

*Employment
of women
with
family
responsibilities*

*General Survey by the Committee of Experts
on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*



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relating to the Employment (Women with
Family Responsibilities)
Recommendation, 1965 (No. 123)

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INTRODUCTION

1. Women constitute over one-third of the world's labour force - that is some 556 million. Of these working women, a large proportion work outside their homes and have family responsibilities, and are faced by the special problems arising out of the need to reconcile their dual tasks at work and at home. The ILO's Recommendation (No. 123) concerning the employment of women with family responsibilities, which was adopted in 1965, indicates what policy and measures should be promoted in order to alleviate these problems.

2. This Recommendation is one in the series of ILO standards on women workers (see Appendix II). Between 1919 when the International Labour Conference at its first session adopted a Convention on maternity protection, and 1977 when it adopted a Convention and Recommendation concerning nursing personnel, the Conference has adopted a series of instruments relating solely or essentially to women workers; it has also made special provision for women in many of the more general Conventions and Recommendations.

3. These standard-setting activities in favour of women have been inspired by two different objectives. Initially, the measures taken were designed to protect women from exploitation at work and to safeguard their health with special reference to child-bearing. This led to the adoption of Conventions and Recommendations which lay down minimum standards regarding maternity leave and benefits. Others provide for protective measures in areas not directly concerned with the function of women as mothers or future mothers, such as the prohibition of night work for women (it should be noted that many countries now refute the justification for such protective measures if they are applicable solely to women - see paragraph 183 below). In a second phase the ILO action concentrated on measures designed to promote the prospects of women in work, by ensuring, for instance, the right to equal pay for work of equal value and equality of opportunity and treatment in employment. It is obvious however that all measures promoting equal rights may prove meaningless for a vast proportion of women if - as a result of their family responsibilities - they must either give up their jobs entirely, or lose any chance of advancement because they can give only a smaller part of their attention and energy to their professional work. Accordingly the present Recommendation, which specifies the concrete and practical measures which should be introduced in order to overcome these handicaps, is amongst the most important of the ILO's instruments on the prevention of discrimination based on sex.

4. Since the adoption of the Recommendation in 1965, the Conference has devoted special attention on two occasions to the situation of women workers. These Conference discussions led to the adoption of a resolution in 1972 stressing the need for measures promoting true equality for women workers, with reference inter alia to the provision of facilities to meet the family requirements of working parents; and to the adoption in 1975 of a Declaration on equality of

opportunity and treatment for women workers and of a resolution establishing a plan of action to promote equal rights for women workers - both of which emphasise the need for measures corresponding with those of the Recommendation. Another resolution was adopted in 1975 calling for the revision of Recommendation No. 123. This resolution is considered in greater detail at the end of the present survey.

5. The ILO is alone in having an instrument such as Recommendation No. 123 which enumerates in some detail the measures which should be taken in respect of working women with family responsibilities. It is not however the only international organisation to concern itself with this problem. In the United Nations for example many decisions emphasise the need for measures of this kind in the framework of general instruments on the rights of women: for example, the Declaration of 1967 on elimination of discrimination against women, the Programme of concerted international action for the advancement of women of 1970, the Declaration and the World Plan of Action for the implementation of the objectives of the International Women's Year adopted in 1975 at the Mexico Conference of the International Women's Year, the ECOSOC Resolution of May 1977 on the five-year goals, which is concerned, inter alia, with ways of combining work and family responsibilities. Other organisations - such as UNICEF, EEC and OECD - also concern themselves with various aspects of the activities advocated in Recommendation No. 123.

Contents and objectives of Recommendation No. 123

6. The Recommendation (the text of which is given in Appendix I) first lays down the principle that the competent authorities should promote the development of services to enable women to fulfil their various responsibilities at home and at work, harmoniously and without being subject to discrimination. It then advocates two forms of concrete measures which should be taken in this regard: those designed to help women deal with immediate day-to-day problems due to their dual tasks at work and in the home, and those which are designed to eliminate discrimination in employment against such women.

7. The first series of measures are centred on the need to provide child-care services and facilities. The creation of such services should be based on statistical and other surveys ascertaining the needs and preferences for child-care arrangements; plans for the systematic development of child-care facilities and services should be established and implemented; the competent authorities should determine the standards to be complied with by the various services and facilities and supervise their application; and they should provide or help to ensure the provision of adequate training for the staff of services and facilities. However, even if extensive child-care services are available, a woman may find it necessary to take leave of absence or even to give up her work after maternity. Accordingly the Recommendation indicates that, to the extent possible, a further period of leave of absence should be authorised after the normal period of maternity leave and that, in case of termination of employment following maternity, the women concerned should be considered for re-employment in accordance with given criteria.

8. The second series of measures put forward in the Recommendation are designed partly for girls and are to ensure that they receive education, vocational guidance and vocational training

free from any discrimination on the ground of sex, as a basis for their future work lives; and partly for women who already have family responsibilities and are to ensure that appropriate counselling, placing and training facilities are supplied, enabling them to enter employment or to re-enter employment after a comparatively long absence due to family responsibilities.

9. The introduction of all these measures requires research on the problems and needs of the women workers in question, planning at all levels and action to promote public understanding of the changing role and needs of women. These basic aspects of the implementation of a policy for working women with family responsibilities are also covered by the Recommendation. The role and responsibilities of the competent authorities in ensuring the practical application of the Recommendation are mentioned repeatedly in this instrument, but in many cases these authorities are free to decide whether to create the necessary services themselves or whether merely to encourage and facilitate their creation, and references are made throughout the Recommendation to action by private organisations, including employers' and workers' organisations.

10. This brief summary of the Recommendation shows that its application will first of all, obviously, benefit the working woman, easing some of the immediate problems and the daily drudgery she must cope with when she has children or other family members, as well as a home, to care for. A second objective is to promote the welfare of children, by ensuring that infants and pre-school children get a minimum standard of competent care and attention whilst their parents are at work, and that school-age children benefit as fully as possible from the available educational facilities and are not left entirely to their own devices outside school hours and during school holidays. Yet another objective to be attained through the measures advocated in the Recommendation is the introduction of a more egalitarian society, with the progressive elimination of existing forms of discrimination against women both in their work and in their homes, and the creation of conditions where working women - even if they have family responsibilities - are able to participate in leisure-time activities and in the affairs of the community. The attainment of these objectives may in many cases help strengthen the family unit which in recent years, and in many countries, has lost its effectiveness as a stabilising factor in society.

11. Finally, the adoption of appropriate measures for working women may contribute significantly to economic expansion and facilitate the task of employers by mobilising human resources and ensuring that the workers in question have suitable qualifications and are able to devote themselves more fully to their work; this last objective, of a purely practical nature, may carry as much weight as any other and may be a decisive factor in the creation of the necessary services and working conditions.

Government reports

12. The Committee of Experts has based the present survey on the reports supplied by governments in accordance with article 19 of the ILO Constitution; a detailed summary of these reports will be found

in Report III (Part 2). A total of 117 reports*¹ was received from 103 States (i.e. 78.6 per cent of the reports requested) and in respect of 14 non-metropolitan territories. The survey also takes account of the comments of 10 employers' and 15 workers' organisations on the effect given to the Recommendation; some of these were forwarded directly to the ILO and others were transmitted by the respective governments, and in some cases they were incorporated in the governments' reports (see paragraphs 165-174 below).

13. The amount of information supplied by governments varies considerably. Many reports contain detailed information on the general policy and the measures adopted with regard to the employment of women with family responsibilities; in some cases these reports also supply information and statistics showing the extent to which these measures are applied in practice. However a great many reports are more general in character, and contain information only on limited aspects of the Recommendation, or on constitutional or other measures relating to women in general and not specifically to working women with family responsibilities.

14. In these circumstances, the present survey does not claim to provide an over-all picture of the manner in which the Recommendation is implemented. Instead it concentrates largely on selected examples of the type of measures taken. It will be found that these examples are generally drawn from the more industrialised countries. This is explained by the fact that, in most developing countries, the conditions are such that it has not so far been considered possible to give any measure of priority to the introduction of child-care services or other measures to help working mothers.

Lay-out of the survey

15. The main body of the survey follows the order of the provisions of Recommendation No. 123: general principles, public information and education, child-care services and facilities, entry and re-entry into employment, and miscellaneous provisions; followed by a chapter on the role of employers' and workers' organisations in implementing the Recommendation and, finally, the Committee's conclusion.

Note to Introduction

¹ Algeria, Australia, Austria, Argentina, Bahamas, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belgium, Benin, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burma, Byelorussian SSR, United Republic of Cameroon, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Congo, Cuba, Cyprus, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, France, Gabon, German Democratic Republic, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Guatemala, Guinea, Guyana, Haiti, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Ivory Coast, Jamaica, Japan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Liberia, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malaysia, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Mongolia, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Pakistan, Panama,

* The notes will be found at the end of the Introduction and of each chapter.

Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Surinam, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tanzania, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Ukrainian SSR, USSR, United Kingdom, United States, Upper Volta, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yemen, Yugoslavia, Zambia. United Kingdom: Bermuda, British Virgin Islands, Brunei, Gibraltar, Gilbert Islands, Guernsey, Hong Kong, Isle of Man, Jersey, Montserrat, St. Helena, St. Lucia, Solomon Islands, Tuvalu. (The reports from Australia and Yugoslavia were received too late to be taken into account in drafting the present survey.)

CHAPTER I

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

16. The Recommendation provides that the competent authorities should pursue a policy enabling women with family responsibilities who work outside their homes to do so without being subject to discrimination (paragraph 1(a)) and that they should encourage, facilitate or themselves undertake the development of services to enable women to fulfil their various responsibilities at home and at work harmoniously (paragraph 1(b)).

17. A first point to be borne in mind in considering the scope and application of the Recommendation is that although this instrument is designed principally for working women with children - many of its provisions being in fact relevant for such women only - it does apply more generally to women with family responsibilities, that is also to those having other essential tasks at home, such as an elderly member of the family to care for. It should also be noted that the use of the term "employment" of women in the title of the Recommendation should not be taken as limiting the scope of this text to women in wage- or salary-earning employment - it is in fact applicable to all women who work outside their homes.¹ Further, although the Recommendation refers both in its preamble and in various provisions to working women or women who work, it also applies to women who wish to work: this is apparent from the emphasis placed on the need for measures to facilitate the entry or re-entry of women into employment, and was also emphasised during the Conference discussions that led to the adoption of the Recommendation.

18. A special feature of the Recommendation is the great flexibility with which it is drafted. In several instances it leaves the competent authorities free to decide whether they should themselves undertake the development of the necessary services, or whether they should "encourage and facilitate" the organisation of some of these services by others, e.g. by private organisations, including, in particular, employers' and workers' organisations. Above all, the Recommendation specifies that the necessary measures should be introduced "in accordance with national and local needs and possibilities". This should make the Recommendation acceptable and relevant not only in countries where as yet little has been done to create the necessary services because of the level of economic development combined with the lack of immediate need for such services; but also in countries which already have an extensive network of services but which recognise that improvements are needed both in the quality and quantity of these services.

National policies for working women
with family responsibilities

19. The vast majority of government reports refer to general measures taken with a view to eliminating discrimination against women as regards employment - measures which may be based on the enunciation of fundamental rights in the national constitution, on a law or series of laws on employment or the status of women generally, or on long-term government plans and policies. Reviews of anti-discrimination measures of this kind have already been made by the Committee in its general surveys of 1963 and 1971 on the effect given to the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention and Recommendation of 1958, and of 1975 on the Equal Remuneration Convention and Recommendation of 1951 (Report III (Part 4) of 1961; Report III (Part 4B) of 1971; Report III (Part 4B) of 1975).

20. The existence and application of such general measures and policies are obviously an essential basis for any improvements in the conditions of working women. They do not however imply that the need for the more specific and concrete measures advocated in Recommendation No. 123 in regard to working women with family responsibilities has always been recognised by the governments concerned and that these measures are being promoted.

21. It is therefore both encouraging and interesting to find that the reports from a great many countries recognise the need for services to help working women with family responsibilities; frequently these reports show that active measures in regard to the principal areas covered by the Recommendation are being taken² but others contain information only on more limited services available to women with family responsibilities.³ Sometimes the government reports refer mainly to arrangements made in a given sector - such as crèches in industrial undertakings - to help women deal with the dual family and work responsibilities.⁴ However, the reports from a number of countries, whilst they may mention certain general measures taken with a view to eliminating discrimination on the ground of sex (without reference to measures designed specifically for working women with family responsibilities), supply information only on matters which are not in themselves directly relevant to the Recommendation, such as maternity protection, medical care services for children, or the prohibition of night work for women.⁵

22. A great many factors contribute to the decision by a government to pursue a policy enabling women with family responsibilities to exercise their right to work without being subject to discrimination. However, the direct incentive often comes from bodies which take up the cause of women in general, or working women more particularly, and which press for public understanding and support, for changes in government policy, and for new legislation and programmes. Thus many government reports show that marked improvements have been introduced, or are now being envisaged, thanks to parliamentary or other commissions on the status of women. In spite of the over-all approach to the situation of women adopted by most of these bodies, they often give special attention to the specific problems of working women with family responsibilities, and call for measures corresponding with those advocated in Recommendation No. 123.

23. In the Netherlands, where it is considered that the problems of working women with family responsibilities can be solved only through changes in the distribution of roles between men and women

in every sector of society, the Government created a national advisory committee on emancipation in 1974, which was mandated to advise the Government on the implementation of a coherent policy for the promotion of the emancipation of women. In the Ivory Coast, a national commission on women was set up in 1976 and its subcommission on women workers has already made recommendations on matters such as the promotion of women, the changing of attitudes, and adaptation of working hours; these recommendations are soon to be acted upon by the ministry concerned. In Portugal a Commission on the status of women was created recently and is required to advise the presidency of the Council of Ministers on the measures needed to eliminate discrimination against women and improve their status and conditions of life. This Commission has already issued reports on the subject, and made recommendations and has played a role in parliamentary debates on drafts relating to working women. Ad hoc or permanent commissions on the status of women in general or working women in particular are mentioned in the reports of several other governments, such as those of Austria, Barbados, Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Norway, Papua New Guinea, Spain, Sudan, USSR, Uruguay.

24. An important role in the development of a sound policy for working women with family responsibilities can also be played at the administrative level through the creation of special bureaux or departments entrusted with matters relating to working women, bureaux whose functions usually include responsibility for research, policy making and implementation. Some of the bureaux mentioned in government reports were created 50 years ago or more but most have been established within the past 10 years, that is during a period when not only the number of working women but also the proportion of those with family responsibilities have been growing rapidly. An interesting example of such administrative bodies is to be found in Japan where the Government recently created a directorate for the planning and promotion of policies relating to women; this directorate formulated a national plan of action in January 1977 which embodies the provisions of Recommendation No. 123. In the United States, the arrangements go back much further, since the Women's Bureau was set up in 1920. It is mandated to formulate standards and policies designed to promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment. It endeavours to decrease job discrimination against women, implement significant legislation designed to eliminate sex bias, and broaden employment and training opportunities for women. The ten regional offices of the Bureau work closely with employers, unions, women's organisations, and public and private agencies. In Jamaica, the Women's Bureau was created in 1975 as a direct result of the work of a special advisory committee on the status of women. Its objectives are to ensure equality between the sexes and the full integration of women in the national development, and its functions include research, education, employment and training - all of which are directly relevant to Recommendation No. 123.

25. Women's bureaux or departments such as these - often working in conjunction with advisory committees on the status of women - are mentioned in the reports of many other countries (for example, Canada, Cuba, El Salvador, France, Gabon, Norway, Philippines, Sudan, Venezuela). Certainly most of these are concerned with the problems of working women with family responsibilities, but in some cases the principal emphasis is still given to protective rather than promotional measures.

26. In many of the cases noted above, the policy enabling women with family responsibilities to work outside their homes without being

subject to discrimination has been embarked upon only within the past decade or two. However in a number of countries the relevant governmental measures have been spread over a longer period; this is particularly noticeable in countries where women have been called upon systematically to participate actively in the national economy. Thus, in describing the measures taken in regard to the Recommendation, the Government of the USSR - where women now account for 51 per cent of all workers - recalls that the Constitution of 1918 guaranteed equal rights for all citizens regardless of sex, but it also refers to the many measures taken since then in order to give effect to this principle. It indicates that the continuing importance attached to this policy is reflected, for instance, in the Five-Year Plan for 1976-80 (which provides for a series of additional measures designed to improve the qualifications and skills of women and to facilitate the situation of working mothers), in social development plans and in collective agreements. The reports from other countries with planned economies show that similar methods are adopted to implement their policies in respect of working women with family responsibilities.

