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# Gender Equality & Trade Policy

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## I. Introduction

The purpose of this Resource Paper\* is to present the collective views of the UN system on the links between gender equality and trade policy. The Paper provides a summary overview of key questions, concerns and policy recommendations while providing reference to related UN resolutions, UN official documentation, publications and websites.

The Resource Paper is organized as follows: Section II briefly reviews the evolution of the international debate on globalization, trade liberalization and their impacts on equitable development, in the context of the United Nations Development agenda as the overarching framework for development. Section III dwells upon the relevance of integrating - or mainstreaming - gender perspectives in trade policy and discusses the implications of women's economic empowerment on trade and economic growth. Sections IV analyzes, through a gender lens, some commonly observed impacts of international trade on labour markets and small businesses. Section V addresses the potential of labour mobility as a tool for women's empowerment in the context of international migration and international trade in services. Section VI further explains the interrelationships between trade policy and gender equality in agriculture. Section VII reflects upon the impact of the financial and economic crisis on women and presents data and examples of policies implemented by governments to address it. Section VIII reviews good practices in incorporating gender considerations in trade policy and trade agreements. Finally, Section IX presents a non-exhaustive list of actions undertaken by the UN system to support the process of making trade policy more responsive to the specific needs of women and instrumental to gender equality and women's empowerment. The Annex includes UN Resolutions, UN official documents, publications and websites on the issues addressed in the Resource Paper.

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## II. Gender Equality in the Context of Globalization, Trade Liberalization and the UN Development Agenda

Over the last two decades, trade policy in most countries has been geared towards trade liberalization and market opening. Under the precepts of the Washington Consensus prevailing in the 1990s, the assumption was that free trade, combined with liberalization of investments, a deregulation of the private sector and financial systems along with the privatization of public-owned enterprises and services would facilitate the process of sustained economic growth and the development of productive capacities.<sup>1</sup> In turn, higher levels of growth and productivity would expand employment opportunities and sustain livelihoods for all, men and women, giving them the same chances of benefiting from macro-economic policies. Trade policy, along with other macro-economic policies, was however perceived as being "gender neutral".

With the adoption of the Millennium Declaration in 2000, the discourse in international development has shifted emphasis<sup>2</sup> to the set of multilaterally agreed international development goals - the United Nations Development Agenda<sup>3</sup> – as an over-arching framework for development, of which the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are a core part. With regards to trade, in 2001, the Doha Round of multilateral trade negotiations was launched with a strong emphasis on development, which contributed to put under scrutiny the view that trade liberalization automatically led to economic growth and development for all.

Subsequently, at the International Conference on Financing for Development (Monterrey, 2002) and the Review Conference in Doha (2009), landmark global agreements were reached between developed and developing countries on actions to be taken in domestic resource mobilization, private resource flows, Official Development Assistance (ODA), trade, debt and governance of the global economic system. They contributed to a common understanding that the benefits of trade for growth, employment and sustainable development depend to a large extent on the capacity of a country to upgrade and diversify its domestic productive capacities and the productivity of its labor force. UNCTAD defines productive capacity as "the productive resources, entrepreneurial capabilities and production linkages which together determine the capacity of a country to produce goods and services and enable it to grow and develop".<sup>4 5</sup>

### Gender Equality and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

Within the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), MDG 1 - "Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger" - includes a gender-specific target, namely "Achieve, full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people" (Target 1.B). Target 1.B was included in 2005 in recognition that employment and decent work are legitimate goals in their own right and may not be achieved automatically as a result of economic growth. Decent work comprises four interrelated and mutually supportive pillars: employment, rights at work, social protection and social dialogue.

MDG 3 - "Promote gender equality and empower women" - does not make an explicit reference to trade but includes a specific reference to women's economic empowerment. Under MDG3, the indicator on the share of women in wage employment in non-agricultural sectors assesses the extent to which women are integrated in the economy through remunerated employment in the formal sector. Wage employment is linked to trade since women's integration into formal labour markets is often the result of job creation due to trade expansion. The other indicator within MDG 3 that refers to eliminating gender disparity at all levels of education is also indirectly linked to trade. Women who are more educated are in a better position to benefit from globalization and trade liberalization by having the skills sought by integrated markets. They are also in a better position to contribute to the economic growth of their countries.

MDG 8 - "Develop a global partnership for development" – promotes cooperation on development assistance and debt sustainability and the further development of trade and financial systems. Under MDG 8, the indicators that refer to ensuring market access for developing and least developed countries, especially for agricultural products, textiles and clothing, have an indirect gender component since women represent a high share of the workforce in those sectors.<sup>6</sup> Another indicator of MDG 8 "Access to essential drugs" affects women's access to health and greatly depends on trade arrangements and issues of intellectual property rights. Similarly, the MDG 8 indicator related to universal access to new information and communication technologies contains both gender-related and trade-related dimensions.

### III. Gender Perspectives in Trade Policy

- *The impact of trade policy on women's economic empowerment and well-being*

The effect of trade policy on economic and social activities tend to be different between men and women as they have different economic and social roles and different access to and control over resources, due to socio-cultural, political and economic factors. Women tend to be more affected by the negative side-effects of trade liberalization and are facing bigger challenges than men when it comes to taking advantage of the opportunities trade offers. This situation is due to gender biases in education and training, gender inequalities in the distribution of income and command over resources, as well as unequal access to productive inputs such as credit, land, and technology, which translate into significant gender differences in occupational distribution.<sup>7</sup>

Pre-existing gender imbalances at the macro, meso and micro levels determine the differential impact of trade on women and men, girls and boys. Such impacts can be best considered at the following levels of analysis: (a) the sector level, in which trade can augment or reduce employment and income opportunities for women, depending on whether the sectors where women work, expand or contract as a result of trade liberalization and import competition (see section IV below); (b) the governmental level, where fiscal revenues and public expenditures - modified by trade liberalization in accordance to the relative importance of tariff revenues in government financing - have an impact on public investments in social infrastructure and services that particularly benefit women, such as health, education, electricity, water, sanitation and other infrastructure to meet household needs; and (c) the household level, where expenditures may decrease or expand according to the effects of trade on consumer goods prices.<sup>8</sup>

For example, trade liberalization may benefit poor consumers, including women in their role as family providers and caregivers, if price reductions (through the dismantling or the reduction of tariffs) affect imported products that represent a relevant part of the household consumption basket.<sup>9</sup> On the other hand, trade liberalization can disrupt economic sectors and markets where women are active, depriving them of employment opportunities and pushing them towards the informal sector. Trade liberalization increases international competition. While this may bring more opportunities for individuals and firms, it also implies the need to grow and upgrade technologically, which may be particularly challenging for women employees and women-run enterprises with limited access to marketing networks, credit and technical knowledge.<sup>10</sup> Trade-related changes in employment, taxation, public provision and consumption may in turn have important consequences for the gender-related distribution of paid and unpaid work among household members, including children.<sup>11</sup>

- *The impact of gender inequalities on trade performance and economic growth*

While men and women are affected differently by trade policies, gender inequalities, in turn, impact on trade policy outcomes and economic growth.

One fundamental way in which gender equality can have a sustained positive impact on economic growth is through greater accumulation of human capital of women and girls –a crucial factor for the development of national productive capacity. Recent evidence on the links between girls' improved education and economic growth has shown that enhanced gender equality increases the level of investments in a country. A more productive workforce, through greater gender equality in employment and education, increases the rates of return on investments and attracts more investors. In addition, the cases in which girls' education had the greatest impact on growth were in areas where (i) employment opportunities were readily available for women; (ii) countries had a sizeable export-focused manufacturing sector; and (iii) their economies had already reached the middle-income status.<sup>12</sup>

Although equality in education and employment opportunities have a positive impact on a country's long-term growth, these benefits may be negated by the industrial strategies of a number of semi-industrialized countries that have focused their export strategy on labour-intensive goods produced by predominantly cheap female workforces, taking advantage of gender wage inequalities. While such a strategy stimulated profits, investment and exports in the short run, it is counter-productive on the longer run.<sup>13</sup>

There is conclusive evidence that economic development and social equality tend to go together.<sup>14</sup> Studies on the determinants of economic growth suggest that societies where income inequality and gender discrimination are lower tend to grow faster.<sup>15</sup> There seems to be a strong correlation between gender equality (measured by economic participation, education, health and political empowerment), competitiveness and GDP per capita.<sup>16</sup>

- ***Gender-responsive trade policies***

Recent experiences in trade liberalization and their impacts on gender equality thus make a strong case for the need to incorporate gender perspectives into overall trade policy design and implementation. Incorporating (mainstreaming) gender considerations in trade policy means assessing the impacts of such policy on the wellbeing of men and women, evaluating how trade policies affect gender relations, for example by widening or closing the gender wage gap, and formulating and implementing trade policy in a gender-sensitive manner. This is done with a view to: (i) better understanding the specific challenges and opportunities that women and men face from trade policy; (ii) designing and implementing trade and other macro-economic policies to maximize opportunities for all; (iii) facilitating the successful integration of women into more technologically advanced and dynamic sectors of the economy; (iv) avoiding the increase of gender disparities and mitigating the existing; and (v) facilitating women's empowerment and well-being.<sup>17</sup>

Different policy measures in trade and other areas of economics provide specific entry points to mainstream gender issues in international trade. Specific instruments include: (a) trade liberalization agreements; (b) unilateral liberalization – for example, unilateral reduction of tariffs on intermediate inputs in productive sectors with high female employment; (c) tax incentives - for example to encourage exports from women-owned enterprises;<sup>18</sup> (d) multilateral development assistance frameworks, such as Aid for Trade (AFT), the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF), and the Enhanced Integrated Framework (EIF) for the Least Developed Countries (LDCs) (see section VIII).

As trade policies interact and are mutually affected by many other domestic policies and international factors, there is a need for overall coherence in order to achieve development goals. For this to happen, several coordinated and gender-sensitive policies are needed in areas such as fiscal policies, education, labor, training, innovation, financing, to mention a few.

## IV. Effects of Trade on Gender Equality in Labour Markets and Small-scale Enterprises

The effects of trade on labour markets vary according to each country's specific growth patterns and strategies, their level of exposure to international trade and their relative capacity to adapt their national industries and productive sectors to international competition. National labour markets can only reap the full benefits from trade liberalization when the country's economic and social sectors are able to adapt to emerging patterns brought forward by international trade competition.

