



# INTEGRATING GENDER INTO TRADE CAPACITY-BUILDING PROGRAMS IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND ASIA

## Guidance for Program Design and Implementation

**November 2015**

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# ACRONYMS

|            |  |
|------------|--|
| AgCLIR     | Agribusiness Commercial Legal and Institutional Reform |
| ASEAN      | Association of Southeast Asian Nations                 |
| APEC       | Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation                      |
| BizCLIR    | Business Climate Legal and Institutional Reform        |
| DFID       | U.K. Department for International Development          |
| DTIS       | Diagnostic Trade Integration Studies                   |
| GATE       | Greater Access to Trade Expansion                      |
| GenderCLIR | Gender Business Climate Legal and Institutional Reform |
| GBV        | gender-based violence                                  |
| HealthCLIR | Health Business Climate Legal and Institutional Reform |
| IFC        | International Finance Corporation                      |
| LDC        | Least-developed country                                |
| LGBTI      | Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and intersex      |
| MENA       | Middle East and North Africa                           |
| MFA        | Most-favored nation                                    |
| OECD       | Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development |
| PPWE       | APEC Policy Partnership on Women and the Economy       |
| SME        | Small or medium-sized enterprise                       |
| TRIMS      | Trade-Related Investment Measures                      |
| TRIPS      | Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights  |
| TTFA       | Trade and Transport Facilitation Assessment            |
| U.N.       | United Nations   |
| UNCTAD     | United Nations Conference on Trade and Development     |
| WEF        | World Economic Forum                                   |
| WTO        | World Trade Organization                               |

# EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This document aims to help development professionals design trade capacity-building programs that respond to the clear-cut case for equalizing economic conditions for men and women. A growing body of evidence shows that improving opportunities for women to become wage-earners, entrepreneurs, traders, professionals, and leaders improves not only their individual livelihoods, but also the prosperity and well-being of societies. As the largest single-country provider of trade capacity-building assistance in the world, the United States has long supported efforts across the Middle East, North Africa, and Asia to access the global trading system and embrace trade as an engine of growth and development. At the same time, the United States is deeply committed to inclusive systems for economic growth that enable men and women alike to seize the opportunities inherent in an open, dynamic, and market-based economy.

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“The evidence is clear, as is the message: when women do better, economies do better.”

**Christine Lagarde,**  
*managing director of the  
International Monetary  
Fund*

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To assist development professionals in identifying appropriate areas for interventions, this document gives an overview of the complex issues related to gender and trade, presented in five parts:

1. **Setting the Stage:** The nexus of gender and trade
2. **Testing Assumptions and Measuring Change:** The critical need for sex-disaggregated data and empirical evidence for the purpose of program planning and measuring results
3. **Integrating Gender Equality “Behind the Border”:** Connecting women’s enterprises to formality, finance, markets, and other avenues toward trade
4. **Integrating Gender Equality “At the Border”:** Strengthening conditions for women traders
5. **Integrating Gender Equality “Beyond the Border”:** Gender and trade policy

Each section highlights key concepts to be considered in program design, and provides examples drawn from pertinent research, individual case studies, and other sources.

“**Setting the Stage**” summarizes the relationship between issues of gender equality and women’s economic empowerment and the vast expansion of international trade over the past half-century. However, for women, particularly those who do not enjoy equal access to education and personal autonomy, not all the news associated with the dismantling of trade barriers has been positive. On the whole, however, the opening of regional and international markets in recent generations has expanded opportunities for paid work and significantly diminished poverty. There is overwhelming consensus that the solution to gender disparities exacerbated by free trade is not to shut down trade, but to strive for greater equality of opportunity for women and the poor.

“**Testing Assumptions and Measuring Change**” details the immediate need for stronger collection of data and empirical evidence in the arena of women and trade. Among other sources, a

comprehensive review of data on women's participation and well-being, sponsored by the UN Foundation and issued in March 2014, concludes that the design of policies and programs to promote female advancement and expanded opportunities generally has been hampered by lack of data. According to this report, known as "Data2X," the dearth of data is more severe in developing countries, but the report acknowledges that, in all countries, data pertaining to women's economic engagement is poor. Indeed, there is almost no data pertaining to trade policy and trade facilitation that is consistent in definition, regularly maintained by the majority of countries, and disaggregated by sex. In recent years, the increased effort to track the impact of economic-growth-related interventions, through performance monitoring and evaluation of programs and research on women, is laying the foundation for more informed development interventions in the future.

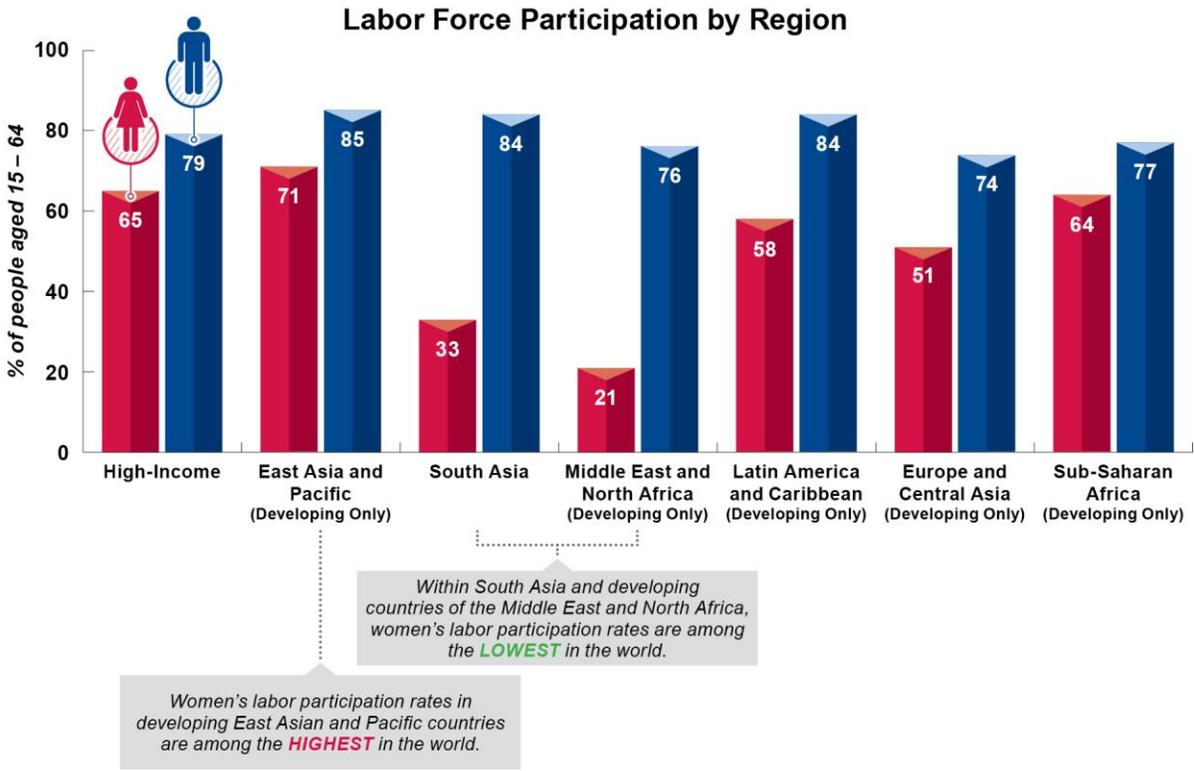
Parts 3, 4, and 5 pertain specifically to the different stages of international trade. **"Behind the Border"** looks at the impact of domestic business climates on women's ability to participate in their economies and engage in the import and export of goods and services. Significant differences exist between how men and women participate in even the most prosperous economies, influenced by factors including access to economic opportunity, how their work is valued, and their relative representation at the professional, management, and leadership levels. This section sets forth examples of how development projects can improve women's access to formal business activity, markets, and finance, so that their potential as exporters of goods and services can become more equal to that of men's.

Part 4's discussion of **"At the Border"** conditions highlights how countries can best meet their international and regional trade facilitation commitments through efforts that bolster both the participation of women in effecting change and border-specific reforms that support women's businesses. Due to a dearth of data, limited examples from the field, less clear-cut consensus over policy, and inadequate gender-specific data is available on this topic. This is a gap that future interventions can strive to address. Still, increasing awareness of the value of broad-based economic participation of women informs the development strategies that can be applied at the border.

**"Beyond the Border"** captures the elements of trade policy that can be leveraged to integrate priorities of gender equality and women's economic empowerment. Most of the world's major trade agreements were not negotiated with explicit mindfulness of the different experiences of men and women with respect to economic participation and trade. Increasingly, however, implementation of those agreements reflects greater awareness of these differences. Moreover, there are increasing policy and programmatic efforts to diminish the vulnerability of women traders to gender-based violence, whether they work "behind" or "at" the border.

# INTRODUCTION

Until recently, trade-oriented programming in development has rarely incorporated the discrete interests and priorities of women. Interventions specifically involving trade facilitation, tariff policy, non-tariff barriers, border agencies, trade finance, single-window initiatives and the like tended not to incorporate considerations related to how women and men may experience trade differently or how trade may result in unintended, gender-specific impacts. Centered on the relatively sophisticated areas of trade policy and trade facilitation, trade development initiatives have generally worked most closely with formal, relatively large, and well-established businesses. Accordingly, women’s businesses tended to be left out. In Asia, the Middle East, and North Africa, women-owned enterprises are generally smaller, less capitalized, and more often at the earlier stages than their male-owned counterparts in developing international trade portfolios .



Though many trade capacity-building programs have not directly included gender equality and women’s empowerment components, significant investments have been made in “behind the border” reforms that impact both women and men. Donor-sponsored initiatives in Asia, the MENA region, and elsewhere have worked to improve business environments generally, many helping women in particular build enterprises and develop skills as traders, managers, and professionals. Interventions have included strengthening conditions for new businesses to enter the formal sector, encouraging the elimination of laws and regulations that discriminate on the basis of sex, improving women’s access to finance, building networks of women entrepreneurs and managers, and more. From 2004 through 2009, USAID’s Greater Access to Trade Expansion (GATE) program supported USAID missions in their efforts to

integrate the needs of the poor, particularly poor women, into their trade and economic growth activities. The activities and lessons from GATE, among other USAID initiatives, continue to provide important guidance for future activities.

Through improved collection of data, particularly in recent years, knowledge about the gender dynamics of donor interventions and other economic empowerment activities is growing. A great deal of information continues to be lost, however, due to the lack of sex-disaggregated information on the impact of global trade and trade-oriented reforms. Although information about education and health outcomes for men and women is generally well



Floating market in Can Tho, Vietnam. Photo: Richard Nyberg, USAID

maintained, there is a dearth of comparative sex-disaggregated information pertaining to such topics as access to markets, access to finance, trade of goods, value of services, and the like. In particular, data and knowledge pertaining to the relationship between gender equality and both trade facilitation and trade policy interventions are particularly thin.

