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ENDNOTES

1 See *http://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/conceptsandefinitions.htm*.

2 Same as above.

3 See Razavi and Hassim (2006), Gideon (1999) and Elson (1999).

4 See for instance Darity (1995), in Module 3 of this teaching material, who built a model of gender segregation in a low-income country and examined how gender segregation can negatively affect the productive capacity of the economy.

5 See Antonopolous (2009), Razavi and Staab (2008), and the website of the United Nations Office of the High Commissioner on Human Rights at: *http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Poverty/Pages/UnpaidWork.aspx*.

6 Informal jobs are those where the employment status of the person employed is not, in law or in practice, subject to national labour legislation, income taxation, social protection or entitlement to employment benefits (e.g. advance notice of dismissal, severance pay, paid annual or sick leave, etc.).

7 Horizontal segregation refers to a situation in which the workers of a specific industry or sector are mostly made up of one particular gender. For example, construction in many countries is a male occupation whereas childcare is almost exclusively a female occupation.

8 Vertical segregation refers to hierarchies between individual occupations. It means that opportunities for career progression within a company or sector for a particular gender are restricted. In the literature, vertical gender segregation is also referred to as the "glass ceiling effect", which indicates the existence of visible and/or invisible barriers that prevent women's ascent to higher-level positions.

9 The ILO definition of "contributing family workers" includes those workers who hold a self-employment job in a market-oriented establishment managed by a related person living in the same household who cannot be considered as a co-worker. This is because their degree of commitment to the operation of the establishment, in terms of working time or other factors to be determined by national circumstances, is not at a level comparable to that of the head of the establishment. See *http://laborsta.ilo.org/applv8/data/icsee.html*.

10 The ILO definition of "vulnerable employment" includes both contributing family workers and own-account workers. We prefer to focus on contributing family workers only. The category of own-account workers is rather heterogeneous and some of the jobs included in it do not carry a high economic risk. Across the world, more men than women on average are own-account workers and more women than men are contributing family workers.

11 OECD defines informal cross-border trade as "trade in legitimately produced goods and services, which escapes the regulatory framework set by the government, as such avoiding certain tax and regulatory burdens" (OECD, 2009: 9). For more details, see Glossary.

12 Unfortunately, many datasets and policies dealing with these issues continue to treat households as if they were homogeneous units made up of people with the same preferences and the same decision-making power. Treating households as single homogenous units is not only based on the assumptions of homogeneity of preferences and decisions but it avoids modelling heterogeneity within the household. Although most of the household data have disaggregated information, little research has been able to cope with difficulties arising when treating households as heterogeneous entities, such as simultaneity and time schedule of decisions. Such heterogeneity is not an easy issue to deal with and research is ongoing to find proper ways of addressing it. Nevertheless, information on allocation of resources within the household is still scattered and limited to small *ad hoc* surveys. More systematic documentation of this kind would significantly improve the ability of policymakers to design policies that take these dynamics into account. For further discussion, see IFPRI (2003), and, for more recent evidence, see e.g. UNDESA (2010) Chapter 8, Part B.

13 For more information on the gender dimension of taxes, see Barnett and Grown (2004) and Huber (2005).

14 However, if purchases from lower income groups are concentrated on goods with a lower tax rate, the higher tax incidence is not necessarily observed.

15 Casual workers are individuals who are called in to work only as and when they are needed. Their activity is therefore dependent on the level of their employers' workload and on its fluctuations. Women more than men tend to be recruited as casual workers.

16 Aggregate indices of gender equality include: the Gender-Related Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) produced yearly by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in the Human Development Report; the Gender Gap Index (GGI) introduced by the World Economic Forum (WEF) in 2006; and the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) launched in 2009 by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

17 Despite being a useful measure, the GPI is scarcely used in the literature and we will therefore not concentrate on it in this teaching material.

18 Rearranging terms, the relative gap can also be calculated as 1–GPI. Therefore, the closer the relative gap is to 0, the greater the parity between the sexes.

