

IN-DEPTH ANALYSIS

# The EU's Trade Policy: from gender-blind to gender-sensitive?

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## ABSTRACT

The services of the European Commission are currently reflecting on the follow-up to the Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015 (COM (2010) final). The EU's trade policy has not yet been fully integrated into this Strategy, providing an opportunity for the INTA committee to consider whether and how gender issues should be dealt with in the context of the EU's trade policies. [Article 8 TFEU](#) provides that "in all its activities, the Union shall aim to eliminate inequalities, and to promote equality between men and women." The trade policy issues that are discussed by the European Parliament's INTA committee can have differing gender impacts across the various sectors of the economy. Understanding the gender dimension of trade agreements better will therefore contribute to better policy making and to ensuring that both sexes can take advantage of the benefits of trade liberalisation and be protected from its negative effects.

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## 1 Introduction

The European Commission services are currently reflecting on the follow-up to the Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015 (COM (2010) 491 final). The current strategy barely integrates gender equality into trade policy, thus providing an opportunity for the INTA committee to consider whether and how gender issues should be dealt with in the context of the EU's trade policies.

This paper begins with a short overview of the current understanding of the gender and trade policies nexus, describes how gender aspects are treated by the World Trade Organisation (WTO), then assesses how the Commission handles gender in regard to trade policy and concludes with some possible policy options.

## 2 Gender equality and trade

The study of the gender and trade policies nexus is still in its infancy.

The relationship between gender and trade policies is complex, and although the literature is growing, the study of gender's impact on trade is still in its infancy. Furthermore, although the quality of the available research is improving, it is still limited by the lack of gender-segregated statistics across all the relevant issue areas.

The study of the gender and trade nexus is made more difficult by the widespread assumption that trade is gender-neutral. Mainstream economic theory argues that men and women benefit equally from trade liberalisation, which further reduces poverty by bringing more women into the work force (Maclaren, 2012). The way trade practitioners see the effects of trade is also connected to the philosophy and core-principles of the World Trade Organization: 'without discrimination'. This means that a country should not discriminate between its trading partners (giving them 'most favoured' status) and it should not discriminate between its own and foreign products, services or nationals (giving them 'national treatment').

Notwithstanding, it may be said that there is wide agreement in current research that trade liberalisation can affect countries and groupings of countries in a different manner, as well as that the effects of trade opening can vary depending on economic activity and sector. Trade liberalisation may result in the expansion of some sectors but contract or eliminate others altogether (Gibb, 2003). The impacts on individuals depend largely on their geographical location and the sector of their economic activities.<sup>1</sup>

Since men and women tend to work in different sectors, the latter of these is closely linked with gender impacts. A recent European Commission-commissioned study on occupational segregation in European labour

<sup>1</sup> Centre for International Development at Harvard University, [Gender Issues and International trade](#) (no date)

Women and men are often differently affected by trade liberalisation, owing to different social rules applying to men and women, women's overall lower skill levels and gender inequalities in access to resources.

markets estimates that only 18% of women work in mixed occupations (60-40% men and women), while 69% work in female-dominated occupations (more than 60% female) and only 13% in male-dominated occupations (more than 60% male). In contrast, 15% of male employees work in mixed occupations and 59% in male-dominated occupations.<sup>2</sup>

There is a growing body of research telling us that while trade opening can reduce poverty by creating jobs for women, women and men are often differently affected by trade agreements and policies (Gibb 2010, Maclaren 2012).<sup>3</sup> Nicita and Zarrilli have pointed out in a study prepared for UNCTAD, that "globalization and trade liberalization bring complex and often contradictory effects on women's access to employment, livelihood and income. In some cases, they generate employment and entrepreneurial opportunities for women; in others, they create burdens by disrupting markets in which women operate". This is mainly caused by limitations brought about by different social rules applying to men and women, women's lower skill levels, gender inequalities in access to economic and social resources and structural barriers to the employment of women - particularly the lack of (affordable) childcare and elderly-care facilities. These are the factors that affect women worldwide (Korinek, 2005).

Women in the developing world tend to be disproportionately disadvantaged.<sup>4</sup> Not only are the barriers to accessing productive resources disproportionately high for these women but they also tend to be concentrated in specific economic sectors, such as the clothing and textile industry, the informal sector, subsistence agriculture, and low-skill services (Clones, 2003, Gibb, 2003, Korinek, 2005).<sup>5</sup>

Worldwide, women and men do not participate equally in decision-making. They have different access to ownership and control of economic resources, assets and markets. For example, although many women work in agriculture in developing countries<sup>6</sup>, they usually have little control over the resources and have less access to farm inputs, credit and possibilities to sell their produce, in addition to lower education levels.<sup>7</sup> Women-owned small and medium-sized enterprises face specific barriers regarding access to financing, markets, trade fairs and training (Gibbs, 2003)<sup>8</sup>. Men and

<sup>2</sup> Burchell, B., Hardy, V., Rubery, J., Smith, M. "[A New Method to Understand Occupational Gender Segregation in European Labour Markets](#)" (2014)

<sup>3</sup> See Maclaren, B., [Free Trade Agreements in Peru and Colombia: Monitoring Future Impacts from a Gender Perspective](#) (2012)

<sup>4</sup> Centre for International Development at Harvard University

<sup>5</sup> Clones, P. J., "[Gender and International Trade in the Context of Pro-Poor Growth: Concept paper](#)" (2003)

<sup>6</sup> According to FAO (1999) women's share in formally documented agricultural work is 44% in developing countries and ca 47% in developed countries. In Asia, they make up between 60-98% (UNCTAD, 2004). When unpaid work is considered, numbers may be even higher (via Gibbs, 2003 and Korinek, 2005)

<sup>7</sup> According to a 2003 FAO report only 2% of land is owned by women worldwide (cited via Korinek, 2005).

<sup>8</sup> Some measures have been put in place to remedy the obstacles in access to finance. According to 2007 Microcredit Summit Report, women are the main takers of micro-finance credits. Over 3,300 microfinance institutions reached 133 million clients with a microloan in

In many developing countries we see an increase in participation by women in the traditional, non-tradable, low-productivity services.

women work in different professions, even in the high-income OECD countries. In these countries, women are over-represented in service occupations, clerical jobs, sales and professional and technical jobs. Men, at the same time, tend to be concentrated in higher-paid administrative and managerial jobs (World Bank 2001 data via Korinek, 2005).

According to a resource paper compiled by the UN Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality (IANWGE), the services sector has become the first employer of women globally, taking over from the agricultural sector. In 2008, the services sector employed 46.9% of the female workforce, as compared to 40.4% of male participation. The paper further points out that in many developing countries we see an increase in the participation by women in the traditional, non-tradable, low-productivity services (small retail trade, restaurants, and personal services). These account for the increasing share in GDP and in total employment.

The IANWGE paper also outlines the following concerns and questions that have been raised in relation to the effects of liberalisation of services on women: (i) possible impacts on access to essential services for the most vulnerable groups, among them women; (ii) the potential effects of liberalisation on national non-economic policy objectives in such sensitive areas as education, health and culture; (iii) the short-term adjustment costs (such as unemployment in uncompetitive sectors) and the availability of the means to address these costs. Temporary labour mobility in services (GATS Mode 4) is another issue raised by the paper. The paper argues that although such mobility has huge potential for women, until now it has been reserved for highly qualified professionals and senior business categories, where female service providers are scarcely represented.<sup>9</sup>

Trade liberalisation is generally believed to increase women's share in paid employment.

