

## CHAPTER 9

# EMERGING LESSONS FROM AID FOR TRADE IN SUPPORT OF WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

*Contributed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation  
and Development*

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**Abstract:** *This chapter examines how donors are taking into account gender perspectives in aid for trade, as women's economic empowerment is one of the key drivers of sustainable development. It introduces data showing that donors have been increasing gender-responsive aid for trade. At the same time, there is scope for improvement, particularly in sectors such as transport, energy, finance and business, mining and industry, where the proportion of gender-responsive aid is low. Good examples by a few donors are therefore highlighted to provide lessons to others that are facing challenges in taking account of gender perspectives in these areas. They reveal that many projects entail training of women as government officials or as project beneficiaries, particularly for income generation. Other activities include studies or development of project designs that are gender-responsive in the particular area. Given the Joint Declaration on Trade and Women's Economic Empowerment, donors need to build the evidence base, establish an adequate monitoring and evaluation system, and ensure accountability towards women's economic empowerment.*

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## CONTEXT

Women's economic empowerment has been recognised as one of the key drivers of sustainable development and gender equality (Ferrant 2011; Cuberes, Teigner 2016; Gonzalez et al 2015; Ostry et al 2014; World Bank 2012; Knowles et al 2002). Studies indicate that if women have more control over household resources, it leads to greater investment in health and education. Furthermore, it results in higher and more sustainable levels of growth. In this respect, while the Beijing Platform for Action in 1995 promoted women's economic empowerment, it encouraged progress in developed and developing countries alike (see Box 9.1). On the other hand, Millennium Development Goals (MDG) 3 that targeted "gender equality and empower women", was mainly about developing countries and focused on education, particularly to increase the primary school enrolment rates for girls.

Partially as a reaction to the limited scope of MDG 3, as well as the development community's increased understanding of the positive impact of women's economic empowerment on development outcomes, the 2030 Agenda's Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5 expands the scope to "achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls" (Mason, King 2001; Morrison et al 2007; World Bank 2012; UN 2015; WEF 2015). For example, it raises the need to, *inter alia*, give women land ownership and access to financial services, enhance their use of information and communications technology (ICT), address unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of infrastructure, and strengthen policies and legislation to promote gender equality and women's empowerment. Other targets that address women's empowerment includes SDG 8 on Decent Work and Economic Growth, which refers to productive employment, decent work for women, and sex-disaggregated data.

### Box 9.1. Beijing Platform for Action 1995 "Women in the Economy"

The Beijing Platform for Action 1995 included "Women in the Economy" which commits states to:

- Promote women's economic rights and independence, including access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources. Example: *"Enact and enforce legislation to guarantee the rights of women and men to equal pay for equal work or work of equal value"*.
- Facilitate women's equal access to resources, employment, markets and trade. Example: *"Pay special attention to women's needs when disseminating market, trade and resource information and provide appropriate training in these fields"*.
- Provide business services, training and access to markets, information and technology, particularly to low-income women. Example: *"Create non-discriminatory support services, including investment funds for women's businesses, and target women, particularly low-income women, in trade promotion programmes"*
- Strengthen women's economic capacity and commercial networks. Example: *"Provide business services, including marketing and trade information, product design and innovation, technology transfer and quality, to women's business enterprises, including those in export sectors of the economy"*.
- Eliminate occupational segregation and all forms of employment discrimination. Example: *"Increase efforts to close the gap between women's and men's pay, take steps to implement the principle of equal remuneration for equal work of equal value by strengthening legislation, including compliance with international labour laws and standards, and encourage job evaluation schemes with gender-neutral criteria."*
- Promote harmonisation of work and family responsibilities for women and men. Example *"Improve the development of, and access to, technologies that facilitate occupational as well as domestic work, encourage self-support, generate income, transform gender-prescribed roles within the productive process and enable women to move out of low-paying jobs"*.

Source: Adapted from Beijing Platform for Action (1995) <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/economy.htm>

More recently in 2016, the High-Level Panel on Women's Economic Empowerment, convened by the UN Secretary-General, laid out measures to accelerate women's economic empowerment, recognising it as a cornerstone of the SDGs and critical to achieving gender equality (UN Women 2018). They include, *inter alia*: sharing the burden of unpaid care work; ensuring women's access to financial services, new technology, and justice; changing practices in employment; and ratifying key international agreements on the rights of women workers, especially in the informal sector and domestic work.

Despite these global commitments, however, women continue to face barriers to participate in the paid economy, leading to poorer outcomes than men across many key economic indicators. Particularly in developing countries, women still account for a large part of vulnerable and informal employment (ILO 2018). They often have less access to land, finance, agricultural machinery and production technologies than men, contributing to gender gaps in income and productivity (Palacios-López, Ramón López 2015; Asian Development Bank 2018; World Bank 2015a and 2015b; Sahay 2018; ILO 2016). Women working in the informal sector can face even more challenges, for instance, in access to loans from formal financial institutions (Osondu et al 2015; Kasseeah, Tandrayen-Ragoobur, 2015). Furthermore, women are responsible for a significant share of unpaid care and domestic work, which includes time-consuming tasks such as fetching water and labour intensive cooking, leaving them less time to engage in paid activities, training and education (OECD 2019a). Women are also concentrated in lower paid sectors (UN 2016).

Closing these gender gaps could lead to poverty reduction and other positive returns for women, their families and communities, for example, by increasing agricultural outputs and improving female and child health and education outcomes (World Bank 2012, 2015a). Investments in infrastructure in particular can support women's involvement in paid activities by facilitating movement with improved and safe transportation, or freeing up time spent on unpaid activities such as collecting fuel when modern energy sources are made available (World Bank 2012).

In this context, trade can potentially bring benefits to women. For example, aside from increased income, new jobs for women in the manufacturing sector had positive effects on women's bargaining power within households. In particular, export oriented textile and clothing production provided greater independence and enhanced decision-making power over the distribution of household resources for many women (Korinek 2005). Similarly, the arrival of the garment industry, where women are often over-represented, had positive spill-overs in other areas such as education, i.e., increasing the likelihood of girls attending school (Heath, Mobarak 2015). Agro-food value chains can also benefit women if businesses pay attention to gender issues in enforcing labour standards and when they are given access to labour saving technology and trainings to improve their skills (IFC 2016; FAO, ILO, IFAD 2010; World Bank, Government of Liberia 2010). Other studies show that trade expansion can reduce gender inequality if an appropriate mix and sequence of trade and other economic policies is implemented (Elson et al 2007).

At the same time, as women are not a homogeneous group, the impacts of trade differ on women, depending on their, *inter alia*, location, socio-economic status, education level, and disability. Therefore, as the Beijing Platform for Action underlined<sup>1</sup>, special attention needs to be paid to possible unintended negative impacts of trade liberalisation on certain groups of women. For example, poor quality jobs for low skilled workers in unsafe environments may affect women negatively, including by increasing their exposure to violence. This can be exacerbated by the pressure of international competition (UN Women 2015). Increased imports due to trade liberalisation in agriculture can be a detriment to women who work in small-scale farming. For some higher skilled export industries, men's employment may rise more where there are significant gender gaps in education (Korinek 2005). Even where trade opens employment opportunities for women, their total workload may increase if the time needed for their unpaid care and domestic work remains the same (Çagatay 2001). In some countries, discriminatory laws and social norms curtail women's access to finance, new technology, and knowledge on marketing – making it difficult to take full advantage of the new opportunities created by trade liberalisation (World Bank 2018).

In this respect, aid for trade can enhance economic opportunities for women to participate in export and import activities, such as micro, small and medium sized enterprises (MSMEs), and thereby contribute to their economic empowerment<sup>2</sup> (Kimm Gnanon 2019). Aid for trade can also address impediments to trade, such as lack of infrastructure, and prevent women from being negatively impacted from export activities, including poor labour conditions and low wages (ILO 2017). Particularly since the establishment of the WTO Task Force on Aid for Trade in 2006, there has been an acknowledgement of the need to take into account the “gender perspective” and of the overall goal of sustainable development. Thus taking account of the gender perspective was established as one of the guiding principles of the Task Force (WTO Task Force on Aid for Trade 2006).

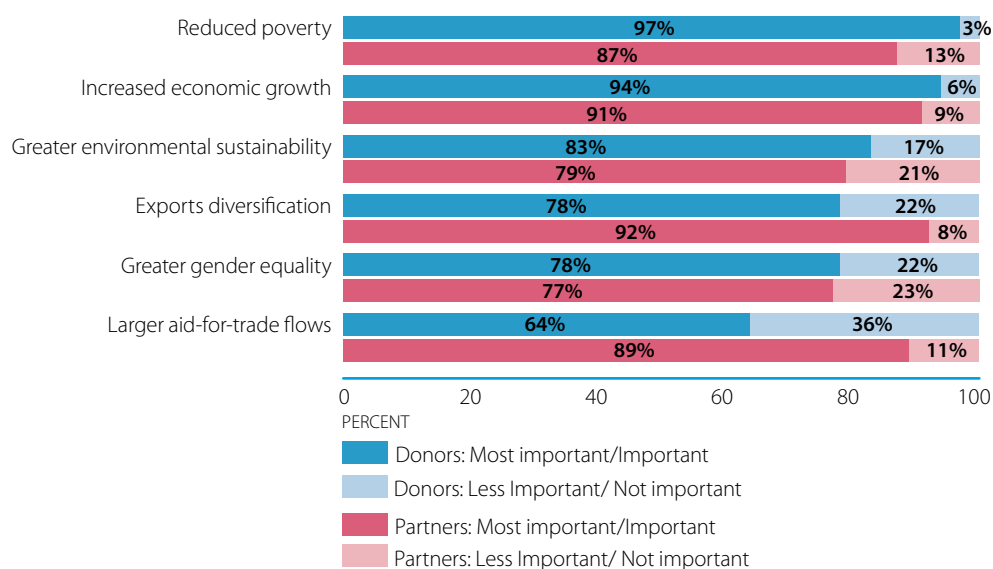
Furthermore, in 2017, a Joint Declaration on Trade and Women’s Economic Empowerment, adopted in the margin of the Buenos Aires WTO Ministerial Conference, acknowledged that “inclusive trade policies can contribute to advancing gender equality and women’s economic empowerment”. The declaration listed a number of recommendations<sup>3</sup>, which includes the need to ensure that aid for trade supports tools and knowledge for analysing, designing and implementing more gender-responsive trade policies. The Task Force is required to report to the WTO on progress in implementing the recommendations of the Joint Declaration in 2020.

