



# Pathways to Gender-Inclusive Economic Development in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Sectoral Analysis

## Uganda Report



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Reading note: The general and sectoral barriers to and drivers of women's economic empowerment opportunities reported on in the Pathways Study are more similar than different. For the purpose of sectoral-level stakeholders, this report provides a full discussion of these barriers and drivers per sector. While this inevitably results in some repetition across the report, the intention is for each sectoral brief to stand as an independent piece/extract if necessary.

Pathways to Gender-Inclusive Economic Development in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Sectoral Analysis (Pathways Study) is a collaborative effort among various stakeholders (organisations, individual researchers and gender experts) who joined forces and expertise to achieve a common goal - developing and implementing strategies to strengthen women's economic empowerment in Uganda.

These include:

- The Pathways Study Steering Committee (SC) which provided financial and/or technical support for the Pathways project including: (i) International Cooperative Research Group (ICRG), which is the research arm of the United States Overseas Cooperative Development Council (U.S. ODCD); (ii) United States Agency for International Development (USAID); (iii) Mastercard Foundation; (iv) International Development Research Centre (IDRC); (v) United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women); (vi) the African Trade Policy Centre (ATPC), which is a specialised unit within the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UN ECA); and (vii) Euromonitor International Ltd. SC partners also provided directional advice guidance in the making of key decisions, supported by making referrals and connections with key country stakeholders and reviewed draft reports.
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We would also like to thank the research participants who engaged with us throughout this study. This work would not be possible without the support of those who took the time to share their professional and sometimes personal experiences. While our work can never do justice to the multitude of voices of women (and men) working on gender equality, we hope that this report stays true to the spirit of your responses.

We are keen for the findings of the Pathways Study to guide research, policy development and implementation, programming (planning and execution) and advocacy efforts - creating a unified voice, clear(er) direction and sustainable action for improved women's economic empowerment in Uganda.

*Pathways Study Steering Committee*

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|---------------|--|---------------|---|
| <b>AfDB</b>   | African Development Bank   | <b>ICRW</b>   | International Center for Research on Women              |
| <b>ATPC</b>   | African Trade Policy Centre  | <b>ICT</b>    | Information and Communications Technology               |
| <b>AUTO</b>   | Association of Uganda Tour Operators                                       | <b>IDRC</b>   | International Development Research Centre               |
| <b>AUWOTT</b> | Association of Uganda Women in Tourism Trade                               | <b>IPV</b>    | Intimate Partner Violence                               |
| <b>BMU</b>    | Beach Management Unit  | <b>ISIC</b>   | International Standard Industrial Classification        |
| <b>BTVET</b>  | Business Technical Vocational Education and Training                       | <b>IWI</b>    | International Women's Initiative                        |
| <b>CEDAW</b>  | Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women | <b>MACE</b>   | Manyakabi Area Cooperative Enterprise                   |
| <b>EMI</b>    | Euromonitor International  | <b>MDAs</b>   | Ministries, Departments and Agencies                    |
| <b>FGM</b>    | Female Genital Mutilation  | <b>MFPED</b>  | Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development  |
| <b>FLFP</b>   | Female Labour Force Participation  | <b>MGLSD</b>  | Ministry for Gender, Labour and Social Development      |
| <b>GALS</b>   | Gender Action Learning System  | <b>NAADS</b>  | National Agriculture Advisory Services                  |
| <b>GBV</b>    | Gender-Based Violence  | <b>NACCAU</b> | National Arts and Cultural Crafts Association of Uganda |
| <b>GCCE</b>   | Gumutindo Coffee Cooperative Enterprise                                    | <b>NAWOU</b>  | National Association of Women's Organisation in Uganda  |
| <b>GDP</b>    | Gross Domestic Product   | <b>NRM</b>    | National Resistance Movement                            |
| <b>HDI</b>    | Human Development Index  |               |   |
| <b>ICA</b>    | International Cooperative Alliance   |               |   |
| <b>ICRG</b>   | International Cooperative Research Group                                   |               |   |