Evidence shows that international trade tends to increase the availability of formal but mostly low-skilled, labour-intensive and low value-added jobs in developing countries, with most of these jobs having been filled by women in recent decades.<sup>19</sup> Women workers have been particularly sought by the export-oriented industry because women workers are generally less unionized; consequently, they have lower bargaining power over their wages and working conditions, and often work in substandard labour conditions.<sup>20</sup> Export Processing Zones (EPZ) that have contributed to the export success of many developing countries in East and South East Asia and Central America since the late 1960s have largely employed female workforce. A large number of women have benefited from new employment opportunities.<sup>21</sup>

However, the significant increase in women's paid employment that is observed with trade expansion is not matched by an equal reduction in poverty, especially in women-headed households.<sup>22</sup> In many cases, in their efforts to increase competitiveness, export-oriented industries have focused on employing women workers by taking advantage of existing gender inequalities in women's access to economic and labour rights. EPZ are often exempted from following the national provisions of labour legislation, leading to working conditions that exploit the desperate needs of many women and men for some forms of job.<sup>23</sup>

And the positive impacts of trade on women's employment participation may not be sustained. Shifts to higher-skilled or capital-intensive forms of production, along with firm mobility, may jeopardize employment opportunities for women in export-oriented industries.<sup>24</sup> Rapid industrialization and the reorientation of export industries towards higher value-added, which requires higher-skilled and mobile labour, can exacerbate gender-based occupational segregation, leaving behind women in low-skilled and low-paid jobs, and leading to the relocation of jobs from the formal to the informal economy. For example, South-East Asia faced a severe "defeminisation" of its manufacturing labour force in the last two decades as the industry was upgrading, in contrast to the high-levels of female participation in the sector in the 1980s.<sup>25</sup>

### • *Trends in women's employment*

Recent international trends have shown that women's share of labor force participation has increased, but that women are still concentrated in labour markets and sectors that leave them in vulnerable employment with poor employment conditions and little or no social protection. They also face persistent occupational segregation (see Text Box 2) and gender discrimination in wages.<sup>26</sup> In Africa and South Asia, large employment differences remain between men and women, with women's employment being largely relegated to unpaid and vulnerable activities.<sup>27</sup>

#### **In Which Sectors Do Women Work?**

Out of the three billion people who were employed around the world in 2008, 1.2 billion were women (40.4 percent). Only a small proportion of employed women were working in industry (16.1 percent in 2008, as compared to 26.4 percent of men); while the large majority were devoted to agriculture (37.1 percent, as compared to 33.1 percent for men) and, increasingly, in the services sector (46.9 percent, as compared to 40.4 percent of male employment). At the regional level, however, the picture is different. In Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, for example, the agricultural sector makes up for more than 60 percent of all female employment.

Source: ILO (2009), *Global employment trends for women, 2009*, p.10, and ILO (2010), *Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges*, p. 38.

- ***Barriers to women's seizing employment opportunities related to trade***

To reap the full benefit from trade liberalization, economic actors must adapt - i.e. move from declining (import-competing) sectors to expanding (export) sectors. In this regard, women are relatively disadvantaged, as they tend to face more constraints than men in labour mobility, owing to structural segregations of labour markets that are deeply rooted in discriminatory social and cultural norms.

Important structural barriers are preventing women to benefit from trade-orientation; these include: women and girls' limited access to education and skills, including in cutting-edge educational fields; *de jure* and *de facto* discrimination against women in the control over economic and financial resources, productive assets and access to financial services; and women's limited access to new technologies for production, training, information and marketing.<sup>28</sup>

Moreover, because of gender stereotypes, women are assumed to be better suited for certain types of work (for example, attitudes about women's better suitability for picking and packing products, in the horticultural sector, or for sewing, in the garment sector; or women's suitability for repetitive and manual work). Occupational segregation leaves women in lower-paying positions and provides them with limited upward mobility.<sup>29</sup> Indeed, a number of studies suggest the precarious nature of women's jobs in the manufacturing sector, with frequent spells of unemployment and a reduced ability to negotiate wages and working conditions.<sup>30</sup> This makes the development of specific skills more difficult and therefore tends to make women generally remain as low-wage earners in the pool of unskilled workers.

All this is coupled with the erroneous perception that women's income is supplementary rather than central to households' wellbeing. Gender stereotypes perpetuated through social norms assign women to unpaid social reproduction roles and functions, such as primary caregivers in the family and as those responsible for household chores, leaving women with very little time to improve their skills or seek new work opportunities. Because society places a low value on unpaid work and caring for others, such work remains at the core of gender discrimination. This "time poverty" contributes to perpetuating lower skill and educational levels for women and often limits their scope of employment to the informal economy, where paid and unpaid work can be more easily combined.<sup>31</sup>

- ***Ensuring that trade policy promotes women workers' interests***

There are several ways of ensuring that workers in general – and women in particular – fully benefit from the employment opportunities arising from trade integration. The first is to ensure that the labour force, especially women, acquire the skills sought by expanding sectors. The upgrading of workers skills, especially in non-traditional occupations and higher technologies, would allow them to climb up the ladder of value chains in manufacturing and services. This can be achieved through appropriate education policies and expanded access to technical training.<sup>32</sup>

The second is to eliminate the exploitation of workers and protect their labour rights through fully enforcing national legislation on labour standards and promoting decent working conditions. Any measure improving workers' skills, employment stability, working conditions, unemployment insurance and workers' benefits – such as paid leave, including parental leave, and health care – is likely to greatly benefit women workers, especially those in the most precarious conditions.<sup>33</sup>

Third, if women are to play a greater role in the global economy, then household responsibilities need to be more equally shared between women and men. Given women's asymmetrical responsibilities for unpaid activities, supportive social and labour policies are needed to facilitate a balance between their paid and unpaid work. Such policies should include more affordable and accessible childcare services, transportation and ICTs, to access services and market opportunities.<sup>34</sup>

Trade policy should thus consider how it can enable women to become key actors in those sectors of the economy that benefit most from trade; it should provide development pathways for women into more technologically advanced and dynamic sectors of the economy; and account for the likely effects of widening or closing the gender wage gap and reducing women's time poverty.

- ***Women in small-scale enterprises affected by trade***

Trade policies have a significant impact on the viability of micro and small enterprises and thus affect the large number of women who own or work in these businesses. International experience suggests that an efficient Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SMEs) sector is conducive to rapid industrial growth and a flexible industrial structure. SMEs help economies stay resilient in times of economic crisis.<sup>35</sup> While trade integration may offer opportunities for such enterprises to grow, it also exposes them to international competition. Small and micro enterprises generally operate in protected markets and a swift increase in foreign competition forces them to grow and upgrade technologically.<sup>36</sup> Technological learning and upgrading is one of the processes that firms must go through in order to become more competitive, but this requires time and adaptation which cannot be achieved abruptly.

The necessary adaptation of enterprises to international competition tends to disproportionately affect women-owned or operated enterprises. Women entrepreneurs in developing countries often have less access to marketing networks, capital, credit and technical knowledge, all of which are essential to improving production competitiveness. In this regard, policies aimed specifically at facilitating access to credit for small enterprises, organizing exporter associations and providing technical training on the compliance requirements of the export markets are likely to smooth the transition of small and micro enterprises to an open market environment.<sup>37</sup> Support should also be provided to women entrepreneurs to improve their business management skills.

- ***Women in Informal Cross-border Trade***

A rather underestimated phenomenon within international trade is informal cross-border trade. This activity involves a large percentage of women. According to UNECA, informal trade (including cross-border trade, domestic trade and re-export) is the main source of job creation in Africa, providing between 20 and 75 percent of total employment in most countries, with the exception of South Africa.<sup>38</sup> In the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) region, informal cross-border trade contributes around 30 to 40 percent of intra-SADC trade, with a value of US\$ 17.6 billion per year. More importantly, 70 percent of informal cross border traders are women.<sup>39</sup>

Traditionally, women cross-border traders were engaged in the sale of unprocessed and processed food (e.g., fish, salt and foodstuffs). Originally confined to jobs such as food selling and shop-assistants in businesses at border crossings, they are now involved in cross-border trading of a wide range of goods and services, creating informal distribution networks and credit systems that sustain livelihoods. Cross-border trading has resulted in new trans-national networks supported by common languages, culture and kinship.<sup>40</sup>

Informal traders sustain their family livelihoods and contribute to their country's economy. Recently, they have cushioned the effects of the financial and the food crises. Women traders have been instrumental in establishing food distribution systems, which have protected food security, often without any support from the state for short-term credit, storage and travel assistance. Overall, informal traders, especially women, suffer from invisibility, stigmatization, violence, harassment - including sexual harassment - undue taxation, poor working conditions, inadequate communications, transport and funding (with little or non-existent access to credit as banks are inaccessible to operators who lack collateral or licenses) and a lack of recognition of their economic contribution.<sup>41</sup>

Any policy aimed at improving informal traders' activities should include a formalization component that takes into account the scale of their activities and the standard of living of women traders. Measures such as access to credit, social safety nets –such as health insurance-, transport, foreign currency exchange, infrastructure for storage of goods, refrigeration of agricultural commodities and transport facilities, as well as access to health care, water and sanitation facilities and security services, and training of customs and police officers about women's rights, would greatly improve informal traders' activity and enhance their contribution to wealth creation and poverty reduction.<sup>42</sup>

## V. Labour Mobility and Gender Equality: Migration and Trade in Services

- *Recent trends in the migration of women*

In the last decades, the accelerated pace of economic integration brought forward by globalization has influenced both the number and profiles of women migrants around the world. According to United Nations data, in 2009 there were 213 million international migrants worldwide, corresponding to 3.1 per cent of the global population.<sup>43</sup> Half of the international stock of migrants is women. The migration of women is gradually shifting from a family reunification trend to a more economically motivated strategy, in which more and more women migrate autonomously to work abroad.<sup>44</sup> The expansion of free-trade areas around the world has reinforced this pattern of female mobility and generated new challenges and opportunities for women around the globe.

