



Gender Perspective In Trade Policy

The Case Of Uganda's National Trade Policy

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Gender Perspective in Trade Policy: The Case of Uganda's Trade Policy.

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Abstract

Development data demonstrates a strong negative correlation between gender inequality index and GDP per capita, i.e., countries with low GDP per capita exhibit high gender inequality. Integrating a gender perspective into trade policy is important because trade policies bear a redistributive effect, and a gender-sensitive trade policy could reduce barriers to female traders and increase the GDP per capita. This research seeks to examine the impact of trade policy on gender equality, identify the extent to which Uganda's trade policy is gender-responsive, and suggest ways of making the policy more gender-responsive in order to achieve inclusive economic growth. Furthermore, this research intends to draw critical attention to gender equality and trade policy design in Uganda. This study made a thorough review of literature in order to answer the research questions. It found that Ugandan women are limited in their participation in and gain from trade due to existing barriers such as weak institutions, social and cultural discrimination, barriers to accessing credit, training, information, and access to technology. Women in informal cross border trade are disregarded by Uganda's national trade policy. The lack of gender responsiveness in the trade policy is majorly attributed to lack of coherent approaches and strategies, lack of sex disaggregated data and lack of comprehensive research. This study proposes a revision of Uganda's national trade policy because there is need for in-depth integration of specific gender-related actions in the trade policy to ensure that trade-related gender needs are clearly addressed.



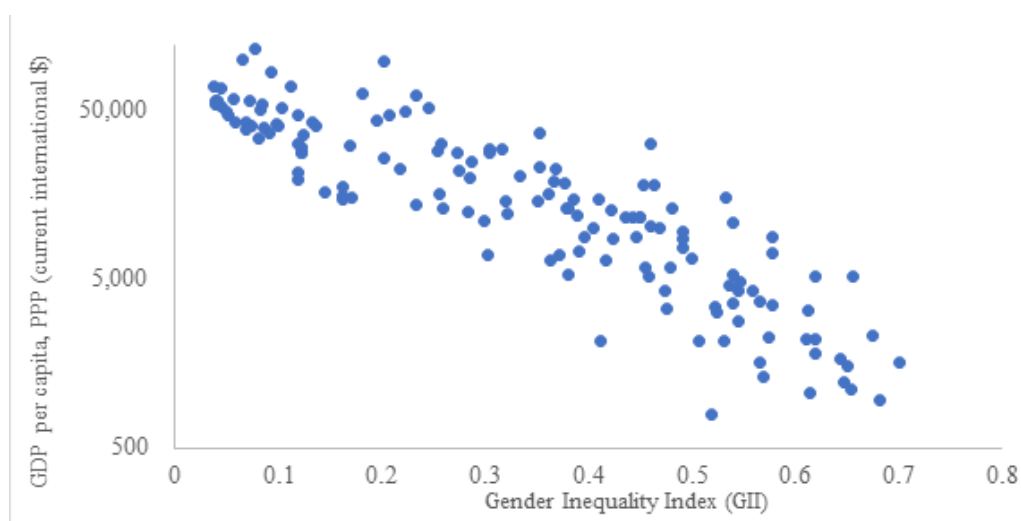
CHAPTER 1

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Background

There has recently been a momentum of mainstreaming gender perspectives in designing and implementing trade policies and bilateral agreements in countries such as Chile, Uruguay, Canada, the European Union, and multilaterally across 118 countries at the 11th Ministerial Conference of the WTO that endorsed a joint declaration of trade and women's economic empowerment (WTO, 2017; Frohmann, 2018). Incorporating a gender perspective into trade policy is significant because trade policies bear a redistributive effect across people and economic sectors by either generating women's empowerment opportunities or disrupting markets operated by women- which generates a socioeconomic burden (UNCTAD, 2009). It is also evident that there exists a negative correlation (-0.79) between gender inequality and GDP per capita, i.e. countries with low GDP per capita exhibit high gender inequality. Therefore, a reduction in gender inequality through a gender-sensitive trade policy that empowers women and reduces their barriers to trade could potentially increase the GDP per capita of low-income countries like Uganda. The graph below shows the correlation between GDP per capita across 146 countries and the subsequent Gender Inequality Index (GII). The UNDP (2019) defines GII as:

Figure 1: GDP per capita, PPP Vs Gender Inequality Index (2018)



Source: Authors compilation of World Bank development indicators (2019) and UNDP Human development report (2019)

The 2019 Human Development Report ranked Uganda 127 out of 162 nations in the 2018 Gender Inequality Index, among the bottom third performers in five (5) women's socioeconomic empowerment indicators and among the medium third performers in eleven socioeconomic sustainability indicators (UNDP, 2019). Gender inequality coupled with low women's socioeconomic empowerment bears severe costs to economic growth as it reduces global competitiveness. In the Middle, East and North Africa, the OECD approximates that the losses related to the levels of gender

inequality in institutions amounted to US\$575 billion in 2011 (Ferrant & Kolev, 2016). Gender-responsive trade policies could lower the costs by enhancing opportunities for women.