## ASSESSING INCORPORATION OF GENDER PERSPECTIVES IN AID FOR TRADE

### Views on the importance of gender dimensions in aid for trade

In this context, the Aid for Trade Initiative’s bi-annual Monitoring and evaluation (M&E) exercises from 2011 to 2019 have been taking stock of gender dimensions, including the integration of gender perspectives and women’s economic empowerment by donors and partner countries. The M&E 2019 shows that the majority of donors that responded considered women’s economic empowerment in aid for trade as a priority. At the same time, Korea, Latvia and Portugal were unsure and Czech Republic, France and Hungary did not consider it as a priority (OECD-WTO 2019). Furthermore, the M&E 2011 showed that most donors considered greater gender equality as an “important” objective in aid for trade, although Norway was the only donor that responded that it was the “most important” objective. At the same time, greater gender equality was the penultimate lowest in terms of importance among several objectives (see Figure 9.1). As for partner countries, among those that responded, the M&E 2011<sup>4</sup> showed that greater gender equality was the least important among the goals that they wanted to achieve through aid for trade – lower than greater environmental sustainability, reduced poverty, increased economic growth, and export diversification (OECD-WTO 2011).

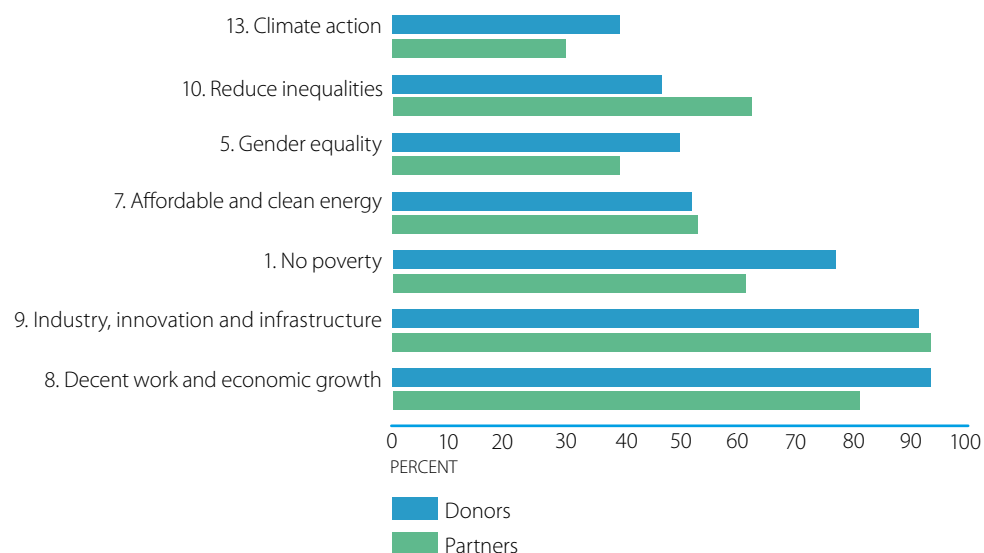
Moreover, the M&E 2017 reflected that only 48% of responded donors considered that aid for trade will contribute to SDG 5 on gender equality and women’s empowerment (See figure 9.2) (OECD-WTO 2017). Although this was higher than SDG 13 on climate action, it was much lower than SDG 10 on reduced inequalities, SDG 8 on decent work and economic growth, and SDG 9 on industry, innovation and infrastructure. On the other hand, donors’ expectation of aid for trade to contribute to SDG 5 was still higher than that of the partner countries at 38%. This is despite developing countries acknowledging in the Buenos Aires Declaration that, recalling the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, inclusive trade policies can contribute to advancing gender equality and women’s economic empowerment, which has a positive impact on economic growth and poverty reduction. Furthermore, there are some developing countries that are making important efforts to support women’s economic empowerment<sup>5</sup>.

**Figure 9.1. Main goals donors and partner countries want to achieve through aid for trade**

Source: OECD-WTO (2011), aid-for-trade monitoring exercise 2011 (questionnaires)

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The M&E exercises might be reflecting the views of the civil servants who responded to the questionnaires without necessarily representing a consolidated view of the government. The lower priority and expectations by partner countries could be based on their limited perception of women as economic agents and the unawareness of potential positive impacts of aid for trade for women, due perhaps to their gender bias, as well as the lack of communication or insufficient presentation of evidence on the part of donors. Thus the donor community could face a challenge in promoting women's economic empowerment as they work to align their investments with partner countries' priorities, as called for in the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005) and Busan Partnership Agreement (2011) and implemented by the Global Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation.

**Figure 9.2. Views on aid-for-trade contribution to the SDGs**

Source: OECD-WTO (2017), aid-for-trade monitoring exercise 2017 (questionnaires)

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**BOX 9.2. The Gender Marker**

The OECD tracks aid in support of gender equality and women's rights using DAC Gender Marker – a qualitative statistical tool to record aid activities that target gender equality as a policy objective. It is based on a three-point scoring system:

**Principal (Score 2)** means that gender equality is the main objective of the project and is fundamental in its design and expected results. The project would not have been undertaken without this objective.

**Significant (Score 1)** means that gender equality is an important and deliberate objective, but not the principal reason for undertaking the project. The gender equality objective must be explicit in the project documentation and cannot be implicit or assumed. The project, in addition to other objectives, is designed to have a positive impact on advancing gender equality or the empowerment of women. Minimum criteria are:

- Gender analysis of the project has been conducted.
- Findings from this gender analysis have informed the design of the project.
- Presence of at least one explicit gender equality objective backed by at least one gender-specific indicator.
- Data and indicators are disaggregated by sex where applicable.
- Commitment to monitor and report on the gender equality results achieved by the project in the evaluation phase.

**Not targeted (Score 0)** means that the project has been screened against the Gender Marker but has not been found to target gender equality.

In this report, the term “gender marked aid” refers to Official Development Finance (Official Development Assistance (ODA) and Other Official Flows) scored either 1 (significant) or 2 (principal). The Gender Marker is used here as a proxy to examine the sectors where donors are taking into account gender perspectives in adhering to the guiding principle by the Task Force on Aid for Trade mentioned above. In this context, the Gender Marker is mostly used as a tool to filter projects instead of analysing the quantity *per se*, particularly as the DAC Network on Gender Equality (GENDERNET)<sup>8</sup> has recently carried out a study on amounts of aid to support women's economic empowerment (OECD 2018)<sup>9</sup>. Furthermore, this chapter focuses on women's economic empowerment, in accordance with the theme of the 2019 Aid for Trade Review, rather than assessing donor efforts to reduce and measure gender inequality, although the latter is strongly related to women's economic empowerment and is key to sustainable development.

Given the relatively low levels of aid to gender equality in aid for trade and even lower levels of dedicated funding (Score 2) (1% in 2016-17), the GENDERNET encourages donors to increase dedicated funding for gender equality and women's empowerment, particularly in the aid for trade sectors where it has remained consistently low. Increasing investments in these areas will be essential to achieving SDG 5, particularly Target 5.4 which focuses on unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services and infrastructure, and Goal 8 which promotes women's productive employment. This is backed by growing evidence from donors on the limits of gender mainstreaming to address the underlying power imbalances that drive gender equality and curtail women's empowerment. For example, a recent review of Switzerland found that gender specific projects were 73% effective in promoting gender equality while projects that included gender as a cross-cutting theme were only 31% effective (FDFA of Switzerland 2018). Thus, gender mainstreaming should be combined with other efforts to address gender-based discrimination and inequality, such as challenging discriminatory social norms, including engaging with men and boys to address power imbalances that can hold back women's economic empowerment.

The Handbook on the OECD-DAC Gender Equality Policy Marker provides more information on how members should apply the Gender Marker. The OECD is working with donors to ensure consistent reporting and comparability.

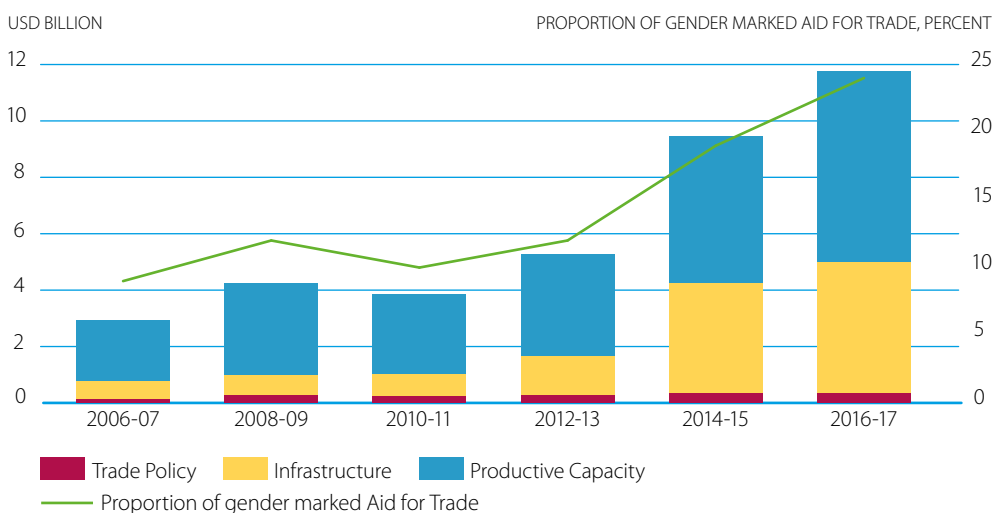
Source: Adapted from FDFA of Switzerland (2018), OECD DAC Network on Gender Equality (2016)

## Trends in incorporating gender perspectives in aid for trade

In view of the above results from the M&E exercises, bilateral and multilateral donors have nevertheless steadily increased gender-responsive aid for trade, as measured by the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) Gender Equality Policy Marker (Gender Marker) (see Box 9.2 and Figure 9.3). Based on the data, total amount of commitments<sup>6</sup> in aid for trade that have been marked with the Gender Marker – both as a Significant Objective and Principal Objective – rose from USD 3 billion per year on average in 2006-07 to USD 12 billion per year in 2016-17. In particular, there was a rapid surge in gender marked amounts in aid for trade between 2012-13 and 2014-15, mostly due to Japan's eightfold increase in gender-responsive aid for trade, especially in sectors like transport. This is significant progress since, for many years, bilateral and multilateral donors were more likely to integrate gender equality and women's empowerment in the social sectors<sup>7</sup>.