19 See *http://genderstats.org* for the minimum set of 52 gender indicators, and *http://www.un.org/womenwatch/directory/statistics_and_indicators_60.htm* for the directory of UN Resources on Gender and Women's Issues.

20 The unemployment rate measures the number of unemployed persons in the labour force who are officially looking for jobs as a percentage of the labour force.

21 ISCO-88 is the International Standard Classification of Occupations approved and adopted by the ILO Governing Body in 1988. It is gradually being replaced by its more updated version, the ISCO-08.

22 The best is probably to use both exports and imports. Yannikaya (2003) notes that both are important for economic performance. Standard international trade theory suggests that trade leads to a more efficient use of a country's resources not only through the production of goods that use intensively the country's abundant factors of production but also through the imports of goods and services that otherwise are too costly to produce within the country. However, a lot depends on whether one is looking at economic performance in terms of cheaper access to goods, in which case imports are important, or in terms of economic development where the evidence is more on the side of exports increasing GDP while there is little evidence about the same with respect to imports.

23 For an explanation of the concept of comparative advantage see Box 9 in Module 2.

24 For an example, see UNCTAD's database on international trade in goods and services at: *http://unctadstat.unctad.org/ReportFolders/reportFolders.aspx*.

25 For an example, see the UN classification of products grouped by technology-intensiveness at: *http://unstats.un.org/unsd/tradekb/Attachment64.aspx*.

26 Note in this respect that about half of the ACP countries have an LDC status. These countries already enjoyed duty-free and quota-free access to the EU for all their exports, with the exception of arms. There may however be further market access gains, even for LDCs, in terms of less stringent rules of origin for some products. Much depends on the pattern of trade specialization of the country concerned. See for example South Centre (2012), Naumann (2010), and UNCTAD (2011) for a review of trade facilitation provisions in selected EPAs.

27 For a comprehensive list and definition of trade terms, see Deardorff (2006).

28 The analysis draws extensively on UNCTAD (2013).

29 Kwanza is Angola's currency.

30 The term "Dutch Disease" refers to the large inflow of foreign currency due to the discovery of new natural resources or a boom in resource prices that leads to a real appreciation of the country's national currency, which in turn adversely affects the competitiveness of other export-oriented sectors, in particular manufacturing, and hampers the country's efforts to develop and diversify domestic production.

31 The Cotonou Agreement, signed between the EU and the ACP countries in 2000, is a broad trade and development treaty whose declared aim is to help reduce poverty, and contribute to sustainable development and an integration of ACP countries into the world economy.

32 The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, endorsed in 2005 by more than 100 signatories – developed and developing country governments, multilateral donor agencies, regional development banks and international agencies – adopted five central principles aimed at improving the effectiveness of aid. These principles include ownership, alignment, harmonization, managing for results, and mutual accountability. More information is available at: *http://www.oecd.org/dac/effectiveness/parisdeclarationandaccraagendaforaction.htm*

33 Defined as female employment over total employment.

34 Standard (orthodox) economics and heterodox economics are broadly two schools of economic thought that differ in their assumptions, methods and topics. Standard economics refers to neoclassical economic theory taught in most universities, which builds on the main assumptions of a utility maximizing individual with rational preferences and full information about the market. Heterodox economics is an umbrella term that is used to loosely describe non-neoclassical approaches to the field, such as Keynesian, Marxist, feminist and institutionalist schools that are generally critical of the standard approach and based on different theoretical foundations. They do not generally ascribe to the idea of perfect markets and disavow methodological individualism. These are only rough definitions however and the interested reader is advised to refer to other sources (e.g. Dequech, 2007; Lawson, 2013).

35 A full account of the main critiques to the HOSS model in general is beyond the scope of this module. Here we focus only on aspects that are particularly relevant to its application to a gender perspective.

