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GENDER TRAINING HANDBOOK: **Integrating Gender into Trade and Economic Growth Programs and Analysis**

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A. Background and Handbook Organization

USAID/Bangladesh has had a strong commitment to gender integration over the last five years. The Mission's Strategic Plan for FY 2000-2005 had a Women in Development (WID) Objective. It supported the Mission's overall program goal of sustainable poverty reduction in Bangladesh and stressed the empowerment of women. Each Strategic Objective (SO), to a greater or lesser degree, either involved one or more specific interventions with women, and/or is projected to have a positive impact on their status.¹ Accordingly, the Mission had a WID Officer, established a Gender Working Group across all Mission teams and conducted a Gender Audit. The new USAID/Bangladesh Strategic Plan FY 2006-2010 adopts gender as a cross-cutting theme for three Strategic Objectives (SOs). SO11 focuses on more effective and responsive democratic institutions and practices. SO12 emphasizes expanded economic opportunities created through equitable economic growth. SO13 directs efforts towards a healthier, better educated and more productive population. Gender is also a critical element of SO14, improved food security and disaster mitigation, preparedness and relief.

This Gender Training Handbook, prepared by the Greater Access to Trade Expansion (GATE) Project, supports the Mission's (and USAID's) commitment to gender integration, specifically for activities related to Economic Growth and Trade. Trade capacity building has increasingly become an area of assistance for USAID. However, to date, there has not been much attention to gender issues related to trade. This Handbook is primarily designed to complement and augment the October 17-18, 2005 training on integrating gender into economic growth activities. This Handbook is designed to go beyond the training and provide Mission staff with additional knowledge, skills and ideas to develop appropriate program interventions to meet gender-related targets. The goal is to help Mission staff understand how they can design USAID programming to enhance the abilities of men and women, including the poorest citizens, to pro-actively seize the new opportunities presented by trade and economic growth activities.

The handbook is organized in the following manner: Part A provides an overview of Bangladesh's economic indicators. Part B outlines key gender considerations for economic growth and trade in Bangladesh. Part C presents a series of matrices to be used in analyzing the gender-differentiated impacts of global trade policies. Part D lays out ways to more effectively integrate gender considerations into economic growth and trade project and activity designs. Part E concludes by summarizing the crux of the handbook.

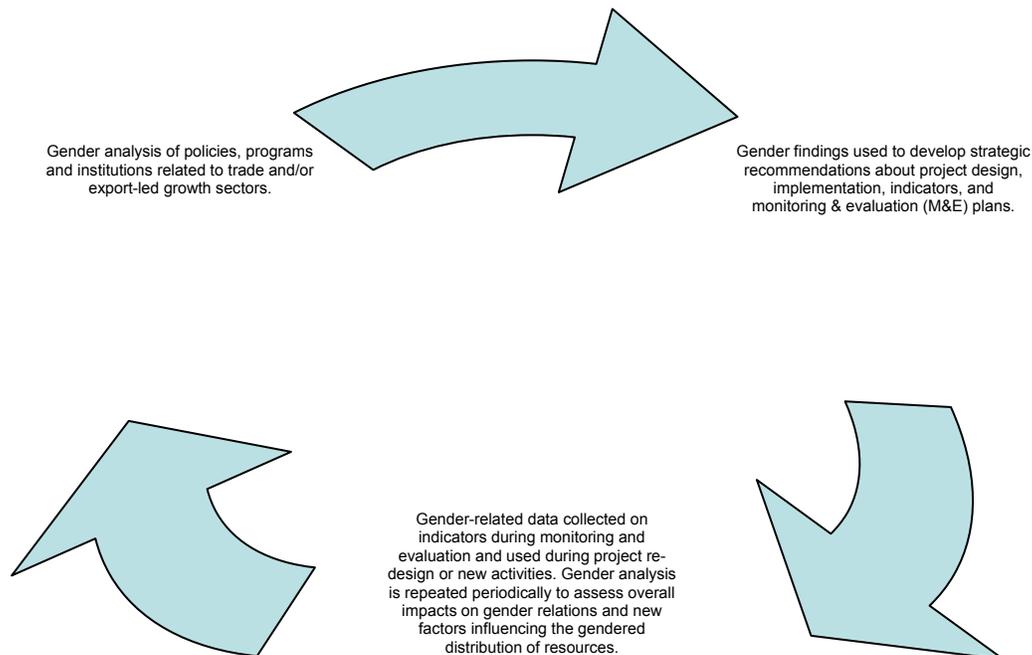
The steps for gender integration in economic growth and trade activities include:

1. Conducting a sectoral gender and trade analysis.
2. Translating the gender analysis data into recommendations for the project's design, implementation, monitoring and allocation of resources.

¹ USAID Strategic Plan FY 2000-2005, Gender Analysis, Page 2.

3. Developing quantitative, qualitative and process-oriented indicators which measure the successful integration of gender into the project.
4. Using indicators and monitoring data to inform the next stage of project or project redesign and/or to update findings from the sectoral gender and trade analysis.

This cycle is illustrated below:



Bangladesh Overview: Linkages Among Economic Growth, Trade, Equity, Gender and Social Issues

Since the early 1970s, Bangladesh's rate of poverty has declined from approximately 70 percent to 40 percent today.² The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth has been positive and sustained. The Government of Bangladesh (GOB) has increasingly integrated its economy into the global economy via multilateral, regional, and bilateral trade and investment agreements. Concomitantly, the GOB has pursued an export-led growth strategy in agriculture, ready-made garments and other commodities. It has also supported and promoted small enterprise development and enacted a series of financial policy reforms.

However, Bangladesh's economy must grow at seven to eight percent annually (USAID/Bangladesh 2000) to continue its climb from widespread poverty and ensure that the growth of its labor force does not outstrip job creation. Over the next few years, the potential labor force is expected to grow by approximately one million new entrants per year (USAID/Bangladesh 2000). The end of the Multi-Fiber Agreement (MFA) will result in closures of some smaller textile companies and rising unemployment,

² USAID/Bangladesh Strategic Plan FY 2000-FY2005: A Focus on Sustainable Growth, June 15, 2000.

particularly for the large numbers of women employed in these businesses. In addition, there is now intensified competition between Bangladesh, India, China and other countries which are engaged in labor-intensive, low-cost garment production. Other problems constraining economic growth include corruption, lack of access to electricity, roads, and other infrastructure.

While Bangladesh has achieved impressive results in reducing poverty since independence, increasing income inequality has accompanied economic growth. At present, 80 percent of the nation's poor reside in the rural areas³ and rural women are often the poorest of the poor. The average income of female-headed households in rural areas was 35 percent lower than that of male-headed households.⁴ Lacking opportunities in the rural areas, rural men and women have moved to urban areas where they often end up working in the large informal sector as rickshaw drivers, domestic servants, or food sellers. Many rural women migrate to urban areas to work in the Ready-Made Garment (RMG) industry, assembling clothing for export abroad. Women are 80 percent of the 1.8 million workers in the sector although women are virtually absent from managerial or supervisory positions within the industry.⁵ Throughout the labor force, the International Labor Organization (ILO) estimates that Bangladesh women receive wages that are one-third less than men's wages.⁶

There are important social and economic costs to inequality. Lacking opportunity, frustrated citizens may turn to ideological extremism, terrorism, or undemocratic organizations for answers. Providing opportunities for the poor to lift their families out of poverty via pro-poor growth initiatives, as well as providing opportunities for women to more fully participate within society as entrepreneurs, producers, and workers will help Bangladesh realize its economic and social potential.

Economic inequality for men and women is evident in many economic sectors in Bangladesh. There are too few opportunities for women to gain secure, well-paying jobs, particularly in the rural areas. Employed Bangladeshi women work primarily in the informal sector and their jobs are often insecure. They are more often under-employed and typically underpaid. They tend to be concentrated and segregated in certain labor-intensive, export-led sectors, such as the Ready-Made Garment sector. Poor working women are concentrated in a narrow range of occupations including domestic service, and garment work. Women are actively excluded from, and sometimes self-exclude themselves from occupations in the transport, skilled craftwork, service and retail sectors⁷. If women are constrained from entering certain job markets or earning an income, this situation compounds a series of allocative and distributional inefficiencies that are likely to limit investment in women's human capital and constrain medium-term

³ USAID/Bangladesh Strategic Plan FY 2000-FY2005: A Focus on Sustainable Growth, June 15, 2000.

⁴ Asian Development Bank, "Bangladesh Gender Country Strategy," 2004, <http://www.adb.org>

⁵ Asian Development Bank, "Bangladesh Gender Country Strategy," 2004, <http://www.adb.org>

⁶ Asian Development Bank, "Bangladesh Gender Country Strategy," 2004, <http://www.adb.org>

⁷ Salway, Sarah, Sonia Jesmin and Shahana Rahman "Women's Employment in Urban Bangladesh: A Challenge to Gender Identity?" *Development and Change* 36(2): 317-349 (2005); Institute of Social Studies, Oxford, UK.

growth.⁸ In addition, for Bangladesh to achieve the level of growth needed to reduce poverty, labor must be deployed efficiently. If gender bias leads to adverse selection, meaning that a worker is not hired due to sex-based discrimination, then the labor force is not functioning efficiently.

Besides expanding Bangladesh's economy and contribution to trade, the full participation of Bangladeshi women in economic growth can also generate multiple benefits in terms of human capital development and supporting democratic governance. For example, numerous studies have demonstrated that women's income is more often spent on expenses related to their children and households rather than personal consumption. Bangladeshi female-headed households (FHH) with lower incomes than male-headed households (MHH) still spend more on food and medical care than better-off male-headed households.⁹ Children from poorer FHHs in Bangladesh tend to be better nourished than children from less poor MHHs.¹⁰ Similarly, other research in Bangladesh found that for every 100 taka lent to a woman, household consumption increases by 18 taka as opposed to an 11 taka increase in consumption for every 100 taka lent to men.¹¹ In addition, Bangladeshi women's participation in the labor force can lead to positive changes in women's lives such as improved bargaining within the household, increased access to information, increased self-esteem and autonomy and increased involvement in community decision-making.¹²

B. Key Gender Issues for Economic Growth and Trade in Bangladesh

Since Independence, the GOB has moved from a nationalized economy to today's market-led, globally integrated economy. Since 1992, Bangladesh has liberalized its trading regime by greatly reducing tariffs and eliminating some quantitative restrictions on imports.¹³ For example, the number of tariff bands has fallen from 15 in 1992/3 to 5 in 2003, and the maximum tariff rate has fallen from an average of 300 percent to 37.5 percent.¹⁴ In 1995, Bangladesh joined the World Trade Organization (WTO). As part of the Bangladeshi commitments to the WTO, the government currently operates a customs tariff that is the principal source of government revenue, accounting for nearly one third of total taxes.

As Bangladesh opens its economy to trade and signs on to regional and international trade and investment agreements, the fluctuations in the global market for Bangladeshi

⁸ See for example Tzannatos (1999) and Findlay (1995).

⁹ Asian Development Bank "Country Gender Strategy, 2004" <http://www.adb.org>.

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ Smith et al. "The Importance of Women's Status for Child Nutrition in Developing Countries" in Quisumbing, Agnes (ed.) Household Decisions, Gender and Development: A Synthesis of Recent Research, International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, DC, 2003.