Moreover, the increase applied not only to the absolute volume, but also to the proportion of aid for trade that was gender-responsive, which grew from 9% on average in 2006-07 to 24% on average in 2016-17. The aggregate growth was due to the increase of proportions in practically every donor's aid for trade, which was in line with the overall rising trend of gender marking by DAC members in total aid – including sectors that are not considered aid for trade, such as health and education. Notably, aside from Japan, Finland steadily increased its share of gender marked aid for trade from 12% in 2012-13 to 43% in 2016-17, as did Ireland from 47% to 86%.

**Figure 9.3. Trends in Gender Marked Aid for Trade (USD billion, 2016 constant)**



Note: ODA and Other Official Flows. Only DAC members due to data availability

Source: OECD-DAC: aid activity database (2019)

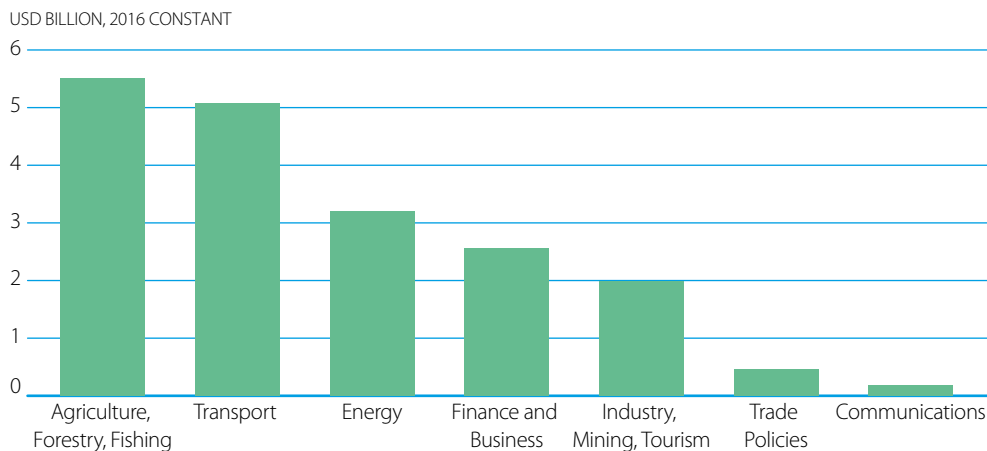
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In the Aid for Trade Initiative, relevant sectors are grouped into three major categories: Trade Policy, Economic Infrastructure, and Productive Capacity<sup>10</sup>. The distribution of gender marked aid for trade in the three categories remained the same over the decade, with the most going to Productive Capacity, and the least going to Trade Policy. However, Economic Infrastructure rose seven times – predominantly due to Japan's increase – and Productive Capacity rose three times, while Trade Policy only doubled in ten years. The share of gender marked Trade Policy among the three categories is small as most projects are usually lower cost technical assistance. In contrast, Economic Infrastructure – which includes transport, energy, and communications – tends to have high hardware costs. Productive Capacity includes a wide range of sectors from agriculture, fisheries, mining, industry, finance and business.

### Distribution of incorporating gender perspectives in aid for trade

Despite the growing trend of gender marked aid for trade, donor implementation of their agreement to take full account of gender perspectives in aid for trade remains low. As mentioned above, while the amount of gender marked aid for trade increased during the last decade, it still accounted for only 24% of total aid-for-trade commitments in 2016-17. In other words, 76% of aid for trade was not gender-responsive, i.e., 56% was not targeted and 20% was not screened. In terms of volume and disaggregated by sectors, the highest amount of gender marked aid-for-trade sector in 2016-17 was agriculture (around USD 5.5 billion, see Figure 9.4). This was followed by transport at USD 5 billion and energy at USD 3 billion.

**Figure 9.4. Sector breakdown of gender marked aid for trade 2016-17 (USD billion, 2016 constant)**



Note: DAC Members, AsDB, EBRD, IADB, World Bank, ILO, and UNDP.

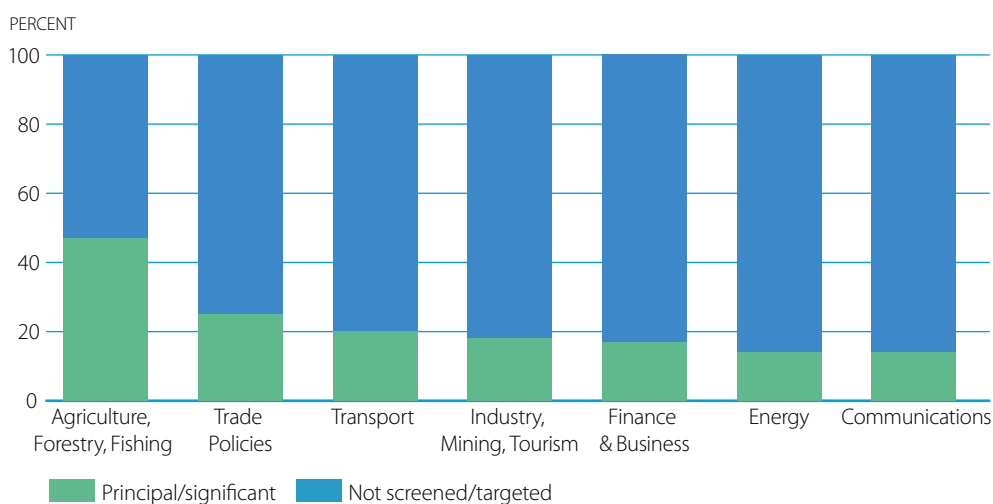
Source: OECD-DAC: aid activity database (2019)

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As for the proportion of gender marked aid out of the total aid committed to the respective sectors, agriculture also had the highest at around 47% in 2016-17 (see Figure 9.5). This was followed by trade policies at 25% and transport at 20%. Trade policies can be somewhat higher in proportion compared to other sectors because activities frequently involve trainings for partner governments that entail participation of female officials. Many studies were also carried out on trade and transport policies that addressed gender dimensions in the respective areas. In transport – mainly road – many projects consisted of involving women as stakeholders in the planning or as labourers in the construction.

On the other hand, although having relatively high total amounts of gender marked commitments, in terms of proportions, only 14% of energy was gender marked. Absolute amount and proportion of gender marked commitments were also low in communications<sup>11</sup>. Therefore, the small proportions of gender marked amounts in many of these aid-for-trade sectors show scope for improvement. However, in analysing the size of projects, results indicate that those that incorporated gender perspectives in sectors such as energy, mining, industry, finance and business were on average smaller in scale (i.e., had lower amounts) than projects in the same sectors that did not incorporate gender perspectives<sup>12</sup>. Therefore, future studies could explore whether smaller projects tend to target women as opposed to larger projects that have a wider beneficiary coverage. Moreover, studies could investigate how larger projects can be more gender-responsive to ensure that they are not having adverse effects on women and to identify entry points to promote women's economic empowerment.



**Figure 9.5. Sector breakdown of Gender Marked aid for trade in proportion 2016-17**

Note: DAC Members, AsDB, EBRD, IADB, World Bank, ILO, and UNDP.

Source: OECD-DAC: aid activity database (2019)

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Further disaggregation shows the specific areas in which donors were actively taking account of gender perspectives within each sector. For example, they were mostly in agrarian reform, agricultural co-operatives, and agricultural extension, cottage industries, handicrafts, SMEs, microfinance, and tourism where women are often already working informally. These areas may have relatively high levels of support to women's economic empowerment as donors can target women as beneficiaries. For instance, microfinance is often used by donors to focus on women working in the informal sector who cannot have access to loans or savings mechanism in formal finance institutions.

Case Stories collected for the Aid for Trade Initiative described many projects, such as the ones carried out by the International Trade Centre (ITC), aiming at connecting women to export markets and value chains, including through e-commerce (OECD-WTO 2011, 2017). For example, companies became intermediaries with artisan groups – such as women tailors – to facilitate access to markets. Another project of ITC provided training to rural women in digital marketing skills using mobile phones. On the other hand, areas such as energy and communications where gender marked aid is low are often believed to be “gender neutral”, thus not requiring a gender perspective to be applied. This is despite evidence that improving women's access to reliable and affordable energy can, for example, reduce their unpaid workload, thereby freeing up more time for paid work activities (World Bank 2012).

The M&E 2019 showed that, when asked to select specific areas where aid for trade best support women's economic empowerment, donors and partner countries converged around similar sectors. A high proportion selected trade education and training, agriculture, business, banking, and trade policy/facilitation (See Figure 9.6). In particular, several partner countries mentioned more precise areas where they considered that aid for trade could contribute to the economic empowerment of women (Box 9.3). On the other hand, not many donors and partner countries selected forestry, mineral resources, regional trade agreements, energy, and communications as best areas in supporting women's economic empowerment.