36 See Shaikh (2007) and van Staveren *et al.* (2007) for a more in-depth overview of competitive advantage.

37 These include Hong Kong (China), Taiwan Province of China, Singapore and the Republic of Korea.

38 For twenty years (1974–1994), the MFA ruled most trade in textiles and clothing on the basis of quotas negotiated bilaterally between developed and developing countries. The MFA represented a major departure from the basic General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) rules and particularly the principle of non-discrimination. On 1 Janu-

ary 1995, the MFA was replaced by the WTO Agreement on Textiles and Clothing (ATC) that set out a transition process for the ultimate removal of these quotas. The ATC expired on 1 January 2005.

39 For more information on Better Work, see *http://www.ilo.org/washington/areas/better-work/lang--en/index.htm* and *http://betterwork.org*.

40 This section mostly draws on Berik (2011) and Fontana (2009).

41 For a discussion on the measurement of the gender wage gap, refer to Box 5 in Module 1.

42 This would be the "unexplained residual" in the decomposition of the raw gender wage gap (see Box 5 in Module 1).

43 A good account of the Heckscher-Ohlin theory of trade as well as the debate on trade and wage inequality can be found in the UNCTAD *Virtual Institute Teaching Material on Trade and Poverty* (2010), specifically in Sections 1.2.3 and 2.2.3.

44 Tiano (1994), Barrientos *et al*. (2004) and McMichael (2012) also discuss the decline in the female share of employment in Mexico, and Fleck (2001) refers to the increasing employment of older married women in *maquiladoras* in Mexico over time.

45 More recent wage data are not yet available.

46 Note that the reverse but equivalent results hold for the foreign country.

47 According to WTO rules, a country can raise its applied tariff rates up to the level of its bound tariff rates without infringing its WTO obligations.

48 For example, a country like Rwanda is not allowed to levy duties on imports originating from other members of the East African Community (EAC), and applies the EAC common external tariff on imports from outside EAC.

49 For developing countries, 10 per cent of the value of total agricultural production (for non-product specific support) and 10 per cent of the total value of production of the agricultural product in question (for product-specific support).

50 If they are not directly involved in export production, women often increase the amount of time they contribute to their husbands' commercial crops, leading to higher female unpaid work burdens. In spite of their significant contribution in this regard, women often have no control over the income generated from their work, as studies on NTAEs in India, Kenya, Senegal and Guatemala show (Singh, 2002, for the Indian Punjab; Dolan, 2001, for Kenya; Maertens and Swinnen, 2009, for Senegal; Katz, 1995, for Guatemala).

51 It is important to note though that once enterprise characteristics such as size, formality and capital investment are controlled for, the gender productivity differential between male- and female-owned enterprises disappears (Kabeer, 2012).

52 According to the World Bank, "Trade taxes include import duties, export duties, profits of export or import monopolies, exchange profits, and exchange taxes." See *http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/GC.TAX.INTT.RV.ZS*.

53 The authors explain their choice of capturing infrastructure by the percentage of the population with access to improved sanitation facilities and telephone lines per 100 people in the following way: Improved sanitation is expected to have a positive effect on the gap between female and male employment through, for example, improved overall health outcomes and reduced time spent by women as care-givers. The effect of telephone lines on relative access to employment is indirect and this variable serves as a proxy for other direct measures of time-saving infrastructure improvements for which data are sparser.

54 See Module 2 for an explanation of the concept of competitive advantage.

55 See Module 1 for an explanation and definition.

56 See *http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Gender_pay_gap_statistics* for data on the European Union, for instance.

57 We use the category "flexible" labour in the sense that Standing (1989) does. Flexible labour implies short-term contractual, temporary, casual and/or informal labour, generally with no benefits as opposed to permanent and formal labour.

58 Economies of scale refer to the decrease in costs per unit of output that a firm experiences because its fixed costs can be spread over more units of output.

59 Imports of raw commodities would not have the same technological spillover effects.

60 However, not everyone agrees with this view and the debate on the link between trade liberalization and economic growth is still open. See Winters *et al.* (2004) for a survey of the literature on this topic.

61 See *http://www.ilo.org/gender/Aboutus/ILOandGenderEquality/lang--en/index.htm* for the ILO's mandate on gender inequality.

