



Gender, macro-policies, industry and trade

This Thematic Brief provides quick guidance on the most important issues relating to gender, macro-policies, industry and trade.

This Brief is addressed to staff from development cooperation agencies who are involved in programmes and projects related to macro-policies, industry and trade.

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Introduction

The three topics addressed in this brief are all intertwined with each other:

Macroeconomic policy aims to encourage the growth of the GDP and to ensure high level of employment through two sets of tools: fiscal and monetary policies;

Industrial policy can be defined as the country official strategy aiming to encourage the development and growth of the manufacturing sector;

Trade policy can be defined as the formalisation of rules and mechanisms at the national level for cross-border trade activities (BRIDGE, 2006).

In this brief, substantial emphasis is given to trade policies and related issues, such as trade integration or trade liberalisation.

Trade, industrial and macroeconomic policies will impacts differently on women and men, due to their place in the economy and their access to and control over resources (EU Commission, 2006; UNCTAD, 2014).

In this brief, staff from development cooperation agencies will find information on the most important gender issues at stake and how to address them, indicators that can be used to monitor whether a programme is integrating gender dimensions, examples of gender-sensitive development actions and references to further information and tools related to gender, macro-policies, industry and trade.

Gender issues in macro-policies, industry and trade

Gender inequalities in macro-policies, industry and trade

- **Women and men occupy different positions of the labour market and women tend to have a more vulnerable position in industry and business than men.** In developing countries, women account for 24% of all jobs in the manufacturing sector, usually working in low-paid and vulnerable jobs. Almost one third of women working in this sector are estimated to be informal workers in small and medium-sized enterprises (UNIDO, 2012). Women's businesses are also often an extension of their domestic activity and women have less access to and control over land, credit, assets and information on economic and social resources (BRIDGE, 2005).
- **The prevailing gender division of labour determines women and men's opportunities to access to the benefits of trade policies, especially trade liberalisation.** The impact of trade policies on women and men depends on the level of gender-based occupational segregation. For instance, in many developing countries, women often work as unpaid family workers and are involved in the production of subsistence crops, whilst export-oriented cash crop production traditionally remains men's domain. Women also form the majority of small-scale rural producers, who are often unable to extend production and integrate into global value chains, due to limited access to productive resources, technology and information (UNCTAD, 2014). In the fisheries sector of the Gambia, women are concentrated in small-scale and local trading and processing of fish, with few



opportunities to reach global markets; conversely, men predominate in large-scale, commercial and export markets (UNCTAD, 2014).

- **Trade liberalisation and the commercialisation of domestic goods on the global market can alter the prevailing gender division of labour and have different impact on women and men.** In some cases, it can weaken women's economic situation. For instance, in Ghana, research has shown that the transformation of certain domestic agricultural products into export crops, such as shea nuts, reduced women's involvement in their production and processing, despite these crops being the traditional activities of women. Indeed, the growth of the shea nuts market translated into the creation of export-oriented companies, held by men, whose employees are mostly men (EU Commission, 2006). Recently, industrial sectors that were previously dominated by women (such as textiles) are favouring the employment of men, due to globalisation processes and technology-intensive production (UNIDO, 2012).
- **Trade and investment liberalisation policies can also have a more positive impact and lead to an increase in women's participation in the labour market** (BRIDGE, 2005). Women's employment opportunities have increased in the non-traditional agricultural sector such as cut flowers, textiles and electronics-oriented export processing zones. In 2005, women accounted for more than 80% of the workforce in the export industries of South-East Asia. Export-led industries, such as textiles and garment-making, often provide women from poor and rural areas with new employment opportunities outside the domestic sphere. A study carried out in Jordan on women working in garment factories showed that, besides gaining some independence and autonomy outside the domestic sphere, they became an economic asset for their family, which led to some change in the social and gender roles in the household. Other research has shown that for Bangladeshi women, working in the garment industry has had a positive effect on their self-esteem and their participation in decision-making in the family (Kabeer, 2000 in BRIDGE, 2005). Export-led industries can thus be a source of empowerment for women.
- **Export Processing Zones or Free Trade Zones offer paid employment opportunities to women and men, but their labour rights are often not respected in these zones, rendering them more vulnerable to exploitation and job insecurity** (EC Commission, 2006). Export-led industries are often labour-intensive, based on low wages, gender-based occupational vertical and horizontal segregation¹, poor working conditions (in terms of hygiene and facilities), a low degree of unionisation and with few women in decision-making positions. Women who enter these jobs are particularly at risk of experiencing exploitation as they are often unaware of their rights and have very limited bargaining power (EU Commission, 2006; BRIDGE, 2005). In Mexico, following the entry into force of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and the relocation of US factories to Mexico, many Mexican women found jobs in the maquiladoras. However, work in the maquiladoras is highly intensive, offering the lowest pay and with no security or social protection (BRIDGE, 2005).
- **Trade liberalisation can also affect the patterns of informal labour.** In some countries, companies tend to use this type of subcontracting arrangements to cut labour costs, such as the footwear and leather subsectors in South Africa. Follow-

¹ Vertical segregation relates to the under or over representation of women and men in different levels of occupation in a specific sector of the economic activity; while horizontal segregation refers to the concentration of women and men in specific professions or sectors of economic activity.



ing the liberalisation of tariffs in these subsectors, the numbers of workers working in the informal sector raised from 1,136,000 in 1997 to 1,907,000 in 1999 (BRIDGE, 2005). Women are estimated to constitute the large majority of workers in the informal sector, with no access to social and labour rights, job security and social protection.

