



**United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW)
United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)**

The situation of rural women within the context of globalization

**Report of the Expert Group Meeting
4 – 8 June 2001
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia**

**Division for the Advancement of Women
Department of Economic and Social Affairs
2 UN Plaza, 12th Floor
New York, NY 10017
Fax: (212) 963-3463
E.mail: daw@un.org
Web location: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw>
TABLE OF CONTENTS**

2.	Changing patterns of household division of labour.....	93 - 97
3.	Impact of change on gender relations.....	98 - 103
E.	Key findings.....	104
III.	Recommendations.....	105 - 143
A.	Human rights and labour standards.....	106 - 114
B.	Women's livelihood and work.....	115 - 122
C.	Empowerment and capacity building through access to training 105 el.	

Preface

Pursuant to this resolution, the Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW) in collaboration with the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) organized the Expert Group Meeting on "The situation of rural women within the context of globalization". It was hosted by the Government of Mongolia in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia from 4 to 8 June 2001. The Meeting examined the impact of major global trends, including the growth in rural non-farm economic activities, non-rural employment opportunities, the liberalization of trade and markets for agricultural products, the intensification of the commercialization of agriculture, and the rapid diffusion of products, technologies, information, consumption patterns and the flexibilization of the labour market on the situation of rural women.

I. ORGANIZATION OF WORK

Attendance

1. The Expert Group Meeting on "The situation of rural women within the context of globalization" was held in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia from 4 to 8 June 2001. The meeting was organized by the Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW) in collaboration with the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) and hosted by the Government of Mongolia.
2. The Meeting met in plenary, and in working groups. In an opening plenary meeting, background presentations created a conceptual framework for the discussions. Working group discussions, focusing on specific issues, followed the plenary. The meeting concluded with the adoption of a final report that contained the main conclusions and recommendations of the Meeting.
3. The Meeting was attended by 13 experts representing all geo-political regions and forty-four observers from Governments, intergovernmental organizations, the United Nations system and non-governmental organizations (see annex I for the full list of participants).

D. Election of officers

6. At its opening session, the Meeting elected the following officers:

Chairperson	Ms. Sandra Botha (South Africa)
Vice-chair	Ms. Khorloo Enkhjargal (Mongolia)
Rapporteur	Ms. Jeanne Illo (Philippines)

E. Opening statements

7. The Expert Group Meeting was opened by Mr. B.Ganbold, State Secretary of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Government of Mongolia. He welcomed the participants on behalf of the Government and underlined the importance of this meeting and its recommendations for the advancement of rural women and achieving the goals of gender equality. He emphasized the relevance of the meeting to the situation of rural women in Mongolia who are experiencing both the negative and positive impact of globalization and the need to enhance the benefits that rural women can gain.

8. In her opening statement, Ms. Yakin Ertürk, Director of the Division for the Advancement of Women, emphasized that the majority of women in rural areas of developing countries are unpaid family workers on small land holdings, in animal husbandry and/or in non-farm enterprises. Contrary to popular perceptions, rural women are not just involved in the subsistence and non-monetized sectors of the economy. They contribute to subsistence as well as to market-18e

11. Ms. Lanyan Chen speaking on behalf of the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), also welcomed the participants in her opening statement.

12. Ms. Chen noted that since rural women have the least access to productive resources, health c

II. SUMMARY OF THE GENERAL DEBATE

A. Introduction

16. The participants of the Expert Group Meeting examined the situation of rural women in the context of globalization. The discussion indicated that globalization involves changes in a wide range of areas, including:

- trade liberalization;
- greater mobility of capital and increased financial flows;
- changes in labour demand and restructuring of labour markets (flexibilization)

relatively small proportion of commercialized agriculture in the developing world. Many people, including rural women, are engaged in smallholder commercial agriculture.

31. However, the industrialization of agriculture is leading to erosion of the “classical international division of labour” in agricultural production in some countries. The so-called non-traditional agricultural export commodities or high value foods (HVF) are becoming relatively more important than the traditional exports of coffee, tea, sugar and cocoa. These new HVF include fruit and vegetables, poultry, dairy products and shellfish.³

32. The success of these so-called New Agricultural Countries (NACs) in pursuing their HVF strategy has depended on a combination of factors, including favourable international market conditions during the early phase, dominance and availability of domestic and foreign capital, high degree of concentration in the industry (especially in production, processing and marketing) and reliable supply of inputs. Two characteristics seem to determine the competitiveness of HVF sectors. One is the pursuit of low cost production, primarily obtained through low labour costs, in particular that of rural women. Second, HVF competitiveness depends on reaching a high degree of quality, which is important for establishing a presence in niche markets. The role of consumers in OECD countries as well as increasing standards of food safety and quality requirements (phyto-sanitary regulations) are important elements in the functioning of agro-food system.

33. The agro-food industry is also characterized by the emergence of GCCs. The emergence of these GCCs has been significantly aided by new technologies in transportation and the computerization of much of the production process ranging from drip-irrigation to packing and increased specialization in livestock production. As a result of these trends, producers of traditional export commodities may see their market position erode as may smallholder family farmers.

