

# 2 Concepts

Trade, gender and development – how are they linked? This unit explores the key ideas and concepts needed to start addressing this question and to plan further action.

It will help you to:

- identify ways in which gender, trade and development are linked and affect each other
- give working definitions of key terms relating to gender and trade
- get an overview of trade and gender milestones and agreements.

The first section asks some basic questions about gender, trade and development and brings the issues to life with short case studies.

## In this unit

Key questions: gender, trade and development  
The impacts  
Defining key concepts  
Milestones  
Glossary of key terms

## Key questions: Gender, trade and development

### ❓ *How are they linked?*

Trade liberalisation has an impact on gender inequalities (primarily via employment, wages and its effects on the care economy). Conversely gender inequality has an impact on trade performance – for example, in terms of capacities and skills and the impact on production. Both trade and gender need to be seen in the context of development based on human well-being.

### ❓ *Why is this issue of importance now?*

Measures of development based on market criteria (income or consumption) are now being replaced by others based on human well-being – as reflected, for example, in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). So trade policy reform must be re-evaluated too. Besides looking at the social impacts of trade based on growth and market access, we need to look at it in terms of social content – social relations (such as class, gender, race) within and across nations. So we are talking here about developing a gender-aware approach to international trade, recognising that there is more to eliminating poverty than efficiency and growth.

### ❓ *What's the impact of trade liberalisation on gender inequalities?*

Economists have been working on the questions of trade and the economy, gender and growth for a number of years. There are gains and losses, winners and losers, depending on the country (e.g., developing or industrialised) and sectors of the economy (e.g., agricultural, manufacturing or services). There are variable impacts on paid employment and household income – a gain in one area may mean a loss in another. For example, employment gains could be accompanied by lower wages and poorer working conditions. Or an increase in family income could occur with a decrease in food crop production for family consumption. Trade liberalisation may also impact on the unpaid care economy – often care is squeezed or carers' leisure time is cut. It also affects both women and men as both consumers and workers.

For everyone to benefit from trade liberalisation, the state must redistribute benefits from winners to losers. Yet if trade liberalisation is part of a package of market deregulation, privatisation and fiscal austerity, governments may not be able to soften the negative consequences. There may be cuts in social services or fees may be charged, with the impact mainly on poor people, most of whom are women. However, governments can implement statutory and complementary measures to mitigate negative effects.

So these gender inequalities are multi-dimensional. There are different

impacts on women and men and also different impacts on different groups and individuals. It's not just that some women or men win and others lose. The same women or men may gain in one way and suffer in another.

**?** *What's the impact of gender inequalities on trade performance?*

Gender inequalities (such as gaps in control over material, social and political resources by men and women and in education and health) often dampen productivity and hinder trade. They can make it harder to build capacity in the current workforce and the future one. Wage inequality can have a positive impact on trade, by creating a competitive advantage, but that trade can always be moved away to another country where wages are even lower.

**?** *Why don't trade agreements and policies take gender into account?*

It is partly through ideological constraints and the assumption that trade is gender neutral and affects both sexes equally. There is the belief that expansion of markets and growth will bring higher incomes and well-being that will benefit all, ignoring the underlying gender inequalities. And it is partly through institutional constraints. For example, in terms of governance, women's voices are largely absent in trade policy-making institutions and trade negotiations. While there is increasing recognition of the social and development dimensions of trade, this is not reflected in the structures of organisations like the World Trade Organization (WTO). At national level, ministries of trade need to work more closely with ministries of gender affairs to understand the relationship between gender inequality and trade policy. There is a need for monitoring mechanisms. This would help policy makers understand why the expected results from trade liberalisation may not come about.

However, there is an ongoing debate on this question. Some argue against linking trade concerns in general with non-trade concerns (such as gender, labour standards or human rights) where international commitments already exist.

**?** *What are the steps towards a gender-aware approach to trade?*

One key conclusion is that gender analysis is essential to form trade policies and agreements that lead to gender equality and human development. As trade affects women and men differently and gender inequalities have different impacts on trade, information is needed to underpin policy-making.

