforms initiated under military rule in order to achieve "social democracy with full participation". The plan proposes to increase production, especially in the sectors of agriculture, mining, fishing, and oil, and at the same time institute or consolidate social reforms such as expanded social security coverage, increased participation of workers in decision-making, assurance of minimum wage, etc. The plan also projects the expansion of tourism, reduction of illiteracy, increased health services, facilitating credit to poorer groups, generation of jobs, and creating conditions to keep people in the rural areas. Many other issues of concern are discussed in the plan. It is basically a comprehensive development plan, but it is open-ended in the sense that many decree laws which will spell out the specifics of development activities in various sectors are yet to be drafted.

Peru is facing an economic crisis. From June to December 77 its currency the sol dropped from s/ 65.00 = U.S. \$1.00 to s/ 110.00 = U.S. \$1.00. Salary increases do not keep up with inflation. In November 1977 Peru received a credit of over U.S. \$100,000,000 from the International Monetary Fund, with austerity measures as a condition

for delivery of the loan. Government spending will have to be cut back drastically and thus public services already being reduced will have to be reduced further. During the period of military rule which began in 1968, the public sector had been expanded greatly. The cutbacks will mean at least a freeze on government hiring and possibly some drastic cutbacks in personnel. Unemployment and underemployment already estimated at 40% of the workforce may increase.

Oil exploration in the jungles of Peru has not revealed bright prospects for large oil fields. Copper, a major export, has not been terribly profitable of late due to a drop in the world market prices. Fishmeal was formerly the source of over 50% of Peru's foreign exchange; currently, the fishmeal industry is in crisis due to several years of small fish harvests. The agrarian reform of 1969 has led to an overall drop in production which has particularly affected the sugar cane export industry. However, tourism is increasing.

The sectors of the economy and their percentage of Gross National Product (GNP) and percentage growth rate are as follows: (1975 figures):

<u>Sector</u>	<u>GNP</u>	<u>Growth Rate</u>
agriculture and livestock	12.7%	2.0%
fisheries	0.8*	-15.2
mining	-	-12.2
manufacturing	26.0	5.0

Between 1960-75 the overall GNP growth rate was 5.5%. In 1975 per capita income was \$596 per year.

The following chart shows that from 1967 to 1973 government expenditures, as a percentage of the total expenditure, in sectors such as health and education has been reduced.

<u>Sector</u>	<u>1967</u>	<u>1973</u>
defense	22.7%	29.2%
agriculture	1.7	4.9
education	33.6	24.1
health	9.8	6.7
transportation	3.7	2.8
interest on debt	5.0	5.5
other expenditures	23.4	26.8

\* In 1972 this figure was 2.7%

As noted above, unemployment is high and underemployment is an equally serious problem, particularly in the agricultural and other traditional sectors such as small marketing. Figures show unemployment increasing among the female labor force - from 2.6% in 1961, to 7.5% in 1972. In the same year, it was estimated that 45% of the total labor force was in agriculture and 20% in industry.

Figures on the percentage of women in the labor force vary from 20% (1972) to 14.4% (1970), depending on the source. Based on the 20% figure there are 24.6% urban and 12.7% rural activity rates for women (1972). Unpaid family labor is not counted as employment. Activity rates by age in 1972 are heaviest between 25-34 years - 23.3%. The distribution is 15-24: 21.3%; 35-59: 19.6%; 60+ 10.5%.

In Peru the percentage of women involved in economic activity is 18.94% (1961), whereas the Latin American mean is 23.99%. The percentage of women active by occupation and by industry was as follows:

Economic Activity of Women, Peru (1961)

<u>Sector, by Occupation</u>	<u>Index of Femaleness (a)</u>	<u>Distribution Index (b)</u>
professional and technical work	46.04%	8.73%
administrative and managerial work	10.72	0.89
clerical work	31.49	7.75
sales work	28.80	12.04
service work	59.96	30.92
agriculture and related work	13.91	39.42
production and related work	0.23	0.23

Sector, by Industry

agriculture and related industries	13.83	32.99
mining and quarrying	2.71	0.28
manufacturing	28.22	17.79
electricity, gas, water and sanitary service	4.62	0.06
construction	0.94	0.15
commerce	27.98	12.09
transport, storage and communication	4.88	0.70
service	49.16	35.94

(a) The Index for femaleness is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of laborers both male and female in that same category, for example, it shows the percentage of women who are in the agricultural labor force.

(b) The Distribution Index is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of females in all categories;\* the total of the distribution index figures may not be 100% due to rounding.

\*for example it shows the percentage of women employed in agriculture within the total female labor force.

C.

Women employees are equally eligible for social security and pension benefits. The retirement age for women is earlier than for men. There is a proposal pending to give economic value to domestic work so that housewives are eligible for pension benefits. A number of protective labor laws exist for women, and some have been changed because of their inadvertent discriminatory effect on the employment of women. Peru provides from 60-90 days paid maternity leave, one hour leave per day to mothers for nursing babies, and day care facilities for children under one year of age if the business employs 25 women over 18 years of age. There is evidence that employers maneuver to stay under the limit of 25 to avoid providing this facility. Night work is prohibited women, although the removal of this law is proposed. Women may not work more than 48 hours a week, nor may they work underground.

#### Service Sector

**Health and Nutrition:** In the Costa, rural and urban diets differ only slightly in content, and the diets of families with higher and lower incomes differ principally in terms of quantity and frequency of consumption of the more expensive foods. In general, the most common staples are rice, broad beans, tubers, noodles and bread. Meat is consumed regularly in moderate quantities, and seafood has fairly substantial consumption. A variety of green vegetables are consumed, but the consumption of fruit and dairy products is low.

In Cuzco and other major provincial cities of the Sierra, the food consumption patterns are similar to those of the Costa, modified by limitation in transportation and storage availabilities. In rural areas poverty, isolation, and cultural prejudice limit the diet almost entirely to locally produced staples. People subsist principally on potatoes, wheat, barley, oats, and several indigenous cereals unknown outside of the Andes. The subsistence farms that supply most of the food seldom grow leafy vegetables or fruit. Many small farmers in the interior highlands keep a few chickens to sell eggs in the market. The statistically recorded meat consumption is marginal, but there is some slaughter of llamas and guinea pigs that are kept in most farm households.

In the Selva there is relatively little difference between urban and rural food consumption patterns among the acculturized population, although the variety of foods available is limited. Consumption of fruit per capita is high in Peru, and fish consumption per capita in Iquitos (on a major Amazon tributary) is twice that in Lima. The tribal population still obtains its food from hunting, fishing and gathering.

The coca leaf is an indispensable addictive dietary supplement for most of the Sierra inhabitants. It is rich in cocaine and relieves

hunger and thirst, and it is believed that it substantially increases the power of endurance.

Fragmentary data available indicated that during the 1960s, protein consumption was fairly adequate in number of grams but was badly deficient in proteins of animal origin. Protein consumption was reported to have declined from fifty-eight grams daily in 1963 to fifty-one grams in 1968, and the complete animal protein consumption was estimated to have been less than 20% of the total during both years. Fats and oil consumption was reported to have increased from forty-three grams daily in 1960 to fifty-six grams in 1966.

One study in late 1960s found that 75% of the population consumed nutriment at the rate of less than minimum nutritional levels; 28.5% had a consumption below generally accepted caloric standards, and 84.4% were under minimum recommended calcium intake levels.

In 1969 there were 30,600 hospital beds in Peru, about 2.4 per 1,000 population. The hospital-bed occupancy rate was highest in Lima and lowest in the small hospitals of the interior, where the indigenous population had not yet fully overcome their distrust of modern medicine. The proportion of hospital beds per unit of population available in Greater Lima was about three times that available in the rest of the country, and nearly 30% of the population lacked ready access to permanent hospital or outpatient facilities.

The two principal causes of death during the 1960's were pneumonia and other acute respiratory ailments, followed by dysentery and gastro-enteritis. Other causes were tuberculosis, diseases of early infancy, complications resulting from childbirth, other infectious and parasitic diseases, cancer, accidents, poison and acts of violence. In all, during the 1960's it was estimated that medical certificates were issued for less than 50% of all deaths. Cases of malaria, chagas, yellow fever have been reduced by extensive campaigns.

Today, the curandero, or traditional medical practitioner, is still a person of importance in rural Peru, and indigenous medical practices are still observed by much of the population in urban as well as in rural localities.

Besides the 233 general hospitals, there are 11 hospitals for mental treatment, 8 for tuberculosis, 2 for leprosy and 3 for other special purposes.

Education: Soon after taking over administration of the government in 1968, President Juan Velasco Alvarado announced a complete transformation of the educational system, emphasizing practical as opposed to academic education, indigenous language for instruction in rural schools, and elimination of most of the autonomy enjoyed by individual universities.

The primary and secondary schools are tuition-free, financed by the national treasury. Public universities have a sliding scale of fees, based on the students' ability to pay. The expenditures of the national budget allocated nearly one-third of the funds for 1971 and 1972 to education, in comparison to 18% in 1958, and 23% in 1967.

During the 1960's the primary enrollment gained at a rate almost twice that of the primary-age population in general, and secondary and higher education enrollments gained at still faster rates. Although the proportion of females in the enrollment was increasing at all levels, it remained well below the average for males. Co-education was increasing, but a tradition of segregated schooling was reflected in some resistance to mixing of the student bodies, particularly in rural communities. In the late 1960's, it was estimated that in the departments (provinces) where 70% or more of the population was rural, 50% or more of the school age children did not attend school.

The percentage of females in educational institutions was as follows:

primary	1968	46%
secondary	1968	40%
teacher's colleges	1966	60%
universities	1965	29%

Estimates of literacy rate over the age of fifteen in 1970 encompass a span between 77% and 45%. The 1961 census figure was 61%, in the 1940 census it was 43%. The 1961 census showed that 87% of the urban and 40% of the rural population were literate, and that rates for males and females were 74% and 43% respectively. The highest rate of literacy was 91% for urban males and the lowest was 23% for rural females.

In the mid-1960s, women teachers outnumbered men by almost two to one in the primary schools, but at the secondary level and in teachers' colleges, male instructors were a two to one majority.

### Social Organization

As in most less developed countries, the family is the basic social unit in Peru. The strong family tradition comes from both Hispanic and Indian cultures, but sex-role stereotypes in the two cultures vary.

In the Hispanic tradition, there is: "machismo" - dominance and worldly freedom for the male; and passivity, submission, abnegation

and spirituality for the female. These patterns are now beginning to change, but the structure is still highly patriarchal. Husbands make major decisions, while wives make only those decisions related to day-to-day household affairs.

The Indian marriage shows more equality. It is based on contribution to the social unit, rather than personality ideals. Wives contribute heavily to a family's economic well-being, through agricultural work and marketing, sometimes handicraft production, as well as domestic work. They participate in decision-making in all matters affecting the family, and may even have the final say in some areas.

There is currently a high degree of awareness about women among Peruvian private and public agencies. Most of the programming directed towards women is traditional, such as teaching handicrafts and nutrition. However, there are other activities as well. The Ministry of Agriculture has created ACOMUC (Association for Cooperation with Campesino Women), an organization aimed to promote the status and well-being of campesino women. The movement for Rights of Women is a private sector organization, and has received attention for its protests against beauty contests and its work towards promoting legislative reform. Some women's organizations are working to promote civic participation by women in the 1978 elections. The government's national development plan, "Tupac Amarc", issued in 1977, includes a section on women which mentions following policies: facilitate access of women to training programs and formal education; modify the Civil Code and laws which limit women's rights; further participation of women in different levels of decision-making. The government has issued a policy on population which facilitates birth control services for women. Most population programs also include some informal training in maternal and child health, and family life. All of these activities tend to create a favorable climate for working with women.

The status and role of women in Peru vary with the culture and social class of the individual. Women's access to higher education is improving greatly. The greatest involvement in economic life is found among poorer, lower class women. Almost all working women, including university trained women, tend to cluster in traditional "female" professions such as market vendor, domestic servant, clerical work, nursing, the humanities. Legally, married women have the same status as children -- they cannot own things in their own name, do not have access to credit, etc. However, women obtained the right to vote in 1955.

Women make up about 69% of all illiterates in Peru. Women's health tends to be poorer than that of men. Some protective legislation works to the disadvantage of women: for example, generous maternity benefits provided through the social security system lead employers to hire fewer women and to replace with men those women who leave work. In general, it may be said that women are less fully integrated into the formal sector of society and have fewer opportunities for training education, and employment than do men.

### Basic Human Needs

**Clothing:** Among the Mestizos, the usual clothing is purchased ready-to-wear or is made at home with purchased cloth. The Indians dress in degrees of native attire. Indian men show more Western influence than their spouses. Men wear homespun trousers, white shirt and a dark knitted wool vest and ponchos for colder months. The women's clothing is also spun at home, including an embroidered blouse of heavy cotton, a short jacket and multiple knee length wool skirts of contrasting colors. A multipurpose shawl is indispensable and is used for carrying children or articles on the back. Both sexes wear distinctive felt hats, which in shape, color and decoration may identify the origin of the wearer. Adults and children wear sandals or go barefoot, apparently without discomfort from the cold of high altitudes.

**Housing:** As in all less developed countries there is a shortage of housing, especially for low-income and poor people. In 1966 it was estimated that 110,000 new housing units would be needed annually during the ensuing twenty years in order to meet the existing shortage and future demands.

A study found that during the mid-1960's some 85% of the peasant houses in the Sierra and 65% of those in the Costa were substandard. More than two-thirds of the floors were pounded earth, slightly over half had thatched roofs.

As a consequence of urban growth during the 1970's the housing shortage has been at its most extreme in Lima and other major urban centers. A survey conducted by the Inter-American Development Bank in 1971, however, found that occupants of certain tenements regarded homeownership as a goal that was a distant fourth after better environmental facilities, better educational opportunities for their children, and better employment openings.

Squatter settlements that spring up overnight are known as "pueblos juvenes". Often the original dwelling does not even have a roof because in the rainless Costa area it is not an immediate necessity. This structure is quickly replaced by a more substantial dwelling, and in time, streets, water and electricity follow. Even in the high and middle income neighborhoods construction is geared to an area of frequent earthquakes.

Public housing programs of the 1960's tended to provide units that were too expensive for the poor. The Revolutionary Government adopted a policy of confining construction activity to pilot projects and leaving the bulk of housing investment to the private sector.

### Service Agencies

The "Consejo Nacional de Mujeres del Peru" has 102 chapters with 467 members total. Its achievements include changing the Peruvian law pertaining to the right of spouses to make decisions about their common wealth.

ACOMUC - "Asociacion de Cooperacion con la Mujer Campesina" was established in 1976 as part of the national plan to promote base-level organizations established by the agrarian reform. The purpose of ACOMUC is to channel the organization and training of rural peasant women so that they may be incorporated into the economic, political and social life of the community. The three major priorities of ACOMUC are: 1) to establish an adequate structure for ACOMUC at the local, regional and national levels; 2) promote participation of women in local agricultural organizations; 3) training. It is also involved in developing new sources of employment and promoting social services.

ACOMUC has local-level organizations throughout Peru and state-level affiliates in each of the 14 agrarian zones, and is headquartered in Lima. ACOMUC works to coordinate the Ministry of Agriculture personnel and resources with its efforts to promote rural women who are loosely affiliated with the agrarian reform men's organizations: Sociedades Agricolas de Interes Social, Cooperatives Agricolas de Produccion.

The "Movimiento Derechos de la Mujer" promotes information and recognition of women's rights

The "Secretariado Nacional de Instituciones Privadas de Bienestar Social" has activities that include child care, health care, social and community development, and education of women for a better community.

The "Equipo para el Desarrollo Humano" works in squatter settlements in the southern area of greater Lima. It is providing health services and training women in handicrafts as an income-generation project.

The "Centro de Capacitacion y Promocion Familiar" has been working in family planning in Lima squatter settlements. It is training female health promoters who are residents of the squatter settlements, to promote health-related community development projects in their communities. The organization is establishing a radio campaign to disseminate information about health.