34. An important facet of the global integration of agricultural markets is the organization of production through “contract farming” with rural producers. This means that the exporters or food giants control the production of commodities through providing technical assistance, finance, and controlling the use of fertilizers and pesticides, as well as types of seeds planted. The contract farming system can provide the opportunity to obtain an income from land-based production, to adopt improved production methods and a link to the market. Yet rural producers can also face risks of exploitation by middlemen and fluctuation in prices.

35. With the exception of a few globally operating food giants, transnational corporations (TNCs) tend to adapt their strategies to local conditions under which HVF and more traditional commodities are produced. Depending on local circumstances there may be some differences in the degree of control giving more or less flexibility to local farmers.

36. It was also recognized that under certain circumstances, traditional processes are gaining new dimensions. A case in point is the nomadic pastoralism in Mongolia, where the recent privatization of livestock and increased market integration pressured herders to adopt more commercialized activities such as producing cashmere for a growing international economic niche market.

³ About 24 low and middle-income countries were responsible for more than US\$500 million HVF exports by 1990. Most of these countries are located in Latin America and Asia. See: Watts, Michael J. and David Goodman. 1997. “Agrarian Questions: Global Appetite, Local Metabolism: Nature, Culture, and Industry in Fin-de-Siècle Agro-Food Systems.” In, David Goodman and Michael J. Watts, (eds), 1997. “*Globalising Food: Agrarian Questions and Global Restructuring*”. London: Routledge: 1-34.

c) **Labour-intensive industrialization and export processing zones (EPZs)**

37. With the changes in the organization of production there has been an increase in labour-intensive, often export-oriented, industries located in developing countries as well as in transition economies. This development has important implications for rural areas as it entails their further integration into the market. This market integration involves a wide variety of activities ranging from rural industries to the establishment of EPZs. Rural industrialization includes independent entrepreneurs producing for the local market as well as sub-contracting for larger domestic and foreign firms. Examples of rural industrialization are textiles and garments, food processing, carpet weaving and toys.

38. Government policies, including those that are favouring the establishing of EPZs, are aimed to attract foreign capital by providing special arrangements such as tax breaks and suspension of environmental and labour laws. The economic incentives provided by

agency communications systems and home-based piecework such as leather tanning, packaging and labeling are other work opportunities that have become available to some rural women with the changing work environment. For the vast majority of the rural poor – women, children and men – sporadic construction work in the cities, informal trading and trucking are some of the more conventional activities that offer opportunities to supplement household earnings.

42. Despite the diversification of job opportunities, much of the work that rural women are able to engage in are either at the margins of emerging industries, where high turn over rate of labour is common, or in the informal sector. The increased choice and opportunity women are finding in the labour market may have a short life and gender inequalities may be intensified in the long run. Furthermore, although women are becoming more economically active in paid employment, they still remain economically disempowered with weak bargaining power and lower incomes. In addition, increased women's participation in paid work has not diminished women's responsibilities for household tasks and childcare. The burden of unpaid work at home and a marginal position in the labour market tend to reinforce each other, making it harder for women to break out of the role of dependent and secondary breadwinner within the family⁵.

e) New information and communication technologies (ICTs)

43. Within the context of globalization ICTs constitute an important interface in the transfer of resources as well as in the organization of production. The global trend is to move toward knowledge driven society (the network society) mediated by ICTs. ICTs have the potential to break the isolation of rural women and improve their access to education and training. ICT-based education will not only be important for capacity-building of rural women and girls, but may also assist in providing more food security as rural women and girls may gain better knowledge about markets and prices.

44. If effective measures are not taken urgently, it is highly probable that an ICT divide could widen urban-rural disparities in education and access to new forms of knowledge. This could create great disadvantages to rural households in structuring their livelihood strategies. As rural women and girls run significant risks of being further marginalized in the knowledge society and economy, it is important to specifically target them for programmes and training.

2. Framework for analysing the situation of rural women in the context of globalization

45. An essential feature of a globalizing economy is the shifting division of labour associated with changes in the nature of specialization and production processes. How these changes affect rural women depend in the first instance on two proximate factors: what role women play in the declining activities and how equipped they are to take advantage of the expanding activities. These two proximate factors depend in turn on a large number of underlying forces operating at the individual, household, community, state and global levels. For instance, individual skills and command over resources would have a bearing on the extent to which women participate in declining as well as expanding activities. Household structure and the nature of intra-household division of labour

⁵ 1999 World Survey on the Role of Women in Development, Globalization, Gender and Work, United Nations, New York, 1999, p. 13

will also affect women's opportunities and their ability to take them. Furthermore, their ability to seize the new opportunities and to fend off the new threats will also depend upon social norms impinging on gender division of labour in the broader economy, and the extent to which women can play an effective role in decision-making processes at the household as well as community levels.

46. However, these underlying forces are not immutable. The constellation of these forces is constantly being altered

also due to the time constraints faced by women to participate in such programmes due to their heavy work load. Privatization of agricultural extension services will further adversely affect the prospects of women's access to these services.

59. Agriculture being a high-risk venture, credit to farmers is not easily forthcoming in many countries, particularly to women. Furthermore, the cyclic nature of production and thus income creates unique constraints to access credit from commercial banks. Though many countries followed the practice of providing agricultural credit under concessional terms, the current changes directed to develop competitive credit markets could pose problems to farmers in their access to capital, unless the private sector steps in to fill the capital gap. Any changes resulting in reduced access to capital for rural households have implications for production investment and thus their livelihood strategies.