As mentioned above, trade liberalisation is generally believed to increase women's share in paid employment. For some women, this has brought higher incomes, replaced unpaid work at home or paid employment in the informal economy, given more economic independence and raised social status (Korinek, 2005). For example, the Free Trade Agreements signed by Mexico with North America and the EU created three times as many jobs (797,000 net) for women than men.<sup>10</sup> In Lesotho, trade expansion brought about an increase in export-intensive sectors, particularly clothing, over a period of 30 years, and this development has been accompanied by a significant increase in paid employment for women in the formal sector.<sup>11</sup>

In some other cases, the impacts have been less positive. A 2007

2006. 93 million of the clients were among the poorest when they took their first loan.85 percent of these poorest clients were women. However, this type of credit is unlikely to address the constraints to credit faced by women.

<sup>9</sup> UN Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality, [Labour Mobility and Gender Equality: Migration and Trade in Services, Gender Equality and Trade Policy](#) (2011)

<sup>10</sup> Deschamps, J. and Hernandez, R., Mexico: el contenido del trabajo de las importaciones y exportaciones. Latin American Chapter, International Gender and Trade Network (2007)

<sup>11</sup> UNCTAD, [Who is benefiting from Trade Liberalisation in Lesotho: A Gender Perspective](#) (2012)

Trade opening has brought some women higher incomes, replaced unpaid work at home or paid work in the informal economy, thereby empowering them.

Increased participation in the labour market does not automatically improve women's social rights and access to decision-making.

Trade liberalisation can contribute to the closing of the gender wage gap but may also bring about no noticeable difference.

In many non-EU countries, the competitiveness of the export industries depends on women's low wages.

International Gender and Trade Network (IGTN) Latin America Chapter research project, which involved Argentina, Brazil, Columbia, Chile, Mexico and Uruguay, concluded that "the expansion of international trade activities has not incorporated female employment in any significant way, nor had it helped to break sex segregation or taken advantage of the qualifications of female labour supply". The study pointed out further that the measures that had been taken to support women in caring for their families had been insufficient and had left them effectively with a double burden.<sup>12</sup>

Some analysts have further argued that increased participation in the labour market does not automatically bring about an improvement either in women's access to decision-making or in their social rights, as women usually still continue to face discrimination in the workplace (Korinek, 2005).

The job creation effect seems to be sector-specific. Studies have, for example, shown that in the case of agriculture, trade liberalisation creates export jobs and that these tend to go to men, while women tend to stay in subsistence agriculture.<sup>13</sup> Korinek (2005) finds, for example, that trade creates jobs for women in middle-income countries.

Coming to the issue of the gender earnings gap, the evidence of trade liberalisation on the impact on the wage gap is mixed. In some countries the gap seems to be closing as a result of trade liberalisation, as increased labour market participation may also lead to better education and training for women, and consequently higher earnings. In others, trade opening seems to have brought about no noticeable difference. In a nutshell, it is still unclear if trade liberalisation leads to higher incomes and empowerment for women everywhere.

In many non-EU countries the competitiveness of the export industries (e.g. clothing and textiles) depends on women's low wages. Some authors have pointed out that the export-led strategy adopted by most Southeast Asian countries in the mid-1980s was actually built on gender differences, as the wage inequality helped to stimulate economic growth.<sup>14</sup> The 2014 ILO report on wages and working hours in the textiles, leather and footwear sectors argues that the lack of effective collective bargaining and equal pay

<sup>12</sup> Azar, P., Espina A., Salvador, S., Los vinculos entre comercio, genero y equidad. Un analisis para seis paises de America Latina. Montevideo: Latin America Chapter, IGTN via Equiluz Zamora, A, Vasquez, M.I., Espino, A (2012) Trade and Gender: advances in the process of gender mainstreaming in Trade Operations, Technical Note, No IDB-TN-464, Intra-American Development Bank. (2007).

<sup>13</sup> Korinek, 2005.

<sup>14</sup> Chandra, A.C, Lontoh, L.A, Margawati, [Beyond Barriers: the gender implications of Trade Liberalization in South East Asia](#), International Institute for Sustainable Development (2010)

Trade liberalisation cannot be expected to eliminate the gender wage gap.

The recent economic crisis has negatively affected all workers in export industries, but particularly women in the textile and agriculture sectors.

Trade liberalisation and the development have generated positive impacts for women worldwide.

Positive effects of trade

for equal work can make women vulnerable to exploitation in the workplace.<sup>15</sup> Indeed, according to some studies, the wage gap can even increase as a result of trade liberalisation (Gibb, 2005).

Other factors beyond trade opening will play an important role in closing the wage gap, is the general the consensus. Korinek (2005) for example points out on the matter: "it seems unlikely that the competitive forces from trade liberalisation alone will eliminate the wage gap between women and men". Her argument is based on the fact that the wage inequality persists even in the OECD countries, where women have generally attained the same level of skills and education as men or even surpassed it.

The recent global economic crisis has affected worldwide trade and the sectors involved in trade. The UN Women Watch's Resource Paper on Gender Equality and Trade Policy argues that the decline in international trade as a result of the crisis has had negative repercussions for all workers in export-oriented industries, but particularly for women working in the textile and agriculture sectors. The paper argues that women are often hit first by dismissals, because of their higher share in part-time, low-skilled and temporary jobs. It also points out that they also tend to have fewer reserves to protect themselves from income loss, because of their lower wages. According to the paper, the women working in the informal economy have been negatively affected by the crisis too, since unemployed men have moved into this female-dominated sector. Finally, the paper argues that women have also been disproportionately affected by public budget cuts, as the cuts in public services (social services, health) have increased expenses for households and resulted in an additional burden for women, as the main caregivers.

Trade liberalisation and the development that follows from the trade opening have generated undoubtedly positive impacts for women worldwide. There is some research that shows that trade opening may bring an increase in paid employment, pay increases and a reduction of the pay gap between women and men. However, trade liberalisation has not done away with persisting gender bias that manifests itself in the form of job segregation and wage inequalities. Trade opening and the new trade policies generate changes in employment trends and patterns of prices, incomes and consumption, which affect women and men differently. Many studies show that women face constraints that prevent them from benefiting from trade fully. These constraints are multiple and include: a) women's asymmetric responsibilities, b) their reproductive and motherhood roles; c) gendered social norms; d) labour market segregation; e) lower skills and lack of training for better jobs; f) lack of public services to assist women in their household tasks; g) restricted access to information, h) consumption patterns and i) poverty. These characteristics overlap and

<sup>15</sup> ILO, paper for discussion at the Global Dialogue Forum, 23–25 September 2014, [Wages and working hours in the textiles, clothing, leather and footwear industries](#) (2014)

liberalisation depend largely on public policies to support their exploitation.

enforce each other (Chandra et al., 2010, Equiluz et al. 2012). Positive effects of trade, thus, will depend largely on the implementation or reinforcement of public policies that support the exploitation of these positive effects and help to deal with negative impacts, e.g. employment policies or assistance with establishing businesses (Equiluz et al, 2012).

Recognising and better understanding gender-specific impacts of trade liberalisation is crucial in devising policy responses, in order to ensure that both sexes can benefit equally from economic recovery and be protected from negative dynamics.<sup>16</sup> That said, there is still a lack of practical case studies on key issues and strategies in the academic literature as to how exactly these public policies should be designed.<sup>17</sup>

### 3 Gender equality on the WTO agenda

Gender equality is one of the UN Millennium Development Goals.