¹² Salway, Sarah, Sonia Jesmin and Shahana Rahman "Women's Employment in Urban Bangladesh: A Challenge to Gender Identity?" Development and Change 36(2): 317-349 (2005); Institute of Social Studies, Oxford, UK.

¹³ World Trade Organization, 2000 <http://www.wto.org>.

¹⁴ WTO (2000) "Trade Policy Review, Bangladesh" Report by the Secretariat to the World Trade Organization, WT/TRP/S/68, 3 April 2000.

export commodities are likely to radiate quickly through the economy. These fluctuations will affect exporters, laborers, and producers. A number of variables influence the ways in which Bangladeshis will be affected: where they live (urban or rural area); whether their employment is in the formal or informal sector, whether they are owners or laborers; whether they are Muslim or Hindu in some regions of Bangladesh; and, whether they are male or female.

Most trade regulations and analyses erroneously presume that trade issues are gender-neutral but even seemingly neutral market mechanisms and macroeconomic policies can often reinforce social biases and inequalities. When new trade policies produce changes in employment, price, income, and consumption patterns, men and women can be affected differently. Most trade liberalization does not occur without adjustment costs (see Box 1):

- Trade agreements may directly change the types of work available for women, as well as the conditions and wages for work. While some trade agreements have perpetuated or exacerbated existing gender-based disparities, there is also potential to create new employment and livelihood options for women. For example, women have gained new jobs in the agro-processing industry, providing new employment options for women in rural areas. At the same time, the removal of tariffs and quotas may expose previously protected sectors to competition and open up new areas to trade (see Box 2).

Box 1: Trade Terms

Trade liberalization is the reduction of tariffs and removal or relaxation of non-tariff barriers.

Trade policy is formed as the result of a political process. Governments, often working through their Foreign Ministries or Commerce Ministries, negotiate national commitments to open domestic markets to foreign investors in exchange for reciprocal commitments from other governments. These trade and investment policies are codified in binding bilateral, regional and multi-lateral trade agreements. The commitments may lead to changes in tariff levels, national regulations and domestic policies. Many trade agreements also define a process for resolving trade disputes between countries.

Trade integration is the broader economic process of increasing exchanges with other countries. It includes expanded trading with other countries, greater foreign investment, as well as the increased flow of labor, technology and communication across national boundaries.

- Trade policies may cause prices for goods and services to increase or decrease. These price changes will affect household consumption as well as the time needed to earn funds to purchase the household items or find replacements. If these items are cheaper, then consumers and households may benefit. If prices increase, women may increase their labor to pay for the higher-priced goods or spend more time to procure substitutes since they are generally expected to manage the household budget.
- Moreover, trade agreements may indirectly affect women's lives by contributing to changes in infrastructure, government provisioning of services such as health care

Box 2: Liberalized Import Policies Affect Women's Livelihoods Too

In India, women gum collectors found their livelihoods threatened by competition from large-scale imports of cheap gum from Sudan. India had cut its tariffs on gum, making Sudanese gum cheaper than locally-collected gum.

and education, and a reduction in trade tariffs which may alter a government's budget and spending.

There are many factors which may limit women's ability to benefit from global trade and economic integration, including:

- **Poverty**

While not all women are poor, they are disproportionately represented among the poorest

socioeconomic classes worldwide. This pattern reflects overt and covert social and cultural discrimination, which limits women's access to education, technological training, information, labor, credit, and land.

- **Social and cultural discrimination**

Social norms proscribe women's and men's opportunities to engage in economic activities and engage in public life. Access to land and credit is often gender-based, with men inheriting land and title rather than women. Inheritance laws often favor men and boys, leaving women and girls with few assets or collateral for loans.

Among other factors, mobility norms for women have a number of serious economic consequences.

- In Bangladesh, women's post-harvest activities contribute 50 percent of value to crop produce. However, the gender division of labor restricts women's mobility. Accordingly, social norms inhibit women from taking their produce to market, and interacting in public with unrelated men. They must rely on male family members to go to the market or on middlemen to come to their houses and buy their produce. Women are dependent upon others to sell for them and this situation puts women at a disadvantage in negotiating prices with middlemen or their relatives.¹⁵

- **Class, ethnicity, religion and geography**

Women (and men) are heterogeneous groups. These factors affect the ways in which women participate in the local, national, or global economy. Even issues such as mobility and transport will vary for women from different socio-economic classes. Religious and ethnic minorities often have fewer social and economic opportunities, and women in these groups often have even further reduced options due to language, gender bias and other issues. Women in urban and rural areas have different types of employment options available to them. For example, poverty-stricken urban women may find work as domestic servants or in the garment factories, while rural women are often employed as agricultural workers.

- Tribal women in the Chittagong Hill tracts, for example, are more involved in household decision-making than their Bengali counterparts. However,

¹⁵ Asian Development Bank, Bangladesh Resident Mission "Bangladesh: Gender, Poverty, and the MDGs," Manila, Philippines, 2004.

the tribal women live in isolated communities with few available services so they suffer from limited access to or opportunity for economic growth.¹⁶ Furthermore, indigenous women often face additional socio-cultural barriers to participating in the global economy.

- **Discrimination in employment and wages**

“Adverse selection” means that women are not hired for certain jobs, despite their qualifications. In many places, women are often considered “secondary” wage earners and employers do not always recognize women’s role in supporting their families economically. Women often earn lower wages than men for the same or similar types of jobs, and are usually the last workers hired and the first fired.

- A large gender gap in wages exists between Bangladeshi men and women in comparable occupations. Between 1991-2000 nearly 42 percent of Bangladeshi women earned less than 750 taka per month compared to 7.3 percent of men, and nearly 72 percent of women were earning less than 1500 taka per month compared to 26 percent of men.¹⁷

- **Child-bearing and Other Caring Responsibilities**

Women still do the bulk of “reproductive” work for their households. This category includes unpaid household and family maintenance work that women perform within societies, such as caring for their families, preparing meals, and keeping the household clean and functioning. Because of the labor that women devote to these tasks, they generally have less leisure time than men. This situation is referred to as “time-poverty.” Women’s “invisible” work also means that they have less time to gain new job skills or seek new jobs. The undervaluing of women’s labor also translates into women’s difficulty in commanding equal wages for equal work. Women more often work in the informal sector, due in part to the lack of opportunities in the formal sector, and also because it more readily enables them to combine income-generating opportunities with their household responsibilities.

Because of women’s primary role as caregivers, their consumption and expenditure patterns may differ from those of men. Household resources, including food, may be prioritized for wage earners, frequently men or boys. Furthermore, changes in the price of food, education expenses, or health care provision may affect women more than men given that women are typically responsible for these expenses. When prices rise or service provisions decline, women may be required to compensate by expanding their role as caregivers by purchasing food that requires more time to prepare, or tending to ill family members rather than paying user fees for health care services.

C. A Gender Analytical Framework for Trade and Economic Growth Activities (GAF-TEGA)

¹⁶ Asian Development Bank, Bangladesh Resident Mission “Bangladesh: Gender, Poverty, and the MDGs,” Manila, Philippines, 2004.

¹⁷ Asian Development Bank, Bangladesh Resident Mission “Bangladesh: Gender, Poverty, and the MDGs,” Manila, Philippines, 2004.

Analytical frameworks guide gender analyses in all sectors. Different gender specialists may ask a similar set of analytical questions but their approaches for collecting that data may differ. For example, a gender economist is likely to use more quantitative approaches than a gender sociologist (see Box 3).

Box 3: Methods of Gender Analysis

- **Survey instruments:** Surveys can be constructed and delivered to male and female stakeholders to inform project teams of the participants priorities and interests, time-use, personal networks, and material, social, and knowledge resources. Surveys should be designed to include both men and women and draw out factors related to gender. Surveys can be quantitative or qualitative.
- **Focus Groups:** Focus groups assemble men and women to discuss their priorities, interests, time-use, personal networks and knowledge. To gather the diverse perspectives, interviewers should consider whether to interview men and women in single sex or mixed groups; if heterogeneous or homogeneous groupings by age will affect the answers of different participants; and if the language used will affect participation if some participants are not fluent in that language.
- **Economic Data and National Statistics:** By analyzing sex-disaggregated micro and macro-economic data as well as national statistics on social development, labor force participation and segmentation, incomes, poverty rates, educational attainment, health status, legal status, judicial access, and political participation, the SO team can draw important conclusions about key gender differences to be addressed when developing program objectives and activities.

As described below, GAF-TEGA lays out key trade and gender issues and provides research questions for key sub-sectors related to economic growth and trade. It is intended to guide USAID staff and partners in identifying critical issues and developing three types of Scopes of Work. The first type is a scope of work for a gender expert working on other economic growth and trade issues. For the second type, gender is included as one dimension of a larger scope of work focused on economic growth and trade. For the third type, gender and economic growth and trade issues are part of a scope of work on another development sector such as democracy-governance, health, etc.

GAF-TEGA General Overview

Men and women are likely to be affected differently by trade agreements, depending on their employment status, the degree of labor market segmentation and gender segregation, and the extent to which roles and responsibilities in the household sector are gender defined. Trade agreements legally bind countries to new rules and commitments related to tariff levels, quotas, investment incentives, the opening of previously closed sectors to foreign investment, adjudication of disputes and the process of dealing with domestic regulations that impinge upon trade. These commitments, in turn, affect the prices of goods, the value of labor, and employment. Changes in prices and employment may alter a household's level of consumption. The macroeconomic policies trigger changes which ripple throughout the meso- and micro-levels.

Trade policies produce the following four types of changes (price effects, labor composition effects, terms and conditions of labor effects, and consumption effects):

1. *Price Effects.* Trade policies may change the prices of goods and services. Cheaper foreign goods may enter local markets. This increase in choices and lower prices may benefit households. At the same time, local producers may suffer if they cannot compete with an influx of cheaper, similar goods. Women in those households may need to increase their paid and/or unpaid work to offset the loss of household income.

2. *Labor Composition Effects.* Trade affects sectors and individuals employed in these sectors differently. The employment effects of trade liberalization depend upon the extent to which those activities are disproportionately affected by the expansion and contraction of trade. The gender effects depend upon the composition of the sector. If the sector predominately employs women and is expected to expand, women may stand to gain. On the other hand, if a sector that primarily employs women is expected to contract, then women are more likely to be affected adversely (see Box 4).

Box 4: Labor-Related Impacts of Free Trade

In the early 1990s, the Government of Jamaica invested in developing Free Trade Zones (FTZs) as a way to generate employment for low-income Jamaicans. The FTZs were located in Kingston and Montego Bay. By 1995, young women constituted 90 percent of the FTZ labor force and FTZ employment for women peaked in that year to more than 36,000 women. However, as a result of the passage of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) in 1995, U.S. companies relocated from Jamaica to Mexico to maximize profits. Jamaica's exports to the U.S. declined by 12 percent in 1996 while Mexico's grew by 40 percent in that same period. Between 1995 and 1997, Jamaica lost 16,000 jobs in the FTZs.¹

Composition effects are often complex and contradictory. The ability of foreign investors to easily move capital and production means that investors may relocate from one country to another if they can increase their profits by lowering labor and/or transportation costs, accruing additional tax incentives, or reducing their regulatory burdens. As a result women workers in one country may gain, while those in another country may stand to lose.