27. It is necessary, in considering the general policy and measures adopted in various countries in regard to working women with family responsibilities, to bear in mind the organisational and administrative problems which this can create for governments. The measures in question touch on so many different fields that inevitably a whole series of government authorities are involved. The reports on the effect given to the Recommendation usually indicate that several ministries are concerned. Those named by governments include the ministry for local government - responsible for encouraging and helping local communities to set up and run child-care centres; the ministry of education - organising and operating kindergartens, providing facilities for school-age children outside school hours, and ensuring that girls are given appropriate education, guidance and training; the ministry of youth and sports - organising holiday camps and centres for children; the ministry of public health - fixing minimum standards for child-care centres; the ministry of labour and manpower - providing special guidance and training for women re-entering employment, ensuring the proper application of measures relating to extended leave or special working hours for working women or to factory crèches; social security institutes - covering maintenance of crèches and extending benefits to women who are absent from work because of their family responsibilities; fiscal authorities - providing for tax rebates to cover cost of child-care centres; and social welfare or child welfare ministries - with over-all responsibilities for planning and implementation in several sectors. Above all the implementation of the policy in favour of working women with family responsibilities depends on the authorities responsible for economic and social planning and for finance, which determine both the concrete needs for services and facilities, on the basis of surveys by statistical and other agencies, and the budgetary allocations to be set aside for this purpose.

28. This long enumeration of the public authorities which may be responsible for measures such as those advocated in Recommendation No. 123 is not complete, and in addition numerous private organisations are also involved. The most active and influential of these in a great many countries are the trade unions, but governments also refer in this connection to voluntary welfare organisations, including women's associations, and to religious orders. With this multitude of public and private organisations which may play a role in making available the necessary services for women workers with family responsibilities, it is not surprising to find that few governments are able to give an over-all view of the extent to which the various parts of the Recommendation are applied in practice in their countries.

29. One thing is certain, however, and that is that even in the countries where vigorous measures have been taken in favour of women workers with family responsibilities much still remains to be done. It may be relevant in this connection to quote a comment made by the Government of Mexico which could be applied - with variations - in respect of practically all reporting countries: "public opinion is gradually coming to accept the view that working women with family responsibilities should be able to work on the same footing as other women and as male workers, but this trend is only beginning and there is still a long way to go".

Notes to Chapter I

¹ Within the ILO, the term "employment" is not limited to persons in wage- or salary-earning employment, but covers also those whose status is that of "worker on own account", or "unpaid family worker" (see ILO: Official Bulletin, 1974, Nos. 2, 3 and 4, pp. 201-2: Interpretation of decisions of the International Labour Conference).

² Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Byelorussian SSR, Canada, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, Federal Republic of Germany, German Democratic Republic, Hungary, Israel, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Mexico, Mongolia, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukrainian SSR, USSR, United Kingdom, United States.

³ Algeria, Bahamas, Barbados, Chile, Colombia, Cyprus, Ecuador, El Salvador, Greece, Guyana, Ireland, Ivory Coast, Jamaica, Lebanon, Malaysia, Mauritius, Morocco, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Singapore, Sudan, Surinam, Tunisia, Turkey, United Kingdom (Gibraltar, Guernsey, Hong Kong), Uruguay.

⁴ Argentina, Bangladesh, Benin, Bolivia, Brazil, Burma, United Republic of Cameroon, Dominican Republic, Egypt, Fiji, Guatemala, Guinea, Haiti, India, Indonesia, Iraq, Kuwait, Liberia, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Madagascar, Mali, Malta, Niger, Nigeria, Pakistan, Paraguay, Peru, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Syrian Arab Republic, Tanzania, Trinidad and Tobago, United Kingdom (Bermuda, Brunei, Isle of Man, Montserrat, St. Helena, St. Lucia, Virgin Islands), Upper Volta, Yemen.

⁵ Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Mauritania, Panama, Rwanda, Sri Lanka, Thailand, United Kingdom (Gilbert Islands, Jersey, Solomon Islands, Tuvalu), Venezuela, Zambia.

CHAPTER II

PUBLIC INFORMATION AND EDUCATION

Consideration of the problems of women workers

30. The Recommendation indicates that the competent authorities should encourage such consideration as may be necessary of the problems of women workers with family responsibilities, in order to help them to become integrated in the labour force on the basis of equal rights (Paragraph 2(a)).

31. The general information in the previous chapter, on the instruments through which government policies for working women with family responsibilities are implemented, illustrates how consideration of the problems of such women can be encouraged. This is normally done through the special commissions on the status of women, the national women's bureaux, the various government departments with responsibility for developing special services helping women to combine their responsibilities at home and at work, or the national authorities entrusted with economic and social planning.

Research

32. The Recommendation further states that the competent authorities should undertake or promote research into the various aspects of the employment of women with family responsibilities with a view to presenting objective information on which sound policies and measures may be based (Paragraph 2(b)).

33. An interesting example of the range of such research is to be found in the report from the Government of Norway: there the labour authorities support and encourage research projects on matters such as women in traditionally male work, women in part-time work, the use of time (work, home and leisure activities), concealed underemployment of women, and case studies on working women. Furthermore a special secretariat for research on questions relating to women was established in 1976 and is to serve as an organ for information and contact between the various research workers and institutions working on projects relating to women. In Mexico, four studies were carried out, in connection with the International Women's Year, to determine the nature of the problems of women workers.

34. In Czechoslovakia, according to the Government's report, extensive research is also ensured by continuing analyses being carried out at all levels of the factors and conditions influencing the rate of employment of women. In the German Democratic Republic, it is the law which provides that the Government must ensure that problems of working

women with family responsibilities are included in the research plans of scientific institutes. Formal obligations are also laid down in the Japanese legislation, which specifies that the minister of labour must undertake research into the working and home lives of women and empowers him to request information on the subject from central and local authorities; the Government indicates in its report that continuing research is carried out in compliance with this requirement. Obligations to carry out research are mentioned in several other reports. Thus research on the problems of working women is often included in the functions of committees on the status of women (for example, in Belgium, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain) and in the functions of women's bureaux or departments (for example, in Austria, Canada, France, Jamaica, Paraguay, Uruguay, Venezuela, United States). Other government institutes, as well as private organisations, also carry out research projects on the problems of working women. For example, a number of recent studies have been made by the employment department in Austria; various research activities on the subject have been entrusted to the federal employment institute in the Federal Republic of Germany; and surveys have been conducted by the universities of Hong Kong into family life, including the problems of working wives.

35. Several reports indicate that important research projects are at present under way. For example, in Luxembourg the Ministry of Families is working on an inquiry which is to give objective information on the situation of working women with family responsibilities. In Paraguay, certain studies are already being made and the current national plan on human resources and employment provides for further inquiries into the obstacles to the integration of women in the labour force. In Peru, several reports have been or are now being drawn up, including studies on the determining factors in the participation of women in the labour force, and on the social and economic position of women, including in particular working mothers with children. Research projects such as these should, as indicated in Recommendation No. 123, provide objective information on which sound policies and measures may be based.

Public education

36. The Recommendation provides that the competent authorities should take steps to engender broader public understanding of the problems of women workers with family responsibilities, with a view to developing community policies and a suitable climate of opinion (Paragraph 2(c)). It also provides that they should help ensure public understanding and support for efforts to meet the special needs of working parents in respect of child-care services and facilities (Paragraph 6).

37. Government reports show that the need for such measures is appreciated in many countries. In fact it is often an essential element of government programmes in this area, where traditional attitudes and prejudices are slow in changing. Sometimes public support is sought through substantial reports on the problems of women workers, accompanied by a publicity campaign. Thus the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany indicates that two reports on the situation of women in occupational, family and social life, which it published in 1966 and 1972, had a widespread and lasting effect on the press and the public; and that numerous other studies have been and are being made, texts have been published, and appropriate statistical surveys have been carried out.

38. In Bulgaria, the Central Council of Trade Unions, the Committee of Bulgarian Women and other social organisations are encouraged to make the problems of women workers known to the public and to ensure that new initiatives are followed up in practice. In Canada, the responsible minister has funds available for national women's organisations or other national organisations dealing with the status of women, to help them promote public awareness of the position of women in the country. The Swedish Government indicates that during the past decade, and particularly on the occasion of the International Women's Year, there have been lively debates in the mass media on the respective roles of men and women and that these have had considerable influence on the long-term programmes of the political parties and trade unions. Another way of attracting the attention of the public is mentioned by the Belgian Government where two "days" were organised in 1975 with the aim of spreading information systematically on the situation of women workers, encouraging discussion and getting to know the spontaneous reactions of the people concerned. In Mexico, several such days on the participation of women in the national economic life have been organised jointly by the National Labour Research Institute and the Congress of Labour, they were marked by numerous meetings and were widely publicised, and led to the formulation of recommendations on improvements to be introduced in working conditions of women.

39. Interesting measures are also taken in certain developing countries and the Government of Upper Volta, for example, indicates that the Federation of Women of Upper Volta, together with government services, are endeavouring to educate the public so that women with family responsibilities may become integrated in the labour force.

40. The adoption of new legislation on sex discrimination frequently gives rise to controversial discussion in the press and elsewhere. These debates, together with the guidebooks which many governments issue on the implementation of such laws can prove to be an excellent means of making the public aware of the problems of women workers, including those who have family responsibilities. It is therefore interesting to note in this context that many reports refer to important laws on discrimination against women which have been adopted in recent years or which are now before parliament (for example, Italy, Norway, Sweden, United Kingdom).

41. Government reports also mention numerous other measures which have been taken in order to secure public understanding of the difficulties facing working women, as well as support for the development of appropriate services. These include the publication of booklets or periodic reviews on various subjects of importance for working women, films (including some made for the International Women's Year), seminars and meetings for women, the organisation of conferences between employers and workers on the subject, a child-minders' "week", and school competitions on the status of women.

CHAPTER III

CHILD-CARE SERVICES AND FACILITIES

42. This part of the Recommendation, which is concerned with the development of child-care services and facilities, is at the heart of the instrument. Great care may be given to promoting recognition of the right of women to the same treatment as men, and to ensuring that they receive the best and most appropriate training - but all will be of little real use to most women unless good child-care services are developed and made available to them. This is certainly appreciated by governments, and even the briefest of the reports received normally supply information on the effect given to this part of the Recommendation.

Compilation of information on child-care needs

43. The Recommendation provides that, with a view to determining the scope and character of the child-care services and facilities needed, the competent authorities should collect and publish adequate statistics on the number of mothers engaged in or seeking employment and on the number and age of their children; and should ascertain the needs and preferences for child-care arrangements organised outside the family (Paragraph 3).

44. Measures such as those envisaged in this provision are perhaps less essential in countries which have, and plan to have, only restricted child-care facilities - for example when these are limited to crèches in larger industrial undertakings in which most of the labour force consists of women. However, once a government decides to develop facilities on a systematic, long-term basis, it must have available to it precise statistics and other data showing what are the quantitative and qualitative needs, that is, just what facilities are available and needed in different areas and communities, and whether these provide day-care, semi-residential or residential services, etc. Furthermore, these statistics must be updated periodically, so that shifting needs can be identified and met.

45. It seems from government reports that in some cases the general research programmes or the manpower surveys on working women with family responsibilities, such as those mentioned in Chapter II above, are sufficiently extensive to meet the more specific requirements of Paragraph 3 - that is the compilation of statistics and other information on the needs and preferences for child-care arrangements. In other cases the reports refer to more specific surveys designed to ascertain these needs, and supply particulars on the means by which the necessary information is collected, and its utilisation.

46. Thus in Canada, for example, a detailed statistical survey of working mothers and their child-care arrangements was carried out in 1973; in addition, annual surveys have been conducted since 1973 by the federal authorities and provide an inventory of day-care places on a national basis, surveys of local needs are undertaken regularly by welfare agencies or community groups, and a special survey was made in 1974 of the needs of federal employees for day-care facilities for their children.

47. Several governments indicate that detailed statistics on the number of working mothers and on the number and age of their children have been compiled in the framework of demographic analyses (for example, Byelorussian SSR, USSR) or of population censuses (for example, Czechoslovakia, German Democratic Republic, Federal Republic of Germany, Tunisia). In the United States, special steps are taken to keep such statistics up to date and monthly figures are published on the number of mothers engaged in or seeking employment and on the number and age of their children.

48. In certain countries information has been compiled as regards a given area or on the basis of sample surveys (for example, in Jamaica, Morocco, Singapore, Surinam). In Japan a 1976 survey on the actual needs of working mothers in respect of child-care services took into account the situation in some 10,000 households. In Portugal also a survey of this kind was undertaken recently, but it was found that no clear conclusions could be drawn because of the limited nature of the sample.

49. Far-reaching statistical and other surveys are at present being undertaken in several countries. The Belgian Government, for example, reports that an extensive national social science survey is underway; it is being financed by the Government and split up among all Belgian universities, and one of the objectives of the survey is to ascertain the needs and preferences for child-care facilities. In Cyprus also the Government is undertaking a survey of the needs and preferences of working mothers as regards day-care facilities, and the Government of the Philippines has indicated that, by the end of 1977, it would be working on the compilation and publication of statistics on the number of mothers engaged in or seeking employment as well as on the number and age of their children. In the United Kingdom a report, prepared by the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys, was to be published in 1977 showing the extent of the need for day-care amongst pre-school children.

50. Certain governments, as noted above, have indicated that their surveys are also designed to ascertain the preference of mothers as regards child-care facilities. Very few of these reports however give detailed information on the subject, that is whether the parents are given an opportunity to indicate if they prefer to have the facilities near their home or near their workplace, whether priority should be given to facilities for pre-school age children or for those already at school, what would be the most convenient time-table for the operation of services, if these should be organised on a family or an institutional scale, if they would welcome regular co-operation between the child-care services and themselves, and what - if any - contribution they could make to the running costs of these services.

Planning and provision of child-care services

51. The Recommendation indicates (in Paragraph 4) that the competent authorities should encourage and facilitate the establishment of plans for the systematic development of child-care services and facilities, and that they should themselves organise as well as encourage and facilitate the provision of such services.

52. Organisation of services and facilities. The government reports on the Recommendation show that, as a general rule, the main responsibility for deciding on the creation of child-care facilities lies with the local communities. The measures taken at governmental level with a view to promoting a network of child-care services and facilities usually take the form of subsidies: for all or part of the initial construction and equipment and of the running costs. In addition the central authorities often encourage local authorities to make long-term plans, sometimes in the framework of a national plan; they determine what government institutes or other bodies will have general co-ordinating responsibilities and sometimes indicate how the co-operation of private organisations should be secured; they also supply model plans for building and equipment and other technical advice. In some cases, national legislation lays down formal obligations regarding child-care facilities - for instance, by requiring local authorities to ensure that the minimum needs are met or by obliging certain categories of undertakings to create and maintain crèches.

53. The different systems may best be illustrated by the following examples of the measures taken to organise or facilitate the organisation of child-care services in various reporting countries.

54. In the USSR, full responsibility for the organisation of facilities for children below school age lies with state organs, supported by public bodies, trade unions, co-operatives, undertakings and organisations. The system of pre-school institutions is flexible, being adapted to the needs of the parents and children. Children are cared for all the year round, except during public and statutory holidays, and may spend 9, 12 or 24 hours in the institution. There is a wide network of facilities, some 50 per cent of which belong to local soviets of workers' deputies. The extent of these institutions is evidenced by the fact that they care for some 12 million children between the ages of 2 months and 7 years, that is 40 per cent of all such children in the country. In Bulgaria, the decision to set up community crèches is taken by the local authorities, which then receive full financial backing from the State; this type of crèche is designed essentially for the children of persons employed by the administration or in small undertakings. In addition crèches are established in larger undertakings, in accordance with the national legislation, and on the basis of collective agreements. In such cases, the full costs are borne by the undertaking. The central authorities carry out overall reviews to ensure that the basic needs for child-care facilities are met and, where necessary, encourage the creation of new crèches. The number of places in crèches and kindergartens in this country increased from 16,000 in 1948 to some 440,000 in 1974. In Czechoslovakia, similar arrangements exist and special efforts have been made to develop crèches (the number of places has increased 23-fold since 1945), as this is deemed the most important aspect of the policy designed to enable women with family responsibilities to remain integrated in the labour force.

