

FOREIGN TRADE POLICY: GENDER ASPECT

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Abstract. Foreign trade liberalisation, taking place in the framework of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) affects the welfare of men much more favourably than that of women and thus negatively influences gender equality. Due to historically developed ideology of gender relations, men and women take different social-economic positions all over the world and their abilities to act in the trade sphere and use the advantages given to them by liberalisation works towards the discrimination of women. Taking into account that international trade is an important object of economic development, comprising such fields of strategic development as agriculture, services, investment, it is necessary to integrate gender in the formation of the foreign trade policy both at the national and international levels. This could help to avoid the discrimination of women and provide the appropriate conditions to use the suppressed women's potential, which could significantly contribute to the development of foreign trade as well as the global economy.

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Reikšminiai žodžiai: užsienio prekybos politika, prekybos liberalizavimas, ekonomikos plėtra, lyčių lygybė, analizė lyčių aspektu, feministinė ekonomika, neapmokamas moterų darbas, vyrų ir moterų darbo užmokesčio atotrūkis.

1. Introduction

Increased foreign trade is considered as a factor stimulating economic growth and reducing poverty. Actually, trade liberalisation causes decreasing prices for local consumers, opens the new markets and increases new employment possibilities. However,

these advantages are not equally distributed between men and women. Due to the historically prevailing ideology of gender relationship in our society, women, much less than men, can take the emerging opportunities, because of restrictions caused by gender discrimination; women experience limited access to markets and resources (land and other assets, credits, information, technologies), they bear the social responsibility for unpaid work in households, suffer from legal discrimination and must face discriminating cultural norms and values.

The WTO is the leading international body dealing with the issues of foreign trade worldwide. Trade liberalisation, as the major goal of the WTO, brings negative consequences for women by pushing small and medium enterprises (usually managed by women) out of the local markets, while male-dominated big businesses most often withstand the severe competition from abroad. It's also important that women and children suffer worst from the policy of cutting social expenses implemented by the government in order to compensate budget loss due to reduced income from import tariffs.

During the process of designing the international trade policy, gender isn't taken into account assuming that international trade is a gender-neutral object of macroeconomics. Gender relations are not reflected or analysed, although their effect on foreign trade results is significant. The indisputable contribution of women to economics is that they can perform multifunctional roles as producers, employees, consumers and—this is of great importance—future labour force mentors, but this is totally ignored. As in the other spheres, gender inequality is generating the inefficiency of economics in the foreign trade sphere as well. Such market failures as the gender wage gap, labour division by gender, asymmetric access to resources, women discriminating investments to human capital constrain women's abilities irreversibly and the potential of the major part of the population remains inexcusably unused. All these points impede growth and development of the world economy.

2. Interconnection of trade liberalisation, economic development and gender equality

Gender component—an important factor of the foreign trade policy. So far in the field of foreign trade and the regulation of the WTO gender relationship hasn't been reflected. Most of the international trade experts and politicians representing the neo-classic theory view state that international trade strategy is gender neutral. However, representatives of gender economics (Angele Hul, Isabela Bakker, Nilufer Catagay, Gita Sen, Mariama Williams, Myrium Vander Stichele, Zo Randriamaro and others) are confident of the opposite. Due to historically developed "gender norms" of society, men and women take different economic positions, have unequal power and influence and thus their abilities to participate in the process of economic development are uneven. Because of that important reason, men and women get unequal benefit (or loss) from the foreign trade. This entirely enables us to come to the conclusion that the **gender**

aspect is neglected in the international trade policy and that gender relations have significant implication to the results of macroeconomic policy implementation (Rakauskienė, 2006).

The analysis of the WTO activity as well as the programmes of the structural reforms supported by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) has enabled the above-mentioned authors to come to two essential conclusions: **first, foreign trade liberalisation increases gender inequality; second, gender inequality in its turn negatively effects the efficiency of international trade.** From the above statements the general conclusion is made that the **gender component is a very important factor of the international trade** (Rakauskienė, 2006).