- **Lower prices in domestic markets brought by trade liberalisation can have positive and negative effects on women's economic situation** (EU Commission, 2006). As consumers, women might benefit from lower prices when buying agricultural goods for themselves and their family. However, as local producers of those goods, many women might be unable to integrate into import-competing sectors and to compete with cheaper imported goods. Liberalisation policies that reduce the price of domestic agricultural goods may affect women (and men) farmers' income and livelihood (UNCTAD, 2014).
- **In developing countries, women have been the main beneficiaries of the growth in the private service sectors, such as information processing.** Processing and coding of information (such as back office operations for credit cards, airlines and mail order) is almost exclusively performed by women in the Caribbean and some countries of Africa, providing them with new opportunities to increase their wages and status in their household. However, research has shown that women working in information processing are concentrated in low skilled and low paid jobs. Women also form the majority of workers in casual and precarious jobs – for example, in Indonesia, 79% of all women workers are in non-contractual employment (BRIDGE, 2005).
- **Trade liberalisation impacts on women's paid work, but also their unpaid work.** Due to the promotion of export-oriented industries, men tend to abandon subsistence farming activities, though necessary to the survival of the household. Women have to take on additional responsibilities to cover the traditional tasks of men, but they also have to assume care responsibilities (BRIDGE, 2005). Although employment opportunities outside the domestic sphere might bring some advantages to women, they often have to continue performing care and family activities that they were providing before. This double work burden contributes to greater stress (BRIDGE, 2005).
- **Implementation of trade and industry policies, and a shift from the traditional subsistence economy to the cash-based economy can also alter traditional gender relations.** For instance, as men gain new employment (e.g. in extractive industries), they may be unable to maintain their activities in subsistence activities, and women usually have to cover for their loss. This often goes in hand with the implementation of new way of life, and new gender roles, which emphasise men's role as the bread winner and women's work in the domestic sphere. Such representations might go against prevailing gender norms in the community and deprive women from part of their power in decision making and productive role (Oxfam, 2009; World Bank, 2009). The extractive industry can also result in improvements to infrastructure (e.g. new roads) that result in benefits for women, such as better access to markets to sell their products. However, women are often unable to negotiate with the extractive industries as to where the roads should be constructed.
- **Natural resource depletion due to intensive production systems impacts differently on women and men.** For instance, extractive industries can alter the resources women are responsible for collecting (e.g. food, water, firewood) to ensure the subsistence of the family and the community. This means that women and girls will have to look for those resources elsewhere, increasing their time



poverty and abilities to do other activities (e.g. education) or to perform tasks (World Bank, 2009). Industrial pollution can jeopardise women's health, whether directly (e.g. use of solvents in textiles industries where most employees are women) or indirectly (e.g. when water from a river used by women to do their laundry is polluted by waste factory materials) (World Bank, 2009).

- **Industrialisation can also result in the emergence of new health problems for both women and men.** For instance, men working in extractive industry face increased health risks posed by chemically or physically hazardous work environment. The development of extractive industries has also been related with increase in alcohol use, domestic violence, sexual violence, sexually transmitted infection and HIV/AIDS in the surrounding communities (World Bank, 2009).
- **Through the loss of tax revenue in both countries of origin and relocation, macro-policies aiming at liberalising trade and industry can also lead to a reduction in public spending on health and social services, disproportionately impacting women.** Relocation of factories into other countries provokes a loss in tax revenues for local and national governments. Research has shown that this results in an important economic deficit in budget and consequently, to cuts in public spending for sectors such as health, education, or social programmes in general (BRIDGE, 2005). As women are in charge of providing care in most countries, the gaps in these services increase the burden of their unpaid work.
- **In many developed and developing countries, women and men are affected differently by tax systems.** Research has shown that tax policies contain both explicit gender bias – when specific provisions in the taxation system treat women and men differently – and implicit gender bias – when tax system intersect with prevailing gender norms and economic behaviours (Grown and Valodia, 2010). In many countries, taxation systems applied to individual or family units might increase gender inequalities. For instance, the treatment of 'secondary earners in family unit', where all incomes are combined is detrimental to women, because their income (usually the secondary one) is taxed at a much higher marginal rate. This issue has been found to affect women's incentives to work (IMF, 2003). Indirect taxation has been found to have a disproportionate impact on the poor, of whom women form the majority (IMF, 2003).

Several structural and cultural factors can explain gender inequalities in macro-policies, industry and trade

The factors explaining gender inequality in macro-policies, industry and trade can be found at different levels, including cultural, social and institutional.