|               |   |               |  |
|---------------|---|---------------|--|
| <b>OWC</b>    | Operation Wealth Creation                             | <b>UNICEF</b> | United Nations<br>International Children's<br>Emergency Fund |
| <b>PDM</b>    | Parish Development Model                              | <b>UNWCMC</b> | United Nations World<br>Conservation Monitoring<br>Centre    |
| <b>PPP</b>    | Public-Private Partnership                            | <b>USAGA</b>  | Uganda Safari Guides<br>Association                          |
| <b>SACCO</b>  | Savings and Credit<br>Cooperative Organisation        | <b>USAID</b>  | United States Agency for<br>International Development        |
| <b>SBCC</b>   | Social and Behaviour<br>Change Communication          | <b>UTA</b>    | Uganda Tourism<br>Association                                |
| <b>SRHR</b>   | Sexual and Reproductive<br>Health and Rights          | <b>UWEAL</b>  | Uganda Women's<br>Entrepreneurs Association                  |
| <b>SRGBV</b>  | School-Related Gender-<br>Based Violence              | <b>UWONET</b> | Ugandan Women's<br>Network                                   |
| <b>SSA</b>    | Sub-Saharan Africa                                    | <b>UWOPA</b>  | Uganda Women<br>Parliamentary Association                    |
| <b>TUGATA</b> | The Uganda Association of<br>Travel Agents            | <b>UWRSA</b>  | Ugandan Warehouse<br>Receipt System Authority                |
| <b>UCOTA</b>  | Uganda Community<br>Tourism Organisation              | <b>VAWG</b>   | Violence Against Women<br>and Girls                          |
| <b>UHOA</b>   | Uganda Hotel Owners<br>Association                    | <b>VSLA</b>   | Village Savings and Loan<br>Association                      |
| <b>UNCTAD</b> | United Nations Conference<br>on Trade and Development | <b>WEE</b>    | Women's Economic<br>Empowerment                              |
| <b>UN ECA</b> | United Nations Economic<br>Commission for Africa      | <b>WEMAN</b>  | Women's Empowerment<br>Mainstreaming and<br>Networking       |
| <b>UNFFE</b>  | Uganda National Farmers'<br>Federation                |               |  |
| <b>UNFPA</b>  | United Nations Population<br>Fund                     |               |  |
| <b>UNHCR</b>  | United Nations High<br>Commissioner for<br>Refugees   |               |  |

| Key term                           | Definition   |
|------------------------------------|--|
| <b>Cooperative</b>                 | <p>A cooperative is an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly-owned and democratically-controlled enterprise.</p> <p>Source: International Cooperative Alliance (ICA)</p>   |
| <b>Economic violence</b>           | <p>Economic violence is a form of gender-based violence, and can include acts perpetrated by systems and structures, as well as by individuals. It involves behaviours that control a woman's ability to acquire, use and maintain economic resources, thus threatening her economic security and potential for self-sufficiency.</p> <p>Source: Adams et al, 2008</p> |
| <b>Employment segregation</b>      | <p>The unequal distribution of female and male workers across and within job types.</p> <p>Source: World Bank</p>  |
| <b>Financial exclusion</b>         | <p>Financial exclusion refers to a process whereby people encounter difficulties accessing and/or using financial services and products in the mainstream market that are appropriate to their needs and enable them to lead a normal social life in the society in which they belong.</p> <p>Source: European Commission, 2008</p>                                    |
| <b>Gender-based violence (GBV)</b> | <p>Harmful acts directed at an individual or a group of individuals based on their gender. It is rooted in gender inequality, the abuse of power and harmful norms.</p> <p>Source: UN Women</p>  |

| Key term                     | Definition   |
|------------------------------|--|
| <b>Gender norms</b>          | <p>Accepted attributes and characteristics of male and female gendered identity at a particular point in time for a specific society or community. They are the standards and expectations to which gender identity generally conforms, within a range that defines a particular society, culture and community at that point in time. Gender norms are ideas about how men and women should be and act. Internalised early in life, gender norms can establish a life cycle of gender socialisation and stereotyping.</p> <p>Source: UNICEF</p>   |
| <b>Gender wage gap</b>       | <p>The gender wage gap is defined as the difference between median earnings of men and women relative to median earnings of men.</p> <p>Source: OECD</p>   |
| <b>Productive employment</b> | <p>Productive employment is defined as employment yielding sufficient returns to labour to permit the worker and her/his dependents a level of consumption above the poverty line.</p> <p>Source: ILO</p>  |
| <b>Resilience</b>            | <p>The capacity of individuals, communities, institutions and systems to survive, cope and thrive in the face of shocks and stresses.</p> <p>Source: Mastercard Foundation</p>   |
| <b>Sector and Sub-Sector</b> | <p>The Pathways study uses 'sector' to refer to a broad area of economic activity - an umbrella category that has other economic activities within it. A sector could entail any or all of the following economic activities: (i) primary activities (i.e. related to extraction of raw materials), (ii) secondary activities (e.g. manufacturing-related) or (iii) tertiary activities (i.e. related to services). Sub-sector is generally used to denote specific economic activities within a broad sector, though both terms are sometimes used interchangeably as sub-sectors are not purely divisions or components of a sector; sub-sectors can vary enough to be discussed and/or analysed independently. For instance, while 'agriculture' is a broad economic sector, specific sectors/sub-sectors within it include rice, cocoa, maize, horticulture etc.</p> |