More work is needed to investigate the dynamics of gender, poverty, trade and growth in different countries. There needs to be more gender awareness in the design of trade policies, and gender mainstreaming and capacity building has to take place in trade ministries. There also needs to be discussion of the gender implications of multilateral and regional trade negotiations. Possible mechanisms for this would be the inclusion of gender

assessments in trade policy review mechanisms and the integration of gender in the aid for trade agenda. And finally, policy-making needs to be more democratic, with the voices of poor people – both women and men – heard at all levels.

## The impacts

This section puts a more a human face on how trade, gender and development are inter-linked and the impacts on the ground.

First, to set the scene, here's an example to illustrate the human impact of globalisation and changes in market conditions. It looks at banana production in St Lucia, where many of the small producers have traditionally been women.

### Case study 2.1: Banana production in St Lucia

The move from sugar production to bananas in the early 1960s in the agricultural sector in St Lucia brought new hope to farmers. Banana cultivation was less labour intensive than sugar cane and certainly was not as reminiscent of conditions under slavery.

So profitable was the cultivation of bananas – particularly to the smaller producers, who were mainly women – that it was referred to as 'green gold'. Banana cultivation gave farmers the confidence and the ability to take charge of their lives as it brought very good financial returns. It allowed for small farmers as well as large plantation owners to participate.

The impact of the banana industry soon became very visible on the St Lucian landscape, particularly in the rural areas. Even small peasants were able to purchase land, build decent houses and have a good standard of living. They could afford to send their children to colleges and universities locally and overseas. This prosperity filtered through the entire economy and gave the island much vibrancy as infrastructure and superstructures were put in place to meet the needs of the people.

During that time, St Lucia received preferential treatment for the sale of its bananas in the United Kingdom. It benefited as a member of the ACP countries under the Lomé Convention.

But globalisation and changes in European market conditions after 1993 had a disastrous impact on St Lucia. Because of the island's small size, it was not able to produce the large quotas to enable it to compete effectively on the open market.

The result was that farmers were forced out of banana production with no



alternative means of income. Many of them were unskilled in other areas and did not possess high levels of education. They were now unable to sustain themselves and the lifestyle that they had become accustomed to. They were not able to meet their commitments to their banks and other financial institutions. They could no longer finance their children's education at institutions of higher learning. Many even had difficulty in providing for their children to attend school locally.

According to some commentators, there were positive effects: they argued that the changes created more efficient banana farmers, enabling them to meet high market standards. But the impact was particularly calamitous on women. Many rural women worked as peasants on the banana farms and, although they did not own farms, they made a decent living working for the plantation owners and were able to support their families. The sudden loss of such income left many of these women destitute.

However, early in 2007 the situation changed again. The UK supermarket chain Sainsbury's announced that all the bananas it sells from now on will be fairly traded and that nearly 100 million of them will come from St Lucia. As a result of this intervention, there can once again be investment in schools, roads and community facilities.

SOURCE: LERA PASCAL, DIRECTOR OF GENDER RELATIONS, MINISTRY OF HEALTH, ST LUCIA.

Now read the following two case studies, one about women as producers (gum collectors) in India and the other about women as workers in the Bangladesh ready-made garment industry.

To help you read them carefully, note on the table that follows the case studies whether the gender impacts described in the trade, gender and development key questions at the beginning of this unit occur in these two case studies, and how (*Activity 2.1*).

### Case study 2.2: Gum collectors in India

Although the non-timber forest product (NTFP) sector has been relatively neglected in official statistics, we do know that there is a sizeable and growing international market for NTFPs including essential oils, medicinal plants, gums and resins, rattan and bamboo, natural honey, brazil and other edible nuts, mushrooms, various types of fibres, and shea and other types of wild nuts and seeds that can be used in cooking, skin care and for other purposes. In all there are now 150 NTFPs of major significance in international trade that involve millions of poor producers and workers, including many who live in the most remote areas of developing countries. With increased interest in natural health and beauty products fuelling a massive growth in demand for these products in North America, Europe and Japan, there are huge opportunities for producers in the



South to link with these markets. In many cases, there are also large and untapped domestic and regional markets for such products.