Trade is the object of economic development. Trade policy is closely related to local fiscal, monetary and labour market policy as well as with the other spheres of the macro- level, such as foreign aid and investment, structural reforms, state debt and development. Zo Randriamaro, famous sociologist, human rights activist and the expert of gender economics confirms that **world trade cannot be the neutral object of macroeconomics—it comprises such strategic fields of economic development as agriculture, services, intellectual property rights and investment. This has implications for people’s jobs, livelihoods, wellbeing and human rights** (Randriamaro, 2006).

Trade agreements affect individuals through their impact on prices, employment and production structures. This will have varying impacts on different groups of people due to differential positions in the economic system. These different positions arise not only from different national contexts but also from social and cultural factors, such as gender, ethnicity and class or caste (Randriamaro, 2006).

Trade liberalisation’s impact on women and gender balance. Increasing trade has increased the number of paid working places for women, especially in the export sector. Due to market integration the social-economic position of women has improved and the wages received in the labour market have granted them more independence and control over household resources as well as raised their status even in patriarchal societies.

However, such specific factors as persisting gender discrimination, lower qualification of women, and gender inequality in the sphere of access to resources restrict women’s abilities to get benefit from the increasing trade. Market integration usually affects the changes of the employment structure and productivity of employees. In many developing countries there are many possibilities to get a job in big cities and therefore more and more of the population abandon agriculture and move there. When economic change gives rise to new sectors and erodes the dominance of others, it produces winners and losers, especially in the short run, as new jobs compete with existing ones and better-equipped workers move into rising sectors (Korinek, 2005). Considering the fact that men usually have greater possibilities to improve their skills and dedicate themselves to a job, it’s most likely that namely them, and not women, take advantage of this situation.

Under the process of trade liberalisation governments usually apply limited regulation for foreign investment and eliminate barriers for developing of international trade. Tariffs are the main barriers.¹ Tariff reduction brings two major implications:

1. Cheaper goods come onto national markets from overseas providing cheaper options for consumers (Randriamaro, 2006). But this situation negatively affects the local producers especially the representatives of small and medium business mainly dominated by women. Women-entrepreneurs, having limited access to information, credits and technology innovations, face big difficulties in trying to compete with the cheaper import production. Most often such businesses go bankrupt and women find themselves at risk of poverty.

2. Tax revenues previously collected from tariffs on imported goods are now curtailed with an effect on national expenditure (Randriamaro, 2006). This has a negative influence to the state revenue and in turn it implies possible reduction of the budget expense appointed for social needs. Women and children suffer mostly from such policy especially if expense is cut in the very sensitive fields of health care and education.

Impact of gender balance on economic development. Gender inequality determines ineffective distribution of resources. According to the experts of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)² **women get a lower salary for the same job as men all over the world,³ they have limited access to such resources as land, credits or capital.** Women of developing countries have less access to paid employment and can only attain lower education than men. Imperfect information on women's land ownership and their ability to pay back loans, coupled with traditional prejudices, leads to sub-optimal allocation of credit and capital. Credit, capital and productive inputs are allocated away from small female landowners and entrepreneurs (UNCTAD, 2003).

The report of the United Nations Development programme (UNDP) stated that the Arab world is largely depriving itself of the creativity and productivity of half its citizens. As women number half or more of any population, neglecting their capabilities is akin to crippling half the potential of a nation. This is exacerbated by the fact that even in those cases where some women are part of the economic arena, they suffer from extraordinary opportunity deficits, evident in employment status, wages, gender-based occupational segregation and other barriers. These factors block the full integration of women into the economic and intellectual life of their countries (UNDP, 2002).

The experts of the World Bank underlined that there is an obvious professional division of jobs between women and men in the society. Women are over-represented in service occupations, clerical jobs and sales (...) while men are highly over-represented

¹ Tariffs are taxes applied to the goods imported to a country.

² The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) was founded in 1964, aiming to help developing countries to integrate into the global economy. It is the main body of the United Nations General Assembly dealing with the matters of trade, investment and development. Today the organization has 131 members.

³ On average, women earn 77% of men's wages in developed countries; in developing countries, women's earnings represent 73% of men's earnings (World Bank, 2001).

in production jobs as well as in higher-paid administrative and managerial jobs (World Bank 2001).