Previous research highlights that trade policies have gender-differentiated outcomes due to gender disparities in access and control of resources. For example, export promotion and trade liberalization policies tend to reduce the wage and employment inequality associated with gender especially for women in blue-collar employment, however, trade liberalization may undermine the provision of public services that favour females if the loss in government revenue from reduced tariffs shrinks expenditure on services such as health and education (Fontana, 2009; Klein, Moser, & Urban, 2010; Nicita & Zarilli, 2010; Juhn, Ujhelyi, & Villegas-Sanchez, 2013). Kasente (2012) further states that gender equality issues in Uganda must be largely integrated into production value chains for women to achieve prosperity and active participation in decision making.

1.2 Problem Statement

Existing trade policy studies such as Juhn et al (2013) and Frohmann (2018) have focused on gender disparities in employment and wages which only illustrate a fraction of the links between gender and trade; it is essential to assess the effect of trade on gender via various avenues such as competition, entrepreneurship, cross border trade, and trade facilitation. Few attempts, such as Hisali (2011), EASSI (2015) and UNCTAD (2018), have been made to examine the effect of trade policy on gender equality in Uganda but a number of crucial questions remain unanswered and are addressed in this study.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

This research seeks to examine the impact of trade policy on gender equality, identify the extent to which Uganda's trade policy is gender-responsive, and suggest ways of making the policy more gender-responsive in order to achieve inclusive economic growth.

1.4 Research questions

This paper attempts to resolve the following research questions: first, what is the impact of trade policy on gender equality? Then, to what extent is Uganda's national trade policy gender-responsive? Lastly, how can Uganda formulate and implement a more gender-responsive national trade policy?

1.5 Significance of the study

This study will be of interest to researchers in the field of inclusive economic growth, women's economic empowerment, sustainable development, gender equality and African trade studies. More so, the findings of this research can assist NGOs, governments, and international organizations in designing policies for inclusive economic growth. The study also draws critical attention to gender equality and trade policy design in Uganda in order to achieve inclusive economic growth and sustainable development and evaluates the challenges to implementing a gender-responsive trade policy in the country.

1.6 Organization of the report

The rest of this paper is divided into 4 chapters as follows: Chapter 2 presents the literature review published on the trade and gender linkages in general. Chapter 3 presents a gender analysis of Uganda's trade policy to measure its responsiveness to gender equality. Chapter 4 reviews countries with gender-sensitive trade policies like Chile. Lastly, chapter 5 makes a conclusion and presents policy recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

There has been a mounting research interest on the effect of trade policy on gender equality over the last decade, particularly by international organizations and non-governmental organizations (UNDP, 2013; World Bank, 2013; Frohmann, 2017; UNCTAD, 2018). In effect, gender equality is the fifth of the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to which numerous stakeholders have committed, and 11 of the 17 goals contain gender-related indicators. Researchers have defined gender equality in various ways, but it is important to clearly define the term in relation

to public policy. Leach (2015) defines gender equality as an enhanced means of equal participation in making decisions at multiple levels. In a broader sense, LeMoyne (2011) describes gender equality as “women and men, and girls and boys, enjoying the same rights, resources, opportunities and protections” (p.1). In the context of public policy, this paper considers gender equality as equal policy outcomes for both men and women. The dictionary of trade policy terms elaborately defines trade policy as a structure of laws, regulations, agreements, and positions adopted by government to attain market access for domestic firms (WTO, 2003). This chapter examines the bearing of trade policies—ranging from import liberalization, to export expansion and trade facilitation, on gender equality.

2.2 Trade liberalization

Trade liberalization reforms executed over the years, especially through tariff cuts, restructuring of tariff rates and reduction in non-tariff barriers to pursue multilateralism have yielded positive results; however, the benefits have not been evenly distributed across gender (Bussolo & Hoyos, 2009; Fontana, 2009; Nicita & Zarrilli, 2010; Juhn, Ujhelyi, & Villegas-Sanchez, 2013; Frohmann, 2017; UNCTAD, 2018). It is not palpable that trade liberalization, especially import tariff reduction, always lowers gender inequality, however, existing research indicates that there are channels, such as competition and technology shift, by which trade liberalization can reduce gender equality.