55. In Canada, traditionally, day care has been financed through a variety of private voluntary sources, but it is now being increasingly funded through public subsidy. Federal resources for day care are available for persons in receipt of social assistance or persons who would become persons in need if the service were not available. The extent to which federal funds are utilised depends on the decision of the provincial jurisdiction. Under the Canada Assistance Plan the federal government will meet 50 per cent of certain costs involved (e.g. rent, programme equipment), with the other 50 per cent to be met by the province and the municipality. No funds are made available for initial outlays required for buildings.

56. In Sweden, the municipalities are responsible for the development of child-care facilities. In 1975, the Association of Local Authorities, together with the parties concerned and the education authorities, drew up a forecast of child-care personnel and training requirements for the period up to 1990. An agreement was then concluded between the government and the municipalities for an expansion of child-care facilities by 100,000 day-care places and 5,000 leisure centre places during the period from 1976 to 1980. Government contributions take the form of loans and grants. They now meet more than 60 per cent of current expenses, and establishment grants were nearly doubled recently as an extra incentive for the creation of new facilities.

57. In Finland, recent legislation on day care for children requires each commune to provide whatever facilities are needed (day home, supervised family day care and guided and supervised play care on appropriate premises). The State pays 35 to 80 per cent of the running costs, depending on the financial situation of the commune.

58. In Spain, a Decree of 1970 provides for various services for children under 6 to be created and maintained by the State or other institutions. In addition, a national plan on child-care facilities was drawn up in 1974 with a view to promoting the welfare of children and enabling women to participate in the labour force. It provides for crèches, nurseries and kindergartens to be set up through the Social Assistance Institute in co-operation with the local authorities, parents' associations, public, private or church organisations and the persons directly concerned. Assistance is given in the form of technical building plans and subsidies for construction, equipment and running costs.

59. In Mexico, the Social Insurance Institute is required by law to set up day nurseries for the children of insured women in zones where the compulsory social insurance scheme operates. Employers pay the full premium for financing the service, irrespective of whether they employ any women on their staff. In the Philippines it is provided by law that public nursery and kindergarten schools are to be maintained wherever possible by the local governments, and that aid from local board funds may be provided. A total of 2,993 day-care centres are operated by the Department of Social Services and Development, and a further 1,186 centres were expected to be set up in 1977. Some centres have also been established by a women's organisation.

60. In Japan, guidance is given to the local authorities for the formulation and updating of long-term programmes for the establishment of child-care facilities. The national treasury bears 50 per cent of the building and equipment costs. The goal set for 1971-75 was attained and further improvements in these facilities are to be promoted.

61. In a number of countries the law provides for an obligation to create and maintain crèches in certain categories of undertakings, usually those in which a large number of women are employed. In certain cases such crèches are the only child-care facilities mentioned in the government reports (for example, Bangladesh, Haiti, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Malaysia). In other cases the governments indicate that, in addition to such crèches established by employers, some child-care services are provided by the authorities or through private bodies (for example, Burma, Syrian Arab Republic). Finally, in several countries it appears that most of the crèches and other arrangements are set up by private bodies (for example, Ireland, Portugal).

62. Type of child-care facilities and services. The Recommendation indicates that the facilities and services should meet the needs of "children of different ages and of their parents", but without specifying what type of services etc. should be established. It is however clear from government reports that priority is always given to facilities for pre-school children (the examples cited above all concern this category of children). The arrangements in question include crèches, day nurseries and kindergartens; the facilities are sometimes provided in institutions, and sometimes through child-minders; they may be organised for the children of workers in a given undertaking, or in a given area; they may be open to all children or priority may be given to those having special social or health needs, or to those whose parents are both employed outside the home; they may take in children on a half-day, daily or weekly basis; they may be designed essentially for the educational needs of the child, or they may be organised essentially with a view to fitting in with the parents' working hours (sometimes being even adapted to multi-shift systems). The fact that in many countries several different systems exist side by side is an indication of the efforts being made to meet varying needs within a community, and to select the system best adapted to the financial restrictions which frequently slow down the development of services - for example, by introducing a system of registered child-minders instead of building and equipping special institutions.

63. However, although not so acute as in the case of younger children, there is also a real need for facilities for school-age children, that is some form of group care outside normal school hours and during school holidays. The government reports show that there are few cases in which a systematic effort is made in this area. Exceptions do however exist.

64. In Poland, for example, measures have been taken to make available dayrooms providing pedagogical and recreational facilities for school-age children of working parents or from large families, and semi-boardings schools for children of parents on shift work. In addition, extensive facilities are provided for children during school holidays: semi-camps (one-day arrangements from which the children return home for the night) with food, sports, recreational and cultural facilities, as well as summer and winter camps outside their place of residence. In Czechoslovakia also considerable efforts have been made to develop these services. Thus, for example, 30 per cent of the children in the first five classes benefit from the recreational and educational centres available outside school hours and over a million schoolchildren receive school meals.

65. The governments of other countries also refer to measures being taken in this area. In the United Kingdom there has been an increase recently in the number of schemes of local authorities and

voluntary organisations providing for play and care for older children during out-of-school hours and school holidays, government assistance being provided through the Urban Programme. Consideration is being given to the possibility of making wider use of school premises for care and play activities outside school hours. The Canadian report indicates that day-care centres and neighbourhood family day-care homes, as well as certain schools, may in some cases provide meals and care outside school hours for the children of working parents; in addition, day camps are organised during school holidays by various voluntary organisations. In the Netherlands a number of centres have been created to meet the needs of schoolchildren between school hours and in New Zealand certain education boards authorise the use of schools for the after-school care of children.

66. Parents' fees. The Recommendation indicates (Paragraph 4(b)) that child-care services and facilities should be provided "at reasonable charge or free in case of need". As indicated above, state subsidies constitute one of the most effective means of promoting the building and operation of facilities, and it is not surprising to find therefore that, as a rule, parents' contributions cover only a small part of the running costs of services created by public bodies, by employers or by voluntary organisations. In some countries, even, no fee whatever is charged. Thus, for example, child-care facilities are free in Cuba and in the German Democratic Republic (although in the latter case parents are required to pay for the meals provided). Similarly in Greece the law provides that child-care facilities are free of charge for the children of working mothers, and in Mexico no fees need be paid by working mothers for day nurseries set up by the Social Insurance Institute.

67. In other cases the fees cover only a small part of the actual expenses. In Czechoslovakia, for instance, parents pay an average of 15 per cent of these costs, and in the Ukrainian SSR between 15 per cent and 25 per cent; in Norway, the State and local authorities pay nearly 90 per cent of the running costs of child-care facilities. In these countries, and also in many others (for example, Belgium, Canada, Cyprus, Sweden, USSR) the fees are based on the parents' income and also sometimes on other social factors. The differences may be very marked, as in Sweden where the daily fee per child varies between 1 and 34 kronor. In addition many of the governments in question indicate that child-care facilities are provided free of charge to certain low-income or other categories of families, or that tax deductions or special grants are provided for to cover the fees which would normally be paid by the parents.

68. Other arrangements are made in some countries to ease the financial burden of parents. In Austria, an allocation which may amount to half the actual costs of child-care facilities is paid to women who, because of their family responsibilities, would not otherwise be able to take up or retain a job; full costs may be covered if it is important, in the interests of the employment situation, that the woman should be employed. In France, a special allowance is paid to the working mothers of young children to cover child-minding costs. In certain countries, government aid in covering fees is given in the form of tax rebates. Thus in Canada up to \$1,000 annually may be exempted from federal income tax to cover child-care facility expenses and to permit a mother (or in some cases a father) to work or to follow occupational training courses. In the United States tax credits may be claimed to cover out-of-home care for children under 15 years of age; child-care payments made to relatives may also qualify for such tax credits. Such systems of allocations or tax

rebates are not exclusive and other arrangements exist in these countries to help cover all or part of the cost of child-care facilities in certain cases.

69. Little information has been supplied regarding the fees charged for child-care services operated by welfare organisations. Certain governments indicate however that these are normally available at reasonable cost, or free of charge in case of need. As for the fees charged by privately-run institutions where the costs must be met entirely or mainly by the parents alone, these are normally fixed freely by the institutions concerned.

Prescribed standards for child-care services

70. The Recommendation provides that, with a view to safeguarding the health and welfare of the child, the child-care services and facilities should comply with standards laid down by the competent authorities, and that these standards should prescribe in particular the equipment and hygiene requirements, and the number and qualifications of the staff (Paragraph 5(a) and (b)).

71. Most of the governments having sent information on child-care services indicate that these are required to meet official standards prescribed by law or regulations. In certain cases (for example, Pakistan, India) the standards mentioned apply only to crèches set up in factories and in others they apply to all kinds of day nurseries, to child-minders and to play-groups (for example, the United Kingdom).

72. As a rule these regulations fix standards on hygiene, equipment and staff but the level of the requirements varies considerably. In the Byelorussian SSR, for instance, the legislation specifies the nature of the building, the floor space per child, sanitary equipment, teaching equipment and audio-visual aids, kitchen equipment and rules for food conservation and the preparation of meals, personal hygiene requirements for staff and children, the number of children in each age-group and the number of age-groups in the centres, etc. The standards mentioned by governments in some cases also fix the number of hours of child care to be given, the nature of the activities to be carried out, and the periodicity of medical examinations.

73. Variations from country to country are particularly marked in the standards for staff qualifications. Where few resources are available, the legislation may merely require the presence of an attendant, but in countries where there is an active policy centred on the development of child-care centres high standards are usually fixed - thus in Sweden, for example, pre-school teachers must attend a two-year training course which includes pedagogics, psychology and civics.

74. The Recommendation also provides that child-care centres and facilities are to be supervised by the competent authorities (Paragraph 5(a)), and arrangements of this kind are mentioned in many reports. Sometimes responsibility for supervision lies with the local authorities (for example, Netherlands, United Kingdom), in other cases it lies with the educational authorities (for example, the Byelorussian SSR, Jamaica), the public health authorities (for example, Sweden), the social or labour authorities (for example, Cyprus, Singapore), or with several different public bodies (for example, Czechoslovakia). In some

countries, in order to make supervision more effective it is provided that public financial backing may be withdrawn if the prescribed standards are not met (for example, Luxembourg, United States), or that the authorities may refuse to register private facilities which are below standard (for example, United Kingdom).

75. The Recommendation, in addition to stating that the standards should determine the number and qualifications of staff, specifies that the competent authorities should provide or help to provide adequate training at various levels for the personnel needed to staff child-care services (Paragraph 5(c)).

76. Both the difficulties and the possibilities of ensuring such training are illustrated by the situation in Sweden. Here the expansion in child-care services and the demand for competent staff led to an increase in trained pre-school teachers from 1,710 in 1970 to 4,254 in 1976 - yet, even with this remarkable increase, the situation is still considered unsatisfactory and a bill was tabled in 1977 calling for a further increase in pre-school teacher training capacity.

77. A number of other reports describe the responsibility of the competent authorities in ensuring the availability of trained staff. Thus in Cyprus the department of social welfare selects, trains and subsidises child-minders; in Tanzania the Ministry of Labour is responsible for ensuring the training - in eight centres, in courses lasting between three and ten months - of day-care assistants, leaders, instructors and supervisors; in the Byelorussian SSR the authorities see to the training of the staff for pre-school establishments who must have specialised secondary or advanced education, and for crèches who must have some training as nurses as well as being qualified teachers. Sometimes an important role is played by private organisations, as in Switzerland, where the national association of crèches is largely concerned with the training of staff and the quality of the services rendered.

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78. In concluding these brief comments on the planning, provision and organisation of different types of child-care facilities, it may be necessary to point out that only very fragmentary aspects of the arrangements existing in the various countries are covered (a more complete review of these arrangements will be found in Report III (Part 2) which gives a summary of the government reports on Recommendation No. 123). It is in fact noteworthy that no less than 87 of the reporting governments have indicated that child-care services or facilities are available to working women in the country, and that in many cases these services are being expanded and improved, that new standards have been or are being introduced and that new staff training facilities are being developed.

CHAPTER IV

ENTRY AND RE-ENTRY INTO EMPLOYMENT

Employment policy measures

79. In addition to the concrete and specific measures provided for in regard to matters such as child-care services and facilities, the Recommendation also indicates (Paragraph 7) that the competent authorities should take all measures in accordance with the Employment Policy Convention and Recommendation, 1964, to enable women with family responsibilities to become or to remain integrated in the labour force as well as to re-enter the labour force. The latter Convention and Recommendation provide that the employment policy of each country must aim at ensuring that there is work for all who are available for and seeking work and that there is freedom of choice of employment, irrespective (inter alia) of sex.

Employment policy measures for women in general

80. The principle of non-discrimination on grounds of sex in national employment policies is very widely recognised (see the General Survey made by the present Committee in 1972 on the application of the Employment Policy Convention and Recommendation, 1964: Report III, Part 4B of 1972) and the implementation of such policies is normally beneficial to working women in general, including those with family responsibilities. In fact, however, general measures taken under an employment policy may not be sufficient to compensate for the many difficulties facing women job-seekers, and which are reflected in the much higher unemployment and underemployment rates for women - as compared to men - and in the fact that women are more exposed than men to the effects of recession.

81. Accordingly, many governments have taken special measures, in the framework of the national employment policy, designed specifically to promote the employment opportunities of women. These include, for example, the creation of machinery and programmes aimed at reducing sex discrimination in education, training and employment; public education campaigns designed to change traditional concepts on the respective roles of men and women in society; over-all national plans of action; official guidelines and other wide-ranging measures aimed at increasing the participation of women in all forms of economic activity; systematic efforts in favour of the recruitment of women in areas where they have been grossly unrepresented; making government grants subject to the employment by the undertaking of an appropriate proportion of women workers reflecting the realities of the labour market; research to identify the problems of women in employment and to suggest the necessary remedial action; the extension to women of job opportunities under emergency public works projects; the development of

industries where women are more likely to be recruited; and the elimination of out-dated or inadequate protective measures applicable only to women and which are liable to reduce their employment prospects.

82. Examples of measures such as these are mentioned in the reports of governments from all parts of the world: Africa, the Americas, Asia, Eastern and Western Europe and Oceania. However it would seem that in most countries, no substantial action is being taken to secure an increase in the participation of women in the labour force. Furthermore, even the governments of those countries where an energetic employment policy is already being pursued frequently refer to the proposed introduction of, or to the need for further measures in favour of women.

Employment policy measures for women
with family responsibilities

83. As already indicated, all measures aimed at improving the situation in the labour market of women in general should likewise have favourable repercussions on women with family responsibilities wishing to remain in the labour force, or to enter or re-enter employment after a relatively long period of absence.

84. However, special interest attaches to measures or policies designed specifically to promote employment opportunities for women with family responsibilities, who are most exposed to discrimination in employment. These measures may take many different forms and may be applicable to all such women or only to given categories thereof. In some cases, for example, the governments concerned indicate that the competent authorities are required to ensure that appropriate jobs are given to all women who, for family reasons, have been out of the employment market for a long time (German Democratic Republic); or that the goal of the equality policy has been to facilitate the participation of women in economic activities despite their family responsibilities (Finland); or that the national laws provide that priority in recruiting must be given to certain categories of workers including women who are breadwinners or who have many children and that additional posts may be provided out of a special fund for such women (Poland). Sometimes the governments act by appealing to employers to give priority, when recruiting workers, to women having interrupted their career in order to look after their children (Belgium), or by giving a special grant to employers who take on a woman with children who is the sole breadwinner (Japan). Other measures mentioned in government reports include modifications in family and marriage law so as to create a legal basis for married women to carry on a gainful activity, and special housing facilities for women who are sole breadwinners for a family, enabling them to move to areas where jobs are available (Federal Republic of Germany).

85. It should of course be borne in mind, when reviewing these few illustrations of measures taken to promote employment opportunities, that all the other projects and activities envisaged in this survey - provision of child-care facilities, special leave to look after children, training schemes, etc. - are also designed to make more effective an employment policy enabling women with family responsibilities to become or to remain integrated in the labour force.