The analysts of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)⁴ point out that in many developing countries, women and girls on average attain lower levels of education than men and boys. There is much evidence that **better-educated women raise healthier, better-educated children**. This is a major “positive spill over” from investments in girls’ and women’s education (Barro, 1996). **In the medium to long term, healthier, better-educated children grow to constitute a more highly-skilled, productive workforce** (Korinek, 2005).

Nilufer Catagay, famous American scientist and expert of gender economics and international trade, confirms that gender inequality impedes the successful activity of small landowners in agriculture-based economics. Women generally have less access to inputs, information and technology. In agriculture, women use less fertiliser, farming equipment and other inputs. They have less access to training and agricultural extension programmes (Korinek, 2005). Women also have scarcer access to financial services which effectively inhibits them from purchasing needed capital or inputs in order to expand production facilities. It is estimated that women receive less than 10% of all credit extended to small farmers and less than 1% of total credit going to the agricultural sector (World Bank, 2001).

Researches performed both in micro- and macroeconomic spheres indicate that **gender inequality directly and indirectly restricts the economic growth. Gender bias that determines the limited access of women to resources, education and employment also causes the inefficiency of economics both in developed and developing countries**. The gender wage gap, which implies that women’s wages are not paid at the (male) market rate, implies an inefficient allocation of labour and skewed investment in human capital to the detriment of women and girls. These market imperfections can be regarded as stemming from imperfect information flows due to historical, cultural and traditional societal mores. These market imperfections affect the growth and development of the global economy and impact the way in which economic phenomena, such as trade and investment liberalisation, translate into economic growth (Korinek, 2005).

3. Demand of foreign trade gender analysis

The assumptions of gender analysis of foreign trade have a similar character as, for example, the formation of the state finance policy. The content of foreign trade negotiations, as well as their results, is based on the same rules as a single-sided understanding of economics, considering only a productive, formal and paid economic sector while

⁴ The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has grown from the Organisation for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC) that was founded to administrate American and Canadian aid during the post war period. In 1961 the OEEC was reformed into the OECD. Throughout history the aims of the organization remain the same—strengthening the economies of the member-countries, raising efficiency, developing free trade, helping the economies of the developing countries. The OECD has 34 members.

reproductive, informal and “invisible” economic sector and the created value added—human resources and their quality—are ignored. Therefore during negotiations the market role is considered as absolute without paying regard to the establishment of the social-economic infrastructure of households (Rakauskienė, 2006).

Impact of feminist economics on the foreign trade policy analysis. The term “gender” widely used in feminist economics is founded on the social roles and behaviour of women and men. This is contrary to the biological aspect of the term “sex.” All over the world women and men have unequal power and gender relations are based on women’s subordination to men. Such inequality fundamentally limits women’s abilities to be engaged in foreign trade and to get benefit from it. Acceptable “gender roles,” including the division of labour, create a society where these hierarchies are translated into economic policies and activities. Despite the ratification of international instruments such as the Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), gender inequality persists. As underlying gender systems in most countries are grounded in biases and discrimination against women, shifts in trade policy in accordance with global trade rules will inevitably impact the underlying system of gender relations (Randriamaro, 2006).

Representatives of the world’s women organisations insist that there is an urgent need to develop studies and research of gender analysis in the foreign trade sphere.

Trade policy is being designed without performing any gender analysis. The supposed “gender neutrality” of trade both undervalues women’s work and obscures women as economic actors. Yet women in fact play many key roles in trade, as producers, employees and consumers, and in reproducing and caring for the labour force. The non-monetised, invisible contribution of women to the economy is estimated to be at least US\$11 trillion a year (UNDP 1995) (Randriamaro, 2006).

Feminist economic analysis argues that due to different gender roles, the relationship between women and men in society, and women’s unequal access to economic resources (such as land, credit and technology), macroeconomic policy will have different impacts on men and women. Thus, the conventional assumption that trade policy and trade liberalisation are gender neutral in their formulation and impact must be rejected in favour of a much more in-depth examination of their gendered impact (Randriamaro, 2006). Feminist economic analysis seeks to understand the impact of the gendered division of labour on women’s empowerment, their well-being and the types of work they undertake. It also looks at women’s unpaid work and how the intensification and expansion of trade may impact on this (Elson, Evers, Gideon, 1997).