60. Provision of micro-finance is a popular measure to support rural women's access to income generating ventures. The impact of micro-finance initiatives for rural women in general is rated to be positive. But differences are evident among the micro-finance programmes in demonstrated approaches, commitment and success related to capacity building among rural women to be self-reliant producers and confident credit holders in their individual rights. As liberalization and financial market integration accelerate, with focus on competitive credit and efficient financial management principles, the concern would be to provide a sustainable access to micro-credit for rural women. Additionally, it should be recognized that micro-credit for petty trade should be only the entry point for economic advancement of rural women, but long-term focus should be upgrading their economic enterprises to ensure sustainable livelihood.

2. New employment opportunities and working conditions

61. Commercialization of agriculture together with trade liberalization, especially in developing countries, have created new employment opportunities for women in rural areas which are also accompanied by new risks. For instance, export crop expansion may force women from permanent agricultural employment into seasonal employment. In Thailand for example, women started to subcontract to multinational corporations on family-owned plots to produce baby corn and asparagus on former paddy land or started to raise shrimps under contract to foreign companies. Often such employment arrangements in the agricultural export sector entail low pay labour-intensive manual jobs. However, despite its low wages, the net returns from such activities may be an improvement over the traditional agricultural activities it is replacing. Such is the case in Thailand, where women now earn more in a shorter work day than what they did by cultivating rice.

62. Globalization is affecting the livelihood prospects of rural women not only through its effects on agriculture but also through its effects on industry. Trade liberalization coupled with free movement of capital has enabled many developing countries to set up export industries using cheap labour. This has opened up employment opportunities for women, especially in the

63. In most cases, previously these women did not have any job prospects at all. The most they could aspire to was the life as a maid, or a prostitute, or a petty trader. For them, the prospect of employment in export industries has amounted to improvement in their livelihood opportunities, with far-reaching economic and social consequences (see for example, Tzannatos 1995)⁶.

64. Livestock production in developing countries is also undergoing major transformation due to global demand for variety of livestock products particularly from developed countries. These demands are diversifying livestock production, and are also creating new industries around livestock products similar to what is happening in the agricultural sector. While the changes in the organization of livestock production may favour male labour, female labour appears to be preferred for the labour intensive tasks involved in the processing and production of livestock products.

65. New technologies for agricultural production are leading to the creation of new employment opportunities in rural industries and agribusiness enterprises. However, such opportunities may favour those who have certain skills, capacities and access to social networks and assets. This may pose a danger for women unless they are provided with education and training to acquire the necessary skills. Such a selective phenomenon is evident where employers in certain export industries prefer young women with some education over older women who often do not. This problem becomes acute when the nature of specialization shifts from relatively unskilled activities to skill intensive activities.

66. On the other hand, withdrawal of state provisions for basic services often increases the burden of reproductive work on women thereby restricting their ability to take up opportunities in productive, paid employment.

67. In general rural women work long hours, and under difficult circumstances often without basic services, equate work to a burden. Tzannatos (1995) has shown that in general rural women work long hours, and under difficult circumstances often without basic services, equate work to a burden. Tzannatos (1995) has shown that in general rural women work long hours, and under difficult circumstances often without basic services, equate work to a burden. Tzannatos (1995) has shown that in general rural women work long hours, and under difficult circumstances often without basic services, equate work to a burden.

69. By and large, the benefits accruing to rural women and men, through new economic

are able to enter male domains, is for the women to undertake the work previously done by migrants. Sometimes, however, this strategy may result in the work not being done.

76. The absence of a husband or other male head of household often forces women to take over his tasks and responsibilities. While this means increasing women's burden, it may have empowering effects as this affords a woman the opportunity to acquire new skills (e.g. negotiating with government departments and traders, learning to use agricultural equipment). Women may (e.g. in Egypt) also experience an upward occupational mobility due to vacancies, which under different circumstances would have been occupied by men.

77. Another strategy, when migrant remittances are sufficient, is for women to utilize this income to contract labour for certain agricultural and livestock production tasks traditionally done by men. In addition, when remittance income permits, some women are able to hire labour to assume some of the most labour-intensive tasks, allowing them to assume income-generating activities off farm.

78. However, in some societies a man's role and responsibility may be taken over by a male relative, or the woman whose husband migrates has to move in with her husband's relatives. In these instances the women cannot attain control of the household resources and activities off farm.

decision-making position in the household more easily than women, if they wish so. On the other hand, long-term migrants often do not wish to resume their traditional work and prefer to engage in different activities that earn better income or bring higher status. The implication for households is that women continue to fulfil these tasks. For example, in western Sudan returning male migrants prefer to engage in trade rather than resume agricultural work in order to maintain their income.