Gender equality is one of the UN Millennium Development Goals and gender mainstreaming has become an official policy in many international organisations, as well as many developed countries.

However, although the UN members agreed at the Fourth UN World Conference on Women in Beijing that they would "ensure that national policies related to international and regional trade agreements do not have an adverse impact on women's new and traditional economic activities" and "establish mechanisms and other forums to enable women entrepreneurs and women workers to contribute to the formulation of policies and programmes being developed by economic ministries and financial institutions" (strategic objective F.1, and 165 (k)) - there is little proof that real progress has been made in this area.

There is no consensus among WTO members on whether gender equality should be on its agenda.

In particular, there is as of yet no consensus among the World Trade Organisation (WTO) members whether gender equality should be explicitly on its agenda.

Many members argue that the WTO should deal exclusively with those trade and trade-related issues that impact on a level playing field for trade and/or imply trade distortions, and not with social ones. Most importantly, and very much connected to gender-specific concerns, labour standards is one of the social issues, which is not addressed by WTO agreements and on which no work is carried out in WTO Councils and Committees, despite long-standing discussions as to whether this should be the case.

Some voices, mostly in the NGO community, argue that WTO rules should be gender-sensitive.

There are some voices, mostly in the NGO community, who argue that WTO rules should be gender-sensitive. They say that the WTO is not only the result of trade liberalisation but also its motor, and that since trade liberalisation contributes to economic growth and through this to the

<sup>16</sup> UN Women Watch resource paper on gender equality and trade policy, [The Global Economic Crisis and its Impact on Trade and Gender Equality](#) (2011)

<sup>17</sup> Carr, M, Williams M eds (2010) *Trading Stories. Experiences with Gender and Trade*. London: The Commonwealth Secretariat via Equiluz et al-(2012).

reduction of poverty, and women make up 70% of the world's poor - trade could make an important contribution to women's lives.<sup>18</sup> The International Gender and Trade Network provides one of the most powerful voices analysing the trade and gender nexus and calling for the inclusion of gender issues in the WTO agenda. There are activists who go as far as to argue that there is substantial proof of harmful effects of several WTO agreements on women (e.g. the General Agreement on Trade in Services, the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights, the Agreement on Agriculture).<sup>19</sup> In their view, although the common rules are devised as non-discriminatory and thus gender-neutral - they are actually gender-blind. The feminist critique has found the following three reasons for this gender-blindness: a narrow understanding of the economy, which does not include the care economy and ignores the relationship between production and reproduction; ignorance about existing gender inequalities; and indifference to poor people's wellbeing and basic life-oriented needs (food, water, health), which are still women's domains.<sup>20</sup>

The main discussions on how and whether to include gender concerns in international trade policy seem to have taken place in the run-up to the 5th Cancun Ministerial in 2003 and its margins. Gender issues still occasionally pop up from time to time, mostly - but not only - on conferences and symposiums. The 24-25 TRIPS Council, for example discussed the benefits of gender equality for innovation and entrepreneurship.

Although the inclusion of gender equality on the agenda of the WTO remains disputed, the expert community has put forward some concrete proposals as to how a gender-sensitive approach could be integrated in the WTO agenda. The North-South Institute suggested in 2003 that the WTO could contribute to ensuring policy coherence in international efforts to promote gender equality in the following three ways:

- a) Concern for policy coherence needs to be reflected both in the preparation of the new rules and agreements and in the implementation of the existing agreements. For example, WTO agreements could be reviewed so as to ensure that they do not prohibit the use of economic policy instruments, which could help to reach gender equality goals;
- b) Gender-related measures could be adopted in the WTO's trade-related capacity-building programmes;
- c) It could be ensured that the WTO Secretariat has the technical capacity to undertake gender analysis of trade rules, including developing a framework

The expert community has put forward concrete suggestions on as to how a gender-sensitive approach could be incorporated in the WTO agenda.

<sup>18</sup> See for example the North-South Institute note for the "[Gender Equality, Trade and Development Panel Discussion](#)", 5th WTO Ministerial Conference, 11 September 2003

<sup>19</sup> See "[Women's rights, the World Trade Organization and International Trade Policy](#)", Women's Rights and Economic Change, No 4, August 2002 by Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID)

<sup>20</sup> See for example Young, B. and Hoppe, H. Friedrich Ebert Stiftung. Discussion of "[The DOHA development round, gender and social reproduction](#)" (2003)

for gender impact assessments into all phases (negotiation, implementation, evaluation).<sup>21</sup>

## 4 Gender equality in the EU Trade Policy

Promoting equality and non-discrimination are core values of the EU.

The EU's internal strategy for promoting gender equality is in a league of its own.

The European Parliament formulated its view on the post-2015 follow-up of the European Strategy for Equality between Women and Men in a resolution adopted on 9 June 2015.

### *Gender equality in EU policies*

Promoting equality between women and men is one of the underlying values of the EU, enshrined in its Treaties, and the EU must strive for equality in all its activities.<sup>22</sup> Sex discrimination is also expressly prohibited by the Charter of Fundamental rights.<sup>23</sup>

The EU Member States have ratified the eight ILO Fundamental Conventions that, together, correspond to core labour standards. These include Conventions 100 and 111 that take tackle equal remuneration and non-discrimination.<sup>24</sup>

It is hence not surprising that the EU's internal strategy for promoting gender equality is in a league of its own among other multilateral organisations, many of whom have their own gender equality strategies in place and/or promote gender equality (World Bank, EBRD, UNCTAD, OECD).

Mainstreaming gender equality in EU policies is guided by the Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010-2015 (COM (2010) 491 final).<sup>25</sup> This document constitutes the work programme of the European Commission for promoting gender equality in all its policy areas. It also aims to stimulate developments at national level and to provide the basis for cooperation with other EU institutions and relevant stakeholders. The strategy defines five priority areas - equal economic independence, equal pay for equal work and work of equal value, equality in decision-making, dignity, integrity and an end to gender-based violence, gender equality in external action - and horizontal issues.

The mid-term review of the Strategy was carried out in 2013. In addition, the Commission reports annually on progress achieved in the priority areas of the Strategy. The Strategy comes to an end in 2015 and the Commission is currently reflecting about its priorities after 2015. DG Justice has been the lead DG in implementing the work programme and coordinates the Commission's inter-service group on equality between women and men, and is thus also the coordinator of the review process. The European Parliament has already formulated its opinion on the matter in a resolution

<sup>21</sup> North-South Institute note for the "[Gender Equality, Trade and Development Panel Discussion](#)", 5th WTO Ministerial Conference, 11 September 2003

<sup>22</sup> Articles 2 and 3 of the Treaty on European Union, Article 8 Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union

<sup>23</sup> Articles 21 and 23

<sup>24</sup> For compliance information refer to "[Application of International Labour Standards 2015](#)", Report of the Committee on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations, International Labour Conference, 104th session, 2015

<sup>25</sup> European Commission, [Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015](#), pp 8-9 (2010)

adopted on 9 June 2015. The European Parliament's Committee on International Trade (INTA Committee) was not among the Committees to draw up an opinion on the relevant FEMM report that led to the adoption of the plenary resolution.<sup>26</sup>

In parallel, DG DEVCO is leading the work on the renewed European Union Gender Action Plan for 2016-2020 (GAPII), an integral part of the above-mentioned strategy and the main instrument for promoting gender equality and women's empowerment in the EU's development policies. The GAP II seems to include promoting inclusive growth as one of its three overarching priorities, and trade policy is believed to be incorporated in the planning document under this objective.