The participation of women in migration flows depends greatly on their social roles, their autonomy, their access to resources, and the existing gender stratification of the labour market in a given country. Therefore, women face much harder burdens in migrating as well as in finding employment, compared to both men migrants and native women. They face the “double disadvantage” of being immigrants and female.<sup>45</sup> Low-skilled or unskilled migrant women tend to find jobs in a limited number of occupations in the service sector, often shunned by national workers, with gender-associated roles such as cleaning and catering services, entertainment and care-giving. Relatively few women migrant workers are found in the agricultural sector, while there are many migrant workers in the textiles and garment industry.<sup>46</sup> The marginalization of unskilled migrant women is often reflected in low-status jobs, low earnings, poor working conditions, lack of union representation and insecure contracts, often coupled with a precarious legal status. Skilled migrant women often go into welfare and social professions, including education and health care.<sup>47</sup> One important and emerging area of concern is the greater vulnerability of women migrants to HIV-AIDS infections, which has been already noted in sub-Saharan Africa.<sup>48</sup> Despite growing evidence about the gender-specific aspects of migration, most migration policies are not gender-responsive in either the sending or receiving countries.

In the context of intensified mobility patterns and women's migration, clandestine channels of migration are a major cause of concern. Irregular migration often takes place through human trafficking and smuggling networks, posing further risks for women as it also involves exploitation, violence, coercion and abuse of power. Human trafficking happens more often to women than men due to existing gender inequalities.<sup>49</sup>

Migration influences gender relations, either entrenching inequalities and traditional roles, or challenging and changing them.<sup>50, 51</sup> This happens both when women migrate and men migrants leave their spouses behind.



- **Globalization, remittances and new challenges for women migrants**

An important positive contribution of female migration to developing countries is the money they earn and send back home. At the global level, female migrants send approximately the same amount of remittances as male migrants; however women tend to send a higher proportion of their income, even though they generally earn less than men. Migration also affects women who stay behind, as women play a central role as recipients and managers of remittances.<sup>52</sup> Remittances are an important source of income for developing countries.<sup>53</sup> formal and informal remittances are estimated to be three times the size of official development assistance.<sup>54</sup>

While remittances can contribute to changing gender relations – winning respect for women who remit and providing more resources to women who receive remittances<sup>55</sup> - they are also part of the so-called Global Care Chain, where migrant women from poor countries fill the gaps in care activities in richer countries in order to send money to other women left behind in the country of origin who take care of their family members, often through unpaid family labour.<sup>56</sup>

While women who are willing to migrate in search of better economic and social conditions should not be refrained from doing so, there is a need for more coherence between trade, development and migration policies in both sending and receiving countries. To avoid jeopardizing their growth potential<sup>57</sup>, sending countries should create overall conditions that make it appealing for women, especially qualified women, to stay or to come back home after a period spent abroad. Receiving countries, on the other hand, need to offer decent work and living conditions to migrants and mitigate the effects of "brain-drain" by providing training and capacity-building in the countries of origin.<sup>58</sup> Facilitating remittance transfers, minimizing transfer costs, improving the financial literacy of migrants and their families, and diversifying the supply of financial services are all policy measures that would benefit women migrant workers and their families. On the other hand, practices such as banks requiring approval from a male family member before allowing women to open bank accounts, to obtain credit or to transmit remittances, should be reconsidered. Women's financial autonomy and literacy are preconditions for achieving economic efficiency and equal social status.<sup>59</sup>

- **Gender implications of liberalization of trade in services**

Integrating into the global services economy is becoming crucial for the development prospects of many developing countries. Services play a central role in economic activity in virtually all countries of the world.<sup>60</sup> Trade in services is a very dynamic sector in the global economy. World exports of commercial services<sup>61</sup> amounted to US\$ 3,350 billion in 2009, after growing on average at around 7.9 per cent per year in value terms since 1980. In 2009, the share of services in world trade reached 21 per cent.<sup>62</sup> Whereas ten years ago agriculture was the main employer of women globally, the services sector is now the first provider of jobs to women: 46.9 per cent in 2008, as compared to 40.4 per cent of male employment.<sup>63</sup> In many developing countries, the more traditional, non-tradable, low-productivity services with reduced capital accumulation potential - such as small retail trade, restaurants, and personal services - are the ones accounting for the increasing share of services in GDP and in total employment, especially of women.

Nevertheless, some concerns and questions regarding the effects of liberalizing trade in services have been raised, *inter alia*, on the following issues: (i) the possible impact of liberalization on access to essential services, especially for the least favoured segments of the population, including women; (ii) the extent to which liberalization can affect national non-economic policy objectives in areas such as education, health and culture; (iii) the magnitude of short-term adjustment costs and the availability of ways and means to address them. These costs arise from import penetration - both in the services sector as well as in manufacturing – which can generate unemployment and underutilization of factors of production in declining sectors where women may be employed, while new competitive activities may expand only gradually and not provide immediate employment opportunities, especially for women.<sup>64</sup>

The World Trade Organization (WTO) General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) divides trade in services into four “modes” or categories of supply<sup>65</sup>; among them, GATS Mode 4 encompasses the temporary movement of people as services suppliers. There has been however comparatively less progress in liberalizing GATS Mode 4 compared with other forms of trade in services. Temporary labour mobility offers enormous potential for women’s participation but, until now, the services that have been liberalized in the GATS through Mode 4 are mainly reserved for highly qualified professionals and senior business categories. Most women service providers do not fall within these groups.

Trade negotiators from developed countries often argue that GATS Mode 4 is unworkable, particularly for semi-skilled and unskilled service providers, if countries of origin cannot guarantee the return of their service providers working abroad and therefore ensure that their stay in a foreign country is indeed temporary. Failure to return to one’s country of origin makes GATS Mode 4 a migration issue rather than a trade issue, and hence a highly politically sensitive one. However, experience from some bilateral agreements between developed and developing countries shows that measures can be put in place to ensure that workers’ stay abroad is temporary. Negative incentives - including monitoring systems and penalties for overstay abroad - and positive incentives - such as investment and training schemes that enable workers to re-integrate their home countries after the duration of their contract in a foreign country - have been utilized to ensure that services providers return home after the end of their contract abroad.<sup>66</sup> Some of these measures could be incorporated in the GATS commitments on Mode 4.

Lack of recognition of their professional and academic qualifications remains a major obstacle for developing country women willing to provide their services abroad through Mode 4. The GATS allows Member States to deviate from the Most Favoured Nation (MFN) requirement and to set up bilateral or plurilateral Mutual Recognition Agreements (MRAs) of academic and professional qualifications. Professions where many women are employed, for instance health care or social work, fall in most countries into the category of “accredited” or “regulated” professions<sup>67</sup> where mutual recognition of qualifications is of particular relevance. At present, however, developing country participation in MRAs is limited to a small number of countries.<sup>68</sup>

In order to increase women’s participation and benefits from international trade in services through GATS Mode 4, it is necessary to enhance multilateral dialogue and share good practices on the enforcement of the conditions of service under this modality. Measures that can further facilitate the international temporary movement of service traders are as follows: (a) simplifying the granting of visas, work permits and licensing requirements; (b) enhancing temporary movement of lower-skilled workers; (c) eliminating or reducing economic needs tests<sup>69</sup> and making them more transparent and predictable; and (d) facilitating recognition of professional qualifications, including work-based qualifications.<sup>70</sup> Moreover, since countries are unlikely to make wide-ranging commitments on lower-skilled workers under GATS –a category in which many women fall- clearly specifying which categories of workers, which sectors and which kind of employments are covered would facilitate the scheduling of commitments under the Mode 4.

Ensuring wage parity between lower-skilled domestic and foreign workers would make the granting of market access much more acceptable and dispel concerns about depression of wages and working conditions in the local labour market; it would also protect the interest of the foreign workers by reducing the scope for underpaid labour.<sup>71</sup>

In conclusion, putting emphasis on issues affecting migrant women’s workers well-being and interests in the negotiation of agreements on the temporary movement of services suppliers is a necessity.

## VI. Trade, Agriculture, Food Security and Gender Equality

In most developing countries, women are predominantly engaged in the agricultural sector and typically in subsistence production. Trade liberalization has often had the effect of increasing the production of export (cash) crops, while increasing imports of food crops that compete with locally produced crops and therefore depress their prices. This affects men and women differently, as women are usually small-scale food-crop farmers, while men are typically more actively engaged in the production and marketing of agricultural commodities traded in regional and international markets.<sup>72</sup>

- ***Women as small holders of farm land***

The experience of the last decades in developing countries has shown that agricultural subsistence-oriented small landholdings, many of which are managed by women, have not benefited from trade liberalization. Cheap imports have depressed the prices of locally produced food crops and made small-scale farmers production unprofitable. In several developing countries, small farmers who are unable to compete with cheaper agricultural imports are abandoning or selling farms at an increasing rate, leading to land concentration and expanded production of commercial crops, which in turn can contribute to food insecurity.<sup>73</sup> At the same time, given the low-import content of small holders' expenditures, they are not likely to gain much from a reduction in the import prices of goods. Moreover, at times when import prices fall, retail prices do not follow suit, due to rent capturing.

Women-owned farmlands face many more constraints in adapting to higher levels of competition as they receive fewer services and lesser support than those owned by men. In Africa for example, women receive seven percent of the agricultural extension services and less than 10 per cent of the credit offered to small-scale farmers.<sup>74</sup> Furthermore, small-scale women farmers tend to be at a disadvantage when the liberalization of agricultural markets occurs because they have limited access to credit, agricultural inputs and marketing knowledge; all of which are part of the technological upgrading required to successfully compete with both import products and in the international markets.<sup>75</sup> These disadvantages reduce women's productivity and competitiveness as actors in the agricultural value chain, as well as their overall market effectiveness.

Therefore, all policies aimed at increasing rural women's access to land, other capital and credit, at facilitating their acquisition of improved agricultural technologies and inputs (eg, seeds, pesticides, fertilizers) and at providing training in improved agricultural production methods are likely to enable women farmers to benefit from the opportunities offered by trade liberalization. Such policies, however, should not conflict with the search for more sustainable patterns of agricultural production.

- ***Women in subsistence agriculture affected by trade***

Subsistence agriculture is largely considered a harsh and risky way of living, with little margins for improvement. Nevertheless, the rapid switch to export-oriented cash crops is to be thoughtfully considered against the current situation of food insecurity. The 2008 food crisis and new spikes in food prices recorded since mid-2010<sup>76</sup>, have brought renewed emphasis on traditional staple food crops and urban/peri-urban agriculture, at least as a coping mechanism in situations of scarcity of affordable food. Traditional crops can still be a means to enhance women's economic empowerment if substantial marketable surpluses of these crops can be produced and locally traded at fair prices. This strategy to "dynamize" the traditional food production sector may involve a shift to agribusiness, which could benefit women food producers.<sup>77</sup>

On the other hand, in order to ensure that women benefit from a more dynamic agricultural sector and engage into more productive forms of agricultural production, other obstacles related to "time poverty" have to be addressed. A more active role for women farmers has to be combined with a change in the allocation of household responsibilities; otherwise, the overall work burden for women would increase. Also, male out-migration from rural areas and the rise in number of female-headed households must be analyzed for it can further exacerbate the work burden of women. Provision of appropriate labour-saving technologies and infrastructure would also alleviate "time poverty". Thus, strategies to open new opportunities for women's economic empowerment need to address the link between trade of food crops, food security, women's status in agriculture production, technology availability and more equal intra-household sharing of domestic responsibilities between men and women.<sup>78</sup>

- ***Women as custodians and users of traditional knowledge in land management***

Women also contribute to food security in their role as custodians and users of traditional knowledge in land management, including in the management of seeds, which are critical for rural food security and the maintenance of agricultural biodiversity.