## OBJECTIVES

In light of USAID's commitment to broadening the impact of its trade programs, the objectives of this technical guidance and related training activities are to:

- Empower trade program designers to anticipate and integrate principles of gender-equality and women's economic empowerment into the design of all trade-related programs in the Middle East, North Africa, and Asia – behind the border, at the border, and beyond the border.
- Increase appreciation among development professionals for sex-disaggregated data and integration of empirical evidence of change so that regular collection and analysis of this data are integrated into future trade projects. Encourage development professionals to integrate gender perspectives into trade research agendas and the performance M&E of trade programs.
- Provide illustrative examples of trade activities that have actively promoted women's economic empowerment as a means of strengthening results.
- Identify key resources and lessons learned that can inform and support future activities.

# PART I: SETTING THE STAGE

## The Nexus of Trade and Gender

Advances in international trade over the past 50 years have raised incomes and improved quality of life globally, including for women business owners and employees. These economic benefits have translated into increased autonomy and improved health and education outcomes for women and their families. Data show that with increased income, women invest relatively more of their incomes than men into the health, education, and security of their families. Improving women's socioeconomic status, particularly through enhanced education, correlates with lower child mortality and healthier children.

Though highly active in international trade and found in substantial numbers at the heart of key international value chains, women are often “hidden in plain sight.” Women's businesses tend to be smaller and, in developing economies, concentrated in the informal sector. In Asia the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), women often face unequal access to resources, lower levels of education, social restrictions, disproportionate childcare and household duties, and an inability to own land. In Asia and much of MENA, women constitute the majority of factory employees, particularly in the garment, food-processing, and technology sectors that have been so critical to expanded international trade. According to the Solidarity Center, women comprise approximately 75 percent of textile workers in Morocco and 90 percent of textile workers in Bangladesh.

Across industries, especially those that export goods to regional and international markets, women are dramatically underrepresented in leadership and management positions. However, the business case for investment in women as managers and consumers is becoming increasingly clear. For example, companies that expand management opportunities for female employees generate higher shareholder returns than those that do not. Further, companies that have increased gender diversity on their boards have demonstrated improved economic performance. In relation to women as consumers, there is increasing awareness that women, as a group, represent “the largest emerging market in the world.” (Ernst and Young, 2012). Between 2012 and 2018, the global incomes of women were predicted to rise from US\$13 trillion to US\$18 trillion.

### **Women and International Trade: Labor-Intensive, Smaller, Lower- Value**

“There is extensive (and conflicting) literature on the impact of trade and globalization on women. What is clear is that women in developing countries are massively involved in export sectors, such as agriculture (where they typically comprise about 50 percent of the workforce) and in labor-intensive manufacturing, including electronics assembly and textiles. In Bangladesh, for example, women comprise 90 percent of the 1.8 million workers in the export-oriented textile sector. Women not only participate in international markets as workers, they are also importers and exporters in their own right. But, generally, women's businesses, which tend to be small and concentrated in the informal sector, are not well placed to participate in international trade, because of social and cultural factors, for example (1) inequalities in access to resources (land, finance) as well as lower levels of education and social restrictions; (2) domestic work, such as childcare and household management; and (3) inability to own land.”

**Source:** World Bank, *Gender Dimensions of Investment Climate Reform* (2010)

## THE IMPACT OF TRADE LIBERALIZATION ON WOMEN

Trade liberalization over the past generation has resulted in more jobs for women and men, reduced prices for consumers, and increased connections to markets for enterprises of all sizes. In communities where there has been rapid growth in manufacturing jobs for women, girls have been found to delay marriage and childbirth, because younger girls in those communities are more likely to be enrolled in school and older girls are more likely to be employed outside the home. (Health and Mobarak, 2014). At the same time, there is evidence that trade can have negative social impacts, exacerbating existing inequalities and, in the poorest countries, widening gender gaps in economic and social status.

**For many enterprises**, liberalization of trade policy and practices at the border represents an avenue to pursue larger markets. Across Asia and the MENA region, however, women-owned enterprises report lower levels of “internationalization” than those owned by men. (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2012 Women’s Report). In some cases, this may be explained by the presence of a large and growing domestic market or by cultural or language barriers with neighboring countries. However, female entrepreneurs frequently lack infrastructure or resources, including business finance, for trade across borders. They also lack information on how to trade outside their core areas, and often run businesses that are more suited for local markets. Women remain far less connected than men to the skills, networks, capital, markets, and other opportunities they need to supply goods and services to their local economies, to regional markets, and to international destinations. In particular, when natural resource and agricultural products dominate exports, women-owned businesses are less likely to benefit from free trade as a result of limited access to productive inputs and weaker property rights.

**Among workers**, international trade has resulted in vast increases in employment opportunities for women. The benefits of women becoming formally employed are myriad: in Bangladesh, for example –

### Increasing Women’s Participation in Trade Regimes

In recent years, a great deal of literature and many insights have emerged about the “best” ways to approach gender equality and women’s economic empowerment, including through trade. The “key messages” developed by the OECD’s Network on Gender Equality represent a consensus among international donor institutions:

- Women’s economic empowerment is a prerequisite for sustainable development, pro-poor growth, and the achievement of all [developing countries]. At the same time, it is about rights and equitable societies.
- Achieving women’s economic empowerment is not a “quick fix.” It will take sound public policies, a holistic approach, and long-term commitment from all development actors.
- Start with women by integrating gender-specific perspectives at the design stage of policy and programming.
- More equitable access to assets and services — land, water, technology, innovation and credit, banking, and financial services — will strengthen women’s rights, increase agricultural productivity, reduce hunger, and promote economic growth.
- Infrastructure programs should be designed to maximize access of poor people, including women and men, to the benefits of roads, transportation services, telecommunications, energy, and water.
- Women experience barriers in almost every aspect of work. Employment opportunities need to be improved. At the same time, women perform the bulk of unpaid care work. This is an area for greater attention by development actors through increased recognition and valuing of the ways in which care work supports thriving economies.
- Innovative approaches and partnerships are needed to scale up women’s economic empowerment.

— *Women’s Economic Empowerment*,  
OECD Network on Gender Equality, 2012

notwithstanding concerning limitations on workplace safety and labor freedoms – the rise of the garment industry helps explain declining fertility, increasing age at marriage, and the rapid increase of girls' educational attainment. (Health and Mobarak, 2014). To achieve these results, however, women must be allowed to work. In many countries, formal employment of women remains often curtailed by their restricted access to public spaces and limited personal autonomy. (OECD, 2012).

Women's participation as employees in international value chains is often limited to the most price-competitive, lowest-value-added segments (such as textiles and agriculture), where employment is highly vulnerable to fluctuations in demand and segregated by sex. (ILO, 2013). Additionally, women's participation in manufacturing is negatively correlated with higher levels of value-added manufacturing and capital intensity in production. Gender differences in education can segregate workers into different industries and pose barriers that prevent women from entering export-oriented sectors (Higgins, 2012). Finally, the ILO has found that women in most countries are more likely than men to hold informal jobs, thus removing them from the benefits of national labor legislation, social protection, and entitlement to such employment benefits as annual or sick leave, maternity leave, severance pay, and others.

**WEConnect International** facilitates sustainable economic growth by increasing opportunities for women-owned businesses to succeed in global value chains. They identify, educate, register, and certify women's business enterprises based outside of the U.S. that are at least 51% owned, managed, and controlled by one or more women, and connect women-owned businesses with multinational corporate purchasing organizations. WEConnect International assists corporations to diversify their supplier base to reflect their markets, increase shareholder value, and enhance their competitive advantage. According to the Hackett Group, companies that focus heavily on supplier diversity generate 133% greater return on procurement investment than typical businesses. The WEConnect International corporate network represents over US\$700 billion in annual purchasing power.

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## THE TRADE-GENDER NEXUS: A SUMMARY

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### **Benefits for women:**

*Increased trade results in more jobs and better connections to markets*

Trade has increased formal job opportunities for women, resulting in greater autonomy gained through wage-paying jobs outside the home and investing wages earned to improve their families' health and education.

Expanded international markets increase opportunities for development and growth of small/medium enterprises, including women-owned firms, which are increasingly engaged as suppliers by multi-national companies.



### **Benefits for trade:**

*Economically empowered women improve trade*

In global terms, women have been found to be more significant as drivers of economic growth than China, India, or the Internet.

With increased incomes, women's influence over critical decisions regarding their work, family, and selves also increases. This can contribute to economic growth by improving nutrition, health, and education outcomes.

Women-owned enterprises are increasingly seen as a source of new and better supplies, particularly in retail and consumer goods.



### **On the other hand:**

*Where gender gaps are already severe, trade may exacerbate those gaps and even diminish conditions for women*

In developing countries, wage employment arising from international trade is mostly low-skilled, labor-intensive, underpaid, and low-value-added, with most jobs filled by women, particularly in the garment, agriculture, and IT sectors.

Wage gaps tend to widen in environments where women's relative access to education is poor.

Where exports are dominated by natural resources and agriculture, women have less access to jobs offering security and growth potential. Natural resource wealth often results in "Dutch Disease", making industries where women play a greater role (such as textiles or retail goods) less profitable. In agriculture, women often provide unpaid labor to the farm.

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## DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How would you characterize the "trade-gender nexus" in the country or economy where you work?
2. Do you observe economic inequality between women and men in your work/country? How is this apparent and why do you think this inequality is present?
3. Regarding the statement that trade liberalization can "exacerbate existing inequalities and worsen women's economic and social status," have you observed this to be true in any country or economy where you have worked? In what way? How do you feel development projects should anticipate or respond to this issue?

## RESOURCES

- Higgins, Kate, "Gender and Free Trade Agreements: Best Practices and Policy Guidance." The North-South Institute (2012).
- Klugman, J. and Gamberoni, E., "Gender and Trade: A Fresh Look at the Evidence." International Trade Forum Magazine (2012).
- OECD, Report on the Gender Initiative: Gender Equality in Education, Employment, and Entrepreneurship (2011).
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- OECD, "Social Inclusion and Gender Index" (2014).
- OECD, Women's Economic Empowerment, The OECD DAC Network on Gender Equality (2012).
- Ogus, Simon, Women Power and Economic Growth in Asia (2013).
- United Nations Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality, "Gender Equality and Trade Policy" (Resource Paper, 2011).
- UNESCAP/Asian Development Bank/UNDP, "Asia-Pacific Aspirations: Perspectives for a Post-2015 Development Agenda." (2013).
- USAID Policy on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment. (2012).
- Women Moving Millions, "All in for Her: Top 100 Reports" (on women and girls). 2014.