**Box 9.3. In my view**

Some partner countries consider that aid for trade can contribute to women's economic empowerment in the following areas:

**Cape Verde**

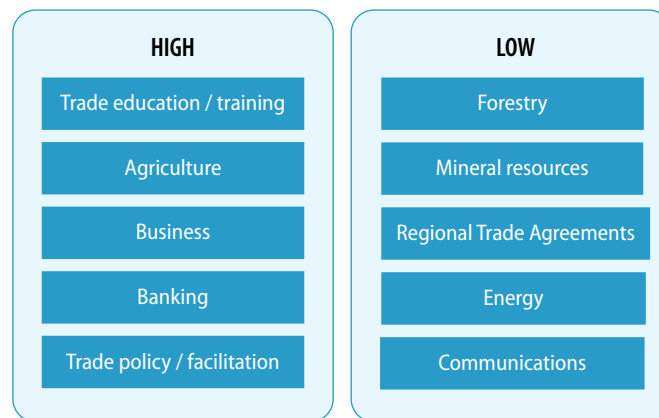
- learning about import/export terms and procedures;
- boosting digital and ICT skills;
- enhancing foreign language skills oriented for global trade; and
- upgrading water supply infrastructure.

**Mauritius**

- developing a coherent framework to boost the productive capacity of MSMEs; and
- mentoring and advisory programmes to connect MSMEs to untapped and potential markets at the international level.

Source: Adapted from OECD-WTO (2019), aid-for-trade monitoring exercise 2019 (questionnaires)

**Figure 9.6. Areas of aid for trade that donors and partner countries believe can best support women's economic empowerment**

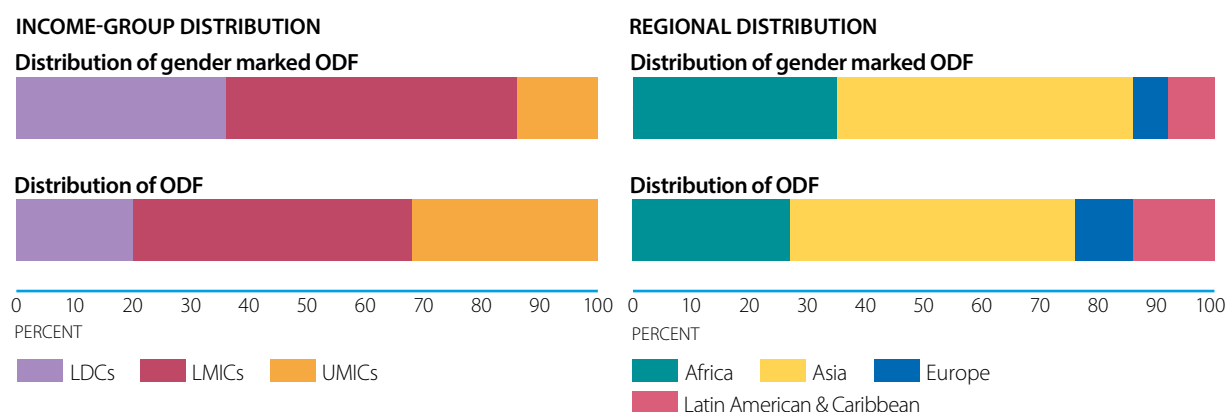


Source: OECD-WTO (2019), aid-for-trade monitoring exercise 2019 (questionnaires)

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In terms of country income levels, gender marked aid for trade was allocated to lower middle income countries (LMICs), least developed countries (LDCs), and then upper middle income countries (UMICs), in that order in 2016-2017 (see Figure 9.7). However, LDCs received proportionally more gender marked aid for trade compared to their total share of aid for trade, while UMICs received proportionally less. This is because LDCs had a relatively high share of agriculture – the sector with the largest proportion of gender marked aid for trade – whereas UMICs had a relatively high share of infrastructure (transport and energy) which is generally low in gender marking. This is also reflected in the regional distribution<sup>13</sup> where Africa received proportionally more gender marked aid for trade than its total share of aid for trade, while Latin America and Europe received less, due to the high amounts of agricultural projects in the former and infrastructure, finance and business projects in the latter two regions.

Figure 9.7. Distribution of Income-groups and regions of gender marked ODF 2016-2017

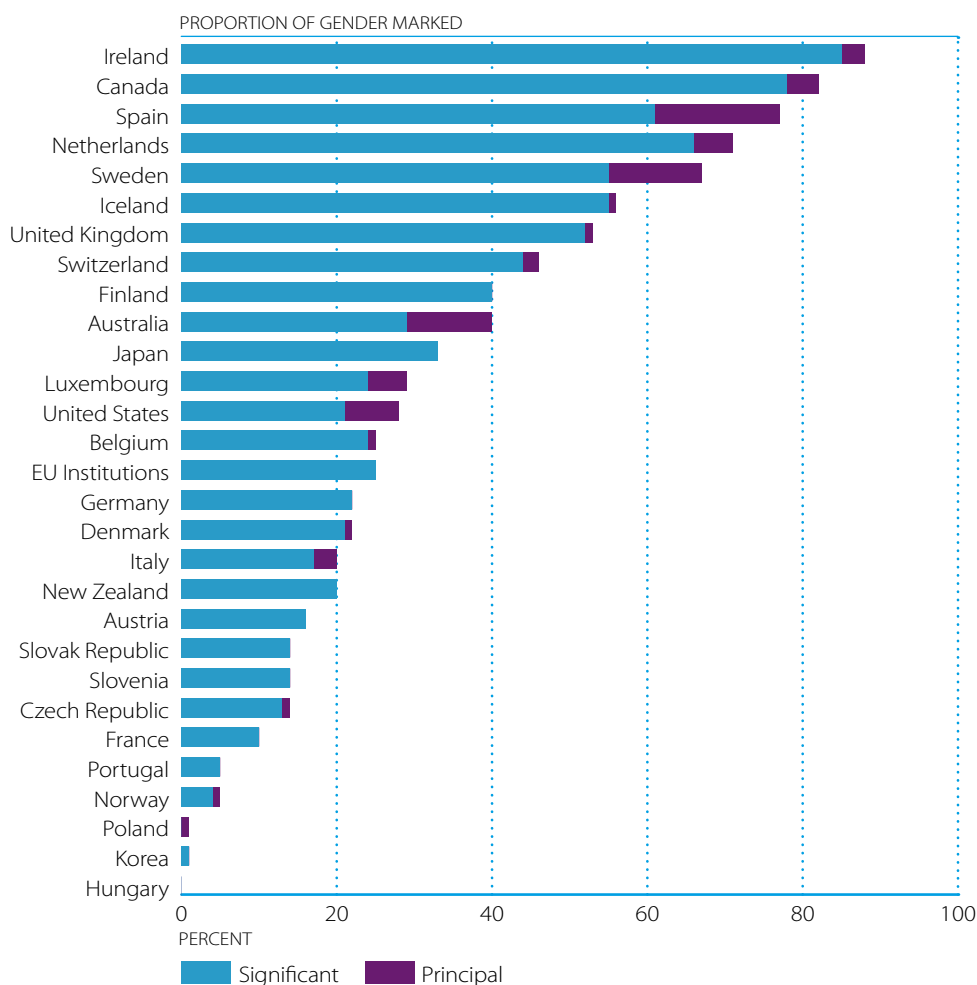


Note: DAC Members, AsDB, EBRD, IADB, World Bank, ILO, and UNDP.

Source: OECD-DAC: aid activity database (2019)

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Figure 9.8. Average share of gender focused aid for trade per year 2016-2017



Note: DAC members only

Source: OECD-DAC: aid activity database (2019)

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**Box 9.4. Women's economic empowerment in "Aid for Trade" by Australia and EU****Australia**

Economic empowerment of women is included as a priority in the 2015 'Strategy for Australia's Aid for Trade Investments'. The Strategy states that empowerment of women should be incorporated in every investment, as aid for trade can help women to participate fully and effectively in goods trades in sectors such as agriculture and fisheries, as well as in services. Australia's 2016 'Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment Strategy' also prioritises women's economic empowerment and specifies areas of support where aid for trade can benefit women. These strategies focus on:

- *improving wages, working conditions and safety, as well as removing discrimination in sectors where women workers and traders predominate*
- *business and vocational skills, particularly for those who are disadvantaged*
- *global value chains*
- *addressing barriers faced by women entrepreneurs, including access to finance*
- *resources and innovations to improve agricultural productivity and income*
- *women's advancement in the private sector*
- *business and legal environment for women entrepreneurs*
- *infrastructure investments to support women's access to economic opportunities and trade*

**EU**

The 2007 *Joint EU Strategy on Aid for Trade* places specific focus on women's economic empowerment. In 2017, the EU expanded its coverage, particularly to support women's access to decent work, financial services, land, and entrepreneurship. The strategy states the need for:

- *inclusion of gender issues in needs assessments for trade, particularly by supporting active involvement of relevant community-based organisations*
- *involvement of small and medium enterprise associations, small-scale farmers and women's groups in designing and implementing aid for trade programmes*
- *development of qualitative and quantitative indicators on gender for monitoring and evaluation*
- *links to finance, advisory services, women's business networks and digital technology*
- *systematic gender analysis of every aid for trade project*

In its first monitoring report issued in December 2018, the EU illustrates many good practices that incorporated gender dimensions in aid for trade by the EU institutions and member states with positive outcomes on women's economic empowerment. On the other hand, the report also highlights the remaining gaps in addressing gender dimensions in aid for trade projects. For example, only 38% of 68 EU delegations stated that aid for trade projects were systematically subject to gender analyses and promotion of women's economic empowerment.

Sources: Adapted from DFAT of Australia (2015, 2016, 2017), European Union (2007, 2017, 2018)

Concerning gender-responsive aid for trade by bilateral donors in 2016-17, the largest ones in absolute amounts were Japan, EU institutions, Germany, the United States and the United Kingdom, who are also large donors in aid for trade. However, Figure 9.8. shows that Ireland had the highest proportion, with almost 90% of its aid for trade being gender-responsive, followed by Canada, Spain, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. Moreover, Spain, Sweden, Australia and the United States had relatively high proportions of aid for trade focused on gender equality and women's empowerment as a Principal Objective. Of the donors with high proportions, Ireland and Canada had strong focus on agriculture, which is a sector that has higher levels of gender marked aid overall.