But does the increased demand and rising international prices for these products actually benefit the rural women who tend to be the main collectors of the raw materials? We look at this question through a case study in India featuring one NTFP – namely gum. This is a major export industry for the country, which is the world’s third largest exporter of gums and resins (excluding gum Arabic).

The Gujarat State Forest Development Corporation (GSFDC) has been involved in a widespread programme to plant *Prosopis juliflora* (locally known as ‘ganda baval’) trees in the desert region of the state. These trees can survive under the extreme desert climate and are used to form a green belt that checks soil erosion. During the dry season gum oozes out of the branches. The gum has several uses and a commercial value including in export markets. GSFDC obtains this gum through licensed contractors who then are supposed to employ workers to do the collecting. However, instead of hiring workers contractors usually buy the gum from women in the desert villages. This is a cheap method of conducting business since the women collect the gum illegally without licenses from GSFDC and therefore have no alternative but to sell to the contractors at a very cheap price. Women travel long distances – often up to twelve miles – to reach the gum areas and face very difficult conditions, including thorny branches that cause scratches and rashes. Normally a woman can collect no more than two kilos of gum in a day.

To address women’s exploitation at the hands of contractors and their difficult working conditions, the Self Employed Women’s Association (SEWA) has organised the women gum collectors into groups under the state government’s Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) programme. SEWA obtained gum collection licences from GSFDC for these groups. As a result the groups started to get at least three times more money than they had received from the contractors. GSFDC also supplies the women with protective clothing to improve their working conditions. The increased income stability from gum collection under the DWCRA scheme is welcomed by the women. However, all is still not well. Gum collection is hard and hazardous work in comparison to embroidery or plant nurseries, and the women still make very little money during the year. Their problems are compounded by GSFDC. For example, at one time GSFDC, which has total control over setting the price for minor forest products such as gum, lowered the price from Rs12 per kilo to Rs6 per kilo. Enquiries revealed that as a result of trade liberalisation, lower-priced gums were being imported from the Sudan and other African countries and competing with local supplies, thus bringing down the price. Group leaders went to the headquarters of

GSFDC in Baroda and were able to argue for an increase to Rs8 per kilo, which is still very low.

In the meantime, open market rates had risen to more than double this amount but collectors are only allowed to sell to the GSFDC. Again, SEWA and the Banaskantha DWCR Women's Association (BDWA) are helping women's groups to bargain with GSFDC to be allowed to sell on the open market. Another reason for this is that GSFDC does not have an effective marketing strategy. Without knowledge of domestic and export markets for the gum it buys from collectors, it simply sells its supplies to private traders (including from out-of-state) who resell to industrial users at much increased prices, including in export markets. Thus, SEWA and BDWA are also concerned to encourage GSFDC to improve its marketing channels and to help the women's groups to get more directly involved in the marketing chain.

As can be seen, therefore, although there is a plentiful market for gum from Gujarat and higher prices to be had, women have not been able to benefit fully from the new opportunities arising from globalisation. First, they suffered from a fall in prices due to trade liberalisation, which led to import competition. Second, they suffer from a situation in which they cannot become more directly involved in marketing – either domestic or export – because of the need to sell to GSFDC and also because of the lack of an adequate mechanism for finding out about opportunities in domestic, regional and export markets.

SOURCE: CARR, CHEN AND JHABVALA, 1997.

### Case study 2.3: Garment workers in Bangladesh

Bangladesh has been one of the main beneficiaries of the quota system of the Multifibre Arrangement (MFA). The rise of the export-oriented ready-made garment industry has been a major result of trade liberalisation there. The industry currently employs 1.5 million workers, the majority of whom are women. It has been a major source of employment for rural migrant women in a country that has increasingly limited rural livelihood options, and where women migrants have been largely excluded from formal work in the cities.

The growth of the industry has been promoted through: (a) the introduction of international quotas and the associated phenomenon of quota-hopping, which supported the transfer of production and marketing expertise from Korea; and (b) the adoption of national export-oriented strategies that put direct export incentive schemes in place and simultaneously encouraged foreign direct investment through the establishment of Export Processing Zones (EPZs). While 5 per cent of the several thousand export-oriented factories in Bangladesh are joint ventures based in EPZs ('bideshi' factories), 95 per cent are 'bangla'



factories set up outside EPZs – many by those Bangladeshi entrepreneurs who were trained as management staff in Korea.