The Accion Comunitaria del Peru is another organization that has worked in the squatter settlements of Lima to promote community development.

The "Comite en Pro de Rehabilitacion de Menores" is an organization which rehabilitates delinquent youths and those in difficult family situations. It was established by the agrarian reform,

American voluntary agencies are active in Peru, as well as about 40 church sponsored organizations. US organizations include the American Red Cross, CARE, Foster Parents Plan, the Ford Foundation, the Heifer Project, OXFAM-America, Pan American Development Foundation, Planned Parenthood, Project Hope, and Save the Children/Community Development Foundation.

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## JORDAN

### Geography

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan covers about 95,000 square kilometers in the upper northwestern part of the Arabian peninsula. Its main topographical divisions are an arid desert area to the east and a series of lightly forested highlands to the west, which are cut by the deep Jordan River Valley. The climate in the highlands is a dry variant of the Mediterranean pattern; and the desert climate is similar to that of the surrounding Arabian and Syrian deserts. Rainfall is very light, with an average of 400 millimeters per year in the highlands, 200 in the valley and less than 50 in the desert.

Few natural resources have been found in Jordan. Despite extensive exploration, no petroleum has been located. There is some copper, manganese and high-grade iron ore, but there is no commercial exploitation of these metals. Exploitable phosphate reserves have been found, and increased phosphate exportation revenues have played an important role in Jordan's finances during the mid-1970's.

In 1973 more than 80% of Jordan's land was not suitable for cultivation as it is too arid. Lowland area south of Yarmuk River to the northern end of the Dead Sea is intensely cultivated through irrigation from the East Ghor Canal, paralleling the Jordan River. In 1965 the great majority of farms were owner-operated. The land tenure is hereditary and conform to the Ottoman Land Code of 1856 (a Muslim code).

Almost all industries are located in the Irbid-Amman-Az Zarqua areas.

### Population

The estimated population of Jordan as of mid 1977 was 2.9 million. During the period 1970-74 there was an estimated annual population growth rate of 3.32%, resulting from an estimated birth rate of 46.8 per 1000 population and a death rate of 14.5 per 1,000. If maintained, such a population growth leads to a doubling in 22 years. Life expectancy at birth in 1972 for males was 59.1 and for females was 57.4, with a gain in life expectancy of about one year per annum during the 1960's.

Infant mortality rates have also declined noticeably in recent years. The current rate is estimated to be in a range of 90-100 per 1,000 live births, as opposed to a 1961 range of 150-160.

The population of the East Bank (90% of the total) is largely confined to a quarter of the total land area, along the western highlands and in the Jordan Valley. Population density in these areas is an estimated 273 persons per square mile. Scattered nomads or semi-nomadic groups inhabit the desert areas, with a density of three persons per square mile.

Jordan, unlike many less developed countries, is predominantly urbanized. It is now 70% urban as compared to 44% in 1961. The three largest areas, Amman, Zarqa and Irbid, account for six of every ten residents, and Amman alone accounts for three of every ten. During the past twenty years Amman has grown three times as fast as the rest of Jordan.

Over half of Jordan's population (51.2%) is under 15 years of age, with 36.8% between 15 and 44 years, and 12% over 44. The pre-school age group (0-4 years) constitutes about 22% of the total population. Women in child bearing ages (15-44) represent roughly one-fifth of the population. Women in the child-bearing age and children under 5 years thus constitute about 41% of the population.

Labor outflow to other countries is thought to be in the range of 30% of labor supply in the occupational categories requiring university training, and in the technical and sub-professional occupations requiring two years of post-secondary training. As many as 5,000 working age males are thought to have emigrated in 1975. Women (educated) do not emigrate in such a large proportion.

### Government

Jordan is a constitutional monarchy, and as such King Hussein I is a constitutional monarch. The Bicameral National Assembly is composed of a Senate whose members are appointed by the King, and the House of Representatives whose members are elected by direct suffrage. Jordanian women received the right to vote in April 1974.

Since independence in 1948 Jordan has generally followed a pro-western foreign policy. Diplomatic relations with the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics were established in 1963.

There are indications, according to US AID considerations, that the Government of Jordan is concerned about and is attempting to improve the quality of life of the low income majority. It has plans for irrigation projects. AID cooperates with a village

development project and assists the Farmers Association. In 1977 Government of Jordan made a decision to revise existing health services delivery patterns by focusing greater attention on primary level prevention and promotion services to population groups considered most at risk.

The Jordanian government seems committed to women's progress. Specifically for the purpose of increasing women's participation in all aspects of the economy at the national level, a symposium sponsored by the Ministry of Labor and chaired by the Crown Prince was held in Amman, April 4-7, 1976. The Ministry of Labor consequently established a Department of Women's Affairs to carry out the 55 Resolutions adopted at the symposium.

#### Economy

Prior to 1948 Jordan (known as Trans Jordan at the time) was a country of primitive agriculture, extensive nomadism and minimal industry. In the decade prior to 1967, however, economic growth was recorded at an annual level slightly over 10%. The real economic growth in 1976 was estimated at almost 7%. Jordan's real per capita income in 1976 was U.S. \$360, slightly lower than it had been in 1966. Given the events of the 1967-76 decade, Jordan's maintenance of its standard of living reflects both the adoption of effective economic policies and the mobilization of foreign resources. The 1976 budget projected that 40% of recurring expenditures would be financed by foreign assistance, primarily from the U.S., Saudi Arabia and Kuwait.

An ambitious 1976-80 Development Plan calls for 12% real growth annually, and \$2.3 billion in private and public sector investment concentrated in agriculture, mining, manufacturing, tourism, and transportation. One percent of planned investment resources is allocated to the health sector.

Jordan is essentially a free market country. Its economy is characterized by comparative poverty of the private sector, and needs heavy investments to provide effective irrigation, transport and electric power.

<u>Sector</u>	<u>Percentage of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) 1960-1973</u>
Agriculture	18.8%
Manufacturing	10.4
Construction	5.1
Transportation and Communications	9.0
Trade	21.7
Public Administration and Defense	17.1

Unlike many less developed countries, Jordan's agricultural sector is small, comprising 10.3 percent of output in 1975, and utilizing 23 percent of the labor force. The country's agricultural potential is modest, lacking as it does abundant rainfall and large areas of fertile land. The Jordan Valley however, is a large and important food producing area.

Inflation became a serious problem in the mid-1970's. The cost of living index in Amman registered 20% annual increases in 1974 and 1975. Manpower shortages have led to rapidly rising wages (albeit starting from a very low base) in the private sector, and have added to already existing inflationary pressures. The housing demand exceeds supply, and therefore, has increased construction costs. Rising food prices, and large land speculation profits compete for a limited supply of consumer goods.

There is virtually no unemployment in Jordan. A study of the labor force in Jordan estimated that 382,000 persons (19.6%) of the (East Bank) population are participants in the labor force. The low participation is due to three factors: (a) 50% of the population is less than 15 years old, (b) limited role of women in the economy, and (c) male workers are drawn off to oil states. Gradually young women are entering the domestic market in larger numbers, but it is still common for them to stop working when they marry.

Jordan has one of the lowest percentages of economically active female populations in the world. Of 98 countries worldwide, Jordan ranked 94th with 5.91% of the female population engaged in economic production of goods or services.

Bedouin and rural women are not considered part of the labor force because their work is confined to families, but they are, in fact, a most important part of the informal sector. Their work includes agriculture, taking care of livestock, selling domestically produced butter and yogurt in neighboring towns, weaving rugs and embroidery.

The following table gives data on female participation in the labor force of Jordan:

Economic Activity of Women, Jordan, (1961)

<u>Sector, by Occupation</u>	<u>Index of Femaleness (a)</u>	<u>Distribution Index (b)</u>
professional and technical work	30.46%	22.77%
administrative and managerial work	0.83	0.09
clerical work	5.81	4.32
sales work	0.76	0.94
service work	11.43	12.19
agriculture and related work	5.12	33.00
production and related work	4.06	26.69

Sector, by Industry

agriculture and related industries	5.14%	33.39%
mining and quarrying	0.05	0.02
manufacturing	15.82	24.43
electricity, gas, water and sanitary services	0.89	0.07
construction	0.09	0.17
commerce	1.26	1.87
transport, storage and communication	1.14	0.64
service	8.44	39.40

(a) Index for Femaleness is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of laborers both male and female in that same category; for example, it shows the percentage of women who are in the agricultural labor force.

(b) The Distribution Index is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of females in all categories;\* the total of the distribution index figures may not be 100% due to rounding.

\*for example it shows the percentage of women employed in agriculture within the total female labor force.

## Service Sector

**Health:** Improving standards of living in Jordan over the past few decades has been accompanied by a general improvement in the nutrition status of children.

A recent examination of public hospital admission records, however, did indicate that twenty percent of children admitted were actually suffering from malnutrition, even though more readily identifiable accompanying conditions tended to be recorded. Contributory factors are thought to include early weaning to non pasteurized cow's milk, prolonged breast feeding with little or no supplementation, lack of health and nutrition knowledge on the part of mothers, unpotable water, and poor sanitation facilities. The Government does not have a focal point for nutrition concerns, which might foster a shared view among the several relevant public and private agencies. Without such a policy consensus, the remaining "hard core" of malnutrition in Jordan is likely to be affected very slowly by further socio-economic advances.

The initial access points to health care for the poor majority of Jordan's population are the Kingdom's 82 urban and 250 rural clinics. The full time staff in these clinics are assistant nurses, (usually male), to whom minimal serious responsibilities are delegated. And yet there is tremendous potential at this level of the health care system for the effecting of improvements in the country's health care status through such activities as simple curative services, health education, especially in hygiene and nutrition, simple case-finding, maternal and child health outreach, environmental sanitation work and vital statistics reporting. The current assistant nurse cadre could be upgraded or a new auxiliary cadre could be created; whatever alternative is followed, the need to extend the work of physicians and nurses, through the recognition of an important new component of the health care team is clear.

There are only half as many registered nurses in Jordan as there are practicing physicians. Active recruitment programs designed to attract students to the country's several nursing schools, continue to encounter the traditional unacceptability in Muslim societies of females attending to physical needs of males who are not members of their own families. Changes in this attitudinal structure cannot be expected to be rapid.

Ministries of Health in developing countries are usually weakly - managed organizations with minimal prestige and bargaining power among their countries' socio-economic planning communities. Jordan's has been no exception. But the Ministry of Health (MOH) with greatly improved organizational arrangements and management capability, could play a critical role in the country's development process. Effective MOH efforts towards the reduction of infant

mortality, for example, could lead to a fertility rate reduction and thus to a more favorable dependency ratio among the population, as well to a lower bite out of the national budget for social services expenditures.

Jordan's contiguity with Israel is the overwhelming fact of the Kingdom's geopolitical life. The East, West and oil-rich Arab states continue to pour resources into the development and maintenance of Jordan's military capability. A genuine middle East settlement could permit the diversion of some of these aid flows to health concerns, and would certainly lead to an increase in the \$10 per person per year now available for public expenditures on the health sector.

Nineteen seventy-five data shows that tuberculosis, measles, meningitis, malaria, typhoid and infectious hepatitis are the most frequently occurring diseases.

In 1976 the infant mortality rate was reported to be 11 per 1000 live births. However, as in most less developing countries, the recorded infant mortality rate are lower because of underreporting. Health officials and other informed estimates put the actual figure in the range of 90 to 100 deaths per 1000 live births.

The major causes of infant mortality are: gastro-enteritis and diseases of the respiratory system. Prenatal mortality in 1974 was 16% of the total infant mortality.

For children between the age of one and five years, the major killers, again, are diseases of gastro-enteritis group, and of the respiratory system. Accidents and injuries are other known causes and follow next as major killers.

Recorded major nutritional deficiencies in Jordan are: signs of protein-calorie malnutrition and growth retardation in infants and young children; continued low rate of growth in late childhood and adolescence; low blood concentrations of Vitamin A; low urinary excretions of thiamine and riboflavin.

There are an estimated 80 centers in Jordan for services for mother and children. Estimated 50% of these centers are located in towns with population of 10,000 and the rest in small communities.

The Jordanian Ministry of Labor, and Cooperative for American Relief Everywhere operate approximately 102 child feeding centers, and the Ministry of Education has a school feeding program. Other agencies distribute corn-soya milk and dried skim milk. It is noted that all these programs suffer from lack of coordination.

In 1971 the Jordanian Public Health Law authorized several services such as public health nursing, nutrition towards

improvement of health and nutrition services. However, as far as available literature indicate none of these have yet been started, perhaps due to a dearth of trained personnel.

Education: Jordanian legislation has allowed equal opportunities in education for all. Grades 1 - 9 are compulsory, but enrollment is limited by the government's ability to provide facilities. Schools are located throughout the nation, even in rather isolated spots. Males and females work together in farming in rural areas, but agricultural courses are intended for males only.

In the preparatory cycle (7th, 8th, 9th grades) academic subjects are taught plus at least one vocational course for each grade. There are both academic and vocational programs at secondary school level - academic for those destined for university; vocational to train middle-level technical personnel. Nearly 20% of secondary school students in 1976 were receiving vocational training. There is an effort to increase this to 30% by 1980. So far very few women have selected specialization in purely vocational or scientific fields.

#### Social Organization

Social life in Jordan centers around the family. An individual's loyalty to the family comes first and overrides most other obligations. Since the family is the most important social unit, the society assumes that all persons will marry when they reach an appropriate age. A household survey in 1972 yielded the following data:

<u>Ages</u>	<u>% married (women)</u>
15-19	30
20-24	73
25-29	93

Only 2% of women in the sample ages 40 - 44 had never been married.

Traditionally, in the Jordanian society, decision making authority rests with males. In some areas of the country there is a further tradition of bestowing adult status on married men only, and often only on fathers.

As noted above in this report both male and female children legally have an equal opportunity for education. But the legal provisions for receiving family living allowances exclude female

government employees most of whom are in the Ministry of Education.

At the University of Jordan, for example, medical insurance does not cover family members supported by a female employee.

Jordanian legislation condemns child labor. In practice, as in most less developed countries, some children do work to supplement family income.

#### Basic Human Needs

**Food:** The staple food in Jordan is wheat bread. The price of bread is regulated by government support. Almost 80% of the wheat needed per annum is imported and, discussions have been under way about a domestic wheat pricing policy.

Majority of rural Jordanians eat meat only on special occasions. Since 90% of the country is Islamic pork is taboo. Cheese, fruit, vegetables, and yogurt supplement the diet. As everywhere else in the world, there is a wider variety in foods eaten by the city residents.

Jordan is dependent on imported food supply, but exports fruits and vegetables. In 1974-75 fruits and vegetables comprised 25% of total exports from the country.

Breast feeding of infants is a common practice in Jordan. The weaning diet mostly consists of unpasteurized cow's milk.

**Clothing:** Locally manufactured clothing is readily available in Jordan.

**Housing:** As in all countries of the world, and especially so in the less developed countries, there is an inadequate supply of houses in Jordan. The government has organized a housing corporation to provide credit for residential construction in both private and public sector. However, the corporation's credit regulation do not meet the needs of the low-income families.

#### Service Agencies

The importance of women volunteers in urban Jordan is noticed and Jordanian society has urged females to do voluntary work. The voluntary charitable organizations offer traditional and vocational

training, make financial contributions, to assist nurseries, centers for eradication of illiteracy, and old age centers. Over 90% of nurseries in Jordan belong to charitable associations that offer services to Jordanian children below 6 at nominal fees.

Some Jordanian national welfare agencies are: the Women's Union in Jordan, the Jordan Family Planning Association, Jordanian Rural Development Society, Al-Husseïn Child Welfare Society, Jordan Red Crescent, Ladies of the White Bed Society.

The following international development agencies are engaged in work in Jordan: United Nations, Caritas, CARE, Near East Foundation, the International Red Cross, and YWCA and YWMA (Young Women's Moslem Association).

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## KOREA

### Geography

The Republic of Korea (South Korea) was created under the auspices of the United Nations in 1948 after almost forty years of Japanese rule. It occupies the southern portion of a peninsula projecting from the northeast rim of the Asian mainland between the Yellow Sea and Sea of Japan. This position for centuries has given the area strategic importance in the rivalries among various foreign powers.