3. *Terms and Conditions of Labor.* Even if trade creates new employment opportunities for women, as in the export-led industries, it does not always follow that women are better-off in these new jobs. For one thing, unlike similar jobs in developed countries, when manufacturing and other labor-intensive jobs relocate to developing countries, this type of employment is often irregular, informal, and unregulated. Moreover, it does not necessarily follow that wages will rise as the sector gains and generates greater export revenues. In countries that have large labor supplies and high employment, or under-employment, wages may not increase. Similarly, in sectors where worker bargaining power is weak, workers are less likely to see their wages rise as production expands and export revenue increases. For example, in the Mexican *maquilas*, real average daily earnings declined by 40 percent between 1980

and 1998 while employment in the sector increased fourfold (Fleck 2001).¹⁸ Even if new job opportunities increase a household's consumption, the job may increase the number of hours women spend on both paid and unpaid work without complementary measures being provided, such as child care, transportation, health and occupational safety standards, etc.

4. *Consumption Effects.* Changes in absolute and relative prices will affect consumption decisions in the goods market.¹⁹ There is evidence that liberalization has been associated with a dramatic rise in imports in many countries. The greater penetration of imports is also associated with changing consumption patterns. In countries as different as Haiti and Senegal, food imports have risen and cheaper foodstuffs have been made available to domestic consumers. Changes in household consumption brought about by changes in relative prices or changes in wages and incomes are not necessarily gender neutral. In countries where there is a marked gender division of labor, where women work largely within the household and men work outside of the household, wage earners may be prioritized over non-wage earners if the household must adjust to reduced consumption of a particular item or service.

GAF-TEGA Common Questions and Sources

There are ten common questions for the GAF-TEGA that apply to all economic sectors and should be part of basic gender analyses conducted for economic growth and trade activities:

1. How has the country's dependency on imported foodstuffs risen?
2. How have retail prices changed?
3. How have price changes affected consumers and producers differently, including urban and rural differences?
4. In what ways have the changes in prices or wages affected real household income?
5. In what ways have the changes in prices or wages affected real household expenditures?
6. In what ways have women's and men's individual expenditures changed?
7. How have the changes in prices, wages, or output affected labor supply?
8. How have the changes in prices, wages, or output affected time and task allocation in the unpaid/household sector?
9. How have changes in time and task allocations affected women's and men's time burdens for work?

¹⁸ Average daily minimum real wages declined by 68 percent over the same period in Mexico. Real wages in manufacturing declined on average by 60 percent. Consequently, workers in the *maquila* sector fared comparatively better than workers in minimum wage employment and comparatively worse than the average worker in manufacturing employment (INEGI 2001; IFS 2000; Alcalde *et al.* 2000).

¹⁹ Consumption effects can also be brought about by changes in real income. What is of interest is how the consumer responds to changes that affect their purchasing power and their choice of consumer goods. It is worthwhile noting that changes in relative prices are also likely to affect individual and household savings and investment behavior.

10. How have changes in time and task allocations affected women’s and men’s “consumption of leisure”?

The GAF-TEGA questions can often be answered using secondary data sources. By pulling together various data and applying a gender analysis, staff can increase their understanding about gender-specific changes in the economy. This information can be used to develop new activities under each Mission program component. Table 1 below includes a list of secondary sources for use in a GAF-TEGA.

Table 1: Secondary Data Sources for Economic Growth/Trade Gender Analyses

Data Source	Poverty and Inequality	Food Security	Health and Demographics	Education	Labor Markets
National Household Survey Data	X		X	X	X
National Labor Force Surveys		X			X
Data from National Education Ministries				X	
Data from National Accounts				X	
National Health Care Agencies Data			X		
World Bank Living Standards Measurement Study (LSMS)	X	X	X	X	X
World Bank, World Development Indicators			X	X	X
Demographic and Health Surveys		X	X		
ILO health data on occupational injuries					X

GAF-TEGA Sectoral Matrices²⁰

Introduction

The matrices below can be used to analyze the gender-specific implications of trade policies in different economic sectors and each highlights specific topics that are negotiated within trade agreements. There are three matrices for traditional areas of trade negotiations, including agriculture and natural resources, manufacturing, and services. In addition, there is one other matrix that discusses a factor of production—labor (and leisure)—related to poverty.

Each matrix includes a brief overview of the topic that highlights the ways in which trade policies may affect that sector in general, as well as the gender-specific effects of trade liberalization. The suggested qualitative and quantitative data and indicators can be used to explicitly link changes in macroeconomic policies to the meso- and micro-levels in order to better understand the impacts of trade on poor men and women. As illustrated in Table 1, the data for the analysis is typically readily available and accessible. These types of analyses provide the basis for strategic and pragmatic policy and program recommendations that reduce disparities in men’s and women’s ability to gain from trade and strengthen gender equality.

²⁰ Adapted from Gammage, Sarah, Helene Jorgensen, Eugenia McGill, with Marceline White “The Trade Impact Review: Framework for Gender Assessments of Trade & Investment Agreements,” Women’s Edge Coalition, October 2002.

Gender Issues for Trade-Related Changes: Agriculture and Natural Resources

Overview

Trade policies often encourage countries to shift their agricultural production from staple foods crops to products for export. Export-led agriculture subjects basic commodities to the will of the market. If markets are flooded, this situation can lead to dramatic price fluctuations and devastatingly low prices on basic crops. In addition, small farmers may lose money on their crops if their input costs are too high compared to the prices they receive for the crops.

Women tend to have less control and use of land. In many parts of the world, land-use is determined by a women's relationship to a man. Even when women have access to land, they often farm smaller plots of poorer quality. These factors limit their ability to exploit the land for cash-crops which often require larger plots and good soil. For example, in Kenya, small-holders growing export vegetables were found to own twice as much and better quality land than those that did not, and their land was also more likely to be irrigated.²¹

Furthermore, many women produce domestic staples while men concentrate on cash crop production. The gendered nature of crop production may inadvertently reinforce gendered norms rather than provide new opportunities for men and women.

Sources:

Carswell, S. 2003. A Family Business: Women, Children, and Smallholder Sugar Cane Farming in Fiji. *Asia Pacific Viewpoint*, 44(2): 131-148. Blackwell Publishing.

FAO Trade Reforms and Food Security Project: Ghana, FAO Commodities and Trade Division, Rome 2003.

FAO Agricultural Transformation and Gender Considerations in Caribbean Economies, Working Paper, FAO, Rome 2003.

Jarvis, L. & E. Vera-Toscano. 2003. The Impact of Chilean Fruit Sector Development on Female Employment and Household Income. UC-Davis, Davis, California. USA.

White, M., C. Salas, and S. Gammage. 2003. "Trade Impact Review: Mexico Case Study—NAFTA and the FTAA: A Gender Analysis of Employment and Poverty Impacts on Agriculture. Women's Edge Coalition.

²¹ Kabeer, Naila "Gender Mainstreaming in Poverty Eradication and the Millennium Development Goals," London: Commonwealth Secretariat, 2003.

Sectoral Matrix 1: Gender and Trade Issues for the Agricultural and Natural Resources Sector

Trade Questions	Gender Questions	Gender and Trade Examples	Type of Indicators
Has employment in traded and non-traded agricultural production changed?	Do men and women control different household and farm resources?		Labor force survey data, disaggregated by sex. Household surveys of intra-household resources, disaggregated by sex.
Have large producers switched from staple crops to export crops? Have small producers?	Do women and men produce different crops?	In Tanzania, women produce vegetables and fruits while men produce grains (which have a higher value and are more durable). Therefore, men are more likely than women to gain from incentives to export cash crops.	Percentage of men and women employed in agriculture, disaggregated by sector and task.
Are the crops grown for export home-based production or do they require a lot of land?	Are there constraints that limit women's or men's productivity or time allocation on plots they cultivate?	In Mexico, the majority of women farmers own less than three hectares of land, making it unlikely they would be able to produce for the export market.	Ownership and size of land-holdings disaggregated by sex.
Have cheaper-priced imports been introduced into the market?	How would the introduction of cheaper products affect male and female producers?	South Africa promoted subsidies for its food producers, lowering production costs. As a result, cheap eggs flooded Kenya, benefiting consumers but harming Kenyan poultry producers, the majority of whom were women because it was a low-cost investment and could be done in the backyard, thus combined with household responsibilities	Changes in sales and production, disaggregated by sex of the producer.
Have new opportunities been created by increased trade? Have other jobs declined in terms of numbers or pay?	Has the sex composition of employment changed?	After the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), Mexican women gained 83 percent of the new jobs in agro-processing, however, they were paid 38 percent less than men.	Changes in labor force composition in sector, disaggregated by sex.

Gender Issues for Trade-Related Changes: Manufacturing

Overview

Trade agreements often include such policies as lowering export tariffs and removing restrictions that require capital to stay in the country for a certain length of time. To attract foreign investment, trade agreements often eliminate requirements to hire local workers, transfer technology, or invest in a local community. The establishment of Export-Processing Zones (EPZs) is another strategy governments employ to attract foreign investment. EPZs provide tax incentives and other financial benefits to companies that relocate production to the zones.

As countries move toward export-promotion, they do so by mainly relying on women's labor. In Latin America, women comprise 70-90 percent of workers in the EPZs, where they assemble garments, textiles, or electronics for export. Foreign firms prefer women workers, in part, because women will accept lower wages than men. Moreover, women tend to be willing to work under worse conditions than men (for lack of other alternatives). These workers earn as little as 56–77 cents an hour and often work 50–80 hours a week. Their wages often are not enough to provide food and shelter for a family. Women workers in many factories have reported physical abuse, sexual harassment and violence, and mandatory pregnancy testing as a condition for employment. Promotions to higher-skilled jobs are almost non-existent.

Despite these issues, manufacturing jobs offer new opportunities and increased autonomy for some women. Employment may reduce women's economic dependence on men. As a result, a woman may have more choices about whether to enter into or remain in a marriage and her status within the household may improve. In the longer term, employment for women may also shape parental attitudes toward girls when parents begin to perceive girls as an asset rather than as a financial burden. As a result, parents are more likely to send girls to school. It is also important to recognize that these gains for women may be offset by losses in another area. While a woman may benefit from a new source of income and status, her overall daily workload may also increase if her husband and others do not help to assume some of her household duties.

While global trade rules have created new jobs for women, sex-based discrimination is now leading to job losses for women EPZ workers. As export production becomes more specialized (and better paying), there is an increased supply of and demand for men's labor. In Mexico, the proportion of female workers in export manufacturing fell from 77 percent in 1982 to 60 percent in 1990. Without adequate training and support to upgrade women's skills, any benefits that women gain from this employment can be short-lived.