UNDP's recent research points out that informal exchange of knowledge and seed sharing is central to farming practices in the developing world. The WTO Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) and other bilateral and regional trade agreements that incorporate TRIPS-based provisions may impact these practices by introducing monopolistic and exclusive rights regimes into plants and seed varieties. Women farmers may be negatively affected by intellectual property rights (IPRs) regimes that encourage the privatization of agricultural resources and of service preserving ecosystems, which were previously managed as communitarian goods. If public lands and biodiversity resources are privatized and therefore become increasingly monetized and expensive, women will not retain access and will be obliged to rely on shrinking and increasingly degraded common property resources.<sup>79</sup>

International instruments and multilateral conventions can establish a balanced approach to address the issues of food security and agricultural biodiversity, with effective and gender-responsive safeguards. But most developing countries have not taken advantage of existing flexibilities and the policy space for this kind of provisions has become increasingly restricted in recent bilateral agreements.<sup>80</sup>

- ***Women in export agriculture***

Within the agricultural sector, an increasing number of women are employed in the non-traditional agricultural export sector, such as horticulture. However, they are often concentrated in temporary, casual and seasonal work. In the Chilean fruit industry for example, women represent 50 percent of temporary workers, and only 5 percent of permanent workers.<sup>81</sup> Similarly, in South Africa, women represent 53 percent of the deciduous fruit workforce, while 65 to 75 percent of total employment is temporary, seasonal or casual.<sup>82</sup> While job insecurity affects both men and women workers, women who are more likely to be found in non-permanent employment are benefiting to a lesser degree than men from the job opportunities created by international trade in agricultural products. Women experience disadvantages by working in export-oriented agricultural industries and are often unable to benefit from decent working conditions. Nevertheless, in a context of limited alternatives, jobs in these industries can provide many women with opportunities for improving their lives.<sup>83</sup>

## VII. The Global Economic Crisis and its Impact on Trade and Gender Equality

The recent global economic crisis has had distinct impacts both on trade and gender disparities among countries. This crisis significantly affected the balance of payments of developing and developed countries alike and created severe financial instability worldwide. The contraction of world merchandise trade in 2008–2009 was sudden, deep, generalized and synchronous. The magnitude of trade contraction was the largest in the post-war period and was mainly due to an abrupt and sharp reduction in global demand. The crisis affected the trade in services and in merchandises, differently. Fluctuations in services exports exhibited less synchronicity across countries, experienced lower magnitudes of decline, and recovered more completely.<sup>84</sup>

Expansionary counter-cyclical policies such as fiscal stimulus packages and investments in large-scale social protection systems by many countries were important in fostering recovery, but the current improvement remains fragile and uneven. The return to growth is driven by developing countries, particularly emerging economies with strong demand, such as China and India, and the resurgence of world trade.<sup>85</sup>

While the volume of exports of many emerging economies has already recovered to, or beyond, pre-crisis peaks, exports of developed countries have not yet seen a full recovery. World trade is expected to grow by about 6.5 per cent in both 2011 and 2012, moderating from the 10.5 per cent rebound in 2010.<sup>86</sup> Increased exchange-rate instability among major reserve currencies has however given rise to new trade tensions. There is a serious risk of competitive devaluations that could harm global trade growth, which until now, has been critical to the recovery of the world economy.<sup>87</sup> Rising of oil and food prices may also jeopardize global recovery.

The decline in international trade in 2008-2009 has had direct negative repercussions on women employed in export-oriented industries, particularly in the textile and agriculture sectors.<sup>88</sup> Women also tend to lose jobs first, due to their higher share of employment in part-time, low-skilled and temporary jobs.<sup>89</sup> Furthermore, women tend to have fewer reserves than men to shield themselves from the negative consequences of a drop in income, since their wages are lower than those of men.<sup>90</sup>

The formal economy suffered the most severe blows in the crisis. The unemployment rate has been exceptionally high and is persisting in the recovery phase. While some workers employed in the formal sector were able to avail themselves of unemployment benefits, the high unemployment in the formal sector has forced many into the informal economy. Women in the informal economy of developing countries have encountered increasing competition from unemployed male wage workers moving in this often female-dominated sector, a factor which, combined with the decrease in global demand, has led to the demise of the weakest and poorest informal women-run businesses.<sup>91</sup>

Despite clear signs of recovery, the need to strengthen social safety nets to help the most vulnerable groups of people is still pressing. Concerns exist that improved productivity during the recovery could also result in higher unemployment as companies re-organize their production to save costs. These trends underline the need for policy responses to address the linkages between trade and employment, the increasing poverty and inequality within and between countries, and the disparities in economic opportunities between men and women.

The severe decline in national budgets also affects the availability of public services, resulting in additional expenses for the households and in further burdens for women as primary caregivers within the family.

Therefore, the economic recovery has to encompass a “human and gender-sensitive recovery” and a social protection component to restore lost jobs and income opportunities while strengthening social safety nets to help the most vulnerable groups of people, including women.

### Trade-employment linkages: the ILO Global Job Pact

A High-level Segment Ministerial Roundtable on “The Global Jobs Pact: Crisis Recovery through Women’s Economic Empowerment”, co-organized by ILO and UNDP in June 2010, discussed how several countries had mitigated the effects of the crisis on women. ECLAC and ILO noted that even though most of the measures implemented by governments in Latin America and the Caribbean to address the crisis had not explicitly promoted gender equality, the protection of incomes of the most vulnerable workers indirectly benefited women who make up a large proportion of such workers. Other policies specifically targeted women, opening up occupational opportunities by encouraging women’s employment or setting up quotas to ensure that women benefit from employment support programmes. Policies that expanded public social and care infrastructure also had a positive impact on gender equality since they generated employment for women in the medium term and increased the supply of services, leading to a more equal sharing of domestic responsibilities in the long run.

As the global economy emerges from the economic crisis, recognizing the gender distinct impacts of the crisis and incorporating gender considerations into all policy responses will ensure that both men and women are re-integrated into economic activity in more equal terms and equally benefit from the recovery. The social and economic benefits of inclusive economic growth dynamics will help to build stronger and more equitable societies and economies.

## VIII. Implementing Gender-Responsive Trade Policies: Obstacles and Good Practices <sup>92</sup>

While mainstreaming gender perspectives in trade policy is a recent endeavour, countries have acquired more experience in mainstreaming other issues in trade policy, such as environmental protection and sustainable development. For example, environmental impact assessments enable countries to anticipate the possible impacts of a trade agreement on existing domestic environmental regulations as well as on a country’s ability to comply with its obligations under multilateral environmental agreements; and to assess whether policy changes would be required as a result of a trade agreement. Whether the assessment only concerns the country carrying it out or all the parties involved in a trade agreement, lessons learned through this kind of experience may prove useful when mainstreaming gender issues.<sup>93</sup>

### • *Assessing gender-related impacts of a trade agreement before adoption*

Similarly to environmental assessments, an analysis of the potential effects of trade policy on gender equality could be carried out in parallel with, or prior to the negotiation of a trade agreement to inform policy-makers of anticipated gender-related impacts. Trade negotiators would be provided with information on sensitive sectors where trade liberalization should be expedited, delayed or exempted with a view to enhancing or protecting female employment or female-owned enterprises.

While trade liberalization should be paced in a way responsive to its potential distinct economic and social impact on women, this does not mean that non-competitive business sectors should be protected indefinitely simply because they employ a large number of female workers. In these sectors, professional training and educational policies and other measures should be put in place to upgrade women’s skills and integration in markets and provide financing and technology that enable them to move to more competitive, higher value-added and higher technology sectors of the economy.

Encouraging all countries to conduct a gender-related assessment of trade agreements before signing them, while a sound solution in principle, could be seen as imposing an additional burden on developing

countries – especially LDCs – if their institutional capacity is not strengthened in parallel. Previous experience in the environmental field shows that many developing countries face important challenges in conducting autonomous assessments of trade agreements, due to insufficient resources and data. Supporting the establishment of local research capacity in the developing world to conduct gender impact assessments of trade agreements would encourage developing countries’ governments to take ownership of gender-related policy options while enhancing the worldwide coverage of gender-related trade assessments.<sup>94</sup>

- ***Gender analysis in the configuration of trade agreements***

An explicit reference to gender equality in the core text of trade agreements helps increase political commitment and may increase the availability of funding for gender-related programmes of technical cooperation. For example the Cotonou Agreement<sup>95</sup>, which provides the legal basis of the Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs) between the EU and the ACP (Africa, Asia and the Pacific) group of countries, explicitly states that parties should respect international conventions regarding women’s rights and gender equality, and commit to include a gender perspective in “all areas of cooperation.”

In other cases, gender perspectives are addressed in the side accords that accompany the main trade agreements. For instance, the North American Agreement on Labour Cooperation – one of the two side agreements of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)<sup>96</sup> – exhorts the parties to promote cooperative activities regarding, among others (a) the equality of women and men in the workplace; (b) the elimination of employment discrimination, including gender-based; and (c) equal pay for women and men. The clear integration of gender equality principles in these ad hoc mechanisms enhances the opportunities to engage civil society organizations in the design and implementation of these agreements, which usually involve labour organizations and other civil society organizations.

Some agreements embed gender considerations within their capacity development mechanisms. For example, the Labour Cooperation and Capacity-Building mechanism of the United States–Central America Free Trade Agreement<sup>97</sup> sets out gender equality, “including the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation,” as a cooperation and capacity-building priority. Similarly, the EU–Mexico Global Agreement<sup>98</sup> considers gender equality, along with human rights and environmental issues, as a cross-cutting issue to be mainstreamed in the development cooperation between the parties.