Roughly three-fourths of the land area is mountainous. The comparatively modest amount of poor but arable land is intensively cultivated in small farms. There are long, cold, dry winters and short, hot, humid summers. Mineral, energy and forest resources are very limited; rainfall is ample.

A high percentage of the population has traditionally engaged in agriculture, and since agricultural resources are widely scattered, the settlement pattern is widely dispersed. People occupy virtually all the land that is reasonably level, and plains that are capable of supporting people are densely settled. At strategic points where transportation intersects, large cities have developed, such as Seoul and Pusan.

For the most part farm people live in small villages of ten to forty houses situated relatively close together and forming definable residential areas. In relation to its population, Korea has few cities. Unlike western cities, South Korean cities include large areas of rural farmlands within their jurisdiction.

### Population

Koreans form a single ethnic group, with common physical characteristics, language, culture and feeling of unity, although regional differences do exist.

The population growth rate has been declining gradually, a trend attributed to the rising standard of living, increased levels of education, improved family planning projects, and the legalization of abortion. The average annual population growth rate declined from a high of 2.7% in 1966 to 1.9% in 1970, and was estimated at between 1.7 and 1.8 in early 1974. With limited resources and arable land, South Korea supports a population of over 33 million (1974) with a density of over 830 people per square mile in 1970 and a much higher

density per square mile of cultivated land. The country is one of the most densely populated in Asia.

In 1970 about 60% of the total population was under the age of 25. The national sex ratio was 100 females to every 100.79 males. The ratio of males to females was slightly lower in urban areas. In Seoul the ratio was 100 females to every 99.97 males. The structure of the urban population also differed in that the percentage of males between the ages of 25-40 was higher and the percentage of males over 60 was lower in urban than in rural areas.

In the estimates for 1973, the birthrate was 28 per 1,000 and the death rate was between 8 and 9 per 1,000. Life expectancy was about 65 years in the early 1970s.

Seoul, with a population of over 6.4 million in 1974, is the heart of South Korea. It is the center of major industries, the site of highly centralized political power, and the goal of migrants. The city's rapid growth has created problems of congestion and shortages of housing and sanitary facilities. Pusan, the second largest city, had a population of 1.9 million in 1970.

### Government

The government of President Park Chung Hee has ruled the country since a military coup in 1961. He has insisted on a formula that claims to cope with the reality of Korean history, and includes Park's unlimited tenure in office and other measures that have been the target of strong criticism both at home and abroad. His government achieved a momentum of economic growth in the earlier period which it has had difficulty maintaining. There is a centralized presidential form of government with nominal division of the state powers into the executive, legislative and judicial branches. Armed forces have been the principal source of power.

South Korea is not a member of the United Nations, but is admitted to various specialized agencies of the U.N. It is a member of several regional organizations. It is a recipient of aid from the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and the World Bank, and bilateral aid from various foreign countries.

The armed forces are supervised by the Ministry of National Defense, but operationally are under the control of the commander of the United Nations forces in Korea, who is a senior United States military officer.

### Economy

The Korean government has managed the economy since 1961 as an integral and vital part of a garrison state. A strong economy was seen as an indispensable part of the country's posture in relation to the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea). The results of this policy have been remarkable economic development. In the 1961-73 period the country achieved an average annual increase in Gross National Product (GNP) of over 10% in real terms. Economic development was hindered by lack of natural resources, thus Korea relied on foreign resources, credit and world trade.

A rapid increase in per capita income came mainly from large gains in industrial output, but was also facilitated by a sharp decline in the rate of population growth. This rapid economic growth has generated many strains in the economy. The gap between domestic saving and investment has widened, as have the disparities between urban and rural living conditions. The energy crisis of 1973-74 hit Korea severely. The slackening of Japanese growth had serious repercussions on the South Korean economy because Japan is South Korea's most important trade partner and source of foreign capital.

In the early 1970's the primary sector of the economy was agriculture, fishing and forestry, which generated about 25% of the GNP and absorbed about 51% of the labor force. In contrast, the secondary sector of manufacturing, mining, power and construction accounted for 33% of the GNP and 18% of the labor force. In 1973 the first sector contributed 23% to the GNP and the second sector rose to 37%. These changes continued a trend of marked changes in employment patterns.

The very rapid development, beginning in 1963 and intensifying in 1967, drew into productive employment a substantial proportion of South Korea's abundant, low-cost, educated, disciplined and industrious labor force. Official data suggests that the overall growth in employment from 1963 to 1973 was 2.3% a year. The rate of registered unemployment declined from 8.1% (1963) to 4.5% (1973). There is some evidence, however, that these statistics exaggerate the true picture. Unofficial estimates of urban unemployment in 1974 were at least 11%. Underemployment was concealed in the official figures since anyone who worked for pay for at least one hour a week was counted as employed.

Female participation in the Korean labor force is 33.58%.  
The following chart shows present data on female participation:

Economic Activity of Women, South Korea (1971)

<u>Sector, by Occupation</u>	<u>Index of Femaleness (a)</u>	<u>Distribution Index (b)</u>
professional and technical work	22.97%	3.07%
administrative and managerial work	1.52	0.03
clerical work	16.96	3.75
sales work	41.08	16.75
service work	59.15	15.12
agriculture and related work	34.44	49.92
production and related work	23.21	11.36

Sector, by Industry

agriculture and related industries	42.22%	54.73%
mining and quarrying	13.98	0.36
manufacturing	35.13	12.86
electrical, gas, water and sanitation		
service	7.23	0.08
construction	2.98	0.27
commerce	43.95	18.68
transport, storage and communication	8.04	0.82
service	31.12	12.20

(a) The Index for femaleness is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of laborers, both male and female, in that same category; for example, it shows the percentage of women who are in the agricultural labor force.

(b) The Distribution Index is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of females in all categories; the total of the distribution index figures may not be 100% due to rounding.

\*for example, it shows the percentage of women employed in agriculture within the total female labor force.

### Social Sector

**Health and Nutrition:** Traditionally, medical care has been the concern of the family, and belief in spirits provides the basis for an understanding of disease. Such beliefs and related practices are still prevalent in rural areas today. Popular medical practices also draw on an ancient system of mixed origins called *hanyak* using herbs and acupuncture. Continued reliance on traditional medicine has been reinforced by the lack of access to modern facilities.

Koreans have long been subject to diseases resulting from overcrowding, inadequate nutrition, inferior sanitary facilities and poor hygiene. In the early 1970's, tuberculosis continued to be the most widespread disease and principal cause of death. Other diseases included cholera, typhoid, dysentery, leprosy, diphtheria, whooping cough, measles, mumps, malaria and venereal diseases. Surveys have shown that over 80% of the population carried one or more of several types of intestinal parasites.

In a survey in the early 1970's, Seoul was found to be the most air-polluted city in the world. The study also found that about 35% of the population of Seoul suffered from respiratory diseases related to the level of air quality.

Life expectancy in 1967 was 64.7 years for women, 52.0 for men. In the early 1970's this had increased to 67 for women and 63 for men. The death rate was estimated at between 8 and 9 per 1000 in 1973. The infant mortality rate was about 60 per 1,000 live births in 1971, a decrease of about 12% over the rate of 67.9 per 1,000 live births in 1961.

The shortage of medical personnel has progressively worsened and has been a major obstacle to the improvement of public health. Annual increases in medical personnel have been counter-balanced by population growth and "brain-drain" migration of trained persons abroad. It was estimated that in 1972 there were at least 500 doctors and dentists practicing outside the country. The 1972 statistics indicated a national average of one doctor for every 2,000 people, but distribution throughout the country was not equal. About half the medical personnel was concentrated in Seoul.

Medical facilities also failed to meet national needs. Of the 278 general hospitals in 1972, the majority were private institutions. The total number of beds provided by all facilities was 19,828 or 631 beds per 100,000 population.

Food consumption varies in quantity and composition from class to class, season to season, and rural to urban. Total food consumption has increased as a result of population growth, industrialization, urbanization, rising incomes and improved diets.

The average diet in South Korea is high in starch and low in animal protein, fats, calcium and vitamins. The bulk of the protein and nutrient fats is provided by soybeans and fish, fats are also supplied by sesame seeds, pine seeds and peanut oil. Vitamins and minerals are supplied by fruit and vegetables.

Rice is the basic diet, and is a symbol of good living - to have eaten rice is to have eaten well. When there is not enough rice to go around in a household, it is given to the men. Women of poorer families may taste rice only on New Year's Day and on their birthdays. Other grains used are wheat, millet, buckwheat and barley. Rice imports have been required since the late 1960's. Since 1971 the government has actively promoted the substitution of barley for rice.

White potatoes, cabbage, radishes, turnips, hot peppers, leeks and beans are universally eaten vegetables and of secondary importance are cucumbers, sweet potatoes, pumpkins, onions and sorghum. Corn and carrots are occasionally used. Fruit are prized in season, the most common being persimmons, peaches, pears, melons, apples and berries. Nuts are also common.

Fish - fresh, salted, dried, cooked or raw - is eaten throughout the country. Meat and fowl are too expensive for general consumption. Eggs are a delicacy enjoyed by the average person only on holidays.

Water is the main beverage. Hot rice tea is taken after all regular meals. Tea is used only as a special treat in tea-and-cake shops. Coffee was introduced by Americans and is used to some extent. Alcoholic beverages are made from wheat and rice mash, and are taken as appetizers. Most alcoholic drinking is done by men.

### Education

Since the latter part of the 19th century, the goals, methods and context of Korean education have been changing because of the introduction of educational systems from outside the country and the demands of economic development. All systems, whether introduced by the Christian missionaries, the Japanese, or the Americans, have militated in whole or in part against the traditional educational pattern based on Confucianism.

Women have traditionally been excluded from the educational system, and today their participation is still low. In the early 1970's female students made up barely 40% of high school and 24% of higher education enrollments. In 1960, women were 72.2% of all the illiterate population, ranking Korea tenth highest among 94 countries.

The regular school system consists of 6-year primary schools for children 6-11 years old; 3-year middle schools both liberal arts and vocational for 12-14 year olds; and 3-year high schools, both liberal arts and vocational, for 15-18 year olds. Higher education is provided at junior, 4-year and technical colleges and at universities and graduate schools.

Elementary education is compulsory and free. Although additional primary classroom space is under construction, the government estimates indicated that there was a shortage of about 3,000 classrooms in 1973. Classes averaged 60 students. In 1973, approximately 40% of the middle school students were in private schools. The total number of students in middle schools constituted about 60% of the middle school age-group. Female students accounted for 42% of the enrollment in liberal arts high schools, and 30% in the vocational high schools.

Women constituted 24% of college and university enrollment (1973) and were concentrated in liberal arts study rather than professional courses.

### Social Organization

In the 20th century, Korea has undergone thirty-six years of exploitive colonial domination, a disastrous civil war, and virtually continuous political upheaval. During this time, it has changed from the feudalistic, sedentary, agrarian, rural society of the Yi dynasty, into a highly mobile, urbanized, industrialized society. Through all this, however, the thread of traditional kinship loyalties has remained a powerful, though not always all encompassing, influence in modern times.

Traditional kinship patterns were pervasive and entirely male-dominated; lineage was traced through a single male ancestor; a woman was forever separated from her parental lineage at her marriage; a woman who had conceived only daughters was considered barren. The other important unit in traditional society was the community. Members of a village had a feeling of communality, cooperated in their agricultural tasks, offered mutual assistance in times of crisis, operated as political units, and formed the basis of almost all social contacts other than those resulting from kinship ties.

Reforms and outside influences began changing these traditional patterns in the last decade of the 19th century. Christian missionaries attacked Confucianist ethics underlying the family structure. Education for both sexes was reorganized by the Japanese, and resulted, to some extent, in economic independence. This, together with novel ideas of the importance of the individual, led to an increase in marriage by choice rather than by parental arrangement. The land tenure system introduced by the Japanese changed the rural economy.

so that traditional landlord-tenant and father-son relationships were no longer supported. Young people fled to the cities to form the industrial labor pool.

As urban middle class began to emerge, western dress became more prevalent. Laws were passed permitting private ownership of property, something previously reserved to the family as a whole. Metropolitan population increased by almost 224% during the 1955-70 period.

Some young migrants arrive in the city without family ties. They find few social institutions of social control or guidance to replace the ones they left behind. But many migrants come to the city as a family unit, or join other family or clan members already residing there. They tend to retain loyalties to traditional kin ties, and are the most successful migrants.

Today, occupation, wealth and education are the principal determinants of social status. Having proper connections is an extremely important factor in finding opportunities for upward mobility and thus while the social stratification of the Yi dynasty has lost all importance in such matters, traditional ties of kinship have not.

Changes in family structure have been particularly fundamental. Traditionally, marriage served for the procreation of as many children as possible - preferably male. However, the ideal family, according to a study in 1960s of the urban middle class, was two sons and one daughter. Marriage is no longer arranged by the parents although they do exercise some authority in approving or disapproving their child's choice of spouse. Attitudes towards divorce and remarriage are also changing albeit quite slowly.

Corresponding to the changes in family structure have been changes in the status of women. Education, once the sole prerogative of men, has been opened to women, resulting in considerable independence. Polygyny is no longer legal, although it persists in some rural communities. The rate of divorce is growing, another indication of the greater independence of women.

Nevertheless, a number of discriminatory laws remain: the father has custody of the children; women have no right to property distribution in divorce proceedings; a husband can legally register an illegitimate child as his own and his wife's without her consent; a wife and daughter can inherit only half as much property of a deceased father or husband as the son and when a daughter marries, her maximum share drops to one-fourth. There is a growing female consciousness in South Korea, urging that these legal barriers to equality be removed.

### Basic Human Needs

**Clothing:** Since World War II clothing styles have changed considerably in Korea. The women's traditional costume is reserved now by most women for formal affairs. Particularly in larger cities and among younger and educated women, Western dress is common. Most men wear loose cotton trousers with shirts and jackets, but on ceremonial occasions they wear traditional long, flowing coats. Western-style shoes of leather and synthetics have replaced traditional straw sandals and cloth slippers.

**Housing:** An acute shortage of housing has been a major social and economic problem for many years. The shortage was compounded by the Korean War and has been further aggravated by population growth, massive migration, and the growing tendency for newly-married couples to form households of their own.

In the early 1970's 12-16% of the more than 5 million residents of Seoul lived in temporary slum shelters illegally built on public or private land.

The typical Korean house is a one storied structure made of brick, stone or cement block, covered with stucco made with clay and straw. The floors are made of stone or clay over which polished paper is laid. The roof is rice straw thatch or tile. Glass windows are becoming more common, but most houses use frames covered with rice paper for windows and sliding doors. A minimum space of about 70 square feet is considered desirable by most South Korean housing analysts; roughly half of the population lived in housing units offering considerably less than this minimum.

Dwellings have a heating system consisting of flues running under the floor, channeling hot air from a cookstove or fire. Only the upper class homes and some urban apartments had kitchens with piped hot water, refrigerators, and electric or gas stoves. A 1970 census reported that not quite 50% of all houses had electricity, about 92% homes with electricity in urban areas and about 29% homes in rural areas.

Sanitation problems and high levels of pollution seriously complicate efforts at improving public health. In 1971, 36% of the population had access to water via modern, chemically treated systems. The remainder relied on rivers, springs and wells. Flush toilets are found in affluent urban areas and newer apartments, but elsewhere they are an exception.

Service Agencies

The Korean Women's Association promotes home life through education on clothing, diet, housing, child care and health, public health, home economics, family planning, disease prevention, etc. It has consumer protection projects, and publishes a monthly publication on that subject. It has a legal counselling division to promote the protection of women's rights. It established a Diet Reform Campaign to promote food economy and to introduce 'new' foods in the diet.

The National Council of Women of the Republic of Korea works for enhancing women's status and participation in the society. It provides training for leaders in rural development, and helps needy women.

The Korean Association of University Women awards scholarships and fellowships to women for advanced education.