Education and vocational
preparation for girls

86. According to Paragraph 8 of the Recommendation the competent authorities should, in co-operation with the public and private organisations concerned, in particular employers' and workers' organisations, take all measures that may be necessary in the national circumstances (a) to ensure the provision for girls of general education, vocational guidance and vocational training free from any form of discrimination on the ground of sex; (b) to encourage girls to obtain a sound vocational preparation as a basis for their future work lives; and (c) to convince parents and educators of the need to give girls a sound vocational preparation, with a view to enabling women with family responsibilities to become integrated in the labour force on a footing of equality and facilitating their entry into employment or their re-entry, after a comparatively long period of absence.

87. The following paragraphs will deal successively with general and higher education, vocational training and apprenticeship, and the role of information and vocational guidance in the choice of occupation. The examples provided relate to relatively few countries, since only a limited number of governments have provided information concerning the education and training of girls, having concentrated rather on the immediate problems of women with family responsibilities and their solutions.

General and higher education

88. Most of the recent studies on the status of women stress the importance of basic general education in connection with their advancement and role in society and their integration in economic and social development. In an increasing number of countries it is, moreover, recognised that the aim should be to provide the same education for boys and girls, with an identical curriculum, at all levels of the educational system. In Norway, for example, the principle has been explicitly stated that the teachers are obliged to give boys and girls the same education in form and in substance. In addition, consultants have been appointed for examining school books or other teaching media in order to make sure that they are in line with the principle of equality of status between the sexes.

89. The vast majority of reports have indicated in general terms that the basic education is compulsory and that both boys and girls receive the same education. Others have specified that attendance at the nine-year basic school is compulsory (Hong Kong, Norway, Sweden). In Cyprus, free compulsory education is provided up to third year of secondary school, and in the United States through the age of 16. In Mauritius, free education at the primary, secondary and post secondary levels is provided to boys and girls alike, and in Kuwait girls are entitled to education at all levels.

90. According to the Government's report the differences in duration and kind of education received by boys and girls in the Netherlands is connected to a certain degree with other forms of social inequality and precisely in the most underprivileged social strata people draw the least profit from educational facilities, through lack of both opportunity and motivations, and differences between boys and girls in this respect are the largest. It is however, expected that plans to raise the school-leaving age will also benefit the training of

girls and the establishment of an intermediate school for all children between 12 and 16 may contribute to reducing the lagging behind of girls in education by eliminating an early choice which is often socially determined.

91. In several countries schools still provide specific practical education according to sex (e.g., cooking and sewing for girls, and woodwork for boys) at the primary level. This is the case, for instance, in New Zealand and the Netherlands. In Czechoslovakia, a compulsory subject specially designed for girls, in order to prepare them for their future role of wife and mother, is included in the school syllabus from the seventh to the ninth grades. It covers three subjects: rudiments of dressmaking and tailoring, nutrition and child-care. In addition, it appears from the information available that, when there is a system of optional choice of subjects, there continues to be a trend for fewer girls than boys to study mathematics and science at the secondary level.

92. A further trend that emerges from a number of government reports is that the proportion of girls going on to secondary and higher education is increasing almost everywhere. However, despite efforts to the contrary, girls still tend, in the majority of countries, to take courses that will prepare them for careers in low-paying jobs and enrol heavily in courses leading to traditional careers in teaching, nursing and the social services. Thus, at both levels, even where girls number about the same as boys, it is reported that they are largely to be found in the general liberal arts and social sciences curricula, which now afford poorer outlooks for employment than many other curricula. In most countries much smaller numbers of girls are to be found in the technology and natural science departments, where boys predominate. This may be due to the difficulty anticipated in finding appropriate employment after graduation. A few countries have however reported a tendency towards greater access by girls to a wider range of technical and vocational education and training both at the secondary and at the higher levels (e.g. Canada, USSR).

Apprenticeship and vocational training

93. A large number of governments report that girls and boys have the same possibilities of attending apprenticeship or vocational training establishments. In Belgium, the Committee on Women's Employment has emphasised the need for genuine equality for young people of both sexes at every level of training and the need for an increased awareness of the relationship between employment and training. In Sweden, to strengthen the career-mindedness of boys and girls alike, the basic school makes provision for short periods of apprenticeship and gives information about the world of work; representatives of trade unions and employers pay visits to the school to give information and organise discussion. In the United Kingdom, a programme of experimental schemes of unified vocational preparation is being established for young people who enter jobs where they receive little or no systematic training and further education. The schemes are designed to smooth the transition from school to work and to develop the basic skills needed for adult life.

94. Although boys and girls thus tend to receive the same basic education and may have equal access to vocational training or apprenticeship, boys in practice usually elect to try their hand at industrial production or various trades while the girls still opt for

office work, textile work, nursing or other service occupations, which keep them generally in lesser paid positions. For example, in the Netherlands, apprenticeship training is attended only by boys in nearly all apprenticeship training systems, because this kind of training had been extended rather to the occupations traditionally carried out mainly by men. In Sweden, in grades 7 to 9 pupils are permitted to choose between two handicraft lines. As of the autumn of 1974, 94 per cent of the boys in grade 9 still chose woodwork and metalwork while 88 per cent of girls chose textile work. In Czechoslovakia, there are about 300 different apprenticeship branches; two-thirds of these are also open to girls.

95. Apart from the educational and vocational structure, it appears to be the traditionally different and restricted orientations of boys and girls toward their occupational future as well as their social environment which determine the differences between the duration and kind of education received by boys and girls. It is pointed out by some governments that organised information and adequate guidance of the process of choosing a school and a profession may have a remedial influence in this regard.

Information and vocational guidance

96. From the reports received it emerges that in a number of countries one of the tasks of educational and vocational guidance in schools is to counteract traditional occupational choices governed by sexual prejudice and that great efforts have been made in this respect in recent years. So far, however, the effects appear to have been relatively small. In Sweden, within the school system efforts to broaden the vocational decisions of young persons have been redoubled. With a view to redressing bias in vocational decisions the competent authorities have recommended, among other things, a steering of practical vocational guidance activities so as to enable girls to acquaint themselves with predominantly masculine occupations at the same time as boys can familiarise themselves with a predominantly feminine sphere of employment. The Government of the Netherlands points out that the principle of equal opportunity must be realised not only formally but also materially and that role-confirming tendencies in information and counselling in the attitudes of teachers and teaching material must be countered as much as possible via information activities and systematic efforts in favour of girls. The various guidance publications and other media used in counselling must make it perfectly clear that the training and job opportunities discussed are in principle equally available to boys and girls.

97. In Norway, a study and evaluation of the vocational guidance activity has been started in order to find out whether the vocational guidance services function in a way that encourage a better balance instead of the sex-dominated choice of training and occupation which is still usual. As regards vocational guidance in Finland, the relevant information material emphasises the importance of equal opportunities between boys and girls in access to occupational and vocational training. In the training provided for vocational guidance instructors it is also stressed that the decision on the channel of training and the choice of career should be made without taking into account the sex. In the Federal Republic of Germany, the vocational guidance services endeavour to convince girls leaving school and those responsible for their upbringing of the importance of good vocational training for girls. In principle, female entrants to the labour market have access to the same training facilities as male entrants. In

practice, however, certain limitations are possible due to workers' protection regulations or in cases of selection for on-the-job training. In New Zealand, encouragement to girls to prepare for a broader range of occupations has come from the Vocational Training Council's Advisory Committee in the form of a slide and tape kit for use by schools and other groups, and the Vocational Guidance Service also encourages girls to consider a wider choice of occupations. In Canada, a variety of means are being used to encourage female students to take courses other than those traditionally considered suitable for women. A popular innovation in secondary schools is the use of "career days" during which, among other things, women from a variety of occupations talk to students and answer questions; appropriate films are shown and a wide range of reference material is made available to the students. In Sierra Leone a full-time woman vocational guidance counsellor is provided by the Ministry of Labour at the Central Employment Exchange to counsel girls on vocations suitable to their qualifications. The Government of Iraq indicates that the central employment agency offers vocational guidance through the employment exchanges, including individual and collective guidance for young people, provided irrespective of sex. In Liberia girls are encouraged to obtain sound vocational preparation in secondary school; this trend is also finding its way into the elementary school system. Finally, in the United States career counselling is provided primarily by the school system at the secondary level either by guidance counsellors or by subject teachers. During the period 1971-74 nearly one-third of all school districts had initiated career education efforts and at least 20 state boards of education had passed resolutions supporting career education which starts at the kindergarten level and continues through the post-secondary years.

Services to facilitate the entry and re-entry into employment

98. The Recommendation indicates that the competent authorities should, taking account of national needs and possibilities, provide or help to ensure the provision of services to facilitate the entry into employment of women who have not yet worked, or the re-entry into employment of women who have been out of the employment market for a comparatively long time, owing in particular, to family responsibilities (Paragraph 9(1)). It also provides that such services should be organised within the framework of existing services for all workers or, in default thereof, along lines appropriate to national conditions; they should include adequate counselling, information and placement services and provide vocational training and retraining facilities appropriate to the needs of the women concerned and available without distinction as regards age (Paragraph 9(2)). Finally the Recommendation states that these services should be kept under review (Paragraph 9(3)).

99. It will be appreciated that the prospective workers to be helped by the services in question are women who have spent maybe 10 or 20 years working at home looking after their young children and who, because of this, may have been unable to complete their education or training, and who may have lost their skills, their working habits and their self-confidence. These problems are cumulated in many cases with those facing older job-seekers in general who - even if they are still in their forties and were recently employed - often find it particularly difficult to obtain any kind of appropriate employment.

100. A first point to be noted regarding the effect given to Paragraph 9 of the Recommendation is that many reports merely indicate that all public services - whether concerned with vocational guidance, placement or training and retraining - are available without discrimination to men and women workers, often adding that this is sufficient to ensure that the needs of women with family responsibilities wishing to enter or re-enter employment are met.

101. In other cases, however, governments have supplied information on the efforts being made to help overcome the special problems of these women, either in the framework of existing services for all workers, or through more specialised measures. Information on some of these special measures or services is supplied below.

Counselling and information services

102. As noted above, the Recommendation advocates the creation of services providing adequate counselling and information services for women wishing to enter or re-enter employment after a prolonged absence. The importance of providing such services to women who, for many years, have been out of touch with working life is stressed in a number of reports, and special efforts are made in many countries to meet the need for this kind of aid. In addition, vocational guidance for adults is one of the functions of employment services and certain governments indicate that the expansion in these services and improvements in their organisation enable women wishing to re-enter the labour force to obtain the specialised guidance and counselling which they require (for example, Federal Republic of Germany, Luxembourg, United Kingdom).

103. In some cases information has been supplied on the special approach adopted to encourage women to re-enter the labour market. In Canada, for example, special career counselling services for women have been created and a number of brochures have been published. In Hungary, the Government has issued guidelines designed specifically for women re-entering the labour force. In the Netherlands, such women are supplied with information on existing training facilities and vocational guidance, on present conditions of work and on possibilities of employment; this information is supplemented by brochures, visual aids and TV spots. And in the United Kingdom the special needs of job-seekers with family responsibilities are fully recognised and information is supplied on matters such as vocational guidance, refresher and training courses, job opportunities (including part-time and temporary work) and local social and welfare services.

104. The position of developing countries, in this area as in so many others, is particularly difficult. Thus in Mexico a series of measures are being taken to ensure that women with family responsibilities are suitably advised; but the Government indicates that these activities are hampered by the lack of proper information on the demand for labour and by the fact that women often hesitate to envisage work elsewhere than in the unskilled low-paid occupations in which they are traditionally employed.

Placement services

105. Women wishing to enter or re-enter into employment also require special help through placement services, as indicated in the Recommendation. Certainly such women, like all other applicants, will

benefit from the modernisation of employment offices - for example from central reception services or the introduction of computerised data banks. Nevertheless, both countries where such well-developed services already cater to the diverse needs of all categories of applicants, and others where these services are less advanced, refer to a variety of other measures particularly relevant to women job-seekers.

106. In certain cases the placement services are required to give special attention to women with family responsibilities who are the sole breadwinner (Japan), or more generally to all persons with dependants (Austria). The employment service may be required to give priority in its placing activities to women with many children or who are sole breadwinners (Poland), or to women with family responsibilities as regards part-time work (Spain). In some cases the placement service can put pressure on employers as regards the recruitment of women in general, either because the employment counsellors have been mandated to eliminate discrimination in employment based on sex (United States) or because the service may refuse to propose further applicants to an undertaking having refused, without justification, to recruit a woman (Poland). Yet another approach is the creation of special informal job placement points in shopping centres which are less intimidating than labour offices for women with family responsibilities who have been detached from economic activities for extended periods (Federal Republic of Germany). Finally some reports refer to the advantages for women of having special women's sections or counsellors in the placement services (India, Ireland, Sierra Leone).

Vocational training and retraining facilities

107. Women who have not taken up employment because of their family responsibilities or who, for the same reason, have been out of the labour force for many years may find it difficult to enter or re-enter employment because they have not, or have lost, the necessary skills and qualifications. This is recognised in the Recommendation which, as indicated above, specifies that adequate and appropriate vocational training or retraining facilities shall be provided for such women, without distinction as regards age.

108. The chances that women with family responsibilities should obtain appropriate training are certainly best in countries where serious efforts are being made to promote adult training and retraining in general for persons who are unemployed or in danger of becoming unemployed. The Swedish Government, for example, indicates that women constitute 52 per cent of the participants in labour market training and are thus enabled to acquire new vocational qualifications or to improve on out-moded qualifications. Many other governments (for example, Federal Republic of Germany, Japan, Norway, United Kingdom) indicate that efforts are made to facilitate the access of women to training or retraining courses, specialising either in a trade where women are traditionally employed, or in occupations attracting both male and female workers, or in an industry where so far the labour force consists essentially of men.

109. Apart from supplying information on the participation of women in general in adult training courses, certain governments indicate that women with family responsibilities are given preferential treatment in the admission to such courses. This is the case, for example, in France as regards women breadwinners with one or more dependent children or women having brought up a child until the age of

3 years and who are obliged to work; in Spain as regards women who have been granted extended leave in order to look after their children; and in Bulgaria as regards all women with family responsibilities. In some countries (Byelorussian SSR, Hungary) special training facilities are made available for working mothers.

110. Adult training courses are in general provided free of charge, with special allowances also being paid to participants. In some countries additional facilities are provided in this regard to women (or more generally to parents) with family responsibilities; these include the granting of full training allowances regardless of the earnings of the trainee's spouse, special child-care facilities which are made available for children of participants in residential training courses, and child-care allowances which are granted for the duration of the course (Norway and Sweden).

111. Certain governments refer to recurrent education at all levels as being especially useful and appropriate for women with family obligations, who wish to maintain or improve on their qualifications whilst outside the labour market. In the Netherlands for instance existing educational facilities for adults include all kinds of educational institutions providing correspondence courses, evening classes and other arrangements, and a special open school is in process of introduction, for the benefit of persons who received insufficient education or training in their youth. The reports from other countries also having open schools or universities or other provisions for continuing education (for example, New Zealand, Sweden, United Kingdom) indicate that a large proportion of the participants are women with family responsibilities.

112. A comparatively new development in the line of training is to be found in the creation in certain countries (for example, Canada, United Kingdom) of various forms of assertive training for women with family responsibilities wishing to enter or re-enter the labour force. The main objective of this training is to give greater self-confidence to women who feel at a serious disadvantage after many years spent at home looking after young children; it may include counselling and information on future employment prospects, guidance on job-seeking techniques (including practical information on replying to advertisements, interviews, etc.), and also some refresher training.

Periodic review of services and facilities

113. The Recommendation provides that the services and facilities should be kept under review in order to ensure that they are adapted to the special needs of the women workers in question and to the changing needs of economic and technological development (Paragraph 9(3)).

114. Many reports refer to changes, recently introduced or being envisaged, which provide better counselling and placement services and training facilities for women with family responsibilities wishing to enter or re-enter employment. There is therefore reason to believe that, although reports contain little information on this provision of the Recommendation, many governments do arrange for the revision and adaptation of the services in question, either through the regular machinery for reviewing placement and training programmes, or on the initiative of the increasingly active bureaux and committees concerned with the status of women workers, or otherwise. This should not be taken to mean that the placement and guidance services and the training

facilities provided for women with family responsibilities - even in highly industrialised countries - are generally well-developed. A great many of the measures reviewed briefly above are still at an embryonic stage - being often identified by the governments themselves as experimental or pilot projects - and further developments will certainly have to be secured before the services and facilities are in fact adapted to the needs of women wishing to enter or re-enter the labour force after a long period of absence.