- **Discriminatory laws, regulations and standards limit women's access to employment in equal condition in sectors such as industry and trade.** For instance, gender bias in macro policies, such as discriminatory tax systems, might hinder women's employment and reinforce the unequal distribution of power in the household.
- **Social norms and gender stereotypes shape the patterns of gender-based labour segregation and structural inequalities (UNCTAD, 2012).** The labour market is segmented according to socially constructed gender roles. Export-oriented industries reflect pre-existing inequalities between women and men, and especially the gendered division of labour. Women supply a cheaper workforce and are supposedly more docile (BRIDGE, 2005). The work performed by women in



these industries match the prevailing gender norms as to 'women's' and 'men's' activities (e.g. textiles for women).

- **The disproportionate share of unpaid work carried out by women remains unrecognised by macro-economic, trade and industrial policies** (UNIDO, 2012). Due to domestic and care responsibilities, women face greater difficulties, in term of time and resources, to work outside the domestic sphere and become entrepreneurs. The limited provision of services (such as childcare or healthcare structures) increases the time women spend in unpaid work, reducing their ability to devote their time to 'productive' activities (UNIDO, 2012).
- **Low participation of women in leadership and decision making positions** can also hinder women's opportunities to benefit from trade and industry development policies, as women's interests and need are rarely voiced (UNIDO, 2012). Trade and industry development policies tend to focus on men's activities and modes of productions.
- **Obstacles encountered by women as economic agents have not been taken enough into account by international development programmes.** For instance, MDG goal 3 on gender equality and women's empowerment focusses on education and leadership, but fails to address the challenges that women face when trying to access economic opportunities (UNCTAD, 2014). Research has shown that policies and institutions that govern trade at national, regional and international levels are 'gender-blind' (BRIDGE, 2005).
- **Gender bias in trade and industry related programmes might reinforce and institutionalise gender inequalities.** Implementation of programmes related to trade and industry are often based upon western representations and gender bias on the role of women and men. For instance, in implementing extractive industries, payments of compensation and royalties are often given to the men, "on behalf of the family". However, this may go against prevailing and potentially more egalitarian gender norms in societies where women participate in the decision-making process. Thus, it deprives women of part of their power and encourages their economic dependence. Also, women head of households may not receive payments when they do not have a male representative (Oxfam, 2009).

How to address gender inequalities in macro-policies, industry and trade

For programmes related to macro-policies, industry and trade to reach their potential, gender disparities must be addressed and effectively reduced. Programmes related to macro-policies, industry and trade need to be **gender-sensitive**, in the ways described below.

- Make use and create demand for **sex-disaggregated data**. For instance, sex-disaggregated data could be collected on workers and working conditions in the informal sector and the export processing and free trade zones.
- **Ensure that women's needs and priorities are voiced, understood and addressed.** During the consultation process, both women and men should be involved in the discussions. If necessary, separate consultations could be organised. For instance, the implementation of extractive industries could involve discussions around the compensation and royalties systems, in which both women and men should be involved.