Finally, gender issues are also addressed in parallel activities and discussions surrounding the implementation of regional agreements or forums. This is the case, for example, with the Asia–Pacific Economic Cooperation Forum,<sup>99</sup> which aims to integrate gender perspectives in all policies, programmes and practices of member governments, in order to achieve greater gender equality.

Developing countries have traditionally been cautious about incorporating non-trade concerns (e.g., environmental or labour) into trade agreements. Their fear is that these considerations may result in trade barriers or that their implementation may constitute an excessive burden in terms of financial and human resources. As the same difficulties can be expected for incorporating gender perspectives into trade agreements, gender-related commitments need to be tailored to the economic and political contexts of the countries involved.

- ***Incorporating gender components in Aid-for-Trade and other development assistance mechanisms***

Multilateral development assistance frameworks such as the Aid-for-Trade (AfT) Initiative, the Enhanced Integrated Framework for Trade-Related Technical Assistance to the Least Developed Countries (EIF) and the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) also provide entry points to integrate gender issues in international trade.

The important role that trade can play in reducing poverty was recognized in the call made at the 2005 WTO Hong Kong Ministerial meeting for increased support to developing countries through the AfT Initiative.<sup>100</sup> AfT aims to help developing and least developed countries offset the negative consequences arising from trade liberalization and overcome structural limitations and weak capacities that undermine their ability to produce, compete and fully benefit from emerging trade and investment opportunities.

Projects and programmes are eligible for AfT assistance if they match the trade-related development priorities of the recipient country's national development strategies.<sup>101</sup> Thus interventions aimed at facilitating women's participation in international trade would be eligible for AfT financing if such actions were identified among the country's trade-related priorities, national action plans, export strategies and/or trade-related poverty reduction policies. AfT financing may include the technological upgrading of women farmers, the improvement of women farmers' capacity to produce according to international standards or to private standards developed by supermarket chains, and the improvement of the operating environment of women informal cross border traders.

Gender equality focused aid within the Aid-for-Trade initiative almost tripled from US\$ 0.5 billion in 2006 to US\$ 1.3 billion in 2008. Even so, this represents only about 3 percent of total Aid-for-Trade (US\$ 42 billion in 2008).<sup>102</sup> The modest resources devoted to specific initiatives that target women in trade may well reflect the still limited capacity of developing countries to mainstream gender considerations in their national trade and development strategies.<sup>103</sup>

UNDAF, which guides the directions of programmes supported by the UN at country level, can play a catalyst role for leveraging funds and promoting a broader uptake of national policy commitments to gender equality in trade. Gender equality is one of the three normative principles that inform UNDAF and a number of toolkits and frameworks have been developed to support UNDAF planning, monitoring and evaluation, including on gender mainstreaming.<sup>104</sup>

EIF is the main mechanism through which the LDCs access additional Aid for Trade resources. EIF<sup>105</sup> can also prompt national governments to include gender equality goals in trade in their national development strategies and assist in the delivery of trade-related technical assistance in response to needs identified by the LDCs.

In line with the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness,<sup>106</sup> the three frameworks - UNDAF, EIF and AfT – emphasize the principle of national ownership, acknowledging the prerogative of developing countries to design their national development strategies and to single out the programmes and projects that will be instrumental to their achievement.

Yet, critical institutional capacity gaps persist, at both the multilateral and national levels, to genuinely mainstream a gender dimension into policy areas that are too often perceived as gender-neutral, such as trade. The number of LDCs that have included actions aimed at improving women's participation in trade within their trade strategies and related development plans remains limited. Women's enhanced participation in trade decision-making, in the development of national action plans and in the formulation and implementation of trade-related poverty reduction strategies would be instrumental to incorporating targeted measures for women traders in the country's trade priorities.



## IX. The Way Forward

Including gender perspectives in trade policy and related agreements is an essential element of an integrated development policy framework which combines social and economic measures to ensure fairer and beneficial outcomes for all. Trade can have strong and varying effects on the overall wellbeing of different groups of economic actors, including women, which require adequate and specific policy responses.

While trade policies need to become gender-responsive, other measures not directly related to trade are also necessary if both women and men —and the economy as a whole— are to reap the full benefits of trade expansion. These include education, employment, fiscal and social policies, and, above all, policies that enhance productive capacities. Women's education and continuing skills acquisition are likely to be the most important factors determining the impact of trade on women's economic opportunities and on reducing the gender wage gap. As long as women remain less qualified than men, they are likely to remain in lower paying, less secure jobs, even if better-paying jobs become available through trade expansion.<sup>107</sup> Improving women's access to education, technology and skills, on the other hand, implies a change in attitudes and in socio-cultural norms, as well as a more equitable distribution of household chores between men and women; moreover, it cannot happen without addressing the "time poverty" issue.

Two common shortcomings should be avoided when mainstreaming gender in trade policy. First, - the "adding-on" shortcoming - consists of making gender considerations an after-thought; in other words, gender-differentiated impacts of trade policy and trade agreements are evaluated once the most crucial phases of trade policy formulation and negotiation are already completed. The second - the "evaporation" shortcoming - consists of discussing and assessing gender-related issues during trade policy formulation and negotiations but failing to include concrete measures in the core of trade agreements and trade laws.

The United Nations supports governments and civil society organizations to undertake actions to enhance the inclusion of gender perspectives in trade policies. The following is a non-exhaustive list of examples of these actions divided into two main categories, namely Gender equality policies and Women's Empowerment:

### *Gender equality policies*

- Support developing countries' capacity to assess the gender dimensions of trade policies through country case studies and training of policy makers and trade negotiators.
- Produce sound and reliable data to evaluate the gendered impacts of different trade measures and instruments.
- Gather evidence on possible trade and other complementary policies and measures necessary to enable women to benefit from trade, or to reduce the negative impacts that trade may have on them.
- In parallel or prior to the negotiation of trade agreements, provide inputs for the elaboration of gender assessments of such agreements, as part of a broader human development impact assessment; and support countries to monitor the impact of such agreements on women's empowerment and gender equality during implementation.
- Support countries' national and/or regional efforts to increase coherence among different but interlinked policies, such as trade, development, employment, migration and gender equality.
- Support advocacy platforms of women informal traders for promoting an enabling environment for their business and access to better services.
- Support the inclusion of gender considerations into multilateral development cooperation frameworks, such as UNDAF, AfT and EIF.
- Develop specific training programmes for women entrepreneurs to enhance their participation in world trade.

- Support countries in collecting and analyzing sex-disaggregated data, including those related to informal traders, and on designing appropriate questionnaires and evaluating the information gathered.

#### *Women's empowerment and participation*

- Support broad-based effective participation of women and women's groups in trade consultations and negotiations as well as in trade policy-making and related implementation.
- Facilitate the exchange of views and experiences among women engaged in trade negotiations and policy formulation and implementation.
- Facilitate contacts, coaching and sharing of experiences among women entrepreneurs.
- Facilitate the linkages between women-owned/managed micro and small enterprises and larger national or multinational firms.

## Notes

<sup>1</sup> In 1990, John Williamson used the term "Washington Consensus" to describe a 10-item economic policy checklist for governments to follow. The Consensus advocated fiscal and monetary soundness, openness to trade and investment, financial liberalization and regulation, privatization, deregulation and secure property rights.

<sup>2</sup> Maxwell, S (2005). *The Washington Consensus is dead! Long live the meta-narrative!* Working Paper 243, Overseas Development Institute, London, UK, <http://www.odi.org.uk/resources/download/1809.pdf>.

<sup>3</sup> United Nations Millennium Declaration, available at: [www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.htm](http://www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.htm); UN Development Agenda; Development for All, <http://www.un.org/en/development/devagenda/devagenda.shtml>

<sup>4</sup> UNCTAD (2006). *The Least Developed Countries Report 2006*, <http://www.unctad.org/Templates/webflyer.asp?docid=7011&intItemID=1397&lang=1&mode=highlights>

<sup>5</sup> An interagency mechanism - the CEB Inter-Agency Cluster on Trade and Productive Capacity - has been established with the aim of coordinating trade and development operations at the national and regional levels within the UN system. The Cluster includes UNCTAD, UNIDO, FAO, WTO, ITC, UNDP, UNEP, ILO, UN-ECLAC, UN-ECE, UN-ESCAP, UN-ECA, UN-ESCWA, UNOPS, UNCITRAL

<sup>6</sup> According to The Millennium Development Goals Report, the proportion of imports (excluding arms and oil) by developed countries from all developing countries admitted duty-free reached almost 80 percent in 2008—up from 54 percent in 1998. For the LDCs, this proportion increased only marginally from 78 percent in 1998 to almost 81 percent in 2008. Despite trade preferences, developed countries' tariffs on imports of agricultural products, textiles and clothing from developing countries remained between 5 and 8 percent in 2008 and were only 2 to 3 percentage points lower than in 1998. However, LDCs continue to benefit from larger tariff reductions, especially for their agricultural products. Preferential tariffs on agricultural imports from LDCs are 1.6 percent (versus 8 percent for other developing countries), though tariffs on clothing and textiles from LDCs are only 2 to 3 percentage points lower than those for developing countries as a group. The Millennium Development Goals Report, 2010, pp. 69-70.

<sup>7</sup> UNCTAD (2009). *Mainstreaming gender in trade policy. Note by the UNCTAD secretariat*. TD/B/C.I/EM.2/2/Rev.1, [http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ciem2d2\\_en.pdf](http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ciem2d2_en.pdf)

<sup>8</sup> Fontana M (2009). *Implications of Current Trade Policies For Gender Equality*, Paper prepared for the Expert Group Meeting on The impact of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action on the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals, United Nations Office at Geneva, 11-13 November 2009, [http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/impact\\_bdpfa/EP9%20-%20FontanaREV.pdf](http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/impact_bdpfa/EP9%20-%20FontanaREV.pdf)

<sup>9</sup> Fontana M. (2009a). *Gender Justice in Trade Policy - The gender effects of Economic Partnership Agreements*, One World Action.

<sup>10</sup> UNCTAD (2009). Op. cit.