| Key term  | Definition   |
|---|--|
| <b>Social capital (vertical and horizontal)</b> | <p>Social capital refers to the institutions, relationships and norms that shape the quality and quantity of an individual and society’s social interactions. It includes both vertical and horizontal<sup>1</sup> associations between people, and includes behaviour within and among organisations, such as firms.</p> <p>This view recognises that horizontal ties are needed to give communities a sense of identity and common purpose, but also stresses that without “bridging” ties that transcend various social divides (e.g. religion, ethnicity, socioeconomic status), horizontal ties can become a basis for the pursuit of narrow interests, and can actively preclude access to information and material resources that would otherwise be of great assistance to the community (e.g. tips about job vacancies, access to credit).</p> <p>Source: World Bank</p> <p>Cooperatives have a social network that combines both horizontal and vertical social ties. Horizontal ties represent the social relationships and interactions between cooperative members while vertical ties are the social connections between cooperative members and parties such as off-takers, processors/buyers etc.</p> <p>Source: Deng et al (2020)</p> |
| <b>Unpaid care and domestic work</b>            | <p>Refers to care of persons and housework performed within households without pay, and unpaid community work.</p> <p>Source: OECD</p>   |

<sup>1</sup> Vertical social capital refers to interactions with people/organisations of different (higher) socioeconomic standing (i.e. access to resources), while horizontal social capital refers to connections and relations between people/organisations of similar socioeconomic standing and with access to similar resources.

| Key term                                       | Definition   |
|--|--|
| <b>Violence against women and girls (VAWG)</b> | <p>Violence against women and girls is any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or mental harm or suffering to women and girls, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life. Violence against women and girls encompasses, but is not limited to, physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family or within the general community.</p> <p>Source: UN Women</p> |
| <b>Women's economic empowerment (WEE)</b>      | <p>Women having the ability to succeed and advance economically, and the power to make and act on economic decisions to enhance their broader wellbeing and position in society.</p> <p>Source: Calder et al., (2020)</p>  |

# Executive summary

Women's economic empowerment (WEE) focuses on women's ability to access and have control over productive resources, access to decent work, control over their own time, lives and livelihoods, and acceptance as equal economic actors. Thus, women's economic empowerment is a multi-pronged concept, encompassing the process towards realising a wider set of women's political, economic and social rights. A multi-stakeholder approach holds the key to effective gender mainstreaming; implementation and enforcement of women's rights, that would not only trigger a paradigm shift across sectors, but also structural and sustainable changes that benefit women, their households and the wider society.

**The third largest economy in East Africa after Kenya and Tanzania, Uganda's economy has expanded over the past two decades on the back of successful stabilisation policies and substantial natural resources.** Uganda has seen significant progress in human development outcomes over the past 20 years, though still ranked in the low human development category mainly due to access challenges in education and health.<sup>2</sup> These health and education inequalities are more pronounced for women and girls who constitute 51% of the population.

**Female labour force participation (FLFP) has increased in recent years but still lags at 68.2% for women compared to 73.9% of men in 2021.**<sup>3</sup> Therefore, women in Uganda continue to face significant gender inequalities in economic empowerment opportunities and outcomes. Most women work in the informal economy, in small-scale subsistence agriculture, and predominate in low-skilled, low-paying jobs and sectors. Women are also disproportionately represented in unpaid subsistence, care and domestic work. This results in high wage inequality, which in turn reinforces women's economic dependency and limits their capacity to accumulate financial and other resources.

**Strengthening women's economic empowerment in Uganda is critical for achieving the ambitious targets set out in the Third National Development Plan (NDP III; 2020/21-2024/25) and Vision 2040** - including national economic growth, improving human rights and strengthening household and women's welfare. As Uganda recovers from the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the economy and society, investing in economic opportunities for women and girls through interventions in the market is critical. For efforts to economically empower women to be successful, interventions must also address barriers within the enabling environment, including tackling entrenched social norms which limit women from equally contributing to the Ugandan economy and society.

This report is part of a series of reports commissioned in Sub-Saharan Africa, which aims to provide practical recommendations, for public and private sector partners, that would improve and expand women's economic opportunities, and contribute more meaningfully to women's economic empowerment.

<sup>2</sup> UNDP (2020a). Uganda's human development index (HDI) increased from 0.320 in 1990 to 0.544 in 2019, an increase of 70%. The HDI indicators are compiled into a single number between 0 and 1.0, with 1.0 being the highest possible human development. HDI is divided into four tiers: very high human development (0.8 - 1.0), high human development (0.7 - 0.79), medium human development (0.55 - 0.70), and low human development (below 0.55).