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Sectoral Matrix 2: Gender and Trade Issues for the Manufacturing Sector

Trade Questions	Gender Questions	Gender and Trade Examples	Type of Indicators
Are health, safety and labor regulations enforced?	Do men and women experience the same rate of injury and enjoy the same level of labor rights?	<p>In Kenya, if a woman goes on maternity leave, she loses her work number and if rehired, she starts off as a new employee, having lost all benefits for the period worked before her leave.</p> <p>A Pan-American Health Organization (PAHO) report on Nicaragua found that in 1999, 17 factories reported 1746 accidents. Approximately 66 percent of those injured were women.</p> <p>40 percent of women workers in the Free Trade Zones in the Dominican Republic reported experiencing sexual harassment at work.</p>	<p>Unionization rates disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Injury rates disaggregated by sex.</p>
Have wages risen or fallen in the industry?	Have real wages or relative wages by sex changed?	Evidence from Mexico for the garment sector indicates that real average daily earnings declined by 40 percent between 1980-1988, while employment increased fourfold.	Hourly wages by sex and occupation, annually.
Have the items produced for export led to new employment opportunities?	Has the sex composition of employment changed?	In Bangladesh, the ready-made garment (RMG) industry employs 1.8 million women workers - about 90 percent of the workers in the sector.	<p>Participation rates by sex.</p> <p>Sectoral participation by sex.</p>
Do women and men have the same opportunities for promotion?	Is there marked occupational segregation by sex?	In Bangladesh, women have few opportunities for promotion and are bypassed when new technologies are introduced.	Percentage of workers with pensions benefits disaggregated by sex.
	Has employment expanded or contracted for men and women in certain manufacturing sectors?	Formal employment in the garment industry has contracted in many countries, to be replaced by informal homeworkers often do piece work for lower pay and with more precarious job security.	Changes in labor force composition within the sector as well as occupation, disaggregated by sex.
	Are there changes in unemployment and underemployment by sex?	In South Africa, despite an increase in production, employment has fallen since the 1990s. Employment in spinning weaving and finishing activities (areas where women dominate) fell by 40 percent between 1996-1999.	Changes in unemployment and underemployment rates, disaggregated by sex.

Gender Issues for Trade-Related Changes: Services

Overview for Consumers of Services

Traditionally, such services as education and health care have been subsidized by the government or provided free of charge. Under trade liberalization, these social services are increasingly being privatized. Because women bear a greater responsibility for fees associated with health and education expenditures in many households worldwide, they are likely to bear a significant portion of the household costs associated with privatization.

In health care, privatization may lead to a two-tiered system of health care in low income countries: one excellent health care system for wealthy elites who can afford transnational corporations' prices; and another, low quality health care system for the poor. As household managers, women are responsible for ensuring that family members receive health care and medicine. For low-income women, privatizing health care by introducing user fees or fee-for-services may lead to an increase in maternal mortality rates, infant mortality rates, and a general decline in overall health. For example, in Zimbabwe, after the International Monetary Fund (IMF) required user fees on health care, maternal mortality increased. Pregnant women would not see doctors because they could not afford the fees. Privatizing healthcare may also increase time and caretaking burdens on women as the primary caregivers. Women may need to spend more time caring for ill family and community members if people defer visits to doctors due to increased costs.

Similarly, privatizing education may also lead to a two-tiered system for people in low-income countries and a loss of cultural diversity and culturally appropriate education may result if education is standardized and provided by foreign educational companies. Education plays a vital role in low-income countries. Reduction or elimination of school fees has often had a very beneficial effect on girls' education. At the same time, if fees are eliminated the revenues need to be replaced by other sustainable funding streams; if not educational systems run the risk of collapsing. For example, in Malawi, UNICEF reports that the elimination of school fees increased primary school enrollment by 50 percent from 1.9 million to 2.9 million, with girls as the main beneficiaries. Yet, when education is privatized, girl children may be the first withdrawn from school when families cannot pay user or book fees. Formal tuition fees are one facet of financing schools: indirect costs (such as the opportunity cost of lost labor) and other associated costs are also obstacles to sending children to school.

Educating girls and young women lead to better health and greater earnings. The better educated a young woman is, the better able she is to manage health problems, improve nutrition, and ensure that family members are properly diagnosed and treated. For example, Oxfam International notes that:

A child of a Zambian mother with a primary school education has a 25 percent higher chance of survival than the child of a mother with no education. Educating

girls and women enables them to earn more. In Bolivia, studies show that women who have completed primary school earn, on average, 38 percent more than women who did not finish their primary education.

In the informal sector, studies in Honduras, Guatemala, and El Salvador indicate that each additional year of education is linked to a 5 to 10 percent increase in earnings.

Overview for Workers in Service Sectors

In many countries, women workers constitute the majority of workers in the service sector. Multi-lateral, regional, and bilateral trade agreements promote increased foreign investment in the service sector which includes the provision of health care education, water, energy and environmental services. Services also include personal services, information and communication technology (ICT)-related services (data entry, medical transcription, as well as programmers and designers) and tourism. Technological advances have made it easy to send documents to another country for data entry and word processing, while lower wages in low-income countries make it more profitable for the sending firms. Throughout South East Asia, as well as in Jamaica, Brazil and India, female workers comprise a growing percentage of the service sector.

However, the types of positions that women gain, the level of pay, and the level of job security are inextricably linked to the volatility of the global marketplace and to women's status within their societies. When the Asian financial crisis began, women were the first workers fired in both the manufacturing and service sectors. Trade liberalization, privatization, and deregulation of services affect women workers who are employed in middle-class jobs in the education and health care sectors (see Box 5). Throughout the service sector, women are typically the first workers retrenched and the last to be hired for new positions. New jobs in the health sector tend to command lower wages and be increasingly casual, temporary or contractual, with few benefits.

Box 5: Gender Issues in the Service Sector

Although women are gaining jobs in a variety of service industries, including financial services, gender-based occupational segregation persists. In Brazil, close to 50 percent of bank employees are women. On average, the women have had more years of schooling than their male counterparts. However, nearly 70 percent of women have been relegated to jobs consisting of simple, repetitive, administrative tasks and they have fewer opportunities for career advancement.

In 1991, after agreeing to an IMF privatization plan, the Government of Nicaragua laid off government workers, particularly in the health and education fields. More than 70 percent of those laid-off were women.

The World Bank and IMF encourage governments in developing countries to cut their expenditures and turn over some of their functions (such as providing health care or education to citizens) to industries, civil society groups, or other organizations. Middle-class women are often employed in national ministries of education. Women work as teachers, administrators, and professors. When women lose jobs in these sectors, it is often difficult to find new jobs that offer similar wages and benefits. The same is true for women working in the health ministry and other government social sectors. These

agencies provide well-paying, secure jobs in low-income economies. When governments privatize health care as part of a trade package to recruit foreign investment, there are direct repercussions for women. For example, in Jamaica, women make up the majority of civil service professionals although many are employed as administrative and support staff. When the government of Jamaica imposed a wage-freeze for government workers in 2004, women were disproportionately affected (see Box 6).

Box 6: Brain Drain of Skilled Women Workers

Women nurses from Jamaica have been able to benefit from increased free trade by migrating to North America to obtain higher wages. But as nurses leave their home countries in search of better-paying jobs, low-income countries often are left with a “brain drain” as some of the most qualified workers move abroad. In Jamaica, 50 percent of nursing positions are left unfilled because of the migration of nurses to North America. The nurses still working in Jamaica are short-staffed and cannot provide sick patients with the time and attention they require. Consequently, the quality of health care in the country declined.

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Sectoral Matrix 3: Gender and Trade Issues for the Services Sector

Trade Questions	Gender Questions	Gender and Trade Examples	Type of Indicators
Has employment expanded or contracted in the service sector?	How many men and women gained/or lost jobs in the sector? Are there differences between men and women?	Women make up the majority of workers in the services sector in medium and high-income countries.	Changes in labor composition of the sector, disaggregated by sex and segment of the sector.
What types of jobs are being created in the sector?	Is there marked occupational segregation by sex?	In Jamaica, just over 80 percent of employees in infant, primary and secondary schools were female.	Data on labor force surveys, disaggregated by occupation and by sex.
Is unemployment or underemployment changing in the sector?	Are there changes in unemployment and underemployment by sex?	In 2001, 84 percent of employed women and 45.3 percent of employed men were working in services in Jamaica.	Sectoral breakdowns of participation by sex.
Have real or relative wages increased or fallen in the sector?	Have real wages or relative wages by sex changed?		Data on real and relative wages, disaggregated by sex and sector.

Gender Issues for Trade-Related Changes: Issues Related to Labor and Leisure

Overview

While trade may open up new sectors for employment and may generate new opportunities, it also has the potential to displace workers and producers. Without careful consideration to issues of timing and sequencing of reforms, the gains from trade may not reach the poor, who may lack the skills to enter emerging sectors. Concomitantly, a reduction in trade taxes may affect government spending on human capital development, while an influx in lower-priced goods may adversely affect the livelihoods of small rural producers. For women, these impacts may be even more pronounced, particularly if socio-cultural norms circumscribe women's full participation in the economy. Timing, transitions and livelihood strategies are important to consider when assessing whether trade and macro-economic growth strategies have benefited poor producers, business owners, workers, and families.

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Sectoral Matrix 4: Gender and Trade Issues for Issues Related to Labor and Leisure

Trade Questions	Gender Questions	Gender and Trade Examples	Type of Indicators
How has the percentage of poor households changed after trade liberalization measures were introduced?	Are there sex-based differences in the percentage of households that are considered poor? Have these percentages changed after trade liberalization took place?		Headcount ratio. Foster Greer Thorbeke measures of poverty. ²²
Has vulnerability to poverty decreased since trade liberalization measures were introduced?	Do men and women experience the same vulnerability to poverty?	In Jamaica, data for 2002 showed Female-headed household (FHH) consumption plummeted by as much as 14 percent in contrast to Male-headed households (MHH), whose consumption fell by 1.7 percent. This means that increased prices for some goods (food in Jamaica) or the contraction of labor will affect FHH more than MHH.	Sex disaggregated data on household incomes. Sex-disaggregated data about household consumption. Data on household income and expenditure.
Have poverty rates improved by quintile since trade	Is there a gender difference in the degree or intensity of poverty	In Mexico, poverty increased by fifty percent in FHH since	Sex disaggregated data on intensity of poverty.

²² Foster, Greer, and Thorbeke (FGT) uses various powers of the proportional gap between the observed and the required expenditure as the weights to indicate the level of intensity of poverty. The higher the power the greater the weight assigned to a given level of poverty. It therefore, combines both the incidence and intensity. The following formula is employed for measuring various poverty aggregates.

$$P_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{N} \sum [(Z - EXP) / Z]^{\alpha}$$

α

Where;

P_{α} = Aggregation measure

N = Total number of households

EXP = Observed Household Expenditure

Z = Poverty Line

\sum = Summation for all individuals who are below the poverty line

Putting $\alpha = 0$, the formula shows the head count index (HCI), i.e., proportion of households whose consumption fall below the poverty line. This simple measure ignores the depth of poverty. Putting $\alpha = 1$, the Proportionate Gap Index or Poverty Gap Index (PGI) is calculated. It measures the average distance from the poverty line. Although PGI shows the depth of poverty, it is insensitive to the distribution among the poor. Putting $\alpha = 2$, FGT2 index is calculated. The index takes into account inequality amongst the poor and shows the severity of poverty by assigning greater weights to those households who are far from the poverty line.

liberalization measures were introduced?	that households experience? Has there been a change after trade and investment agreements were implemented?	the implementation of NAFTA. In addition, quality of living dropped dramatically; there was a 50 percent decline in the basic goods (such as food, clothing, health, education and housing) that Mexicans could afford to buy between 1990 and 2000, exacerbating poverty issues for women. This is linked to the influx of cheap imported corn, flooding the Mexican market and harming the livelihoods of small corn producers.	Sex disaggregated data on vulnerability to poverty. Sex disaggregated data on wages. Sex disaggregated data on levels of consumption.
	Is there a marked division of labor by sex in household production?	In Bangladesh, women agricultural workers are often hired on a seasonal basis, and in manufacturing on short-term engagements. In rural areas, because of job segregation, women are not hired for field operations of major crops, which are the highest paid type of agricultural work.	
Have trade-induced changes in employment or prices changed household responsibilities?	Have time and task allocations changed for women and men in the reproductive sector? Have changes in time and task allocations affected women's and men's time burdens and their consumption of leisure?		Household time and task allocation. Data on leisure time.
Have household incomes and consumption changed as a result of trade-induced employment or price changes?	Are there gender differences in household consumption?		Sex disaggregated data on household production and consumption. Data on household income and expenditure.