# PART 2: TESTING ASSUMPTIONS AND MEASURING CHANGE

## The Need for Sex-Disaggregated Data and Empirical Evidence

Statistics and qualitative data allow for more a more accurate understanding and analysis of the gender gaps that exist across all countries (WEF Global Gender Gap Report, 2013). Gender-related interventions lead to more successful, sustainable results when their design is grounded by data, which establishes a baseline understanding of conditions, as well as validated empirical evidence drawn from development projects and other interventions. The ability to measure the results of interventions, and the differential impacts of these interventions on men and women, boys and girls, requires the application of gender sensitive indicators. Effective indicators disaggregate data by sex, age and other variables and capture the impact on vulnerable populations.

The UN Foundation’s comprehensive review of data on women’s participation and well-being, published in 2014 and known as “Data2x,” concludes that the design of policies and programs to promote female advancement and expanded opportunities generally has been hampered by lack of data (United Nations Foundation, Data2X: Mapping Gender Data Gaps, 2014). According to Data2X, the dearth of data is more severe in developing than industrial countries, and, in all countries, data pertaining to women’s economic engagement is especially poor.

A number of tools and indicators exist to measure different aspects of business environments. Those tools that assess the accessibility of institutions and opportunities, or focus specifically on small and medium-sized enterprises or industrial factory workers, are especially useful toward understanding the underlying conditions for women’s economic empowerment. Moreover, as noted in Data2X, “Existing international databases often have data that could be disaggregated by sex and analyzed to address gender data gaps. These data sources should be mined before initiating new data-collection efforts” (United Nations Foundation, 2014). When data are not available, gender equality and women’s empowerment data gaps should also be highlighted. In order to close these data gaps, the development of new indicators and data management tools or revision of existing indicators and guidance may be necessary.

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### The Need for Better Gender Data

Policymaking in many developing countries suffers from a lack of sufficient data and understanding of the roles of women in cross-border agricultural trade ... Studies of women in cross-border trade have tended to focus on informal, small-scale traders, while omitting the experiences of women working in trade services, such as customs brokering, freight-forwarding, and the trucking industry, as well as women working as employees, managers, and executives in large-scale agribusiness.”

**Source:** USAID Enabling Agricultural Trade, 2012

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## OPPORTUNITIES IN DATA COLLECTION

The demand for better data crosses all levels of economic engagement – within households, communities, countries, regions and international value chains. As interest in women’s economic empowerment grows, along with new questions specifically about the dynamics of cross-border trade, there is intensified demand at the national and regional levels for the following:

- **Data about general social differences between the sexes, beginning at the household level.** As noted by the Asia Development Bank, “Data are limited on hard-to-measure gender issues such as intra-household inequalities, the role of social institutions, and the relationship between inequality and overall development.” (ADB, 2013). One useful way to understand the difference in men and women’s ability to access markets for the goods and services they provide is to examine their relative contributions of unpaid labor – such as care for children or housework -- to their households. Where women put in a disproportionate amount of time on household chores, they are less likely to have time to build their enterprises or participate in networking activities.
- **Data showing how men and women are distributed in key value chains.** One major emphasis of the groundbreaking USAID Greater Access to Trade Expansion (GATE) project, which took place from 2005 through 2009, was the reality that men and women are generally not evenly distributed across value chains. Men and women typically undertake different tasks, and there often is sex-segmentation in terms of wages and ownership. “By collecting data on the locations of men and women in the value chain, on their labor returns, and on ownership/ management rates, areas of inequality can be identified,” the project recommended. (USAID/GATE, 2010).
- **Data about the extent of men’s and women’s leadership in business.** Across Asia and the MENA region, there is strikingly little data about whether and to what extent formal enterprises are owned or managed by women. Although some sources, such as the occasional World Bank enterprise survey, query businesses about women’s participation, few countries have developed routine procedures for collecting such information at the point of business-government contact. The IFC recommends a straightforward fix to this data deficit: “The development of a new company’s registry or the modernization of an existing one – for example through the development of an e-registry – offers the opportunity to put in place systems for sex-disaggregated data on shareholders and directors.” The IFC points out that company registration forms, and forms relating to changes in shareholders and directors, present an opportunity to “tick a box, indicating whether each director or shareholder is male or female.” (IFC, 2010).
- **Data about the extent to which women, relative to men, participate in cross-border trade, including the wide range of women traders.** Women’s participation in cross-border trade is particularly lacking in data that would shed light on the nature and the value of transactions. The World Bank has encouraged the use of diagnostic assessments, with sampling that includes “a good representation of women, and include[s] different types of women traders.” The World Bank further cautions that data collection at the border should “recognize and respond to any socio-cultural barriers women may face in participating in such a study, including caring responsibilities, language and literacy.” (World Bank, Gender Dimensions of Trade, 2012). This information will also shed light on the financial loss incurred of not integrating women’s economic empowerment activities into trade capacity-building programs.
- **Empirical evidence about the types of development interventions that empower women economically.** As illustrated by a major inquiry in 2013 into the success of development

interventions that aim to support women, three main questions can be answered through studies and program evaluations that gather and analyze qualitative and quantitative data:

- **What works:** Which economic empowerment interventions are proven, promising, or high-potential, based on the evidence [from] rigorous policy and program evaluations?
- **For whom:** What interventions are most effective for specific categories of men and women working for pay, seeking work, or owning/managing businesses?
- **Where:** How do global, regional, or country factors influence the success of interventions? (UN Foundation/ExxonMobil, 2013).

## WOMEN'S ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION: A QUANTITATIVE SNAPSHOT

|  | VIETNAM     | INDONESIA   | JORDAN      | MOROCCO                                   |
|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|---|
| Literacy rate (% of female and male population, respectively), 2011 estimate                       | 91.4/95.44  | 90.1/95.6   | 93.9/97.9   | 57.6/76.1                                 |
| Labor participation rate, (% of female and male population ages 15+, respectively), 2012           | 73/82       | 51/86       | 15/66       | 43/57                                     |
| Unemployment (% of female and male labor force, respectively, based on modeled ILO estimate), 2012 | 2/1.6       | 8.2/5.6     | 21/10.3     | 9.9/8.7                                   |
| Employment in the agriculture sector (% of total workforce), latest year of measurement, 2012      | 47          | 35          | 2.6         | 39  |
| Employment in industry (% of total workforce), latest year of measurement, 2012                    | 21          | 22          | 20          | 19  |
| Employment in services (% of total workforce), latest year of measurement, 2012                    | 32          | 43          | 77.4        | 39  |
| Trade in services (% of GDP), 2012   | 14.2        | 6.6         | 33          | 24.5                                      |
| Employees, agriculture (% of female and male employment, respectively), 2012                       | 50/45       | 34/35       | ½           | N/A                                       |
| Employees, industry, female (% of male/female employment, respectively), 2012                      | 17/25       | 16/25       | 8/19        | N/A                                       |
| Employees, services, female and male (% of respective employment), 2012                            | 29/34       | 39/49       | 79/91       | N/A                                       |
| % of firms with female participation in ownership  | 59.2 (2009) | 42.8 (2009) | 15.7 (2013) | 13.1 (2007)                               |
| % of firms with female top manager   | 26.4 (2009) | 31.2 (2009) | 2.4 (2013)  | None reported (650+ firms surveyed, 2007) |
| Proportion (%) of permanent full-time workers at firms who are female (%)                          | 36 (2009)   | 33.8 (2009) | 7.6 (2013)  | 39.8 (2007)                               |
| Account at a formal financial institution, female (% age 15+) 2011                                 | 19          | 19          | 17          | 27  |

Sources: World Bank Databank, Enterprise Surveys, and Financial Inclusion Survey; CIA Factbook.

## USING DATA TO MEASURE CHANGE

In response to USAID's Policy on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (2012), trade and economic growth projects have strengthened their efforts, first, to identify how women may face different conditions than men in their work, and, second, to measure how women are specifically impacted by program interventions. The following list of indicators illustrates how the economic participation of women can be measured alongside that of men. Many of these indicators require sex-disaggregated data.

### Indicators on business services, finance, and training for SMEs:

#### SME Growth and Business Support

- Percentage of existing women-owned SMEs, disaggregated by sector and size.
- Percentage of new women-owned SMEs, disaggregated by sector and size.
- Number of new services offered by women's associations created.
- Increase in number of members in existing women's association.
- Percentage of business owners reporting increase in revenue after receiving of business training, disaggregated by sex.

#### Employees

- Number of new employees hired, disaggregated by sex.
- Number of workers employed per year, disaggregated by sex.
- Percentage of employees retained per year, disaggregated by sex.
- Salaries of workers employed in representative cluster, disaggregated by sex and by job category.

#### Finance

- Percent of male/female-owned SMEs with an account at a formal financial institution.
- Percent of businesses receiving their first loan, disaggregated by sex of business owner, sector, and size of business.
- Percentage of businesses receiving a loan, disaggregated by sex of business owner, sector, and size of business.
- Number of loan schemes developed with beneficial loan terms for women borrowers.
- Number of clients that receive pre-and-post investment counseling, disaggregated by sex.

#### Policy Environment

- Number of business owners reporting increased ability to advocate for economic reform, disaggregated by sex.
- Number of improvements in laws or regulations that increase women's economic participation.

### **Border-related operational and administrative areas of measurement:**

- Percentage of businesses engaged in export, disaggregated by sex and business size.
- Percentage of respondents who report difficulty in conducting trade due to challenges with customs policies, disaggregated by sex.
- Percentage of respondents reporting increased access to cross-border markets, disaggregated by sex.
- Percentage of respondents reporting ease of access to customs and trade-related information, disaggregated by sex.
- Percentage of customs forms available online.
- Percentage of customs forms processed online, disaggregated by sex.
- Percentage of respondents who report improvements to safety and security at the border, disaggregated by sex.
- Percentage of border officials trained in gender issues, including sexual harassment, disaggregated by sex.
- Percentage of female border officials, disaggregated by manager/non-manager status.

### **Discussion Questions**

1. In the environment where you work, how might you identify a value chain that presents the strongest opportunities for strengthening women's economic participation, including with respect to cross-border trade? What other factors would inform your prioritization of one value chain over another?
2. Will the availability of sex-disaggregated data change the way a project communicates its results and recommendations to stakeholders including funders, local partners and the national government?
3. What is the relative value of quantitative data versus qualitative information as resources for informing your project design decisions?
4. Considering the statistics presented in the first "Women's Economic Participation" table on page nine, which strike you as the most interesting or surprising? How would you expect this information to affect your choices or priorities in designing a program?
5. What additional indicators on business services, finance, and training for SMEs would be relevant in your work or the context in which you work?