Competitive effects of liberalization could reduce wage inequality and decrease gender inequality. For example, in the US, between 1977–1994, high competition from international trade lowered gender wage inequality and increased share of female employment in concentrated industries (Black & Brainerd, 2004).

In Colombia, Ederington et al (2009) found that between 1985 and 1991 companies in sectors that had the greatest tariff reductions had the biggest rise in female share in labour participation after the 31.4% average reduction in import tariffs was implemented to align with the World Trade Organization rules. On the contrary, Menon and Rodgers (2009) found India’s trade liberalization policy reforms increased competition in the manufacturing sector and undermined women’s negotiating power which increased the wage gap. This suggests the need to pay attention to the competitive skill set of women before trade liberalization.

Furthermore, induced technology upgrading as a result of trade liberalization can increase women’s productivity, make jobs less physically challenging, and thus increase women’s opportunities. Weinberg (2000) observed that a rise in computer usage in the 1970s and 1980s explained more than half of rise in demand for female labour in the US.

An interesting study in Germany between 1979 and 1999 found that adoption of computers and technology skills explained about 41% of the drop in the wage gap between men and women (Black & Spitz-Oener, 2010). Juhn, et al (2013) analyzed the effect of trade liberalization on gender inequality in Mexico and discovered that new technology-enhanced women's relative productivity in blue-collar jobs and increased their wages, but no effect was found amongst white-collar jobs, where the comparative need of physically challenging skills is unlikely to change. Available research focuses predominantly on female labour participation and the wage gap, however, there is need to examine the impact of trade liberalization on female-led businesses.

2.3 Export expansion

Extant literature suggests that the effects of export expansion on gender inequality hinge on female intensity and capital intensity of exporting industries in which a country has a comparative advantage (Caraway, 2007; Bussolo & Hoyos, 2009; World Bank, 2013; UNCTAD, 2015).

Export expansion enhances female job opportunities in countries with comparative advantage in women-intensive sectors, such as textiles and clothing, as a result of cheap low skilled force (Anderson, 2005; Caraway, 2007; Bussolo & Hoyos, 2009). In a significant study by Fontana (2004), he employed a computable general equilibrium model to compare gender effects of export expansion in Bangladesh's principal export – garments, which is mainly female and labour-intense – and Zambia's chief export, a mineral resource that is mainly male and capital intense. He found that in Bangladesh, females profited from export expansion, while in Zambia, females did not benefit. This further illustrates that expansion in female intensive export sectors could lead to an improvement in gender equality.

On the other hand, a significant study by Gaddis and Pieters (2014) revealed that export expansion increased gender inequality where there was an increase in the demand for flexibility by exporting firms and women were perceived to be less flexible compared to men due to domestic care responsibilities. They analyzed the Norwegian manufacturing sector for the period of 1996–2010 and found that destinations with a short overlap in business hours increased the wage inequality between men and women among workers with a college education. Export promotion could increase gender inequality among educated workers through the need for flexibility and commitment by employers. Since export promotion demands high flexibility, women face a high trade-off such as raising children. This is evident in Do, Levchenko and Raddatz (2014) analysis of 1980–2007 export data of 145 countries that revealed low fertility rates for countries with a comparative advantage in female-intensive sectors.

Furthermore, female labour participation rises in non-competitive sectors as men leave female intensive industries for new jobs provided by the export sector (Sauré & Zoabi, 2009). This reduces the benefits available to women from export expansion. More so, formal jobs in export areas are more skill-intensive and offer better wages and training opportunities compared to those in the informal sectors; this further increases the gender disparities in wages and training. Christian, Gamberoni and Reis (2013) reveal that majority of females in developing countries are more apt to be informal workers compared to males which leave them vulnerable. It should be further noted that intellectual property laws have not provided for women's exceptional role in the conservation of customs and conventional knowledge in areas like food processing, which is utilized for exports (EASSI, 2015). Literature suggests that gender inequality is intensified when export expansion policies do not assimilate the need for improved skills and different gender roles in the export sectors.