#### *Gender equality in EU trade policy*

Article 207 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union stipulates that the "the common commercial policy shall be conducted in the context of the principles and objectives of the Union's external action", creating a strong link between the EU's external policies and the trade policy, and the principles guiding the EU's external action. These include "democracy, the rule of law, the universality and indivisibility of human rights and fundamental freedoms, respect for human dignity, the principles of equality and solidarity, and respect for the principles of the United Nations Charter and international law" (Art 21 of the Treaty on European Union). The European Parliament's Committee on Development further, has repeatedly argued that the EU's trade policy should comply with article 208 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, which establishes the principle of policy coherence for development by stipulating that "the Union shall take account of the objectives of development cooperation in the policies that it implements which are likely to affect developing countries."<sup>27</sup>

It follows logically, then, that the EU's trade policy falls also under priority 5 of the Strategy - gender equality in external action. The Strategy stipulates that the EU will integrate "gender equality into its trade policy as part of a wider framework of sustainable development", and "encourages the effective application of the ILO's core labour standards and its Decent Work Agenda, including in relation to non-discrimination, in its preferential trade agreements".

The Strategy does not, however, include gender mainstreaming in trade policy among its key actions (outlined in the Annex of the Strategy). Indeed, it is worth noting that DG Trade is one of the few DGs that did not commit to carrying out specific actions to mainstream gender into policy and thus

The Strategy stipulates that the EU will integrate "gender equality into its trade policy as part of a wider framework of sustainable development".

Trade policy does not feature among the key actions defined by the Strategy...

<sup>26</sup> European Parliament resolution of 9 June 2015 on the EU Strategy for equality between women and men post 2015 (2014/2152(INI))

<sup>27</sup> For a recent example see the [Committee's opinion to the INTA Committee on the TTIP negotiations](#).

...and DG Trade is one of the few DGs not tasked with any specific actions.

Although commitment to gender goals and awareness about these objectives is limited in DG Trade, gender issues are increasingly dealt with by the services.

Gender equality is dealt with through human rights and labour market provisions.

EU trade agreements include human rights clauses and since 2008 a new form of conditionality in the form of sustainable development chapters.

the evaluation of such actions doesn't appear in the [2013 mid-term review](#) either.<sup>28</sup>

It should not be surprising either, therefore, that gender mainstreaming has not been a high-priority matter for DG Trade. There is a limited awareness among the services of the commitment to implementing gender mainstreaming as an integral part of the Commission's policymaking. Brussels-based diplomats and officials working on trade issues have, inter alia, also pointed out that trade policies are per se gender-neutral, pointed to a lack of political commitment to the issue at the highest political level or deemed the trade policy area too difficult to analyse from the gender perspective for lack of data. In some cases, these members of the practitioner community have questioned whether these aspects belong to EU competence at all and suggested they be dealt at the level of the Member States, who implement trade policy in practice (subsidiarity). All in all, the lack of full understanding of and commitment to gender equality goals seems to be evident at all administrative levels. This does not mean, however, that DG Trade does not deal increasingly with gender equality matters.

In practice, gender equality may be considered from two points of view: the normative content of the agreements and trade policy-relevant regulations, and an evaluation of the impact of these agreements and legislative instruments.

#### *Normative context*

In the normative context, the issue of gender is not dealt with per se by DG Trade but through human rights and labour market provisions.

Human rights clauses have been included in the EU's international trade and cooperation agreements since the 1990s, permitting one of the parties to the agreement unilaterally to suspend its obligations (or to take "appropriate measures") in the event of human rights violations. In the specific case of trade agreements, Bartels (2014) points out that the EU's preference has been since 2009 to link these to a human rights clause in a framework cooperation agreement, while mentioning that the EU-Peru/Colombia trade agreement contains - exceptionally - an independent human rights clause.<sup>29</sup>

In addition to the human rights clauses, the EU trade agreements have since 2008 included sustainable development chapters, which have introduced a new kind of conditionality. Modelled on similar provisions in US and Canadian FTAs, these chapters contain provisions that require parties to comply with core labour and environmental standards. Bartels (2014) argues that "because core labour standards are also basic human

<sup>28</sup> European Commission, Commission staff working document, [Mid-term review of the Strategy for equality between women and men 2015](#) (2013)

<sup>29</sup> Bartels, L, The European Parliament's Role in Relation to Human Rights in Trade and Investment Agreements, DROI/INTA, Policy Department, DG for External Policies (2014)

The European Parliament has called for clauses and benchmarks relating to the protection of human rights.

The GSP+ scheme offers additional trade incentives to developing countries in exchange for commitments to implement core international convention on human and labour rights, sustainable development and good governance.

SIAs are the main tools used to address the issue of

rights, there is an overlap between these obligations and human rights clauses, but, at least formally, this does not undermine the effectiveness of either of these sets of provisions". Bartels also points out that the European Parliament has called for clauses and benchmarks relating to the protection of human rights, an issue that he deems worthy of serious consideration albeit not by including them in the text of the trade agreement but possibly in a separate document. In his view, a failure to meet the benchmarks could trigger the application of relevant measures under the agreement.<sup>30</sup>

Another trade-related tool relevant in this context is the EU's Generalised Scheme of Preferences (GSP), which provides preferential access to the EU's market for developing countries and also includes human rights provisions. GSP+ offers additional trade incentives to the most vulnerable developing countries in the GSP programme in exchange for the implementation of core international conventions on human and labour rights, sustainable development and good governance.<sup>31</sup> The list of conventions to qualify for GSP+ includes the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and ILO conventions 100 and 111.<sup>32</sup> The GSP+ regulation provides for thorough monitoring of whether the beneficiaries abide by their obligations. The European Commission prepares a "scorecard" for each country.<sup>33</sup> These highlight the shortcomings of these countries, and provide the benchmarks for evaluating compliance with the obligations. The Member States and the European Parliament's INTA committee are regularly updated about the status of the scorecards and the Commission's discussions with the GSP+ countries via the Commission Expert Group on the Generalised Scheme of Preferences. This expert group is composed of Member State trade and GSP experts, and meets at the Commission premises 4 to 6 times a year. The European Parliament's INTA committee secretariat is invited to attend the meetings. The expert group provides opinions or recommendations to the Commission. Every two years, the Commission prepares a status report on the ratification of conventions and compliance. The first such report will be submitted on 1 January 2016.<sup>34</sup>

#### *Impact Assessment and Sustainability Impact Assessment*

A distinction must be made between two different evaluation instruments - the Impact Assessment (IA, Commission-wide tool) and the Trade Sustainability Impact Assessment (SIA, trade-specific tool). DG Trade applies them both in assessing the impacts of a given trade initiative - and both look at social and human rights, through differing depth.

The SIAs are the main tools used to address the issue of gender equality in

<sup>30</sup>Idem, pp 12-15

<sup>31</sup> For more information, see Practical Guide to the new GSP trade regimes for developing countries, European Commission, December 2013

<sup>32</sup> The Annex VIII of the GSP+ regulations cites 27 core international conventions.