83. Rural migrants generally return home with new skills, work experiences, ideas, savings and technologies. At times the values women bring back home are more conservative. Such has been the case of Egyptian women returning from the Gulf countries. More often than not, however, women come home with greater self-confidence and higher self-esteem. In the Philippines, returning women overseas contract workers are beginning to engage in community affairs and politics. As with women migrants elsewhere, indigenous women migrants in Mexico come home more inclined to challenge the established gender roles and prevailing customs in the family. They are less likely to fit into their former roles and tend to abandon more easily local traditions because of their more restrictive nature for women than men. This may create strong conflicts leading to women's re-migration.

84. The pressure to leave again tends to be strong when the money sent home by a female migrant has been used differently than she anticipated (spent rather than saved or invested). This leaves her with neither savings nor an economic base for the future, which for single women can diminish their prospects of getting married and for women with economic dependants could mean going back to the starting point.

4. Remittances

85. Generally, remittances from migrants improve the quality of life of rural households, although their long-term impact and importance for sustaining rural life differ.

A distinction can be made between remittances which are being used to feed the household members and remittances used for investments purposes.

86. The impact of remittances on household well being depends very much on who in the

88. Globalization is associated in many places with an emerging diversity of household types, changes in decision-making, gender division of labour and intra-household relations.

1. Changes in the structure of rural households

89. The emerging diversity of household

95. Women's labour is particularly indispensable and often irreplaceable in rural areas. While men might be able to shift their work performance in accordance with the available work opportunities, women do not have the same flexibility. Productive labour of rural women includes non-remunerated family labour (unpaid family work) and paid labour (wage labour and piece rate work). In household production rural women's work is characterized as "multi-tasking" and "labour intensive" as they shoulder the responsibility for productive and reproductive tasks. Yet, policy makers do not adequately recognize the contribution of women and children to rural economies. Although there has been some progress in including women's unpaid work in official statistics, in most countries this issue is not recognized.

96. In resource rich areas, certain industrial and manufacturing firms locate their production facility absorbing local labour. Location of such enterprises also capture state subsidies and various services. These new enterprises, while offering rural employment, also siphon resources such as fertile land, water for irrigation, and forest, that were crucial for traditional rural household production and for ensuring food security for many families. In such situations the burden of compensating for these resources often fall on the households, namely women who should spend more time and energy looking for these resources.

97. The process of migration also has mixed impact on the situation of women in rural households. Migration of some family members may increase household income, but it can also cause an increase in women's workload. The impact of the additional workload on women is particularly strongly felt in areas where social support systems and services are weak or have eroded. Often children, particularly girls, are then called upon to assume some of the domestic tasks. Women employ different strategies to compensate the loss of labour. They may organize labour exchange with other women, work longer hours themselves or, if they have means from remittance and other income sources, hire additional labour. But they might also adopt such strategies as reducing the area under cultivation, switching to less labour-

activities. This is reflected by rural women's participation in revolving credit schemes, cooperative ventures and increased networking at the work place as well as the participation in adult education and community programmes.

100. Information technology has also impacted directly and indirectly on rural women. Many have access to radio and at times television. This has brought about a dramatic increase of information into their homes and has introduced them to patterns of gender relations and decision-making which exist in other cultures.

101. In many countries, the most visible change, which is taking place with regard to gender relations relate to marriage. As rural women adjust to economic change and as a result of earning an independent income and gaining access to new ideas or lifestyles, the factors influencing her choice of a partner or form of cohabitation tend to alter. For example, she may place more emphasis on personal characteristics rather than on economic prospects and cultural expectations. Worldwide there are a growing number of women choosing to delay marriage or remain single while still choosing to have children. There are communities in which migrant unmarried women returning home are looked at as particularly desirable marriage partner due to their economic independence, skills and abilities. There are, however, also communities in which these gains are perceived as a threat making it more difficult for the women to get married and readjust to the community.

102. Women sex workers are particularly vulnerable to acts of harassment. Migrant women returning home are forced to adopt to the prevalent norms of gender relations and in the course of readjustment may be subject to total subservience to male family members.

103. The greater the degree of exposure rural women have to cultural and social changes in the rest of the world, including human rights instruments, the more likely it is that these changes will also shape and reinforce their independent decision-making roles and influence gender relations. The impact of globalization has also brought about changes in the nature of local government, with rural women being drawn into decision-making structures on account of their new influence in the household and the community. This is also reflected in the conscious efforts of political parties to recruit rural women as candidates in all levels of politics. However, they are often not promoted within party structures to decision-making positions without some form of intervention.

E. Key findings

104. The analysis presented in this report has identified the following major impacts of globalization on the situation of rural women.

- **Globalization has been associated with increased feminization of the labour force, as the female share of employment has increased worldwide. Much of the increase has resulted from a movement of female labour from the subsistence sector in rural areas to the paid economy.**
- While new economic opportunities for rural women may have resulted from globalization, the benefits accruing to women and men differ due to constraints posed by their differential access to resources and by the gender norms that shape their willingness

and capacity to take advantage of non-traditional job opportunities or new production technologies.