Employment following maternity

115. The measures considered in the previous section relate essentially to women who wish to take up work after a period of many years during which they have been fully engaged in their family responsibilities. There are however other categories of working women: those who wish to retain their employment after confinement, but must have or wish to have leave of absence for an additional period (perhaps of some months or a year) after maternity leave; and those whose employment is terminated following maternity and who wish to return to their employment after a given period. Measures to cover these two contingencies are provided for in Paragraph 10 of the Recommendation.

Leave of absence after maternity leave

116. The Recommendation provides (Paragraph 10(1)) that, in the case of women who, on account of their family responsibilities arising out of maternity, do not find themselves in a position to return to their employment immediately following exhaustion of the normal period of maternity leave established by law or practice, appropriate measures should be taken to the extent possible to allow them a reasonable further period of leave of absence without relinquishing their employment, all rights resulting from their employment being fully safeguarded.

117. Before reviewing the effect given to this provision, it should be noted that the present survey is not concerned with normal maternity leave, nor with additional leave granted in case of illness arising out of confinement, nor with nursing breaks. All such measures, which are mentioned in a large number of government reports, are dealt with in detail in the maternity protection Conventions (Nos. 3 and 103) and were reviewed by the Committee in 1965 in its General Survey on the effect given to these Conventions in the 36 countries having ratified one or other of these instruments, and in non-ratifying countries also (Report III (Part 4), 1965).

118. Arrangements for special leave of absence after maternity leave, as provided for in Paragraph 10(1) of the Recommendation, apparently exist as yet only in a relatively small number of countries, and, where they do exist, they differ considerably from case to case, as regards duration, compensatory payments, and as to whether the leave should be granted to the parents, or just to the mother.

119. In certain countries, for example, the legislation not only prescribes the right to special leave following maternity leave, but also provides that the beneficiary should receive payments in the form of unemployment benefits (Austria, as regards the 12 months' special leave), allowances payable under a special parents' insurance scheme at

the same rate as sickness benefit (Sweden, as regards the 7 months' maternity and special leave), special allocations amounting to 30 per cent of earnings (Italy, as regards the 6 months' special leave), or normal pay (Mongolia, as regards 6 months' leave).

120. Special leave with compensation is sometimes supplemented by leave of absence without payment: in Bulgaria, for example, payments equivalent to the minimum wage are made for a period varying between 6 and 8 months according to the number of children, but women may also have leave without pay until the child is 3 years old. In the German Democratic Republic, women are entitled to special leave without pay and financial help is given for this period from the second child on. And in Norway, a total of one year's leave may be granted, with national insurance payments being made in respect of an 18-week period.

121. In most cases, however, the government reports do not refer to any allocations made for periods of special leave of absence. For example, unpaid leave is provided for a two-year period in Czechoslovakia and France (in undertakings with over 200 workers), and for one year in the USSR. Frequently women in the public services benefit from better conditions regarding leave of absence without pay after exhaustion of maternity leave than other women workers, or may be the only category of women entitled to such leave. In Belgium, for example, public employees and teachers may have up to two years' leave of absence, in Ireland one month's leave may be granted in the civil service, in Tunisia a woman official may be given up to ten years' leave of absence if she has children under 5 years of age or needing special care, and in India up to five years' leave of absence may be granted to any permanent employee in the central civil services. In the Federal Republic of Germany any man or woman in the civil service having to look after a child under 16 or another relative requiring special care may be authorised to take up to three years' leave of absence.

122. A particularly interesting feature of the additional leave prescribed in some countries is the freedom left to the parents to decide whether it should be taken by the mother or the father. Measures of this kind were introduced, in 1974, in Sweden where each pair of parents decides how the seven months' leave is to be divided between them. Similar provisions have been incorporated in recent French and Norwegian legislation.

123. Several governments indicate that they are considering the introduction of special additional leave, as advocated in the Recommendation, or the improvement of existing measures on the subject (for example, Cyprus, New Zealand, Sweden, USSR).

124. As indicated above, normal maternity leave has been deliberately excluded from these brief comments. Nevertheless it must be pointed out that in some countries (including some of those mentioned above) considerable extensions of this leave have been provided for - going far beyond the 12 weeks specified in Conventions Nos. 3 and 103 - with the consequence that the normal leave in these countries may be as long as the normal and special leave together authorised in other countries. In Finland, for example, it has been agreed that women should be entitled to 174 working days' maternity leave; in Bulgaria, Canada (British Columbia), Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic and New Zealand (in the public service) some 6 months' maternity leave is granted; and it amounts to 112 days in Romania and to 18 weeks in Cuba.

125. All the above-mentioned provisions must normally be beneficial for the young mother, giving her greater job security and helping her to pursue a regular career, and at the same time enabling her to give more care to her child at the time when this is most needed. However, measures such as these can lead to further discrimination against women - and particularly against young married women - because of the practical difficulties encountered by the employer in the organisation of work during prolonged periods of absence, and it is therefore particularly interesting to see the trend towards the granting of parental leave after maternity leave, to be taken by either mother or father. Furthermore, a woman may be unable to take advantage of her right to extra leave for material reasons, and the trend to providing for payments through insurance schemes for such periods of absence from work must also be welcomed.

126. A final point to be borne in mind is that the need for a parent to take leave of absence after maternity leave may be much less imperative in cases where other parallel measures are taken to help the worker combine responsibilities of work and home: for example, the right of a mother or of either parent to work shorter hours or take leave when the child is sick, or to work part time. These various measures are considered below in Chapter V.

Re-employment after termination of employment

127. The Recommendation (Paragraph 10(2)) indicates that, in case of termination of employment following maternity, the woman concerned should be considered for re-employment in accordance with the provisions applicable, under the Termination of Employment Recommendation, 1963, to workers whose employment has been terminated owing to a reduction of the workforce.

128. The latter Recommendation provides (Paragraph 16) that priority of re-engagement should be given in such cases and to the extent possible to workers whose employment had thus been terminated; this priority may be limited to a specified period, the question of the retention of seniority rights being determined in accordance with national laws, collective agreements or other appropriate national practices.

129. It will be appreciated that there is less need for measures on the re-engagement of women workers in those countries where a woman is entitled on request to an extensive period of absence after maternity leave - sometimes as long as two or three years, as noted in the previous section; or where the prohibition to dismiss a worker whilst she is on maternity leave - which is prescribed in Conventions Nos. 3 and 103 and in the laws of many countries - is extended to cover the period when she is nursing her child (for example, USSR), or simply for a given period of one year or so after confinement (for example, Portugal); or where, in general, preference must be given to the recruitment of mothers of small children, where all other conditions are equal (for example, in Hungary).

130. Nevertheless, there are a vast number of cases where a woman whose contract is terminated by her employer after maternity, or who decides herself to terminate her employment in order to give more time to her child, would wish to be reinstated after some time, if possible without losing her seniority rights. Certain governments refer to measures of this kind. In Luxembourg, for example, if a woman leaves her employment after maternity leave in order to look after her

child, her employer is required for one year, to give her priority when filling any vacancy for which she would be qualified and to allow her to maintain any acquired rights if she is re-employed. Similarly in Spain a woman who ceases to work is entitled to priority of re-engagement in the undertaking for a period of up to three years after maternity leave. In the Federal Republic of Germany, the law gives no right regarding re-engagement but if a woman returns to her former employer within a year of her confinement on the basis of a new contract, her seniority and certain other rights must be maintained.

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131. The many and diverse measures mentioned in the present chapter illustrate both the problems experienced by women with family responsibilities who wish to remain, or to re-enter the labour force after a period of absence, as well as the need to attack these problems on many fronts if a solution is to be found. It is also clear however that useful measures are being taken in many countries - particularly in industrialised countries - and that further improvements may be expected, both in the long term as a result, for example, of the expansion of vocational training and guidance provided for girls and for women with family responsibilities, and in the short term by measures ensuring the better protection of employment during the post-maternity period.

CHAPTER V

MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS

132. The various measures advocated in the Recommendation to help working women with family responsibilities are not exhaustive. Thus it is indicated, in paragraph 11, that "other measures should be taken and other action should be promoted" to assist women workers to meet their employment and family responsibilities without detriment to their opportunities for employment and promotion.

Public transport and the harmonisation of working and school hours

133. Other possible measures cited by the Recommendation include the organisation of public transport, and the harmonisation of working hours and hours of schools and child-care services (Paragraph 11(2)). Some reports refer in general terms to the measures taken to meet the needs of the public, including working mothers, in this regard, and indicate also that measures are taken to facilitate the transport of schoolchildren, to develop housing estates close to workplaces, to have crèches in the workplaces of working mothers, and to adapt the hours of child-care facilities to the daily and weekly working hours of the mothers and co-ordinate them with the shift system.

Facilities to lighten household tasks

134. The Recommendation indicates that attention should be given to the provision, at low cost, of the facilities required to simplify and lighten household tasks (Paragraph 11(2)). This provision is very far-reaching and its implementation may require for instance the planning and building of rational workers' housing, and the supply of essential public utilities such as water and electricity and gas; it also calls for the production of labour-saving devices to reduce household drudgery (either at prices accessible to low-income families, or through community services), and of semi-prepared food and other consumer goods.

135. The development of the social and economic policies involved in the application of this clause of the Recommendation is viewed normally as a matter affecting the population as a whole, and not just working women: it may be for this reason that relatively few government reports refer to this aspect of the measures needed to help working women cope with their dual responsibilities. However, some information is supplied on national plans to develop the production of

household appliances (Ukrainian SSR), and of ready-made food (USSR), and on the continuing increase in canteens and restaurants and in arrangements for school meals (for instance, Bulgaria, Ukrainian SSR, USSR - see also paragraph 64 above). Other measures mentioned by governments include the creation of a special fund which grants low-interest loans enabling workers to buy consumer goods (Mexico), measures to facilitate the supply of electrical equipment at reasonable prices to working women (Sudan), the availability in blocks of flats of communal washing machines (Switzerland) and the constant expansion of the network of shops (German Democratic Republic).

Home-aid services

136. The Recommendation stresses the need to develop home-aid services operating under public authority or supervision and providing qualified assistance at reasonable charge in the event of family need (Paragraph 12).

137. A number of reports (for example, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Luxembourg, Switzerland) indicate that services of this kind are maintained either directly by the public authorities or by private welfare organisations with the help of public subsidies. In some cases more detailed information is supplied on the subject. Thus the Norwegian Government indicates that all the municipalities have organised home-aid services, through which home-makers or home-help can be made available in case of need to elderly or handicapped persons and to working mothers or single breadwinners. The charge is usually scaled according to income, and priority is given to people in a difficult financial situation. The Government covers 50 per cent of the municipalities' expenses, excluding administrative costs.

138. Apart from such cases, however, a number of governments indicate that there is no need for home-aid services in their countries, either because the necessary assistance is available under the extended family systems (for example, Indonesia) or because domestic help is easily available (for example, Jamaica, Ivory Coast).

Family-care leave

139. One of the more frequent problems facing women workers is that of ensuring emergency care for a child or other member of the family who is sick, and a number of countries have taken measures to alleviate such difficulties by providing that workers are to be given special leave in such cases (for example, in Austria, Belgium, Chile, Finland, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Sweden).

140. In the majority of cases it is only women workers who are entitled to family-care leave, but in some countries (for example, Austria, Israel, Norway, Sweden) such leave may be granted also to men. Usually the relevant legislation defines the member of the family in respect of whom leave may be claimed; most frequently this is limited to children - sometimes just for those under one year of age (for example, in Chile), in other cases for older children (for example, children up to 10 years of age in Finland). In a few cases, however,

leave of this kind is granted more extensively - as in Austria where entitlement exists in respect of any close relative living in the household who needs care, or in Sweden where the parent may also claim leave when it is the normal supervisor of the child who is sick.

141. The length of the leave authorised by law each year is usually fairly short, varying between 5 days in the Federal Republic of Germany and 12 to 18 days in Sweden. However, much longer periods may be provided for, as in Poland where up to 60 days' paid leave can be taken in the year to look after a sick child. According to government reports, workers are usually entitled to normal pay during such periods of leave, or to appropriate social security benefits; arrangements for payments of the latter kind, under social security or other public service schemes, are considered preferable in many countries as they avoid the risk of increasing the grounds for discrimination by employers against women with family responsibilities. There are however cases in which these short periods of leave are not sufficient, and certain governments indicate that - in addition to having some leave with pay - a woman having to take care of a sick child may be suspended without loss of rights for a longer period - for example, for one month in Portugal.

142. The wide variety of measures which may exist in regard to family-care leave, even within one country, is illustrated by the diverse provisions on the subject inserted in collective agreements in France. Thus in certain industries or undertakings such leave is granted only to a working mother, in others the father also may be entitled to leave; in some cases the leave is with pay, in others it is not; the paid leave may be for periods varying between one day and two months in the year, and the unpaid leave may be for ten days or for a year; and in some cases leave is granted if the child is sick, whereas in others it is granted only if the child is seriously sick or is hospitalised.

143. Finally, it should be noted that in a number of countries (as indicated below in paragraphs 147 and 148) working mothers are entitled to take a number of additional days' leave each year, regardless of whether or not the child is sick.

Working hours

144. The adaptation of working hours, whether by means of a reduction, of special leave, or of flexible timetables, can do much to help women combine the dual responsibilities of home and work, and measures of this kind are mentioned in many government reports.

145. Shorter working hours for all workers. The Preamble to the Recommendation refers to the fact that the problems of women workers with family responsibilities can be alleviated by measures such as the progressive reduction of working hours for all workers. The general trend towards shorter working hours - which is to be found in a great many reporting countries - is not considered in the present survey. However, it should be noted that these reductions have often been linked directly to problems of family life and responsibilities. The Canadian Government, for instance, indicates that employers are experimenting with a shorter working week in order to permit a better integration of home and work responsibilities; and the Swedish Government states that the decision of all the major trade unions and

of most political parties to incorporate in their programmes the progressive introduction of a six-hour working day is due partly to wide-ranging discussions on the best means of combining professional and family life harmoniously.

146. Flexible working hours for all workers. Another measure which is applicable to all workers but is of special interest to working women is the system of flexible or variable working hours. Arrangements of this kind, which were scarcely known at the time of the adoption of the Recommendation in 1965, enable women in case of need to adapt their working hours to those of child-care centres and schools, to deal more easily with emergencies involving a sick child or other member of the family, to do their household shopping outside rush hours, etc. It is not surprising therefore to find that many governments (for example, Austria, Canada, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Mexico, United States) refer in their reports on the Recommendation to experiments and schemes providing for such flexible working hours, often initiated with the specific purpose of promoting family life, and to the success and expansion of these arrangements.

147. Time off for household work and child care. Recent surveys have shown that a working woman with family responsibilities may, between her professional work and her occupations in the home, find herself working 70 or 80 hours a week. The strain this can cause is recognised in the laws of some countries which allow women to have time off in one form or another in order to help them deal with their family responsibilities. In the German Democratic Republic, for example, women with several children have shorter working hours and longer holidays (with no reduction in pay), as well as one paid "household day" per month if they have children under 18 years of age or other family members requiring special care. Similarly, in Hungary, working mothers are entitled to extra paid leave of up to 12 working days per year, depending on the number of their children, and one day's unpaid leave a month may also be granted for household work. In the United Republic of Cameroon, a working woman is authorised to take two extra days' leave each year in respect of each child under 15 years of age; similar provisions exist in the legislation of Upper Volta. In Israel collective agreements provide that mothers of children under 12 may work a 7-hour day whilst paid for a full day's work. Finally in certain countries women are given a few hours off - paid or unpaid - on the day preceding the weekly rest, for shopping and other household tasks.

148. All the above facilities are available to women workers only. In Norway, however, measures are being envisaged which would apply more generally to both parents and which are more far-reaching. Here certain government institutions are experimenting with a six-hour working day for parents of children under 3; these arrangements may subsequently be extended to all working parents with young children.