On the other hand, Hungary, Korea, Poland, Norway, Portugal, France, Czech Republic, Slovenia, Austria, New Zealand and Italy had less than 20% of their respective aid for trade as gender marked. Some of these donors that are relatively new may not have prioritised or may not be familiar with approaches to gender-responsive projects, despite their strong focus on agriculture. France, Italy and Norway, which predominantly support the infrastructure sectors such as energy and transport, had lower levels of gender marked aid. This is the case despite the fact that, for example, France has a framework and indicators to measure progress towards taking account of gender perspectives across aid for trade sectors.

## STRATEGIES AND GUIDELINES IN INCORPORATING GENDER PERSPECTIVES IN AID FOR TRADE

As aid for trade encompasses a wide range of sectors – i.e., from agriculture, transport, energy, to industry – there are only a few donors, such as Australia and the EU, that have a dedicated strategy on integrating gender perspectives in “aid for trade” comprehensively (see Box 9.4). Other donors have integrated gender perspectives or have made it a cross-cutting priority in their development co-operation related to trade. For example, Sweden's Policy Framework for Development Co-operation aims to ensure both men and women benefit from trade, one of its highest priority areas. Others have nevertheless established overall strategies or plans for action to support women's economic empowerment in thematic priorities such as: promotion of women's economic and social rights, engaging the private sector in contributing to women's economic empowerment, or increasing the participation of women in the labour force. These are implemented mainly in agriculture, rural development, SMEs, and access to finance.

For example, in the M&E 2019, Canada referred to its “Feminist International Assistance Policy” which promoted women and girls to develop their skills, have access to decision-making positions, and take part in economic growth of their communities, particularly through supporting technical and vocational training and entrepreneurship. In addition, there are some development finance institutions (DFIs) that try to target women in their support to the private sector. An example is the “2X Challenge” by the G7 DFIs which committed to mobilise USD 3 billion by 2020 to invest in women. In this context, they developed guidelines and criteria to apply a gender lens for projects to qualify (see Box 9.5).

Furthermore, a few donors have guidelines for gender-responsive aid in specific sectors such as agriculture, SMEs, microfinance, tourism, extractive industries, energy, transport and communications. These are New Zealand, Asian Development Bank (AsDB), African Development Bank (AfDB), Inter-American Development Bank (IADB), World Bank, United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO), United Nations Development Programme, and others (see Box 9.6). Many of these donors underline the need to, *inter alia*, collect sex-disaggregated data, carry out *ex ante* gender analysis, and conduct monitoring and evaluation on outputs and impact regarding women. In implementation, most donors state that they have a “twin-track approach” by mainstreaming gender equality across different sectors as well as by specifically targeting gender equality and women's empowerment in programming, following the DAC Guidelines for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (OECD DAC 1999).

**Box 9.5. Applying a gender lens in supporting private investment by G7 Development Finance Institutions**

The G7 DFIs launched the 2X Challenge at the 2018 G7 Summit in Charlevoix, Canada. The 2X Challenge commits the G7 DFIs to mobilize USD 3 billion with private sector partners to invest in women by providing loans, equity, guarantees, and political risk insurance. A project qualifies for the 2X Challenge if it meets at least one of the following 2X criteria:

		Criteria	Threshold
Direct Criteria	1	Entrepreneurship	1A. Share of women ownership 51% OR 1B. Business founded by a woman Yes/No
		2	Leadership
	3		Employment
		4	Consumption
Indirect	5	Investments through Financial Intermediaries <sup>3</sup>	On-Lending facilities: Percent of the DFI loan proceeds supporting businesses that meet direct criteria <sup>1</sup> 30% OR Funds: Percent of portfolio companies that meet the direct criteria <sup>1</sup> 30%

Sector-Specific Thresholds		
Grp.	Sector	%
Low	Infrastructure, Power, Telecoms	20%
	Financial Services, Manufacturing – Heavy, Agribusiness & Food, Professional Services, Consumer Services	25%
High	Healthcare, Education	30%
<b>3.A Women in the Workforce*</b>		
Grp.	Sector	%
Low	Infrastructure, Power, Telecoms	30%
Mid	Financial Services, Manufacturing – Heavy, Agribusiness & Food, Professional Services	40%
High	Healthcare, Education, Consumer Services, Manufacturing – Light <sup>1</sup>	50%

\*Room for judgement: Investors in unique sectors or geographies may require case-by-case consideration.

The 2X Challenge is committed to transparency and accountability. Every transaction qualified in the 2X Challenge will be posted on the 2X Challenge website ([www.2XChallenge.org](http://www.2XChallenge.org)) which includes qualification details, sector information and capital commitments.

Source: Adapted from OPIC (2018, 2019) and 2X Challenge website, <https://www.2xchallenge.org/>

At a more collective level, in 2004, GENDERNET developed a guide "Why Gender Matters in Infrastructure" for energy, transport, water, and sanitation (OECD DAC, 2004). It suggests general actions to take, such as: incorporating gender specific objectives into project design; using gender analysis and sex-disaggregated data to develop gender strategies throughout the project; involving women through consultation, participation and decision-making; and monitoring the gender objectives of the project.

More recently, the OECD, with participation of some GENDERNET members, developed guidance for donors and partner country governments<sup>14</sup> to support women's economic empowerment in, *inter alia*, infrastructure, with the specific aim of addressing women's disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work (OECD 2019a). It also states the need to include proper safeguarding measures to ensure women's safety in particular on large infrastructure projects, provide quality childcare provisions to allow women to engage in paid work, consider unpaid care work in gender assessments or diagnostics, and focus on closing gender gaps in employment in infrastructure sectors. Aside from the ones mentioned above, however, few donors have specific guidelines on how to take account of gender perspectives in several key aid-for-trade sectors such as transport, energy, communications, finance and business, or industry.

**Box 9.6. Guidelines on trade, infrastructure, extractive Industries, and tourism****Guide on Gender Mainstreaming Trade Capacity-Building Projects by UNIDO, 2015**

- Ensure that women and men benefit equally from trade capacity-building projects throughout the project formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation stages. This is carried out by gender analysis and identification of potential stakeholders and partners.
- Indicators for gender-sensitive trade capacity include: ratio of women's income to men's income in comparable value-chain segments; percentage of women in better paid positions across segments of the value chain; ratio of women to men enrolling in trade capacity-building training; and number of procurement contracts obtained as a result of women-owned business certification.

**Gender Mainstreaming in Infrastructure by AfDB, 2009**

- Design and input indicators: infrastructure constraints on women's economic, domestic and community management roles addressed.
- Implementation indicators: participatory project planning and implementation with women in communities.
- Output indicators: increase in number of women participated in project activities such as road construction and maintenance, increase proportion of women with access to employment and income generating activities.
- Impact indicators: increased number of women entrepreneurs on road sides.

**Internal Toolkit on Gender Mainstreaming in Infrastructure Operations by IADB**

IADB has an internal on-line toolkit for gender mainstreaming in infrastructure operations, which is in the process of being on an open website. It includes guides on integrating gender perspectives, with examples of baselines in project design, 150 gender-sensitive activities, and 600 output and outcome indicators.

**Mainstreaming Gender in Extractive Industries by World Bank, 2009**

- Performance indicators: legal ability of women to own and operate mines, pro-female banking and land ownership regulations, and gender sensitisation activities.
- Impact indicators: percentage of extractive industry company's community program spent on women's projects, number of women employed and the gender wage gap for the same job in the company.

**Gender Equality in Tourism by New Zealand, 2016**

- Ensure women's participation in consultations, governance, policy-making and local government planning on tourism; and building capacity of SMEs to engage women in consultations and decision-making.
- Support economic opportunities for women in the service sector, such as food catering, tour guiding, transport, accommodation, and food supply. Minimise stereotypical roles for women, such as cleaning, washing, and bed making.
- Promote scholarships and training in hospitality, marketing, recruitment, management as well as in financial services for women, such as insurance, banking, and loans.
- Ensure women are able to negotiate terms and conditions of employment, including working hours to reflect domestic and community commitments.

Sources: Adapted from AfDB (2009), World Bank (2009), MFAT of New Zealand (2012) and UNIDO (2015)

## Examples of incorporating gender perspectives in aid-for-trade areas

This section provides some good examples<sup>15</sup> where donors are incorporating gender perspectives in different aid-for-trade sectors. They cover areas with relatively high levels of gender marked aid, such as agriculture, SMEs, tourism, and garments, as well as the areas that are relatively low, such as trade, infrastructure, finance and business, and industry. These examples could serve as lessons to donors that are facing challenges in similar areas. Most of the following projects were marked as Significant Objective (Score 1) as opposed to Principal Objective (Score 2) for gender equality and women's empowerment (See OECD DAC 2018 for the distribution).

### Trade Policy

**Sweden** and **UNCTAD** developed the **Trade and Gender** Toolbox which provides a framework and methodology to assess the impact on women of **trade reforms**, such as the implementation of a preferential trade agreement. The methodology incorporates four components: the assessment of gender inequalities in the country's economic context; quantitative analysis of the expected consequences of the trade reform on the economy and women; gender-sensitive monitoring indicators; and a trade and gender index to synthesise the impact of trade openness on gender. This has been applied to the Economic Partnership Agreement between the EU and the East African Community to assess the impact of trade reforms on the different sectors for Kenyan women.

**Australia** and the **World Bank** are aiming to enhance women's economic opportunities and cross-border connectivity through the South Asia Regional Trade Facilitation Program (SARTFP), particularly in **Bangladesh, Bhutan, India and Nepal**. SARTFP stems from the recognition that women and men may be impacted in different ways by **trade facilitation**, thereby raising the need to collect sex-disaggregated data, as well as to carry out gender informed research, analysis, monitoring and evaluation in this area. SARTFP has led to the adoption of gender-sensitive trade facilitation policies by governments in areas such as cross-border markets, access to facilities, inland waterway transport and tourism policy.