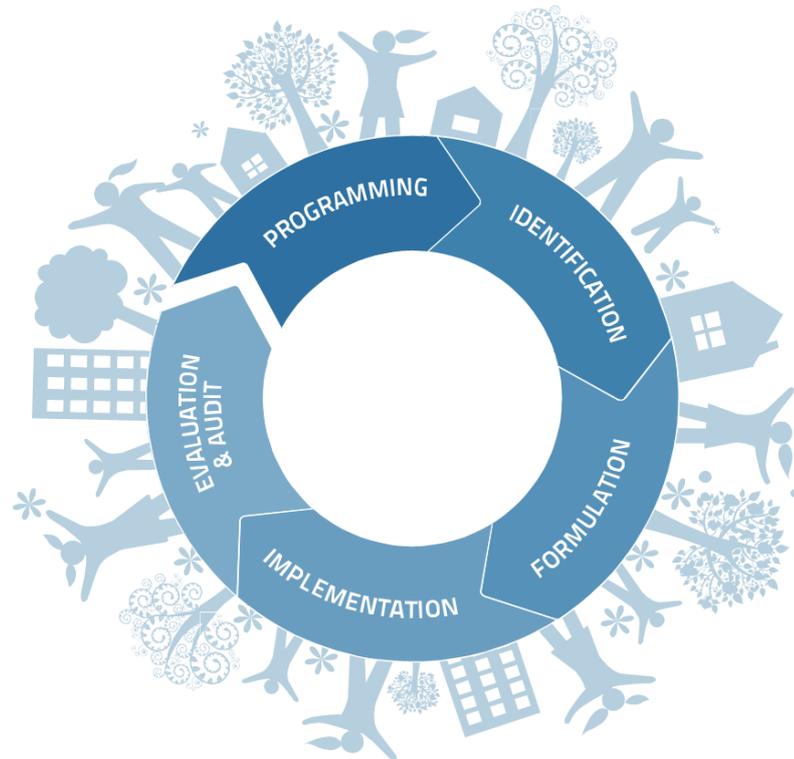
- **Avoid reinforcing gender inequalities**, by ignoring the existing gender relations and power disparities between women and men. For instance, when implementing a new taxation system, it is important to recognise the different impact of tax on women and men. Taxation systems that introduce taxes on basic goods (e.g. food, electricity, clothes) will disproportionately impact on women, as they are usually in charge of providing those goods to the household. In the same way, work-related exemptions and deductions offered to professionals and workers in formal employment will primarily benefit men, as men are more likely to be in formal employment (Grown and Valodia, 2010).
- **Plan gender-specific actions**, to address problems relating more particularly to one or the other gender, either as separate initiatives or as part of larger programmes. For instance, it may be helpful to plan research and development programmes aiming to provide technological solutions for diversification, in order to address the issues faced by small-scale women producers and small and medium enterprises in accessing markets. It may also be beneficial to organise specific activities aiming at strengthening business support services for women entrepreneurs (e.g. by developing clusters of women entrepreneurs to facilitate their access to information, technology, markets), in order to inform women of potential technologies to increase productivity, product certification and marketing, and ways of reaching international markets.
- **Adopt longer term “transformative” perspectives**, supporting women’s participation in decision-making and changing prevalent negative attitudes on women’s leadership capacities and social roles. For instance, to address social and cultural norms that prevent women from participating in decision making processes, regular training and support could be provided to women to develop their general leadership competences, such as public speaking, lobbying, etc. In addition, special measures addressing women’s underrepresentation (such as quotas or reserved seats) in bodies, such as employees’ organisations, could be promoted.
- **Engage men**, creating awareness of gender disparities and proving the benefits of gender equality for communities and the household.
- **When planning small sized women- or gender-equality specific projects, see them as part of** larger scale programmes. For instance, trade policies should not only be examined in relation to their direct gendered impact only, but also from the standpoint of the achievement of substantive gender equality and the transformation of unequal gender norms and roles.
- **Consider the impact of women’s involvement in the informal economy when analysing the potential effects of trade policies.** The existence of the informal sector and women’s involvement within it should be recognised and integrated into the impact assessment of trade policies, as this can affect the achievements of the planned objectives significantly.
- **Promote regional trading arrangements that have been found to provide opportunities better suited to women’s activities.** Efforts need to be made to avoid relationships of dependency or highly unequal contractual terms between producers and buyers. Regional trading arrangements may be better suited to women’s types of activities and impact more positively on their economic situation. Triangular public-private partnerships involving farmers or entrepreneurs, buyers, and the public sector have also been found to be more adapted to women’s needs and activities.



- **Identify activities within the traditional sector that could be considered as high-value niches for export development.** For instance, in Bhutan the collection and sale of mushrooms, medicinal plants and plants for the extraction of essential oils, predominantly women's activities, have been considered as 'niche sectors' in agriculture and could provide paid employment for women while building up on their traditional knowledge (UNCTAD, 2014, Looking at Trade Policy Through a 'Gender Lens').
- **Adopt tools to mainstream gender in macroeconomic policies and industrialisation process.** For instance, industrialisation processes should be accompanied by gender budgeting and gender audit exercises to ensure that services provided at local level are equally accessible to men and women.



A roadmap for gender mainstreaming in development programmes related to macro-policies, industry and trade



Gender equality considerations should be integrated throughout the whole cycle of development planning.

This Section proposes a roadmap for gender mainstreaming in the various phases of a programme – or project - lifecycle.

1. Analysis, programming and identification of country strategies

Programming and identification are strategic moments to promote programmes related to macro-policies, trade and industry, which serve to redress gender inequalities and promote women's economic independence. The most essential steps are:

- To keep gender equality in the policy dialogue agenda;
- To carry out gender-sensitive analysis for the diagnostic stage.

Dialogue and negotiations related to macro-policies, trade and industry should:

- Be grounded in the shared objectives of the global development agenda, and in the common respect of the human rights and gender equality framework, including: CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action, ILO Conventions (e.g. Convention concerning Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value; Convention on Maternity Protection; Conventions on workers with family responsibilities, etc), ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, etc.
- Align with the country commitments (laws, policies, strategies) to promote gender equality in trade and industry policies.



- Analyse the different roles and take-off positions of women and men in macro-policies and the trade and industry sector (both formal and informal) and use sex-disaggregated data in diagnostic studies. Gender country profiles or other sectoral studies should be used or commissioned.
- Systematically involve and support “gender stakeholders”, from Government, donors and civil society, at all stages. This can include gender coordination groups, gender focal points in ministries, gender experts and representatives of women’s right groups, rural women groups, women’s cooperatives, women’s branches of unions and CSOs, representatives of groups of women’s producers, representatives of women consumers, workers in extractive industries.
- Build on previous and current initiatives to promote gender equality in trade and industry sectors or in contributing sectors, map existing needs and financing gaps, and avoid duplication of efforts.

Assess whether the institutions that will be responsible for programme management and service delivery have resources and capacities to promote gender equality and plan for competence development initiatives, including at service delivery level.

2. Formulation and budgeting

The results of gender analysis should be used to tailor the formulation of programmes and projects. The formulation phase is particularly important, as it affects all subsequent phases of the programme (implementation, monitoring and evaluation. To do so, one must follow the steps described below.