Part-time work

149. A number of government reports, particularly from developed countries, refer to the importance of part-time work for women with family responsibilities, as it enables many of them to look after their homes and families yet at the same time to earn some money and to maintain their professional skills and working habits, and participate in the national economy.

150. The extent to which women take up part-time jobs is shown by the statistics supplied in several reports. In Canada, for example, 743,000 women were in part-time work in 1976 (i.e. some 22 per cent of all women wage or salary earners) and of these 62.9 per cent were married women. In Sweden 37 per cent of all women workers were on part-time work in 1974, as compared with only 2 per cent of all male workers. The governments from these and several other countries indicate that it is generally by preference that women engage in part-time work, and even that it may be the only form of work they can take on outside their homes because of the inadequacy of child-care services.

151. Frequently governments take special measures to encourage women with family responsibilities to work part time and to increase the availability of such jobs. In Bulgaria, for example, arrangements have been made enabling such women to work every second day, or during half of each week or of each month, depending on their preferences and the nature of the work. In the Federal Republic of Germany, the Government has taken a series of measures to promote part-time work as a continuous form of employment in the public service (at the federal level and in the Länder and communes), and it is hoped that this will spread to the private sector through collective agreements. In the Netherlands special training projects have been developed which are designed particularly to help women to take up part-time work. And in the USSR, the Five-Year Plan for 1976-80 provides for the creation of wider possibilities for women wishing to combine a partial working week with their housework. In addition, in certain countries, the law provides specifically that women with family responsibilities may be employed part time. This is the case for example in Romania as regards women having children under 6 years of age.

152. Part-time workers are, however, frequently in an underprivileged situation, as they tend to be employed in low-paid work and to have less chance of promotion, they have little job security and are particularly exposed to fluctuations in the labour market, and they do not always benefit from the same conditions of work, social security coverage and wage rates as other workers. Some reports refer to the need for protection against these forms of discrimination (which of course affect women more than men because of their predominance in part-time work). Thus the Norwegian Government indicates that work has been started on measures which would grant part-time workers the same working conditions as are enjoyed by full-time workers, and the Swedish Government indicates that the Advisory Council on Equality between Men and Women has stressed the urgent need for measures of this kind. Some reports indicate in this regard that the law provides that part-time workers are to enjoy all the rights of salaried workers (Austria), that they enjoy the same social benefits as other workers (Poland), or that part-time work is considered as full-time work for purposes of seniority (Romania).

Fiscal measures

153. Both the number of women with family responsibilities who take up work, and of course their earnings, can be greatly influenced by fiscal measures. This is the case for instance in the many countries where a woman's income is added to that of her husband for tax assessment purposes, with the result that a higher income tax rate may be applied to both incomes. This form of penalisation, together

with extra expenses such as child-care costs which would have to be met, discourage many women with family responsibilities from entering or remaining in the labour force. The desire to eliminate this form of discrimination has led certain countries (for example, Israel, Sweden) to modify their fiscal laws and to provide for the separate taxation of married men and women, each being taxed according to the same principle. In other cases (for example, in Singapore) women are free to opt for separate income tax assessments.

Sharing of work within the family

154. Several government reports reflect the view that, whilst positive measures to eliminate discrimination in employment are necessary if women with family responsibilities are to be given fair employment opportunities, it is also necessary to eliminate discrimination in the home where it has long been taken for granted that it is the mother who must see to all the household chores, even if she is employed outside the home. Several Scandinavian countries have introduced educational programmes designed to modify the traditional outlook and attitudes of boys and girls regarding housework and the care of younger children, and the United States Government refers to the need for measures promoting the sharing of work in the home by family members.

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155. Many other measures are mentioned in government reports, including the promotion of homework possibilities for mothers with young children (Hungary, Romania), special benefits to mothers of young children who cannot take up employment because no nursery is available (Austria), and various provisions connected with the national demographic policy - whether this aims at reducing (Singapore) or at increasing population growth (USSR). The multitude of the areas in which action can be taken in order to help women carry the dual responsibilities of home and work is an eloquent indication of the difficulty of finding effective means of reducing gradually the problems facing such women.

CHAPTER VI

EMPLOYERS' AND WORKERS' ORGANISATIONS

Role of these organisations in implementing the Recommendation

156. Recommendation No. 123 emphasises the role to be played by employers' and workers' organisations in ensuring that women should be able to combine their home and work responsibilities. Thus the need for the competent authorities to co-operate with these organisations is stated as regards the general principle of non-discrimination in this area, research into the various aspects of the employment of women, public education programmes on the subject, the provision of child-care services and facilities, the entry and re-entry into employment of women with family responsibilities and other measures. These provisions requiring co-operation with employers' and workers' organisations were inserted in the Recommendation at the request of the Workers' members at the time of the adoption of this instrument. The concern of trade unions, at the international level, with the problems of working women with family responsibilities is also evidenced by declarations made at recent conferences by the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions, the World Federation of Trade Unions and other international federations, in which they call for the elimination of discrimination against such women and the development of an adequate social sub-structure providing child-care and other necessary services (see Report VIII to the International Labour Conference, 1975, Appendix IV).

157. In policy making. An essential aspect of the contribution of employers' and workers' organisations is at the decision-making level, when general policies affecting the position of working women with family responsibilities are discussed and determined. It will be recalled in this connection that the present Committee reviewed, in 1976, the effect given to the Consultation (Industrial and National Levels) Recommendation, 1960 (No. 113) and that it found that the principle of bi- and tripartite consultation was now widely accepted, and that consultation had taken root, in varying forms, in all regions of the world (Report III (Part 4B), 1976). These general arrangements for consulting with employers' and workers' organisations may also apply to the more specific policy measures designed to enable women with family responsibilities to work without being subject to discrimination, as is indicated in a number of reports on the present Recommendation (for example, Austria, Cuba, Cyprus, Japan, German Democratic Republic, Syrian Arab Republic).

158. In some cases, however, governments refer to more specific instances of participation by employers' and workers' organisations in promoting an appropriate policy. A particularly effective means of securing such participation is through tripartite national committees with special responsibility for dealing with the problems of women

workers. Such a committee exists, for example, in Belgium where it includes trade union and employer representatives, in addition to representatives of the Government; and in Italy where it is composed of representatives of the employers' and workers' organisations, as well as representatives of the Government, of the political parties, and of other sectors.

159. Another interesting example of the involvement of employers' and workers' organisations in basic policy making regarding women workers is mentioned in the report from Sweden. In this country the Confederation of Trade Unions and other workers' organisations, as well as the Employers' Confederation, have drawn up policy programmes for women and families, all based on the principle that both men and women should have dual roles. Important collective agreements have also been concluded in 1977 stating that the goal of action to further equality should be the creation of equal opportunities of employment, training, education and promotion for men and women.

160. In the USSR also, as indicated in the Government's report, the trade unions are active in promoting the rights of women and collective agreements normally include a section on women. The work of trade unions aimed at improving the position of women workers is directed at the national level by the Committee of the Presidium of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions.

161. In addition, it will be noted that, when women are more closely involved in trade union activities, both the consultation with these organisations on the policy to be followed in respect of women with family responsibilities, and the action taken by them in this area, is more likely to be effective. Thus a number of reports on the Recommendation refer to the importance of the participation of women in trade union activities (for example, Federal Republic of Germany, Mexico, Singapore, United States) and more generally in the country's political and other decision-making bodies (for example, Pakistan, Peru).

162. In developing child-care facilities. Apart from supplying information on the general role of employers' and workers' organisations in regard to women workers, some governments mention the activities of these organisations in regard to the development of child-care facilities. Thus in Finland progress was achieved following a request addressed in 1970 by the employers and workers to the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, asking that urgent measures be taken to provide for the care of children during the hours when their parents work outside their homes. Similarly the Canadian Labour Congress recommended, in its 1974 report on women's rights, that government day-care centres should be made universally available. In some cases the governments indicate that the trade unions themselves provide child-care facilities, sometimes with the help of government subsidies (for example, Bahamas, Canada, Singapore), or that such facilities are provided jointly by the employers' and workers' organisations (for example, Indonesia). It should also be noted that in most Eastern European countries the trade unions have a primordial role, through collective agreements, in having child-care facilities set up within undertakings.

163. In other areas. Government reports contain information on other instances of action by employers' and workers' organisations designed to help women conciliate family and work responsibilities. In many countries arrangements are made by employers, on the basis of collective agreements or otherwise, to provide women with training

facilities - often designed specifically for women with family responsibilities who wish to enter or re-enter the labour force. An interesting experiment is that made recently in Norway, where the employment service sought the co-operation of trade unions within the metal trades in order to open up job opportunities for women in this industry (these activities have now ceased as a result of the recession). Measures on the same lines are also taken in Canada, where the unions have stated their support for affirmative action programmes for women (the Union of Public Employees has published a manual on how to establish, conduct and implement such programmes); further, in 1977, the federal authorities launched a programme of this kind, by which employers having contracts with the Federal Government are encouraged to undertake to remove traditional barriers to the employment of women.

164. Another area in which direct contributions from employers and workers can help solve a major problem for women with family responsibilities concerns the granting of special leave in order to look after a sick child or other member of the family. Several governments refer to improvements introduced in this regard through collective agreements. Thus in France, for example, as already indicated, a growing number of agreements provide that paid or unpaid leave must be granted in such cases, as also in the Federal Republic of Germany and in Finland. Other arrangements which are sometimes made through collective agreements for working women with family responsibilities include the prolongation of the period of maternity leave (Finland, France), extended leave to raise their children (France), maintenance for 12 months of the employment relationship for a woman who is absent from work after confinement (Finland), and part-time arrangements for working mothers or adaptation of working hours (France, Norway).

Observations by employers' and
workers' organisations

165. It will be recalled that governments were required, in pursuance of article 23 of the ILO Constitution, to forward copies of their reports on the Recommendation to the representative employers' and workers' organisations of their countries, and were also asked to forward to the ILO any observations received from these organisations. A total of 25 such observations¹ were supplied, together with a number of comments from other associations concerned with the problems of women workers (as compared with an annual average of 6 such observations received in recent years).

166. This exceptionally large number of observations from employers' and workers' organisations appears to be due in part to the opinion that the Recommendation should be revised, to bring it into line with the principle that care for the family is the joint responsibility of both parents and that all facilities must be available equally to men and to women - comments to this effect were made by seven workers' organisations (Austria, Japan, Sweden) and one employers' organisation (Sweden). Three other organisations, without referring to the revision of the Recommendation, declared themselves sceptical of measures confined to women with family responsibilities (Sweden).

167. Other observations emphasise rather the need for new measures at the national level in order to give effect to the

Recommendation, and were made by six workers' organisations (Australia, Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Singapore) and two employers' organisations (Austria, Italy). In some cases, on the other hand, a more negative view was expressed: that the application of the Recommendation was only possible in a fully planned economy (a workers' organisation, Brazil) or that the creation of facilities for women workers led to discrimination against male workers (employers' organisations, Philippines and Singapore).

168. Further details on some of these observations are given below. Thus the Austrian Congress of Labour Chambers refers to changes introduced in the country regarding responsibilities to the family and indicates that it would be preferable to have an ILO instrument on family responsibilities which would apply to all workers, and not just to women. The Austrian Federal Chamber of Industry draws attention to the fact that, since the Recommendation applies to all women with family responsibilities who work outside their homes, due regard should be had to the problems of self-employed women also.

169. Both the General Council of Trade Unions of Japan (SOHYO) and the Japanese Confederation of Labour (DOMEI) state that Recommendation No. 123 should be revised and brought into harmony with the principle that household responsibilities should be shared more equitably between husband and wife. Concrete measures should be promoted to change and eliminate traditional attitudes of men and women to their roles at work, in the family and in society. DOMEI adds that child-care services and child-care leave should be provided for in a Convention. Both SOHYO and the Federation of Independent Unions stress the need for further measures at the national level: the expansion and improvement of child-care facilities, the establishment of adequate working conditions for part-time workers, and improvements in the vocational training opportunities for women. The Federation also stresses the need for legislative measures to eliminate the forms of sex discrimination which still exist in all aspects of employment.

170. The General Confederation of Labour of the Federal Republic of Germany observes that a general reduction of daily working hours in the country - to 40 a week, with restrictions on overtime - is essential if women workers with family responsibilities are to be enabled to combine employment with domestic duties; an extension of annual leave is also necessary.

171. The Fortune Tobacco Corporation of the Philippines indicates that although the principle of equality regardless of sex in matters of employment is sound, protective measures for women workers led to discrimination against male workers. There was no need, in the national conditions, to establish child-care facilities, and the Labour Code gave sufficient protection to women workers with family responsibilities. The Trade Union Congress of the Philippines, on the other hand, indicates its agreement with the measures advocated in the Recommendation.

172. The Singapore Employers' Federation indicates that the measures taken in favour of women workers should not place them in a privileged position as compared to male workers. The National Trade Union Congress of Singapore states that child-care services and facilities should be provided at a reasonable charge or free in case of need, or preferably by the employers. It adds that the provisions in the Recommendation relating to child-care services, while meant for women workers, are equally important for widowed or divorced male workers who have to bring up their children by themselves.

173. The Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions and the Swedish Central Organisation of Salaried Employees state that the Recommendation ought to be revised as soon as possible so that it applies to all parents. Similar views have been expressed by the Swedish Employers' Confederation and the Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations/the National Swedish Federation of Government Officers.

174. Finally, it should be noted that certain governments (for instance, Bulgaria, Hungary, Guyana, Jamaica) indicate that comments made by the employers' and workers' organisations were taken into account in drafting their reports on the effect given to the Recommendation.

Note to Chapter VI

¹ Australia: Australian Council of Trade Unions; Austria: Federal Chamber of Industry and Austrian Congress of Labour Chambers; Brazil: National Confederation of Communications and Publicity Workers, and National Confederation of Industry; Federal Republic of Germany: German Confederation of Trade Unions; Italy: Federation CGIL-CISL-UIL and Confederation of Industry; Japan: General Council of Trade Unions, Japanese Confederation of Trade Unions and Federation of Independent Unions; Netherlands: Council of Labour Affairs and Confederation of the Netherlands Trade Unions Movement; Norway: Confederation of Trade Unions and Norwegian Employers' Confederation; Philippines: Trade Unions Congress of Philippines and Fortune Tobacco Corporation; Singapore: National Trade Union Congress and Singapore Employers' Federation; Sweden: Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions, Swedish Central Organisation of Salaried Employees, Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations/National Swedish Federation of Government Officers, Swedish Employers' Confederation, Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Federation of Swedish County Councils.

CONCLUSIONS

General comments

175. The diversity and complexity of the action needed in order to enable women to fulfil their responsibilities at home and at work are well illustrated by the above chapters. It would of course have been both interesting and useful to measure in greater detail the extent to which the necessary activities and services are being developed in the 117 reporting countries. However a complete evaluation of the effect given to the principles of the Recommendation would necessitate, for each country, precise information on the number of women in employment or wishing to take up employment, together with particulars of their family responsibilities, as well as full information on the various types of child-care facilities available, and the quality of the services offered. It would also require, for example, detailed information on any direct or indirect discrimination against girls in education and training, and on the extent and effectiveness of the other measures taken to enable women with family responsibilities to become or remain integrated in the labour force without being subjected to discrimination. Information of this kind is not available, but nevertheless, a number of general comments can be made on the basis of the reports examined.

176. The first is that the problems of working women with family responsibilities in each country can only be handled effectively in the context of a broad approach to the problems of women in general, and that specific measures such as those advocated in the Recommendation should be accompanied by parallel measures of a more general character designed to ensure that women enjoy the same rights as men both in theory and in practice.

177. The second comment is that the implementation of a policy to help women carrying the dual responsibilities of work and family is most successful when women account for a large proportion of the labour force and when there are conditions of full employment, when the social infrastructure is well developed, and when constant pressure for an enlightened policy based on equality between the sexes is maintained by the government concerned, by the trade unions, by employers and by private organisations.

178. Thirdly, the Recommendation is essentially a promotional and flexible instrument, and there will always be room for improvements in the quantity and quality of the services offered. As with all promotional standards of this kind, what matters most is the persistence and determination with which the government is seeking to implement its policy. While the reports reveal a wide variation in the degree to which member States are achieving the goals of the Recommendation, it is fair to conclude that the need for improvement is almost universal.