2.4 Trade facilitation

WTO (2003) defines trade facilitation as the removal of barriers to the movement of goods across borders, including ease of customs processes, cooperation, publication of trade information, discussions, among others. Existing research examining gender dimensions of trade facilitation in Sub-Saharan Africa shows that the small size and informal nature of cross-border trade in the central and eastern parts of Africa put female traders in a weak position regarding interruptions caused by trade barriers; all the while, border officials who are mostly male create

discrimination that has led to many cases of sexual, verbal, and physical harassment of females at various borders (Brenton et al., 2011). Similarly, Ellis et al (2007) and Blackden (2006) similarly found that women are prone to violence, abuse, stigmatization, and are liable to suffer from the imposition of uninformed taxes largely due to inadequate information and access to technology. This makes women abandon formal border crossings and use unregulated informal means.

Factors that encourage informal trade among women include delays in the trade process, various taxation rules, inequity in access to finance and government assistance (ESCAP, 2013; World Bank, 2016), as well as several barriers in regulation when starting a business (Babbitt, et al. 2015). Weak institutions in ensuring markets work efficiently is another reason why women remain in informal trade (De Soto, 2000). Additionally, trade policies and institutions tend to neglect informal traders' needs, especially that of women traders (Brenton, et al. 2013; Njikam & Tchouassi, 2010). Yet, institutional support that streamlines the trade process, reduces costs for businesses and eliminates discrimination is the key to making the transition from the informal to the formal sector.

As the institutional barriers to women's participation in trade increase, there is an urgent need for more women representation in decision-making processes related to trade facilitation and logistics, in order to eliminate the barriers that hinder women. However, although women's participation in such decision-making processes has gained significant attention in the last few years, women still contribute a minor part of the process. For instance, while women's participation in parliament doubled in 2016, this is the only representative of just 22.8 % of women in the world (UN, Women, 2017).

2.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, the links between trade policy and gender equality are multifaceted. Comprehensive knowledge of channels through which trade policy affects gender, such as competition, technology, gender roles, skills, etc. is crucial in attaining gender equality. The literature reveals that trade policy reforms such as trade liberalization could increase gender inequality when there is no attention paid to the competitive skill set of women before implementing trade liberalization. Also, export promotion strategies of trade policy could be detrimental to gender equality if such policy does not accommodate the need for improved skills and different gender roles in the export sectors. Furthermore, trade policy that lacks gender-sensitive trade facilitation measures could increase trade barriers for women in the informal sector, especially at the borders. Gender-sensitive trade policy should be coherent through trade facilitation and skills development and supplemented by effective and efficient institutions and a supportive legal regime in both formal and informal sectors.

CHAPTER 3

3.0 Gender Analysis of Uganda's Trade Policy

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an analysis of Uganda's gender profile and a review of its trade policy and strategies with an emphasis on the gender responsiveness of the trade instruments. In 2007, Uganda adopted its first National Trade Policy (NTP) that combined and updated the existing trade-related policies. Uganda's trade policy focuses on nurturing private sector competitiveness and supporting sectors at both domestic and international levels to create wealth, employment, and enhanced social welfare. Out of the 10 priorities of the NTP, only one comes close to addressing gender issues in trade i.e. "boosting the capacities of the socially and economically disadvantaged to trade" (Ministry of Trade and Industry, 2007). This priority does not specifically address women but generalizes them among the socially and economically disadvantaged, despite the fact that Ugandan women face several barriers that impede their economic opportunities and business growth.

3.2 Uganda's Gender Profile

3.2.1 Economic gender status

In 2018, the contribution of the agricultural sector to Uganda's GDP stood at 24.2 percent, industry at 19.9 percent, and the services sector at 47.6 percent (Plecher, 2020). 77 percent of people employed in the agriculture sector are women (NPA, 2015). Existing research also reveals that 88.2% of economically active Ugandan women are self-employed, of which 40% are private business owners - mostly informal small enterprises, and approximately 29.5% are exporters (Uganda Export Promotion Board, 2008). Despite constituting a large composition of the Ugandan economy, Ugandan women's contribution to trade is however not reflected in their income and control of wealth. More so, the informal sector does not provide social protection for women in terms of pensions, health insurance and job or business loss.

In terms of access to finance, the FinScope Uganda Survey shows that more women compared to men are dependent on informal financial services (FinScope, 2018). This implies that women have low access to formal credit and are left vulnerable to informal lenders who could be manipulative. The survey also reveals that female adults are 10 percentage points less likely to own a mobile phone compared to men and 5% less likely to have access to internet. This suggests that women are more likely to be left behind in Uganda's increasingly digitizing economy especially in financial services. It should be noted that the internet unwraps opportunities for women and provides the flexibility to prevail over time and mobility limitations.

In Uganda, land is the key source of wealth and credit for most citizens and women are still disadvantaged in terms of land ownership. One-third of landowners are women; though in Kampala, the capital city, women represent 18% of landowners (African Development Bank Group, 2016). Limited access to resources inhibits women's full participation in trade.