Gender analysis of foreign trade liberalization at the macro-, meso- and micro-level. The change of economic and social policy by means of gender mainstreaming, as well as its modernization, opens the prospect of stable and balanced economic growth and mitigates the consequences of globalization process. Analysis of the outcomes of trade liberalisation for the social groups of women and men should be based on an analytical attitude containing all the levels of economics—macro-, meso- and micro-.

Gender analysis of foreign trade liberalization at the macro- level involves examination of the influence of export and import changes to the gender component as well as analysis of their interconnection. The results of economic policy cannot be gender neutral because there exists a tight relation between the real (production) sector and the household (social reproduction) sector dominated by women.

Gender analysis of foreign trade liberalization at the meso- level indicates institutional and inter-sectoral relations processing in the market. Labour market segmentation by gender and labour division amongst the economic branches and sectors is based on increased women's responsibility in households. Actually, women's work in the household (i.e. children's upbringing, care of the old and disabled, food preparation, housecleaning etc.) is underestimated and unpaid.

Gender deviation observed in economics determines the forms of women's participation as well as their possibilities to benefit from liberalisation. The question arises whether the new economic orientation and the changes in the labour market are going to reduce the gender wage gap and the differences in the standard of living of women and men in the future? How are the tools of export promotion going to influence women's possibilities to use credits, technical aid and the accessibility to it?

Gender analysis of foreign trade liberalization at the micro- level involves households and the activity of enterprises. The existing gender system and ideology affects the time budget of women and men as well as their possibilities to control and allocate the household resources. The risk and position of women and men are asymmetric in talking about the responsibility for the reproduction process and household provision. This analysis should answer the question whether liberalization stimulates the shift of gender roles, positions and responsibilities in households? (Rakauskienė, 2006)

4. Gender impact of trade liberalisation on economics

Production structure and employment. Practically, the impacts of trade are felt by individual men and women as fluctuations in price (and hence availability of goods) and through changes in output (what people work to produce, how and under what conditions). The main argument of the proponents of free market policies, including some gender advocates, is that increased trade and investment liberalisation can improve economic growth, which in turn can increase women's participation in the labour market (Randriamaro, 2006). Much of this increase is concentrated in export-oriented industries where electrical components are assembled, textiles are processed, and garments and shoes are produced (Sexton, Nair, Kirbat, 2004). Paid employment can improve women's autonomy as well as their economic and social status. It can also shift power relations between women and men, including at the household level, and can improve women's well-being, negotiating power and overall status (Randriamaro, 2006).

Yet the picture is not finished. Division by gender is sharply felt in the structure of local labour markets and global production chains. **Despite the advantages, in many**

contexts trade liberalisation is coupled with persistent occupational segregation by sex, both vertical and horizontal⁵ (Randriamaro, 2006).

Due to increased global competition and technological innovation there is observed **an enlarged extent of temporary job and the job based on the fixed-term employment contracts** in many regional labour markets. It provoked **the reduction of social security of employees**. In many African countries, as well as in Eastern Europe, trade liberalisation has in fact led to increased unemployment, as it leads to the contraction of some subsectors and the expansion of others which may require different skills and/or fewer workers (Randriamaro, 2006). **As a rule, such “cuttings” more often strike women, as compared to men, who are considered as breadwinners. Being involved in a temporary and fixed-term job relationship women more often than men tend to face poverty in their old age. Increased unemployment and restructuring of labour market caused by trade liberalisation generally have a negative impact on poor and marginal women’s groups.**

Gender wage gap. According to the data of the World Bank, if the wage and employment differences between men and women were eliminated this could lead to a one-time increase of approximately 6 per cent of GDP and overall greater economic efficiency (World Bank, 2001). Despite the fact that the number of women participating in the labour market is increasing, the gender wage gap remains (UNCTAD, 2004). Industries that began by employing lots of low-cost women workers may begin to embrace new technologies, at which point women are laid off and more men are employed at higher wages due to the skills required. Women’s wages will continue to remain lower than those of men while they lag behind in education and training opportunities (Joekes 1999). Even when the available data suggests a reduction in wage differences, this may be the result of a decline in men’s wages rather than an increase in women’s wages (Kabeer 2003). **The persistent gender wage gap undermines the long-term sustainability of women’s livelihoods** (Randriamaro, 2006).