179. Another comment is that the reports reflect continuing uncertainty in some countries about the role of women: should they go

out to work and contribute to the material well-being of the family and to the country's economy, or should they stay at home to look after their families? The reluctance to accept the idea that women should be free to work outside their homes is, however, considerably less marked than at the time of the adoption of the Recommendation and this trend will certainly continue. In any case once the competent authorities are faced with a situation where women do in fact participate in the labour force, it is the intent of the Recommendation that all possible measures should be taken both to eliminate the discriminatory conditions which drive most of these women to accept the lowest paid and least favoured jobs, and to make available all necessary child-care services and arrangements and to provide guidance, training and other facilities for women returning to work after an absence of several years due to family responsibilities.

180. A question of principle regarding the role of women is raised in some reports - that is, that the pursuit of a policy enabling working women to work outside their homes without being subjected to discrimination should not affect the right of a woman to decide freely to stay at home to take care of her family. It must be pointed out, however, that whilst this principle of freedom of choice is generally recognised, it should not affect the vigour with which the policy in respect to working women is implemented: this "freedom" is generally limited by material conditions and a considerable proportion of the working women of the world are obliged to work, since it would be impossible for one breadwinner alone to meet the needs of the family.

181. Another comment relates to the fact that few references are made in government reports to the contributions made by voluntary organisations in assisting working women to meet their family responsibilities. Yet in many countries very effective measures are taken by women's associations, church-sponsored organisations, etc., usually through the spontaneous creation of child-care and other facilities in communities where the need is greatest, sometimes through large institutions, sometimes on a modest neighbourhood level. This absence of information may be taken to mean that the competent authorities in many of these countries are not co-operating closely with these private organisations in planning and implementing their policies in favour of working women and their families - where this is in fact the case, they should be reminded that the Recommendation specifies repeatedly that the necessary research, decision making and development of services should be carried out in co-operation with the private organisations concerned.

182. Special reference must also be made to the nature of the measures needed in order to give effect to the Recommendation. Thus certain government reports state that the Recommendation is satisfactorily applied since the law of the land prohibits all forms of discrimination based on sex, or because certain legislative texts ensure its application, or because there is no sex bar as regards access to education, training, employment services, or vocational guidance. Some even indicate that the introduction of special measures designed solely for women with family responsibilities would be unacceptable since they would lead to discrimination against other categories of workers. Such statements call for two remarks. To begin with, although legal guarantees on equal rights and opportunities are essential if effect is to be given to the Recommendation, they should be accompanied by a series of practical measures running from research and public information programmes to the creation and maintenance of various kinds of facilities and services. Moreover, as stated in the ILO's Declaration of 1975 on equality of opportunity and treatment for

women workers, "positive special treatment during a transitional period aimed at effective equality between the sexes shall not be regarded as discriminatory". Examples of measures of this kind include special advice and training services for women wishing to take up employment again after several years at home bringing up their children, or inducements for employers to recruit women with family responsibilities.

183. A final comment is that there is still a marked divergence of views on the question of when the necessary protection for working women ends, and when discrimination starts. Thus in some countries overtime has recently been prohibited for working women so that they may have more time for their home activities, and in others a completely different viewpoint has been adopted and existing prohibitions of this kind have been repealed, with the specific purpose of removing a possible source of discrimination against women. Similarly contradictory policies are to be found as regards night work for women: prohibitions have been enacted by some governments as a protective measure; they have been abolished by others to give women equal access to the benefits or premiums of night work. These divergencies of views may be taken as illustrations of the difficulties facing competent authorities which are trying to implement a sound and suitable policy to help women meet their responsibilities at work and at home.

Impact of Recommendation No. 123

184. Unquestionably, in the 13 years since the adoption of the Recommendation, there have been marked developments in the situation of working women, including those with family responsibilities. Basic laws have been adopted in many of the reporting countries with a view to promoting equality of treatment and opportunity for women workers, often accompanied by the creation of appropriate machinery and programmes. Laws on child welfare, with special reference to facilities for the children of working women, have also been adopted, and these facilities have multiplied during this period in a considerable number of countries. Legislation providing for new forms of flexibility in working hours, leave, etc., designed to enable working parents to cope more easily with their family responsibilities has also been promulgated in several countries during the past few years.

185. The development of such measures has been strongest in the more industrialised countries (although the pattern they have set is already being followed in many developing countries) and it is in these countries that the inter-related factors which are at the root of these developments can most easily be identified. It would seem that the chief factor in the past decade or so has been the surge in the activities of various movements concerned with establishing equal rights for women (including workers' organisations in which women are now often more active), which has led to increasing awareness of the long-standing inequities and of the need for immediate remedial action and often to a complete change of attitude regarding the role of women. The increased participation of women in the political processes and sensitivity to their role as voters has also been an obvious influential factor in promoting new attitudes and new measures. Yet another important factor has been the mass of women in the labour force (34.1 per cent of the world's workers are women), and the fact that the

proportion of married women and mothers amongst these has been increasing in many industrialised countries (see Appendix III). This in turn must be related to the situation of shortage of labour which has prevailed in many countries during most of this period, with the result that increased value is now attached to the work of women and to the need to attract and integrate them into the labour force. In the case of women with family responsibilities this means ensuring that they can work outside their homes without being subject to discrimination, and developing services to ease the burden of home-making and looking after the family.

186. These are precisely the objectives of Recommendation No. 123, and it seems from several government reports that this instrument has been responsible in part for the launching of new programmes for working women with family responsibilities. There can be no doubt that, at the international level, an influential role in encouraging governments to pursue this policy has also been played by more general texts such as the International Labour Conference's Declaration of 1975 on equality of opportunity and treatment for women workers or the World Plan of Action for the International Women's Year (Mexico, 1975), combined with other well-timed and well-publicised promotional measures taken in the context of the International Women's Year.

Developing countries

187. The present survey shows that, even in many industrialised countries, the development of measures enabling women with family responsibilities to work without being subject to discrimination is a slow and difficult process. In developing countries the problems are even greater, and some brief comments on the relevance and application of Recommendation No. 123 in these regions may be useful.

188. Statistics for 1975¹ show that the proportion of women in the labour force in developing countries varies greatly from region to region - for example it is only 7.4 per cent in Northern Africa as compared with 37.5 per cent in Middle Africa - but that the average for these countries (32.1 per cent) is not much below the level for more developed countries (38.5 per cent): that is, there are some 358 million women workers in the developing countries. It is of course a fact that as yet only a very small proportion of these women in developing countries are employed as wage or salary earners, that is the group of women workers for whom, in so far as they have family responsibilities, services such as those envisaged in the Recommendation are most urgently required. It is also true that the extended family unit which still prevails in most developing countries greatly reduces the need for child-care facilities. It is also a fact that the basic needs in these countries are often so serious that any measures taken for women workers tend to be purely protective or to concentrate on the more general aspects of their conditions of work and life. This means that in most developing countries, as already noted, little priority can be given to the development of special services for working women with family responsibilities.

189. Accordingly it is all the more satisfactory to find that the reports from some of the governments in question indicate that first steps have already been taken for the establishment of appropriate child-care services in certain sectors, or that special women's bureaux have recently been created, or that general research

projects on the subject of women workers are under way. All these steps are an indication of increasing awareness of the problems facing women workers with family responsibilities, which should in due course lead to the more extensive application of the Recommendation in many of these developing countries.

New measures for the implementation of
Recommendation No. 123

190. A remarkably large number of governments refer in their reports to new measures being taken or envisaged in order to ensure the better implementation of their policies in respect of working women with family responsibilities. Such statements do not necessarily imply that the problems of these working women have not been given appropriate consideration in the past. Often the legislation and practice are already deemed to be in conformity with the Recommendation but further measures are planned to improve and expand the existing services. This position is taken by several governments, such as those of Austria, Cuba, Czechoslovakia and Switzerland, which emphasise (when referring to the need for new measures to give effect to the Recommendation) that the improvement of social legislation and services is a continuing process.

191. New legislative texts or regulations are under consideration in a number of countries: for example, a bill on equality of status between the sexes has been submitted to the Norwegian Parliament, bills on women's rights relevant to Recommendation No. 123 have been submitted to the Austrian and Italian Parliaments, the labour codes or laws of Cyprus, Ethiopia and the German Democratic Republic are to be modified to ensure improved conditions for working women, the adoption of a Bill prohibiting discrimination against women on the grounds of marriage or motherhood is being considered in Israel, provision for payments in respect of additional leave to look after a child are being envisaged in the USSR, rules on part-time work and flexible working hours - of special interest for women workers - are being prepared in Luxembourg, and a bill providing for the extension of parental leave to nine months has been submitted to Parliament in Sweden.

192. Several governments indicate that they plan to introduce a new or improved policy for working women with family responsibilities (for example, Indonesia, Guyana, Philippines, Portugal, Tunisia) and, in some cases, they give particulars of the general strategy or plan of action already under way (for example, Japan, Netherlands). The positive intentions of governments regarding future measures are sometimes reflected in general surveys being carried out on the problems of women workers in general or those with family responsibilities in particular (see paragraphs 32-35 above), or in the recent creation of special bodies or administrative units which are to advise on the introduction of appropriate measures for women workers (see paragraphs 22-26 above), or in the adoption of new legislation providing for the establishment of procedures designed to eliminate discrimination against women (for example, United Kingdom, United States).

193. Plans for the future improvement and development of child-care facilities are mentioned by a considerable number of governments. In Bulgaria, for example, long-term plans have been established for a

network of food centres for infants, for improvements in pre-school institutions, for the supply of all meals to schoolchildren, and for the extension of other facilities. In France, the capacity of crèches is to be doubled by 1980. In Norway, the Government has decided to increase the number of kindergarten places from 40,000 (end of 1976) to 100,000 by the end of 1981. In Turkey, the Third Five-Year Plan provides for improvements in the standards and supervision of child-care facilities. In the Tenth Five-Year Plan of the USSR, provision is made for an increase from the present figure of 12 million places in pre-school institutions to over 14.5 million such places. In Greece, Jamaica, Mauritius and Switzerland, new standards for child-care services are being drawn up. Staff training capacity is to be strengthened in Chile and Mexico. In New Zealand and Surinam, reviews of the present situation and of needs are to be carried out as a basis for future policy on the organisation of child-care services. In Sudan, the authorities are envisaging the modification of various laws with a view to the creation of crèches and kindergartens for the children of working women. All these and the many other government statements on concrete measures planned for the near future constitute evidence of their intention to facilitate the participation of women in the national labour force by easing their first and most immediate problem: the care of their children.

194. Other measures planned by governments are designed rather to ensure equality as regards training. Thus in Poland, for example, a vocational guidance scheme is being set up for girls and women, which is also to serve as a means of influencing parents and educators who participate in decisions regarding future employment. In the United States, the Educational Amendments which came into force in 1977 provide for the funding in each of the constituent states of an office for women which is to reduce sex-stereotyping in vocational education and ensure that state plans give due consideration to the educational needs of women. Although not limited to women with family responsibilities, these proposed measures are in line with those prescribed by Recommendation No. 123.

195. In referring to possible future measures to give effect to the Recommendation many governments - including some of those mentioned above - point out that the development of most of the services designed to enable women to reconcile their dual family and work responsibilities requires considerable resources, and indicate that this factor greatly slows down plans for the implementation of this instrument. Thus the Government of India states that it would not be feasible to create nation-wide child-care services in the immediate future, or to provide low-cost facilities to lighten household tasks. Several governments have indicated, more generally, that it is not at present possible to take new measures to give effect to the Recommendation because of the present economic and social conditions prevailing in their countries (for example, Bangladesh, Bermuda, Brunei, Haiti, Sierra Leone, Zambia). Others have indicated that further action is not being envisaged because the Recommendation is deemed to be satisfactorily applied (for example, Congo, Gabon, Malaysia) or because the present services are considered sufficient to meet the needs of the community (for example, British Virgin Islands, Gibraltar, Isle of Man).

196. Measures can also be taken within the ILO to promote the better implementation of Recommendation No. 123. For example, since it is the established practice for ILO regional conferences to review at each session the application of Conventions in the region, these conferences might be asked to review also the problems and progress of

programmes to foster the objectives of the present Recommendation. This would be timely and could generate new plans and proposals for implementing the Recommendation.

Possible revision of Recommendation No. 123

197. The International Labour Conference adopted a resolution in 1975 in which it invited the Governing Body "on the basis of the reports under article 19 of the Constitution to be supplied by member States in 1977 on the Employment (Women with Family Responsibilities) Recommendation, 1965 (No. 123), to place on the agenda of the earliest possible session of the International Labour Conference the question of workers with family responsibilities, with a view to the adoption of a new instrument".² The reasons given by the authors of this resolution were that the Recommendation perpetuates the idea that family and household responsibilities should fall on women only and that it does not provide for a change in the traditional roles of men and women. In November 1975 the Governing Body requested the Director-General to take account of this resolution and of the present survey on the Recommendation when drawing up proposals for the agenda of future sessions of the Conference. The Committee noted with interest in this regard that a Working Party established by the Governing Body with a view to carrying out a systematic review of the entire body of existing international labour standards had listed Recommendation No. 123 amongst the instruments, revision of which would be appropriate. The Committee was also informed of the Director-General's decision to include in the preliminary list of items to be proposed to the Governing Body at its May 1978 Session for the agenda of the 1980 Session of the International Labour Conference the question of equal opportunities and equal treatment for men and women workers, including the question of the special problems of workers with family responsibilities.

198. Accordingly, in considering the reports received from governments on Recommendation No. 123, the Committee was particularly attentive to all comments bearing on the modifications which might be introduced in this instrument.

199. The point most frequently made in this regard (for example, by the Governments of Austria, Finland, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal and Sweden; and in comments by workers' organisations of Austria, Japan and Sweden and an employers' organisation of Sweden) is that the Recommendation is no longer in line with present-day views on the role of women in society: it is based on the belief that women have a greater responsibility towards their families and that special measures are therefore needed to assist women in meeting these responsibilities as well as those arising out of their work. However, some governments have pointed out that, according to modern thinking, men and women should have equal responsibility towards their children and other family obligations and that consequently all services and arrangements developed in this respect should be available equally for men and for women. It has also been pointed out that this is in the interests of male workers (particularly when they are alone in carrying family responsibilities); and that it eliminates a possible source of discrimination against women in cases where the arrangements in question are liable to involve the employer in additional costs or inconvenience so that he hesitates to take on women workers with family responsibilities.

200. It should be noted that this principle of equality in respect of family responsibilities has already been recognised in a number of ILO decisions taken since the adoption of Recommendation No. 123 in 1965. Thus the 1975 Resolution on equality of opportunity and treatment for women workers indicates, for example, that all workers (men and women) are to be provided with services and assistance facilitating the combination of home and work responsibilities. The principle of equality between working men and women in regard to family responsibilities is also stated in the Declaration and the World Plan of Action adopted in Mexico in 1975. Indeed in various parts of Recommendation No. 123 itself, there is express recognition of the fact that the problems of workers with family responsibilities confront other workers besides women.

201. Apart from making such over-all comments regarding the need for a more equitable ILO instrument applying not only to women but also to men, a number of governments refer to measures they have taken, which are not amongst those specifically advocated in the Recommendation, and which might be considered in the event of a revision of this instrument. These measures include the following: the development of flexible working hours for all workers as a means of adjusting the constraints of work to individual needs, a reduction in working hours for workers with family responsibilities (through shorter daily or weekly hours, a number of additional days' leave each year for household tasks, or longer annual holidays), special leave to enable male or female workers to take care of a child or other member of the family who is sick, child-care facilities which are available not only for parents who are working but also for those in educational or training institutes, the development of communal kitchens, systematic educational programmes to promote the more equitable sharing of household tasks within the family, and measures ensuring appropriate conditions of work and pay for workers who - because of their family responsibilities - engage in homework.

202. Special reference must be made to the question of part-time work, and to its regulation. It is indicated in many reports (see paragraphs 149-152 above) that part-time work is often the only type of work which women with family responsibilities can take up, and that the majority of part-time workers are women.³ In these circumstances, it might be found appropriate - should it be decided to consider the revision of Recommendation No. 123 - to bear in mind the need to provide for appropriate safeguards and protection for all workers in part-time employment.