<sup>33</sup> Currently Armenia, Bolivia, Cape Verde, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Georgia, Guatemala, Mongolia, Pakistan, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines.

<sup>34</sup> European Commission, fact sheet, EU's GSP+ scheme, (December 2014)

gender equality in trade negotiations.

The 2006 SIA Handbook is vague as to how gender impacts should be evaluated.

The Impact Assessment Guidelines, on the other hand, identify a number of concrete questions that should be addressed in an evaluation.

The new impact guidelines within the Better Regulation "Toolbox" seem to be a further improvement.

trade negotiations, and are singled out as such in the 2010-2015 Gender Equality Strategy. The Commission has been undertaking SIAs since 1999. These are independent evaluations, which are carried out during trade negotiations by external consultants with a view to studying the potential economic, social and environmental impacts of trade liberalisation.

The SIAs assess the implementation of ILO core labour standards and the promotion of the Decent Work Agenda in the partner countries.<sup>35</sup> Impacts on employment in specific sectors, compliance with labour standards and human rights issues in line of the EU Charter of Human Rights and UN Conventions also form part of the social analysis. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) is the only convention that covers gender issues specifically.<sup>36</sup>

According to the SIA Handbook that has guided the evaluation process since 2006, 'gender equality' is dealt with as a part of the social chapter. The provisions are rather vague as to how gender issues should be dealt with, especially when compared to the relevant rules that have been applying to the impact assessments that are carried out by the Commission in other policy areas. DG Trade officials have, however, argued that the 2006 Handbook is not a solid source for assessing the evaluation process any more since it has not in reality guided it for some time. So, and in the context of the Commission's overall exercise of better regulation, the document is currently undergoing a revision, and new elements would include reinforced stakeholder consultation and in-depth analysis of human rights (more about the latter below).

The Impact Assessment Guidelines guided the impact assessment exercise until this year. Since May 2015, the new impact assessment guidelines are set out within the Commission's Better Regulation "Toolbox". The old IA guidelines already included concrete questions to be addressed in relation to gender equality concerns (unlike the 2006 SIA Handbook) but the new guidelines seem to be a further improvement on the previous ones, since the legislation will need to be assessed not only as to whether it has a differential gender impact but also as to how.

The new guidelines include gender equality considerations with equal treatment and opportunities, non-discrimination, and rights of people with disabilities in the "Fundamental Rights" toolbox. They identify a number of concrete questions that should be considered when carrying out an impact assessment, including:

- Does the option safeguard the principle of equality before the law

<sup>35</sup> ILO Fundamental Conventions that correspond to core labour standard cover the following issues: Forced Labour (Convention 29); Freedom of Association (Convention 87); Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining (Convention 98); Equal Remuneration (Convention 100); Abolition of Forced Labour (Convention 105); Non-discrimination (Convention 111); Minimum Age (Convention 138); Worst Forms of Child Labour (Convention 182)

<sup>36</sup> See [Handbook for Trade Sustainability Assessment](#) (2006)

and would it affect directly or indirectly the principle of non-discrimination, equal treatment, gender equality and equal opportunities for all?

- Does the option have (directly or indirectly) a different impact on women and men?
- How does the option promote equality between women and men?
- How does the option entail any different treatment of groups or individuals directly on grounds of sex, racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age, and sexual orientation? Or could it lead to indirect discrimination?
- Does the option ensure respect for the rights of people with disabilities in conformity with the UN Convention on the rights of persons with disabilities? How? <sup>37</sup>

Another potentially relevant toolbox is the one on "Employment, working conditions, income distribution and inequality", which addresses in point 2 potentially significant impacts on employment, working conditions, income distribution and inequalities.<sup>38</sup>

In principle, all trade-related legislation like all other Commission initiatives deemed likely to have significant economic, environmental or social impacts has since 2011 been subject to an analysis of the impact on human rights and its impact on gender equality. It is also subject to scrutiny by a central quality control body (previously Impact Assessment Board, since 1 July 2015 Regulatory Scrutiny Board). However, since no gender equality tracking exists, it is not clear how (thoroughly) this exercise has been carried out.

The new smart regulation guidelines will provide an opportunity for more transparency on this issue. This is crucial for better law making, as a number of trade-relevant regulations may have strong gender-equality impacts (e.g. conflict minerals, dual-use goods, goods that can be used for torture). In the future, trade-related legislation will also be analysed in accordance with DG Trade's new internal guidelines on human rights impacts of trade initiatives. These will be attached to the new edition of the SIA Handbook, once the review is completed.<sup>39</sup>

Gender issues may also be tackled in other types of evaluations by the Commission, and two different approaches exist: 1) by conducting separate evaluations of the gender dimension of policy areas and/or instruments; 2)

All trade-related Commission initiatives have since 2011 been subject to an analysis on their potential effects on human rights and gender equality.

However, more transparency is needed.

<sup>37</sup> European Commission, staff working document, [Better Regulation "Toolbox"](#), p 109 (2015)

<sup>38</sup> Idem, p 190

<sup>39</sup> European Commission, ["Guidelines on the analysis of human rights impacts in impact assessments for trade-related policy initiatives"](#) (2 July 2015)

by integrating the gender perspective into regular sector-specific evaluations.<sup>40</sup>

Coming back to the SIAs, an analysis of the completed (21) and - whenever possible- ongoing (4) SIAs shows that while they in most cases do include some gender aspects, the gender component is usually minimal and such analysis is not carried out in a systematic way. There are, however, a few SIAs that devote considerable space to women's issues (such as SIAs on the EU-Central America Association Agreement (2009) and the EU-Armenia (2013), EU-Egypt, EU-Jordan (2014), EU-Morocco, EU-Tunisia DCFTAs (2013)), while others barely mention gender impacts. The SIA on EU-China PCA (2008) stands out particularly, as it devotes just a sentence to gender equality.

This can be partly explained as a chronological evolution, but not wholly - even some of the recent SIAs (e.g. Canada, 2011) are minimal on gender equality analysis. Human rights, including women's rights, have been analysed by SIAs since 2012 (Georgia and Moldova). The depth of the analysis has differed substantially and DG Trade has therefore recently published the new guidelines on the assessment of human rights in impact analysis, mentioned earlier. These guidelines include a gender dimension, and note that "in practice, some rights (mostly economic, social and core labour rights) are more likely to be positively or negatively affected by trade-related initiatives (such as trade or investment agreements) than others. In this context, gender equality and non-discrimination would be considered as cross-cutting issues."<sup>41</sup>

The finding that the gender issues are not treated in a systematic manner is confirmed by an earlier in-depth analysis paper prepared for the FEMM committee on the 2010-2015 Strategy. In concrete terms, the part of the analysis devoted to DG Trade pointed out that "while in principle gender equality should be addressed in the SIAs /.../, there is little evidence of gender being systematically included neither in SIAs nor of gender considerations being actually used by trade negotiators".<sup>42</sup>

The same paper also argued that it seems to have been left up to the external contractor to decide if and how they want to pursue the issue.<sup>43</sup> The research carried out for this paper confirms this assumption - the SIAs are characterised by their diversity in regard to methodology and depth of analysis when it comes to gender issues. For example, the ongoing SIA on the EU-Japan FTA will include a strong gender component, since the

All SIAs include some gender aspects but the gender component is usually minimal and the relevant analysis is not carried out in a systematic manner.