The YWCA of Korea has 18 local associations and 35 student associations. It is active in formal and informal education, with special emphasis on health and recreation, welfare of working girls, family planning, consumer education and protection, promotion of the legal status of women leadership training. It sponsors a night school for working girls from low income families, and works with mothers and children in urban slums and rural farm villages.

OVERSEAS EDUCATION FUND of the League of Women Voters  
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MALAYSIA

Geography

Malaysia is divided into two main regions: West Malaysia occupying the southern third of the Malay Peninsula and East Malaysia comprising Sarawak and Sabah, which, along with Brunei (not part of Malaysia), occupy the northern strip of the island of Borneo. Of a total of 128,430 square miles, approximately 40% is represented by West Malaysia and the remainder by Sabah and Sarawak. Topographically, there are relatively narrow coastal strips in East Malaysia and on the east coast of West Malaysia, with mountainous interiors. Forests and plantations cover about 90% of the land area.

Population

In 1973, the population of all Malaysia stood at 11,750,000, about 35% of which was located in West Malaysia on the Malay Peninsula. The population growth rate between 1960 and 1973 was 2.9% and between 1965 and 1973 was 2.3% suggesting a modest downward trend.

The crude birth rate was 41 per thousand in 1960 and 34 per thousand in 1970, but this decline was concurrent with a decline in the crude death rate from 10 per thousand in 1960 to 7 per thousand in 1970. Infant mortality rate declined from 62 per 1000 live births in 1960 to 41 per thousand live births in 1970, a dramatic decrease. Life expectancy at birth has increased from 57 years in 1960 to 59 in 1970, according to the World Bank. UN statistics are more optimistic giving an expectancy of 66.7 for women and 63.0 for men as of 1970. Also according to the UN, Malaysia thus ranked 44th of 141 nations recorded. In Asia, these statistics compare well to the lowest (Afghanistan: 37.5 for women and 38 for men) and the highest (Ryukyu Islands: 74.7 for women and 72 for men).

No statistics on migration within Malaysia were immediately available, however, it may be noted that the urban percentage of the total population increased from 27% in 1960 to 29% in 1970 suggesting a slow upward change in migration to urban areas. It must be remembered that health facilities are normally better in urban areas allowing for a faster rate of national population increase, regardless of migration. The previous figures were taken from World Bank data defining urban centers as having a population of 10,000 or more. UN statistics for population centers of 20,000 or more show an urban percentage of only 10.9% based on this higher population figure. More to the point perhaps, Malaysia ranked 88th of 109 countries in urbanization which underscores the comparatively rural nature of

### Malaysia in international terms.

This essentially rural nature is reflected in the population density per square kilometer of total land. Although this statistic rose from 24 to 39 between 1960 and 1970, it compares with (all 1970 figures) Thailand - 70; Philippines - 128; Indonesia - 81; and the US - 22. Malaysia's population difficulties become more evident when we consider population density per square kilometer of agricultural area. In 1970 (the only year for which data is available) this figure was 304 people per square kilometer.. This compares to Thailand - 264; Philippines - 369; Indonesia - 426; and the US - 47. The increase in population density for Malaysia from total land area to agricultural land area is approximately 8.1. The comparative figures for Thailand - 3.8; Philippines - 2.9; Indonesia - 5.3; and the US - 2.1. Thus, while Malaysia has a comparatively low population density in terms of its total area, it must agriculturally support its population on a much smaller base of arable land.

### Government

Malaysia is a constitutional monarchy. The head of state is referred to as the "Supreme Head" and is elected for a five year term by the Conference of Rulers, consisting of hereditary rulers of individual states and governors of states not having such a ruler. Although the Supreme Head represents the nation and is the highest ranking official, his powers are severely limited somewhat in the same manner as the powers of the Queen of England. Real power lies in the hands of the Prime Minister and his/her party in the democratically elected Parliament. Malaysia received independence from the British in 1957 at which time this form of government was established, as was universal suffrage for all elections.

Malaysia is a member of the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN). It is also a member of the non-aligned group of Asian and African countries at the United Nations, and is in the British Commonwealth. Nonetheless, it is generally perceived as being more favorably disposed toward the "Western" position in international relations. Domestically, Malaysia has struggled with an internal Communist "liberation" movement since the post-World War II period. After a particularly violent struggle during the Fifties and Sixties, Malaysia is now felt to have the situation under control although periodic hostilities continue.

The government of Malaysia has created two agencies which deal with problems that relate to women. The Royal Commission to Study Marriage and Divorce Laws for Non-Moslems is concerned, in

great part, with the status of married and divorced women under the law. The Women's Bureau on Working Women (to be established) will more closely concentrate on the problems directly related to this group of women.

The government's commitment to general development is, as is true of all nations, not easily determined with any accuracy at any given point in time, but Malaysia's reputation in East Asia suggests that it is at least as committed as most other similar developing nations and more so than some. A clearer indication of this commitment may be derived from the remainder of this report.

### Economy

During the period 1960-73, the average division of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by sector was as follows:

Agriculture	31.4%
Trade	16.2
Manufacturing	13.0
Public Administration/Defense	6.9
Mining	6.1
Transportation/Communication	4.4
Construction	4.1
Electricity/Gas/Water	2.5
Other	16.2 (totals to more than 100% due to rounding)

Trends in the division of the GDP become more apparent when we isolate certain "standard years" (as determined by the World Bank). We thus can see a decrease in the role of agriculture while manufacturing and industry are growing:

	<u>1960</u>	<u>1965</u>	<u>1973</u>
1. Agriculture	40.0%	33.3%	30.5%
2. Services	42.1	42.0	42.0
3. Manufacturing	8.8	10.3	15.4
4. Other Industry	9.1	14.3	12.1
3 & 4 Total	17.9	24.6	27.5

The per capita income in Malaysia, in 1973, was US \$560, ranking 68th of 145 nations covered in the World Bank survey. This "middle" ranking is somewhat more impressive when it is noted that the "developed" countries of North America, Europe, and Japan were included in the 145.

GDP average annual growth rate for 1965-73 was 5.8 ranking 56th of 141. GDP per capita average annual growth rate over the same period was 3.0%, ranking 68th of 141. Whereas these generally crude figures show some economic growth that could filter down to the poorest segments of the population, it must be noted that income distribution, to the extent that it can be accurately measured, suggests a situation far less than perfect and getting worse. In 1960 and 1970, the following was found to be true by the World Bank:

<u>Percent of Income Received By:</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>
Highest 5%	17.0%	28.0%
Lowest 20%	6.5	3.4

This dramatic increase in the income concentration among the wealthy elite and the concurrent decrease in the poorest segment's share clearly indicate severe problems in the distribution of the benefits of an improved economic situation.

Another measure of the economic situation is "commodity concentration". This figure is determined as the percentage of total exports represented by the three major export commodities. If the figure is high, this indicates a heavy dependency on certain export items. If the figure is low, this indicates less dependency and a broader export commodity base, suggesting a healthier economy that is not overly dependant on few export items.

The commodity concentration for Malaysia in 1960 was 67.9%, falling to 62.2% in 1973. This compares to the Republic of China (Taiwan) - 4.8%; Philippines - 51%; Thailand - 38.4%; and Indonesia - 75.1%. This figure is high, but falls in a rough "middle" range of 50-70% for many developing countries.

In terms of employment, the percentage of females involved in income-producing economic activity was 26.7% as of 1972, ranking 53rd of 98 countries world wide.

The following chart depicts the female participation in the labor force in Malaysia.

Economic Activity of Women, Malaysia (1960)

<u>Sector, by Occupation</u>	<u>Index of Femaleness (a)</u>	<u>Distribution Index (b)</u>
professional and technical work	28.20%	3.05%
administrative and managerial work	2.05	0.08
clerical work	7.79	0.78
sales work	10.04	2.89
service work	26.06	5.97
agriculture and related work	35.19	80.36
production and related work	10.67	6.86

Sector, by Industry

agriculture and related industries	33.95%	80.78%
mining and quarrying	15.56	1.40
manufacturing	16.40	3.69
electricity, gas, water, sanitary service	3.40	0.06
construction	7.48	0.84
commerce	9.72	3.08
transportation, storage, communication	2.07	0.26
service	19.54	9.89

(a) The Index for Femaleness is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of laborers both male and female in that same category, for example, it shows the percentage of women who are in the agricultural labor force.

(b) The Distribution Index is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of females in all categories;\* the total of the distribution index figures may not be 100% due to rounding.

\* for example, it shows the percentage of women employed in agriculture within the total female labor force.

### Service Sector

Education: World Bank statistics covering the total applicable population show that the adult literacy rate has increased by a very impressive degree from 48% in 1960 to 89% in 1970. The adjusted school enrollment figures (percentage of children in school of total that might be in school) are as follows:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Primary Education</u>	<u>Secondary Education</u>
1960	95%	20%
1970	89	34

Vocational enrollment as a percentage of secondary school enrollment was very low and fell from 5% in 1960 to 3% in 1970.

At the first level of education (primary, nursery, kindergarten), UNESCO statistics show that approximately 85% of young girls from the appropriate age groups for this level were enrolled, ranking 73rd amongst 137 countries. At the second level (secondary, high school, vocational), the total was 28% ranking 52nd of 132. At the third level (university, college; both part-time and full-time), the proportion rises to 40%, ranking 30th of 129. It should be kept in mind that these figures are reached by dividing the female population at each level by the total of all females in the appropriate age groups for each level. As a result, the figures, especially at the first level, may be exaggerated by the inclusion of girls or young women of generally older age groups whose entry into school may have been delayed. Perhaps of equal importance to the percentages is the ranking of Malaysia at each level. While the proportions rise and fall, Malaysia's ranking rises to, at the third level, a very impressive standing, particularly when Malaysia must "compete" in the rankings with "developed" nations. As a point of comparison, the US proportion at the third level is 41%, only 1% higher than Malaysia.

Health Per capita calorie supply in Malaysia was 102% of requirement in 1970. During that period, per capita protein supply in grams per day fell from 54 in 1960 to 49 in 1970, approximately 40% of which was supplied by the more concentrated protein sources of animal and pulse foods. While these statistics do not suggest, in themselves, severe nutritional problems based on protein/calorie intake, it is noted that they represent average supply, not average consumption. Further, there are no available statistics that might give an accurate picture of the distribution of protein/calorie foods. However, experience and common sense suggest that large numbers of people get below minimum requirements of both calories and protein, if not on a regular daily basis in all cases, then on a frequent basis. The

likelihood of this situation existing is increased when considering the earlier mentioned income distribution pattern.

Another indication of health and nutritional status among one segment of the population is the death rate for children of 1 to 4 years of age. This age group is particularly susceptible to nutritional deficiencies as they no longer are breast-fed and frequently consume weaning foods and "children's foods" that are deficient, especially in protein and vitamins, so that better quality food might be conserved for use by "productive" members of the family (adults and older children). Although their deaths may be attributed to a variety of factors (measles, as one example) that are not nutritional in nature, a malnourished state leaves the child more susceptible to infection and less capable of physically overcoming it. As a result of this and other similar considerations, the 1-4 death rate takes on a greater importance than might be initially assumed. The World Bank statistics available for Malaysia indicates a death rate of 5.5 per thousand in 1970. For purposes of comparison, statistics for some other nations are as follows: Algeria - 12; Philippines - 7; India - 44 (1960); China (Taiwan) - 3.3; the US - 0.8. Taken in context, Malaysia's rate is not especially high, but neither is it low. Grouped with nations with a similar per capita Gross National Product (GNP) Malaysia is high. The average among nations with per capita GNPs between \$365 and \$1000 (a World Bank classification including Malaysia) is 3.3. (Other information relating to death rates, birth rates, and life expectancy may be found earlier in this paper under "population".)

In terms of family planning, statistics are few but the World Bank shows a total of 220,000 "acceptors" as of 1970, representing 8% of married women. Other programs, such as the introduction and distribution of inexpensive prophylactics have also been supported, but family planning has not yet had a significant impact on the high rate of population increase mentioned earlier (in this paper, or so the figures suggest.)

An increase in the training and education of medical personnel has been reflected in the statistics. Despite the growth in population, the number of people per physician decreased from 6,500 in 1960 to 3,860 in 1970. Population per nurse dropped from 2,600 in 1960 to 1,080 in 1970. Government expenditure on health as a proportion of the total national budget increased nearly 16% between 1967 and 1973 from 7% to 8.1%. This is, in many respects, a clearer indication of governmental priorities than a discussion of the "raw" figures and indicates growing government concern. This also compares well with many other countries, among them (1973 figures) Iran - 4.3%; Philippines - 4.2%; Singapore - 6.9%; and Thailand 3.3%.

As to the incidence of disease, Malaysia has successfully brought several epidemic diseases under control, including typhus, cholera, smallpox, and dengue fever which were major killers in earlier years. Although accurate figures are difficult to obtain, heart disease, pneumonia, malignant neoplasma, and tuberculosis are the

leading causes of death. Government supported health centers include hospitals, major health centers, health sub-centers, mobile and fixed dispensaries, mid-wife clinics, and dental clinics. Numerous other health center clinics, and hospitals are run either privately or by religious and charitable organizations. Medical and dental care are provided without charge by governmental and some charitable organizations. Those requiring hospitalization are charged modest fees in accordance with their ability to pay. Some private and public facilities are also available for the blind, deaf, spastic children, and the otherwise handicapped.

### Social Organization

The most pervasive family forms in the country are those of the predominant ethnic groups. A Malay family may be either bilateral or matrilineal depending on whether kinship is traced through both parents or through the female line alone; a Chinese family is patrilineal; a native, non-Malay tribal family is usually, but not always, bilateral. Indian family patterns have little impact, both because of their limited number and due to their relatively small influence within the society.

Among Malays, although the extended family is of importance, the greatest importance is attached to the nuclear family. This nuclear family residing in a single household is the ideal, but the presence of other relatives is normal. Traditionally, marriages are arranged by the family heads following Muslim customs. Divorce is easily obtained and Malaysia has one of the highest divorce rates in the world. Statistics are not available, but it is estimated that there is one divorce for every two marriages each year. This high divorce rate is becoming less acceptable to educated elements of the society. Children of Malay marriages are well-cared for. Unlike some other Muslim societies, girls are more valued than boys as they are thought to be more likely to care for aging parents than are sons. Adoption is common and Chinese children are also adopted and assimilated into the Malay style of life.

### Basic Human Needs

In terms of housing, rural homes are traditionally built of a simple bamboo/thatch design. In East Malaysia, individual family homes are joined under one roof with one veranda. This "longhouse" is a simple structure, but may include from 50-60 families.

Urban housing is a more complex situation with the population increase and urbanization leading to severe over-crowding and a housing demand far greater than the supply. Although the government has

undertaken an ambitious program for housing in both urban and rural areas, the selling prices are so high that most units are out of reach of the lowest-income segments of the population without heavy subsidization which the government cannot always afford.

Food is grown throughout Malaysia, but the Northwestern section of peninsular Malaysia is known as the "rice bowl", producing about 55% of the nation's rice, the principal food staple for local consumption. In addition to rice, other important crops include maize, sweet potatoes, cassava and various vegetables and fruit. Whereas some foods are imported, by the mid-70's Malaysia was nearly self-sufficient in rice.

It should also be mentioned that fish is the second staple food of Malaysia. In the late 60's, the catch amounted to some 350,000 tons, primarily in West Malaysia, and contributed 2% of the Gross Domestic Product.

The Chinese family may also be a nuclear family, but frequently includes other relatives and occasionally non-relatives. The head of the household is typically male, but may be the father, the eldest son, or another son, the determination based on which one is most worthy and successful. The Chinese are more likely to prefer male children to ensure the perpetuation of the male line, however, daughters are welcome if the family is not in economic straits. Like the Malays, the Chinese also practice polygyny, but, unlike the Malays, the Chinese husband prefers to have a separate home for each wife and children borne by her, as they believe that more than one wife in the same home will lead to internal family tension and turmoil. However, after first marrying his "Primary" wife, a Chinese may treat his other wives almost as if they were mistresses. The other wives have legal rights, but the primary wife is granted unquestioned traditional and legal inheritance rights. In matters of divorce, a man and his primary wife may formally divorce by the signing of a mutual consent agreement. Secondary wives may be divorced at will. In both Malay and Chinese households, the male head is dominant in public decision-making, but the actual situation will vary from family to family.