3.2.2 Socio-cultural norms

Socio-cultural norms play a key role in increasing or reducing gender inequality in any society by governing social standards of acceptable and inappropriate behaviour. Uganda's discriminatory norms are manifested in the following ways; first, there is a widespread

acceptance of violence as an appropriate method of resolving spousal conflict; secondly, bride price reinforces men's right to exert power and control over women and resources in a home; thirdly, the persistence of early marriage for girls and pregnant teenagers, while men are expected to marry later; and lastly, the domestic care tasks are considered to be women's work.

In addition, tradition and cultural norms surrounding women's participation in economic activities such as fishing, construction, among others and control of resources prohibits them from benefiting from trade (Hisali, 2011). Women have to rely on men's physical abilities and ownership of resources in order to generate some income for their families. This lack of ownership of resources increases women's inferiority to men, which could lead to domestic violence, lack of ability to take care of children and prostitution- which are all detrimental to Uganda's economy.

In a survey conducted by the African Development Bank, nearly one in three Ugandans believed that women should not have equal access to land as men, and 67% of the population thought that land matters should be the responsibility of men (African Development Bank Group, 2016). These discriminatory social norms and attitudes reinforce women's marginalization.

3.2.3 Gender gap comparison

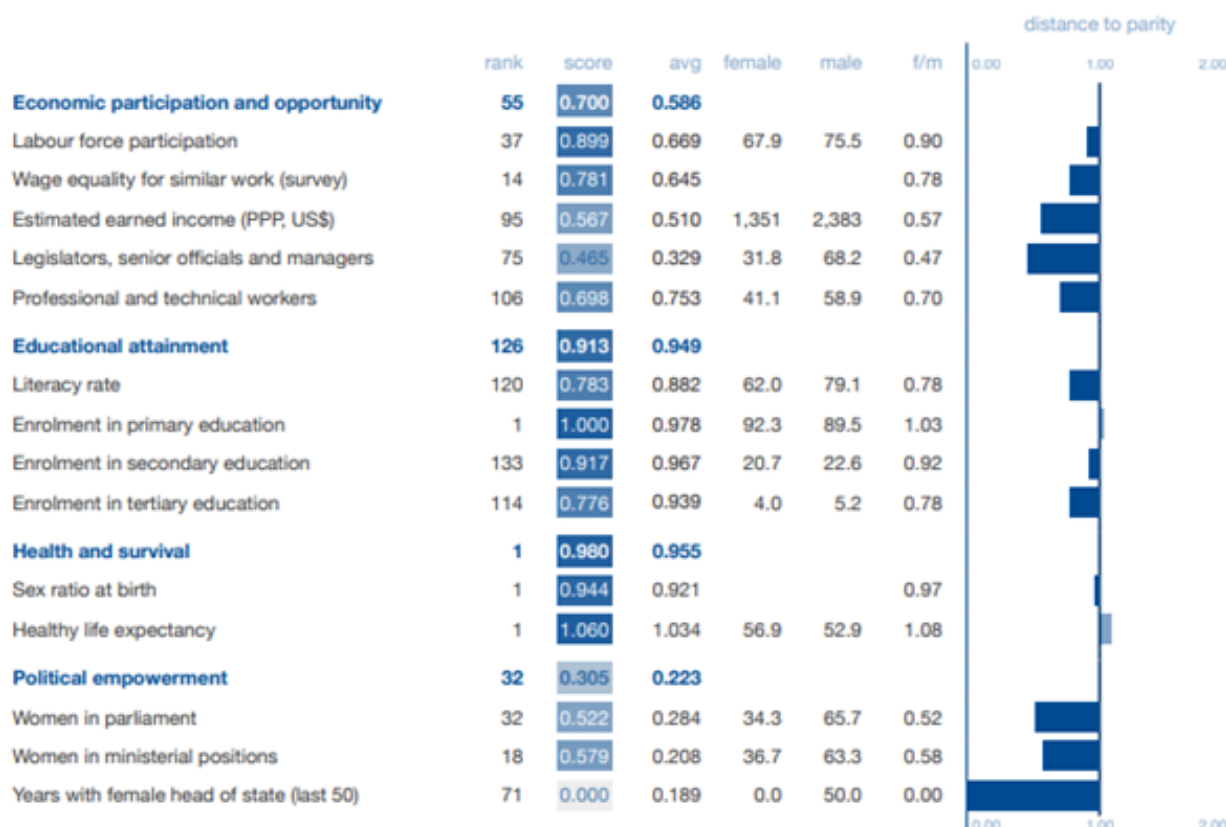
This section takes a deep dive into the performance of gender equality indicators in Uganda. It also makes a comparison with the performance of Iceland, the most gender-equal country globally. Data from the 2018 Global Gender Gap report was used for this analysis (World Economic Forum, 2018).