The Commission has until now left it largely up to the external contractor to decide if and how they

<sup>40</sup> European Commission, staff working document, [Mid-term review of the Strategy for equality between women and men 2015](#) (2013)

<sup>41</sup> European Commission, "[Guidelines on the analysis of human rights impacts in impact assessments for trade-related policy initiatives](#)" (2 July 2015)

<sup>42</sup> Beveridge, F., Corsi, M., Szelewa, D., Lepinard, E., Alten, L., Debusscher, P (2014) [A New Strategy for Gender Equality Post 2015](#), , compilation of in-depth analyses, Policy Department A, European Parliament

<sup>43</sup> According to DG Trade, the 'if' will be tackled in the new SIA Handbook and the 'how' by the guidelines on assessing human rights impact.

want to pursue the issue.

contractor has specific expertise and has undertaken to include a specific case study on the gender gap in employment and wages. Also, the SIA on the FTA with ASEAN includes a case study on decent work issues in the textiles, clothing and footwear sector - industries, which employ mostly women.

Human rights, including women's rights have been covered by SIAs since 2012.

Like labour issues, human rights issues are also not always tackled in the same manner. While most SIAs mention human rights issues at some level, there are some SIAs which identify human rights areas affected by DCFTA in a thorough manner (for example the SIAs on Jordan, Tunisia, Morocco and Armenia). These SIAs explain why these issues are relevant for the agreement and how the negotiated agreement could change the human rights situation in the country concerned. In some cases, a SIA may connect the specific economic impact of DCFTAs with potential results in the human rights field, including women's rights (for example the SIA on Armenia).

Different levels of detail and attention are devoted to possible impacts on women in different sectors.

When it comes to analysing impacts on women, the SIAs usually focus specifically on these economic sectors, where women are concentrated. Most frequently these are the textile and clothing sectors (9 SIAs), and the agriculture and food-processing sector (8 SIAs). However, some SIAs go beyond this and evaluate the impact on women in all economic sectors analysed - including those where women's employment is usually low (e.g. the automotive sector in the case of the India SIA). In such cases impact is evaluated as neutral, and such analysis of this kind can help to identify areas, where a gender gap exists.

Very few SIAs suggest gender equality-specific flanking measures to support the exploitation of positive effects and deal with negative effects of trade liberalisation.

The impact on women's position in a work-intensive sector is usually carried out as a general, overall assessment. However, some SIAs carry out a two-dimensional assessment, devoting separate analysis to job creation impacts and job quality perspectives for women (including workers' rights, income etc.). The latter can include an evaluation of workers' rights, income impact, unionisation level and women's participation in unions, hence the possibility of being heard. This approach can help to identify areas where specific actions, or at least further monitoring, may be needed. One wonders whether such a two-dimensional approach could be a useful methodological tool for all SIAs.

The vast majority of SIAs are focused on third countries and little attention is paid to women in the EU.

Most of the SIAs do not suggest possible capacity-building or flanking measures to support the exploitation of benefits of the trade agreement or for dealing with negative effects of trade opening, but some do. For example, the Central America, ASEAN and India SIAs suggest (re)training for low-skilled workers (women are disproportionately represented in this group) or civil society dialogue to deal with the negative effects of trade opening.

Ex-post evaluations can be a useful tool for assessing

It should also be noted that SIAs, in the vast majority of cases, focus on the trade liberalisation impacts on women in third countries and do not consider the impacts on women inside the EU. There are a few exceptions to this, such as CETA or the EU-Korea FTA SIAs, but even in these cases the analysis of such impact remains at a very general level - his despite the fact that although the EU is performing well on ILO Decent Work Agenda

gender impacts.

Although gender matters do not enjoy political priority, the area seems to be slowly evolving.

The administrative capacity of the DG Trade to deal with gender matters could be boosted.

indicators, gender inequality remains a concern in the EU member states as well. In relation to the labour market, women tend to suffer discrimination in relation to employment, unemployment rates and the high representation of women in traditional sectors (e.g. textiles, education and public services). Forced labour continues to be a concern in some countries.<sup>44</sup>

Beyond SIAs, gender impacts would also be dealt with in ex-post evaluation of trade agreements. However, at present only one such evaluation exists - for the EU-Chile FTA - and it is impossible to make generalisations on the basis of one document. The ex-post evaluation of the EU-Mexico FTA is ongoing and should soon be available, according to the Commission services.

While gender equality matters clearly do not enjoy political priority in DG Trade, the area seems to be slowly evolving as gender issues are increasingly dealt with. The first example is the above-mentioned case study in the EU-Japan SIA but other examples exist too. In particular, DG Trade officials have pointed out that they are aiming to include in the TTIP more detailed provisions than in previous agreements on the Decent Work Agenda, including its 5th cross-cutting objective of gender equality (in addition to the 4 strategic objectives of: core labour rights, employment creation, social dialogue, and social protection).

Regarding the administrative capacity, DG Trade has currently not equipped itself administratively to deal with gender impact analysis in a systemic manner. With the 2010-2015 Strategy, a network of gender contact points was set up in the Commission DGs. A contact person has been appointed in DG Trade too, but she has to deal with gender mainstreaming in addition to her main workload. The placement of the contact person gives a rather good idea of how gender equality is perceived. The policy dossier is not based in the Directorate A "Resources, information and Policy Coordination", where strategic planning takes place but in a unit dealing with sustainable development and GSP (D1) within Directorate D "Sustainable Development, Economic Partnership Agreements, Africa-Caribbean and Pacific, Agri-food and fisheries". Further, according to DG Justice, although the Commission has an ample toolkit on the matter of gender impact analysis, no training is available/has been requested for DG Trade staff.

<sup>44</sup> For compliance information refer to "[Application of International Labour Standards 2015](#)", Report of the Committee on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations, International Labour Conference, 104th session, 2015

## 5 Preliminary conclusions and possible policy options

A better understanding of the gender dimension of trade agreements could help to contribute to better policy making.

The economic rationale for addressing gender inequalities is strong.

The growing literature on gender aspects of trade liberalisation does not yet provide straightforward answers as to how women and men are affected by trade.

Although the EU's equality policies are in a league of their own at the global level, trade policy has been left aside in the policy process.

The ongoing discussions of the post-2015 equality strategy provide opportunities to remedy this.

The trade policy issues that are discussed by the European Parliament's INTA committee can have differing gender impacts across the various sectors of the economy. Understanding the gender dimension of trade agreements better will therefore contribute to better policy making and to ensuring that both sexes can take advantage of the benefits of trade liberalisation and be protected from its negative effects.

All in all, the economic rationale for addressing gender inequality is convincing. The World Bank has shown in its analysis that addressing gender-related barriers will allow countries to make productivity gains and to take more advantage of trade liberalisation, both in OECD and developing countries (via Gibbs, 2003 and Korinek, 2005). In some cases, the evidence is particularly astounding. Korinek (2005) quotes a 1999 study which finds that the effect of gender inequality on growth has been highly significant in developing countries: average per capita growth over the period of 30 years would have been 64% higher in Sub-Saharan Africa, 40% higher in South Asia and 32% higher in MENA if initial gender enrolment conditions and enrolment gender gaps had mirrored those in East Asia.