D. Gender Integration Strategies for Trade (GIST) Programs

The Gender Integration Strategies for Trade (GIST) Tables 2 through 12 that follow identify opportunities to ensure the Economic Growth, Food and Environment (EGFE) programs contributes to the Mission's Women in Development (WID) goal of empowering women and reducing poverty. The Tables are linked to the Strategic Objectives (SO) described in the FY 2007-2011 Country Strategic Statement. Each Table lists gender questions or issues, project design and implementation approaches, and potential indicators for monitoring results. These selected gender guidelines are intended to help Mission staff and implementing partners better integrate gender analysis into trade and economic growth projects. The questions, suggested approaches, and indicators are illustrative rather than exhaustive. The sectors covered in the Tables are organized by Mission SO as seen below:

Promote Democratic Institutions and Practices	Expand Economic Opportunities	Invest in Human Capital
Human Resources and Labor Standards Environmental Sector Trade and Standards Governance, Transparency and Inter-Agency Coordination	Trade Facilitation: - -Customs Operations and Administration --E-Commerce and Information and Communication Technologies, --Export Promotion --Business Services and Training Physical Infrastructure Development Trade-Related Agriculture	Services Trade Development: --Tourism Sector Development --Other Services Development (Health and Education)

GIST Table 2: Human Resources and Labor Standards

Assistance to support the enforcement of labor standards and worker rights, development of trade unions and dispute resolution mechanisms, strategies for workforce development and worker training, and the elimination of child labor.

Gender Issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
<p>Are there labor rights abuses in the sector or industry? Do men and women experience the same frequency of labor rights violations?</p>	<p>Analysis of labor rights abuses and workplace violations.</p> <p>Initiate legal rights project to assist workers whose right have been violated.</p> <p>Advocacy project to implement or enforce codes of conduct in the industry.</p>	<p>Reports of labor violations, disaggregated by sector and sex of worker.</p> <p>Number of workers who go to legal project for assistance, disaggregated by sector and sex.</p> <p>Number of factories that adopt gender-sensitive codes of conduct.</p>
<p>Are there sex-based differences in the type and frequency of labor rights violations (sexual harassment, maternity/paternity/family leave benefits, etc.)?</p>	<p>Work with industry on gender-specific codes of conduct (such as including sexual harassment within the industry codes).</p> <p>Educational training for workers on how to contend with sexual harassment, gender and labor rights.</p> <p>Training for workers on their options if their rights are violated - awareness of resources, laws.</p> <p>Policy work to create stronger labor laws, better enforcement or avenues for redress for workers.</p>	<p>Number of workers trained that change their knowledge or attitudes, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of gender-sensitive reforms passed or implemented.</p>
<p>Are factory owners aware of labor rights compliance, specifically gender-related labor rights issues?</p>	<p>Trainings for factory owners on compliance with labor standards.</p> <p>These could be done in partnership with labor groups or NGOs active in this area.</p>	<p>Number of business owners trained on workers rights and women's rights, disaggregated by sex.</p>
<p>What is the percentage of male and female members of Bangladeshi unions? What percentage of union members in leadership positions within the union are male? What percentage of union members in leadership positions within the union are female?</p>	<p>Leadership training for women labor activists.</p> <p>Educational campaign for trade unionists on worker's rights, women's rights, and equality within unions.</p>	<p>Number of trained labor activists that gain higher positions within the union, disaggregated by sex.</p>
<p>Is work informalization increasing within some sectors? Are there sex-</p>	<p>Collect data on informal work including the numbers of informal and home-based workers as well as</p>	<p>Number of new networks created by and for informal workers.</p>

<p>based differences in casual workers, homeworkers, and within the sectors?</p>	<p>wages incomes and working conditions in the sector and in compared to formal work sectors.</p> <p>Program to assist formalizing networks of informal workers based on other women NGO models such as SEWA or HOMEWORK or WIEGO.</p> <p>Establish “pathway” center for informal workers to provide workforce development skills and job-matching; health care assistance; child-care assistance; and assistance with the provision of food and shelter.</p> <p>Policy work to provide and/or extend social safety nets to informal workers, to count the uncoun- ted, and “formalize the informal workforce.” This includes work on more secure contracts, benefits, and legal recognition.</p>	<p>Number of members of new networks, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of gender-sensitive policy reforms passed or implemented to extend provisions to informal workers.</p> <p>Number and percentage of workers who seek assistance at a shelter, disaggregated by sex and reason for visit (legal, food, etc.).</p>
<p>Are workers paid a living wage?²³</p>	<p>Collect data and analyze what would constitute a living wage in Bangladesh.</p> <p>Work with advocates to develop a campaign to raise wages to the level of a living wage.</p> <p>Policy work to mandate a living wage as the minimum wage.</p>	<p>Number of female and male leaders involved in campaign.</p> <p>Number of gender-sensitive policy reforms implemented regarding a living wage.</p> <p>Changes in knowledge, attitudes and behavior related to living wage campaign.</p>
<p>What are the effects of the trade policy/project for workers? Do the effects differ for men and women?</p>	<p>Conduct labor impact assessment (LIAs) of trade policy/project.</p> <p>Project should address any gender differences in benefits or adverse consequences.</p> <p>Policy reforms to require LIAs of trade policy/project.</p>	<p>Number of LIAs conducted for proposed policy and project.</p> <p>Number of gender-sensitive policy reforms implemented regarding LIAs.</p>

²³A living wage is a wage that would provide basic living expenses (food, housing, electricity, water) for a family of four. Living wages vary from country to country.

GIST Table 3: Environmental Sector Trade and Standards

Assistance to establish environmental standard or to promote environmental technology.

Gender Issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
Are men or women responsible for gathering forest products and water and for commercial and subsistence fishing?	Gender analysis of natural resource management.	Changes in type of resources, intensity of use and need for resources, disaggregated by sex.
How dependent are men and women on the resources targeted by the project for conservation or management?	Participatory research on how men and women use and depend upon resources targeted for conservation. Make use of readily available alternatives.	Changes in perceptions about natural resource problems and solutions, disaggregated by sex.
Will women's traditional knowledge be integrated into environmental management practices initiated by the project?	Document traditional knowledge to preserve it. Hire men and women to manage community resources, educate others about traditional knowledge, as well as sustainable resources management.	Number of employees hired to manage resources, educate others about traditional knowledge or disseminate new technologies/practices, disaggregated by sex, location of hire.
Will the introduction of new environmental practices or technology displace men's or women's traditional livelihoods?	Hire those displaced by new technology to administer new technology and/or to educate other community members about new conservation practices.	Number of people who can no longer practice traditional livelihoods after adopting new environmental practices or technology, disaggregated by sex.
Do women and men have different perceptions about natural resource uses and how they should be conserved and managed?	Conduct stakeholder analysis and surveys or Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) interviews about respective views of natural resources, which would then be integrated into project design.	Number of recommendations integrated into project design. Focus group and stakeholder interviews after project implementation to gauge satisfaction.
Will women's or men's workload increase as a result of project involvement?	Time-use data for target beneficiaries, disaggregated by sex, prior to and following project launch. Cost-benefit analysis of beneficiaries involvement in the project.	Time and task allocation and hours worked, disaggregated by sex. Report findings of cost-benefits for participants.
Are men and women involved in selecting and designing environmental projects?	Use participatory methods to interview men and women together and separately during the design phase of the project. Develop community council to	Number of beneficiaries consulted in the design of the project, disaggregated by sex, income, and age. Number of beneficiaries on the community council,

	be involved in the project - could have separate women's and men's councils or set aside a percentage of seats on the council for women.	disaggregated by sex. Number of times and ways in which councils are involved in the projects.
Do men and women differ in their willingness to pay for environmental innovations? How does this affect their availability?	Policy work to defray the usage costs for low-income residents through cost-reallocation, tax incentives, etc.	Changes in willingness to pay for environmental innovations, disaggregated by sex. Number of gender-sensitive policy measures implemented or passed that reduce costs for low-income residents.
What are the effects of the trade policy/project for low-income community members? Do the effects differ for men and women?	Conduct environmental impact assessment (EIAs) of trade policy/project. Project should address any gender differences in benefits or adverse consequences. Policy reforms to require EIAs of trade policy/project.	Number of EIAs conducted. Number of projects/policies modified to address gender differences. Number of policy reforms implemented regarding EIAs.

GIST Table 4: Governance, Transparency and InterAgency Coordination

Includes support for legal and institutional reform to improve governance and make policies more transparent, as well as assistance to help the different agencies of a host country government function more effectively in the trade policy arena.

Gender Issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
<p>Would legal reforms have different implications for women and men?</p>	<p>Conduct a gender analysis of impacts of reforms.</p> <p>Modify language in the proposed legal/institutional reforms to be gender-sensitive.</p> <p>Partner with women’s legal association or NGO to develop reforms that would be particularly beneficial to women and the poor.</p>	<p>Number of reforms modified to have a gender-neutral impact.</p> <p>Number of reforms promoted that would benefit poor women.</p> <p>Number of those reforms that were adopted.</p>
<p>Do government agencies embarking on legal reforms understand the gender implications of their reforms?</p>	<p>Training for government line ministries of bias within laws or of gender-differentiated effects of reforms. Training of ministry staff on how reforms can be implemented to benefit the poor and women.</p> <p>Advocacy for gender analysis of trade and legal reforms.</p>	<p>New gender-related language or discussions emanating from trade policymakers as newly trained staff become engaged in trade policy discussions.</p> <p>Number of ministry staff trained on gender issues within legal reform, disaggregated by sex, ministry, and position of authority.</p> <p>Number of reforms revised or pro-poor, pro-women reforms developed by ministry staff following training.</p>
<p>What are the costs to the government to implement reforms or increase transparency? How will costs be recovered? Will the government cut other budget lines to cover these costs?</p>	<p>Conduct a fiscal analysis of implementation costs of reforms.</p> <p>Simulate multiple scenarios for recovering costs of implementation to ensure that government choices are not regressive.</p>	<p>Number of reforms modified to have a gender-neutral impact, including costs and budget allocations.</p>
<p>How are the Ministries that focus on women and the poor engaged in trade-policy making?</p>	<p>Analysis of how these agencies are engaged and consulted on trade policy.</p> <p>Train women and development agencies on gender, trade and poverty issues so they can</p>	<p>New language or discussions emanating from trade policymakers as newly trained staff become engaged in trade policy discussions.</p>

	<p>become more engaged in trade policy-making.</p> <p>Develop Administrative policy to expand the ministries involved in developing trade policy to include women, labor, health and education ministries.</p>	
<p>How are civil society and NGO actors engaged in working with the GOB to craft trade policy positions? How are women's groups engaged within this sphere?</p>	<p>Analysis of how civil society engages with the government on trade policy formulation.</p> <p>Analysis of how gender concerns are articulated within the civil society sphere.</p> <p>Development of civil society, government dialogue on trade policy.</p>	<p>Increased involvement of gender-concerned civil society groups in trade dialogue with government.</p> <p>Number of gender-related civil society concerns included in government's trade deliberations.</p>

GIST Table 5: Trade Facilitation: a. Customs Operations and Administration
Includes assistance to help countries modernize and improve their customs offices.