- Design objectives and activities to address gender gaps identified and include them in programme documents, plans, logical frameworks, financing agreements and budgets.
- Include and budget for initiatives to address specific needs and constraints faced by women or men, including long-term capacity building of women entrepreneurs in leadership and business skills. Budget should also be allocated to other types of activities aiming at strengthening women’s position on markets, such as development of cooperatives of small-scale producers, clusters of women entrepreneurs, etc.
- Allocate resources for gender mainstreaming, capacity building and awareness raising at all levels and in ways that are adapted to the needs of different target groups (E.g. programme staff, women and men beneficiaries of industrial up-scaling, women and men working in export-oriented industries, extractive industries, service delivery institutions, marginalised communities, indigenous and rural women);
- Commit to pursue a strategy for continued gender mainstreaming in the programme (donor and country led processes). This may be formalized in an action plan which should then clearly assign responsibilities, resources and results to be achieved, as part of the broader programme’s result chain.
- Establish formal mechanisms of consultation with gender stakeholders.
- Design and budget for participatory and gender-sensitive monitoring processes: e.g. in assessments of new export-oriented trade policies introduced, including indicators to capture changes in power relations or in agricultural roles and productivity.



- Define performance monitoring frameworks and processes which can capture progress in gender-related objectives.
- In direct budget support initiatives, include gender indicators in financing agreements between donor and recipient countries (e.g. guarantee of basic labour rights as specified by the ILO, such as freedom to form unions and the prohibition of discrimination).
- Respect equal opportunity principles in management arrangements and establish accountability structures for gender mainstreaming at programme level.

3. Implementation and monitoring

At this stage what is planned in relation to gender equality should be maintained, monitored and corrected as needed. The most important points to consider are:

- Continued coordination, dialogue and consultation on gender equality within working groups on trade and industry; with institutional stakeholders (such as the gender units of the ministries of labour, industry, development, etc.), as well as with a broader range of actors from civil society.
- Effective monitoring of the progress of the various gender dimensions of the programme and sub-programmes, including at service delivery level, collecting opinions and experiences of, for example, women and men working in relevant trade and industries sectors; women and men producers and consumers of agricultural goods; and women and men affected by the development of extractive industries.
- Integration of gender in joint sector reviews and policy dialogues (particularly at the level of the SWAP committee);
- Monitoring if resources planned for gender equality are spent, and if not, why.

4. Evaluation

- Terms of Reference of (mid-term) evaluations should require gender expertise in the evaluation team and give account of the differential impacts of a programme on women and men, identify potential negative impacts on women or men and offer recommendations and lessons learned to further pursue gender equality in the sector.
- Evaluators and monitors should be able to use participatory evaluation techniques and sex-disaggregated beneficiary assessments of service delivery.
- Evaluations should also build on past gender evaluations of programmes in the sector.

GENDER TOOLS FOR THE DIFFERENT AID MODALITIES

An ample selection of analytical and planning tools useful at each phase of the development cooperation cycle, according to the different aid modalities, is available in the “Aid Modalities” Section of the EU Resource Package on Gender Mainstreaming in Development Cooperation.

The following Section offers a list of gender-analysis questions that can be used in Programmes related to macro-policies, industry and trade.



Questions for gender analysis in programmes related to macro-policies, industry and trade ²

Gender analysis helps acquire a different perspective on the complexity of a development context, and understand how to better address other forms of social inequalities. It looks at how economic and social structures at multiple levels can reinforce, or help overcome, gender inequalities and imbalances in power relations between women and men.

DIFFERENT LEVELS OF GENDER ANALYSIS

Macro analysis looks at national level law, policy and decision making, including trade and finance policies and national development plans. It helps identify how programmes related to macro-policies, industry and trade can contribute, or hamper, broader development strategies. It assesses whether macro-policies, trade and industry-related legislation or policies contribute to gender inequalities, or to their elimination. It is particularly useful when programming or identifying development cooperation strategies, programmes and projects.

For example:

A gender analysis at macro level can identify legal barriers to women's equal participation in the economic sphere. For instance, an analysis of the taxation system can reveal discriminatory provisions that over-tax married women's income and thus disincentive women's employment in the formal sector.

Meso level analysis looks at markets, institutions, services, infrastructures which serve as a link between laws/policies and people, enabling them to benefit (or be excluded) from policy effects: communication and transportation systems, health services, education, decentralized public services (revenues, rural development, land registration), credit institutions, markets and extension systems.

This is particularly useful at programme formulation, as it also assesses the extent to which gender roles relationships and cultural issues can influence the effectiveness of service delivery and other policy and programme implementation mechanisms.

For example:

By looking at prevailing gender norms, a gender analysis at meso level might reveal the impact of those norms on women and men's access to services. For instance, women might not be able to access extension services if those are provided to both women and men in the same space. They might also have issue accessing to the place of training if there is no gender sensitive public transport organised and if no childcare facilities are provided.

² More on gender analysis is available in the EU Resource Package, Section "Building Blocks".