- **Even within the context of production diversification most households in rural areas still depend on land, and natural resources for their livelihood, though not exclusively. In this context, it is disconcerting to note that the currently accelerated process of land titling, privatization of common property and land consolidation for efficient production, can increase the risk of women losing the existing property rights.**
- **Globalization has opened up opportunities for rural women into various types of paid non-farm activities. Since many of these activities are dependent on the natural resource base, it is a matter of some concern that intensive production and harvesting of forests for global markets have led to the degradation of critical natural resources.**
- **A renewed interest in bio-diversity and indigenous plants and materials have created opportunities for rural women to utilize their traditional knowledge and experience to take advantage of emerging national and global markets. However, these possibilities may not be realized unless Trade-Related Intellectual Property Rights are implemented in a transparent and just manner to protect the rights of local communities to indigenous resources.**
- **The move towards export-oriented industries based on unskilled labour has opened up many new employment opportunities for rural women. However, as the globalizing economies move on to more advanced forms of specialization requiring skilled labour, there is a danger that women will lose out at that stage unless appropriate actions are taken, well in advance, to enable them to acquire education and the requisite skills to compete in the global market.**

- **In general both men and women have to renegotiate their positions within the relationship, household and community, upon their return. When women migrants return, they generally are less likely to fit into their former roles and tend to abandon more easily local traditions, supposedly because of their more restrictive nature for women than men. They are also more inclined to challenge the established gender roles and prevailing customs in the family. This may create strong conflicts leading to women's re-migration. Long-term male migrants, however, often do not wish to resume their traditional work and prefer to engage in other activities.**
- **One effect of globalization is a sharp increase in the diversification of the different types of work household members engage in. This as well as changes in household structure are affecting the division of labour within households sometimes leading to increasing work burden for women. This tendency has been reinforced by increasing migration of male family members. The impact of the additional workload on women is particularly strongly felt in areas where social support systems and services are weak or eroded. Often children, particularly girls, are then called upon to assume some of the domestic tasks.**
- **Globalization has given way to conditions that have the potential to significantly alter customary decision-making structures within the household. Changes in household structures have implied re-negotiation of gender relations, with outcomes dependent on individual choices, socio-cultural context as well as economic factors.**
- **Some rural women have become the only breadwinners in the household, as male members have become unemployed due to the displacement effect of labour markets. While this situation has enabled women to gain greater access to decision-making power, at the same time, it has increased the possibility for greater exposure to violence.**
- **By and large, however, women's involvement in non-traditional activities and paid employment has changed the patterns of decision-making within rural households. From being passive participants in male-dominated decision-making structures, women are now gaining control of resources that directly affect them and other members of the household.**
- **One of the consequences of globalization has been greater exposure of rural women to cultural and social changes taking place in the rest of the world, including international human rights instruments. It is likely that these changes may shape and reinforce their independent decision-making roles. In some countries, current changes in the nature of local governance have increased the potential for women to be drawn into decision-making structures.**

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

105. The implementation of these recommendations, at all levels, should be based on women's needs and priorities as identified by participatory rural processes and should focus on the following areas:

A. Human rights and labour standards

106. Women's views should be taken into account by Governments and Parliaments in the formulation of new laws and regulations, and in changing existing laws which contravene the principle of equality between women and men. Practical measures for the implementation of international instruments should be promoted.

107. All relevant human rights instruments should be fully applied to rural women by Governments. Particular attention should be given to the implementation of art. 14 of CEDAW by States Parties to the Convention

108. The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) should develop a general recommendation on art.14 of the Convention and specifically request the reporting Governments to pay attention to the situation of rural women in the context of globalization.

109. Women's equal right to property and inheritance should be fully and unconditionally recognized and implemented. Compliance with international standards of equality, including women's property rights, should be protected and promoted by Governments.

110. Governments, international organizations including the UN system and NGOs should promote awareness of rural women's legal property rights as a priority, through:
a) dissemination of national and international legal instruments; b) legal literacy training for rural women; c) legal assistance d) awareness raising of current discrimination e) gender-sensitive training for implementers.

111. ILO conventions as well as international standards of gender equality and human rights should be incorporated in national laws and codes of conduct of transnational corporations. Their observance should be monitored by Governments, relevant international organizations (e.g. ILO), trade unions, NGOs and other actors in civil society.

112. Training programmes and discussions aimed at both rural women and men to promote gender awareness should be organized by national and local Governments, human rights groups and other NGOs to encourage the sharing of parental roles and household duties by men.

113. Governments should eliminate de jure and/or de facto job discrimination against rural migrants and abolish all discriminatory regulations affecting living and working opportunities of rural migrants in urban areas, where appropriate.

114. Governments, human rights and women's groups should provide information to

rural migrant women on their human rights and international standards of equality. Governments should also provide these women with legal and consular support, as appropriate.

B. Women's livelihood and work

115. Governments, the private sector and civil society should jointly develop policies and projects and consolidate resources in order to improve infrastructures and provide job opportunities in rural areas.

116. The functioning of financial institutions in rural areas should be analysed by Governments and local authorities with the view to make them more accessible to rural women. This should include the support to revolving credit systems which are well suited to assist cooperative ventures in rural areas.

117. Governments, donors, NGOs and the private sector should develop specific assistance programmes and advisory services to enhance rural women's economic skills in banking, modern trading and financial procedures matching requirements of the market economy.

118. International donors should provide aid programmes directly to rural women rather than through the intermediaries.

119. Governments should protect, through proper policy regulations, national resources and bio-diversity and invest in eco- and cultural tourism in rural areas to enable rural women to develop new economic activity.