## RESOURCES

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United Nations, “Integrating a Gender Perspective into Statistics,” online gender statistics manual (2013).

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USAID, “ADS Chapter 205: Integrating Gender Equality and Female Empowerment in USAID’s Program Cycle” <http://www.usaid.gov/ads/policy/200/205> (July, 2013).

USAID, “USAID Evaluation Policy” <http://www.usaid.gov/evaluation/policy> (January, 2011)

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World Economic Forum, *Global Gender Gap Report*. (2013).

# PART 3: “BEHIND THE BORDER”

## Connecting Women to the Formal Sector: Jobs, Finance, and Other Opportunities through Trade

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*“Worldwide, women are three times more likely than men to be found in the informal economy.”*

*The World Bank, 2010*

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### ACCESS TO MARKETS

Trade presents both opportunities and challenges for women. Although women and men’s circumstances vary widely across and within countries, some generalizations are possible. In most societies, women typically have less access to productive resources and assets such as land, credit, foreign exchange, occupational training, and other forms of financial, physical and human capital.<sup>1</sup> Women usually work longer total hours in productive and reproductive activities, have fewer employment opportunities, earn lower wages, face greater time constraints and consume less leisure.

In most developing countries, women and men experience access to markets quite differently. Particularly in some parts of the Middle East, restrictions on women’s ability to travel within or beyond their immediate communities means that their ability to transport any goods they produce is significantly limited. It also restricts their ability to work outside of their homes.

Targeted interventions have the capacity to address some of the primary challenges women face in access to markets. As USAID’s Policy on Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment states, “High-tech tools such as the Internet and cell phones, as well as low-tech innovations such as clean cook stoves, have the power to improve women’s safety and health, increase economic productivity, and reduce unpaid labor.” Also, “improving rural roads, transportation facilities and services increases women’s mobility and can increase their productivity and income by easing access to markets, reducing post-harvest loss of perishable goods.” Infrastructure may be tangible (such as roads, public markets, storage facilities, energy conduits, and ports) or intangible (such as information technology resources and personal and professional networks that facilitate trade). In all cases, however, it is important to consider social, political and economic barriers in each context that may lead to differential access to these goods and services.

#### What Do We Mean by “Access to Markets”?

Economically active women primarily engage with one or more of the following markets:

**Labor markets** refer to institutions and/or processes through which workers and employees interact. Employment provides opportunities to provide labor for remuneration, often in the form of wages.

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<sup>1</sup> Gammage, Jorgensen, McGill, White 2002.

Labor may be formal, regulated by national labor law and in some instances collective bargaining agreements, or informal, with less clarity about wages and hours. There tends to be a direct relationship between a worker's skills and bargaining power: The more skills she brings to the table, the more she can command in terms of salary and other conditions of work. Low-skill workers tend to be the most vulnerable to grueling conditions of employment, although the proliferation of factory work in many countries has nonetheless lifted many women and their families out of poverty.

**Financial markets** are structures or mechanisms for the exchange of capital and credit, largely determined by supply and demand for products and services offered by financial intermediaries, including banking, credit, savings, insurance, pensions, mortgages, and other financial instruments that spread risk or insure against loss. Financial markets from the perspective of economically active women are discussed in this section's review of "accessing finance."

**Markets for goods** encompass the buying and selling of inputs *for* production processes and outputs *from* those processes. These markets entail a nearly infinite variety of goods, from fertilizer to all types of foodstuffs, whether directly from the farm or heavily processed or refined, as well as inputs for and outputs from manufacturing processes that produces garments, housewares, electronics, and machinery. Markets take many forms, from casual outdoor trading centers to massive wholesale depots.

**Markets for services** describe the "delivery, purchase, or hiring-in of services that can enhance or upgrade productive activities. A variety of services can help improve productivity and expand the scope and value of market activities. Access to training and workforce development can upgrade skills, raise productivity, and improve earnings and wages. Small business development services can provide targeted assistance to expand existing activities, penetrate new markets and improve efficiency. Extension services can increase output, diversify and improve production, reduce risk, and raise the quality and price of the goods traded. While some of these services are traded, others may be provided by governments or intermediaries, as partially or fully subsidized programs, to fulfill distributional or efficiency goals." (USAID GATE, 2005).

## ENTRY INTO THE FORMAL JOB MARKET

### Formality of Paid Work

Trade liberalization and the rise of export oriented industries provide significant employment opportunities for women’s wage labor, particularly in manufacturing. The 2013 World Development

### “BEHIND THE BORDER”: ISSUES AND RESOURCES

|  |   |
|--|---|
| <p>Legal and regulatory framework, including general civil protections for women, property rights, entrepreneurship, licensing, wage employment, contract enforcement, quality standards, etc.</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• OECD/Social Inclusion and Gender Index (November 2014 and previous editions)</li> <li>• World Bank, <i>Women, Business and the Law: Removing Restrictions to Enhance Gender Equality</i> (2014) – Report and Database of laws</li> <li>• IMF, <i>Women, Work and the Economy: Macroeconomic Gains from Gender Equity</i> (2013) – Staff Discussion Note</li> <li>• IFC, <i>Investing in Women’s Employment: Good for Business, Good for Development</i> (2013)</li> <li>• World Bank, <i>Gender at Work: A Companion to the World Development Report on Jobs</i> (2014)</li> <li>• USAID/BizCLIR, AgCLIR, GenderCLIR and HealthCLIR methodologies and country assessments (2003-2013)</li> </ul> |
| <p>Education, training, and workforce development</p>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• USAID education strategy and accompanying materials (2011-2015); USAID, <i>State of the Field Report: Examining the Evidence in Youth Workforce Development</i> (2013)</li> <li>• IFC Gender Secretariat aims to work with private sector clients to provide equal access to men and women for opportunities at the firm level.</li> </ul>   |
| <p>Key sectors and value chains</p>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• USAID/Greater Access to Trade Expansion program (GATE), <i>Promoting Gender Equitable Opportunities in Agricultural Value Chains</i> (2009).</li> <li>• Duke Center on Globalization, Governance, and Competitiveness and RTI International, <i>Skills for Upgrading: Workforce Development and Global Value Chains in Developing Countries</i> (2011).</li> </ul>   |
| <p>Market opportunities for women</p>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• USAID, <i>Enhancing Women’s Access to Markets: An Overview of Donor Programs and Best Practices</i> (2005) (GATE analysis document).</li> </ul>  |
| <p>Access to finance</p>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• IFC. “Women Entrepreneurs and Access to Finance,” (November 2006)</li> <li>• Global Banking Alliance for Women, <a href="http://www.gbaforwomen.org/">http://www.gbaforwomen.org/</a></li> <li>• New York University, Financial Access Initiative, <a href="http://www.financialaccess.org/">http://www.financialaccess.org/</a></li> </ul>  |

Report estimates that women comprise between 70-90 percent of workers in the export processing zones worldwide. In agricultural industries, women make up approximately 43 percent of the formally documented agricultural workforce, according to the 2010-11 State of Food and Agriculture report from the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). FAO studies note that informal participation in this sector, particularly in developing countries, may mean that women produce well over half the world’s food. In short, international trade in many sectors relies heavily on women’s labor.

Women also constitute a disproportionate number of workers in the informal sector and one way to improve women's livelihoods is to support their integration into formal labor markets. Workers in the informal sector range from street vendors to micro-entrepreneurs to home based garment workers. What these workers have in common are that they are not organized within a firm, are unregulated by the state, and are excluded from economic accounts of national income. As documented particularly in the 2009 West Bank BizCLIR report, absence of social safety nets is a key point on the vicious cycle of informality. Informal workers do not pay into a system of social security, so they rarely receive government support when they become old or disabled. Some governments are moving toward establishing social safety nets for informal workers. For example, India has developed worker welfare funds to provide social protection for workers in the informal economy.

While employment in export processing zones (EPZs) may be a better alternative than the less regular, precarious work in the informal sector, women workers tend to be concentrated in low-skilled, low-wage production work with fairly rapid turnover rates. In some countries, women are increasingly being employed in other export-oriented services such as information processing, tourism, and financial services. A number of initiatives have emerged to promote better working conditions in these sectors. Some are private voluntary initiatives, generally negotiated between industry and civil society representatives; some initiatives also involve multilateral organizations or governments.

Labor markets in most economies exhibit some degree of gender segregation. Women and men often work in distinct activities that usually lead to different rewards and career opportunities even though they may have similar education and labor market skills. Gender segregation can result in substantial income losses arising from what can be objectively considered to be the misallocation of the labor force where competent women may be excluded from the most productive activities that they could undertake by social norms and expectations that dictate a narrow range of "acceptable" employment opportunities. Similarly, the feminization of certain sectors and occupations also appears to be associated with lower economic rewards. Women's earnings typically average around two-thirds of men's.

## **Improving Opportunities in Paid Employment**

**Respond to reality that start-up capital often comes from one's own savings from wages,** including through better understanding of wage differences between men and women:

- *Strengthen data collection on wages* by government agencies, university researchers, business associations, and advocacy groups. Often national data is not sufficiently gender-disaggregated to enable targeted policy approaches.
- *Ensure skills training programs provide equal opportunities to men and women.* Vocational training programs should aim to build equal opportunities for women and men. Governments throughout Asia and the Middle East are implementing national skills development programs, targeted at filling new demands in the labor market and spurring economic growth. These programs provide opportunities to improve the capacity of women to participate in skilled work although often run the risk of reinforcing cultural and social barriers.

- *Increase awareness about equal pay laws among employers, employees, lawyers, and judges. Both positive incentives and sanctions can be part of a smart policy mix to promote equality in wages. Streamline the process of filing wage complaints and develop shared forms for lawyers — including complaints to employers, the labor ministry, and courts — so they can efficiently represent women workers facing wage discrimination.*
- *Support examples of social dialogue between women workers and employers. In well-functioning labor relations systems, workers and employers have a framework to jointly negotiate wages and terms of employment to their mutual benefit. Employers enjoy enhanced productivity, and both workers and employers benefit from stability and predictability in the workplace.*

### **Enterprise Formality**

As underscored in the World Bank’s guide to “Gender Dimensions of Investment Climate Reform” (2010) and USAID-sponsored BizCLIR and AgCLIR studies since 2003, it is surprisingly difficult to get a clear picture of the relative representation of women-owned enterprises in a country’s formal economy, let alone of informal enterprises. Business registries across developing economies in Asia and the Middle East rarely record the sex of the majority ownership of newly registered companies. Enterprise surveys and household surveys sometimes enable rough estimates, but details about ownership can be elusive. Still, development interventions, particularly those that work directly with women-owned enterprises, can take steps to strengthen the inclination and capacity of those businesses not only to join the formal sector, but also to strengthen their ability to succeed within it.

