

Notes

Chapter 1

1. WTO 2005a.
2. Ranis and Stewart 2005.
3. World Bank 2005.
4. Kelsey 2004.
5. Rodriguez and Rodrik 1999.
6. Patnaik and Chandrasekhar 1996.
7. Other studies also confirm this. For example, see Levine and Renelt (1992) and Wacziarg (2001).
8. The distinctions between the roles of the WTO Secretariat, the limitations of the Agreements and the rigid positions of some of the WTO members are not always well understood.
9. An earlier, very similar conceptualization in the context of trade may be seen in Waglé and Gibbs (2003), which was later incorporated in Montes and Memis (2005). The idea originates from Mahbub ul-Haq (1995).

Chapter 2

1. World Bank 2005.
2. World Bank 2005.
3. UNCTAD 1999a; 1999b.
4. Santos-Paulino and Thirlwall 2004.
5. UNCTAD 2004a.
6. Dollar and Kraay 2001; Rodriguez and Rodrik 1999.
7. Hossain 2001; Keong et al. 2003.
8. Acharya and Chaudhri 2001.
9. World Bank 2005.
10. This slow progress has contributed to slow progress at the international level. In 2002, there were 815 million hungry people in the world, according to the United Nations (2005). FAO estimates show that since the World Food Summit benchmark period of 1990-92, the number of hungry in the world has declined by only 9 million. 'More alarming still, the number has actually increased over the most recent five years for which numbers are available. In three of the four developing regions, more people were undernourished in 2000-2002

than had been the case in 1995-97. Only Latin America and the Caribbean registered a modest reduction in the number of hungry people' (FAO 2004a).

11. FAO 2004a; 2004b.
12. Over the 1990-92 to 2000-02 period as a whole, the proportion of people living with insufficient food declined from 25 to 22 per cent in South Asia, from 18 to 13 per cent in South-East Asia and from 16 to 11 per cent in East Asia. As a result, in East and South-East Asia the number of hungry people declined by 47 and 12 million respectively, while in South Asia it rose by 15 million. (United Nations 2005).
13. United Nations 2005.
14. United Nations 2005.
15. United Nations 2005.
16. United Nations 2005.
17. United Nations 2005.
18. Reinert 2005.
19. Palanivel 2006.

Chapter 3

1. FAO 2004b.
2. FAO 2004a.
3. FAO 2004a.
4. FAO 2004a.
5. FAO 2004a.
6. Einarsson 2001.
7. Aksoy 2005.
8. OECD 2005.
9. The 'Green Box' is the term used to denote domestic support policies that are not subject to reduction commitments under the Agreement on Agriculture. These policies are said to affect trade minimally, and include support such as research, extension, food security stocks, disaster payments, and structural adjustment programmes. Direct payments to producers delinked from production (decoupled payments) also fall under the Green Box.