### Service Agencies

The Muslim Women's Welfare Council is working toward changing the concept of Muslim women to fit a modern society. It gives scholarships to girls to study in school, and provides training in skills for employment.

The Federation of Women Lawyers seeks the advancement of opportunities for women in industry, business or professions. It promotes equal rights for women and protection for children, providing

an open forum for the discussion of all matters affecting women and children.

The Sarawak Federation of Women's Institutes seeks to improve the living conditions of women especially those in rural areas. It emphasizes community development projects such as water, sanitation, maternity and child care facilities, and education for better nutrition and family living.

The National Council of Women's Organizations located in Kuala Lumpur, is an active organization. The newly formed National Advisory Council on Women in Development works under the direction of Office of Prime Minister.

SRI-LANKA

Geography

Sri Lanka is a pear-shaped island, formerly known as Ceylon, off the southeastern tip of India. It has a land area of 25,332 square miles, a little larger than West Virginia. About 4/5 of the land is gently rolling and 1/5 is hills and mountains in the south-central part of the country. The climate is warm and humid with little seasonal change. Average yearly temperatures vary from 80° to 85° F. The wet zone (southwest plain and southwest side of the hill country) receives from 100 to 200 inches of rain annually. The dry area (north central and eastern portions) get 59 to 75 inches annually. Rivers originate in the mountains and radiate in all directions.

Population

In mid-1974, the population was 13.3 million with a racial or ethnic make-up of Sinhalese (69%), Sri Lanka Tamils (11%), Indian Tamils (12%) and Sri Lanka Moors, Burghers and Euroasians (8%).

In 1973, 40% of the population was under 15 years of age. The birth rate was 28 per thousand; the death rate 8 per thousand; average life expectancy was 68 years. It is estimated that the population will double in thirty-five years.

The various ethnic groups, especially the Sinhalese and the Tamils with their distinctive religious background and language, have played an important role in the political life of the country. The Sinhalese, whose mythology and folk history proclaim a North Indian origin, are over 90% Buddhist. They tend to see themselves and their culture as endowing them with the privilege and duty of protecting the Buddhist way of life. They view the period of European dominance as an unfortunate interlude for Buddhist culture and tradition.

The Indian Tamils who make up 12% of the population are descendants of invaders and settlers from South India and practice Hinduism. About 7% of the population is Muslim (mostly Moors) and 9% is Christian, made up of Sinhalese Tamils and Burghers.

Major political issues stemming from this population pattern have included the establishment of Sinhalese as the national language

and Buddhism as the national religion, as well as the repatriation of Indian Tamils.

There has been a relatively rapid rate of urbanization. Colombo is the national capital and the largest city. Over two-thirds of the population live in the southwestern part of the country where the population density is approximately 700 per square mile as opposed to the average density of 483 (1968).

### Government

The original inhabitants of the island probably came from North India about 500 B.C. By the fifth century A.D. the island had become an important trade center. Because of the nearness of South India, expansion efforts from that area often had Ceylon as a goal. The struggles between the Tamils and the Sinhalese led at one point to what amounted to two separate kingdoms.

European domination, primarily for trade purposes began in the 1500s. The Portuguese, Dutch and British followed in succession, introducing Christianity as well as laying the foundations of a Western educational system. The colonial experience of over four centuries, especially the 150 years as a British colony, transformed the political, social and economic fabric of the island. This latter period provided the framework for the political, economic and educational systems operative in the 1970s. In 1948 the country became independent of British rule. By that time a powerful English speaking elite, in firm control of the civil service and the political parties, had emerged.

There were five transitions of government between independence and 1970. From 1948 to 1958 the country was controlled by the United National Party (UNP), a coalition of the Ceylon National Congress, the Sinhala Maha Sabha and the Muslim League. During the 1950s an upsurge of Sinhalese-Buddhist nationalism emerged with the goals of adoption of Sinhalese as the national language, Buddhism as the national religion and supplanting of the English speaking elite. The emotions generated by this movement led to the election of Soloman West Ridgeway Dias Bandaranaike of Sri Lanka Freedom Party (SLFP) as Prime Minister in 1956. The transfer of power from one political group to another amounted to a social revolution. In the years following his election, dissatisfaction grew over his handling of the language issue. There were riots in 1958 led by Sinhalese extremists and Bandaranaike was assassinated in 1959.

The governments of the 1960s were largely concerned with finding a way to accommodate legitimate Sinhalese interests and at the same time protect minority rights. The UNP was back in power from 1965-1970.

The SLFP came back into power in 1970 with Mrs. Sirinova Bandaranaike as Prime Minister. She was the wife of the former Prime Minister. In 1972 she submitted a new Constitution to the Parliament which created the Republic of Sri Lanka, thus severing the last ties with the British. The Constitution vested authority in a Prime Minister who, along with cabinet ministers, was chosen by political party or a coalition of parties that won majority of seats in parliamentary elections held every five years. The Parliament was composed of a Senate and a House of Representatives.

Two keystones of Mrs. Bandaranaike's foreign policy were to remain in the mainstream of Afro-Asian non-alignment in cold-war disputes and to procure significant amounts of economic aid and assistance.

Mrs. Bandaranaike's tenure until 1977 was beset with many problems. At the outset she continued programs started by her husband and expanded them, although there is some feeling she moved too fast. Among the programs were free rice rations for everyone, social security, free education to the college level and free medical care. Although she moved toward a communistic philosophy and programs she was faced with a communist uprising within the country in 1971. The country was under Emergency Regulations from 1971 to 1977. During the latter part of her regime rapid inflation and rising world prices forced her to attempt more conservative programs, but with little success. In late 1976 and early 1977, a series of strikes spread throughout the country, crippling the flow of food supplies and other goods and disrupting communication and transportation. Parliament was dissolved in May, 1977 and general elections held in August.

To win the elections of 1977, J.R. Jayewardene converted the UNP from the traditional conservative political arm of big business and large scale landowners to a public platform of democratic socialism. He is intent on introducing a wide range of radical structural changes and his program includes a touch of capitalism. He promised to bring down prices and the cost of living, discard the concept of bureaucrats controlling the economy, continue subsidizing food and services, undertake efficient development of the country's resources to solve unemployment, and create a free state trade zone.

Following his election as Prime Minister a debate ensued in Parliament to amend the Constitution. The outcome was the adoption of Jayewardene's proposal to create a structure where the chief executive is a president elected by the whole nation and functions through a prime minister, a combination of the presidential system of the U.S. and the parliamentary system of Britain. His proposal included the provision that the elected prime minister would automatically become president and a new prime minister would be chosen. Therefore, in 1978, Jayewardene became President of Sri Lanka. He is 71 years old, a lawyer by profession and has served in the legislature for thirty-five years.

Jayewardene's attitude towards foreign assistance may produce some changes in foreign relations. He says he does not intend to beg aid from any country or institution outside Sri Lanka; if aid is forthcoming, however, he says it will be welcome. His campaign proposal to create a free state trade zone is intended to generate foreign currency which can be drawn on for Sri Lanka's needs - borrowing from themselves instead of seeking foreign aid.

### Economy

The economy of the country is largely based on agriculture which operates in two segments - one for domestic consumption and the other for export purposes. Cultivation and export of tea, rubber and coconut were highly developed during the colonial period and this tradition has continued. Since independence the control and ownership of the export sector has shifted to the Sri Lankans and there has been nationalization of many estates. Domestic agriculture does not provide self-sufficiency for the country, and food continues to be imported. In recent years drought has compounded the problem and the recent world recession has restricted Sri Lanka's cash inflow.

A major change in Sri Lanka's trading partners has emerged over the last few years, with China becoming the largest buyer and supplier. Britain, which held this position for many years, dropped to the third largest buyer with Pakistan second. Saudi Arabia and Japan are now second and third suppliers with Britain ninth.

In the period 1965-73, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was delineated as follows:

Agriculture	33.8%
Mining	0.7
Manufacturing	12.3
Construction	5.4
Electricity, gas & water	0.2
Transportation & Communications	10.0
Trade	16.5

There is a total work force of approximately 3.62 million with 1,790,900 in agriculture, 890,000 in manufacturing, 450,000 in commerce and 390,000 in government and public services. Agriculture accounts

for approximately 50% of the labor force and industry about 11%. About 22% of the total work force is made up of women. It is estimated that there were about 1.5 million unemployed in 1977.

The economic status of women in Sri Lanka, as evidenced by statistics, is not high, and in some cases is not even at the Asian mean. The percentage of women economically active is low, 20.34% (the Asian mean is 29.56%), with a worldwide rank of 68th out of 98 countries. Women are 70% of the illiterate population of the country. Females have a lower life expectancy, 61.4 as compared to male life expectancy of 62.0. The percentage of women in Sri Lanka active by occupation and industry is consistently low, as illustrated by the following tables:

Economic Activity of Women, Sri Lanka (1963)

<u>Sector, by Occupation</u>	<u>Index of Femaleness (a)</u>	<u>Distribution Index (b)</u>
professional and technical work	38.74%	8.67%
administrative and managerial work	3.36	0.17
clerical work	5.72	1.05
sales work	5.78	1.91
service work	24.95	10.14
agriculture and related work	24.93	63.86
production and related work	12.36	14.19
 <u>Sector, by Industry</u>		
agriculture and related industries	24.71%	65.80%
mining and quarrying	10.05	0.15
manufacturing	20.27	10.06
electricity, gas, water and sanitary services	1.79	0.02
construction	1.57	0.21
commerce	6.90	3.16
transport, storage and communication service	1.76	0.38
	25.83	20.21

(a) Index for Femaleness is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of laborers both male and female in that same category; for example, it shows the percentage of women who are in the agricultural labor force.

(b) The Distribution Index is derived by dividing the number of females in each category by the total number of females in all categories; \* the total of the distribution index figures may not be 100% due to rounding.

\*for example, it shows the percentage of women employed in agriculture within the total female labor force.

### Service Sector

**Health:** The level of general health and the standard of living are probably higher in Sri Lanka than in other parts of South Asia. Malaria, cholera, smallpox and polio have practically been eliminated through immunization programs sponsored by the government. Impure water and improper food handling are the primary sources of typhoid and gastro enteritis. The goal of the government is to provide proper sanitation facilities and potable water for every family. There are provincial, district and rural hospitals, maternity homes and specialized clinics and health centers. Public medical services are free. In 1973 the infant mortality rate (children under one year) was 45 per 1000 live births. The major causes of death recorded are malnutrition and gastroenteritis.

**Education:** Free compulsory schooling for children aged five to fourteen and free university education are well established in Sri Lanka. Enrollments are as follows: primary and secondary - 2,534,000; higher education - 12,667. The widespread demand for education and access to public schools had led to the development of a high literacy rate of 80 to 85% by 1970. Increase in the number of college and university graduates over recent years had led to a substantial growth in the number of urban, educated unemployed.

### Housing

The government has undertaken to relieve the housing shortage, which is acute in the urban areas, by building low-cost houses and apartment complexes and making loans to individuals wishing to build their own homes.

### Social Organization

Both the teachings of Buddha and national legislation contain criticisms and prohibitions of caste exclusivity, but important family rites still conform to caste considerations. This is particularly true of marriage. Among both the Sinhalese and Tamils in rural areas, formal caste relationships are still important and the extended kin group is the social realm for most people. Marriages are contracted by the male members of the family within the kin group. Within traditional families, the males are dominant and women are considered to be legal minors. These traditional relationships are being modified in urban areas and among socially mobile university graduates. There is still little intermarriage between ethnic communities but marriages are increasingly being arranged by the prospective spouses.

A vital consideration in marriage arrangements amongst the middle class, is the occupation of the prospective bridegroom, the most valued occupations being in civil service or other government employment. A low value is placed on occupations in commerce, industry and technical services or any form of manual labor.

### Service Agencies

The following organizations, domestic and foreign, are active in offering assistance to the people of Sri Lanka:

The Lanka Mahila Samiti promotes the welfare of rural women and attempts to organize programs for food production, health and nutrition, better family living, rural development, population education, home management and cottage craft skills. It operates through 1,153 women's institutes and a volunteer social service worker system. It established a training center at Kaduwela for the training of rural extension workers, and has begun 100 nursery schools for pre-school children throughout the island.

The Girl Guides claim 16,052 members, and offer training in leadership and character for girls between the ages of 7-21.

The YWCA of Sri Lanka has 15 associations and over 4,000 members. It promotes vocational training for girls, including crafts, sewing and agriculture, and provides leadership training and community services.

The Sri Lanka Federation of University Women facilitates the entry of women into the University, and encourages women to take part in public life.

The Sri Lanka Women's Conference studies subjects of public interest with regard to women and children, such as education, health, employment of women and young persons, welfare of children, improvement of the status of women, etc. It undertakes projects of related interest and sponsors conferences on national affairs.

The Zonta Club of Colombo runs pediatric, pre-natal and family planning clinics, and sponsors health care scholarships. It encourages awareness of women's problems in the professional and economic spheres through seminars.

The Family Planning Association of Sri Lanka paved the way for the government to undertake a national program integrating family planning with family health. It has an educational program to

encourage the idea of planned parenthood, and through mobile clinics has promoted sterilization as a method of family planning.

U.S. voluntary organizations offering development assistance include the Agricultural Development Council, CARE, the 4-H Club, World Neighbors, the Heifer Project, YMCA and several missionary groups.

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AN ANNOTATED LIST OF MATERIAL RELATED TO CHILD CARE

Ainsworth, Mary D. Salter. Infancy in Uganda. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1967. 471 pp. illustrated, references, tables.

Short-term longitudinal research into the development of a sample of Ganda infants was undertaken in 1954-55. Traditionally, a girl was appointed to take charge of each Ganda child soon after birth. In most of the cases reported for this study, the mother shared her child care responsibilities with others -- adults or older children in the household, or neighbors. Most fathers who were regularly present in the home also shared in the routine care of the child.

Allendorf, Marlis. Women in Socialist Society, New York: International Publishers Co. Inc. 1976. 219 pp. illustrated.

This book discusses woman's path toward equality in socialist societies. One chapter, "Children - Privileged Citizens," describes various day care solutions, such as creches in the Soviet Union, child subsidies in Hungary and nurseries in Bulgaria and the German Democratic Republic.

Anderson, Mary Ann, and Grewal, Tina. Nutrition Planning in the Developing World. New York: CARE, 1976. 267 pp. bibliography, charts, figures, glossary, tables.

This book is a compendium of lectures presented at the CARE Nutritional Planning Workshops in New Delhi, India; Nairobi, Kenya; and Bogota, Colombia. Several chapters present information on mother-child health and nutrition projects and programs in various developing countries. These projects and programs enable the mother to better feed and take care of her child while freeing her for daily work.

Bernstein, Hilda. For Their Triumphs and for Their Tears.  
 London: International Defense and Aid Fund, 1975.  
 71 pp. appendix, illustrated, references.

The author asserts that in South Africa, "women suffer first and foremost from the disability of apartheid." The effects of apartheid on family life and child care are described in detail.

Bettelheim, Bruno. The Children of the Dream. London:  
 Paladin, 1969. 317 pp. bibliography.

The author studied one kibbutz and observed several others. He discusses child rearing methods of the kibbutz from infancy through adolescence and the results of kibbutz education.

Bonnal, M-J, and Paul Pont, I., eds. The Living Conditions of the Child in Rural Environment in Africa. Paris: Centre International de L'Enfance, 1968. 344 pp. graphs, tables. French and English.

Although most of the reports in this book on child welfare in rural Africa are concerned with health and nutrition, there are sections which discuss child care practices of working mothers in Senegal and Gambia, the practice of the Wolof of boarding out children with relatives, and the inadequacy of present child care practices of working mothers.

Boulier, Bryan. "Children and Household Economic Activity in Laguna, Philippines." Discussion Paper No. 76-19. Institute of Economic Development and Research, School of Economics, University of the Philippines, July 29, 1976.