That said, the growing literature does not yet give straightforward answers to the question of how trade liberalisation affects men and women, as the effects of globalisation and trade liberalisation on women's livelihoods, access to employment and income are complex and often contradictory. The study of this area is still recent and continues to suffer from the lack of gender-segregated data. It is worth noting that women's education and skill levels seem to be one of the most important factors in determining how trade liberalisation affects women's economic and social empowerment, but it is definitely not the only one. Some studies point out that whether men and women are able to benefit equally from positive effects of trade will depend largely on the implementation or reinforcement of public policies (e.g. availability of childcare, employment policies, support for starting a business). Yet again, there is still limited literature available on how such policies should be devised. We indeed need to know more about how trade agreements affect both sexes, because the current understanding of the gender issues is still in its infancy. This includes making sure that the economic data are collected and made available in a way that makes such research possible.

The EU's equality policies are in a league of their own among international organisations, and the European Commission has made considerable progress in mainstreaming gender equality in some of the EU policy areas, including development policy. Trade policy, however, has been very much left aside in this policy process and gender equality issues are currently not dealt with in a systematic manner by DG Trade. That said, it seems to be an evolving area and some examples of good practices exist.

There are currently a number of "windows of opportunity" for remedying this, most importantly under the wider umbrella of better - more

transparent and accountable - regulation by the Commission.

The Commission has acquired an impressive gender mainstreaming toolkit that may provide inspiration for mainstreaming gender in EU trade policy.

The 2010-2015 Equality Strategy is currently being updated by the Commission and provides an opportunity to integrate DG Trade into the gender mainstreaming work plan for the upcoming period. Further opportunities for achieving better policy coherency are offered by the ongoing update of the DEVCO Gender Action Plan, which guides the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment in the area of development policy.

Addressing the internal dimension of the international trade policy is crucial in the current difficult economic and political climate.

Another opportunity presents itself with the new guidelines for evaluation of policies and a more systematic evaluation of the human rights and gender equality aspects of trade policy. As the first practical step, the Trade SIA Handbook could be aligned with the Commission's Better Regulation "Toolbox". The guidelines provide concrete instructions on what kind of questions should be answered in relation to gender equality impacts. All Commission legislative proposals in principle undergo impact evaluation, including in terms of human-rights and gender-differentiated impacts. However, it is not clear how and with what attention to detail this is carried out. Attention to better law making should thus also be seen as an occasion to introduce a tracking system on these issues, to enhance transparency and accountability. The INTA Committee may also decide to follow this issue up regularly with the Commission, when holding debates on legislation that can have clearly such impacts (conflict minerals, dual-use goods etc.).

Political and administrative commitment to gender equality goals is fundamental to success.

The ongoing update of the SIA handbook provides further opportunities to improve evaluation methodology and make it more systematic in regard to human rights and gender equality impacts. The Commission already has at its disposal an ample toolkit that can be made available to DG Trade by DG Justice. Good practices from other DGs (DG DEVCO; DG ECHO) regarding the possible introduction of benchmarks such as a gender equality policy marker in the SIA methodology could also be considered. The SIAs could also systematically suggest gender-sensitive flanking measures in order to ensure that any reform underlying the implementation of FTAs does not contribute to existing distortions.

In the context of the negotiation of trade agreements it could be worthwhile to follow up Parliament's long-term suggestion to investigate the possibility of introducing benchmarks relating to the protection of fundamental rights.

Another relevant issue in this context is the possibility of boosting the capacity of the Commission services to carry out gender equality. Again, the Commission has already the experience and tools to provide relevant training for the DG Trade officials, whether involved in policy design or impact assessment. The Commission's long-standing experience in mainstreaming other issues into trade policy (environmental protection, sustainable development) can provide further inspiration and lessons-learned.

It goes without saying that any concrete steps to including trade policy in

the EU's gender equality framework should be accompanied by a commitment to the promotion of gender equality at the highest management levels in the Commission, particularly by making human and budgetary resources available to this end

Although trade policy is now dealt with by the Commission under the umbrella of external policies, the internal aspects of this policy should not be forgotten. Trade liberalisation not only affects third countries but also various economic sectors of the EU's internal market. Understanding how female and male workers, as well as public policies in the Member States are affected by trade agreements is essential to devising better and more accountable trade policies. This is especially crucial in the current harsh economic and political climate, where public frustration with the EU and international trade policy is on the rise.

## Annex: Gender equality concerns in Sustainability Impact Assessments

### 1. Countries and regions with which negotiations have not been concluded

Year	Country or region	Sector and/or issues tackled Possible impact (+ positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified)	General impact / Comments
2014	Egypt  + positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Employment (+)</li> <li>• Employment of young women (?)</li> <li>• Agriculture (-)</li> <li>• Textiles (?)</li> <li>• Women's rights ("through corporate social responsibility of foreign firms women's positions may be better defended")</li> <li>• Poverty headcount by sex (short term decrease, long term increase, no differences between sexes) (-)</li> </ul>	<p>Gender equality would be influenced only indirectly by the DCFTA.</p> <p>Recommendations: - Calls for HR provisions backed by clear sanction mechanisms in case of violations; - Effective implementation of HR treaties, with a focus on vulnerable groups (e.g. children, women).</p> <p>Lack of protection mechanism can affect the most vulnerable.</p> <p>Corporate Social Responsibility may improve labour and work conditions also for women.</p> <p>Decrease in tariff revenues in the short run may hamper governmental programmes addressed to the most vulnerable, including women. In the long run the DCFTA could increase governmental income thus providing financing.</p>
2014	Jordan  + positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tourism (?)</li> <li>• Banking (?)</li> <li>• Youth unemployment (?)</li> <li>• Public sector (?)</li> <li>• Education (?)</li> <li>• Sex trafficking</li> <li>• Women with disabilities (double discrimination)</li> </ul>	<p>Women's rights found affected by the DCFTA and in this context "The DCFTA may affect the sectors of Jordanian economy that may lead to changes in employment perspectives for women, as well as strengthening mechanisms against exploitation."</p> <p>Decrease in tariff revenues in the short run may hamper governmental programmes addressed to the most vulnerable, including women.</p>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Refugees</li> <li>• Employment perspectives: shifts among sectors may disproportionately affect weakest groups: also women, especially low skilled or belonging to ethnic minorities (-).</li> <li>• Increase in living standards and changes in attitude towards equality issues (+)</li> <li>• Absolute poverty headcount (+) (faster decrease for men)</li> </ul>	Call for monitoring mechanism to assess policy implications of certain decisions and processes, in the areas of human rights of vulnerable groups like women, including financing of programmes addressed to vulnerable groups.
2013	<p>Armenia</p> <p>+ positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Textiles and clothing (young women working in the sector) (+/-) (+) for employment (-) possible for workers' rights ('race to the bottom')</li> <li>• Informal economy and working time</li> <li>• Brandy sector (description of current situation only)</li> <li>• Trade unions (description of current situation and plans, not connected directly with DCFTA)</li> <li>• Average wage and earnings by industry, nature of employment, and sex (total ratio 1.6:1)</li> <li>• Human rights - identification of HR areas which are relevant for AA and DCFTA with explanations why it is relevant and how the agreements can change a situation;</li> <li>• Additional table connecting specific economic impact of DCFTA with potential results in HR field, including women's rights. These concerns: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• women's rights</li> <li>• high gender inequality</li> <li>• sub-ordinate position of women's in social, economic and political areas of life;</li> <li>• lower wages, women rarely hold managerial positions, under-represented in local politics; (for wages mixed impact, sector differences);</li> <li>• unemployment of women in the age bracket of 30-39 at a level of 60%;</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	No overall assessment