### **Better Work Jordan**

Better Work Jordan (BWJ) is part of the Better Work global program, which is a unique partnership between the ILO and IFC. Established in 2008, with USAID funding, Better Work Jordan worked with 59 factories, with 67% of the factories workers female. The program worked with factories to create a worker-management committee to identify where the factory may need to improve in terms of labor compliance, management systems, training needs, and sets new targets. With training, tools, and advisory services, the factories were responsible for the quality of factory improvements. Impacts include: reports of frequent exhaustion or fatigue are down nearly 50%; the use of yelling as a punishment is down 77% since the start of the program; during the second data collection, concern about sexual harassment dropped, with the proportion of participants reporting that sexual harassment is a concern declining by 10%. The program also resulted in an increase in compliance of working conditions in the areas of minimum wages, paid leave, overtime wages, health services, and working environment. Additionally, most factories enrolled in Better Work Jordan are preferred suppliers in global supply chains and are trusted by their key buyers.



Source: Project Newsletter, August-December 2013

The World Bank suggests a three-part approach to integrating issues of gender equality, women's economic empowerment, and enterprise formality, as presented in the table below.



## DIAGNOSTIC

- Assess percentage of women's businesses that have formalized
- Obtain qualitative data from (or Conduct a perceptions survey) on main barriers to the formalization businesses, disaggregated by sex
- Obtain qualitative data from on main barriers to the formalization of men's and women's businesses
- Compile information on the licensing and permit policies
- Conduct a gender analysis on registration, licensing, and permit processing to understand constraints and opportunities
- Undertake institutional assessments through a gendered lens



## DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

- Based on assessments, define gender-related program result goals
- Identify strategic partners and develop a context-specific approach
- Undertake legal and regulatory reform to abolish discriminatory provisions and simplify processes
- Address licensing regimes most likely to affect women entrepreneurs
- Conduct outreach activities, trainings, and provide targeted support to encourage women to formalize
- Undertake institutional reforms to create a more supportive business environment for women entrepreneurs
- Ensure that ongoing reform tools incorporate a gender dimension



## M&E

- Ensure that key information can be disaggregated by sex
- Incorporate output and outcome indicators that highlight gender aspects of the program

Source: World Bank, "Gender Dimensions of Investment Climate Reform: A Guide for Policy Makers and Practitioners," 2010

## ACCESS TO FINANCE

Although more comprehensive data is needed, there is increasing recognition of the relative paucity of loans to women-owned enterprises compared with loans to male-owned businesses throughout the world. Two general categories of responsiveness have emerged: (1) special loan products for women; and (2) improved accessibility of traditional finance products, including savings accounts, loans, letters of credit, and trade-finance services. Though popular, the special categories for women (such as microfinance and low-rate government loans, often through agricultural development banks) have limitations, including low loan amounts and crowding out of private sector alternatives. The greater

challenge is to make traditional products as accessible to women as they are to men, through such long-term reforms as better access to property titles, or collateral free loans, improved credit bureaus, and direct outreach to potential banking customers. Ultimately, banks and other financial providers will lend more to women when the perceived risks are reduced.

Following donor-sponsored interventions in Asian and Middle Eastern countries in recent years, a number of “best practices” are emerging, including the following, drawn from a variety of USAID-sponsored development documents.

**In traditional and vocational educational contexts, promote women’s savings and financial literacy**, with lessons pertaining to women’s ability to save money, build capital, and access finance for enterprise development.

**Collaborate with the private sector, including SME business associations and networks**, to create loan products that meet women’s needs as well as promote financial literacy, business plan development, and understanding of the loan application process among female entrepreneurs. Help women better evaluate the risks and benefits of credit and the different products that may be available to meet their needs. Encourage programs that provide women on-going mentorship throughout the loan process, including during repayment.

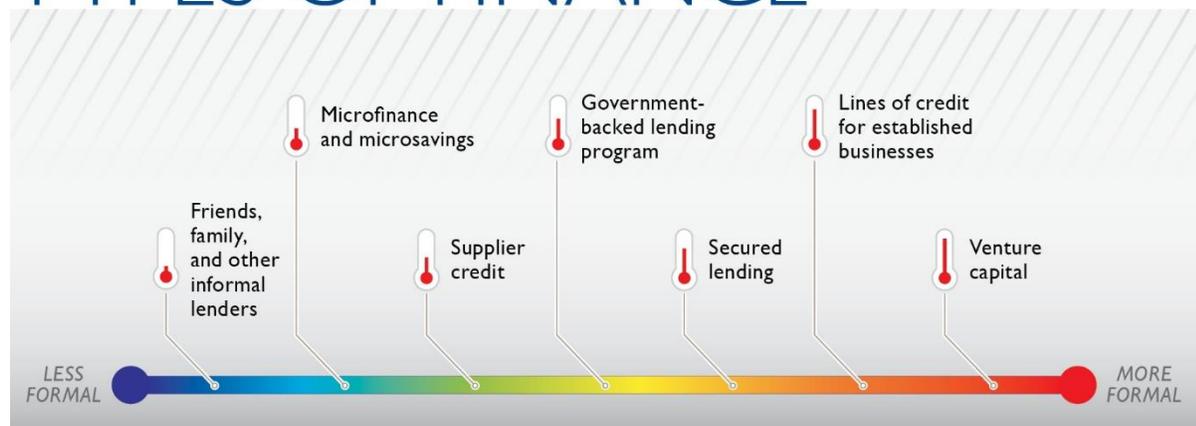
**In most lending programs, include a**

#### Microfinance: Revisiting and Reworking a Promising Idea

“Microfinance — including microcredits — is often considered to be an instrument that promotes empowerment. Whilst it can stabilize livelihoods, broaden choices, provide start-up funds for productive investment, help poor people to smooth consumption flows and send children to school, it can also lead to indebtedness and increased exclusion unless programs are well designed ... To graduate women’s income-generating activities from survival level into strong and viable businesses, women need access to the full range of credit, banking and financial services and facilities, essential to fully develop their productive assets, their land and their businesses.

“Banks in developing countries often have conservative lending practices. Consequently, small women-owned businesses face difficulties accessing the credit needed to invest in expanding their activities. Innovative interventions have encouraged the finance sector to deliver gender-

## REPRESENTATIVE TYPES OF FINANCE



**training component.** Evidence shows that lending programs, particularly those for microenterprises,

are more effective when they include a mandatory training component that provides instruction in financial management, business development, marketing, and other key skills.

**Work with large companies to integrate women-run SMEs into private sector supply chains.** Larger private enterprises, whether domestic or foreign-owned, can extend credit to women suppliers and work with them to develop production capacity and meet quality standards.

**Educate consumers about mobile banking, with an emphasis on opportunities and risks for women.**

Training can be sponsored by a variety of providers, including banks and financial institutions, as well as women's organizations, government agencies, and even church groups.

### **Networking and Women's Business Associations**

One critical tool for accessing markets is the ability to share information and resources in an efficient and cost-effective manner. A study by the Asia Foundation focused in Southeast Asia found that a higher percentage of women business owners never interact with business associations. Despite this fact, participation in business associations was significantly correlated with positive gains for women-run businesses. Women who interact with business associations were 24% more likely to report plans to increase the size of their operation than those that did not. Further, participation in business associations was significantly correlated with increased firm size for women's businesses (and less so for men's). Similarly, engagement with informal networks was also found to benefit both men's and women's businesses.<sup>2</sup> (Asia Foundation, 2013) Through informal and formal networks, women in developing economies may collaborate with one another to:

- Share information, including information pertaining to business, health, educational, and political opportunities
- Take advantage of mentoring opportunities
- Pool resources and capitalize on shared assets
- Take on projects that individual network participants might not be able to manage themselves
- Develop solutions to specific problems, including lack of individual experience with credit
- Identify and create new opportunities for growth or advancement
- Advocate shared interests to policy makers and other authority figures
- Form cross-border trade partnerships



Rural women benefiting from microfinance in Morocco. Photo: USAID

<sup>2</sup> Source: The Asia Foundation, *Access to Trade and Growth of Women's SMEs in APEC Developing Economies: Evaluating Business Environments in Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand*. February 2013. [http://publications.apec.org/publication-detail.php?pub\\_id=1388](http://publications.apec.org/publication-detail.php?pub_id=1388)

- Generate support for individual ascension into positions of power

These groups can be highly structured, holding regular meetings and with a set membership, or more loosely defined. Many virtual business networks exist where members never meet face-to-face, but rather utilize a shared website and communicate via email.

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## REPRESENTATIVE NETWORKING OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN IN TRADE