<sup>3</sup> World Economic Forum (2021)

It presents an overview of women's economic empowerment in Uganda. Drawing on economic modelling, desk-based research, interviews and expert reviews, the report explores available data and evidence on factors influencing women's economic empowerment in the Ugandan context. The report applies a holistic conceptual framework for women's economic empowerment which identifies multiple and overlapping factors at three different levels, which combine and interact to influence women's economic empowerment:

- **Structural factors:** Including legal and policy provisions;
- **Normative factors:** Including norms around paid and unpaid labour, women's voice and representation in decision making etc.;
- **Individual factors:** Including human, social and economic capital.

The report identifies key factors at each of these levels with relevance to all sectors. In addition, the report presents specific findings related to two broad sectors selected in consultation with country-level stakeholders: (i) Agriculture (Coffee, Maize, Fishing and Aquaculture); and (ii) Tourism and Hospitality.

## Key findings – Sectoral analysis

The sectoral analysis identified key trends related to women's roles and engagement in the coffee, maize, fishing and aquaculture, and tourism and hospitality sectors. In each of these sectors, women face barriers to economic empowerment, though opportunities and entry points for further empowerment also exist across structural, normative and individual factors.

Highlights are summarised below with a detailed explanation of the cross-cutting/ contextual structural, normative and individual factors in section 4 and deeper sector-specific analysis of these factors provided in section 5 of the report. Appendix 3 offers a cross-sectoral table summary of the barriers and opportunities and entry points

### Structural factors

**Uganda's policy framework is generally supportive of women's economic activity although there are notable gaps** with regard to parental leave and protection against discrimination and harassment. However, weak enforcement and monitoring continues to hinder effective implementation of policies. Furthermore, customary laws on land ownership and inheritance continue to discriminate against women in key issues affecting economic empowerment

<sup>4</sup> 35 interviews were conducted with various stakeholders, cooperatives/collectives, industry associations, NGOs/INGOs and civil society organisations, private companies and public entities. Please refer to the Appendix for a detailed explanation of the methodology including the summary of stakeholders interviewed.

including land rights and ownership, with significant implications for women's economic empowerment. Although there are no laws prohibiting women from owning land, customary law (which covers ~80% of agricultural land)<sup>5</sup> does not designate women as traditional owners of family land in Uganda, though women may live on land and farm it.

The Parish Development Model (PDM) launched by the Ugandan government in February 2022 is the most recent strategy for participatory public service delivery, wealth creation and employment generation, leveraging parishes as grassroots entry points for poverty alleviation and economic development.<sup>6</sup>

### Normative factors

**Deeply entrenched and discriminatory social and gender norms restrict women's economic opportunities.** Norms and gender stereotypes position women as caregivers and men as protectors, leading to inequalities in the execution of unpaid care work,<sup>7</sup> and high gendered employment segregation. Household and reproductive responsibilities significantly constrain women's economic opportunities, while men continue to dominate further up the value chain in more remunerative, value-adding and management positions.

**Despite some recent progress in women's political representation, politics and decision making remain male-dominated in Uganda.** Women's limited decision-making power within Ugandan households hinders their economic potential as well as the economic wellbeing of their families. Norms around women's mobility and responsibilities associated with the family home restrict the types of income-earning activities they may be involved in each of the sub-sectors included in this report.

**VAWG both constrains women's economic outcomes, while at the same time, women who are in employment or earning more than their partners are at risk of experiencing intimate partner violence (IPV) for challenging the status quo.** Economic violence (including asset dispossession and restricting access to financial resources); sexual harassment, violence and abuse within the workplace, while under researched, present a significant barrier to women's economic empowerment, rights and wellbeing.

<sup>5</sup> World Bank (2021d)

<sup>6</sup> Guloba, M. (2022)

<sup>7</sup> Oxfam (2018)

## Individual factors

**At the individual level, inequalities in education and skills affect women's access to economic and financial opportunities and benefits.** There is a clear gender gap in professional skills (including digital skills) in most sectors, with men dominating higher skilled jobs and professions. Furthermore, high fertility rates and high unmet need for family planning, coupled with poor, or non-existent, maternity services provision restrict women's labour market participation and broader economic outcomes.

**Women in Uganda tend to have less access to vertical social capital than men, as men usually have better access to supporting relationships/networks in higher-paying roles and fields. Women's participation in cooperatives (a form of horizontal social capital) is on the rise.** However, women remain under-represented in mixed-sex cooperatives in terms of membership, employment and leadership. When Ugandan women are able to join women-led cooperatives, there is evidence that this increases their (vertical) social capital, skills (leadership and business) and access to financial resources and information.