DIFFERENT LEVELS OF GENDER ANALYSIS

Micro level analysis studies people: women and men as individuals, and the **socio-economic differences** between households and communities. It considers women and men's roles, activities and power relations within the household and the community, and how these influence their respective capacities to participate and benefit from development programmes. It is particularly useful at formulation, implementation and monitoring levels.

For example:

When looking at the impact of a development programme on women and men, a gender analysis at micro level might highlight the potential changes in the power relations in the household. For instance, in the case of the implementation of an extractive industry, payment of compensation to land holders might deeply impact the power relation between women and men, depending if payments are given to men only, or to both women and men.

The following section proposes guiding questions for gender analysis in programmes related to macro-policies, industry and trade, at macro, meso and micro levels.

Macro level

Macro level. Policies and laws

- What gender equality commitments have been made by the government, for instance in the framework of the Beijing Platform for Action, CEDAW, the SDGs? Is there a law and/or a policy on gender equality in the country?
- Do national macro-policies, industry and trade policies reflect these commitments through awareness of inequalities between men and women, and do they outline the means to address them?
- Are there gender policies and action plans in trade and industry or on issues related to macro-policies? Do national programmes and sub-programmes related to trade and industry align to and support these gender plans?
- Do current macro-policies, laws and regulations address women's and men's needs separately?
- Do current trade policies take into account existing gender inequalities and their potential impact(s)?
- Do current policies have discriminatory provisions (e.g. in terms of inheritance rights, rights to own land, access to credit and bank account, women's mobility)? Do they have measures for equal opportunities and women's rights (e.g. revision of discriminatory legislation on women's right to inherit land in line with CEDAW provisions)?
- Is the social and health protection system inclusive of women, (e.g. right to maternity care, unemployment insurance)? Are certain groups excluded (e.g. women in the informal economy)?



- Does the social and health protection system recognise the economic contribution of women to productive and care economies?
- Is gender budgeting implemented in the country?
- Have measures been taken at national level to address women's overrepresentation in the informal economy (and related lack of social and economic rights)?

Macro level. How are decisions made in national-level institutions?

- Are there decision-makers (in Government, Parliament) who are ready to champion gender equality and women's empowerment in programmes related to macro-policies, industry and trade, such as promoting women's entrepreneurship?
- Are governmental institutions responsible for women's and gender issues, involved in decision-making at national policy and planning levels?
- Are there gender thematic groups that could be involved in sector level consultations?
- Have women's right groups been consulted during the formulation phase of the trade policy?
- Are Sustainability Impact Assessments, including non-discrimination, decent employment and gender equality concerns carried out to assess the impact of trade reforms on both women and men?

Macro level. Data and information

- Are there policy documents or agreed gender assessments that information and statistics on the gender gaps and priorities in trade, industry and other macro-economic?
- What sex-disaggregated data are available on different aspects of the economy (e.g. informal sector, export processing and free trade zones, etc.)?
- Have similar programmes/projects been implemented in the country? Were gender-sensitive evaluations carried out? What are good examples of women's empowerment in the study area? Which attempts to achieve gender equality were failures (e.g. because they were taken over by men or had adverse effects on women)?

Macro level. Monitoring frameworks

- How is the country faring on gender equality targets established at international level?
- Has the government developed indicators that allow for monitoring progress in macro-policies, industry and trade from a gender equality perspective? Which data exists to show the impacts of the programme/project for women and men?
- Has there been a gender analysis of government spending in this sector and in the sub-sectors? Does the government have a system to track the gender sensitivity of development programmes?



- Is it possible to have a benefit incidence analysis by sex of beneficiaries? (Method of computing the distribution of public expenditure across different demographic groups, such as women and men.)
- In sector budget support modality, can payments be linked to progress made on the gender objectives and gender indicators? Is part of the budget earmarked for specific gender equality objectives?

Meso level

Meso level. Service provision

- Is the labour market segregated according to gender, both vertically and horizontally?
- If financial mechanisms or facilities are in place, are they accessible for women as well as for men?
- Are there plans to improve the outreach capacity of local-level service delivery institutions to poor communities and in particular to women (E.g. to ensure women's access to training on industrial modernisation or private sector development)?
- Have protocols and guidelines been developed to ensure that service providers (both private and public, such as bank, credit institutions, healthcare, etc.) respect gender equality principles in providing services to the population?
- Are workers' organisations or NGOs able to promote the rights of women working in sectors related to trade and industry, such as export processing zones or the extraction industry?
- Are trade unions, craft associations, market associations or consumer associations representing women's interests at sector level? Is capacity building training available to those organisations?
- Is there a gender balance in programme and project implementation units? At which levels?
- Is vocational training equally available to women and men working in sectors related to trade and industry (e.g. mining or export processing zones)?
- Are extension services equally available to women and men working in agriculture?
- Are financial and legal literacy training programmes available to women and men working in trade and industry related sectors?
- If there are mechanisms to increase access to productive resources, training, local markets, or employment, are there provisions to promote equitable access? For example, if extension services are provided to women and men in remoted areas, are secondary services provided too (such as transport or childcare facilities) to enable women's attendance?
- Are retraining programmes for women and men workers affected by new trade policies in place? Do these programmes respond to both women and men's needs?
- Did trade liberalisation improve small entrepreneurs' access to credit and other finance related services?