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| Asia  | Middle East and North Africa   |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bangladesh Women Chamber of Commerce and Industry <a href="http://www.bwcci-bd.org">www.bwcci-bd.org</a></li> <li>• Business and Professional Women's Association of Thailand<br/><a href="http://www.bpwbangkok.org/about_en.php">http://www.bpwbangkok.org/about_en.php</a></li> <li>• All China Women's Federation<br/><a href="http://www.womenofchina.cn">www.womenofchina.cn</a></li> <li>• Asian Development Bank/Gender and Development<br/><a href="http://beta.adb.org/themes/gender/main">beta.adb.org/themes/gender/main</a></li> <li>• Asia Foundation: Women's Empowerment Program<br/><a href="http://asiafoundation.org/program/overview/womens-empowerment-program">asiafoundation.org/program/overview/womens-empowerment-program</a></li> <li>• AusAid: Gender equality and development<br/><a href="http://www.usaid.gov.au/keyaid/gender.cfm">www.usaid.gov.au/keyaid/gender.cfm</a></li> <li>• Cambodia Women Entrepreneurs Association<br/><a href="http://www.cweacambodia.com/?cat=19">http://www.cweacambodia.com/?cat=19</a></li> <li>• China Association of Women's Entrepreneurs<br/><a href="http://women.org.cn/english/duomeiti/english/index.htm">women.org.cn/english/duomeiti/english/index.htm</a></li> <li>• Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific<br/><a href="http://www.unescap.org">www.unescap.org</a></li> <li>• Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FICCI) Ladies' Organization (FLO)<br/>- <a href="http://www.ficciflo.com/">http://www.ficciflo.com/</a></li> <li>• Federation of Women Entrepreneurs Association Nepal (FWEAN)<br/><a href="http://www.fwean.org.np/">http://www.fwean.org.np/</a></li> <li>• Federation of Women Entrepreneur Associations Malaysia<br/><a href="http://www.fem.org.my">www.fem.org.my</a></li> <li>• Fund for Women in Asia<br/><a href="http://www.fundwomenasia.org">www.fundwomenasia.org</a></li> <li>• International Women's Development Agency<br/><a href="http://www.iwda.org.au">www.iwda.org.au</a></li> <li>• Korean Women's Association<br/><a href="http://www.kwacares.org">www.kwacares.org</a></li> <li>• Mentors Philippines Microfinance Foundation Inc.-<br/><a href="http://www.mixmarket.org/mfi/mentors-philippines">http://www.mixmarket.org/mfi/mentors-philippines</a></li> <li>• National Association of Women Entrepreneurs of Malaysia<br/><a href="http://www.nawem.org.my">www.nawem.org.my</a></li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Al Amana (Morocco) <a href="http://www.alamana.org.ma">www.alamana.org.ma</a></li> <li>• Arab Women's Leadership Institute<br/><a href="http://www.arabwomenleadership.org">www.arabwomenleadership.org</a></li> <li>• Asala - The Palestinian Businesswomen's Association<br/><a href="http://www.asala-pal.com/">http://www.asala-pal.com/</a></li> <li>• Association for Women's Total Advancement and Development (AWTAD)<br/><a href="http://www.awtad-egypt.org">www.awtad-egypt.org</a></li> <li>• Business Women Forum (BWF)<br/><a href="http://www.bwf.ps/index.php/en/">http://www.bwf.ps/index.php/en/</a></li> <li>• Business and Professional Women<br/><a href="http://www.bpwa.org.jo/">http://www.bpwa.org.jo/</a></li> <li>• Business Women of Egypt 21<br/><a href="http://www.bwe21-egypt.com">www.bwe21-egypt.com</a></li> <li>• Center of Arab Women for Training and Research<br/><a href="http://www.cawtar.org">www.cawtar.org</a></li> <li>• Enda inter-arabe<br/><a href="http://www.endarabe.org.tn">www.endarabe.org.tn</a></li> <li>• Horticultural Export Improvement Association (HEIA)<br/><a href="http://www.heiaegypt.org">www.heiaegypt.org</a></li> <li>• Lead Foundation (Egypt)<br/><a href="http://www.lead.org.eg">www.lead.org.eg</a></li> <li>• MENA Business Women's Network<br/><a href="http://www.menabwn.org">www.menabwn.org</a></li> <li>• Microfund for Women (Jordan)<br/><a href="http://www.swwb.org/www-network/mena/microfund-women">swwb.org/www-network/mena/microfund-women</a></li> <li>• OECD-MENA Women's Business Forum<br/><a href="http://www.oecd.org/mena/investment/womensbusinessforum.htm">www.oecd.org/mena/investment/womensbusinessforum.htm</a></li> <li>• Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA)<br/><a href="http://www.sewa.org">www.sewa.org</a></li> <li>• Tamweelcom (Jordan)<br/><a href="http://www.tamweelcom.org">www.tamweelcom.org</a></li> <li>• Waedat<br/><a href="http://www.waedat.com/index.php?lang=en">http://www.waedat.com/index.php?lang=en</a></li> <li>• Young Entrepreneur's Association – Jordan<br/><a href="http://www.yeajordan.com/">http://www.yeajordan.com/</a></li> </ul> |

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- Negros Women for Tomorrow Foundation, Inc. (Philippines) [www.nwtf.ph](http://www.nwtf.ph)
- Network for Enterprising Women (NEW)- <https://www.facebook.com/newphils/timeline> Entrepreneur.com.ph Online Forum (<http://www.entrepreneur.com.ph/board/index.php?board=23.0>)
- The Philippines Exporters Confederation Inc. (PHILEXPORT) <http://www.philexport.ph/>
- Ruby Connection (women’s business community) [westpac.com.au/business-banking/women-in-business](http://westpac.com.au/business-banking/women-in-business)
- Self Employed Women's Association (India): [www.sewa.org](http://www.sewa.org)
- SPARK! Philippines (SPARK)- <http://sparkphilippines.org/>
- Vietnam Women’s Union [hoilhpn.org.vn/?Lang=EN](http://hoilhpn.org.vn/?Lang=EN)
- Women in Business Philippines (linkedin group- [https://www.linkedin.com/groups?home=&gid=2743206&trk=anet\\_ug\\_hm](https://www.linkedin.com/groups?home=&gid=2743206&trk=anet_ug_hm))
- Women’s Business Council of the Philippines [www.wbcp.ph](http://www.wbcp.ph); <http://www.womenbiz.ph/>
- Women Professionals & Entrepreneurs Thailand (WP&E Club)

## DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Of the three “behind the border” topics discussed here – entry into the formal sector; access to finance; and access to markets – which, if any, do you think should be a priority in development projects in the country or economy where you work?
2. What are your ideas for tackling the problem of women’s informal or “off the books” employment among companies engaged in manufacturing?
3. What is the process for entering the formal economy in the country or economy where you work? Do you believe it should be made more accessible to women-owned firms?
4. Among the ideas suggested in the “Access to Finance” section, which do you think would best serve the country or economy where you work?
5. In the country or region where you work, what are the primary challenges with respect to women’s access to markets?

# PART 4: “AT THE BORDER”

## Identifying and Supporting Women as Cross-Border Traders

Donor investments in women’s economic participation “behind the border” have grown in recent years, creating increased knowledge and understanding of best practice. In contrast, projects specifically involving “at the border” transactions have been far less oriented toward the gender aspects of their work. As of 2014, there is limited awareness on a country-by-country basis of where women can be found at the borders, whether as officials representing Customs, Immigration, or other border agencies; purveyors of trade services such as transport, storage, freight-forwarding, or customs brokerage; or representatives of formal or informal enterprises sending their goods to non-domestic markets. The need for stronger sex-disaggregated data and empirical evidence, discussed at Part 2 of this guide, applies especially to the mechanics of cross-border trade, because remarkably little is known about differences in how men and women participate in the process. The relative lack of awareness and integration of women into traditional trade programs — in particular those involving trade facilitation — is beginning to change. Increasing sources of knowledge are available to inform specific aspects of improving conditions for trade at the border. Issues and opportunities are set forth in the table below.

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### “AT THE BORDER” ISSUES AND ILLUSTRATIVE RESOURCES

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| Transportation infrastructure and public transportation  | Asian Development Bank, Mainstreaming Gender Equality in Infrastructure Projects (various project models, found at ADB website)  |
| Gender awareness and diversity of border personnel   | World Bank International Trade Department, <i>Gender Dimensions of Trade Facilitation and Logistics: A Guidance Note</i> (April 2012). In addition to setting forth some general principles about trade facilitation and gender, this resource references a variety of World Bank-sponsored projects that directly incorporated the gender dimensions of cross-border trade. |
| Equal access to public services and personal security  |  |
| Transaction costs and wait times   | USAID/Enabling Agricultural Trade program, Policy Brief: “Women in Cross-Border Agricultural Trade” (2012)   |
| Access to information and communication technology for traders, including knowledge and training in single windows | IFC, “Women Entrepreneurs and Access to Finance” (November 2006)<br>Global Banking Alliance for Women, <a href="http://www.gbaforwomen.org">www.gbaforwomen.org</a><br>New York University, Financial Access Initiative, <a href="http://www.financialaccess.org">www.financialaccess.org</a>  |

Development and trade professionals routinely make separate references to “formal” and “informal” traders. It is important to be aware that this dichotomy does not necessarily exist in “black and white.” There is a vast difference between, on the one hand, small, unregistered companies or individuals managing to carry their goods into other countries while avoiding formal oversight by border agencies and, on the other, international carriers transporting containers of manufactured goods from one region to another. Nonetheless, as summarized by the World Bank in an April 2012 Guidance Note, “Most cross-border traders have some engagement with officials — most travel with visas and most pay some (though not all) duties on goods ... While some traders operate entirely outside the formal economy,

others are registered domestically but escape some or all regulations and duties.” Thus, improvements to conditions for cross-border traders — such as streamlined bureaucratic processes, more safeguards against corruption, risk management, and improved safety — can have an impact on all traders, thus increasing trade volumes and values.

One especially meaningful guide to planning trade facilitation initiatives was published by USAID in March 2014. Titled “A

Comprehensive Approach to Trade Facilitation and Capacity-building: Connecting Developing Countries to Supply Chains,” the guide lays out USAID’s approach to grouping and sequencing the accomplishments of specific commitments under the World Trade Organization’s Trade Facilitation Agreement, which remained under consideration as of late 2014. The proposed Agreement suggests an implementation timeline for developing and least-developed countries (LDCs), with three categories of action: immediate, post-transition, and capacity-building. The Comprehensive Approach is similarly useful for general trade facilitation programs that may support regional trade initiatives or WTO accession.

The Comprehensive Approach defines four groupings, or clusters, that provide the basis for a sequential planning strategy. Under the strategy, technical assistance to address a specific requirement is timed to occur only after prerequisites are met. The four groups consist of:

- Political Will and Adoption of Fundamental Principles
- Procedural Simplification
- Compliance Management
- Interagency Cooperation and Coordination

As trade-facilitation projects respond to USAID’s commitment to integrating gender considerations into all of its work, these groups can be analyzed in terms of their programmatic implications. In particular, each group implies the need for increased consultation with stakeholders who can articulate the priorities and concerns of female traders and border officials. Although the Comprehensive Approach does not speak to the dimensions of planning that may relate to women’s participation in trade



Women entrepreneurs showcase the GREAT Women in ASEAN products at the ASEAN SME Showcase and Conference 2015 in Kuala Lumpur. Wananat Jaroonsoponsawat/USAID

### GREAT Women ASEAN

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) launched the Gender Responsive Economic Actions for the Transformation of women (GREAT Women) initiative, which is helping small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) led by women to sell their products beyond their own countries’ borders and protect their products’ intellectual property rights from being illegally copied and sold. This GREAT Women ASEAN initiative developed from GREAT Women Philippines, a collaboration between the Philippine Commission of Women, CIDSa, and the Empowering Communities with Hope and Opportunities through Sustainable Initiatives (ECHOsi) Foundation. Inspired by the need to elevate the quality of goods produced by female entrepreneurs from different regions, its marketing and branding platform helped Philippine women gain access to more markets. ECHOsi conducted design clinics and product improvement workshops to be able to bring products to “exportable” and global standards for GREAT Women Philippines. The next step connected women entrepreneurs with market access through the ECHOstore branches and women-led companies who volunteered to use GREAT Women products or help sell them. Initial product categories in the initiative include food items and spices, textiles and silk-based goods and high-fashion jewelry and accessories that are manufactured under fair labor and trade standards.

facilitation, its structure provides a framework for anticipating “at the border” interventions that may bring more women into the fold. In addition, the Comprehensive Approach presents a series of “lessons learned” from past trade-facilitation projects and activities, which establish a structure for integrating important gender considerations in the future.