**Nearly a quarter of women (23%) lack access to financial services.**<sup>8</sup> Women face more barriers accessing loans with lower access to finance and collateral (including

land and other assets); and the discriminatory perceptions of women borrowers among financial service providers constrain the performance of women-owned enterprises. Women also own fewer productive assets than men, including housing, land and other tangible assets. Gender inequalities in asset ownership and access - in particular land - are also key barriers to financial inclusion.

## Implications and recommendations

Based on the key findings, a number of practical recommendations and considerations are aimed at donors, policy makers, community leaders, programmers and researchers - including those engaged in WEE-focused programmes and initiatives, as well as those involved in more general economic development programming which may not have women's economic empowerment as a central aim.

*Note: Sector-specific recommendations for consideration are presented in sector briefs in section 5.*

Key implications and recommendations for consideration - across three key areas: (i) Policy/Advocacy; (ii) Programming; and (iii) Research, Monitoring and Evaluation are very broadly summarised below. Please refer to section 6 for a more detailed breakdown of these implications and recommendations (including suggested strategies).

<sup>8</sup> Financial Sector Deepening Uganda (FSDU) (2018)

Noteworthy is that no single actor can independently address all the barriers/ implement all the suggested recommendations to women's economic empowerment, and a coordinated, multi-pronged and multi-stakeholder approach to tackle barriers and execute solutions is required.

### Policy/Advocacy recommendations

1. Address key policy gaps and improve implementation and monitoring of key legislation around women's land ownership, girls' education and gender-based violence.
2. Undertake community sensitisation, capacity building and advocacy around existing legislation to strengthen women's rights.
3. Ensure inclusive policies for cooperative enterprises and women-led cooperatives.
4. Advocate to remove gender-based barriers to finance and promote women-friendly financial services.
2. Assess and address women's and girls' unpaid care and domestic work burden, e.g. through time and labour-saving interventions so that they can complete their education, acquire marketable skills and work for pay outside the household.
3. Work with and grow women's collectives to build social, human and economic capital, and tackle normative barriers through enabling market linkages and access to supportive provisions (e.g. extension services for women farmers).
4. Work with women and girls holistically to improve their human capital and wellbeing by providing capacity building and skill acquisition training.
5. Work with large employers to promote gender-sensitive and safe workplaces by supporting the implementation of workplace sensitisation training on various forms of harassment, the establishment of confidential grievance addressing mechanisms and the creation of improved working conditions for women through better living wages.
6. Address inequitable intra-household dynamics and norms via household-level interventions to foster discussions around fairer decision making and division of household responsibilities.

### Programming recommendations<sup>9</sup>

1. Base all general programming on a robust gender analysis that identifies risks and mitigating measures at each level of the change pathway. This would potentially help (more) women access and benefit from programmes/initiatives as the fundamental constraints/underlying challenges are redressed.

<sup>9</sup> For stakeholders directly involved in WEE initiatives and stakeholders involved in general economic development programming not solely focused on women. These stakeholders may be operating at local, national and/or regional levels.

## Research, monitoring and evaluation recommendations

1. Commission and undertake research to address research gaps especially the extent and impact of economic violence against women (including asset and land dispossession), challenges faced by marginalised groups of women (e.g. those with disabilities) and effective solutions to address the underlying challenges.
2. This research should include measures of key factors enabling or constraining women's economic empowerment including gender-specific measures focused on women's capabilities and agency, household relations, and gender norms and attitudes.
3. Research results should be disaggregated by sex and include sex-disaggregated targets at a minimum. Other categories such as age, location and income could be beneficial to provide more nuanced insights on women's situations.
4. Commission mixed-method research and theory-based evaluations on these issues (e.g. economic violence, marginalised women) to understand what works, how and why change happens, and the extent of change.
5. Support participatory qualitative research to enable women to tell their own stories in order to better understand women's lived realities and propose more context-cognisant and tailored solutions.
6. Monitor, track and mitigate against any signs of potential backlash during programme implementation, including increased rates of violence against women.