Gender issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
Are men or women the majority of exporters in the country? Do women face special constraints producing at the export quality level?	Collect sex-disaggregated data on Bangladeshi exporters. Gender analysis of challenges of scaling up for the export market.	Number of exporters in the country, disaggregated by sex.
Will a tariff or administrative change increase or decrease the costs to move products through customs? How will the change in price affect poor male and female producers and exporters?	Policy advocacy to provide incentives to poorer producers. Funding mechanism to defray costs for smaller producers.	Number of policy measures implemented to address costs of customs procedures. Number of women's groups, associations, women leaders engaged in advocacy for pro-poor customs policy.
Will it take more or less time to navigate the customs procedures? If more time, how will this affect other work and domestic responsibilities?	Provide customs procedures and forms online in an accessible format and the ability to process online, particularly if the process would otherwise necessitate a trip to the capital city. Provide training on online customs procedures to women's and men's business associations and NGOs; if necessary by male and female trainers. Set up local customs offices in provincial capitals with some evening hours for producers and exporters.	Number of users of online customs forms, disaggregated by sex. Number of customs forms processed online, disaggregated by sex.

GIST Table 6: Trade Facilitation: b. E-Commerce and Information and Communication Technologies

Includes assistance to help countries acquire and use ICT to promote trade by creating business networks and disseminating market information.

Gender Issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
<p>Are technology choices affordable for women and men?</p> <p>Will technology be affordable? Will prices be passed onto the consumer?</p> <p>Is there access in rural areas? Will rates be higher in rural areas where women predominate?</p>	<p>Address issues of access and affordability of ICT (e.g. use fixed wireless rather than fiber optic cables, availability of mobile phones to promote connectivity in rural and poor areas, satellite connectivity or solar and battery powered, multiple use computers) in project design and/or implementation.</p> <p>Policy advocacy to establish a telecommunications development fund created from carrier fees to promote greater access.</p> <p>Regulatory reform work to ensure continued affordability and accessibility of service.</p>	<p>Number of users disaggregated by sex and geographical location.</p> <p>Number of policy measures passed that deal with increasing affordable access to the rural poor.</p>
<p>How will women's security (safety) concerns affect their ability to receive training?</p>	<p>Hold trainings and courses at times and in locations that account for women's security concerns and their need to balance paid and domestic responsibilities (for example, holding accessible locations that can be reached by public transport, or hold trainings on evenings or weekends so that women can balance training with other responsibilities).</p> <p>Consider holding "women-only" trainings to provide a more comfortable environment for women participants.</p> <p>Hire women to work as ICT trainers for other women.</p>	<p>Number of people in target group trained on economic growth/trade topics, disaggregated by sex (and/or other social variables such as age, economic class, location, sector, industry, job level, etc.).</p> <p>Percentage of trainers, disaggregated by sex.</p>
<p>How might women's mobility affect their ability to access ICT?</p>	<p>Establish ICT access centers in rural areas and in urban areas in locations women frequent such as women's bookstores, clothing stores, community centers, hair salons, or health clinics.</p>	<p>Number of centers established by geographical location.</p> <p>Number and percentage of customers at telecenter, disaggregated by sex, and</p>

	<p>Consider the Grameen phone-shop model and establish telecenters (telephone and Internet shops) as small businesses for women entrepreneurs located near health clinics, women's stores, etc.</p> <p>Consider adding Internet service to existing Grameen telecenters.</p> <p>Create "women-only" times at telecenters if women feel uncomfortable using ICT technology when men are also on site.</p> <p>Address women's mobility (e.g. mobile computer bus that travels to communities as a means of increasing women's access).</p>	<p>telecenter location.</p> <p>Change in user satisfaction of telecenters, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of users at all times and at "women-only" times, disaggregated by sex.</p>
Are women provided with the same opportunities as men for ownership and control of licenses and ICT-related businesses?	Advocate for policy reforms such as the development of incentive programs to increase access, as well pricing policies to stimulate expansion.	<p>Number of ICT business licenses applied for and received, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of ICT-related businesses registered, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of women involved in drafting policy.</p> <p>Number of gender-sensitive policy reforms implemented in ICT sector.</p>
Do women and girls have equitable access to training at all levels such as system design, networking, software development, content creation, web design, information management, maintenance, and system management?	<p>Develop special ICT initiatives to train women, including those displaced from other sectors.</p> <p>Include complementary interventions with training such as job placement assistance, workforce development skills (hard and soft) and other ancillary services (banking for the poor, small "bridge" loan program, etc.).</p>	<p>Number of displaced workers trained, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of trained displaced workers hired for new ICT jobs, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Levels of participant satisfaction with training, disaggregated by sex.</p>
Do women and men have the same level of access to market and pricing information?	Business development service (BDS) training on ICT and other avenues for women to gain greater access to market and	Marketing practices adopted by enterprises as evidenced by a change in business plans, reorganization, product

	pricing info.	design, pricing and strategic linkages with other firms or sub-sectors, disaggregated by the size of enterprise and sex of owner.
Are there socio-cultural biases that discourage women from entering the ICT sector?	<p>Launch an educational campaign on the benefits of computer education to demonstrate how women and girls could use the skills for a variety of careers.</p> <p>Develop curriculum on experiential application of ICT - which studies show appeals more to girls.</p>	Number of target people trained adopting ICT before and after campaign, disaggregated by sex.
<p>Is the content on the web and e-commerce relevant for men and women? For rural producers? For the poor?</p> <p>Is web-content in Bengali?</p>	<p>Training initiatives to assist the rural and poor men and women to create their own content, use the computer for networking, advocacy, pricing and market information (e.g. web portals, business information, advocacy networking, etc.).</p> <p>Train poor citizens using low-literacy techniques on how they can use the Internet to advance their own interests and on useful applications.</p> <p>Participatory Rural Analysis (PRA) or other stakeholder analysis on what the needs are in a community for ICT—develop content based on needs assessment.</p>	<p>Number of new web portals created, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Change in income of entrepreneurs and artisans, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of new e-networks created, disaggregated by sex of users.</p> <p>Number of users of market information, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Change in income for users of market information, disaggregated by sex.</p>

GIST Table 7: Trade Facilitation: c. Export Promotion

Includes assistance to increase market opportunities for developing country and transition economy producers.

Gender issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
Are trainings held in locations and at times that enable women to attend and balance their work and domestic responsibilities?	Hold trainings and courses at times and in locations that account for women's security concerns and their need to balance paid and domestic responsibilities (for example, holding meetings at accessible locations that can be reached by public transport, or hold trainings on evenings or weekends so that women can balance training with other responsibilities).	Number of training participants, disaggregated by sex.
What clusters present opportunities for women entrepreneurs and workers?	<p>Conduct value-chain analysis of emerging and potential sectors to gauge opportunities for women to enter emerging and value-added sectors.</p> <p>Establish workforce development training and other activities to move women to the higher-skilled, higher-waged employment positions.</p> <p>Develop "female value-chains" of "female clusters" so women interact with women throughout the sector.</p>	<p>Number of exporters entering new clusters, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Average sales of women-owned and men-owned export businesses by sector and size of business.</p> <p>Number of workers employed in sectors, per year, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Salaries of workers employed per year, disaggregated by sector, by sex and by job category (after workforce development activity).</p> <p>Number of "female-value chains developed" by sector.</p> <p>Change in income of women engaged in "female-valued chains" measured annually.</p>
Do women face particular barriers to exporting products?	<p>Analysis of gendered barriers to export.</p> <p>Use ICT to provide women with access to pricing, market information, product development, market research, and financial management tools.</p>	<p>Number of men and women trained on ICT to gain market information.</p> <p>Marketing practices adopted by enterprises as evidenced by business plans, reorganization, product design, pricing and strategic linkages with other firms or sub-sectors, disaggregated</p>

		by the size of enterprise and sex of owner.
Is mobility an issue for women who wish to export?	<p>Use ICT to develop web portals for women to connect to others in a value-chain.</p> <p>Establish links with Fair Trade (FT) organizations that can promote women's products.</p> <p>Establish links with other entrepreneur who can use women's goods for their product (i.e. cashews for cashew butter maker). Help women establish contract for their goods.</p> <p>Foster linkages with large chains that can contract with women exporters and provide guaranteed market and distribution channel.</p>	<p>Number of women entrepreneurs involved in creation of web portal.</p> <p>Number of links established with Fair Trade organization for women's goods. Annual sales from FT contracts.</p> <p>Number of links/contracts established with other entrepreneurs to form a women's goods cluster. Annual sales from this link.</p> <p>Annual sales for women artisans via web (e-commerce), in person, etc.</p> <p>Annual sales from contract with super markets, disaggregated by the sex of the exporter.</p>

GIST Table 8: Trade Facilitation: d. Business Services and Training

Includes support to improve the associations and networks in the business sector, as well as to enhance the skills of business people engaged in trade.

Gender issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
Do women and men face different obstacles in opening, operating, and sustaining businesses (e.g. access to credit, collateral, information).	<p>Market survey of women's impediments to markets and SMEs.</p> <p>Address women's SME operational constraints (e.g. access to credit, gender training and entrepreneurship training of bank and loan official, etc.) in project design.</p>	<p>Number of new SME entrants directly assisted by project, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Percentage of ownership of businesses by sex of owner and sector.</p> <p>Average size of loans by sector and size of business, disaggregated by sex of the business owner.</p>
Do women have entrepreneurial associations that serve their needs?	<p>Survey of women entrepreneurs regarding what unmet support they need from business associations.</p> <p>Support or strengthening of women's business associations.</p>	Number of women's associations created or assisted.
Are trainings held in locations and at times that enable women to attend and balance their work and domestic responsibilities?	Plan BDS trainings to maximize women's attendance, taking into account the timing and location of the training.	Number of training participants, disaggregated by sex.
Are BDS trainers male or female?	<p>Recruit and hire female BDS trainers, particularly in areas where interaction between unmarried women and men are discouraged.</p> <p>Deliver BDS trainings in partnership with women's NGOs to develop a training-of-trainers (TOT) curriculum so more women and women's NGOs can better provide comprehensive services for women entrepreneurs.</p>	<p>Number of men and women trained to deliver BDS services.</p> <p>Percentage of trainers, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number and percentage of trained people recruited as trainers, disaggregated by sex and/or other social variables.</p>
Are there policies that may constrain women's participation in opening and running SMEs (e.g. tax licensing policies, zoning requirements, banking requirements for women to receive loans, etc.)?.	<p>Policy advocacy to reform tax licensing policies, zoning requirements, access to credit, government procurement, etc. Fund mechanisms to assist successful micro-entrepreneurs in scaling up their businesses.</p> <p>Establish pre-investment counseling and post-investment</p>	<p>Number of gender-sensitive policies implemented or passed in areas that will assist entrepreneurs.</p> <p>Number of loans dispersed through funding mechanism.</p> <p>Number of clients that receive loans, disaggregated by sex.</p>

	follow-up as of services offerings.	Number of clients that receive pre-and-post investment counseling.
What clusters present opportunities for women entrepreneurs and workers?	Value-chain analysis of current, emerging and potential sectors to gauge opportunities for women to enter emerging or growing sectors. Conduct workforce development training and other activities to move women to higher-skilled, higher-waged employment positions.	Number of clusters developed that present opportunities for women owners and workers. Number of workers employed per year, disaggregated by sex. Salaries of workers employed in cluster, disaggregated by sex and by job category.
Do women operating or working in a business face any challenges balancing work and domestic responsibilities?	Support provision of daycare for owners and employees. Support daycare providers	Number of daycares provided on-site.