**Sweden** also financed a study to analyse the gender impact of the prospective Association Agreement of **Georgia, Moldova, and Ukraine** with the EU. The report highlights the potential negative impact due to import competition through the **preferential trade agreement** in areas where many women are employed, such as some agricultural sectors, food processing and manufacturing of electronic products. On the other hand, it points to opportunities in other areas for women, such as in textiles/apparel or various services. The study concludes that, for women to take advantage of more capital-intensive industries such as financial or ICT services, more opportunities would need to be provided for them to develop the necessary skills.

The M&E Case Stories point to many projects involving research on trade and women (OECD-WTO 2011, 2017). For example, **USAID** assessed the constraints and opportunities in **cross-border trade** between **Malawi and Botswana**. The study found that women usually lack information on trade border procedures, face higher transaction costs, and have limited access to transportation. The report also illustrates that women are vulnerable to harassment and different forms of gender-based violence at border crossings, including sexual coercion, often by border agents, while staying overnight in transit at borders.

As part of the World Customs Organization's (WCO) project for **customs reform** and modernisation in the East and Southern Africa Region, **Finland** financed workshops for officials on gender mainstreaming in customs with the participation of **Kenya, Eswatini, South Africa, Rwanda, Uganda, Malawi, Zimbabwe and Mauritius and Seychelles**. WCO introduced the Gender Equality Organizational Assessment Tool which helps administrations assess their own policies, procedures and practices in addressing gender equality issues. Additionally, an e-learning module was developed to raise awareness on how to advance gender equality in customs.



**Canada** and the **Netherlands** financed Trade Mark East Africa (TMEA) to ameliorate the constraints that limit the participation of East African women traders in economic activities and **cross-border trade**, for instance, through gender awareness trainings for custom officials at 12 border posts. Other activities focused on: improving the enabling environment by simplifying, translating and disseminating documentation on trading requirements for small scale traders, most of whom are women; adopting gender-sensitive cross border trade charters; establishing co-operatives and market access platforms for women traders; developing a reporting mechanism on violence against women; collecting sex-disaggregated data; and conducting evidence-based research on issues affecting women traders. One of the activities targets a 30% increase in the use of formal trade channels by the targeted women traders in order to increase their revenue by 10%.

In **trade facilitation**, the **World Bank** assisted the **Lao People's Democratic Republic** to simplify business regulations, facilitate trade, and improve firm-level competitiveness. Specifically, it supported the provision of free advisory services to businesses, including women-led enterprises, and the introduction of computers in provincial offices to allow for easier submission of documentation and enterprise registration. The results are to be measured by the increase in operating licenses in sectors of interest for women<sup>16</sup> and the decrease in the number of procedures for businesses that were started by women. In three and a half years, the project surpassed its target and reached 34% women-owned businesses.

### Economic Infrastructure

In the **transport sector**, **IADB** promoted female employment in the operation of heavy machinery for road construction in Latin America. For example, in **Bolivia, Nicaragua and Paraguay**, female personnel of construction and road maintenance companies received support for training and traineeships to develop their technical capacities. The project entailed: gender specific assessment in the market demand for qualified personnel; consideration of specific needs of women's livelihood and skills in order to increase their employability in the sector; and linkage with IADB's transport loan operations to gain support from government counterparts and local communities during implementation. One of the results show that 57% of female trainees in Bolivia scored very high compared to only 5% of male trainees.

In **air transport**, the **AsDB** supported the employment of women in the management and engineering works to upgrade airports and related markets in **Papua New Guinea**. The Bank included a provision for due diligence to identify gender-inclusive actions in order to ensure that women are involved in skills development and in designing airports. The achievement from these actions will be reviewed in progress reports and the project completion report. In **Nicaragua**, **Denmark** supported a **rural road** infrastructure maintenance and construction project to improve connectivity of rural areas. Women were involved as road committee members for the design as well as labours in the project making up 30% of those employed surpassing the 20% target. The evaluation points out that the income generated by the women through the employment allowed them to invest in their home gardens to grow vegetables and produce poultry and pork for sale.

The **United Kingdom** financed a research programme on **Sustainable Energy**, Access and Gender, which consisted of several research projects, including: gender factor in political economy of energy sector dynamics; gender and fossil fuels subsidy reform; and building the evidence base for women's empowerment and entrepreneurship to improve energy interventions' effectiveness. The findings show that energy provision systems are not gender neutral; for instance, men are more likely to capture decision-making over energy resources when provision systems are centralised, such as in the case of central grids. Decentralised energy provision systems like solar energy provide energy at smaller scales which allow for more participation by women in energy management.

In **energy policy**, **Iceland**, along with the UN Environment and other partners, organised a workshop on women entrepreneurs and sustainable energy in **Gabon** in order to promote gender-responsive energy policies across the African continent. It highlighted women's role across the energy value chain to expand economic opportunities and improve access to energy. The outcome included a commitment by African governments to take action on: environmentally sustainable and gender-responsive energy policies; improvement of access to finance and markets by women energy entrepreneurs across the value chain; and capacity building, skills creation and empowerment for women entrepreneurs. Another outcome was the establishment of the African Women Energy Entrepreneurs Framework, which is a platform for exchanging knowledge, accessing finance and accelerating sustainable energy.

**Canada** is implementing a project in **Burkina Faso** that includes **rural electrification** activities, particularly through the promotion of solar energy, as well as associated business development for women. The installation of solar energy equipment will be used to increase the production, processing and storage of onion, chicken and fish that are important in the region. The project is expected to benefit 40,000 people, especially women through the involvement of women's groups.

The **EU** is implementing a regional program in **Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan** to address **uranium waste** from uranium mining legacy sites, which includes awareness raising on radiation safety, taking into consideration women's time, mobility, and resource constraints. Furthermore, women were encouraged to participate in the training of trainers' workshops. The contents of the training and information materials as well as the public awareness campaign were also designed in a gender-sensitive manner. As a result, 60% of community representatives in campaign events and 85% of workshop participants for teachers and medical personnel were women.

Through the Fintnership Programme, **Finland** provided financial support to the Solar Fire Concentration company to invest in small-scale entrepreneurs, especially women, in **Kenya and Tanzania** to reduce energy costs through **solar** technology. In these countries, women collect fuel-wood, which is time-consuming, and use it for cooking, exposing them to hazardous smoke. Therefore, solar thermal is easier, cleaner, and time-saving for women, which also enables them to run small businesses such as bakeries or dehydrating process services for farmers using the energy. In addition, ovens utilising solar heat for food processing were installed to allow women to save money that was spent on charcoals. They were used by women's co-operatives to roast peanuts or cashew nuts and dry bananas as well as bakeries run by women. The project also included trainings in installing solar energy electrical devices for the residents, which required the inclusion of women.

In **energy manufacturing**, **Italy** provided trainings for the construction and use of small solar energy systems for women in **Burundi**. Furthermore, through the provision of electricity, the project specifically supported women's embroidery and clothing businesses that used electric sewing machines to produce beddings and clothes, as well as to water pumps for increased agricultural outputs. **UNIDO** also trained women and youth on the productive use of **renewable energy** in the Gambia, which led to the mobilisation of over 1000 women to participate in the programme.

### Productive Capacity

The **IADB** supported the Coffee Renewal and Modernisation project in **Colombia** to contribute to the increase of coffee yields and quality of 2,000 small-hold **coffee** growers, of which more than half were women. With the grant, the co-operative will provide loans to coffee growers to purchase small mills, construct drying yards, or repair existing equipment. Technical assistance will help the coffee-growers in complying with certification standards. The expected results of the intervention is an 8% increase in the weight of coffee bean yield and the reduction of damaged beans.

A project by **USAID and Food and Agricultural Organisation** in **Afghanistan** targeted specifically women working in the poultry **value chain** to increase their income through intensive technical training on poultry rearing and vaccinations, sustainable inputs such as feed and drugs, and the establishment of a marketing network of women to link village poultry producers to urban markets. After two years, the project had trained over 21,000 women in poultry management and organised 850 producer groups. According to an evaluation, trainings and organisational development led to an increase in household income for the over 15,000 female producers in egg production.

The **Belgian Investment Company for Developing Countries (BIO)** provided credit to Societe Ivoirienne de Traitement de l'Anacarde (SITA) in **Côte d'Ivoire**. The company, which is led by a woman, employed mostly women in processing cashews. Today, the company is the leader of the cashew industry in the country, which is the second largest exporter of cashew in the world after India. **Spain**, within the framework of a project of the University of Córdoba funded by the **Andalusian Agency for International Development Cooperation**, supported a course at two universities in **Mozambique**, focusing on **natural resources management** with a specific module on incorporating gender perspectives. This project included a publication on forest resources management and household energy production, with special attention to the role of rural women.

The **AsDB** provided a grant to the **Bangladesh** Women Chamber of Commerce and Industry to promote women's **entrepreneurship**. The project enabled 900 women entrepreneurs to receive training for loan applications. As a result, 91 women applicants received loans, with many going on to start a business. In addition, 600 desk officers from financial institutions were trained on pro-women government policies. Building on this project, AsDB is now implementing an SME development project which includes a credit facility with 10% earmarking for SMEs headed by women.

In the **West Bank and Gaza Strip**, the **World Bank** financed the development of the Abraham Path project, a long-distance trekking route where walkers have homestays with local Palestinian families and local guides. Women are usually the main hosts along the Abraham Path, managing and preparing lodging and food. The project also provided opportunities for sale of local women's handicrafts to walkers who pass through or stay in their villages. The World Bank financed the development of the path itself, training of guides and hosts, as well as marketing of the Path through a virtual information hub, location-based mapping, and social media. Women were provided with **tourism** and language training and work-readiness programmes. The latest monitoring report indicated that 196 jobs were created since the start of the initiative in 2014, of which 57% were women.