The major findings of this paper are that children in Laguna households do contribute non-negligible amounts of time to income-earning activities and to income of their families. They play important roles in non-income production and child care activities, and the presence of children has a considerable influence on their parents' allocation of time. The results are preliminary and consist of the initial analysis of the data.

Bronfenbrenner, Urie. Two Worlds of Childhood: US and USSR. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1970. 190 pp. illustrated, tables.

This book examines modes of child rearing in the U.S. and U.S.S.R. and their consequences regarding values and patterns of behavior developed in the new generation of each society. One distinctive feature of Soviet upbringing is the readiness of other persons besides the mother to step into a maternal role. Thus, maternal responsibility is diffused. Experience in collective living begins during the Soviet child's first year. From a cross-cultural perspective Soviet children are confronted with fewer divergent views, both within and outside the family, and therefore conform to a nearly homogenous set of standards. The author presents arguments for and against institutional upbringing of Soviet children.

Brooks, Mila Williams. "A Report on Day Care Centers in Nicaragua." Mimeo. Paper prepared for USAID, Managua. Nicaragua, 1977. 65 pp.

A survey conducted on day care centers in Nicaragua for children below the age of seven years recommended using these centers as vehicles for the improvement of nutrition. Seventeen institutions covering seven types of day care centers were visited, and the report includes regulations, program goals, evaluations, financing and budgets, background information and descriptions of programs of the centers.

Brown, Donald R., ed. The Role and Status of Women in the Soviet Union. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1968. 139 pp. bibliographies, tables.

Articles were collected on Soviet women workers and mothers, the woman student, the changing image of women in Soviet literature the changing Soviet family, and child-bearing functions of the Soviet family, and marriage and the family. Developments in the organization of preschool education, the effects of these developments on women, and the needs of children are dealt with in some detail.

Brunet, Dians Clarabel. "The Influences of the Cultural Milieu upon Choices in Infant Feeding." M.A. Thesis, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York, 1970.

This review of the literature was undertaken to demonstrate the close relationship which can exist between a nutritional problem and changing social patterns in this case breast feeding, which is declining all over the world. The breast feeding patterns of the Baganda tribe and the urban residents of Kampala Uganda were studied. Bottle feeding has increased among these people due to new economic patterns which have changed marital structures, eroded the social status of the mother and extended female responsibilities. Her thesis also discussed an increased concern for declining fertility.

Burness, Patricia. "Day Care in Brazil" Unpublished, December 1977.

This author reports on her investigation of day care centers in Brazil, public, private, and industry-affiliated. Brazilian law provides for day care in industries employing more than thirty women. This study shows the vacuum between law and compliance.

Chen, Marty, and Ghuznavi, Ruby. "Women in Food for Work: The Bangladesh Experience." Paper prepared for the World Food Programme at the request of the Ministry of Relief and Rehabilitation, Bangladesh, Mimeo. 1977. 56 pp.

Research was undertaken to determine the socio-economic impact of food-for-work programmes on female participants, their families and dependents. The authors' overall research objectives were to help fill the knowledge gap about rural women in Bangladesh, especially rural poor women who enter the rural wage economy, and to help ensure that women's interests are protected and that women benefit equally with men in FFW projects. A table showing the distribution of 303 female workers by methods of child care is presented. Children are taken care of at home by others and those brought to the work site were found to be neglected and hungry. The authors report that the child care situation is far from adequate.

Clinton, Richard, ed. Population and Politics: New Directions for Political Scientists. Chapel Hill: Carolina Population Center, and D.C. Health, forthcoming.

This book discusses factors involved in changing women's roles. The author questions whether non-totalitarian governments can effectively influence birth rates. In some instances government policy can result in undesired effects.

Committee of Bulgarian Women. The Status of Women in the People's Republic of Bulgaria. Sophia: Committee of Bulgarian Women. 1972. 34 pp.

This essay covers some of the legal, social and political rights of Bulgarian women. Maternity leave post-maternity leave, privileges for working mothers, and child care institutions are among the topics discussed.

Cook, Alice H. The Working Mother. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University, 1975. 71 pp. bibliography, tables.

The author reports on special problems of working mothers in nine countries -- Sweden, Israel, East Germany, West Germany, Rumania, Austria, Russia, Japan, and Australia. The needs of these women arise from two factors: the function of women to bear children and the changing community and workplace. Pre-school care, factory creches, family day care, shift work, before-and-after school care, and holiday care are topics taken up in one chapter on child care.

de Cruz, Paula Diebold, and de Rappaciolli, Mayra Pasos. "Report on the Role of Women in the Economic Development of Nicaragua." Mimeo Paper prepared for USAID: Managua, Nicaragua. 1975. 113 pp.

The role of women in the Nicaraguan economy is assessed in this report, utilizing secondary sources and personal interviews, with suggestions for action and further research. Under the section, "Community Programs Benefiting Women," there is a brief description of nursery schools provided by JNAPS (the National Welfare Board) for the children of working mothers.

Curtin, Katie. Women in China. New York: Pathfinder Press, 1975. 95 pp. illustrated, notes.

This book explores the social and political situation of Chinese women before and after the revolution, women's education, women and the work force, women in management and politics, and abortion, birth control and sexuality. A history and description of present child care facilities is given under "Women and the Work Force."

Davin, Della. Woman-Work: Women and the Party in Revolutionary China. London: Oxford University Press, 1976  
244 pp. appendices, bibliography.

This study concentrates primarily on the 1900's, describing Party policy toward women. It traces the history of the Women's Federation, analyzes the difficulties of introducing a new style of marriage and family life to the conservative countryside, discusses the relationship between women, production and land, and examines the life of women in the towns. Child care alternatives employed by women in towns are presented.

Department of Social Welfare, India. Report of the Committee for the Preparation of a Programme for Children. New Delhi, 1968.

The transition from joint family system to nuclear type of family, the rising cost of living, and the desire for a higher standard of living are impelling mothers to seek gainful employment which in turn creates a need for creches, nurseries, and day care centers. The Committee's recognition of this need and recommendations are discussed in a chapter of this book.

Department of Social Welfare, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, India. Towards Equality. Report of the Committee on the Status of Women in India. New Delhi, 1974. 480 pp. appendices, tables.

The Committee's three major dimensions and objectives as stated in this report were a) to assess the impact of the constitutional, legal and administrative provisions on the social status of women, and on their education and employment, particularly in the rural sector, during the last twenty years; b) to examine the status of women in the changing social pattern; and c) to suggest measures which would enable women to play their full and proper role in nation-building. Groups of working women, particularly in the urban areas, referred to the great difficulty they experienced without creches or day nurseries for children. The few private creches or nurseries which do exist are inadequate and usually too expensive.

Development Alternatives, Inc. A Seven-Country Survey on the Roles of Women in Rural Development. Report prepared for the Agency for International Development, Washington DC, 1974. 146 pp. bibliography.

This report on Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Lesotho, Bolivia, Paraguay and Peru presents preliminary conclusions concerning rural women's active decision-making and participation roles in agricultural production, family care, family planning and education of children.

Dinkoba, Maria. The Social Progress of the Bulgarian Woman. Sophia: Sophia Press, 1972. 65 pp.

This book sketches the results of the revolutionary policy with regard to women in Bulgaria by defining the fundamental social and legal positions of the policy and pointing out its social aspects under socialism. Methods undertaken by the state to ease the double burden of working women are described.

**Eadie, Florence.** "Synopsis of Part of the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy Project in Observance of International Women's Year. A Compilation and analysis of Laws Discriminating against Women." OAS Inter-American Commission of Women, Eighteenth Assembly, July 27 - August 5, 1976, Miami, Florida. Mimeo.

A brief discussion of child care facilities appears under Part VII, Employment and Related Problems. Some Latin American countries require that child care facilities be made available by organizations employing more than a specified number of females. In Chile and Honduras, for example, this number is twenty or more, while in Ecuador it is fifty or more. To avoid the cost of child care facilities, many employers limit the number of female employees. In Chile, there are government-sponsored nurseries for infants three months and older.

**Ebrahim, G. J.** Child Care in the Tropics. Nairobi, Dar es Salaam, Kampala: East African Literature Bureau, 1971. 112 pp. illustrated.

This book is concerned with child care at home and how parents can maintain their children in good health to achieve high standards of growth and development. Chapters deal with pregnancy, the newborn baby, physical and emotional growth, training and discipline, health and disease, and the school years.

**Eleventh International Congress on Home Economics, Replies to the Questionnaire.** Bristol, England, 1968. 317 pp.

A questionnaire was distributed to home economists in 36 countries in Asia, Latin America, Africa and elsewhere. One of the questions under the section on the family asks whether children are cared for by the mother or by child care facilities.

Galenson, Marjorie. Women and Work: An International Comparison. Cornell, New York: State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, Industrial Labor Relations, Paperback No. 13, 1973. 120 pp. references.

Working women in Eastern and Western Europe and the Soviet Union are compared. The author suggests that conditions affecting women are basically the same. Child Care facilities such as kindergartens, nurseries, and weekly boarding schools are inadequate, even in the Soviet Union. A discussion of day care is made for each country under consideration.

Geiger, H. Kent. The Family in Soviet Russia. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1968. 381 pp. bibliography, tables.

This is an analysis of the Marxist theory of the family and how the Soviet Communists view the family of the society they took over and the present family in Russia. The author focuses on child bearing by the family and by institutions, analyzing consequences and trends.

Ghana Home Science Association, and Home Science Department, University of Ghana. "Children - the Nation's Best Crop." 1967.

This is a report on a conference aimed at investigating causes of the high mortality rate of children and suggesting ways in which something might be done to make it easier for children to live and grow up to be useful citizens of Ghana. It was decided to establish a nursery school which would be a laboratory for the study of children and a possible prototype for nursery school expansion, as recommended in this report.

Gokulanathan, K.S., and Verghese, K.P. Child Care in a Developing Community. New York: Vantage Press, 1969. 85 pp.

This study is based on the cases seen in a "poly-clinic" in the Periyar Valley of Kerala State in Southern India. An analysis of 520 children between the ages of one year and six years who belonged to the high and middle socio-economic groups was performed, with regard to food habits, clothing, immunization procedures, and personal hygiene.

Gopaldas, Tara, et al. Project Poshak. 2 vols. New Delhi: CARE, 1975. 328, 248 pp. appendices, illustrated, references, tables.

Project Poshak was an experiment to discover the community nutrition problems of young children. The project incorporated the concept of a "take-home" fund (tested for its nutritional factors) for children up to three years of age and pregnant/lactating women, augmented by child care education and health services utilizing the existing government rural health network. The project took place in Madhya Pradesh, the largest state in India in terms of land poverty line. It operated within 12 districts, 10 of which were tribal. A section on conclusions and recommendations is included in Vol. II, as well as presentation in greater depth of an account of the basic research and groundwork necessary to provide the foundation for development, management, and evaluation of a complex program.

Government of Barbados, and UNICEF. "The Needs of the Young Child in the Caribbean." Report of the Conference, Bridgetown, Barbados, West Indies, November 12-22, 1967. 83 pp. annexes.

The pre-school years are crucial, but the least attention has been paid to children of this age group. Programs should be established by the governments with attention to national priorities. Many existing community resources could be employed without great additional expense.

Hake, James M. Child-Rearing Practices in Northern Nigeria. Ibadan: University Press, 1972. appendices, bibliography, illustrated.

The author researched the child-rearing practices of families living in northern Nigeria, sex differences in child rearing, problems of raising children, reactions of children to the way they are raised, and childhood experiences common to most Nigerian children. If the family is poor and the mother must work some distance from the house, other family members may care for the child, or the child may be sent to more prosperous relatives living in other towns or villages.

Hate, Chandrakala A. Changing Status of Woman. Bombay: Allied Publishers Private Ltd., 1969.

This book concerns the social position and problems of Indian women, focusing on marriage, the family, education, careers, etc. Child care alternatives and needs of middle-class working mothers are described under a section on the family.

Hermann, Alice, with Komlosi, Sandor. "Early Child Care in Hungary." International Monography Series on Early Child Care, edited by Halbert B. Robinson and Nancy M. Robinson, prepared by the International Study Group for Early Child Care. London: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers, Ltd., 1972. 123 pp. appendix, illustrated, references, tables.

Child care programs in Hungary include maternal and child care services, the creche, the preschool, preparatory programs for school, and child welfare. The historical development of early child care is reviewed, and trends and traditions are noted.

Ho, Teresa J. "Time Costs of Child-Rearing in Rural Philippines." unpublished paper, 1977.

From a 1975 survey of 573 households in the province of Laguna, the author concludes that except for the first year of the child's life, time spent by mothers on the care of young children draws little time from her market production, but significantly more time from her leisure. Family age composition rather than size proved to be the major determinant of the mother's time allocation. Children contribute significantly to household chores time and to total family income-earning time.

Idusogie, E. O. "Role of Maternal Nutritional Health and Care in the Development and Personality of Children in Africa." Joint FAO/WHO/DAV Regional Food and Nutrition Commission for Africa. Special Paper No. 9. RAO Regional Office for Africa, Accra, Ghana, July, 1974. Paper presented at a symposium of the International Paediatric Association, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria, December 9-19, 1973. 36 pp. references.

Although African rural women produce, process, market, cook and distribute food, their nutritional health is generally unsatisfactory; adult male family members usually receive priority in food distribution. While the average weight gain of well-nourished pregnant women is usually around 10-12 kg., data from rural areas in India and West Africa indicate the average weight gain of pregnant women to be around 5-7 kg. Malnutrition in the fetus and early childhood is due primarily to maternal malnutrition and inadequate child feeding arrangements and care. The traditional weaning foods in African communities are portions of adults' diets, which are nutritionally unsuitable for infant or child feeding. Urban working mothers leave the care of their children to housemaids who are inadequately prepared to care for children and as a result, many children of even well-to-do families suffer from malnutrition. There is a need to alleviate the burden of rural mothers by providing water and electricity, and by improving their traditional methods of processing and cooking food.

Ilieva, Nikolina. The Bulgarian Woman. Sophia: Sophia Press, 1970. 29 pp.

Social changes in the last twenty-five years in Bulgaria have had an effect on the status of women. Woman's participation in labor, changes in child-rearing practices and child care facilities are presented as topics.

Ilo, Jeanne Francis I. Involvement by Choice: The Role of Women in Development. Mimeo. Quezon City: Institute of Philippine Culture, 1977. 207 pp. appendices, bibliography, tables.

This study provides information on the situation of women and their roles - actual and potential - in the Bicol River Basin. A three-stage investigation was employed: depth interview of a panel of selected informants, resident observation in a limited number of Basin households, and a social survey of 288 married women. The author notes that more intensive market participation in this area is possible only by reducing child care or housekeeping time.

**International Labour Organization.** "Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers." Report prepared for the International Labour Conference 60th Session, 1975; Report VIII. Geneva: International Labour Office. 123 pp. appendices, tables.

Female workers have needs relating to equal opportunity and treatment. Special problems have arisen from rapidly changing structures and conditions of work. Child care facilities such as day nurseries, kindergartens, neighborhood and industrial facilities and nuclear and extended family child-minders, in both developing and developed countries are discussed briefly.

**International Labour Organization.** "Japan/ILO Asian Regional Workshop on Administrative Arrangements for the Exercise of Responsibilities of Labour Departments with Regard to Women Workers." Tokyo. November 18-29, 1974. Bangkok International Labour Office, 1975. 108 pp.

Country papers were presented at a conference held in Tokyo in 1974 on women workers in Asia. Existing child care facilities and needs, labor laws relating to child care and other problems women workers face were discussed.

**International Labour Organization.** "Women Workers in a Changing World." Geneva: International Labour Office, 1973. 81 pp. annexes.

This preliminary report identified the main trends of policy and practice relating to women's opportunities, needs and problems in economic life during the last decade. It discusses the problems which arise with rapidly changing economic and social conditions and slowly changing attitudes. One chapter, "Employment of Women with Family Responsibilities," contains material on maternal protection and child care in both developing and developed countries.