# 1. Introduction

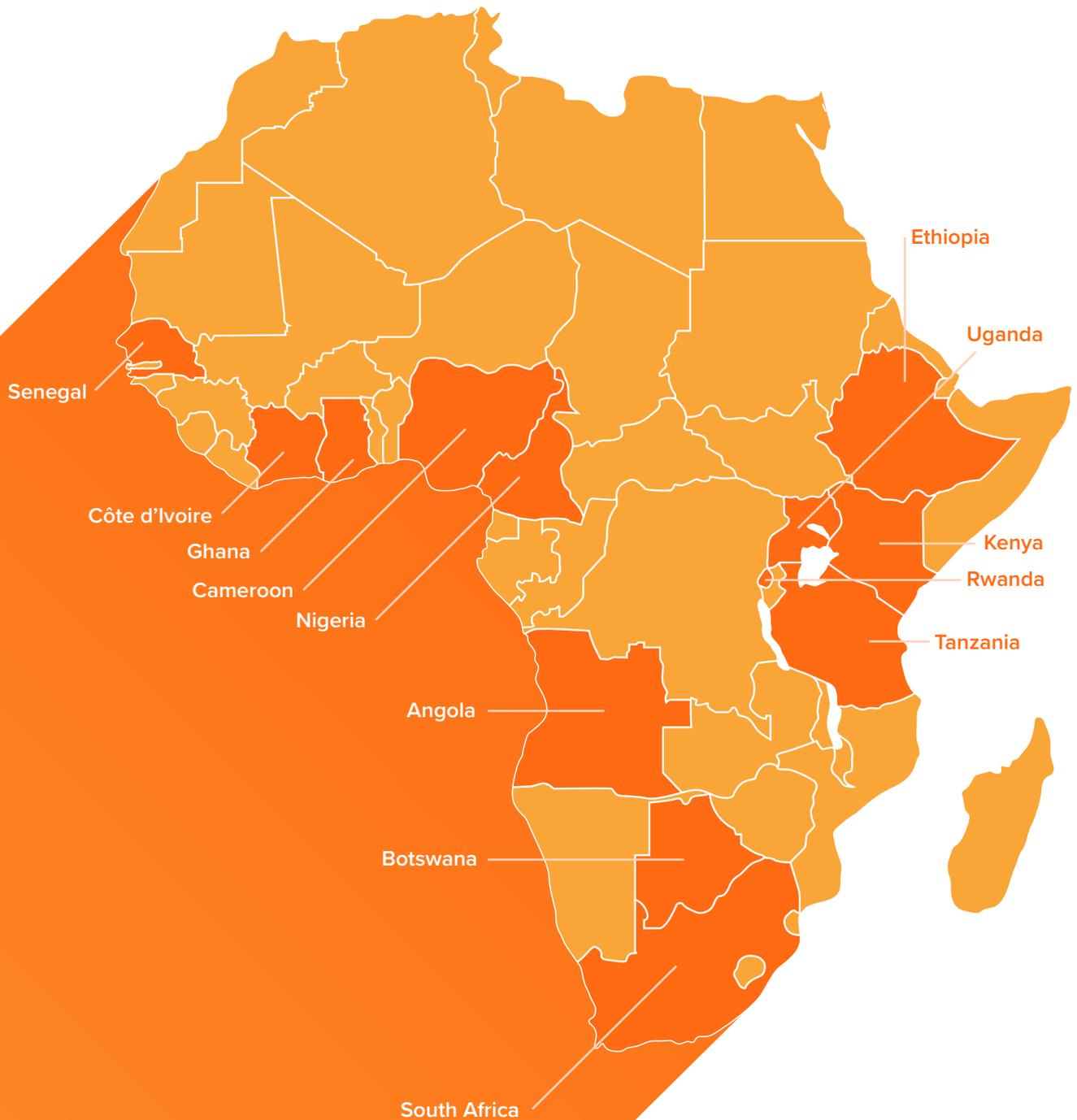
## Background and objectives

### **A study leveraging strong coalition to develop and implement country-level strategies to strengthen women's economic empowerment in Sub-Saharan Africa**

Euromonitor International in partnership with six other global organisations: (i) International Cooperative Research Group (ICRG), which is the research arm of the United States Overseas Cooperative Development Council (U.S. OCDC); (ii) United States Agency for International Development (USAID); (iii) Mastercard Foundation; (iv) International Development Research Centre (IDRC); (v) United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women); and (vi) the African Trade Policy Centre (ATPC), which is a specialised unit within the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UN ECA)<sup>10</sup> (the Steering Committee) launched the Pathways Study in 2020. The aim was to assess which sectors hold the highest potential for women's economic empowerment, explore how women's prospects in these sectors can be strengthened in light of various barriers and drivers, and identify which stakeholders (public and private) are key to achieve this.

<sup>10</sup> International Cooperative Research Group (ICRG), which is the research arm of the United States Overseas Cooperative Development Council (U.S. OCDC), United States Agency for International Development (USAID), Mastercard Foundation, International Development Research Centre (IDRC), United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women) and the African Trade Policy Centre (ATPC), which is a specialised unit within the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UN ECA). These seven organisations (including Euromonitor International) constituted the Steering Committee (SC).