<sup>11</sup> Fontana M (2009), Op. cit

<sup>12</sup> Chatham House and Vivideconomics (2010). *Evidence for Action: Gender equality and economic growth*, [http://www.chathamhouse.org.uk/files/17416\\_0910gender.pdf](http://www.chathamhouse.org.uk/files/17416_0910gender.pdf)

<sup>13</sup> The Republic of Korea provides a clear example of the role of gender inequality in stimulating export and growth. In the early 1970s, women's wages in the Republic of Korea were less than half of those of men. Low wages played a pivotal role in holding down costs of production in labor-intensive manufacturing export industries, especially garments and electronics. The foreign exchange that exports generated was funneled into the purchase of capital-intensive goods and imported technology, helping to build capacity in industries such as automobiles, semi-conductors, steel, and shipbuilding. Thus, women's labor helped to resolve the balance of payments constraint to growth that many developing countries faced by generating the foreign exchange to finance much needed imports. Source: Seguini S, G. Berik and Y. Rodgers, *Promoting Gender Equality as a Means to Finance Development*, Working Paper No: 2009-10, September 2009, University of Utah, Department of Economics.

<sup>14</sup> ECLAC notes that "In the long term there is a virtuous circle between the narrowing of social divides, the closing of productivity gaps and more dynamic and sustained growth. There is conclusive evidence that economic development and social equality tend to go together. It suffices to contrast the distribution of income and other assets in poorer and less poor societies." Source: ECLAC (2010). *Time for Equality: Closing Gaps, Opening Trails*, [http://www.eclac.cl/publicaciones/xml/1/39711/100604\\_2010-115-SES-33-3-Time\\_for\\_equality\\_doc\\_completo.pdf](http://www.eclac.cl/publicaciones/xml/1/39711/100604_2010-115-SES-33-3-Time_for_equality_doc_completo.pdf)

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- <sup>15</sup> Alesina A and D. Rodrick D (1994). "Distributive politics and economic growth". *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*. MIT Press. Vol. 109(2): 465–490, <http://links.jstor.org/sici?sici=0033-5533%28199405%29109%3A2%3C465%3ADPAEG%3E2.0.CO%3B2-N&origin=repec&>
- <sup>16</sup> World Economic Forum, *The Global Gender Gap Report*, 2010, <http://www.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap/report2010.pdf>
- <sup>17</sup> UNCTAD (2009). Op. cit.
- <sup>18</sup> UNCTAD (2008). *Moving towards Gender Sensitization of Trade Policy*. UNCTAD/DITC/TNCD/2008/2, [http://www.unctad.org/sections/ditc\\_dir/docs/ditctncd20082\\_en.pdf](http://www.unctad.org/sections/ditc_dir/docs/ditctncd20082_en.pdf).
- <sup>19</sup> UNCTAD (2009). Op. cit.
- <sup>20</sup> ILO (2009). *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed\\_norm/---relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms\\_105119.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_105119.pdf)
- <sup>21</sup> Seguino, S. (2009). "The road to gender equality: global trends and the way forward", in *Social Justice and Gender Equity: Rethinking Development Strategies and Macroeconomic Policies*, Berik, Rodgers and Zammit, eds. London: Routledge.
- <sup>22</sup> World Bank (2001). *Engendering development: through gender equality in rights, resources and voice*. The World Bank Policy Research Report, [http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2001/03/01/000094946\\_01020805393496/Rendared/PDF/multi\\_page.pdf](http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2001/03/01/000094946_01020805393496/Rendared/PDF/multi_page.pdf)
- <sup>23</sup> ILO (2009a). *Global Employment Trends for Women*, [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/documents/publication/wcms\\_103456.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/documents/publication/wcms_103456.pdf)
- <sup>24</sup> UNDESA-DAW (2009). *World Survey on the Role of Women in Development*, p. 18, <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/public/WorldSurvey2009.pdf>
- <sup>25</sup> UNCTAD (2010). *Trade and Development Report*, 2010, <http://www.unctad.org/Templates/WebFlyer.asp?intItemID=5608&lang=1>
- <sup>26</sup> ILO (2010). *Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges*, [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed\\_emp/---emp\\_elm/---trends/documents/publication/wcms\\_123835.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_elm/---trends/documents/publication/wcms_123835.pdf)
- <sup>27</sup> ILO (2009). Op. cit.
- <sup>28</sup> UNDESA -DAW (2009). *World Survey on the Role of Women in Development*, [www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/ws2009/index.html#publication](http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/ws2009/index.html#publication)
- <sup>29</sup> Ibidem.
- <sup>30</sup> Nicita A and S. Razzaz S (2003). *Who benefits and how much? How gender affects welfare impacts of a booming textile industry*. Policy Research Working Paper Series 3029. The World Bank, [http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2003/05/23/000094946\\_03051404103336/Rendered/PDF/multi0page.pdf](http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2003/05/23/000094946_03051404103336/Rendered/PDF/multi0page.pdf)
- <sup>31</sup> Fontana, M (2009). Op. cit.
- <sup>32</sup> UNCTAD (2009). Op. cit.
- <sup>33</sup> Ibidem.
- <sup>34</sup> UNCTAD (2009a). *Report of the Expert Meeting on Mainstreaming Gender in Trade Policy*, TD/B/C.I/EM.2/4, [http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ciem2d4\\_en.pdf](http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ciem2d4_en.pdf)
- <sup>35</sup> Kohpaiboon A. (2008), *MNEs and the Global integration of the Thai Clothing Industry: Policy Implications for SME Development*, [http://www.econ.tu.ac.th/doc%2Fcontent%2F335%2FDiscussion\\_Paper\\_No.8.pdf](http://www.econ.tu.ac.th/doc%2Fcontent%2F335%2FDiscussion_Paper_No.8.pdf)
- <sup>36</sup> In the case of the Thai clothing industry, for instance, as the international competitiveness of the industry was faltering (due to wage rates growth), and the export quota system dismantled, the industry was forced to upgrade its production to higher value products. Many SMEs, which were unable to do so, were forced to exit the industry. Kohpaiboon A. (2008), *Op. cit.* Another example is that of Indian small enterprises in the auto components, electronics and garments sectors that have operated since long in a doubly protected market, namely protected from domestic large units and from international competition. Once they had to face intensifying market competition, they

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had to introduce drastic changes in their technologies. Bhavani T.A. (2006), *Globalization and Indian Small Scale Industries*, <http://www.icassecretariat.org/node/65>

<sup>37</sup> UNCTAD (2009). *Op. cit.* Paragraph 22,

<sup>38</sup> UNECA, African Union and African Development Bank (2010). *Assessing Regional Integration in Africa - Enhancing Intra-African Trade*, Chapter 5: Informal Trade in Africa, <http://www.uneca.org/aria4/ARIA4Full.pdf>

<sup>39</sup> Figures on the value of informal cross border trade in the SADC Region are from Southern Africa Trust, August 2008 quoted by UNIFEM in *Unleashing the Potential of Women Informal Cross-Border Traders to Transform Intra-African Trade*, Factsheet, 2010.

<sup>40</sup> UNECA, (2010). *Assessing Regional Integration in Africa (ARIA IV)*. pp. 433  
<http://www.uneca.org/aria4/ARIA4Full.pdf>

<sup>41</sup> UNIFEM (2010). *Op. cit.*

<sup>42</sup> Smith S. et al. (2004). *Ethical trade in African horticulture: Gender, rights and participation*, Working Paper 223, Institute of Development Studies. University of Sussex, UK,  
[http://www.researchintouse.com/nrk/RIUinfo/outputs/R8077\\_b.pdf](http://www.researchintouse.com/nrk/RIUinfo/outputs/R8077_b.pdf)

<sup>43</sup> UN Population Division (2009). *International Migration 2009* (Wall chart) [www.unpopulation.org](http://www.unpopulation.org)

<sup>44</sup> UNCTAD (2009). *Op. cit.*

<sup>45</sup> OECD, (2005). *Migrant Women and the Labour Market: Diversity and Challenges*, Proceedings of joint OECD/EU Seminar.

<sup>46</sup> OECD, (2008). *Gender and Sustainable Development: Maximizing the Economic, Social and Environmental Role of Women*, <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/58/1/40881538.pdf>

<sup>47</sup> *Ibidem.*

<sup>48</sup> UN-INSTRAW quoted by UNDP *Migration and gender empowerment: Recent trends and emerging issues*, Human Development Research Paper 2009/4, <http://www.networkideas.org/featart/mar2009/Migration.pdf>

<sup>49</sup> UNFPA (2003). *Trafficking in Women, Girls and Boys*,  
<http://www.unfpa.org/webdav/site/global/shared/documents/publications/2003/Trafficking.pdf>

<sup>50</sup> BRIDGE, (2005). *Gender and migration, cutting edge pack*. Brighton: BRIDGE/Institute of Development Studies.  
[www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports\\_gend\\_CEP.html](http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports_gend_CEP.html)

<sup>51</sup> United Nations (2004). *World Survey on the Role of Women in Development: Women and Migration*, A/59/287/Add.1, ST/ESA/294

<sup>52</sup> Research in Guatemala has shown that 63 percent of main remittance recipients are women, while in Colombia, they make up 70 percent of the recipients. The remittance sender may be the husband or a female relative who left other women in charge of the family. IOM (2010). *Gender, migration and remittances*,  
[http://www.iom.int/jahia/webdav/site/myjahiasite/shared/shared/mainsite/published\\_docs/brochures\\_and\\_info\\_sheets/Gender-migration-remittances-infosheet.pdf](http://www.iom.int/jahia/webdav/site/myjahiasite/shared/shared/mainsite/published_docs/brochures_and_info_sheets/Gender-migration-remittances-infosheet.pdf); and OECD, (2007). *Policy Coherence for Development: Migration and Developing Countries*,  
[http://www.oecd.org/document/3/0,3343,en\\_2649\\_33935\\_39207662\\_1\\_1\\_1\\_1,00.html#downloads](http://www.oecd.org/document/3/0,3343,en_2649_33935_39207662_1_1_1_1,00.html#downloads)

<sup>53</sup> Remittances have increased exponentially: up from US\$ 132 billion in 2000 to an estimated US\$ 414 billion in 2009, despite of a slight decline due to the economic crisis. In 2009, more than US\$ 316 billion in remittances went to developing countries – representing some 76 percent of total remittances.