62 Group of countries that underwent rapid industrial growth between the 1970s and 1980s, such as the Republic of Korea, Singapore, Hong Kong (China) and Taiwan Province of China.

63 See *http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/---ilo-islamabad/documents/policy/wcms_143046.pdf* for a list of the core ILO conventions.

64 See *http://www.capturingthegains.org/about/index.htm* for an overview of the research programme on economic and social upgrading in GVCs.

65 However, consumers' awareness does not always translate into better working conditions for vulnerable workers. See for example Basu's (1998) paper on child labour.

66 This section draws on Berik (2000).

67 Note that men's share of own-account work is higher than women's, but more women than men work as unpaid family labour, which increases the women's share of vulnerable employment globally (ILO, 2012).

68 Refer to Section 3.1 in Module 1. For a full report on the underlying causes of gender inequality by region see OECD (2012).

69 We also need to keep in mind that in general, girls have a higher school dropout rate than boys and that the education they receive is often of lower quality and lacking in adequate learning resources, infrastructure and facilities (UNESCO, 2012; UNICEF, 2000). Overall, the lack of adequate education and schooling may diminish opportunities for women.

70 The issue of women's time poverty was discussed in Module 1.

71 In this case, the bias against women is indirect. Extension services typically target export-oriented cash crops that tend to be male-dominated. Furthermore, in their design and implementation, extension services often do not acknowledge the gender-specific obstacles that women may face (such as limited access to radios and mobile phones, time constraints, mobility constraints, etc.).

72 The following section draws on UNCTAD-EIF (2014).

73 The following section draws on UNCTAD (2014b).

74 Poverty rate refers here to the national poverty line of 64,000 Rwandan francs per adult equivalent per year, in January 2001 prices (National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda, 2012).

75 Data from the World Bank World Development Indicators, available at: *http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators.* The headcount ratio measures the percentage of the population living on less than $1.25 per day at 2005 international prices.

76 Foreign income is a trade-weighted average of inflation-adjusted gross national product (GNP) data for the United States, the United Kingdom, Japan and Germany.

77 Introduced by Robert Solow in 1957, growth accounting measures the contribution of each economic factor to economic growth and defines the "residual" as the productivity differences achieved due to technological progress. After the pioneering work of Solow, many economists have worked on enhancing Solow's model with further economic variables that can explain economic growth, such as human capital (education), government expenditure, etc.

78 The SIEO index was calculated as the sum of the share of exports in GDP, the ratio of machinery and transport goods to non-oil primary commodities in exports, and the share of manufacturing in GDP. The first term is an indicator of export orientation while the second and third terms indicate the status of a country as a semi-industrialized one. Countries with SIEO values above 1 are classified as semi-industrialized. For example, according to Seguino's calculations, between 1980 and 1993, Paraguay had a SIEO index of just below 2, while Taiwan Province of China and Singapore had a SIEO index of around 10.

79 One measure is a basic wage gap variable, namely the difference of the logarithm of male and female wages. A second measure refines the basic wage gap index and is calculated as the difference between the logarithm of the ratio of wages to years of secondary education for males and females of 15 years of age and above. The third measure is the interaction of the refined wage gap measure with average educational attainment in the economy. In this case, the wage gap should also capture the effect of skills required to adopt new technologies.

80 These include the percentage of females and males of 15 years of age and above who have completed secondary education and the growth rate of secondary school attainment by sex.

81 Revealed comparative advantage is an index that calculates the relative advantage or disadvantage a country has in a particular category of goods and/or services by comparing it with world exports or imports of the same category. Busse and Spielmann (2006) calculate it as the ratio of exports of labour-intensive products to imports of labour-intensive products over the ratio of total exports to total imports.

82 See Module 1 for a definition of SAPs.

83 Although export prices decrease and the country becomes more competitive in foreign markets, a currency devaluation can increase domestic prices by increasing the price of imports and aggregate demand for the domestic good.