GIST Table 9: Physical Infrastructure Development

Assistance to establish trade-related telecoms, transport, ports, airports, power, water, and industrial zones.

Gender Issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
<p>Are there differences in time and distance traveled between women and men as it relates to work or household duties?</p> <p>Do men and women use water, telecoms, and power in different ways?</p>	<p>Analysis of men's and women's roles and the distances traveled.</p> <p>Develop education initiative regarding the time and energy women spend on certain household responsibilities such as collecting fuel or water.</p> <p>Implement labor-saving devices within project to decrease women's time allocation and task burden.</p>	<p>Number of hours spent on collecting fuel or water before and after project initiation, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Quantitative change in hours of household labor by time and task allocation, disaggregated by sex.</p>
<p>What are the main economic, time and cultural constraints on women's access to transport, water, energy, and telecoms?</p>	<p>Promote bicycles where culturally acceptable in transport projects, support the development of women-only buses, women bus drivers, and additional measures to make bus stops secure, thereby increasing women's mobility.</p> <p>Focus water and energy projects on providing village-level initiatives rather than simply large-scale initiatives.</p> <p>Promote policy initiatives that include measures to increase access for the poor by charging lower rates for initial energy and water usage with gradual rate increases as consumption rises.</p>	<p>Number of bicycle-owners, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of bus-riders on women-only buses.</p> <p>Number of women who report increased mobility following project launch.</p> <p>Number of users of water/energy, disaggregated by sex.</p>
<p>Are men and women involved in selecting and designing infrastructure (transport, water, energy, and telecoms) projects?</p>	<p>Use participatory methods to interview men and women together and separately during the design phase of the project.</p> <p>Develop community council to be involved in the project - could have separate women's and men's councils or set aside a percentage of seats on the council for men and women.</p>	<p>Number involved in decision-making during project design, disaggregated by sex, income, and age.</p> <p>Number involved in project-related council, disaggregated by sex, income and age.</p>
<p>Do men and women differ in their willingness to pay for transport, water, energy,</p>	<p>Policy work to defray the usage costs for low-income residents through cost-reallocation, tax</p>	<p>Number of gender-sensitive policy measures implemented or passed that reduce costs</p>

telecom? How does this affect their availability?	incentives, etc.	for low-income residents.
Are men and women employed in construction and implementation of infrastructure projects?	<p>Train and hire male and female workers for the project.</p> <p>Create women-only sections or work crews if male/female interaction is culturally inappropriate.</p>	Number of workers trained and hired, disaggregated by sex and job category.

GIST Table10: Trade-Related Agriculture

Support for trade-related aspects of the agriculture and agribusiness sectors.

Gender Issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
<p>Have the roles and responsibilities of women and men in agriculture been identified?</p>	<p>Conduct a value-chain analysis in agricultural export projects to determine where women and men are located throughout the production, processing and sale of the commodity.</p> <p>Include activities to increase women's participation at higher levels of the value-chain such as training for supervisory and managerial positions, set-aside incentives for contracting with small women's businesses, training women for non-traditional work within the sector.</p> <p>Conduct a study to investigate the benefits of establishing Agricultural Export Zones (AEZs) which would provide incentives to private sector companies that enter contract-farming arrangements with producers.</p> <p>If deemed positive, reform policies to establish AEZs.</p>	<p>Map of male and female roles within agricultural sector.</p> <p>Number of project activities directed at moving women up a sector's value chain (trainings, access to credit).</p> <p>Number of women who move into a higher part of the value chain.</p>
<p>Are women active in subsistence and/or cash crops?</p>	<p>Develop cash crops for cultivation that would be considered appropriate for women to engage in and enable them to balance household and production responsibilities (i.e., green beans in Kenya).</p>	<p>Number and percentage of participants cultivating cash crops, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number and percentage of women who adopt new cash crops.</p> <p>Changes in income for producers of new crops, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Change in household nutritional status.</p> <p>Change in woman's or household's income and consumption.</p>
<p>Do extension strategies take into account women's time and mobility constraints?</p>	<p>Include activities women can do near their homes which may have the added benefit of</p>	<p>Number of economic activities developed that are home-based.</p>

	<p>enabling women to balance work and domestic responsibilities.</p> <p>Conduct training for extension agents on gender concerns within agriculture.</p> <p>Hire women to be extension agents, particularly in regions where interaction between unrelated women and men is discouraged.</p>	<p>Number of women who become engaged in home-based economic activities.</p> <p>Change in women's or household's income.</p> <p>Number and percentage of new extension agents hired, disaggregated by sex.</p>
<p>Will the project increase the time spent by women or men in agriculture-related activities?</p> <p>How will participation in the food and cash crop production affect women's and men's other responsibilities (e.g. food and cash crop production, family health and nutrition, etc.)?</p>	<p>Time-use surveys of women and men prior to and after agricultural project initiative.</p> <p>Focus group or PRA-type interviews with women regarding how participation will affect responsibilities.</p>	<p>Analysis of time-use by rural producers, disaggregated by sex.</p>
<p>Do men and women have equal access to microfinance, credit and agricultural technology?</p>	<p>Place special emphasis on ensuring women's access to credit (particularly credit above the micro-level) if women lack access to credit.</p> <p>Train credit officers on gender issues in credit and banking loans.</p> <p>Hire women credit officers.</p> <p>Projects that use extension agents should ensure they recruit and retain female agents in areas where interactions between unmarried men and women are discouraged.</p> <p>Place special emphasis on distributing new agricultural technology to women and training them on its uses.</p> <p>Policy work to make credit more accessible to women (changes in lending, collateral, etc.).</p>	<p>Number and value of loans dispersed to small producers, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Analysis of agricultural technology disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of gender-sensitive policy reforms implemented or passed to make credit more available to women.</p>
<p>Is the training and technology compatible with women's other household and wage responsibilities? Do women have access to the training and new agricultural technology?</p>	<p>Make technology affordable to both women and men via loans, defraying costs, etc.</p> <p>Trainings should take into account women's domestic</p>	<p>Number of users of technology, disaggregated by sex.</p>

	roles and be planned in a way that women can attend (e.g. provide child-care throughout the training and transport if security is an issue).	
Will the introduction of new techniques or production activities displace women from their current positions in the sector?	<p>If new technology will impinge upon women's livelihood, the project should place special emphasis on training women in the new technology so they can maintain their current position in the sector, albeit with improved techniques.</p> <p>Alternately, if a project is going to displace women, the project should incorporate alternate livelihood strategies for displaced women in the sector.</p>	<p>Number of trained people adopting new technology disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of trained displaced workers hired for new job in the sector, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Levels of participant satisfaction with training, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Wages for work in the new position (post-training) compared to the old one.</p>
Will women's or men's traditional markets or trading activities be affected by project activities? For example, will women face more competition in their traditional market crop? ²⁴	<p>Analysis of increased competition and potential effect of price changes on rural producers, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Analysis of alternative income-generation opportunities for producers to move into to replace lost income.</p> <p>Train displaced workers for alternative livelihoods.</p>	<p>Number of women who gained /retained traditional position within the sector.</p> <p>Analysis of increased competition on prices</p> <p>Number of new livelihood opportunities developed, disaggregated by sex.</p>

²⁴ Sections of the agricultural issues in this matrix were adapted from AUSAID <http://www.Ausaid.gov.au> 1997

GIST Table 11: Services Trade Development: Tourism Sector Development
 Assistance to help countries expand their international tourism sectors, including eco-tourism.

Gender Issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
<p>Is the labor market in the service sector noticeably sex-segregated?</p> <p>Is there marked occupational segregation by sex?</p> <p>Have real wages or relative wages by sex changed?</p>	<p>Conduct investigation of employment and wage analysis of tourism sector, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Develop program initiatives based on investigative findings.</p> <p>Gender training for tourism operators, tourist business owners, and others.</p> <p>Management and skills development training for women employees in tourism sector.</p>	<p>Number of participants trained, disaggregated by sex, occupation, and sector.</p> <p>Number of trained women who gained higher-level jobs after training.</p>
<p>What new employment opportunities are being generated in this sector? Are the opportunities available to women and men?</p> <p>Are women and men equally engaged in nontraditional, new tourism occupations?</p>	<p>Analysis of emerging opportunities in the tourism industry as well as absorption rate and sustainability of jobs.</p> <p>Analysis of current gender-breakdown of workers in nontraditional tourist occupations.</p> <p>Create new jobs that are currently “ungendered” within the society.</p>	<p>Number of new entrants into the “emerging opportunity” positions in the sector, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number and percentage of entrants into new “ungendered” jobs, disaggregated by sex.</p>
<p>Are any tourism initiatives community-based? If so, how are men and women in the community consulted and how do they participate in the management of local initiatives?</p>	<p>Develop community-tourism review board comprised of both male and female community members.</p> <p>Consult with community members about their ideas and goals for tourism within their town.</p>	<p>Number on community-tourism board that are involved in project design, disaggregated by sex, income and age.</p>
<p>Do marketing campaigns to attract tourists use or perpetuate gendered stereotypes of men and women?</p>	<p>Gender training of tourism officials to assist them in developing gender-sensitive tourism materials.</p> <p>Develop women-only tourism initiatives. Train women to work at them.</p> <p>Bring in advertising/marketing team that markets to women</p>	<p>Number of people trained on gender-sensitive tourism, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of trained people changing knowledge or attitudes, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of new jobs created in women-only tourism</p>

	<p>tourists to develop alternative tourism materials.</p> <p>Gender and diversity training for workers to understand how to interact with single female traveler's and/or traveler's from different ethnic, racial, or religious backgrounds.</p>	ventures.
<p>Are men and women educated and trained for tourism jobs? Are men and women recruited in equal numbers? Are men and women trained for the same types of jobs?</p>	<p>Analysis of recruiting strategies for tourism jobs. Are recruiters targeting men and women? Are they recruiting in places women frequent?</p> <p>Design new recruitment strategies to increase number of female applicants.</p> <p>Recruit women and train them to become recruiters and trainers, which may make some women more comfortable applying for tourism jobs.</p>	<p>Number of women trained to become recruiters and trainers.</p> <p>Number of applicants for tourism jobs, disaggregated by sex after more women staff are in place.</p>
<p>Are there forward and backward linkages to other activities such as handicrafts?</p>	<p>Tourism project could consciously link to handicrafts, small hotels, eco-tourism and other traditional/cultural activities.</p>	<p>Number of new jobs created from forward and backward linkages, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Annual sales of handicrafts before and after tourism plan.</p>
<p>Are men and women trained in foreign languages, marketing, or other activities that could increase linkages?</p>	<p>Bring in private sector or non-profit groups to train participants in ancillary tourism jobs such as language skills, marketing, and other endeavors.</p>	<p>Number of training participants, disaggregated by sex.</p>

GIST Table 12: Services Trade Development: Other Services Development (Health and Education)

Assistance to help countries develop trade in services in all sectors, including financial services, energy, transportation, and education.