Meso level. Decision making and consultation

- If the programme envisages support to community-based organisations and co-operatives, are women represented and at which levels? Which women?
- Are gender equality institutions and structures at local level being involved?
- How are women's organisations consulted and represented in the discussions around programme implementation?
- How are women represented in decision-making structures? Are the women participating in the decision-making process representative of the women in the community?
- Are there regular public consultation mechanisms with experts and representatives of civil society organisations? Are spaces provided for women in these public consultations?

Meso level. Data collection and monitoring processes

- Which data can be collected throughout the programme to monitor the impacts for women and men? Who will be responsible for collecting this data, and how frequently? Will they be trained in participatory, gender-sensitive data collection techniques?
- How will consultation processes be organised at various levels? Will both women and men be involved in community level consultation processes? How are women's interests going to be represented? Is there a need to set up new fora?
- Are adequate resources allocated for participatory consultation, monitoring and sex-disaggregated beneficiary assessments of services?
- Are data collected at this level disaggregated by sex (e.g. on women's and men's conditions of employment in export processing zones or extractive industry)? What is the capacity of the national statistical office, and of enumerators, to collect sex disaggregated data and produce gender sensitive statistics?
- Are data available on the share of women and men working in informal and formal sectors?

Micro level

Micro level. Gender division of tasks and labour

- What are women and men's traditional activities?
- What are women and men's new activities and how those activities interact with women and men's traditional roles?
- What is the gendered division of labour and time use in the household?
- Who is responsible for subsistence activities (women, men or both of them)?
- Are there specific types of activities culturally forbidden for women or for men?
- What is the impact of women's (and girls') unpaid work on their opportunity to engage in paid work (or education)?



- Are children involved in household work? Which different tasks are allocated to girls and boys?

Micro level. Gender relations: Access and control over resources

- What are the general economic and demographic conditions of the household? Of the community? What are men and women's main sources of income?
- What are women and men's levels of access to, and control over, material and non-material resources?
- Which factors influence access to and control over material and non-material resources (for example, age, sex, wealth, ethnicity, peri-urban versus rural locations, education level, networks and patronage)?
- Are there gender inequalities in access to and control over resources and benefits (royalties, payments of compensations for use of land)?
- At the household level, who takes decisions about resources and activities?
- What are women's and men's different spending and saving patterns?
- At the community level, how are decisions made about resources and activities?
- If community-based organisations exist (e.g. cooperative, traditional sociocultural organisation, religion-based etc.), are women members? Do they participate? At which level? If not, why not?
- In programmes for extractive industries, if payments of compensation have been implemented, to whom have they been paid (e.g. to men, on "behalf of the families and communities")?
- How do ownership rights and access to land and other productive resources (e.g. credit, financial services, and technology) vary between women and men?
- Are both women and men able to voice their opinion and priorities with regards to the matters affecting the family and the community?

Micro level. Perceptions about gender equality

- What are women and men's perception of their rights and role in the household? Are those perceptions evolving due to the emergence of new economic opportunities / losses?
- What are women and men's perception of women's economic role in the household (e.g. perception of women's involvement in trade activities)?
- What are women and men's perceptions on gender-based violence (domestic and at work)?
- Are women aware of their rights? Are they able to voice them in the community or with service providers?
- Are women able to voice their concerns with regard to their work conditions?
- Are men openly resistant to gender equality? Are there groups of men who are more supportive/resistant than others? Who can influence them?



Gender sensitive indicators for the macro-policies, industry and trade sectors

Gender sensitive indicators aim at ‘creating awareness of the different impacts of a development intervention on men and women, taking into consideration their socio-economic and cultural differences.’ (FAO, n.d. – Gender sensitive indicators for Natural Resources Management). Gender sensitive indicators reveal valuable information to identify the specific problems faced by women and men; to assess the extent of gender inequalities in access to and use of resources and services in macro-policies, industry and trade, and provide the basis for evidence-based policy-making processes (FAO, n.d.).

The table below provides some examples of gender sensitive indicators.

Area/Sub-sector	Indicator
Gender inequalities in employment	Ratio of women and men’s wages for similar work
	Unpaid women family workers and own –account workers as percentage of total women’s employment
	Share of working women below the poverty line
	Ratio of women’s employment to the overall population’s employment
	Share of women in non-agricultural wage employment
	Women’s unemployment rate
	Share of women in informal employment
	Share of women in permanent jobs
	Share of women in managerial professional and clerical jobs, per sector
	Share of women in seasonal jobs
	Conditions of access to social benefits, in sectors affected by trade (export-oriented and import-competing sectors)
	Coverage of unemployment insurance
	Women’s unemployment and underemployment rates in import-competing sectors
	Gender wage gap in export sector
	Gender wage gap in import competing sector
	Unpaid labour time by women and men
	Existence of legislation on worker’s rights (especially related to sexual harassment and exploitation)