**International Labour Organization. Women Workers and Society: International Perspectives. Geneva: International Labor Organization, 1976. 211 pp.**

Reports were collected on women workers in capitalist and socialist, developing and developed countries of the world. Female labor force participation, child care problems of working mothers, and types of child care facilities available in various countries are subjects covered.

**International Union for Child Welfare. Bangladesh: Rural Family and Child Welfare Project. Geneva, February 1977.**

This study reviews an IUCW project in the rural areas of Bangladesh from 1974 to the present. The project has two goals: (1) to improve socio-economic conditions for families by loaning materials such as livestock to start individual or group employment schemes; and (2) to improve the general welfare of children and families by programs in nutrition, health, family planning, education, digging of fresh water wells, etc. In 1975 child care training was given in a number of villages as part of the activities taking place in newly constructed, village level "Family Development Centers." Eighteen (out of a planned thirty-two) Family Development Centers had been built by December 1976.

James, Charles A. "A Review of Policies, Techniques and Institutions Outside the United States for the Development and Care of Preschool Children: Applicability to the United States." Agency for International Development, Senior Seminar in Foreign Policy. Twelfth session. Washington, D.C. 1969-1970. 34 pp.

Information on child care facilities in England, Norway, Sweden, the Soviet Union and Israel was collected with the objective of providing models for the United States.

Jelliffe, Derrick B., and Jelliffe, E.F. Patricia, eds. Nutrition Programmes for Preschool Children. Zagreb: Institute of Public Health of Croatia, 1973. 347 pp. bibliography, tables.

A conference was held in Zagreb, Yugoslavia, August 23-26, 1971 under the auspices of the Department of Nutrition, Institute of Public Health, Zagreb; the International Activities Section, Maternal and Child Health Service, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.; and Committee III of the International Union of Nutrition Sciences. Sections on young child clinics, supplementary feeding programs for preschool children, and day care centers and creches are included.

Kahn, Alfred J., and Kameron, Sheila B. Child Care Programs in Nine Countries. A report prepared for the OECD Working Party on the Role of Women in the Economy. United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Human Development/Office of Child Development, Research and Evaluation Division, DHEW Publication No. (OHD) 30080, 1976. 83 pp. tables.

The authors investigated child care in Canada, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Israel, Poland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, the United States and Yugoslavia. Discussed are the structure of child care programs, social-welfare supports for alternative arrangements size and coverage of programs, eligibility and financial for programs, goals and purposes, major program forms or models, geographic distribution of facilities, staffing, standard setting, research and evaluation, and current debates in the countries.

Kane, C. H. Children, Youth, Women and Development Plans in West and Central Africa: The Lome Conference. Abidjan, Ivory Coast: UNICEF, Regional Office for West and Central Africa, 1972. 151 pp.

This report focuses on the status of women, youth and children in West and Central Africa. Topics covered include the needs in development planning, education for women, maternal and child health care practices, nutrition needs, employment opportunities, equal pay for women and young workers, land ownership rights and participation in economic development projects.

Kapur, Promilla. The Changing Status of the Working Woman in India. Delhi: Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., 1974. 176 pp. bibliography, tables.

The attitudes of educated working women toward marriage have changed according to a study of middle and upper-class Indian women. Working mothers face child-rearing difficulties, and there is lack of adequate child care facilities.

Keister, M. E. Child Care. A Handbook for Village Workers and Leaders. New York: UNIPUB, 1976. 58 pp. illustrated.

A handbook prepared for workers in villages and social centers, for leaders of women's clubs, and for those who train workers. Sections include material on safety for children, healthy growth, proper clothing, play, sleeping and rest.

Kessen, William, Childhood in China. New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1975. 241 pp. appendix.

The report of a 13-member delegation of Americans who went to China in 1973 and visited nurseries, kindergartens, primary and middle schools, hospitals, health clinics, and the Shanghai Youth Palace.

Khan, Mazhar Ul Haq. Purdah and Polygamy. Peshawar Cantt, Pakistan: Nashiran-e-Ilm-o-Taraqiyet, 1972. 232 pp.

The author analyzes the destructive effects of the family and kinship institutions of purdah and polygamy upon Muslim society. The influence of the Purdah system upon child-rearing practices is discussed in a chapter on family life.

Leiner, Marvin, with Ubell, Robert. Children Are the Revolution: Day Care in Cuba. New York: The Viking Press, 1974. 213 pp. illustrated.

The author sets forth the goals of day care programs in Cuba, then discusses day care center personnel, the schools, nutrition and health care, the roles of the family and community, and recent developments in day care programs.

Leis, Philip. Enculturation and Socialization in an Ijaw Village. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1972. bibliography, illustrated.

Ijaw educate their children to behave and believe in the life style of Ijaw society and culture. After a child is weaned, the task of watching him, playing with him, and attending to his immediate needs is most frequently given to an older sibling, or a kinsman may come to live with the family to care for the child. Sometimes an infant is sent to live with his maternal grandmother or other kinsmen.

Madras School of Social Work. Working Mothers in White-Collar Occupations, Madras, 1970.  
119 pp. appendices, bibliography, tables.

A study of working women in India was undertaken by the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, to explore the problems of middle-income working mothers with reference to child care and training, household management, husband-wife relationship, and integration of work and home life.

Maher, Vanessa. Women and Property in Morocco. London: Cambridge University Press, 1974.  
238 pp. bibliography, tables.

The author analyzes the roles of women in lending intensity to the status-based mode of relationship, and studies the social mechanisms, both political and ideological, by which women are confined to these roles. Child rearing is described briefly and one chapter discusses the practice of child fostering.

Marcus, Joseph. Growing Up in Groups. New York: Gordon and Breach, Science Publishers, Inc., 1972. 295 pp. illustrated.

This book is concerned with the upbringing of young children and is written by professionals for workers who are responsible for day-to-day group care of very young children. Section One -- "Early Child Care in the Russian Day Care Center and Children's Home" -- focuses on play and activity for children in the first three years of life. Section Two -- "Early Child Care in the Israeli Kibbutz" -- discusses methods of kibbutz collective education during early childhood.

Massel, Katharine Douglas. "The Women of Latin America." Washington, D.C.: The Overseas Education Fund of the League of Women Voters, 1977. 8 pp.

This report traces the heritage of Latin America women from the days of the conquest to the present. It explores the forces of change that are affecting women today, focusing on their tradition and culture, role in the family, employment opportunities, etc.

Matthiasson, Carolyn J., ed. Many Sisters: Women in Cross-Cultural Perspective. New York: The Free Press, 1974. 443 pp. bibliography, illustrated.

Female anthropologists and sociologists have written about women in three types of societies. The first, "Manipulative Societies," includes societies in which women feel that they are inferior to men and resort to deceit, withdrawal, artifice or circumvention to obtain their own desires. The second, "Complementary Societies," is composed of cultures in which women are valued for themselves and the contributions they make to society. The third, "Ascendant Societies," are those in which it is more often an advantage to be a woman. Women's economic activities and child care methods are discussed for most of the societies.

Mickelwait, D. R., Riegelman, M.A., and Sweet, C.F. Women in Rural Development: A Survey of the Roles of Women in Ghana, Lesotho, Kenya, Nigeria, Bolivia, Paraguay and Peru. Development Alternatives, Inc., Washington, D.C., Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 1976. 224 pp. bibliographies, tables.

The social roles of rural women were surveyed in field studies in Latin America and Africa, focusing on their social participation in rural development. It discusses the social status of women, comparisons of male-female roles in agricultural production and marketing, child rearing, attitudes toward contraception, community development, etc. Information on data collecting, project design and project implementation is included.

Miller, Miriam, ed. The Neglected Years: Early Childhood. New York: UNICEF, 1973.

This collection of articles deals with the situation of preschool children in developing countries and contemporary thought in the field of child care. In "Speaking Freely-- Highlights of a Roundtable Discussion on the Preschool Child," by Dr. Wm. M. Schmidt, eighteen doctors exchange ideas about the major problems in child care. "How a Child's Mind Grows," by Jean Piaget, offers a compact overview of his major innovative theories and experiments in cognitive development. In "Prevention is Possible: The 'Unnecessary Story of Two Sad Children,'" by Derrick B. Jelliffe and E.F. Patrice Jelliffe, reasons and solutions for malnutrition in developing countries are explored. "Rapid Social Change: Threat or Promise?"

by Beatrice B. Whiting examines problems confronting mothers accustomed to traditional child rearing in developing societies. In "A Better Educational Start for Jamaica's Children," by Dudley R. Grant, the success of a project in early childhood education is described. John Balcomb, in "A View from the Field," reports on unhealthy conditions seen firsthand, and efforts to combat them. In "Day Care: An Old Idea, a New Meaning," by Dorothy Beers Boguslawski, effective day care programs are described. In "Self-Discovery Through Play," by Thomas J. Cottle, the importance of play in individual development is explored.

Mobile, Creches. Ekalavya. New Delhi: Mobile Creches, 1976. 76 pp.

Mobile Creches is a voluntary agency working among urban, poor children and migrant laborers. In its seven years of existence, Mobile Creches has operated centers on fifty construction sites and fourteen urban and resettlement areas. There are twenty-three centers in Delhi and fourteen in Bombay.

Munroe, Ruth H., and Munroe, Robert L. "Infant Care and Childhood Performance in East Africa." Paper presented at the Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Denver, Colorado, April 10-13, 1975.

This paper reports on a follow-up study of the long-term effects of infant care patterns among the Logoli people of East Africa. Study findings appeared to confirm that certain early care variables effect later performance of children. Difficulties in the interpretation of study findings are discussed.

Nash, June, and Safa, Helen Icken, eds., Sex and Class in Latin-America, New York: Praeger Publishers, 1976. 330 pp. tables.

The essays in this volume were first presented at a conference organized by the editors and sponsored by the Social Science Research Council, held at the Torcuato di Tella Institute in Buenos Aires in 1974. Scholars from Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Puerto Rico, the United States, and Venezuela participated. The essays are divided into three parts: the family and ideological reinforcement of sexual subordination, women in productive roles, and political mobilization of women. One author suggests that strong ties among female kin and neighbors in Puerto Rico be strengthened through public support and channeled into cooperative day care centers and health centers. Another author notes that Mexico's law requiring day care centers in establishments employing a specified number of female workers resulted in owners reducing the numbers of female workers below the level already established.

National Institute of Nutrition, Bogota, Colombia. A Practical Guide to Combating Malnutrition in the Preschool Child. Report of a Working Conference on Nutritional Rehabilitation, Mothercraft Centers. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969. 74 pp.

A report on a conference attended by delegates from Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Haiti, Peru, the Philippines, Switzerland, the United States, and Venezuela. Mothercraft Centers have been developed to educate mothers of malnourished children and to rehabilitate the children at a substantially lower cost than in hospitals. The Centers combine child day care and maternal education.

Ndubai, G. Kaburu. "Report of the Seminar on Planning and Coordination in the Field of Child Welfare in East and Central Africa." Sponsored by the International Union for Child Welfare and held under the auspices of the Kenya National Council of Social Service. Nairobi, Kenya, 1971. 155 pp. tables.

Participating countries in the seminar were Ethiopia, Malawi, Mauritius, Somalia, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Kenya. The need for child care centers for children of working mothers and the extent to which they have been established is discussed in the reports of various countries.

Nowberg, Olle, ed. Action for Children: Towards an Optimum Child Care Package in Africa. Uppsala The Dag Hammarskjold Foundation, 1975. 238 pp. bibliography.

Ideas and proposals based on the proceedings on a seminar held in Addis Ababa in May, 1973 on the dilemma of quality, quantity and cost in African child care. Divided into sections on background, dilemmas in child care, and a child care package, the report concentrates on the need for and development of a delivery system of health services for child care.

North, Jeanne, et al. Women in National Development in Ghana. Prepared for USAID/Ghana, April 1975. 136 pp. appendices, bibliographies, tables.

This study of Ghanaian women provides a background picture of the social, economic, and legal status of women. Women as traders, wage earners and farmers, their role in health, population and nutrition, women in education, and voluntary women's organizations are the topics of the papers.

Organization of American States. "Eighth Meeting of the Inter-American Council for Education, Science and Culture. Final Report." Mimeo. Montevideo, Uruguay, February 3-11, 1977. General Secretariat, OAS, Washington, D.C., 1977.

This report cites an earlier recommendation in 1972 that the establishment of preschool education institutions at work centers employing women be encouraged. Resolutions for implementing the establishment of preschool and special education programs are included in the report.

Organization of American States. "Inter-American Commission of Women Regional Plan of Action for Women's Decade in the Americas." Mimeo. Approved by the Eighteenth Assembly of the Inter-American Commission of Women, Held in Miami, Florida, July 27 - August 5, 1976. 17 pp.

The report states the need to undertake efforts to facilitate the combination of family and employment responsibilities for women and men. Measures might include a general reduction and/or staggering of working hours, flexible working hours, child care facilities, and child care leave systems. The Inter-American Commission of Women and the Women's Bureaus call for the establishment of day care centers for minor children of workers.

Organization of American States. "Inter-American Specialized Conference on the Integral Education of Women. Final Report." Mimeo. Buenos Aires, Argentina. August 21-25, 1972. General Secretariat, OAS, Washington, D.C. 1972. 91 pp.

This report notes that it is society's responsibility to provide a solution to the problems arising from the active social and economic participation of women; therefore, "in order to prevent discrimination against management with regard to its financial responsibility, financing of such nurseries should be shared by the state, management, and the users." The Conference recommends that nurseries staffed by qualified personnel be established in heavily industrialized areas and/or near the home of workers of rural communities, and that the state, trade unions and management share in their organization and financing.

Overseas Education Fund of the League of Women Voters. "Women in Indonesia." Washington, D.C.: Overseas Education Fund of the League of Women Voters, 1975. 5 pp.

This report focuses on the role of women in Indonesia in historical and present times. Family and tradition, education, women in the labor force, and women's organizations are some of the topics presented.

Pascatello, Anne, ed. Female and Male in Latin America: Essays. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: University of Pittsburg Press, 1973. 342 pp. bibliography.

The theme of these twelve essays is the conflict between the image and reality of the roles of women in Latin America. Child Care facilities in Buenos Aires and in Cuba are described.

Power and Pawn. Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1976. 281 pp. bibliography

A cross-cultural multidisciplinary analysis of the two conflicting theories that 1) women wield power and influence, and 2) women are pawns in a world dominated by men. The author focuses on the people of present-day Spain and Portugal. The participation of women in the labor force of Latin-American countries and labor laws of various countries regarding day care centers, pregnancy care, etc., are discussed briefly.

Popkin, Barry M. "Economic Determinants of Breast Feeding Behavior: The Case of Rural Households in Laguna, Philippines." Mimeo. Paper presented at conference "Nutrition and Reproduction" NAS/NICHD Bethesda, Maryland. February 1977. This is forthcoming in Nutrition and Reproduction, edited by Henry Mosley, Plenum Press.

This study examines the determinants of breast feeding behavior in the light of some socio-economic and demographic forces, such as wage rates, income of family members, family composition, community price changes, the availability of contraceptives and the influence of commercial milk advertizers.

"The Role of the Rural Filipino Mother in the Determination of Child Care and Breast-Feeding Behavior." Discussion Paper No. 76-12, July, 1976 (Revised August, 1976) Institute of Economic Development and Research, School of Economics, University of the Philippines.

This study explores the ways the market and non-market roles of the rural Filipino mother and her various characteristics can effect total child care time inputs and breast-feeding behavior.

Randall, Margaret. Cuban Women Now: Interviews with Cuban Women. The Women's Press and Dumont Press; printed by Hunter Rose in Toronto, Canada, 1974. 375 pp.

Fourteen Cuban women report on their lives, experiences and situations. One woman, Clementina Serra, the National Director of Cuba's Children's Circles, describes the establishment of the first Circles in 1961, and discusses the Circles' objectives and personnel training.

Rapaport, Chanan, et al. "Early Child Care in Israel." International Monograph Series on Early Child Care, edited by Halbert B. Robinson and Nancy M. Robinson. London: Gordon and Breach, Science Publishers Ltd., 1976. 199 pp. appendices, illustrated, references, tables.