Enterprises of small and medium business and women’s business. As most of the experts of feminist economics confirm, there exists the attitude in our society—unclear and ungrounded by any research—that women’s productivity is less than that of men. And because of that reason resources of additional development and training possibilities that occurred after the changes in trade conditions usually are granted to men.

Trade liberalisation, performed according to the rules of the WTO, has not significantly increased women’s access to credit, nor has it provided more opportunities to use domestic savings for entrepreneurial activities. This is because structural gender inequalities in property rights and ownership mean that women have fewer assets that can serve as collateral. Rather than introducing policies to support women’s access to credit, profit-driven liberalisation policies have perpetuated discrimination against poor women in the mainstream financial market by focusing on urban areas

⁵ Horizontal segregation means the distribution of women and men across the occupations. Vertical segregation means the distribution of women and men in the job hierarchy in terms of status and position.

and the more profitable economic sectors. This excludes poor women who are concentrated in the informal sector and operate mostly in small and medium enterprises (Randriamaro, 2001).

According to Mariama Williams, international economics consultant and research adviser for the International Gender and Trade Network (IGTN), an additional challenge is the fact that changes in investment regimes mean that foreign investors are not held to particular performance requirements by the governments of the countries in which they operate. They are therefore able to produce goods in-country at highly competitive prices, which can lead to the displacement of weaker economic actors—most of whom are women—from their segments of the domestic markets. This is likely to have adverse impacts on women-owned and other small and medium enterprises (Williams, 2004). **Thus the development of foreign investment has a reverse (negative) impact on women's business (usually small and medium one) that suffers from severe competition with foreign investors.**

Households. According to the position of some experts, trade liberalisation has provoked danger for the fiscal background of the state through tariff reductions and tough budget restrictions imposed by international financial institutions. For example, trade taxes are an important source of revenue for African countries. For the last decade, they have provided around 28% per cent of the region's total current revenue, compared with 0.8 per cent for the OECD countries (UNECA⁶, 2004).

Fiscal constraint limits the government spending on health care and education while this has great implications for women who traditionally bear the role of carers in the society. Trade liberalization has a negative impact on the unpaid women's work in households—due to reduction of social spending a women's burden of social care at home increases. Although paid employment outside the home can be an advantage to women in many ways (increased income, gaining a social status, enlarged financial independence etc.) the work needed to reproduce and care for the labour force often means a double work burden (Rakauskiene, 2006; Randriamaro, 2006). Women's burden in the household especially increases during the process of social-economic reforms and crises.

5. Achievements integrating gender into the global trade policy

Gender integration into the trade policy at international and national levels.

At all levels of the Multilateral Trade System (MTS), including in the regional trade institutions, the sections of the population where many women traders are involved in trade and investment processes (such as the informal sector) are not part of the groups that participate in trade and investment policy decision-making (Randriamaro, 2006).

It should be noted that, as a result of the efforts of gender equality promoters and women's organizations, there is an increasing number of intergovernmental and devel-

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opment institutions interested in gender integrating to trade. Women's organizations using the human rights and political economy approaches seek that the questions of gender and gender inequality would be included into the trade policy formation at national and international levels. Of note is the active role played by women ambassadors in this breakthrough of gender equality concerns in the WTO arena (Randriamaro, 2006).

National arena of trade policy is a starting point for the integration of gender into the trade policy. Changing the orientation of priorities of social and economic policy towards the gender equality women would be more visible and encourage the formation of gender-sensitive trade policy. A significant activity has been started in this direction. There are more than 50 countries all over the world in which **Gender responsive budget initiatives (GRBIs)** have been implemented—they have become an important step in mainstreaming the gender perspective into the national economics policy. These initiatives have laid the foundations for gender analysis of budget revenue related to foreign trade.