120. Rural women's indigenous knowledge and experience in subsistence production and environment should be recognized by national and local Governments as a resource and integrated into formal programmes.

121. Support for rural women by Governments, NGOs and the private sector should not be confined to micro-enterprises. Rather, it should be directed at different scales of enterprise and women should be supported to expand their enterprises according to their needs and the possibilities in the given environment.

122. In order to enhance women's participation in the labour market, improve their bargaining power and facilitate social contacts, Governments, NGOs and the private sector should support initiatives aimed at strengthening social networks that are a source of support and information.

C. Empowerment and capacity building through access to training, technology and basic services

123. Governments, NGOs, mass media and other actors in civil society should organize educational and awareness raising campaigns aimed at the transformation of cultural norms towards gender equality and encourage the private and public sector to be more gender-sensitive.

124. Education, information and training for rural women should continue to be a high priority. Information services for rural women entrepreneurs should be expanded based on an analysis of rapidly changing and new market opportunities.

125. Agricultural training programmes and educational institutions should revise their curriculum and methods of their work to respond to the needs of rural women in a rapidly changing global context. They should also provide rural women with information on emerging job opportunities.

126. Governments and local authorities should develop exchange programmes at school level for rural and urban girls, to familiarize them with the living conditions in each sphere, and introduce them to the opportunities in each area.

127. Governments, international organizations, including UN system, educational institutions and NGOs should create opportunities for rural women from various regions and countries to exchange experiences and information, to network, and engage in mutually beneficial projects.

128. Rural women should be more actively supported by Governments and the private sector in gaining access to opportunities provided by new agriculture and information and communication technologies (ICT). These ICT facilities must penetrate to the level of rural villages.

129. Governments should ensure provision of basic services in education and health, including maternal and child care services and devise them in accordance with the needs of rural women and girls including through distance and informal education programmes. The private sector should support such activities.

130. Governments and the private sector should provide support for community initiatives for care of abandoned and/or orphaned children and other vulnerable members of the community.

131. In order to improve rural women's negotiating positions and skills within the household and community, to strengthen their self-esteem, self-confidence and awareness of their rights, national and local Governments, international organizations and NGOs should provide capacity building training to the rural women.

132. Governments, political parties, local authorities and NGOs should:

- (a) Facilitate women's participation in decision-making bodies at the local level by providing training and capacity building programmes. Quota system should be adopted as an interim measure, as appropriate.
- (b) Support and encourage rural women's equal participation in leadership in rural producer associations.

D. Migration and gender relations

133. NGOs should organize training programmes for women who are entering 'male

working domains' and strengthen women's ability to cope with the absence of male members of the household and encourage them to perform all tasks related to new work requirements.

134. Governments in cooperation with the International Migration Organization (IMO) should promote establishment of training programmes, services and community centres for migrant rural women.

135. Governments, financial institutions and NGOs should provide rural communities and migrant women with information on modern ways of financial management, banking and investment opportunities in order to make their remittances and savings rewarding.

136. Donors should provide financial support to non-governmental organizations involved in providing direct counselling to female migrants from rural areas.

137. In view of increased trafficking in women and children, Governments, international organizations and national and international law enforcement agencies should provide effective protection of rural women migrants and their children and protect their rights.

E. Further research and policy formulation

138. Governments, international organizations, including the UN system and research institutes should undertake analysis of the impact of 'globalization' on the rural population from a gender perspective. The data and information should be disaggregated by region and sex and made context-specific in order to reflect rural women's work including in the informal sector. It should be followed by further empirical research and case studies in various economic and socio-cultural contexts, in order to assess the challenges to and opportunities for rural women.

139. Governments and international organizations including the UN system should intensify their efforts to reflect women's unpaid work in rural households in national statistics and in policy formulation, implementation, and monitoring.

140. The consequences of the phyto sanitary regulations and subsidies to agriculture, as applied by some countries, should be analysed by Governments, international organizations and research institutes to illustrate their impact on agriculture in developing countries and rural women in particular.

141. The changing nature of households and gender relations in rural areas within the current global context should be studied by research institutes in order to enable Governments and international organizations to adjust policies and programmes to respond to rural women's needs.

142. Further comparative long-term research should be conducted by IMO, national and international research institutes to document the diversified patterns of migration and their impact on gender relations and gender identities throughout the migration cycle.

143. Special studies should be undertaken by Governments, research institutes and the private sector to establish the best model for integrating rural women in the ICT field.