Case Stories from the Aid for Trade Initiative show many projects incorporating gender perspectives are in agriculture and SMEs, which include trainings, access to microfinance, and quality improvement of products to comply with international standards or certifications (OECD-WTO 2011, 2015, 2017). They also show concrete examples of donor activities in the textile and garment sectors where women are over-represented. The projects focus on ensuring decent working conditions for women by enforcing good labour standards at factories, carrying out spot checks, providing supervisory skills training, and integrating them in labour unions (OECD-WTO 2011).

The **AsDB** supported government reforms in the **Philippines** in **industrial policy** to help boost competitiveness in the country. The project included staff trainings in national agencies focusing on Public Private Partnerships, of which the target of 50% women trainees was established and surpassed. The **United States Inter-American Foundation** supported a project in **mineral exploration** in **Bolivia**, targeting women in mining co-operatives to improve their productivity and income. The project included the provision of machinery, equipment, tools, safety gear and associated training.

**Norway** supported a project in **Mozambique** in the **oil and gas sector** to enhance technical capabilities of young Mozambicans to benefit from employment opportunities in the sector or related investments. It aimed to train 500 people annually to obtain qualifications as demanded by the oil and gas industry, with a target of 50% women in two years. In the first 18 months, 47% of the 450 trainees completing the course were women. Approximately 25% of the project's facilitators, who were often recruited from the training centre, were also women.

**Switzerland** provided a grant to the International Finance Corporation (IFC) to develop a programme in **Morocco, Tunisia and Egypt** to improve access to financial and non-financial services for women by providing advisory services to **financial institutions**, such as banks and microfinance institutions. For instance, IFC helps financial institutions to expand their offering, including financial and non-financial services, such as networking opportunities and trainings, to women-led businesses. It also raises awareness and shares knowledge of best practices in women banking among financial institutions. UNIDO also carried out a similar project in the region to increase networking and capacity building of women's associations.

The **Netherlands** supported the development of the Global Banking Alliance (GBA) for Women, an international consortium composed of 46 members – mostly financial institutions – committed to promote women's economic empowerment. Its objective is to increase women's access to capital, markets and trainings. GBA conducts market intelligence research on "women's economy" and also created an online library collecting other related research. Moreover, GBA organises annual summits bringing together women entrepreneurs, academics, bankers and other stakeholders to review best practices, and market innovations for women's economic empowerment. In **Turkey, France** provided a loan to the private owned Turkish development and investment bank, TSKB, for a gender-focused line of credit dedicated to companies that proactively employ women or in order to comply with Turkish regulations on **workplace health and safety**. The Bank reported that the credit line contributed to the hiring of about 700 female employees.

The M&E Case Stories also mentions that the **Private Infrastructure Development Group (PIDG)** financed a **multi-sectoral** project that provided ferries, road upgrading and solar powered electricity to serve the Kalangala Island residents in **Uganda**, to increase tourism to the island. The project's training led to the first certified female mariners in Uganda. In the **Philippines, Germany** carried out a coastal resource management project where women represented 60% of fish farmers. It aimed at helping women and men avoid overexploitation of **fishing** grounds through training and peer learning activities. With the support of this project, women were appointed to key positions of local groups for sustainable resource management and participated in discussions of the government's regulatory and financial framework, marine protected areas, and capacity development for fishing organisations.

### Synthesis and Assessment of Donor Activities

In sum, the above shows that there are several good examples of gender-responsive aid-for-trade activities by donors, including areas such as transport, energy, finance and business, and industry. These projects tend to be smaller in scale than projects in the same sectors that do not incorporate gender dimensions. Many projects entail training of women, either as government officials in policy making or implementation, or as project beneficiaries in enhancing income generating activities. Often there are targets or quotas to ensure that sufficient proportion of the trainees or employment of the local labour force in construction will be women. Other activities involve studies or development of project design that would incorporate gender perspectives in the particular area or activity. While some projects also try to help women connect to the global market, they are frequently limited to the low value added segment in agriculture, handicrafts, and garments.

Table 9.1. Types of activities incorporating gender dimensions in aid for trade

Category	Sector	On women	For women	By women
<b>Trade Policy</b>	Trade policies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ gender awareness raising tools/trainings/studies</li> <li>■ application of gender issues in EPAs/policies</li> <li>■ gender mainstreaming in customs reforms</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ training on, including female government officials</li> <li>■ simplification of registration including women entrepreneurs</li> <li>■ free advisory services, including for women enterprises</li> </ul>	
<b>Economic Infrastructure</b>	Road		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ employment for female labourers</li> <li>■ training on road maintenance for women</li> </ul>	women as committee members for road design
	Airport		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ employment in upgrading and markets</li> <li>■ training and provision</li> </ul>	women as decision makers in airport planning
	Energy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ workshop on gender sensitive energy policy</li> <li>■ studies on gender factor of the energy sector</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ platform for women in energy value chain</li> <li>■ provision of solar energy for women entrepreneurs</li> <li>■ training for women on energy use for women's businesses</li> </ul>	women trainers
	Industrial policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ market research on women's businesses</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ training on PPPs, including female government officials</li> </ul>	women facilitators
	Natural resources		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ training and provision of machinery for mineral exploitation, including for women</li> <li>■ training in oil exploitation, including for women</li> </ul>	
	Financial sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ establishment of a platform for women's banking</li> <li>■ training for financial institutions on gender aspects</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ credit for women entrepreneurs</li> <li>■ training on financial management for entrepreneurs</li> </ul>	
	Entrepreneurship		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ training for solar power and income generation for entrepreneurs</li> </ul>	
<b>Productive capacity</b>	Tourism		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ training for women in hosting tourists</li> <li>■ training for women in marine management</li> </ul>	
	Textiles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ enforcement of labour standards where women work</li> <li>■ training on supervisory skills where women work</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ integration of women in labour unions</li> </ul>	
	Agriculture		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ technical co-operation or loans to increase crop yield for female farmers</li> <li>■ investment in a woman-headed company for cashew processing</li> <li>■ training on forestry products for women's groups</li> </ul>	
	Fisheries		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ training on coastal resource management for fish farmers</li> <li>■ appointment of women in local groups</li> </ul>	women decision-makers in fishery groups

These projects can be categorised as those that involve the upstream policy areas which take account of gender perspectives or those that are downstream which try to help women beneficiaries directly. Another way of looking at it is that some projects are “on women” (training subject), “for women” (trainees or beneficiaries), or “by women” (decision makers or trainers) (see Table 9.1). Aside from traditional bilateral projects, donors also finance specialised international agencies such as ITC, UNIDO, TMEA, as well as help establish global platforms such as the GBA, in order to promote women's economic empowerment regionally or globally. Furthermore, there are efforts to encourage private sector finance to women's economic empowerment, such as by BIO, PIDG, the Finnpartnership Programme, and the G7 DFIs.

In terms of process, most donors are committed to: collect sex-disaggregated data; carry out *ex-ante* gender analysis of the sectoral/institutional context and the project beneficiaries; and conduct monitoring and evaluation of gender dimensions. At the same time, not all donors undertake these activities systematically. For example, the only donors that generally disaggregate the number of people provided with electricity by sex are the EU, the Netherlands, New Zealand, AfDB, and the World Bank (OECD 2019b). As data collection on, *inter alia*, access to energy by its citizens and consumers is the responsibility of the national government, in many cases, donors need to encourage partner countries to disaggregate data by sex. Furthermore, some donors emphasise process indicators for their internal institutional gender mainstreaming – unrelated to partner country impact – such as increasing training for development co-operation staff on gender sensitisation, proportion of female managers in aid agencies, and organising meetings on gender mainstreaming in administrations.

Others have output indicators such as the number of women trained, accessing energy or receiving financial advisory services. However, there are only few donors that use indicators that are more outcome oriented. This is reflected in the M&E 2019 exercise which showed that only half the donors stated that they have any indicator to track women's economic empowerment in aid for trade. The few donors mentioning that they have indicators pertain predominantly to sex-disaggregated data, such as the number or proportion of women who were able to be employed in unskilled, technical, management, or supervisory roles, secured land titles, or obtained financing. Other output indicators involved the number of households adopting workload saving energy technologies or registered businesses owned solely or jointly by women.

The activities to promote women's economic empowerment in some aid-for-trade sectors are particularly important in contexts where social norms could constrain women's access to the market or finance, including for the poorest and marginalised. Therefore, some donors consider that, to have the greatest positive impact, gender-responsive aid for trade should be combined with other efforts to address poverty and inequalities. Others highlight the relevance of promoting women's employment in male-dominated jobs, notably in the transport sector where few women are employed, generally in low paid positions, such as cleaning or traffic signalling. Women's professional development and economic opportunities in certain sectors are constrained by discriminatory stereotypes and restrictive gender roles dictating which jobs are appropriate for women.

At the same time short-term trainings and employment in projects may not be enough for policy changes or to sustain women's economic activities, thereby limiting the effectiveness of interventions carried out by the donors (Buvinic, Furst-Nichols 2014). Aside from filling targets of involving women in training or consultations, these activities could report *ex-post* how policies or project designs were adjusted due to the enhanced women's involvement. Furthermore, projects that target women as recipients of loans, producers of tradable goods, or employees of male-dominated jobs that could lead to income generation and entrepreneurship would also need to be scaled up to have wider impact. This will also require co-operation to help partner government improve the enabling policy and legal environment.

Moreover, it would be necessary for donors to ensure that, systematically, sex-disaggregated data are collected, *ex-ante* analyses are carried out, and indicators related to gender are included in their results frameworks, to the extent possible aligning to the SDG indicators and to partner country results frameworks. In this respect, donors could also help strengthen partner countries' statistical and results based management systems, particularly in capturing gender dimensions. Beyond establishing an adequate monitoring and evaluation system, donors also need to use the results information generated through these systems to learn what works and what does not. Specifically, it is important to better understand how the incorporation of gender perspectives in key aid-for-trade sectors can lead to long-term and sustainable outcomes for women's economic empowerment. Finally, it is also essential to replicate good practices and improve programming – alongside communicating on the results achieved.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Women's economic empowerment has been recognised as one of the key drivers of sustainable development and gender equality. In this context, trade can advance women's position as economic actors with positive benefits for them and their families. On the other hand, special attention needs to be paid to negative impacts of trade liberalisation on women. Aid for trade should therefore enable women to gain from trade, particularly through active and meaningful participation in the relevant sectors, and minimise adverse impacts in pursuing economic opportunities. In this context, the WTO Task Force on Aid for Trade established a guiding principle to take account of the gender perspective in aid for trade in order to catalyse women's role in sustainable and inclusive development.