Table 1: Uganda Vs Iceland performance

Key Indicators	Uganda	Iceland	Var (Ug-Ic)
GDP (US\$ billions)	25.89	23.91	
GDP per capita (constant '11, intl. \$, PPP)	1,698	46,483	
Total population (1,000s)	41,487.97	332.47	
Population growth rate (%)	3.25	0.79	
Population sex ratio (female/male)	1.01	0.99	
Human Capital Index score	58.73	71.44	
Global Gender Gap score	0.724	0.858	-0.134
Global Gender Gap rank (out of 149)	43rd	1st	
Economic participation and opportunity	0.700	0.793	-0.093
Educational attainment	0.913	0.999	-0.086
Health and survival	0.980	0.968	0.012
Political empowerment	0.305	0.674	-0.369

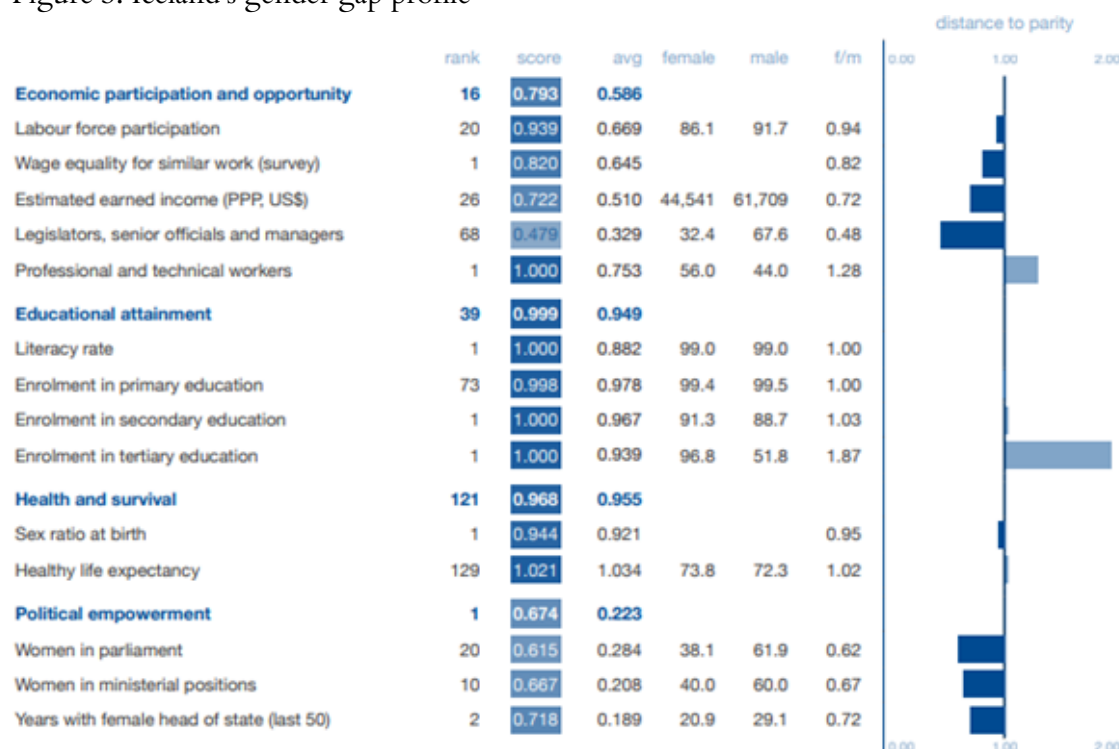
Source: World Economic Forum (2018)

Figure 2: Uganda's gender gap profile in detail



Source: World Economic Forum (2018)

Figure 3: Iceland's gender gap profile



Source: World Economic Forum (2018)

The Gender Gap Index captures female-to-male ratios measure gender-based gaps in access to resources and opportunities in countries. Overall, Uganda ranks 43rd out of 149 countries in the gender gap index, with its biggest gender gap being political empowerment- that is, the gap between men and women at the highest level of political decision-making positions, and economic participation and opportunity- that is, the gap between men and women in labour force participation rates, remuneration rates, leadership and participation in different types of jobs. Across the four sub-indexes, the largest gender gap difference compared to Iceland is in Political Empowerment, which is about 0.4.