Soha Abdel Kader
Associate professor, freelance consultant,
American University in Cairo
1143 Corniche El Nil St.
Maspero Apt. 81
Cairo, Egypt
Tel: (202) 578-9330/ 5793502
Mobile: 012-2170-369
Fax: (202) 571-2867
E-mail: skader@gega.net

Nazneen Kanji
Senior Research Associate
International Institute for Environment and
Development
3 Endsleigh St.
London WC1H 0DD
United Kingdom
Tel: +44 (0)20 7388 2117
Direct line: +44 (0) 20 7872 7212
Fax: +44 (0) 20 7388 2826
E-mail: nazneen.kanji@iied.org

Susana Lastarria-Cornhiel
Senior Researcher, Sociologist
Land Tenure Center, University of Wisconsin
Land Tenure Center
University of Wisconsin
1357 University Avenue
Madison, WI
U. S. A. 53715
Tel: +1-608-262-0097
Fax: +1-608-262-

Tel: 976-11-322998
Fax: 976-11-310011
E-mail: ganchimegd@prime.pmis.gov.mn

D. Oyunchimeg

Director, Division of Social Statistics, National
Statistics Office
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

N. Mendbileg
Governor, Tuv province
Mongolia

N. Ayush
Director, Strategic Planning Department,
Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare
United Nations Street # 5,
Ulaanbaatar 210646, Mongolia

D. Munkhgerel
Director, Department of Information,
Monitoring
and Evaluation, Ministry of Justice and Interior
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

N. Sarantuya
Director, Department Strategic Management
and Planning, Ministry of Nature and the
Environment
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

B. Damdinsuren
Director, Department of Primary and
Secondary Education Policy Coordination,
Ministry of Culture, Education and Science
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

S. Onon
Director, PAPO
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

D. Ganchimeg
Senior Officer, Cabinet Secretariat
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

S. Regsen
Officer, Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia
Tel: 976-11-321953

CH. Puntsgasuren
Head of Policy Planning Division, Department
of Strategic Policy and Planning, Ministry of
Food and Agriculture
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

E. Erdenechimeg
Head of Division, Ministry of Health
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

A. Batjargal
Deputy Director, Department of Economics,
Monitoring and Evaluation, Ministry of Culture,
Education and Science
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

D. Tsedenbal
Senior Officer, Ministry of Finance and
Economy
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

N. Togtokhnyam
National Committee for Children
Association of Mongolian Democratic Women
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

Flavia Lazzeri
Logistic Officer
SDR Swiss Disaster Relief Unit
Federal Department of Foreign Ministry
Freiburgstr. 130, CH-3003 Bern
Tel. 031-322-3124
Fax: 031-324-1694
E-mail: skh@deza.admin.ch

Parliamentarians

B. Dolgor
Member of Parliament
Head, Group of Women Parliamentarians
Parliament House
Sukhbaatar sq # 1
Ulaanbaatar 210612, Mongolia

N. Gerelsuren
Member of Parliament
Head, Group of Women Parliamentarians
Parliament House
Sukhbaatar sq # 1
Ulaanbaatar 210612, Mongolia

N. Bolormaa
Member of Parliament
Head, Group of Women Parliamentarians
Parliament House
Sukhbaatar sq # 1
Ulaanbaatar 210612, Mongolia

Private Sector

J. Peter Morrow

E-mail: monwofed@magicnet.mn

Ch. Otgonbayar
President, Foundation for the Endowment of
Rural Women
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

J. Altantsesteg
Chairman, National Center against Violence
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia
Fax: 976-11-318087

T. Amgalan
Deputy Director,
Gender Center for Sustainable
Development
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

B. Bayarmaa
Executive Director,
Mongolian Democratic Women's Association
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

J. Zanaa
Director,
National CEDAW Watch Network Center,
International Trade Center,
Baga toiruu # 37 B, Sukhbaatar District,
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia
Tel/Fax: 976-11-328798
E-mail: mmsa@magicnet.mn

D. Sergelen
Chairman, Association for Motherland, Family
and Women
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

D. Burmaa
Chairman, Women for Social Progress
Movement
Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

B. Bayasgalan
Chairman, Liberal Women's Bgalan

Host country

B. Shatar
Deputy Chairperson of the Cabinet Secretariat,
Government of Mongolia
Government House
Ulaanbaatar 210646
Mongolia

B. Ganbold
State Secretary,
Enkh Taivny Str # 7A
Ulaanbaatar 210611
Mongolia

O. Enkhstesteg
Director, Department of Multilateral
Cooperation, Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Enkh Taivny Str # 7A
Ulaanbaatar 210611
Mongolia
Tel: 976-11-311311
Fax: 976-11-322127
Email: mongmer@magicnet.mn

T.S. Nyamsuren
First Secretary
Department of Multilateral Cooperation
Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Enkh Taivny Str # 7A
Ulaanbaatar 210611
Mongolia
Tel: 976-11-311311
Fax: 976-11-322127
Email: mongmer@magicnet.mn

N. Shurkhuu
First Secretary
Department of Europe, Middle East and Africa
Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Enkh Taivny Str # 7A
Ulaanbaatar 210611
Mongolia
Tel: 976-11-311311 ext: 234
Fax: 976-11-322127
Email: shurkhuun@hotmail.com

G. Battungalag
Attache
Department of Multilateral Cooperation
Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Enkh Taivny Str # 7A
Ulaanbaatar 210611
Mongolia
Tel: 976-11-311311
Fax: 976-11-322127
Email: mongmer@magicnet.mn

V.Oyu

ANNEX II

LIST OF DOCUMENTS

A. PAPERS BY EXPERTS

EGM/RW/2001/EP.1 *Impact of HIV/AIDS Pandemic on the situation of rural women in Mongolia*
Prepared by Khorloo Enkhjargal, MD, PhD, Executive Director,
National AIDS Foundation, (Mongolia)