Women workers offer a low-cost and compliant labour force that allows the garment industry to compete in the global market. In spite of Bangladesh's ban on trade unions in the EPZs, working conditions there seem to be superior to that of other factories; however, only 12 per cent of the garment workers are employed in EPZs. EPZ and 'bangla' firms in Dhaka that deal more directly with international buyers are more susceptible to pressures to abide by labour codes and standards. Firms that subcontract, deal with the informal economy and have weaker links with major external buyers are much less susceptible.

A study was undertaken to explore the poverty implications of the export-oriented garment sector by comparing the situation of women workers in the export garment industry and those working for the domestic market. This allowed an assessment of the benefits accrued from the liberalised economy versus the non-traded sectors. The 1,322 women workers surveyed came from: (a) EPZ garment factories; (b) non-EPZ export-oriented garment factories; (c) self-employed workers; and (d) non-garment workers supplying the domestic market.

With the exception of EPZs, which employ better-off women and pay the highest wages with the best conditions, the garment export industry has directly benefited women from the poorer section of the rural population through employment opportunities. This has reduced marginalisation of women who were previously excluded from formal sector jobs and confined to a limited number of occupations. Many of these women have entered the workforce for the first time rather than having come from other sectors. Dhaka 'bangla' factory garment workers were able to contribute to their own and other family members' basic needs. Though they earned less than self-employed women, they earned more than the 'other' wage group outside of the garment industry. Remittances from garment workers also created redistribution of money from city to countryside and helped to raise the status of women in their families and communities.

However, the export-oriented garment industry does not represent an unambiguous improvement in working conditions compared to the rest of the economy. It has a high turnover rate. These women are a source of exploited labour and work intensely for a period of time and then move on, only to be replaced by a continuous supply of young women from the countryside. The health toll and conflicts with married life make the garment industry unsustainable over the long run. Nevertheless, those who become well-off have the opportunity to start their own businesses later, and women have been able to change their role as dependents



in an unprecedented manner through the growth of the garment industry. This has raised the visible significance of women as economic contributors to their families.

Prior to the phasing out of the MFA, there were predictions that up to 2 million women garment workers could lose their jobs, both through an absolute decline in markets and through technological upgrading in an attempt to compete (which would result in a transfer of jobs from women to men who have greater access to skills training). However, in defiance of predictions, the mass layoffs have not materialised and, in fact, since the lifting of quotas, garment exports from Bangladesh have grown by half a billion dollars, with most of the increased sales in the US market.

SOURCE: KABEER AND MAHMUD, 2004A, 2004B; HAIDER, 2006.

### Activity 2.1: Gender impacts

Note on this table whether the gender impacts listed occur in the two case studies (yes/ no/ don't know) and how.

	Gum collectors in India	Garment workers in Bangladesh
<b>Employment effects</b>		
Gains or losses?		
Impact on working conditions		
Changes to work patterns		
Different opportunities for alternative work		
<b>Wage effects</b>		
Changes in income levels		
Changes to regular income		
<b>Care economy effects</b>		
Impacts on the care of children		
Impact on children's education		
Impacts on resources to support families		
<b>Other impacts?</b>		
E.g., changes in access to resources or markets		





.As explained in Unit 1, the training suggestions in each unit will be helpful if you are planning to use the action guide as a resource for training and capacity building for others. They suggest ways you could extend activities for work in groups or adapt them to your own context or purposes.

Even if you are using the action guide as self-study material, working through it on your own, the training suggestions may give you ideas for further study or research.

- Get an expert speaker and conduct an interview or hold a panel for participants using the trade, gender and development key questions.
- Get participants from trade and gender sectors to share experiences – e.g., actions, impacts, local issues.
- Use the trade, gender and development key questions as an exercise, so that participants from different sectors can brief each other and draw on what they already know.
- Replace the case studies with local case studies/ examples to examine, using the table of impacts (Activity 2.1). (See Unit 7, #8 *Developing a case study.*)
- From the trade, gender and development key questions, case studies and discussion, identify local issues and problems. These could provide topics to address during the remainder of a workshop, for example.