The first column of the following table summarizes USAID’s lessons from many years of implementing trade-facilitation projects. The second column proposes questions that can be asked to ensure that future application of these lessons fully incorporates considerations of gender and women’s economic empowerment. Lessons are drawn from the Comprehensive Approach.

## THE GENDER IMPLICATIONS OF TRADE FACILITATION LESSONS LEARNED

### Lessons from USAID trade facilitation experience

**Political commitment.** There must be a firm commitment to trade facilitation reform goals at the highest levels of government and business. Without such a commitment, even a well-designed reform strategy is unlikely to succeed. Also, capacity-building efforts are likely to be unsuccessful, regardless of the quality of their design and implementation. Leaders' commitment must be sufficient to overcome resistance to change as well as opposing objectives.

#### **Mutual accountability between donors and host countries.**

Three elements are central in establishing mutual accountability:

- A shared agenda with clear objectives and reciprocal commitments
- Monitoring and evaluating these commitments and actions
- Dialogue and review

Accountability between partners and donors is enhanced by transparency about the effectiveness of the aid interventions and about learning what works and what does not work.

**Public/private sector accountability and transparency.** Ongoing dialogue between government and private trade organizations must be prioritized, and trading community views and recommendations should be given strong consideration in the drafting of new trade laws and regulations. Effective dialogue is a two-way street. Government managers and stakeholders must listen to each other with an open mind and a willingness to enter into partnerships in order to improve border processes and efficiencies. Partnerships can expand the impact of development efforts, accelerate the achievement of development outcomes, and implement sustainable solutions to development challenges.

**Economic gains.** There are proven economic benefits of eliminating unnecessary impediments to the movement of goods across international borders. But the presence of a development program alone does not guarantee results. Government managers, whether at the ministry, agency, regional, or field level, need to internalize that they share a responsibility to improve trade-related processes. Moreover, donors are often frustrated with the failure of technical assistance and capacity-building efforts to achieve the intended results. Allowing this trend to continue will eventually become a disincentive to potential donors. An awareness of the potential long-term economic impact of trade facilitation efforts should ensure buy-in from those government managers whose support is so crucial.

**Donor assistance.** The broad range of technical requirements in the Trade Facilitation Agreement, and the need to address issues and work with other border agencies that may not have previously had either an interest or experience in facilitation-oriented reforms, will present new challenges to both the donors committed to providing technical assistance and the developing countries receiving the assistance. It would be unreasonable for developing countries to expect technical assistance to accomplish every reform. It may be necessary for donors to limit the scope of technical assistance to the level necessary to achieve the basic provisions and then shift responsibility of fine-tuning reforms to the developing countries.

### Gender implications

Are efforts to seek the commitment of businesses inclusive of women-owned enterprises and women's business associations?

Are leaders aware of resistance to change that may arise from fear of change that may impact gender dynamics (e.g., fear of women working outside the home)?

Does the shared agenda integrate the interests and opinions of groups that are not routinely asked about their trade facilitation priorities, such as women traders and minority women traders?

Is the host country committed to maintaining sex-disaggregated data that can inform the monitoring and evaluation of commitments?

Do participants in dialogue represent a variety of value chains, including those of particular interest to women's economic participation?

Does public-private dialogue incorporate issues pertaining to small traders, including women?

Are women well represented among both government managers and other stakeholders?

Do efforts to quantify the potential long-term economic impact of trade facilitation efforts incorporate awareness of how increased trade by women-owned enterprises may impact the economy?

Do government officials have a vision for incorporating both women and men into its efforts for eliminating impediments to the movement of goods across borders?

Does the developing country have the capacity to implement trade facilitation reforms introduced or launched by donors? Where training is necessary, are women managers included in the training activities, and does training address the issues of all constituencies?

## APPROACHING “AT THE BORDER” GENDER ISSUES

A gender-sensitive approach to integrating women into trade logistics is mindful of women’s need to free up working capital so that they can use that capital to strengthen other aspects of their business. The World Bank has recommended the following:



### DIAGNOSTIC

- Obtain sex-disaggregated private sector views on trade logistics
- Map existing border and trade logistics processes through a gender lens
- Undertake institutional assessments, including customs and other border agencies, through a gender lens
- Survey women traders to understand perceived constraints in trade processes



### DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

- Agree on gender-related program results
- Ensure reforms are accompanied by a communications strategy aimed at women traders and women-owned enterprises
- Undertake institutional reform to provide improved services to women traders and women-owned enterprises
- Design risk management systems to enable women to benefit



### M&E

- Ensure that key results information can be disaggregated by sex
- Incorporate output and outcome indicators that highlight gender aspects of the program

Source: World Bank, “Gender Dimensions of Investment Climate Reform: A Guide for Policy Makers and Practitioners,” 2010.

## DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What are your observations about the spectrum of “informal” and “formal” traders in the country or economy where you work? How are their needs at the border different, and how are they alike?
2. How, if at all, have donor-sponsored trade-facilitation programs in the country or economy where you work integrated issues of gender equality or women’s economic empowerment? What were the results?
3. How, if at all, have donor-sponsored food security programs in the country or economy where you work integrated issues of gender and cross-border trade? What were the results?
4. Of the lessons learned from past trade facilitation programs listed above, which do you feel are most relevant to the country or economy where you work? How would you characterize the gender aspect(s) of those lessons?

# PART 5: “BEYOND THE BORDER”

## Gender Equality, Women’s Economic Empowerment, and Trade Policy

Trade policy embodies a country’s commitment to building and sustaining formal trade relations with its neighbors, its region, and international markets, through such mechanisms as mutual tariff reductions, harmonization of laws, and shared commitments to international norms. Trade policy, in practice, is demonstrated through the enforcement of national laws, policies, and the commitments made through trade pacts. Such agreements take many forms, including free-trade areas, customs unions, and economic communities. The vast majority of countries now belong to the WTO, which includes a number of special agreements for intellectual property and plant protection, services, and other issues.

Although trade pacts offer important avenues toward standardizing and streamlining cross-border trade, some countries find themselves overwhelmed by their obligations and commitments to international and regional trade agreements. Regional integration can be critical to enhancing trade opportunities (and ensuring food security). The overlapping nature of the regional trade agreements in many environments, however, poses administrative difficulties.

Most of the world’s major trade agreements were not negotiated with explicit mindfulness of the different experiences of men and women with respect to economic participation and trade. Increasingly, however, implementation of the agreements is reflecting greater awareness of these differences, both “behind” and “at” the borders. In the future, trade policy is likely to reflect a greater appreciation of the priorities of gender equality and women’s economic empowerment. Representative issues and opportunities in this area are set forth in following table.

### **How Can Issues of Gender Equality and Women’s Economic Empowerment Be Incorporated into Trade Policy?**

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

— U.N. Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality, “Gender Equality and Trade Policy” 2011

## BEYOND THE BORDER” CHALLENGES AND ILLUSTRATIVE RESOURCES

| “Beyond the Border” Issue Affecting Gender Equality                         | Representative Project Design Resources and Tools  |
|---|--|
| Capacity-building for trade negotiations and trade agreement implementation | <p>APEC Declaration, “2011 High Level Policy Dialogue on Women and the Economy” (San Francisco, California, USA, September 16, 2011)</p> <p>Higgins, Kate, "Gender and Free Trade Agreements: Best Practices and Policy Guidance." The North-South Institute (2012).</p>   |
| Regional trade policy (including tariffs and intellectual property rights)  | <p>Klugman, J. and Gamberoni, E., “Gender and Trade: A Fresh Look at the Evidence.” International Trade Forum Magazine (2012).</p> <p>USAID Fact Sheet, Trade Liberalization, Economic Growth, and Gender (2005)</p>   |
| Non-tariff measures   | <p>United Nations Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality, “Gender Equality and Trade Policy” (Resource Paper, 2011)</p> <p>OECD, Women’s Economic Empowerment, The OECD DAC Network on Gender Equality (2012).</p> <p>World Bank, Women, Business and the Law: Removing Restrictions to Enhance Gender Equality (2013).</p> <p>World Bank, Gender Dimensions of Investment Climate Reform: A Guide for Policy Makers and Practitioners (2010).</p> <p>World Bank International Trade Department, Gender Dimensions of Trade Facilitation and Logistics: A Guidance Note (April 2012).</p> |
| Agriculture/SPS   | <p>USAID/Enabling Agricultural Trade program, Policy Brief: “Women in Cross-Border Agricultural Trade” (2012)</p>  |
| Textiles and clothing   | <p>OECD Trade Policy Working Paper No. 24, Trade and Gender: Issues and Interactions (2005)</p>  |
| Trade in services   | <p>United Nations, Women Watch, “Gender and Trade Policy” (2011)</p>   |

## GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN’S EMPOWERMENT IN REGIONAL FORUMS

### Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)

The 1988 Declaration of the Advancement of Women in the ASEAN Region calls on Member States to promote and implement the equitable and effective participation of women in all fields and at various levels of the region’s political, economic, social and cultural life and to have national plans reflect the concerns of women as active agents in and beneficiaries of development. The 2011 to 2015 work plan of ASEAN’s Committee on Women focuses on five areas:

- **Human development**, including gender-sensitive curricula and strengthening of economic development among women by linking microenterprise development and management with the delivery of services, market access, social protection, and decent work conditions
- **Social welfare and protection and narrowing the development gap**, including realization of the Millennium Development Goals by 2015 and strengthening ASEAN

cooperation in microfinance, such as networking between microfinance institutions to address the “feminization” of poverty at the grassroots level

- **Social justice and rights**, including development of sex-disaggregated data, adherence to commitments under the Declaration of the Elimination of Violence Against Women, and a gendered perspective to policies, programs, and plans
- **Ensuring environmental sustainability**, chiefly a gendered perspective on climate change
- **Building an ASEAN identity**, namely through on women’s contribution to art and culture

ASEAN has increasingly committed to training national officials and leaders in matters of gender mainstreaming. In 2014, as mandated by the work plan, ASEAN launched the ASEAN Women Entrepreneurship Network (AWEN). AWEN is a network of business women across the ASEAN region focused on promoting initiatives to building gender equality, supporting women entrepreneurs, raising awareness, and creating a business environment more supportive of women entrepreneurs.

### **Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) forum**

Consisting of 21 economies in Asia, Latin America, and North America, APEC has, since 1998, endeavored to promote gender equality and female empowerment as essential components of its mission to support sustainable economic growth and prosperity in the Asia-Pacific region. In May, 2011, building on progress in the region and renewed international commitment to gender equality, APEC established the Policy Partnership on Women in the Economy (PPWE) as a working group within its Senior Officials Meeting (SOM) Steering Committee on Economic and Technical Cooperation. The PPWE consolidated APEC’s existing gender initiatives into a single public-private entity charged with streamlining and elevating the influence of women’s issues within APEC. The goal of PPWE is to provide linkages between APEC working groups, APEC Economies, and the APEC Secretariat to advance the economic integration of women in the APEC region for the benefit of all members.