EGM/RW/2001/EP.2 *Changes in patterns of livelihoods, including, employment opportunities and conditions of work*
Prepared by S.R. Osmani, Professor, School of Public Policy,
Economics and Law University of Ulster at Jordanstown
(United Kingdom)

EGM/RW/2001/EP.3 *Earning a living: globalization, gender and rural livelihoods*
Prepared by Jeanne Frances I. Illo, Institute of Philippine Culture
Ateneo de Manila University (Philippines)

Prepared by Xin Meng, Fellow, Department of Economics,
Research School of Pacific/Asian Studies, Australian National
University (Australia)

EGM/RW/2001/EP.10
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*Rural women in a global village measures and policies to
participation of rural women in decision-making in the
household and the community within the context of globalization*
Prepared by Sandra Botha (South Africa)

EGM/RW/2001/EP.11

Rural women as equal partners in the development in Europe
Prepared by Utah Hoffmann-Altmann, Coordinator, Humboldt
University (Berlin)

EGM/RW/2001/EP.12

*Capacity or opportunity: women's role in decision-making in
household and the community case studies in China*
Prepared by L. Zhibin, College of Rural Development, China
Agricultural University (China)

B. PAPERS BY OBSERVERS

ANNEX III

PROGRAMME OF WORK

Monday, 4 June 2001

8.30 am - 9.30 am	Registration
9.30 am - 10.30 am	Official opening of the meeting Statements by: Representatives from the host country Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Mongolia Mr. B. Ganbold, State Secretary United Nations Development Fund for Women Ms. Lanyan Chen Division for the Advancement of Women Ms. Yakin Erürk, Director
10.30 am - 11.00 am	Coffee break
11.00 am - 11.15 pm	Election of Officers: Adoption of programme of work
11.15 pm - 1.00 pm	Presentations on the topic 1: "Impact of major trends of globalization on women in rural areas: comparative analysis of challenges and opportunities" Presentation by the World Bank (7-10 min.) Ms. Eija Peju Presentation by the FAO Regional Officer (7-10 min.) Ms. Revathi Balakrishnan Presentation of a background paper by the consultant (20-30 min) Ms. M. Marchand General Debate:
1.00 pm - 2.30 pm	Lunch
2.30 pm - 4.00 pm	Presentations on topic 2: "Changes in patterns of livelihoods, including, employment opportunities and conditions of work " (each presentation 7-10 min.). Ms. Khorloo Enkhjargal Mr. S.Osmani Ms. J.Ilo

	Debate
4.00 pm - 4.30 pm	Coffee break
4.30 pm - 6.00 pm	Topic 3: Changing patterns of household division of labour. (each presentation 7-10 min.). <i>Ms. S. Kader</i> <i>Ms. S. Lastarria-Cornhiel</i> <i>Ms. N. Kanji</i>
	Debate
7.30 pm	Reception/Dinner

Tuesday, 5 June 2001

9.00 am -11.00 am	Working groups: general discussion. Working group I on topic 2: "Changes in patterns of livelihoods, including, employment opportunities and conditions of work " Working group II on topic 3: "Changing patterns of household division of labour" <i>* Each working group will receive the summary of general debate on the issue of the discussion prepared by rapporteur.</i>
11.00am - 11.30 am	Coffee break
11.30 am - 1.00 am	Discussion on policy recommendations for the report. Working group I: "Changes in patterns of livelihoods, including, employment opportunities and conditions of work ". Working group II: "Changing patterns of household division of labor".
1.00 pm - 2.30 pm	Lunch
2.30 pm - 4.00 pm	Presentations of reports from the working group I and II on topic 2 and 3.
4.00 pm - 4.30 pm	Coffee break
4.30 pm - 6.00 pm	Topic 4. "Impact of labour mobility and labour migration on gender relations and division of labour". (Each presentation 7-10 min.). <i>Ms.B. Shatar</i> <i>Ms. A. Iken</i> <i>Ms. P. Bonfil Sanchez</i> <i>Ms. X. Meng</i>
	Debate.

Wednesday, 6 June 2001

9.00 am - 10.30 am Topic 5: "Women's role in decision-making in the household and the community: capacity building" (each presentation 7-10 min.).
Ms. S. Botha
Ms. U. Hoffmann-Altmann
Ms. L. Zhibin
Mr. S. Badral

Debate

10.30 am- 11.00 am Coffee break

11.30 am - 1.00 pm Working groups: general discussion.
Working group I on topic 4: "Impact of labour mobility and labour migration on gender relations and division of labour".
Working group II on topic 5: "Women's role in decision-making in the household and the community: capacity building".
** Each working group will receive the summary of general debate on the issue of the discussion prepared by rapporteur.*

1.00 pm - 2.30 pm Lunch

2.30 pm - 4.00 pm Discussion on policy recommendations for the report.
Working group I: "Impact of labour mobility and labour migration on gender relations and division of labour".
Working group II: "Women's role in decision-making in the household and the community: capacity building".

4.00 pm - 4.30 pm Coffee break

4.30 pm - 5.30 pm Presentation of reports from the working group I and II on topic 4 and 5.

5.30 pm - 6.30 pm Overall discussion on all reports presented by working group I and II.

- 4.30 Lunch

-4.30