## Using Unit 7 Tools

Unit 7 is a resource unit that suggests 12 tools and approaches for capacity building for gender and trade grouped under:

- influencing
- informing
- joining the global economy.

The training suggestions sometimes recommend using a particular tool. Look through Unit 7 and think about ways of using the tools for different units and activities.

## Defining key concepts

This section is to help you think about personal ideas and experiences of gender, and to define key concepts relating to both gender and trade.

### Thinking about gender

#### *Reflection*

As a starting point for thinking about gender, it is useful to reflect on your own experiences. This can help you remember the messages, spoken or unspoken, that you received from family, friends and peers. You will become more aware of the complex influences that shape expectations about women and men – how they should behave, what they can do and what they are like.

Activity 2.2 therefore asks you to think back to when you first became aware of gender issues in your own life. Spend a few minutes thinking about these questions and make brief notes. Try to tease out your own values and assumptions and how they came about.

#### *Activity 2.2: Thinking about gender*

When did you discover that you were different from the opposite sex?

What messages did you receive as a child about gender – about the roles, qualities and expectations for girls and boys, women and men?

Where did these messages come from? (e.g., family, school, peers)



How did this early learning shape your adult values and assumptions?

### *Defining gender*

What do you think of when you hear the word 'gender'? How would you explain the term to someone else? Try not to look at the examples below before writing your own answer.

### *Activity 2.3: Defining gender*

When I hear the word 'gender', I think ...

Here are a few responses from people taking part in a workshop on trade and gender. They raise important aspects of gender.

Social (= society-given) roles and ideas about what men and women do

Socially constructed differences between men and women

Feminist issues

Men and women

Unequal relations of power between men and women that pervade all of our institutions and social interactions

Definition changes over time and differs from country to country and within cultures

The working definition used in this action guide is:

- Gender means the socially constructed differences between women and men. These differ from one culture and society to another, they change over time and they define who has power and influence over what.





## Gender and trade

The following terms about gender and trade are not a complete list, but are 10 key terms for topics that come up in Units 2 and 3. Have a go at writing your own definitions for them (or some of them). Then check the completed glossary at the end of the unit before the references.

### Activity 2.4: Defining terms

<b>GENDER</b>
Gender
Sex
Gender relations
Gender policy, types of: Gender blind Gender neutral Gender specific Gender redistributive
Gender mainstreaming
WID and GAD
Gender balance
Gender equality
Gender equity
Practical and strategic gender needs

**TRADE**

Economic globalisation

Trade liberalisation

Privatisation

Protectionism

Free trade

Fair trade

Subsidies

Tariff/ Non-tariff barriers

Market deregulation

Export promotion



## On gender and gender awareness

• there are more activities for group work and discussion in the following publications:

- *The GMS Toolkit – Trainers Guide*, Unit 4 Key concepts (COMSEC, 2004).

- *The Oxfam Gender Training Manual* – see particularly C2 Getting started, C3 Gender awareness and self-awareness and C4 Gender roles and needs (WILLIAMS ET AL, 1995).

## On definitions

• In a mixed group (of gender and trade specialists) ask gender people to explain the gender terms to trade people and vice versa

• Have a brainstorming exercise on selected terms to reach definitions

• Or ask people to work in pairs and explain terms to each other

• Discussion: are these the key terms or should the lists be different?

## Milestones

The chart on the next two pages gives some key dates for gender and trade.

Look through it, noting which events you already know about and which you would like to find out more on. Find out latest developments since those given here.

Then add some more milestones in the third column. These could be:

- world events (e.g., end of Cold War, East Asian Crisis 1997)
- regional, bilateral or national milestones relating to trade and gender (e.g., the creation of CARICOM as a regional milestone).

As an extra option you could add personal milestones from your own life or career, to relate your own experiences to the wider trade and gender developments.