Following the first two high-level dialogues of the PPWE in 2011 and 2012, a consensus of five core priorities pertaining to women’s economic empowerment emerged: **(1) access to capital and assets; (2) access to markets; (3) skills, capacity-building, and health; (4) leadership, voice, and agency; and (5) innovation and technology.** The United States supports a number of initiatives under these priorities, including the development in 2014 of a “Women in the Economy Dashboard,” a measurement tool that supplies a set of more than 80 metrics that align with the PPWE priorities, thus creating a platform for understanding where economies stand vis-à-vis their own policy objectives and one another. As of 2014, the PPWE is also moving toward the creation of a “Women in the APEC Economy Network” (WE-APEC Network), which can help female entrepreneurs and managers in the region strengthen their business relationships with one another. The WE-APEC Network will also aim to link the private sector, including companies throughout the world of all sizes, to the vast range of goods and services available from women-owned enterprises across the APEC region.

## **ADDRESSING GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE IN TRADE PROJECTS**

*Adapted from USAID’s “Toolkit for Integrating GBV Prevention and Response into Economic Growth and Trade Programs” (2014).*

Although the available research and data on linkages between macro-level trade policies and gender-based violence (GBV) are limited, it is likely that GBV negatively affects potential USAID beneficiaries — primarily women, but also men, LGBTI people, people with disabilities, and ethnic minorities. USAID can contribute to the reduction of economic costs of GBV by developing and using GBV prevention and response strategies within the framework of trade policy projects.

It is important to recognize that not all trade policy programming can improve GBV; in fact, it can have unintended consequences. For example, effects of liberalization of trade policies — a frequent area of focus for USAID economic growth, education, and environment programming — have had mixed results in regard to prevalence of GBV. On one hand, when trade policies in Bangladesh were liberalized in the 1980s, the garment sector expanded, factories employed more women, and the number of early marriages and child marriages dropped. Access to paid factory work enabled women to be more economically independent and therefore decreased the economic incentive for early marriage. On the other hand, development of sectors such as tourism brings unintended consequences, including sex tourism, which can contribute to human trafficking and child prostitution.

**Gender analyses of trade agreements.** Including an overview of GBV issues in a project's gender analysis prior to implementation provides an opportunity for anticipating vulnerabilities and developing targeted GBV response and prevention activities throughout the life of the project.

**Including GBV considerations in assessments of business-enabling environments.** Creating business-friendly operating environments is important to women and men business owners but can have particularly strong repercussions for women-run businesses, including those in the informal sector, who often face more barriers to doing business. GenderCLIR, the tool USAID developed to assess business-enabling environments from a gender perspective, uses a number of indicators to determine women's status in selected segments of the business environment. Although this tool does not measure GBV, modifications can be made to ascertain how the prevalence of GBV and its consequences affect women's participation in the business environment. For example, the existence of anti-harassment policies can be considered as a factor in assessing labor and employment laws.

**Creating safe spaces for female entrepreneurs.** In instances where the lack of public safety hampers women's mobility, especially in urban areas, simple solutions can greatly help to minimize risks to women's economic participation. Examples include provision of transportation, increased police protection, existence of female-only toilets, or appropriate lighting.

**Supporting development and implementation of legislation addressing GBV, equal property rights, and access to justice.** Many developing countries already have legislation that provides equal rights to all citizens, yet issues arise with enforcement of such legislation. This is frequently the case with GBV laws, for several reasons, from inefficient government bureaucracy and poorly trained officials to customary norms that, in practice, trump the written law. Assistance with development of enforcement mechanisms and their monitoring and evaluation is necessary for these laws to have an impact.

**Working with socially responsible and gender-aware businesses in USAID's private sector engagement.** Businesses willing to promote gender equality, including GBV response and prevention, in their operations are excellent partners who can help disseminate USAID's GBV message to the rest of the private sector. Potential business partners are those that deliberately seek out and employ survivors of violence (intimate partner violence, trafficking, etc.), have antidiscrimination and anti-sexual-

harassment policies in place and provide equal working wages for their employees. These businesses can serve as role models and mentors for others willing to employ GBV response and prevention initiatives as part of their operating procedures and corporate social responsibility efforts.

**Exploring links between sex trafficking and immigration/labor/business environment policies.** Dire economic situations often lead individuals to leave their homes in search of employment abroad. However, sex traffickers, who often present themselves as job agents or potential employers, take advantage of such individuals. Instead of providing them with promised legal work, traffickers exploit them for sex, labor, or both. Supporting the development of more liberal policies for migrant workers may decrease the need for traffickers as “middlemen.” The lack of licensed private employment agencies to connect individuals with legal jobs abroad can also contribute to sex trafficking. Therefore, supporting policies that enable business environments to encourage such agencies can help decrease incidences of sex trafficking.

## DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How, if at all, have donor-sponsored trade policy projects in the country or economy where you work integrated issues of gender equality and women’s economic empowerment? What were the results?
2. If the aim of the project you are designing is to increase women’s participation in the creation of trade policy, how would you go about doing this in the country or economy where you work? What individuals or organizations would you aim to integrate into this process?
3. Most USAID-sponsored trade and economic growth projects include a communications plan. In the country or economy where you work, which agencies or organizations (in general or specifically) would you hope to include in a communications plan? How would you integrate gender into this plan?

# ANNEX A

## GENERAL TRADE TERMINOLOGY

|   |   |
|---|---|
| <b>Agreement on Agriculture</b>               | A WTO agreement committing countries to improve market access and reduce domestic support payments and export subsidies in agriculture.   |
| <b>Customs union</b>                          | A type of trade pact composed of a free trade area and a common external tariff.  |
| <b>Domestic content requirement</b>           | A requirement that goods produced in a country contain a certain proportion of domestic content.  |
| <b>Export processing zone</b>                 | A designated area or region where firms can import duty-free as long as the imports are used as inputs into the production process.   |
| <b>Export promotion</b>                       | A strategy for economic development that stresses expanding exports, often through policies and programs to assist the process.   |
| <b>Foreign direct investment</b>              | A corporation's acquisition abroad of physical assets such as plants and equipment, with operating control residing with 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.      |
| <b>Free trade area</b>                        | An association of economies whose members have agreed to eliminate tariffs, import quotas, and preferences on most (if not all) goods and services traded between them.   |
| <b>General Agreement on Trade in Services</b> | A WTO agreement that provides a legal framework for trade in services, and the negotiated, progressive liberalization of regulations that impede this trade. Covers areas such as transport investment, education, communications, financial services, energy and water services, and the movement of people. |
| <b>Market access</b>                          | 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.   |
| <b>Most-favored nation (MFN)</b>              | A commitment that a country will extend to another country the lowest tariff rates it applies to any other country.   |
| <b>National treatment</b>                     | A commitment to treating foreign producers and sellers the same as domestic firms.  |
| <b>Non-tariff barriers</b>                    | Restrictions on trade other than tariffs, such as import quotas, voluntary export restraints, labeling and packaging requirements, subsidies and domestic content requirements, and similar measures.   |
| <b>Tariff</b>                                 | A government-imposed tax on imports.  |

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|--|---|
| <b>Trade facilitation</b>  | The simplification and harmonization of international cross-border trade procedures, including import and export procedures. Customs agencies tend to be the primary entities involved in trade facilitation, but other border agencies — including health, agriculture, and immigration — are also involved.   |
| <b>Trade integration</b>   | The process of increasing exchanges of goods and services with other countries. Includes expanded trading with other countries, greater foreign investment, and the increased flow of labor, technology, and communication across national boundaries.  |
| <b>Trade liberalization</b>  | The reduction of tariffs and removal or relaxation of non-tariff barriers.  |
| <b>Trade policy</b>  | 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 multilateral 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. |
| <b>Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS)</b> | A 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.   |
| <b>Trade-Related Investment Measures (TRIMS)</b>                     | A WTO agreement aimed at eliminating the trade-distorting effects of investment measures taken by members.  |
| <b>World Trade Organization</b>                                      | A 160-member (as of June 2014) forum for governments to negotiate trade agreements, settle trade disputes, and establish a system of trade rules.   |

# ANNEX B

## REPRESENTATIVE DIAGNOSTIC TOOLS ON TRADE

### **Corridor Diagnostic Studies and Border Audits**

These tools are used to identify and analyze corridor transit and transport costs and delays, including physical impediments, process constraints, and non-tariff barriers such as institutional and regulatory constraints. They assess current and forecasted trade and traffic volumes and recommend and prioritize options for removing barriers. Examples include the [Corridor Diagnostic of the Northern and Central Corridors of East Africa](#) and the [Northern Corridor Baseline Border Assessment](#).

### **Diagnostic Trade Integration Studies (DTIS)**

DTIS evaluate the internal and external constraints on a country's integration into the world economy and recommend areas where technical assistance and policy actions can help the country overcome these barriers. They are conducted as part of the Enhanced Integrated Framework, which was established to support least-developed countries in trade capacity, integrating trade issues into national development strategies and using trade as a tool for poverty reduction. DTIS typically focus on achieving trade expansion and increasing export competitiveness; exploring trade policies, trading opportunities and supply-side constraints (e.g., bottlenecks related to transport and trade facilitation); and analyzing the export potential of particular sectors and sub-sectors. Yeshihareg Dejene (2001) notes that women often organize themselves into convoys and negotiate the transportation of their goods using freight forwarders. DTIS also recommend areas for policy intervention and donor assistance through the development of action/implementation matrices. Examples include the [Yemen DTIS](#) and resulting [Action Matrix](#). In 2012, Yemen began the process of revising its DTIS.

### **Trade Competitiveness Diagnostic**

The [World Bank's Trade Competitiveness Diagnostic](#) is designed to support regional and country teams in carrying out a systematic assessment of a country's position, performance, and capabilities to trade, and to analyze the factors that facilitate or constrain competitiveness of exports.

### **Trade and Transport Facilitation Assessment (TTFA)**

TTFA is a tool for identifying trade facilitation and logistics inefficiencies in global supply chains. The TTFA is conducted through a range of structured interviews with public agencies (customs and other border management agencies, port authorities and transport regulators) and private service providers (freight forwarders, transport operators and financial intermediaries). It seeks to provide an in-depth assessment of a country's supply chain to help identify corrective measures to facilitate trade and transportation. The focus of the TTFA is on transit costs associated with the movement of products and the procedural and documentary requirements needed to move goods through borders. It assesses the quality and range of logistics services and infrastructure and encourages information exchange and coordination between private and public participants.

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