Gender Issues	Project Design and Implementation Approaches	Indicators
Health		
Do mobility/security issues affect women's ability to access health care?	Implement mobile bus service to provide care to women who are less mobile due to security issues.	Number of initiatives incorporated into project to address mobility concerns.
Do rural men and women have to travel long distances for health care?	Establish outpatient centers in rural areas. Increase use of ICT such as telediagnosis, imagery and treatment. Include these facilities as additions to basic health care infrastructure.	<p>Survey of time spent to receive health care prior to and after center established.</p> <p>Number of times telediagnosis, imagery and treatment used on rural patients, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Health outcomes of patients using telediagnosis.</p> <p>Successful diagnostic rate by number and percentage.</p>
Do rural and urban doctors have access to the latest medical information?	<p>Develop ICT tools within village telecenters to provide medical information/reproductive health information to patients. Distribute personal data assistants PDAs that rural physicians can use to store medical information, email others for advice.</p> <p>Develop internet medical centers to provide rural and urban doctors in developing countries with the latest medical developments.</p>	<p>Number of users of ICT for medical information, disaggregated by sex, age, and income.</p> <p>Number of patients served by PDA-using physicians, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number of MDs using internet medical centers, disaggregated by sex.</p>
Do male and female patients have access to health information/care?	<p>Develop patient/medical information for patients to use online.</p> <p>Develop low-literacy cd-roms to inform patients on preventative health measures, reproductive health, maternal and child health, and other conditions/care.</p>	<p>Number trained to access online medical information, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Number using cd-roms of information, disaggregated by sex.</p>
Could expected revenue from foreigners purchasing care	Estimate/forecasting of expected costs and revenue	Number of gender-sensitive

increase funding for health sector?	<p>from foreigners purchasing health care (traveling to Bangladesh for their health care).</p> <p>Policy reform to channel foreign exchange inflow from foreigners purchasing health care into increasing affordability and access of basic and preventative health care for the poor.</p>	policy reforms adopted or implemented.
Is the funding for new health initiatives reducing funding in basic health care allocations?	Gender budget analysis of health expenditures.	Increase or decrease in programs benefiting women as a result of reforms.
Are there enough trained nurses and doctors to provide adequate care for poor rural and urban citizens?	<p>Training programs either through consumption abroad or commercial presence.</p> <p>Develop public/private partnership agreements/investments to recruit and train medical professionals –include financial incentives if they practice in underserved area.</p>	<p>Number of new doctors, nurses, nursing assistants trained and dispersed to underserved areas, disaggregated by sex.</p> <p>Survey of illness, morbidity and maternal and child health issues in underserved areas, prior to and after medical staff are in place.</p>
Are women comfortable discussing gynecological/obstetric/or reproductive health issues with male doctors?	<p>Train women to be health care promoters who could visit other rural women and provide information, advice, and over-the counter medications.</p> <p>Recommend that promoters use PDAs to enter data and records about the patient on the spot which a doctor or nurse could review to prescribe any additional medication or treatment.</p>	<p>Number and percentage of women trained to be health care promoters and trained on PDAs.</p> <p>Assessment of health outcomes in the area before and after health promoters are in place.</p>
Do men or women practice traditional healing (Unani)? Could this sector be further developed to attract foreign exchange?	<p>Gender analysis of Unani medicine.</p> <p>Documentation/preservation of practice.</p> <p>Formulate government and private sector plans to promote Unani medicine such as distance consulting in traditional healing; health tourism; spas and packaging of Unani medicinals.</p> <p>Develop policy to protect purveyors of Unani medicine and establish mechanisms to</p>	<p>Results of study.</p> <p>Number of medical practitioners caseloads, before and after intervention, disaggregated by sex (for producer and consumer).</p> <p>Annual income of practitioners prior to and after intervention, disaggregated by data.</p> <p>Establishment of gender-sensitive policy on Unani medicine practitioners.</p>

	secure benefits for producers of this traditional medical practice. Link forward and backward to rural herbal producers.	Number of herbal producers linked to Unani medical chain, disaggregated by sex and annual income.
Education		
Where are women located within the education professions? What occupations do they hold? Is there segmentation or segregation within the industry? Have real wages or relative wages by gender changed?	Employment and wage analysis of education sector, disaggregated by occupation and sex. Train women teachers in new skills to succeed in higher-level, better paid segments of the education sector.	Number and percentage of women who gain higher-paid jobs within the sector.
Have prices for services changed? How have price changes affected urban and rural consumers and producers? Does the change in public services affect household consumption of these services?	Conduct analysis of change in public services and education indicators. Promote policy and project reforms in response to analysis.	Number and percentage of policy and project reforms implemented which reflect analysis' findings.
Has employment expanded or contracted in the public sector?	Employment analysis of public sector, disaggregated by sex and occupation. Retraining program for retrenched workers and matching program so good skills match. Training of retrenched workers in informal and adult education.	Number of workers trained, disaggregated by sex. Number and percentage of retrenched workers matched with new jobs, disaggregated by sex.
Does the change in public services affect key indicators of welfare and well-being? Have user fees been introduced?	Launch an analysis of impact of user fees on indicators of welfare and well-being from a gender perspective. Track impact of user fees on enrollment in primary school, disaggregated by sex. Program and policy work on systemic education reform (i.e. realistic costing plans, adequate means to finance, and minimizing out-of-pocket costs of schooling and provide incentives to families or schools).	Number of reforms implemented based on report recommendations. Changes in enrollment in primary school after policy and program reforms implemented, disaggregated by sex.
Does the change in prices or wages affect time and task allocation in the reproductive	Time-use analysis, disaggregated by sex.	

sector? Have changes in time and task allocation affected women's' time burdens and consumption of leisure?		
Do teachers have access to knowledge management tools?	Use of ICT (internet, cd-roms, spreadsheets, and other tools) to increase education management.	Number of teachers using of ICT tools distributed, disaggregated by sex.
Can ICT be used to increase formal and informal education for men and women?	Use of cd-roms and other material to reduce costs of textbooks and increase access to new information and materials for learners. Promote alternative learning opportunities such as radio learning.	Number of cd-roms used, annually. Number of users, disaggregated by sex.
How are local citizens involved in developing the application of knowledge?	Train students and learners to create content in their own language and based upon their community's needs—practice how to use technology to advance learning. Develop community-based plan for using ICT to meet community's educational goals.	Number of participants trained, disaggregated by sex and age. Completed community ICT and education plan. Number of stakeholders consulted, disaggregated by age, sex, and educational attainment. Number and percentage of new local content, and community specific-content developed. Number of users of community-developed content, disaggregated by sex and age.
Are there enough trained teachers to adequately meet the population's needs?	Project to recruit and train more teachers—via cross-border investment, public-private partnerships, or e-learning.	Number and percentage of trainers recruited, disaggregated by sex.
Do boys and girls respond best in integrated or separate schools?	Gender training for boys and girls as part of primary education—resources provided via cd-rom and other tools.	Number and percentage of students trained, disaggregated by sex. Evaluation of training.

E. Conclusion

International trade is an important strategy for economic growth in Bangladesh (as well as many other developing countries). Despite Bangladesh's recent positive economic growth, the challenge remains: how to spread the gains of economic growth to the poor? Poor women, in particular, face an array of socio-cultural factors that may impede their ability to access and benefit from global trade and investment.

Using sound analysis and thoughtful policy and program design, development practitioners can thoughtfully devise new approaches that better integrate the poor, particularly women, into export-led growth strategies.

These guidelines are designed as a tool to build staff knowledge of ways to adjust program approaches to increase the number of beneficiaries and to capture creative ideas and synergies among programs to use trade as a tool for development.

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Annex 1: Trade Terminology

Term	Definition
Agreement on Agriculture	WTO Agreement committing countries to improve market access and reduce domestic support payments and export subsidies in agriculture.
Domestic content requirement	A requirement that goods produced in a country contain a certain proportion of domestic content.
Export Processing Zone	Designated area or region where firms can import duty-free as long as the imports are used as inputs into the production process.
Export promotion	A strategy for economic development that stresses expanding exports, often through policies to assist them such as export subsidies.
Foreign direct investment	A corporation's acquisition abroad of physical assets such as plants and equipment, with operating control residing in the parent corporation outside the country where the acquisition occurs. Includes mergers and acquisitions of corporations in one country with or by those in another country.
General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)	WTO agreement that provides a legal framework for trade in services and the negotiated, progressive liberalization of regulations that impede this. It covers areas such as transport investment, education, communications, financial services, energy and water services and the movement of persons.
Market access	The extent to which a country permits imports. A variety of tariff and non-tariff barriers can be used to limit the entry of products from other countries.
Most Favored Nation (MFN)	A commitment that a country will extend to another country the lowest tariff rates it applies to any other country.
National treatment (NT)	Commitment to treat foreign producers and sellers the same as domestic firms.
Non-tariff barriers (NTBs)	Describes international barriers to trade other than tariffs. They include import quotas, voluntary export restraints, labeling and package requirements, subsidies and domestic content requirements and other similar measures.
Non-tariff measure	Any government action with a potential effect on the value, volume or direction of trade.
Tariff	A government-imposed tax on imports.
Trade integration	Trade integration is the broader economic process of increasing exchanges with other countries. It includes expanded trading with other countries, greater foreign investment, as well as the increased flow of labor, technology and communication across national boundaries.
Trade liberalization	Trade liberalization is the reduction of tariffs and removal or relaxation of non-tariff barriers.
Trade policy	Trade policy is formed as the result of a political process. Governments, often working through their Foreign Ministries or Commerce Ministries, negotiate national commitments to open domestic markets to foreign investors in exchange for reciprocal commitments from other governments. These trade and investment policies are codified in binding bilateral, regional and multi-lateral trade agreements. The commitments may lead to changes in tariff levels, national regulations and domestic policies. Many trade agreements also define a process for resolving trade disputes between countries.
Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS)	WTO Agreement aimed at establishing minimum standards of intellectual property rights protection for all products and services, covering copyrights, trademarks, geographical indications, industrial designs, and trade secrets.
Trade-Related Investment Measures (TRIMS)	WTO Agreement aimed at eliminating the trade-distorting effects of investment measures taken by members.

Annex 2: Websites Related to Gender and Trade

- ADB Gender and Development <http://www.adb.org/gender>
- Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID) <http://www.awid.org>
- Development Alternatives for Women in a New Era (DAWN) <http://www.dawn.org.fj>
- Eldis Trade Policy Resource Guide <http://www.eldis.org/trade>
- International Gender and Trade Network <http://www.igtn.org>
- ILO Gender Equality <http://www.ilo.dyn.gender.gender>
- ILO Gender and Employment Policy
<http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/gems>
- Genderstats <http://genderstats.worldbank.org>
- UN Institute for Research and Training for the Advancement of Women
<http://www.un-instraw.org/en/>
- UN Division for the Advancement of Women
<http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/gems>
- UN Women Watch <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/>
- UNIFEM: UN Development Fund for Women <http://www.unifem.org>
- UNCTAD <http://www.unctad.org>
- Women in the Informal Economy Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO)
<http://www.wiego.org>