Estimating the effect of trade policy. The main difficulty in disturbing the integration of a gender perspective into the trade policy and to the democratisation of the management of the MTS is the complexity of the global trade system. It is important to recognise the inherently technocratic and legalistic nature of trade policy processes and the urgent need to challenge a trade policy culture that tends to favour the most powerful players (Randriamaro, 2006; McGee, Brock, 2004). Given the existing gender inequalities in terms of access to technology and information, it appears that trade policy processes are imbued with gender relations of unequal power, making them male dominated and restricting possibilities for the participation of women (Randriamaro, 2006).

As Randriamaro confirms, participating effectively in trade policy processes is primarily about accessing, interpreting and acting on information. Thus, the key role of information, knowledge and learning processes in successful strategies cannot be overemphasised. Feminist economists, together with civil society and women's organizations, have greatly contributed to the research and policy analysis with the support of development agencies such as the UK Department for International Development (DFID), CIDA, the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida) and the Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The establishment of the Inter-Agency Task Force on Gender and Trade (IATFGT) in 2003 is an encouraging development that demonstrates the positive impact of the work done thus far at the policy level (Randriamaro, 2006).

Women's organisations, scientists, gender equality promoters and development institutions have designed the appropriate tools in order to integrate gender perspective into the trade agenda (prepared with reference to Randriamaro, 2006):

- **Trade Policy Review Mechanism (TPRM)** is a very important part of the WTO activity comprising the supervision of the national trade policy of each member of the organisation. The TPRM enables to include gender in the trade policy review process in order to identify potential opportunities and threats for women's well-being, as well

as for other vulnerable groups. While performing this review there is a space for raising questions about the gender and poverty reduction potential and impact of a particular trade policy and its implementation. For instance, TPRs could deal with the effects on women's employment patterns and income.

- **Sustainability Impact Assessments (SIA)** is another political tool intended for the advance estimation of trade negotiations impact from economics, social and environmental point. In 1999 it was developed for the first time and thereafter is being used in all the principal multilateral, regional and bilateral EU trade negotiations. This tool investigates the possible impact of trade liberalisation in such spheres as income, employment, investment, poverty, health and education, gender equality, environment, biological diversity etc. SIA could also contribute by raising specific women's needs during the negotiation process as well as could help to better understand mechanics of how trade policy impacts the economy at the macro-, meso- and micro- levels.

- **Value chain analysis** links the entire range of sectors, as well as economic activities and agents involved from the completion of a product or service, through the intermediary processes of production and its delivery to final consumers, to final disposal after use. Global value chain analysis can identify inequalities in the chain and point to ways in which inequalities can be reduced (Carr, 2004). Gendered value chain analysis can be used by civil society organisations, researchers and government actors to better understand the economic situation and empowerment of men and women.

6. Conclusions

1. **Foreign trade liberalisation stimulates gender inequality and worsens the social-economic position of women.** The reasons for that are:

- Prevailing the discriminative labour division by gender when women foremost are responsible for the field of social reproduction trade liberalisation causes additional time for the production of household services and thus increases the burden of women even more;
- Due to deeply rooted gender inequality, women's access to resources (credits, land, technology, information) is radically limited. Foreign trade liberalisation doesn't encourage any shift of resources towards the interests of women, vice versa—it even constrains their accessibility.

2. The impact of trade liberalisation for women is not only important because women make up more than half of the world's population, but also because they face the restrictions impeding them to get benefit from the advantages of trade liberalisation. **Properly designed policy could help to avoid women's discrimination in the sphere of international trade and to create adequate conditions allowing use of the suppressed potential of women, contributing to the development of foreign trade and thus increasing their contribution to the global economy.**

3. Solving the questions of international trade from a gender perspective there is a need for an approach based on human rights and economic policy. Macroeconomic

environment should be in harmony with the processes at the national, sectoral, and micro levels; international agreements and international conventions shouldn't contradict the principles of human rights, economic development and gender equality (Randriamaro, 2006).

4. Not only foreign trade policy has a specific impact on women and men but also the interconnection of these two social groups affects the results of foreign trade. **Due to this reason the rules regulating international trade relations and the policy performed should be analysed and designed from the positions of gender equality.** This would ensure an effective trade policy contribution to the economic growth and help seeking the objectives of gender equality.