Area/Sub-sector	Indicator
Economic empowerment	Share of women in landholding and immovable property Share of women who have bank/saving accounts Share of women participating in technical and vocational training programmes Share of microenterprises and small and medium-sized enterprises owned by women with access to information and communications technologies (e.g. mobile phones, Internet) Availability and access to microfinance for women and men Numbers of women business organisations
Macro-economic policies and gender	Government expenditures by sectors Proportion of persons and households at risk covered by social security and similar scheme Share of women and men covered by social security and similar scheme Food affordability index

Source:

UNCTAD (2014), UNCTAD (2014), Looking at Trade Policy Through a ‘Gender Lens’
 Beck T. (Commonwealth Secretariat) (1999), Using Gender-Sensitive Indicators: A Reference Manual for Governments and Other Stakeholders
 WIDE Briefing Paper (2007), Gender indicators for monitoring trade agreements

Examples of gender-sensitive projects in macro-policies, industry and trade

Several development and cooperation programmes have successfully addressed the issue of gender inequalities in macro-policies, industry and trade. Some examples are provided in the table below, and additional documents gathering good practices are listed in the following page.

Programme/project	Challenges	Gender Strategy	Source
<p>The Global Trade Programme of Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO)</p>	<p>Women producers face challenges in engaging in production and trade, due to several factors, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of money to invest in raw materials; - Lack of assets (e.g. land, equipment); - Lack of connection to buyers or weak bargaining position; - Burden of domestic work; - Socio-cultural factors preventing women to access mixed-sex spaces. 	<p>WIEGO, in partnership with leading country level Fair Trade organizations and networks, supported local organisations of women producers in seven countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America between 2009 and 2011 in overcoming those challenges by grouping together to form collectively-owned and run enterprises. These enterprises can take different forms, including producer cooperatives, artisan associations, networks of home-based workers, and informal community-based groups.</p> <p>The benefits for women working together to produce and market their goods include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Better access to inputs, credits, services and information; - Economies of scale and increased bargaining power; - Social benefits, such as a sense of identity and development of confidence and self-esteem; - Solidarity and support in times of need - Visibility and advocacy for their interests in policy forums. 	<p>Elaine Jones, Sally Smith and Carol Wills for WIEGO (2011), Trading Our Way Up: Women Organizing for Fair Trade, http://wiego.org/sites/wiego.org/files/publications/files/Jones_Trading_Our_Way_Up_English.pdf</p>
<p>The Tanzania Fair Trade Network (TANFAT) and the Tusife Moya Women’s Cooperative</p>	<p>Economic empowerment of women in Tanzania is an objective inscribed in the legal and policy framework.</p> <p>However, many challenges remain, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Many women work as informal workers, with no rights, voice or protection; -Lack of consultation of women on issues and matters that affect their life; -Lack of access to international market for women producers. 	<p>TANFAT’s activities focus on marginalised producers and include the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -exchange of ideas and experiences; -Lobbying and advocacy; -Growing sales for producers by developing and promoting hand-made products. <p>TANFAT worked with different women’s cooperative to increase their presence on the international market, such as the Tusife Moya Women’s Cooperative. This Women’s Cooperative was implemented in 1992 with agriculture, farming seaweed. In 1995, women started to produce soap.</p>	<p>Elaine Jones, Sally Smith and Carol Wills for WIEGO (2011), Trading Our Way Up: Women Organizing for Fair Trade, http://wiego.org/sites/wiego.org/files/publications/files/Jones_Trading_Our_Way_Up_English.pdf</p>

Programme/project	Challenges	Gender Strategy	Source
		<p>However, they had difficulties to compete with other producers selling larger blocks of soap at lower prices. Their decision to add scent to the soap was significant in improving their market situation. Promoting their soap in different shops they managed to increase their market to about TSh 2.5 million per month (about Euros 1,470). They have now started their own shop and also export their soaps via Kwanza Collection, a Dar es Salaam-based Fair Trade exporter and member of TANFAT</p>	
Vocational training in Mali	<p>Apprentice programmes have been found more successful in securing employment. However, several challenges have been identified in relation to gender equality, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Limited availability to women; -Existing apprentice programmes tend to focus on 'men trades'; -Few apprenticing options are available for 'women trades' <p>In Mali, additional socio-cultural challenges have been identified, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Malian women need their husband's permission to work or study; -Malian women need to rely on neighbour or relatives if they want to acquire new knowledge; -Lack of apprenticeship system for crafts and trade for women 	<p>Since 1994, The Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) helped to set up apprentice programmes adapted to women's needs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Courses are located in convenient neighborhood locations for women; -Content of the programmes focusses on vocations that are traditionally considered as 'women's activities' including textiles and related activities (e.g. tanning, design, tailoring), hairdressing and roadside catering. 	<p>"Organizing African Women by Trade vs. Residence or Relations" in Sarah Gammage et al. for USAID (2005), <i>Enhancing Women's Access to Markets: An Overview of Donor Programs and Best Practices</i> http://www.oecd.org/dac/povertyreduction/38452612.pdf</p>



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