In recent years, donors have increased gender-responsive aid for trade overall. In particular, donors are addressing this relatively well in agriculture, cottage industries, SMEs, and microfinance. Some donors have explicit strategies and guidelines to support economic empowerment of women in these areas. On the other hand, gender perspectives are not taken into account very well in sectors such as transport, energy, communications, industry, finance and business. In particular, many bilateral donors generally do not have strategies or guidelines on how to promote women's economic empowerment in these areas.

Nevertheless, there are some good examples of gender-responsive aid for trade in the difficult areas that could be shared with other donors whose approaches are not as well developed. These activities consist of: ensuring that women are part of training programmes; income generating projects for women; increased financial access and employment for women and studies on strengthening gender dimensions for the particular sector policy. At the same time, many donors still lack adequate indicators or monitoring and evaluation systems to assess impact on women's economic empowerment in these areas. These mechanisms will help to obtain insights about how activities that take account of gender perspectives can better contribute to women's economic empowerment.

The 2004 GENDERNET's guide on Why Gender Matters in Infrastructure mentions:

*Although the policies of many aid agencies state that gender equality is critical to project sustainability and to the achievement to the MDGs, agencies often experience very real difficulties translating their political and policy commitments into practice on the ground. This is particularly true of large-scale infrastructure projects...*

**Box 9.7. In my view – Ann Linde, Minister for Foreign Trade, Sweden**

The 2030 Agenda strengthens the prominence of international trade as an aim as well as a means of sustainable development, and recognises the importance of aid for trade. My Government is highly dedicated to these commitments. One sign of this is our strong support for the Aid for Trade initiative. In addition, as trade minister of the world's first officially feminist government I use available platforms for pushing the gender equality agenda forward, mainly the WTO and EU's free trade agreements but also through aid for trade. Sweden mobilises efforts around comprehensive gender integration across all development co-operation. This is notable for example in the Government's Policy Framework for Development Cooperation. In addition, since 2018 Sweden has a global strategy for development cooperation for gender equality and women's and girls' rights.

Historically, trade has proven to be an engine for development and poverty reduction by boosting growth, particularly in developing countries. The world has witnessed an enormous economic transformation over the past three decades. As goods, services, capital, and people flow across countries faster than ever before, information and knowledge have become global commodities. In addition, the digital revolution has opened great opportunities for growth, jobs and sustainable development around the world. At the same time, the OECD has found that around the world, some 250 million fewer women than men are online – many of them in developing countries. This at a time when there is plenty of evidence to suggest that digital access can help boost women's personal development and wider prosperity. The Women and the Web report by Intel found that enabling greater internet access in the developing world would contribute an estimated 13 to 18 billion dollars to annual GDP across 144 countries.

Given that the SDG's put significant emphasis on the role that trade plays in achieving the global goals and the 2030 Agenda, it was an eye-opener to read that only a small part of gender marked aid for trade is going to the category "Trade policy". I was also surprised to read that few donors integrate gender perspectives in key aid-for-trade sectors, one of them the ICT sector. If this is due to lack of guidelines, then we must start work on setting up guidelines in areas that are essential for contributing to women's economic empowerment and achieving global goals and the 2030 Agenda.

Analyses like this are extremely relevant and useful and it is precisely this type of effort that is needed to move from talk to action. Indeed, this is very much a wakeup call for both donors and partner countries to take gender issues in trade seriously. The gender policy marker is a useful tool in this regard and we are aware of the continuous quality assurance that OECD-DAC is carrying out, to ensure harmonized application of this marker among donors.

Fifteen years later, this quote still applies, not only for infrastructure, but many other aid-for-trade areas, although less for agriculture, SMEs, handicrafts, and microfinance. This calls for further research and analysis to build the evidence base on how donors can contribute to women's economic empowerment – going beyond short-term trainings for women and employment in project – and looking at how income-generating projects can be scaled up for wider impact and sustainability. In this context, sharing or better implementation of the guidance on how to plan, monitor and evaluate donor activities in contributing to women's economic empowerment through aid for trade, particularly in areas such as transport, energy, communication, finance and business, mining and industry, might be useful (see Box 9.7), building on work by the DAC GENDERNET.

One element could include exploring how to carry out gender assessments or diagnostics that would consider the impact of infrastructure on women's unpaid care work by examining patterns of mobility or energy use, particularly among the poor in rural areas. Furthermore, it could also encourage more awareness raising and training for men and women to design gender sensitive infrastructure investments (OECD 2019a). Moreover, some donors point to the need for: strong senior leadership and political will to ensure implementation of this agenda; adequate resources, sufficient number of experts with requisite skills and experience, and capacity building for mainstreaming; careful selection of implementing partners with aligned goals; and ensuring accountability. All of these efforts could particularly contribute to two SDGs – Goal 5, which addresses women's empowerment, including access to land ownership and financial services as well as unpaid care through the provision of infrastructure, and Goal 8, which promotes women to be engaged in productive employment.



## NOTES

1. Para 157 "Although some new employment opportunities have been created for women as a result of the globalization of the economy, there are also trends that have exacerbated inequalities between women and men. At the same time, globalization, including economic integration, can create pressures on the employment situation of women to adjust to new circumstances and to find new sources of employment as patterns of trade change. More analysis needs to be done of the impact of globalization on women's economic status."
2. In the M&E 2013, Canada, the Netherlands, and the UK, stated that evaluations on the impacts of their value chain projects on women's economic empowerment, generally concluded that there were positive changes.
3. Other recommendations are: 1) sharing our respective experiences relating to policies and programs to encourage women's participation in national and international economies through WTO information exchanges, as appropriate, and voluntary reporting during the WTO trade policy review process; 2) Sharing best practices for conducting gender-based analysis of trade policies and for the monitoring of their effects; 3) Sharing methods and procedures for the collection of gender-disaggregated data, the use of indicators, monitoring and evaluation methodologies, and the analysis of gender-focused statistics related to trade; and 4) Working together in the WTO to remove barriers for women's economic empowerment and increase their participation in trade.
4. This question was not asked in the M&E for the later years.
5. See <https://www.empowerwomen.org/en/who-we-are/initiatives/sg-high-level-panel-on-womens-economic-empowerment>
6. This includes the concessional Official Development Assistance and non-concessional developmental Other Official Flows.
7. Between 1998 to 2017, Official Development Finance to health, education, government and civil society and water accounted between 42% to 61% of bilateral allocable gender marked commitments.
8. The goal of GENDERNET is to improve policies and practices to strengthen gender equality in development programmes and to secure girls' and women's rights, contributing to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. <http://www.oecd.org/dac/gender-development/about-gendernet.htm>
9. The data used for How Does Aid Support Women's Economic Empowerment? consist of only ODA and of DAC Members, whereas data for this Chapter include both ODA and Other Official Flows of DAC members and multilateral development banks. On the other hand, the former includes a wider range of sectors such as Urban Development, Public Finance Management, and Employment Policies which are not included in this Chapter as they are not part of the aid-for-trade sectors.
10. According to the World Trade Organization (WTO) Task Force on Aid for Trade, projects and programmes are part of aid for trade if these activities have been identified as trade-related development priorities in the partner country's national development strategies. Furthermore, the WTO Task Force concluded that to measure aid-for-trade flows, the following categories should be included: technical assistance for trade policy and regulations, trade-related infrastructure, productive capacity building (including trade development), trade-related adjustment, other trade-related needs. The DAC's CRS database was recognised as the best available data source for tracking global aid-for-trade flows. It should be kept in mind that the CRS does not provide data that match exactly all of the above aid-for-trade categories. In fact, the CRS provides proxies under four headings: trade policy and regulations, economic infrastructure, building productive capacity, and trade-related adjustment.

The CRS covers all ODA, but only those activities reported under the above four categories can be identified as aid for trade. It is not possible to distinguish activities in the context of “other trade-related needs”. To estimate the volume of such “other” activities, donors would need to examine aid projects in sectors other than those considered so far – for example in health and education – and indicate what share, if any, of these activities has an important trade component. A health programme, for instance, might permit increased trade from localities where the disease burden was previously a constraint on trade. Consequently, accurately monitoring aid for trade would require comparison of the CRS data with donor and partner countries’ self-assessments of their aid for trade. The list of sectors included in aid for trade can be found in: <http://www.oecd.org/dac/aft/Aid-for-trade-sector-codes.pdf>.

11. Communications does not include ICT related assistance in other sectors such as health, education, business, public financial management, and so on.
12. The annual average amount of gender marked projects versus non-gender marked projects in 2014-17 were, respectively: USD 2million versus USD 4 million in energy; USD 0.9 million versus USD 3 million in industry and mining; and USD 3 million and USD 4 million in finance and business.
13. Africa includes data for Africa, Middle East, North of Sahara and South of Sahara. Latin America and Caribbean includes data for America, North & Central America, and South America. Asia includes data for Asia, Far East Asia, Oceania and South & Central Asia.
14. This work was led by the OECD Development Centre which has many developing countries as its members and not all DAC members are its members.
15. The projects were mostly identified from the DAC’s credit reporting system. Supplementary information was obtained through on-line sources or contacts with the respective donors.
16. Sectors are unspecified in the World Bank document.

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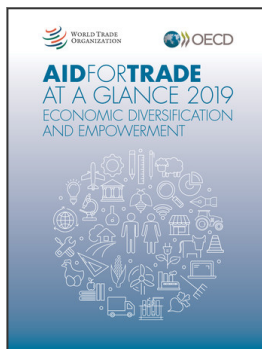
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