This book describes child care institutions in Israel, dealing with values at work, division of responsibilities, planning, socialization, programs, professional training, information and communication.

Reining, Priscilla, et al. Village Women: Their Changing Lives and Fertility: Studies in Kenya, Mexico, and the Philippines. Washington, D.C. appendices, references tables.

The objective of this study was to learn about the lives of women in three countries--Kenya, Mexico, and the Philippines -- and determine how the changes brought about by modernizing conditions might influence family size. In discussing their daily work, many women relate how they integrate child care into their working schedules.

Research Unit on Women's Studies. "Women in India A Handbook." Bombay: Smt. Nathibai Damodar Thackersey, Women's University, 1975. 84 pp. bibliography. Mimeo.

This handbook provides basic information on various aspects (education, work participation, political participation, legal position, etc.)

of Indian women's lives. Two reasons are given for the concentration of working women in the rural sector, especially agriculture: 1) the rural family structure allows mothers to have less personal responsibility for child care, and 2) it may be easier to take children along to the fields than to an office or factory.

Rohrlich-Leavitt, Ruby, ed. Women Cross - Culturally: Change and Challenge. The Hague: Mouton Publishers, 1975. 669 pp. tables.

The papers in this volume were written for the session on women's status and women's movements at the IXth International Congress of Anthropological and Ethnological Sciences, held in the U.S. in 1973. The papers evaluate women's status in gathering-hunting bands, fishing clans, peasant communities, agricultural chiefdoms, in developing and developed countries, in capitalist and socialist economies. Child care facilities for women textile workers in Mexico City and elsewhere are described as inadequate. One chapter contains information on the Argentine system of maternity benefits and child care centers.

Sacks, Michael Pau. Women's Work in Soviet Russia.  
New York: Praeger Publishers, 1976. 221 pp.  
appendix, bibliography, tables.

Work and family prior to 1917, female labor during the Soviet period, women in the non-agrarian labor force, time-budgets of urban workers, and work and family in rural Russia are included in the chapters of this book. The author asserts that "the change in the domestic burdens of working women which resulted from industrialization and the ideology associated with it has been exceedingly limited... it is clear that the double burden that marriage and children bring for the working woman has a profound influence on her labor-force participation and aspirations."

Scarpati, Rosario; Izaguirre, Maritza; and Ferran, Maite. Rural Children and Youth in Latin America. Center for Development Studies, Central University of Venezuela, 1969.  
56 pp.

This study is based on a special meeting on "The Situation of Children and Youth in Latin America" under the auspices of the United Nations Children's Fund, May 1969. It looks at the problems of rural youth in Latin America in relation to economic and political systems which block the achievement of social awareness of this segment of the population as the adults of tomorrow. It suggests that a break with outmoded traditional agrarian structure is a prerequisite for progress towards a policy for children and youth, and that such reform must be a direct and permanent agent of rural modernization providing for the development and support of new leadership in rural areas.

Sidel, Ruth. Women and Child Care in China: A Firsthand Report. New York: Hill and Wang, 1973, 207 pp.

The author, a psychiatric social worker, and her husband were invited for a month's stay in the People's Republic of China in 1971. This report of her observations includes a detailed description of how children are cared for in nurseries. Other topics include women's position in the labor force, legal conditions, birth control and educational opportunities.

**Sidney M. Cantor Associates.** "The Tamil Nadu Nutrition Study." Report to the US Agency for International Development Mission to India Haverford, Pennsylvania, 1973.

Volume II, Section B, "Cultural Anthropology and Nutrition" is a compilation of five papers and reports dealing with 1) the world background on infant malnutrition and weaning practices; 2) anthropologists' views on food behavior as it relates to weaning infants and pregnant and lactating women, and 3) caste factors as these relate to food and food transactions.

**Siegel, Earl.** "Child Care and Child Development in Thailand, Sweden, and Israel: Their Relevance for the U.S.A." Paper presented before the Child Care Committee of the Maternal Child Health Section of the American Public Health Association at an annual meeting, November 13, 1972.

The report describes day care systems in Sweden, the kibbutzim in Israel and the beginning of organized day care in Thailand. Indications are that even in a society with limited resources, urban and rural children can benefit from such services. The relevance of these observations to the United States is discussed.

**Singer, Hans.** "Children in the Strategy of Development." Paper prepared for the United Nations Centre for Economic and Social Information and the United Nations Children's Fund. New York: United Nations, 1972. 64 pp. tables.

This essay covers the importance of planning for human and social development, the needs of children, the Second United Nations Development Decade (the 1970's), techniques of planning for children, three major problem areas (family planning, child nutrition and education) and the role of international assistance.

Soroptimist Club of Port-of-Spain. The Child in Trinidad and Tobago. 1970. 51 pp.

This book contains a section on the history and activities of the Trinidad and Tobago Nursery Association, a voluntary organization which promotes day nurseries and nursery schools.

Southeast Asia Development Advisory Group. "Seminar on Women Wage Earners in Thailand." SEADAG Reports (unpublished), Pattaya, Thailand, April 18-20, 1975. 16 pp.

Topics presented at the seminar were: social concepts related to women's role, job opportunity for women workers, problems of health and nutrition among the poor, day care centers, education for poor wage earners, summary of recommendations and observations. The section on day care centers contains an analysis of why attempts to establish day care centers have failed.

de Scruza, Alfred, ed. Women in Contemporary India. Delhi: Manohar, 1975. 264 pp. appendix, bibliography, charts, tables.

Articles in this book about women in India cover such subjects as social mobility, employment and family change, etiquette, socio-economic status, religion and law, aging and Asian women in Britain. One author states that a major responsibility of most older women is the care of young children; a grandmother often cares for a baby while the mother is working.

Staatliche Zentralverwaltung für Statistik eds. Women in the German Democratic Republic: Facts and Figures. Dresden: Verlag zeit im bild, 1975. 79 pp. charts, illustrated.

An overview is given in this book of women in the German Democratic Republic, covering such topics as women and education, the economy, the labor force, the law and government measures to promote women and the family. Under the last category, child care facilities are discussed in detail.

Stein, Herman D., ed. "Planning for the Needs of Children in Developing Countries." Report of a UNICEF-sponsored round-table conference, Bellagio, Italy, April 1-7, 1964. 206 pp.

The purpose of the conference was to bring together planners, economists, and experts concerned with the specific needs of children to discuss the place of children and youth in the planning of national development. Topics for discussion included food and nutrition, health, education and vocational training, social welfare services, and problems of urbanization.

Stycos, J. Mayone. Children of the Barriada. New York: Grossman Publishers, Inc., 1970.

A collection of photographs and quotations on the Latin American population problem. The lack of adequate care given to many Latin American children is shown pictorially.

Sudarkasa, Niara. Where Women Work: A Study of Yoruba Women in the Marketplace and in the Home. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan, 1973. 176 pp. illustrated, tables.

Yoruba women are well known as traders within the internal marketing system of Nigeria. In fact, virtually all uneducated women, as well as many who are educated, are traders. This study points up the crucial areas of family life which have been affected by the fact that women are engaged in trade. Part I presents general background data on Yoruba society. Part II deals with the division of labor, the system of markets, and the economic activities of Awe women. Part III discusses the basic kin and residential unit of Yoruba society and the implications of women's involvement in trade for family life. The section, "Women in the Role of Mother," takes up the subject of child care arrangements made by mothers engaged in money-making activities.

Swedish International Development Authority, Research Division. Women in Developing Countries - Case Studies of Six Countries. Stockholm, 1974. 98 pp. bibliography.

An SIDA research project attempted to answer such questions as: how development affects women, the goals of the development plans, and whether political, economic and social equality

are included among these goals. The book's first section deals with the situation of women in six countries: India, North Vietnam, Kenya, Tanzania, Tunisia and Chile. The second section contains a report on the contributions of the United Nations and other international organizations to the improvement of the situation of women, especially in developing countries. Nurseries in North Vietnam and child care facilities in Chile are taken up as topics in the first section.

Talmon, Yonina. Family and Community in the Kibbutz.  
Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1972.  
appendix, references, tables.

The author's study of kibbutz life covered family patterns, patterns of work and organization, leadership, and inter-generational relations and other major aspects of social life and development of the kibbutz.

Tinker, Irene, and Bramsen, Michele Bo, eds. Women and World Development. Prepared under the auspices of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Washington, D.C.: Overseas Development Council, 1976. 228 pp. tables.

This book is a compilation of papers on the integration of women in development planning, with emphasis on the economic and social roles of women. It discusses the contribution of women to the social and economic development of the developing countries, effects of modernization and social change, social status of women in traditional cultures, and women in the labor force. Includes proceedings of the Seminar on Women in Development and a list of the participants.

United Nations. "Report of the Interregional Meeting of Experts on the Integration of Women in Development." New York: United Nations, 1973. 77 pp.

A meeting was held from June 19-28, 1972, at United Nations Headquarters to advise on broad policy measures regarding women's role in economic and social development. Women in rural societies, in small-scale business, and in modern industries, working women with family responsibilities, and the education of women were topics discussed.

United Nations Children's Fund. "The Family in a Changing Society. Non-Governmental Organizations and National Development." Report of a workshop of non-governmental organizations in consultative status with UNICEF. Santiago, Chile, May 14-17, 1969. New York: United Nations, 1969. 169 pp.

This report provides information on the organization and development of the workshop, summaries of recommendations and discussions, replies to a questionnaire circulated to non-governmental organizations in preparation for the workshop, and excerpts from documents presented to the workshop.

United Nations Children's Fund. "Programme Developments in the Americas." UNICEF, 1977. 40 pp.

This report focuses on programs of integrated action to provide basic services for children living in developing countries of the Western Hemisphere. Care of preschool children and the contributions of women to the family and the community are two of the topics discussed with reference to several Latin American countries.

United Nations Children's Fund. "Strategy for Children: A Study of UNICEF Assistance Policies." Report of the Executive Director to UNICEF Executive Board, 1967. 87 pp.

This report was presented to the Board in June 1967, in order to provide the basis for a review of the strategies, criteria, and priorities on the use of UNICEF aid. The main theme of the report is that humanitarian aims of UNICEF can best be furthered by assistance policies which contribute to long-term economic and social development, as well as improved child care in the countries in question. It notes that only a small percentage of children receive health care and that only two-fifths of school age children in developing countries complete primary education. Although the changes associated with economic development often weaken the extended family, the nuclear family is not strengthened correspondingly and social welfare services are badly needed. UNICEF can serve as (a) a catalytic agent by carrying out pilot projects, and (b) an active participant by giving substantial aid to larger priority projects as resources permit.

United Nations Children's Fund. Women and Development. Prepared in consultation with International Labour Organization, Food and Agriculture Organization, United Nations Economic and Social Council, and World Health Organization. New York: UNICEF, 1975.

Under the section on "Home, Family, and Child Welfare," it is suggested that activities be organized so that child care can free women and girls for other programs which are important to their learning and development.

United Nations Commission on the Status of Women. Participation of Women in the Economic and Social Development of their Countries: Report of the Secretary-General. New York: United Nations, 1970. 104 pp.

This report of a social survey on the role of women in the economic development and social development of their countries discusses women's rights, social status of women, traditional attitudes about the roles of men and women, education of women, child care and employment opportunities for women workers.

U.S. Department of Agriculture, Extension Service,  
in cooperation with the Agency for International  
Development. Homemaking Handbook for Village  
Workers in Many Countries. Washington, D.C.  
1971. 237 pp. bibliography.

This illustrated guide outlines steps for  
initiating and carrying out a village level home  
economics program in developing countries. It  
contains chapters suggesting ways to teach nutrition,  
health and child care, taking into account village  
customs, available resources, etc.

Van Duxen, Roxann A. "Integrating Women into National Economics: Programming Considerations with Special Reference to the Near East." Mimeographed paper presented to USAID. Washington, D.C., 1977. 67 pp. bibliographies.

The author investigates several hypotheses about the participation of women in development in the Near East. One of the areas of programming that she discusses is "Women as Child-Keeper."

Vatuk, Sylvia. Kinship and Urbanization. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1972. 219 pp. appendices, references, tables.

The white-collar middle class in a north Indian city was studied to determine 1) whether a decline occurs in the importance of kinship ties and in the family as an institution in the urban environment, and 2) whether the neighborhood where an urbanite lives is of significance for his social wellbeing. Child care services were almost never exchanged among neighbors in the area under study. Instead, a family member usually took care of children in the mother's absence, or the mother took the children with her.

Wadhwa, Kiron. The New Bread Winners. New Delhi: Vishwa Yuvak Kendra, 1976. 377 pp. appendices, bibliography, graphs, tables.

One thousand young, educated working women were studied in India. Working mothers arranged for child care responsibilities to be given to their family, a servant, a creche or nursery, or a neighbor; those sending their children to creches were most dissatisfied with the arrangement.

Weekes-Vagliani, Winifred; Bekombr, Manga, with Wallisch, Lynn. Family Life and Structure in Southern Cameroon. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, Development Centre, 1976. 87 pp. bibliography.

Three areas of Southern Cameroon were studied to gather information on the effects on the family and family structure of three modernizing variables: education, employment, and type and place of residence. Information gathered was both objective (age, sex, marital status, education, occupation, etc.) and subjective (attitudes toward traditional family customs, family life, etc.).

Whiting, Beatrice B., and Whiting, John W. M. Children of Six Cultures: A Psycho-Cultural Analysis. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1975. 237 pp. appendices, bibliography, figures, illustrated, tables.

This book explores the effect of learning environments upon the social behavior of children. Research was carried out in Kenya, Okinawa, India, the Philippines, Mexico and the United States, where 134 children between the ages of three and eleven were observed. The relative frequency with which children express certain types of social behavior was found to depend upon their age and sex, what culture they were brought up in and the setting in which they were observed.

Williams, Cicely D., and Jelliffe, Derrick B. Mother and Child Health - Delivering the Services. Oxford Medical Publications, Oxford University Press, 1972. 164 pp.

The problems of maternal and child health are examined, with emphasis on tropical and developing countries. The author states that balanced programs for maternal and child health must be created at both the community and family levels. In the least technically developed areas of the world, one-fifth of the population is under the age of five, and mothers and children together comprise over two-thirds of the population. The value of creches or day nurseries is stressed.

Wohns, Martin, and Gottesmann, Meir, ed. Group Care: An Israeli Approach. New York and London: Gordon and Breach, 1971. 437 pp. appendix, bibliographies, tables.

Youth Aliyah is a politico-ideological child care organization with a dual objective: to save children and to build a new society. This organization has aided, guided and developed various child care arrangements aimed primarily at adolescents. Among these are the kibbutz youth groups, youth villages, the residential Yeshiva (a kind of Talmudic college), preparatory groups, youth centers, and residential and day settings for the deprived and socio-culturally disadvantaged.

Women for Women Research and Study Group. Women for Women: Bangladesh, 1975. Bangladesh: University Press Ltd., 1975., 248 pp. tables.

Women for Women is a group of professional women formed in October, 1973, to investigate the problems faced by women in Bangladesh. Part I of the book contains an overview of the status of women in Bangladesh today; Part II discusses rural women; Part III presents research papers about the changing roles which women are filling as society progresses from a traditional to a modern pattern; and Part IV takes a look at the position of women as portrayed in literature through the ages. Working mothers with low wages reported that care of home and children is the most difficult problem working wives encounter.

Women's Welfare Division, Department of Social Welfare,  
India. Women in India: A Compendium of Programmes.  
New Delhi, 1975. 118 pp. appendices, illustrated.

This book examines government and voluntary programs in India that have operated for women from 1969 to 1975. The need for creches is discussed briefly under "Programmes for Women in Employment."

Zigler, Edward, and Child, Irvin L., eds. Socialization and Personality Development. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1973. 397 pp. References, tables.

This book is designed as a supplementary text for child development or personality courses. Part I includes chapters on intersocietal and intrasocietal variations of socialization. Instances are considered where cross-cultural differences in child rearing practice have been found correlated with cross-cultural differences in personality.

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