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>women trafficking to Turkey and Arabic countries for prostitution a concern;</li> <li>forced work of women and girls in prostitution and sex-trafficking (+)</li> <li>Identification of human rights issues relevant for AA only (no further analysis):             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Law on Ensuring Equal Rights and Equal Opportunities for Men and Women still being reviewed with no progress being made;</li> <li>Domestic violence against women not recognised as a HR violation involving state responsibility – most goes unreported;</li> <li>Sexual harassment not recognised as a crime in Armenian Criminal Code.</li> </ul> </li> <li>Absolute poverty headcount (+) (decrease slightly faster for men)</li> </ul>	
2013	Morocco	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Agriculture (provides also subsector analysis covering fruits and vegetables subsectors) (?)</li> <li>Textiles (description of poor situation, low unionisation of women) (?)</li> <li>Leather (?)</li> <li>Employment perspectives: shifts among sectors may disproportionately affect weakest groups: also women, especially low skilled or belonging to ethnic minorities (-)</li> <li>Causal chain analysis of the potential impact of the DCFTA on forced labour (incl. forced prostitution)</li> <li>Increase in living standards and changes in attitude towards equality issues (+)</li> <li>Low unionisation of women (general, outside FTA)</li> <li>Right to take part in conduct of public affairs (-/+) (depending on implementation)</li> <li>Right to education (as affected by DCFTA)</li> </ul>	<p>Gender equality would be influenced only indirectly by the DCFTA.</p> <p>Recommendation: Effective implementation of HR treaties, with a focus on vulnerable groups (e.g. children, women).</p>

+ positive;  
- negative;  
0 neutral;  
? unknown or not specified

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women's rights (incl. gender gap, affected by DCFTA)</li> <li>• Human rights issues review</li> <li>• Absolute poverty headcount (+) (faster decrease for men)</li> </ul>	
2009	ASEAN	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Textile, clothing and footwear (+)</li> <li>• Higher skilled sectors, especially services (-, further increase of existing inequalities)</li> <li>• Automotive sector (0)</li> </ul>	<p>Calls for social policy measures including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- "education and (re-training) for low-skilled (female) workers especially in services sectors";</li> <li>- <b>within FTA creation of "Sustainable development chapter including and flagging pertinent social and labour issues and stating commitment to adoption and implementation of all major international agreements and conventions with regards to labour standards, gender and equality issues, child labour and human trafficking, etc."</b>.</li> </ul> <p>Annex provides with a case study on Decent work issues in the ASEAN textile, clothing and footwear sectors - sectors which employs mainly women (60 up to 90 % of the total workforce, depend on country).</p>
	+ positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified		
2009	India	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Textile (+)</li> <li>• Finance and banking (0)</li> <li>• IT (0)</li> <li>• Automotive (0)</li> <li>• Services (positive, but more for male workers; there are barriers for women in access to training in new technologies)</li> </ul>	<p>Suggests effective technical assistance support with respect to education and (re-)training for low-skilled women, particularly in the services sectors (see limited access to new technologies training for women).</p>
	+ positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified		
2009	Libya	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tertiary sector (+ employment)</li> <li>• Tourism (+)</li> <li>• Agriculture (-)</li> <li>• Manufacturing (0)</li> <li>• Services (0)</li> <li>• Financial services (0)</li> <li>• Telecommunications (+)</li> <li>• Construction (0)</li> </ul>	<p>No overall assessment Gender equity table added (p. 24) Suggests strengthening of social programmes targeting gender issues.</p>
	+ positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified		

2007	ACP EPA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Food processing (+)</li> <li>• Fish processing in Pacific region (+)</li> <li>• Tourism (+)</li> </ul>	Recommendation: Extending civil society dialogue and increase women participation in it.
2004	Arab States of the Gulf (GCC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Petrochemical industry (+)</li> <li>• integration of women (especially well educated) in the economy (+)</li> </ul>	Overall positive Gender equity tables added (p. 243, 245, 325) on education, income, economic activities, earnings, expats.

- (+) positive effect  
 (-) negative effect  
 (0) neutral or minimal effect  
 (?) non-specified  
 ND not detailed analysis

## 2. Countries and regions with which negotiations have been concluded

Year	Country or region	Sector and/or issues tackled Possible impact (+ positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified)	General impact / Comments
2012	Georgia	ND	Overall positive
2012	Moldova	ND, • Textiles (+)	Overall positive
2011	Canada	ND, • Apparel and leather sectors (+) • Mining and metal manufacturing (O) • Procurement policies (can +)	No overall assessment
2009	Andean Community (including Colombia, Peru, Ecuador)	ND, • Agriculture (+ and -; long term positive, but may be geographically concentrated)	In a long term, it can have a positive effect. However, gains may be concentrated in some geographical areas.  "The impact of EU- Andean countries trade liberalisation on rural livelihoods and gender is likely to accentuate related existing trends and processes of change. In the long term, the transition from small scale to large scale agriculture and to other higher wage activities can have significantly beneficial social effects. However, such a process may be concentrated in areas where land and water

+ positive;  
- negative;  
0 neutral;

			are available for present or future investments, and where the institutional structure of property rights and resource allocation facilitates those investments".
	? unknown or not specified		
2009	Central America  + positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified	ND, <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Textiles (+) in Honduras, El Salvador and Guatemala Possible (-) in Costa Rica and Panama</li> <li>Social dialogue (+) "Improvement of (facilities for) social dialogue (...) might have a positive effect on mitigating the risk of exclusiveness and improving labour market participation, in particular for women (...)"</li> <li>ILO standards (+)</li> </ul>	Different impact depending on country and sector, especially in the short term. In a long term, a positive impact on economies. Migration towards sectors that will grow is expected.  Recommendation: Actions for women's group entrepreneurship as a proposal for target within technical assistance in order to make Association Agreement more inclusive.
2009	Mercosur  + positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified	ND <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Agriculture (0/-) Land conflicts and mechanisation can contribute to feminisation of poverty</li> <li>Industry (+/-) specific politics needed in order to diminish gender segmentation in labour markets</li> <li>Finance sector (sector described in a separate annex, not significant impact, short term -, long term+)</li> </ul>	
2008	China PCA	ND <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Environmental services (+)</li> </ul>	Overall moderate capacity to change in a positive direction (higher energy availability and security reduces the amount of time required on basic survival activities in the household- gathering burning fuel, fetching water).
2008	Korea	ND, <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Services (+)</li> <li>Financial services (?-positive for employment level, unknown for grading, thus income)</li> </ul>	Generally neutral, with possibility of modest benefits (some issues should be monitored, especially type of employment (sector and level)).
2007	Ukraine	ND, <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Textiles and wearing apparel sectors</li> </ul>	Overall positive.

		(labour participation +, income O/-)	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Possible negative impact for organised crime (increase of forced prostitution)</li> </ul>	
2002	Chile	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tourism (+)</li> <li>• Agriculture (0)</li> <li>• Food processing (?)</li> <li>• Chemicals (+)</li> <li>• Mining (-)</li> <li>• Non-ferrous metal (-)</li> </ul>	Overall positive impact on employment, there may be no impact on pre-existing inequalities.
	+ positive; - negative; 0 neutral; ? unknown or not specified		

- (+) positive effect
- (-) negative effect
- (0) neutral or minimal effect
- (?) non specified
- ND not detailed analysis