There has never been a woman as a head of state in the last 50 years in Uganda, and only 36.7% of ministers and 34.3% of parliamentarians are women. This is an area of improvement that the government can utilize in mainstreaming gender in trade policy. However, there are bright spots, where significant equality has been achieved such as health and survival (0.980) as well education attainment (0.913). These areas can be leveraged to increase the participation and empowerment of women in trade.

3.3 Gender analysis of trade policy instruments

Uganda's trade policy promotes women empowerment for increased participation in trade under one of the actions of achieving the policy objective in relation to cross-cutting issues. The policy action states that "the government shall encourage the empowerment of disadvantaged groups; particularly women, youths and people with disabilities with a view to enabling them to participate more in trade" (Ministry of Trade and Industry, 2007). However, there are no detailed specific actions following the statement and the policy makes no mention of the inclusion of women in regard to trade facilitation, competition, and enhancing their export production.

EASSI (2015) report reveals that 16% of Uganda's exports in 2012 were informal cross border exports and the majority of the actors were women. In spite of their crucial role in economic growth, the national trade policy and its implementation plan do not have targeted actions on shielding women from informal and cross-border trade barriers, such as lack of information, abuse by the trade officials and exploitation.

Despite Uganda's NTP efforts to enable equal participation of underprivileged groups in the society, the policy lacks inclusiveness of gender issues on women's access to training, credit finance, information, and markets. This could be due to a lack of recognition of women's potential and awareness of their challenges during the consultation process prior to policy development. Furthermore, the Ministry of Trade Industry and Cooperatives (MTIC) which has the principal responsibility of constructing and implementing the national trade policy did not consider the Ministry of Gender as a key stakeholder in the trade policy formulation process (EASSI, 2015). Coordination of efforts between the two ministries could provide an opportunity of mainstreaming gender perspectives in Uganda's trade policy.

In addition, Uganda lacks sex-disaggregated data and comprehensive research on key trade variables such as informal cross border trade, women entrepreneurial challenges from market liberalization, among others- which leaves these variables unrecognized in the policy formulation process (African Development Bank Group, 2016). Gender-disaggregated data and research and collaborative efforts by the different ministries in Uganda would enable the design and implementation of complementary policies aimed at maximizing opportunities for women.

CHAPTER 4

4.0 Case Studies: Gender Sensitive Trade Policy

4.1 Introduction

This section reviews notable gender-sensitive trade policies and identifies the key challenges in implementing a gender-responsive trade policy. Existing programs to support female empowerment in trade globally have lacked policy support. However, recently, a few countries, such as Chile, Canada, and Uruguay have included gender-specific chapters in their trade agreements with the most notable being Chile.

4.2 Chile

Chile has pioneered the integration of a gender perspective into its trade policy through the addition of gender-related chapters into its free trade agreements. In the period of 2016 and 2017, Chile discussed gender chapters in its trade arrangements with Canada, Argentina, Uruguay, Pacific Alliance, and the European Union (Frohmann, 2017). The chapters seek to acknowledge the value of integrating a gender perspective in trade policy, with the objective of ensuring that the benefits of economic growth are shared fairly by improving women's access and reducing barriers. The policy also recognizes that women's participation in the workforce, access and ownership of resources contribute to inclusive economic growth, competitiveness, and the well-being of society. High political will of different stakeholders, especially country leaders, enabled the achievement of gender chapters in Chile's trade agreements (Frohmann, 2017).

In 2016, the Ministry of Women and Gender Equity was created to design policies and programs to support women in an effort to decrease gender discrimination. Moreover, the General Directorate of International Economic Relations (DIRECON), in charge of trade policy design and execution, incorporated a gender approach in its agenda, pinpointing the important gaps where gender-sensitive measures could be tackled. These two organizations worked together and created a distinguished department responsible for following up gender discussions, enhancing established gender policies, and managing trade-related gender programs (López & Muñoz, 2018).

DIRECON's approach comprised of a Management Upgrade Program to incorporate gender perspectives into trade policy, gender-based impact assessment and a gender-based trade promotion policy (López et al, 2019). To add to the design of gender-sensitive policies, DIRECON conducted a survey of 3,195 companies led by women and found that 6.4 percent of them recorded exports in 2016 (Friedli, 2017). It then got involved in trade-related gender programs and forums such as participation in integration mechanism and multilateral integration forums such as Technical Group of Gender Alliance of the Pacific, Policy Partnership on Women, and the Economy Working Group, among others. Friedli (2017) reveals that from one of the programs - "MUJER EXPORTA", 804 companies led by women benefited from coaching, trade missions and workshops.