## 13 countries covered by the Pathways Study research project, including Uganda



The Steering Committee selected 13 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) for this exploration of the challenges and opportunities (sectoral and general) of the sub-continent related to women's economic empowerment. Three sub-regions were covered: East Africa, West Africa and Southern Africa, with the country selection including the major economic and political hubs in the SSA region. The Steering Committee's capabilities, country presence and areas/themes of interest (in terms of programming, research and advocacy efforts) were also considered to ensure uptake of the defined actionable solutions.

The Pathways Study programme addresses three key objectives per focus country. These are:

### 1. Identifying the sectors with the most potential

- Which sectors are forecast to grow fastest over 2020 -2030?
- Which sectors have the greatest prospects for women's economic empowerment?
- Which sectors would benefit the most from improved economic participation of women?

### 2. Understanding the challenges and drivers for women's opportunities in key sectors

- What is the role of women within priority sectors and what are their prospects for expanded opportunities?

- What are the sector-specific drivers and barriers for women's employment, entrepreneurship and advancement?
- What works to improve/leverage these drivers and overcome these barriers?

### 3. Developing sector-specific solutions

- What are the actionable and sector-specific solutions, tailored to each country's/sector's context?
- Which stakeholders are well positioned to implement or advocate for these solutions?

## Methodology summary

Euromonitor International designed the Pathways Study to have a sustained impact in each country by ensuring that results are locally relevant and actionable. From research design and scoping to development of recommendations, mixed methods (economic modelling, desk/secondary research, interviews and expert reviews) were utilised to develop findings and validate the proposed recommendations. The Steering Committee and selected country partners also reviewed the analysis of findings and solutions to ensure the recommendations lead to action, and action leads to positive change/impact for women.

The methodology workflow is shown below, while a detailed explanation of the methodology is included in the Appendix.



## 1. Scoping Study and Modelling

Preliminary research and economic modelling

*Euromonitor International Research and Analytics Team*



## 2. Selection of 2-3 Focus Sectors

Sector Prioritisation Workshop  
*Country Working Group Participants*

## 3.

## Stakeholder Mapping

Secondary Research and Interviews

*Makerere University Staff (Country Partner), Euromonitor International Analysts*

## 4.

## Sector Deep Dives – Primary and Secondary Research

Secondary Research and Interviews

*Makerere University Staff (Country Partner), Euromonitor International Analysts*

## 5.

## Analysis of Findings

Qualitative Analysis, Report Writing

*Makerere University Staff (Country Partner), Euromonitor International Analysts, Kore Global*

## 6.

## Report Finalisation



Recommendations Workshop, Expert Reviews

*Country Working Group Participants, Makerere University Staff (Country Partner), Euromonitor International Analysts, Kore Global, Thematic and Sector Experts, Steering Committee*

## 2. Conceptual framework for understanding women's economic empowerment (WEE)

**Women's economic empowerment can be understood as:**

**“Women having the ability to succeed and advance economically, and the power to make and act on economic decisions to enhance their broader wellbeing and position in society.”<sup>11</sup>**

Women's economic empowerment is much broader than labour market participation.<sup>12</sup> It involves both women's acquisition of resources and the exercise of power and agency in all economic domains and market-related interactions.<sup>13</sup> It recognises that individual women operate within contexts of both informal (normative) and formal (structural) barriers and enablers.<sup>14</sup> And, as a result, women's economic empowerment is highly context-specific both in terms of women's aspirations and the enablers and barriers that they experience.<sup>15</sup>

<sup>11</sup> Calder et al. (2020)

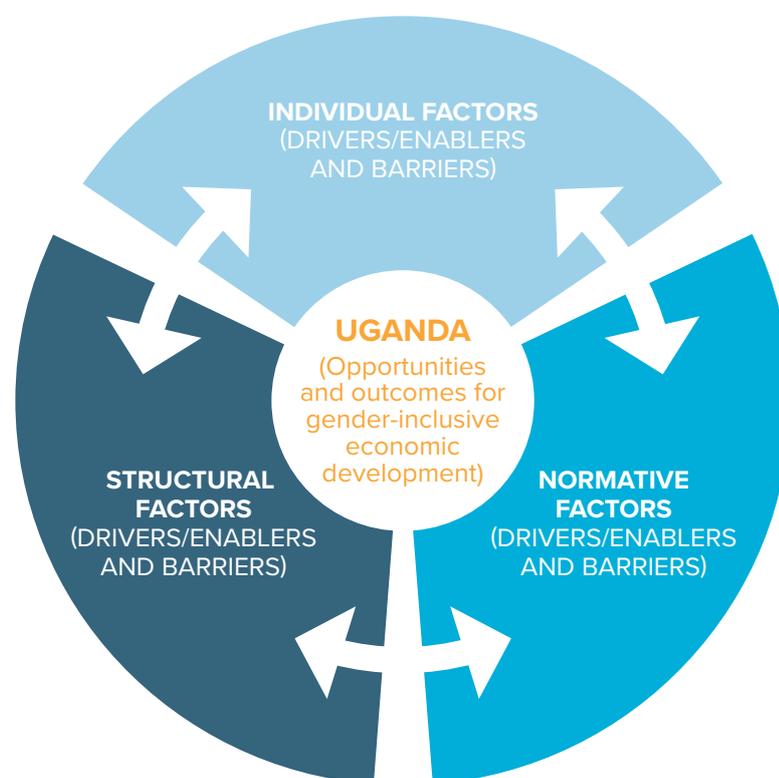
<sup>12</sup> Nazneen et al. (2019)