<sup>54</sup> UN Population Division, *International Migrant Stock: The 2008 Revision*, <http://esa.un.org/migration/>

<sup>55</sup> OECD (2008). *Op. cit.*

<sup>56</sup> The term ‘global care chain’ was first used by Arlie Hochschild to refer to “a series of personal links between people across the globe based on the paid or unpaid work of caring”. The concept points to the buoyancy of international trade in domestic care services and its centrality to the processes of globalization. These international labour transfers are an important aspect of international and regional divisions of labour and embody major social divisions of class, gender, race/ethnicity and caste. They reflect a situation where richer households located in richer regions or countries outsourcing (part of) their care labour requirements to members of poorer households drawn from poorer areas within the same country or from a poorer country. Those at the end of the chain are too poor to be able to employ a domestic worker and their outsourcing takes the form of reliance on unpaid family labour. Source: Global

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Commission on International Migration (2005), *Global care chain: A critical introduction*, <http://www.gcim.org/attachements/GMP%20No%2044.pdf>

<sup>57</sup> Even when migration has positive effects on individuals, it may have contradictory effects in countries of origin. Migrants reduce the labour force in countries of origin and can negatively impact growth potential, as they may create shortages in the supply of labour in expanding sectors. The migration of women, both skilled and unskilled, can be damaging to growth in sending countries, given the key role-played by women in poverty reduction. In the case of rural households, the migration of a family member implies reallocating the labour among those left behind, and, from a gendered perspective, may place an additional burden on women.

<sup>58</sup> This is, for example, the policy put in place by Canada and the United Kingdom for nurses and teachers. Other countries have established codes of good practices to discourage the targeted recruitment of health workers from countries experiencing shortages.

<sup>59</sup> United Nations General Assembly (2006). *Summary of the High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development*, A/61/515, <http://daccess-dds-n.y.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N06/571/02/PDF/N0657102.pdf?OpenElement>; and OECD (2008), Op. cit.

<sup>60</sup> The importance of the service sector varies ranging, on average, from 50 percent of GDP in low-income countries to 54 percent of GDP in middle-income economies. The importance of employment in services activities is no less impressive, averaging 72 percent of total employment in high-income economies. Source: WTO (2009). *Opening Markets for Trade in Services: Countries and sectors in bilateral and WTO negotiations*, p.1, [http://www.wto.org/english/res\\_e/publications\\_e/open\\_market\\_serv\\_e.htm](http://www.wto.org/english/res_e/publications_e/open_market_serv_e.htm)

<sup>61</sup> Commercial services do not include government services.

<sup>62</sup> WTO (2010). *Measuring Trade in Services*, page 9, [http://www.wto.org/english/res\\_e/statistics\\_e/services\\_training\\_module\\_e.pdf](http://www.wto.org/english/res_e/statistics_e/services_training_module_e.pdf)

<sup>63</sup> ILO (2009a). Op. cit.; and ILO (2010). Op. cit.

<sup>64</sup> Abugattas Majluf L. and S. Zarrilli (2007). *Challenging conventional wisdom: Development implications of trade in services liberalization*, UNCTAD, UNCTAD/DITC/TAB/POV/2006/1, p.15, [http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditctabpov20061\\_en.pdf](http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditctabpov20061_en.pdf)

<sup>65</sup> Mode 1 refers to cross-border services (such as telecommunications), Mode 2, to consumption overseas (for example, tourism), Mode 3 refers to commercial presence (for instance the establishment of branch offices or agencies to deliver such services as banking, legal advice or communications).

<sup>66</sup> Quaker United Nations Office - Geneva (2007). *Understanding GATS Mode 4: Return migration of temporary workers*, <http://www.quono.org/geneva/pdf/economic/Discussion/BP-GATS-Mode4.pdf>

<sup>67</sup> If a profession is regulated, no one can practice it without a license.

<sup>68</sup> UNCTAD (2005). *Moving professionals beyond national borders: Mutual Recognition Agreements and the GATS*, [http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditctnncd20052\\_en.pdf](http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditctnncd20052_en.pdf)

<sup>69</sup> An Economic Needs Test is a provision in national legislation which imposes a test that has the effect of restricting the entry of services suppliers on the basis of an assessment of "needs" in the domestic market.

<sup>70</sup> Puri L (2004). "Trade in services, gender and development: A tale of two modes",. In *Trade and Gender – Opportunities and Challenges for Developing Countries*. UNCTAD/EDM/2004/2, [http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/edm20042\\_en.pdf](http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/edm20042_en.pdf)

<sup>71</sup> UNDP (2008). *Low-skilled workers and bilateral, regional and unilateral initiatives: Lessons for the GATS Mode 4 negotiations and other agreements*, <http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/download/publication/?version=live&id=1816007>

<sup>72</sup> Fontana M, Joekes S and Masika R (1998). *Global Trade Expansion and Liberalization: Gender Issues and Impacts*, Bridge Development - Gender, Report No 42.

<sup>73</sup> Young B and H. Hoppe (2003). *Gender agenda in the WTO. The Doha Development Round, Gender and Social Reproduction*. Gutachten für die Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.

<sup>74</sup> New Agriculturist (2008). *Gender revolution: A prerequisite for change*, <http://www.new-ag.info/focus/focusItem.php?a=493>

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<sup>75</sup> UNCTAD (2009). Op. cit.

<sup>76</sup> According to FAO Food Price Index, world food prices surged to a new historic peak in January 2011, for the seventh consecutive month. This is the highest level (both in real and nominal terms) since FAO started measuring food prices in 1990.

<sup>77</sup> UNCTAD (2009). Op. cit. Paragraph 26

<sup>78</sup> For example, the Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) in India is an organization of poor, self-employed women workers and has been active towards their full employment and self reliance. SEWA has been working with its rural members to help them improve their livelihood through various initiatives in technical training, microfinance, market linkages and natural resource management, across a number of trades. SEWA adopts an integrated approach towards its members encompassing organizing (for bargaining power, collective strength), capacity building (skills, access to market infrastructure, technology, education), capital formation (asset ownership, access to financial services), and social security (healthcare, childcare, and shelter). Source: [www.sewa.org](http://www.sewa.org)

<sup>79</sup> UNDP (2010). *Intellectual Property, Agrobiodiversity and Gender Considerations. Issues and Case Studies from the Andean and South Asian Regions*, <http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/download/publication/?version=live&id=2857545>

<sup>80</sup> Ibidem.

<sup>81</sup> The World Bank, FAO and IFAD (2009). *Gender in Agriculture: Sourcebook*, pp. 344-345, <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTGENAGRLIVSOUBOOK/Resources/CompleteBook.pdf>

<sup>82</sup> Smith S. et al. (2004). Op. cit.

<sup>83</sup> The World Bank, FAO and IFAD (2009). Op. cit.

<sup>84</sup> UNCTAD (2010a). *Evolution of the international trading system and of international trade from a development perspective: The impact of the crisis-mitigation measures and prospects for recovery* [http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/tdb57d3\\_en.pdf](http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/tdb57d3_en.pdf)

<sup>85</sup> Ibidem.

<sup>86</sup> United Nations (2011). *World Economic Situation and Prospects 2011*, <http://www.un.org/esa/policy/wess/wesp.html>

<sup>87</sup> UN/DESA. *Monthly briefing World Economic Situation and Prospects*, No. 24, 6 October 2010, [http://www.un.org/esa/policy/publications/dpad\\_wespmbn.html](http://www.un.org/esa/policy/publications/dpad_wespmbn.html)

<sup>88</sup> Swaziland reported an increase in unemployment in the textile sector where women are the most affected. In Cambodia, unemployment has increased in the garment industry and tourism, after having hit the construction and real estate sectors and their mainly male workforce. The garment industry in Cambodia, the key export sector, has laid off 30,000 workers, which corresponds to 10 percent of the workforce. Between October and December 2008, over 500,000 jobs were lost in export-oriented sectors in India, these being gems and jewelry, automobile industry and textiles. In Ho Chi Minh City in Vietnam, 65 percent of the 31 companies dissolved in 2008 were textile-garment firms. The devastating impacts of the crisis on employment in the export sectors are still unfolding. UNDP (2010). *The current economic and financial crisis: A gender perspective*, pages 14-15, [http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/stream/asset/?asset\\_id=2560964](http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/stream/asset/?asset_id=2560964)

<sup>89</sup> In Brazil, the manufacturing sector was the hardest hit sector early in the crisis. Yet, although manufacturing is a field strongly dominated by men, proportionally speaking, women lost more jobs in this sector. Disaggregating data by economic activities shows that the largest relative declines in female employment occurred in the following sectors: mining and processing; manufacturing; and electricity, gas and water production and distribution, as well as in commerce, and repair of vehicles and personal objects. Black women were the worst affected (9.9 percent), compared with white women (7.7 percent). In other words, the crisis accentuated the pattern of white, male domination in Brazilian industry. Brazil Gender Equality Observatory (2009), *Impact of the Crisis on Women*, page 45, <http://www.observatoriodegenero.gov.br/menu/publicacoes/impacto-da-crise-sobre-as-mulheres-versao-bilingue/view>

<sup>90</sup> United Nations (2009). *World Survey on the Role of Women in Development: Women's Control over Economic Resources and Access to Financial Resources, including Microfinance*, ST/ESA/326

<sup>91</sup> Ibidem.

<sup>92</sup> UNCTAD (2009). Op. cit., excerpts from paragraphs 42-58.