When integrating gender perspective into the international trade policy, these main strategies are distinguished (according to Randriamaro, 2006):

- **The need of research and impact assessment while analysing foreign trade from a gender perspective.** Research should focus on how to enhance women's capabilities and to look at the social-economic costs of gender inequality. Research could be promoted by national women's organizations and civil society organizations and can be used within sectoral ministries dealing with the so-called "soft areas" (education, health and social development).
- **Promotion of women's participation in the trade policy and women's rights protection.** In order to promote women's participation in the governance of the MTS it is important to develop the interaction between gender experts in national women's organizations and trade and development practitioners at the national level as well as develop relationship at the international policy arena.
- **Integrating gender into the trade programmes and institutions.** In order to eliminate the obstacles disturbing women's participation in the markets and to ensure their rights as employees, producers and consumers gender perspective should be implemented in the organisations directly dealing with trade matters—in this way women concerning points could be included into the trade agenda. Gender should also be integrated into the programmes of entrepreneurship, trade promotion, market access and others. Thus women could use all the advantages offered without any restrictions.

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UŽSIENIO PREKYBOS POLITIKA: LYČIŲ ASPEKTAS

Ona Gražina RAKAUSKIENĖ, Eglė KRINICKIENĖ

Santrauka. Pasaulio prekybos organizacijos taisyklėmis vadovaujantis vykstantis užsienio prekybos liberalizavimas kur kas palankiau veikia vyrų nei moterų gerovę ir taip daro neigiamą įtaką lyčių lygybei. Dėl istoriškai susiklosčiusios lyčių santykių ideologijos visame pasaulyje vyrai ir moterys užima skirtingas socialines-ekonomines pozicijas ir jų galimybės veikti prekybos srityje ir pasinaudoti liberalizacijos teikiamais privalumais veikia moterų diskriminavimo linkme. Atsižvelgiant į tai, kad užsienio prekyba yra svarbus ekonomikos plėtros objektas, apimantis tokias strategines plėtros sritis kaip žemės ūkis, paslaugos, investicijos, būtina integruoti lyčių aspektą formuojant užsienio prekybos politiką nacionaliu ir tarptautiniu lygiu. Taip būtų išvengta moterų diskriminavimo ir sudarytos sąlygos panaudoti užgniaužtą moterų potencialą, prisidedant prie užsienio prekybos, o kartu ir pasaulio ekonomikos plėtros.

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PECULIARITIES OF TEACHERS' MOTIVATION TO WORK CREATIVELY

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Abstract. The goal of the study was to evaluate which source of motivation predicts teachers' creativity. 250 teachers participated in the study. They filled out an anonymous questionnaire consisting of 29 items, which were divided into four scales. The variables measured were subjective creativity, goal internalization motivation, intrinsic process motivation and instrumental motivation. The validity of the scales was estimated using factor analysis. The reliability of the scales was estimated using the Cronbach alpha coefficient. The results of correlation and binary logistic regression analysis indicated that all three motivational sources are correlating with creativity ($p < 0.01$), but goal internalization motivation is the only source predicting teachers' creativity ($p < 0.01$). The teachers that are driven by goal internalization motivation are likely to work creatively.

JEL classification: Z10.

Keywords: teacher, subjective creativity, intrinsic process motivation, goal internalization motivation, instrumental motivation.

Raktažodžiai: mokytojas, subjektyvus kūrybiškumas, būdingų procesų motyvacija, instrumentinė motyvacija.

1. Introduction

Considering creativity as a very important subject in contemporary educational practice and research, there are many different studies describing teachers' creativity. Creativity in the domain of teaching is defined according to recommendations of the National Advisory Committee on Creative and Cultural Education (NACCCE, 1999) as *teaching creatively* and *teaching for creativity*. The scientists defined creativity as a teacher's ability to use students' imagination in the way that makes curriculum interesting and innovative (NACCCE, 1999). Teaching for creativity is defined as a tool to develop students' creative thinking abilities, imagination and other creativity related abilities that make teaching effective (NACCCE, 1999). Teaching creatively is interpreted as