10. The 'Blue Box' denotes the set of provisions in the Agreement on Agriculture that exempts from reduction commitments those payments to producers received under production limiting programmes – if they are based on fixed area and yields or a fixed number of head of livestock, or if they are made on 85 per cent or less of base level of production.
11. The full cost of production for soybeans was \$7.34 per bushel in 2002, but the product was exported at \$5.48 per bushel. Maize, which cost \$3.08 per bushel to produce, was exported at \$2.69 per bushel, and rice was exported at \$11.80 though it was produced at a cost of \$18.26 per bushel (IATP 2004).
12. FAO 2004c.
13. FAO 2004c.
14. Dhar 2004a.
15. Aksoy 2005.
16. FAO 2004c.
17. FAO 2004a.
18. FAO 2003a.
19. Bhattasali, Li and Martin 2004.
20. Madeley 2000; FAO 1999a.
21. FAO 1999a.
22. FAO 2004b.
23. It was only recently, in 2002, that Nepal's civil code of 1963 was amended giving women better property rights, like allowing them to inherit an equal share in their husband's property without qualification of age or duration of marriage and retention of rights after widowhood or remarriage.
24. Anderson 2003.
25. McCulloch 2004.
26. Dillon 2001.
27. Conroy, Murray and Rosset 1996.
28. Following trade negotiations crafted by the General Council of the WTO in July 2004, the 'basic concepts, principles and effectiveness' of the Green Box remain untouched, subject to a review to ensure that its trade-distorting effects are 'minimal'. Further, not only were members allowed to take recourse to existing forms of Blue Box support, but new measures were to be negotiated subject to the condition that such payments will be less trade-distorting than aggregate measure of support measures.
29. This primarily came in the form of an agreement to substantially reduce, based on negotiations, the sum total of Final Bound levels of the Aggregate Measure of Support (AMS), *de minimis* (or minimal acceptable) support and Blue Box measures. Such reduction was to occur through a tiered formula involving larger reductions by those currently providing higher levels of support, leading to some 'harmonization' of support levels. In particular, the framework required that there would be a minimal reduction in such support to 80 per cent of preexisting levels in the first year and throughout the period of implementation. Finally, while a major compromise in the form of the continuation of the Blue Box had been made, a promise to cap Blue Box support at 5 per cent of the value of production had been included.
30. This definition draws on two established concepts, Indication of Source (IS) and Appellation of Origin (AO), which trace their formal origins to the 1893 Paris Convention and the 1958 Lisbon Convention on Appellations of Origin and their Registration respectively. IS refers generally to any expression or sign used to indicate that a product originates in a country, or a specific place (e.g., Made in Mongolia), while AO refers to the geographical name of a country or locality (e.g., Champagne), which serves to designate a product originating therein whose characteristics are exclusively or essentially due to that geographical environment. While all Appellations of Origin are clearly Indications of Source, the converse is not necessarily true.
31. UNDP 1999.
32. Consumers International 2005.
33. This imbalance in the TRIPS agreement was a result of deals done between major players at the 1990 Brussels Ministerial Conference. At that point, few developing countries showed much interest in GIs. A coalition of developing and developed countries is now, therefore, seeking to redress this imbalance by extending additional protection to products other than wines and spirits. They clearly have equity and logic on their side, though they are struggling to prove that weaker protection has actually caused economic losses (Rangnekar 2003).
34. WTO 2002a.
35. FAO 2005.
36. FAO, FISHSTAT Online Database.
37. FAO 1999b.

38. FAO 2000.
 39. FAO 2003b.
 40. FAO 2002.
 41. They now use the Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point (HACCP) systems. The international regulatory framework for fish safety and quality is embodied in the WTO agreements on the application of Sanitary and Phytosanitary (SPS) Measures and Technical Barriers to Trade (TBT), and the standards, guidelines and recommendations developed by the relevant committees of the *Codex Alimentarius*. These safety and quality concepts are also enshrined in the Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries, particularly Articles 6 and 11 (FAO 2004). The HACCP-based food safety and quality system has been fully enforced from December 1999 in the US and is also part of the EU food safety standard. In December 2000, the EU introduced residue-monitoring requirements for veterinary medicines in fisheries products from third countries. In March 2001, it further introduced requirements for monitoring heavy metal contamination in a wide range of foods, including fish products.
 42. Humpal and Guenette 2000.
 43. FAO 1998.
 44. Scharer 2001.
 45. WTO 2001a.
 46. UNDP 1999.
 47. While enforcing GI provisions will cost much less, the fact that GIs are part of the IP parcel (together with patents, trade-marks, and copyrights) means that an isolated assessment of its separate implementation is difficult. It has been noted, however, within TRIPS it is the enforcement of IPs like patents and copyrights that are more expensive (and more likely to be foreign-owned) than GIs.
 48. Costa-Pierce 2002.
- US as a study by Adhikari and Yamamoto (2006) illustrates.
6. UNCTAD WITS-TRAINS Database.
 7. Diao and Somwaru 2001.
 8. Waglé 2005.
 9. Jha 2003.
 10. The process of abolishing quotas and freeing trade in textiles and clothing was in fact ‘end-loaded’, defeating the purpose of the ten-year transitional period.
 11. Jahan 2000.
 12. ITCB 2003.
 13. Jahan 2000.
 14. Adhikari and Yamamoto, 2006.
 15. ILO 2005b.
 16. Khondker et al. 2005.
 17. Khondker et al. 2005.
 18. Ahmed et al. 2005.
 19. Brooke 2004.
 20. ICFTU 2005.
 21. Kathuria, Martin and Bhardwaj 2001.
 22. Adhikari and Yamamoto 2006.
 23. Siegmann 2006.
 24. Udagedara 2003.
 25. ILO 2005b.
 26. WTO 2003a.