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- <sup>93</sup> Coche I, Kotschwar B and Salazar–Xirinachs JM (2006). *Gender Issues in Trade Policymaking*. OAS Trade Series, [http://www.sice.oas.org/genderandtrade/genderissuesintp\\_e.asp](http://www.sice.oas.org/genderandtrade/genderissuesintp_e.asp)
- <sup>94</sup> Good examples are initiatives in India described in the book *Mainstreaming Gender through India's Foreign Trade Policy* by Rajan S Ratna, IIFT, 2010, especially pages 15-19.
- <sup>95</sup> ACP-EC-Partnership Agreement, ("The Cotonou Agreement"). 2000. Available at: [http://ec.europa.eu/development/icenter/repository/agr01\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/development/icenter/repository/agr01_en.pdf)
- <sup>96</sup> Available at: <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/regs/naalc/naalc.htm>
- <sup>97</sup> Available at: [www.ustr.gov/sites/default/files/uploads/agreements/cafta/asset\\_upload\\_file320\\_3936.pdf](http://www.ustr.gov/sites/default/files/uploads/agreements/cafta/asset_upload_file320_3936.pdf)
- <sup>98</sup> Available at: [http://www.sice.oas.org/Trade/mex\\_eu/english/Text\\_e.asp](http://www.sice.oas.org/Trade/mex_eu/english/Text_e.asp)
- <sup>99</sup> Available at: <http://www.apec.org/Home/Groups/SOM-Steering-Committee-on-Economic-and-Technical-Cooperation/Task-Groups/Gender-Focal-Point-Network>
- <sup>100</sup> Ministerial Declaration adopted on 18 December 2005, para 57, [http://www.wto.org/english/thewto\\_e/minist\\_e/min05\\_e/final\\_text\\_e.htm](http://www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/minist_e/min05_e/final_text_e.htm); and [http://www.wto.org/english/tratop\\_e/devel\\_e/a4t\\_e/aid4trade\\_e.htm](http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/devel_e/a4t_e/aid4trade_e.htm)
- <sup>101</sup> A WTO Task Force was established which identified six categories of AfT, namely: trade policy and regulations; trade development; trade-related infrastructure; building productive capacity (including private sector development); trade-related adjustment (including support for adjustment associated with changes in international trade regimes), and other trade-related needs. In other words, aid is divided into two main categories: aid directly helping developing countries formulate and implement trade policies and practice; and aid supporting developing countries' wider economic capacity to trade, e.g. invest in infrastructure and productive sectors.
- <sup>102</sup> *Aid for Trade: A gender dimension*, Powerpoint presentation by F. Lammersen, OECD, Gendernet 8<sup>th</sup> meeting, 17 June 2010, <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/57/8/45523507.pdf>
- <sup>103</sup> The ITC and the WTO organized on 25 October 2010 an Expert Round Table on *The Gender Dimension of Aid for Trade* where a number of case studies were presented. See: <http://www.intracen.org/womenandtrade/expert-round-table.htm>
- <sup>104</sup> Available at: <http://www.undg.org/index.cfm?P=222>; [http://www.undg.org/docs/11096/How-to-Prepare-an-UNDAF-\(Part-I\).pdf](http://www.undg.org/docs/11096/How-to-Prepare-an-UNDAF-(Part-I).pdf); and <http://www.undg.org/docs/11190/UNDAF-Guidance-Principles.pdf>
- <sup>105</sup> The Enhanced Integrated Framework (EIF) for Trade-Related Technical Assistance to Least-Developed Countries (LDC) was established by IMF, ITC, UNCTAD, UNDP, World Bank and the WTO in 1997 to support LDC governments in trade capacity building and in integrating trade issues into overall national development strategies. See, <http://www.integratedframework.org>
- <sup>106</sup> The Paris Declaration, endorsed in March 2005, establishes commitments for donor and partner countries to support more effective official development assistance (ODA) in a context of significant scaling up of aid. The intention is to reform the delivery and management of aid in order to improve its effectiveness and achieve development results. Gender equality and women's empowerment are fundamental cornerstones for achieving development results and the ultimate goals of the Paris Declaration: to increase the impact of aid on reducing poverty and inequality, increase growth, build capacity and accelerate achievement of the MDGs. The Paris Declaration commitments also provide opportunities to advance gender equality and women's empowerment. Concrete measures, however, are needed to ensure that the changed modalities address — not reinforce existing gender inequalities. OECD (2008), *Gender Equality, Women's Empowerment and the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness - Issues Brief 2*, <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/0/41/41050659.pdf>
- <sup>107</sup> World Bank (2004). "The Impact of International Trade on Gender Equality". PREM NOTES Number 86. Available at: <http://www1.worldbank.org/prem/PREMNotes/premnote86.pdf>.



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## Annex

### UN Resolutions, UN Official Documents, Publications and Websites

#### *Related UN Resolutions, UN Official Documents, Publications and Websites on Globalization, Trade Liberalization and their Implications for Development and Gender Equality*

- Follow-up to the Fourth World Conference on Women and full implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action and the outcome of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly ([A/RES/64/141](#)). 2010
- Women in Development ([A/RES/64/217](#)). 2009
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women 2009
- Women in development (A/RES/62/206). 2008
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (A/RES/62/218). 2007
- Women in development: 2007 ([A/62/187](#))
- Review of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, the outcomes of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly and its contribution to shaping a gender perspective towards the full realization of the Millennium Development Goals: 2010 ([E/2010/4](#))
- Integrating a gendered perspective into national development strategies: 2009 ([A/64/162](#))
- UN: United Nations Inter-agency and Expert Group on the MDG Indicators  
The Millennium Development Goals Report 2010  
[http://mdqs.un.org/unsd/mdq/Resources/Static/Products/Progress2010/MDG\\_Report\\_2010\\_En.pdf](http://mdqs.un.org/unsd/mdq/Resources/Static/Products/Progress2010/MDG_Report_2010_En.pdf)
- **UNDESA: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW)**  
2009 World Survey on the Role of Women in Development  
<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/public/WorldSurvey2009.pdf>  
Rethinking Poverty: Report on the World Social Situation 2010  
<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/rwss/docs/2010/fullreport.pdf>
- **UNECA: UN Economic Commission for Africa**  
*African Women's Report 2009: Measuring Gender Inequality in Africa: Experiences and Lessons from the Africa Gender and Development Index*  
[http://www.uneca.org/eca\\_resources/Publications/books/awr/index.htm](http://www.uneca.org/eca_resources/Publications/books/awr/index.htm)  
*E-network of national Gender Equality Mechanisms in Africa NFMnet-Africa Information Portal*  
<http://www.uneca.org/daweca/index.asp>  
*Assessing Regional Integration in Africa - Enhancing Intra-African Trade*, 2010, Chapter 5: Informal Trade in Africa,  
<http://www.uneca.org/aria4/ARIA4Full.pdf>
- **UNECE: UN Economic Commission for Europe**  
The Knowledge Hub on the Economics of Gender <http://www.unece.org/gender/Welcome.html>  
[http://www.unece.org/gender/Knowledge\\_Hub\\_EconomicsOfGender.html](http://www.unece.org/gender/Knowledge_Hub_EconomicsOfGender.html)
- **UNECE and World Bank Institute**  
Developing Gender Statistics: A Practical Tool, 2010, <http://www.unece.org/stats/publ.htm>  
*Mainstreaming Gender into Economic Policy to Reach the Millennium Development Goals in Central Asia*  
[http://www.unece.org/gender/DA\\_Project/Stocktaking\\_draft\\_last.pdf](http://www.unece.org/gender/DA_Project/Stocktaking_draft_last.pdf)
- **UNECLAC: UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean**  
*Time for Equality: Closing Gaps, Opening Trails*, 2010,  
[http://www.eclac.cl/publicaciones/xml/1/39711/100604\\_2010-115-SES-33-3-Time\\_for\\_equality\\_doc\\_completo.pdf](http://www.eclac.cl/publicaciones/xml/1/39711/100604_2010-115-SES-33-3-Time_for_equality_doc_completo.pdf)  
*Social Panorama of Latin America 2009*  
<http://www.eclac.org/cgi-bin/getProd.asp?xml=/publicaciones/xml/0/37840/P37840.xml&xsl=/dds/tpl-i/p9f.xsl&base=/tpl-i/top-bottom.xslt>  
*Mainstreaming the gender perspective in regional development: Activities carried out by the secretariat of the ECLAC 2007-2010*, [http://www.eclac.org/publicaciones/xml/3/39943/Report\\_Activities.pdf](http://www.eclac.org/publicaciones/xml/3/39943/Report_Activities.pdf)
- **UNESCAP: UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific**  
Trade and Gender Linkages Capacity Building Materials, 2010,  
<http://www.unescap.org/tid/artnet/mtg/tradegender.asp>  
Asia-Pacific Research and Training Network on Trade (ARTNeT), Alert on Emerging Policy Changes, *Can trade*

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*policies promote gender equality? Exploring the Trade – Growth – Gender Nexus*, 2010,  
<http://www.unescap.org/tid/artnet/pub/alert7.pdf>

*Economic and Social Survey of Asia and the Pacific 2007*  
<http://www.unescap.org/publications/detail.asp?id=1205>

- **UNDP: UN Development Programme-**

*Taxation*, Issues Brief, Gender Equality and Poverty Reduction Series, Issue 1, April 2010.

<http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/download/publication/?version=live&id=2560235>

*Human Development Reports 2009 - Overcoming barriers: Human mobility and development*

<http://hdr.undp.org/en/reports/global/hdr2009/>

*Unpaid Care Work*, Policy Brief, Gender Equality and Poverty Reduction Series, Issue 1, October 2009.

[http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/stream/asset/?asset\\_id=2560955](http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/stream/asset/?asset_id=2560955)

*Innovative Approaches to Promoting Women's Economic Empowerment*, 2008, [http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/stream/asset/?asset\\_id=2524504](http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/stream/asset/?asset_id=2524504)

*Empowered and Equal: Gender Equality Strategy 2008-2011*, 2008, <http://www.undp.org/women/docs/Gender-Equality-Strategy-2008-2011.pdf>

*Gender and Poverty*, 2001, <http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/download/publication/?version=live&id=1851054>

Asia-Pacific Capacity Development on Gender and Macroeconomic Issues, [http://asia-pacific.undp.org/practices/poverty\\_reduction/Asia-Pacific\\_GEM.html](http://asia-pacific.undp.org/practices/poverty_reduction/Asia-Pacific_GEM.html)

- **UNIFEM: UN Fund for Women (part of UN Women)**

*Unleashing the Potential of Women Informal Cross Border Traders to Transform Intra-African Trade*, Factsheet, 2010.

- **UNRISD: UN Research Institute for Social Development**

*Combating Poverty and Inequality*, 2010,

<http://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9/search/BBA20D83E347DBAFC125778200440AA7?OpenDocument>

- **ILO: International Labour Organization**

*Employment policies for social justice and fair globalization*, Report IV to the 2010 International Labour Conference, [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed\\_norm/---relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms\\_126682.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_126682.pdf)

- **ITC: International Trade Centre-** <http://www.intracen.org/womenandtrade/>

International Trade Forum- Theme: Women in Economy

*Empowering Women- Powering Trade* [www.intracen.org/womenandtrade/documents](http://www.intracen.org/womenandtrade/documents)

*Innovations in Export Strategies Gender Equality, Export Performance and Competitiveness:*

*The Gender dimension of export strategy*, [www.intracen.org/wedf/ef2008/Montreux/PDFS/Gender-dimension-of-export-strategy.pdf](http://www.intracen.org/wedf/ef2008/Montreux/PDFS/Gender-dimension-of-export-strategy.pdf)

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## **Related UN Resolutions, UN Official Documents, Publications and Websites on Gender Equality in Labour Markets and Small-scale Enterprises**

- **ILO: International Labour Organization:** <http://www.ilo.org/dyn/gender/gender.home>

*Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges*, 2010,

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