203. Several of the above-mentioned measures have already been featured in the ILO's 1975 Declaration and Plan of Action on equality of opportunity and treatment for women workers and in the World Plan of Action adopted in 1975 by the Mexico Conference of the International Women's Year. The fact that the principle of such measures has already been accepted at the international level should certainly facilitate their incorporation in a revised and up-dated instrument on workers with family responsibilities.

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204. Throughout this survey the Committee has referred to the need for measures to alleviate the problems of women who work outside their homes and who have family responsibilities. It is therefore both appropriate and necessary to emphasise once again that women are not the sole beneficiaries of these measures. In the first place the

creation and strengthening of services which enable women with family responsibilities to participate in the labour force contribute directly to the development of the national economy, and help to solve the problems of employers in many industries. Secondly, these services are in the interests of men who - if their wives are free to take up paid employment - are relieved of part of the burden and responsibility of providing for the needs of their families. Thirdly, they are directly beneficial for children of all ages who are ensured of decent child-care facilities, and also of parental care when this is needed (whether for extended periods during infancy or for short periods in case of sickness).

205. Accordingly it is in the interests of the community that the various services advocated in Recommendation No. 123 should be developed and should be sufficient to meet the needs of workers and their families. Yet there is no doubt that the changing attitudes regarding the employment of married women and the resulting changes in the composition of the labour force in most countries have placed a serious strain on existing facilities. Practically all countries have experienced difficulties in ensuring that the general level of these services - both quantitatively and qualitatively - keeps up with the increasing needs. Progress can best be achieved on the basis of a vigorous well-planned policy, implemented in co-operation with all public and private organisations concerned, and designed to secure continuing progress both in the number, nature and quality of the services made available to working women with family responsibilities, and in the development of appropriate legislative measures and guarantees.

206. The implementation of such a policy is no easy matter. It calls for continuing action by various government authorities: labour, manpower, education, health, welfare, etc. Above all it calls for the allocation of considerable resources. It is therefore all the more important that action should be pursued at all levels - by the international community, from within the governments, by employers' and workers' organisations, by voluntary organisations, and by working women themselves - aiming at the progressive introduction of legislative and other measures designed to help women combine family and work responsibilities without being subject to discrimination.

207. A wide variety of measures and actions is suggested in the Recommendation. An even broader range of measures, over-all, has been embraced by the reporting countries, with great variations in the combinations of actions developed in each country as it has adapted the principles to its perceived, specific needs. The distribution of the present survey to all competent authorities and interested workers', employers' and voluntary organisations should enable them to review all these possibilities with the aim of adopting those additional measures, proven successful elsewhere, which are likely in their opinion, to advance their achievement of the basic goals set forth in the Recommendation.

208. The fact that there is a continuous and growing need for energetic, many-sided policies and programmes to alleviate the problems of working women with family responsibilities, should not lead one to forget two major conclusions which may be drawn from the above survey. The first is that quite exceptional advances have been made, in the 13 years since the adoption of the Recommendation, in the expansion of services enabling women to reconcile their dual family and work responsibilities; and the second is that a wide range of measures have been taken or are being taken which will bring about further long-term

improvements in the position of working women. Taken as a whole, these measures mark a change in the traditional attitude regarding the role of women in many countries, and increasing acceptance of the view that the problems of family responsibilities should be considered as problems of the family and of society, and not just as those of the working woman.

Notes to conclusions

¹ See ILO: Womanpower: the world's female labour force in 1975 and the outlook for 2000 (Geneva, 1975).

² In this same resolution, the Conference raised the question of the possible need for new international instruments concerning equal opportunities and equal treatment for women and men in occupation and employment with a view to supplementing the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111). Accordingly a brief account of national law and practice in this area was submitted to the Governing Body in November 1977 (GB.204/2/1), with proposals regarding the agenda of the 65th (1979) Session of the Conference. In this paper attention was drawn, inter alia, to the advantage of having a wider designation of the grounds on which discrimination may not be practised so as to include family responsibilities. The Governing Body did not, however, select this subject for inclusion in the agenda of the Conference in question.

³ It should be noted in this connection that the draft text for Recommendation No. 123 contained a section on part-time work, with detailed provisions on the measures needed to safeguard the interests of such workers; however, this was deleted at the time of adoption since the majority considered that this subject was of interest to workers generally and should not be dealt with in an instrument concerned only with a given category of women workers. It should also be noted that, in November 1977, the Governing Body considered a brief law and practice report (document GB.204/2/1) on the question of part-time employment, in which it was indicated that the adoption of an instrument on this subject might be considered - an instrument which would provide for pro-rata entitlements for such workers as regards pay and holidays, full protection as regards health and safety, non-discrimination as regards job assignments and promotion, appropriate social security coverage, etc. The Governing Body did not, however, select this subject for inclusion in the agenda of the Conference in 1979.

A P P E N D I C E S

APPENDIX I

TEXT OF THE

EMPLOYMENT (WOMEN WITH FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES) RECOMMENDATION, 1965 (No. 123)

I. GENERAL PRINCIPLE

1. The competent authorities should, in co-operation with the public and private organisations concerned, in particular employers' and workers' organisations, and in accordance with national and local needs and possibilities:

- (a) pursue an appropriate policy with a view to enabling women with family responsibilities who work outside their homes to exercise their right to do so without being subject to discrimination and in accordance with the principles laid down in the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958, as well as in other standards relating to women adopted by the International Labour Conference; and
- (b) encourage, facilitate or themselves undertake the development of services to enable women to fulfil their various responsibilities at home and at work harmoniously.

II. PUBLIC INFORMATION AND EDUCATION

2. The competent authorities should, in co-operation with the public and private organisations concerned, in particular employers' and workers' organisations, take appropriate steps:

- (a) to encourage such consideration of the problems of women workers with family responsibilities as may be necessary to help these workers to become effectively integrated in the labour force on the basis of equal rights;
- (b) to undertake or promote such research as may be necessary and feasible into the various aspects of the employment of women workers with family responsibilities with a view to presenting objective information on which sound policies and measures may be based; and
- (c) to engender broader public understanding of the problems of these workers with a view to developing community policies and a climate of opinion conducive to helping them to meet their family and employment responsibilities.

III. CHILD-CARE SERVICES AND FACILITIES

3. With a view to determining the scope and character of the child-care services and facilities needed to assist women workers to meet their employment and family responsibilities, the competent authorities should, in co-operation with the public and private organisations concerned, in particular employers' and workers' organisations, and within the scope of their resources for collecting information, take such measures as may be necessary and appropriate:

- (a) to collect and publish adequate statistics on the number of mothers engaged in or seeking employment and on the number and age of their children; and
- (b) to ascertain, through systematic surveys conducted more particularly in local communities, the needs and preferences for child-care arrangements organised outside the family.

4. The competent authorities should, in co-operation with the public and private organisations concerned, take appropriate steps to ensure that child-care services and facilities meet the needs and preferences so revealed; to this end they should, taking account of national and local circumstances and possibilities, in particular:

- (a) encourage and facilitate the establishment, particularly in local communities, of plans for the systematic development of child-care services and facilities; and
- (b) themselves organise as well as encourage and facilitate the provision of adequate and appropriate child-care services and facilities, at reasonable charge or free in case of need, developed along flexible lines and meeting the needs of children of different ages and of their working parents.

5. With a view to safeguarding the health and welfare of the child:

- (a) child-care services and facilities of all types should comply with standards laid down and supervised by the competent authorities;
- (b) such standards should prescribe in particular the equipment and hygienic requirements of the services and facilities provided and the number and qualifications of the staff; and
- (c) the competent authorities should provide or help to ensure the provision of adequate training at various levels for the personnel needed to staff child-care services and facilities.

6. The competent authorities should, with the co-operation and participation of the public and private organisations concerned, in particular employers' and workers' organisations, help to ensure public understanding and support for efforts made to meet the special needs of working parents in respect of child-care services and facilities.

IV. ENTRY AND RE-ENTRY INTO EMPLOYMENT

7. The competent authorities should take all measures in accordance with the Employment Policy Convention, 1964, and the Employment Policy Recommendation, 1964, to enable women with family responsibilities to become or to remain integrated in the labour force as well as to re-enter the labour force.

8. With a view to enabling women with family responsibilities to become integrated in the labour force on a footing of equality, and with a comparatively long period of absence, the competent authorities should, in co-operation with the public and private organisations concerned, in particular employers' and workers' organisations, take all measures that may be necessary in the national circumstances:

- (a) to ensure the provision for girls of general education, vocational guidance and vocational training free from any form of discrimination on the ground of sex;
- (b) to encourage girls to obtain a sound vocational preparation as a basis for their future work lives; and
- (c) to convince parents and educators of the need to give girls a sound vocational preparation.

9. (1) The competent authorities should, in co-operation with the public and private organisations concerned and taking account of national needs and possibilities, provide or help to ensure the provision of the services that may be necessary to facilitate the entry into employment of women who have not yet worked, or the re-entry into employment of women who have been out of the employment market for a comparatively long time, owing, in particular, to family responsibilities.

(2) Such services should be organised within the framework of existing services for all workers or, in default thereof, along lines appropriate to national conditions; they should include adequate counselling, information and placement services and provide adequate vocational training and retraining facilities appropriate to the needs of the women concerned and available without distinction as regards age.

(3) The services and facilities should be kept under review in order to ensure that they are properly adapted to the special needs of these women workers and to the changing needs and tendencies of economic and technological development.

10. (1) In the case of women who, on account of their family responsibilities arising out of maternity, do not find themselves in a position to return to their employment immediately following exhaustion of the normal period of maternity leave established by law or practice, appropriate measures should be taken to the extent possible to allow them a reasonable further period of leave of absence without relinquishing their employment, all rights resulting from their employment being fully safeguarded.

(2) In case of termination of employment following maternity, the women concerned should be considered for re-employment in accordance with the provisions applicable under the Termination of Employment Recommendation, 1963, to workers whose employment has been terminated owing to a reduction of the workforce.

V. MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS

11. (1) To the extent necessary the public and private organisations concerned, in particular employers' and workers' organisations, should co-operate with the competent authorities and collaborate with each other to take other measures and promote other action to assist women workers to meet their employment and family responsibilities without detriment to their opportunities for employment and promotion.

(2) In this connection attention should be given, as local needs require and possibilities permit, to matters which have particular relevance for women workers with family responsibilities, such as the organisation of public transport, the harmonisation of working hours and hours of schools and child-care services or facilities, and the provision at low cost of the facilities required to simplify and lighten household tasks.

12. Particular efforts should be made to develop home-aid services operating under public authority or supervision and providing women workers with family responsibilities, in the event of family need, with qualified assistance at reasonable charge.

APPENDIX II

A. ILO STANDARDS CONCERNING WOMEN WORKERS

Non-discrimination against women in employment and occupation

Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111) and Recommendation (No. 111), 1958.

Employment Policy Convention (No. 122) and Recommendation (No. 122), 1964.

Human Resources Development Recommendation, 1975 (No. 150).

Special Youth Schemes Recommendation, 1970 (No. 136).

Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention, 1962 (No. 117).

Equal remuneration for work of equal value

Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100) and Recommendation (No. 90), 1951.

Plantations Recommendation, 1958 (No. 110).

Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention, 1962 (No. 117).

Maternity protection

Maternity Protection Convention, 1919 (No. 3).

Maternity Protection Convention (Revised) (No. 103) and Recommendation (No. 95), 1952.

Plantations Convention, 1958 (No. 110).

Night work

Night Work (Women) Convention, 1919 (No. 4).

Night Work (Women) Convention (Revised), 1934 (No. 41).

Night Work (Women) Convention (Revised), 1948 (No. 89).

Unhealthy or arduous employment

Underground Work (Women) Convention, 1935 (No. 45).

White Lead (Painting) Convention, 1921 (No. 13).

Lead Poisoning (Women and Children) Recommendation, 1919 (No. 4).

Radiation Protection Recommendation, 1960 (No. 114).

Benzene Convention (No. 136) and Recommendation (No. 144), 1971.

Maximum Weight Convention (No. 127) and Recommendation (No. 128), 1967.

Welfare

Welfare Facilities Recommendation, 1956 (No. 102).

Employment of women with family responsibilities

Employment (Women with Family Responsibilities) Recommendation, 1965 (No. 123).

Nursing personnel

Nursing Personnel Convention (No. 149) and Recommendation (No. 157), 1977.

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Declaration on Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers, 1975.

Resolution concerning a Plan of Action with a View to Promoting Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers, 1975.

B. UNITED NATIONS INSTRUMENTS RELATING SPECIFICALLY
TO THE STATUS OF WOMEN

Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1952).

Convention on the Nationality of Married Women (1957).

Convention and Recommendation on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages (1962 and 1965).

Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (1967).

Programme of Concerted International Action for the Advancement of Women (1970).

World Conference of the International Women's Year, 1975:

Declaration of Mexico on the Equality of Women and Their Contribution to Development and Peace.

World Plan of Action for the Implementation of the Objectives of the International Women's Year.

APPENDIX III

A. FEMALE LABOUR FORCE: 1965, 1975, 1985 AND 2000 (IN MILLIONS)

Major area or region	Labour force			
	1965	1975	1985	2000
<u>WORLD</u>	<u>485.2</u>	<u>575.7</u>	<u>676.5</u>	<u>877.8</u>
More developed regions	180.2	206.7	229.9	260.3
Less developed regions	305.0	369.0	446.6	617.5
<u>AFRICA</u>	<u>39.9</u>	<u>49.4</u>	<u>61.3</u>	<u>90.2</u>
Eastern Africa	13.9	17.1	21.2	30.5
Middle Africa	6.0	7.1	8.4	11.6
Northern Africa	1.7	2.4	3.5	6.2
Southern Africa	2.4	3.7	4.9	8.0
Western Africa	15.9	19.1	23.4	33.8
<u>LATIN AMERICA</u>	<u>16.0</u>	<u>22.8</u>	<u>32.6</u>	<u>56.7</u>
Caribbean	2.3	2.7	3.4	4.9
Middle America	2.7	4.2	6.5	12.8
Temperate South America	2.9	3.6	4.5	5.8
Tropical South America	8.2	12.3	18.2	33.2
<u>NORTHERN AMERICA</u>	<u>29.8</u>	<u>39.0</u>	<u>46.0</u>	<u>56.1</u>
<u>EAST ASIA</u>	<u>153.7</u>	<u>179.5</u>	<u>206.7</u>	<u>256.5</u>
China	128.7	148.6	170.1	211.0
Japan	19.1	22.7	25.9	30.3
Other East Asia	5.9	8.2	10.7	15.2
<u>SOUTH ASIA</u>	<u>116.9</u>	<u>142.9</u>	<u>175.5</u>	<u>248.9</u>
Eastern South Asia	37.2	45.3	55.9	78.5
Middle South Asia	73.3	90.0	109.9	155.8
Western South Asia	6.5	7.6	9.6	14.6

Major area or region	Labour force			
	1965	1975	1985	2000
<u>EUROPE</u>	<u>68.3</u>	<u>76.1</u>	<u>84.1</u>	<u>93.2</u>
Eastern Europe	22.2	25.3	27.4	30.1
Northern Europe	12.1	13.5	14.8	16.8
Southern Europe	13.0	14.4	16.2	18.4
Western Europe	21.0	22.9	25.7	28.0
<u>OCEANIA</u>	<u>2.2</u>	<u>2.9</u>	<u>3.6</u>	<u>4.9</u>
Australia and New Zealand	1.6	2.2	2.7	3.6
Melanesia	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.0
Micronesia and Polynesia	0.05	0.08	0.1	0.2
<u>USSR</u>	<u>58.5</u>	<u>63.1</u>	<u>66.7</u>	<u>71.3</u>

Source: ILO: Labour Force Estimates and Projections, 1950-2000
(Geneva, 1977).

B. PARTICIPATION OF MARRIED WOMEN AGED 15 AND
OVER IN THE LABOUR FORCE OF SELECTED COUNTRIES

	Percentage of women in total labour force		Percentage of married women among active women
	All women	Married women	
Argentina	25	9	36
Chile	23	7	30
France	35	12	34
Great Britain	36	22	61
Hong Kong	35	15	43
Hungary	41	28	68
Ireland	26	4	15
Mexico	20	7	35
Morocco	14	6	43
Singapore	26	7	27
Sweden	35	20	57
Switzerland	34	15	44
United States	37	21	57

Source: ILO: Womanpower: the world's female labour force in 1975
and the outlook for 2000 (Geneva, 1975).