	<b>Trade</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Milestones</b>
1947	23 countries sign the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) in Geneva, Switzerland to try to give an early boost to trade liberalisation.		
1948	GATT agreement comes into force. Between 1948 and 1967 there are six GATT rounds of trade talks.	Universal Declaration of Human Rights.	
<b>1970s</b> 1973-79	Seventh GATT round, launched in Tokyo, Japan, sees GATT reach agreement to start reducing not only tariffs, but non-trade barriers as well.		
1975		First UN World Conference on Women (Mexico City). Start of UN Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace.	
1979		UN General Assembly adopts the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).	
<b>1980s</b> 1980		Second UN World Conference on Women (Copenhagen).	
1985		Third UN World Conference on Women (Nairobi).	
1986-93	Uruguay Round is launched, the most ambitious and far-reaching so far, leading to reductions in agricultural subsidies, agreement re access for textiles and clothing from developing countries and extension of intellectual property rights.		
<b>1990s</b> 1994	Last meeting under GATT auspices to establish WTO and complete the Uruguay Round.		
1995	WTO (World Trade Organization) created in Geneva.	Fourth UN World Conference on Women (Beijing). Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.	



	<b>Trade</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Milestones</b>
1995 <i>continued</i>		Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development.	
1999	WTO summit in Seattle. Disrupted by protesters.	Optional Protocol to CEDAW adopted, allowing for individual complaints of discrimination.	
<b>2000s</b> 2000-05		Updates of Commonwealth Plan.	
2000		Beijing +5 outcomes document. Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), especially Goal 3 (promote gender equality and empower women) and Goal 8 (develop a global partnership for development).	
2001	WTO meeting agrees on the Doha Development Agenda, intended to start negotiations on opening markets to agricultural, manufactured goods and services. The stated intent is to make trade rules fairer for developing countries. Also recognises technical cooperation and capacity building (Aid for Trade) as an element.		
2003	World trade talks in Cancun, Mexico collapse over farm subsidies, access to markets.		
2004	Geneva talks achieve framework agreement on opening up global trade. US and EU will reduce agricultural subsidies, while developing nations will cut tariffs on manufactured goods.	Commonwealth Plan of Action for Gender Equality 2005-2015, especially Critical Area III: Gender, poverty eradication and economic empowerment adopted.	
2005	Pascal Lamy becomes WTO director-general. The sixth WTO ministerial conference in Hong Kong gives fresh impetus to negotiations. WTO task force created to operationalise Aid for Trade.	Beijing +10.	
2006	Talks in Geneva fail to reach agreement. Doha round suspended.		



- Use the timeline to spark off a group activity – for example, a discussion about how the milestone events relate to national or regional events

- Get small groups or pairs to fill in the third column with personal, national or regional milestones.



## Key reading Unit 2 (on CD-ROM)

The key readings for the units are supplied on the accompanying CD-ROM.

The reading for this unit comes from *Gender and Trade: Overview Report* (2006) by Zo Randriamaro, a Cutting Edge Pack produced by Bridge (Institute of Development Studies at the University of Sussex). This report (from now on referred to simply as 'the Bridge Pack') 'aims to identify the possible ways and means for ensuring that the trade and gender equality agenda support each other'.

Section 2 'Gender, trade and development' has two parts:

- 1 Trade, trade policy and development
- 2 Why do we need to look at gender in the context of trade?

Section 5 'Gender, trade and development strategies' also has two parts:

- 1 Approaches to gender and trade
- 2 Gender and trade in development policy.

These sections provide further useful background reading for this unit.

## Unit review

Use this review of what has been covered to assess your progress. Look again at the unit objectives and check if you can now do them. Look through your answers to the activities and see if you want to add to them.

This unit has covered the following main points:

- key questions about trade, gender and development
- short case studies to illustrate how trade, gender and development are interlinked and the impacts on the ground
- key concepts of gender and trade
- trade and gender milestones related to regional, bilateral or national milestones.

To recap, the learning objectives for the unit were to:

- identify ways in which gender, trade and development are linked and affect each other
- give working definitions of key terms relating to gender and trade
- get an overview of trade and gender milestones and agreements.



To review each unit

- develop a short quiz of 10–12 questions to check that participants have understood the main points and can remember key facts. Or get participants to test each other. Use the Unit review and learning outcomes to devise the questions.