4.3 Canada

In 2017, the Government of Canada, through the Ministry of International Trade signed Canada's first trade and gender chapter in the Canada-Chile FTA and has further modernized its trade agreement with Israel and the European Union.

The existing trade and gender chapters were formulated to achieve the following four key objectives along with elements of corporate social responsibility, labour, environment and SMEs: first, to reaffirm the significance of gender-sensitive trade policies; secondly, to reaffirm Canada's commitment to WTO agreements on gender and trade; thirdly, to provide a framework for agreements on gender and trade; and lastly, to establish a dedicated trade and gender committee and other institutional provisions. Giroux (2019) reveals that the Canadian experience involved developing detailed work plans for committees such as objectives, implementation plan, expected results and timelines. It also included a commitment to public reporting on activities and results, exchanging information on gender equality laws, policies, and programs, exchanging information and practices on crafting gender-responsive trade policies, and the collection and analysis of gender-disaggregated data.

As a result of this approach, Canada has been involved in various activities such as; the Gender-Based Analysis Plus (GBA+) workshop for Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) lead officials, APEC Women and Trade Workshop in Chile, Business Women in International Trade (BWIT) mission to the EU, video conferences to exchange information on gender equality laws, policies and programs, and a workshop on Trade and Gender (Giroux, 2019). The government of Canada has prioritized the inclusion of gender chapters in its trade agreements.

4.4 Challenges

The major challenges faced by the implementation of gender-aware trade policies are scarcity of sex-disaggregated data, lack of gender indicators, and deficiency of implementation methods and methodologies for monitoring and evaluation (Frohmann, 2017). There is a need for statistical analysis of trade with a gender focus. More so, satisfactory data is needed on the effect of trade on women through several variables such as employment, entrepreneurship, technology, consumption, social services, roles in the household, etc. in order to allow for a gender perspective as an input to trade policy.

As stated by Giroux (2019), another challenge is overcoming resistance such as the notions that trade is gender-neutral, no place for gender considerations in Free Trade Agreements, and avoiding the gender topic totally. Proving positive gender outcomes from gender-based analysis of trade policy could persuade the key stakeholders.

CHAPTER 5

5.0 Conclusions and Policy Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

The relationship between trade policy and gender equality is multidimensional and requires comprehensive knowledge of channels through which trade policy affects gender, such as competition, technology, education, gender roles, skills, among others. This research reveals that Ugandan women are limited in their participation and gains from trade due to existing barriers such as weak institutions, social and cultural discrimination, barriers to accessing credit, training, information, as well as access to technology and innovations.

We find that Uganda's trade policy promotes women empowerment to enable their participation in trade; however, there are no detailed specific actions following the statement and the policy makes no mention of the inclusion of women with regard to trade facilitation, competition, and enhancing their export production. Furthermore, women in informal cross border trade have been disregarded by Uganda's national trade policy. The lack of gender responsiveness of the policy could be attributed to the lack of recognition of women's potential and awareness of their challenges during the consultation process prior to policy development, lack of coherent approaches and strategies, and lack of sex-disaggregated data and comprehensive research on key trade variables such as informal cross-border trade. All these leave women unrecognized in the policy formulations process.

5.2 Recommendations

Despite the limited gender-disaggregated data in Uganda on key trade areas, it is recognized that there exists a gap between women's share of ownership and control of productive resources and men's share. Therefore, drawing from Chile's example, engendering Uganda's National Trade Policy needs to be done in the context of cited gender issues, instituted in national and international programs and forums, and relevant stakeholders engaged- especially the top political leadership.

I propose a revision of the national trade policy since its last update was in 2007 because there is need for in-depth incorporation of specific gender-related actions in the trade policy to ensure that gender needs are plainly tackled. Prior to the revision, the Ministry of Trade Industry and Cooperatives (MCIT), together with the Ministry of Gender should conduct a national survey of the gender profile of Uganda's economy in order to collect data related to the skills and wage gap, social and cultural women discrimination, informal cross border trade, access and ownership of resources and information, among others.

Finally, MCIT should implement a monitoring mechanism that captures the performance and experiences of women traders, especially in micro cross-border businesses, so as to guide proper planning. A revised gender-sensitive trade policy would reduce barriers to women economic participation, improve the efficiency of the value chain especially in agriculture, enhance productivity, foster economic growth, and increase real income for women. Gender-sensitive trade policies help promote inclusive and sustainable trade, and trade policy can be used as a great tool to facilitate economic empowerment for women.

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