Chapter 4

1. European Commission 2003.
2. Diao and Somwaru 2001.
3. ILO 2005b.
4. ATMI 2003.
5. Since the publication of the ATMI report, the EU membership has expanded with the accession of 10 new member states. The enlarged EU spends more on imports of textile and clothing than the

Chapter 5

1. Rajivan 2004; 2005.
2. This chapter focuses on the human development implications of three types of service – involving movement of the seller, the buyer or the services themselves. Of course, there are other types of services, such as environmental services (water and sanitation, telecom, energy services, health services, education and financial services, etc.), many of which also have positive and negative human development implications. Due to limitations of space and time, a collective decision was taken to limit the scope of this chapter. The human development implications of these other services could be a useful area for research.
3. Huy et al. 2003.
4. Chanda 2003a; Ghosh 2004.
5. DOLE 2001; Buchan and Sochalski 2003.
6. Manalansan 2002.
7. Chanda 2004.
8. WTO 2005b.

9. NASSCOM-Hewitt 2003.
10. Kearney 2004.
11. Richards and Margolis 2004.
12. Economic Times 2002.
13. UNCTAD 2003a.
14. World Tourism Organisation 2005a; 2005b.
15. ILO 2005c.

Chapter 6

1. The precise definition for an LDC is available in *Voices of the Least Developed Countries of Asia and the Pacific*, UNDP/UNESCAP, 2005.
2. UNDP and UNESCAP 2005.
3. UNCTAD 2004a.
4. World Bank 2004a.
5. UNCTAD 2004a.
6. Winters and Martins 2004.
7. Thomas 2004.
8. UNDP 2005a.
9. WTO 2001d.
10. The export concentration index takes a value between zero and 1, where zero represents the lowest concentration and 1 represents the highest. While the non-LDC world average is 0.2 for the 1990s, Kiribati had a concentration index of 0.73 in 1995. See Commonwealth Secretariat and UNCTAD (2001).
11. Adhikari 2004.
12. WTO 2005b.
13. Adhikari 2003.
14. WTO 2001a.
15. WTO 2003a.
16. Kanniah 2003.
17. Ognitvsev et al. 2001.
18. Butkeviciene et al. 2001.
19. Finger and Schuler 1999.
20. The existing literature on the impact of WTO accession is not only scarce, but also highly specialized and not necessarily relevant from a human development perspective. For example, Evenett and Gage (2005) only focus on the impact on trade flows of four countries after WTO membership and fails to establish any clear cut linkage between WTO membership and increased trade flow – mainly exports; Rose (2004) challenges the argument that GATT/WTO

membership could actually increase trade; and Subramanian and Wei (2003) conclude that the WTO promotes trade, strongly but unevenly. Due to these limitations, much of the analysis in this section deals with prospective impact, based on the available literature.

21. Rodrik 1997.
22. UNDP 1999.
23. UNDP 1999.
24. ADB/UNAIDS 2004.
25. Busse 2004.
26. Adhikari 2005a.
27. Waglé and Gibbs 2003.
28. UNCTAD 2004b.
29. The Committee is at present discussing five LDC Agreement-specific proposals including greater flexibility for LDCs to take up commitments, consistent with their level of economic development; improved access for LDCs to temporary waivers regarding one or more of their obligations; duty-free and quota-free market access for goods originating from LDCs; and greater flexibility to use trade-related investment measures as a development tool.
30. Srinivasan 1999.
31. Ismail 2005.
32. UNCTAD 2004b.
33. Brenton 2003.
34. Inama 2002; Brenton 2003.
35. Stevens and Kennan 2004.
36. Anderson 2004; UN Millennium Project 2005.
37. Romalis 2003.
38. Rose 2004.
49. Puri 2005.
40. Puri 2005.
41. Puri 2005.
42. For this purpose, LDCs shall notify the Council for Trade in Goods (CTG) of such measures within two years, starting 30 days after the date of the Hong Kong declaration. If notified, LDCs will be allowed to maintain these existing measures until the end of a new transition period, lasting seven years.

Chapter 7

1. Malhotra 2006.