## Glossary of key terms

Here are definitions of the key terms (*Activity 2.4*). Remember that there is much discussion about the terms, and people define them in different ways and from different viewpoints.

### **GENDER**

**Gender** *The socially constructed differences between women and men. These differ from one culture and society to another, change over time and define who has power and influence over what.*

**Sex** *The biological differences between women and men.*

**Gender relations** *The social relationships between people (women and men, women and women, men and men) that reflect and reproduce gender difference as constructed in a particular context, society and time. Gender relations intersect with other social relations based on age, class, ethnicity, race, sexuality and disability.*

### **Gender policy, types of:**

**Gender blind** *ignores different gender roles, responsibilities and capabilities. It is based on information derived from men's activities and/or assumes those affected by the policy have the same needs and interests.*

**Gender neutral.** *Not specifically aimed at either men or women and assumed to affect both sexes equally. However, it may actually be gender blind.*

**Gender specific.** *Recognises gender difference and targets either men or women within existing roles and responsibilities.*

**Gender redistributive.** *Seeks to change the distribution of power and resources in the interest of gender equality.*

**Gender mainstreaming** *The process of bringing a gender perspective into the mainstream activities of government (or an organisation) at the policy, programme and project levels.*

**WID and GAD** *Women in development (WID) is a development approach based on the assumption that women are 'left out' of development and need special projects to 'integrate' them. Gender relations and power inequalities are not addressed, and women's participation is often passive.*

*Gender and development (GAD) is a development approach based on gender analysis and sees gender equality as a fundamental development goal, with women's empowerment and agency as key features of development strategy.*

**Gender balance** *Equal or fair distribution of women and men within an institution or group, giving equality of representation*

**Gender equality** *Gender equality means women and men have equal rights and should have the same entitlements and opportunities. Equality is rights-based.*

**Gender equity** *Gender equity means justice so that resources are fairly distributed, taking into account different needs.*

**Practical and strategic gender needs** *Practical gender needs arise from the different material conditions of women and men, due to the roles ascribed to them by society. They reflect women's position in society, but do not include challenging it. (An example is the need for a clean water supply nearby.) Strategic gender needs relate to women's empowerment and to what is required to challenge the gender balance of power and control to achieve gender equality. (An example is the need for equal access to decision-making power.)*

## TRADE

**Economic globalisation** *The growing economic interdependence of countries worldwide through increasing volume and variety of cross-border transactions in goods and services, free international capital flows, and more rapid and widespread diffusion of technology. (IMF definition)*

**Trade liberalisation** *Removal of obstacles to free trade, such as quotas, nominal and effective rates of protections and exchange controls.*

**Privatisation** *Transfer of ownership of state owned enterprises to the private sector.*

**Protectionism** *Advocacy of trade barriers, such as tariffs, and non-tariff barriers (e.g., quotas or health and safety standards) to restrict the import of goods and protect domestic producers and workers from competition.*

**Free trade** *When the international exchange of goods and services is neither restricted nor encouraged by government-imposed trade barriers.*

**Fair trade** *Fair trade is an alternative approach to conventional international trade. It is a trading partnership that aims at sustainable development for excluded and disadvantaged producers. It seeks to do this by providing better trading conditions, by awareness raising and by campaigning.*

**Subsidies** *Grants, low-interest loans and other forms of assistance that governments provide to industry – some permissible, some prohibited under WTO or other regulations.*

**Tariff/ Non-tariff barrier** *A tariff is a customs duty on an imported product at the time of import. Used for reasons of revenue, protection, or to ease/ rationalise use of limited foreign exchange.  
A non-tariff barrier (NTB) is a measure other than tariffs used by governments to restrict imported goods, e.g., variable import levies, import quotas, labelling and package requirements, domestic content requirements.*

**Market deregulation** *The removal of government controls from an industry or sector to allow for a free and efficient market place.*

**Export promotion** *A strategy for economic development that stresses expanding exports, often through policies to assist them such as export subsidies. The rationale is to exploit a country's comparative advantage, especially in the common circumstance where an over-valued currency would otherwise create bias against exports.*

## References

COMSEC (2004) *The GMS Toolkit: An integrated resource for implementing the Gender Management System series*, Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

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