<sup>13</sup> Earning, spending, and saving income; buying, owning, and selling assets; holding and inheriting wealth; starting and operating a business; acquiring a bank account or credit (Fox and Romero, 2017)

<sup>14</sup> Kabeer (2021); Fox and Romero (2017)

<sup>15</sup> Calder and Boost (2020); Fox and Romero (2017); Field et al. (2010); Hanmer and Klugman (2016)

## Conceptual framework for understanding women's economic empowerment



**This report applies a holistic framework to understand barriers and enablers to women's economic empowerment in Uganda at three distinct levels: (i) Structural; (ii) Normative; and (iii) Individual).**

Factors at these three levels combine and interact to influence WEE opportunities and outcomes. For example, barriers at different levels can interact to limit women's opportunities to collectively engage in and shape market institutions; their access to

suitable services and assets; and their choices relative to men's, thereby leading to greater engagement in marginal, unregulated and precarious forms of work with low and unstable earnings, and no social protection. Segregation and discrimination can occur along several fronts - employment, status in value chains, profit potential and level of risk - and is stubbornly persistent in informal labour markets despite low barriers to entry. All these due to the vicious interplay between individual, normative and structural constraints.

## Structural factors

**Government policies, laws and regulations - whether formulated at the national or sub-national level - create a structure that directly or indirectly constrains women's participation in the economy.**

Macro-level economic policies are often thought of as “gender neutral”, as they cover policy areas such as public and private investment, macroeconomic stability, rules for international trade, financial regulatory powers and policies, and public expenditure allocation and management. In most cases, these policies are not designed with WEE outcomes in mind, but they affect women and men differently because of their different positions in the economy and society, shaped and reinforced by existing gender norms.

**Examples of policies that directly influence women's ability to start, run and grow their own businesses include:**

- Macro-level economic policies around trade and taxation;
- Credit and finance policies;
- Regulations around access to markets; and
- Laws (including customary law) on property ownership and inheritance.

**Policies can also indirectly influence women's economic empowerment.**

**These may include:**

- Policies on the marketisation and subsidisation of the care economy and the recognition of unpaid care responsibilities;
- Education policies that support girls' and young women's participation and achievement, and their pathways to employment; and
- Prevention and response mechanisms to gender-based violence (GBV).

## Normative factors

**Gender norms circumscribe women's capabilities well before they enter the labour market, as norms affect the whole skill development process of children and youth;** for example, how much and what kind of education and other learning opportunities are made available<sup>16</sup>. Norms invest dominant household members, usually men, with the authority to determine how resources are allocated and how women and girls use their time<sup>17</sup>. The role of gender norms and relational agency is thus important to examine as a factor enabling or constraining women's economic outcomes.

**Social and gender norms around women's economic empowerment are not static,** and large-scale macro level changes in for example educational levels or conflict situations, as well as the hard work and advocacy of women's rights movements can drive positive shifts in behaviour and attitudes over time.

<sup>16</sup> Calder et al. (2021)

<sup>17</sup> Kabeer (2021)

**Norms play an important role in explaining many labour market phenomena**, such as persistent gender segregation, low or declining female labour force participation (FLFP), women's lower returns to human capital and experience in the world of work, women's double burden of paid and unpaid work, household decision making, the aspirations of women and girls,<sup>18</sup> and the availability of relevant products and services for women in the market (for example, financial products and services, good quality affordable childcare, and private/domestic infrastructure). These gendered norms focus on five key areas:

- **Women's time use**, including responsibilities assigned to women for domestic and care paid work and leisure time;
- **The desirability, suitability and respectability of different types of activity and work** for men and women, including whether girls and young women should attend school, acquire certain skills (e.g. digital literacy), whether women should work outside of the home, work in mixed-gender environments, and run a business;
- **Voice, representation and leadership in decision making** in the household, the community, the market and the state;
- Women's **freedom of mobility**; and

- **The frequency, intensity and acceptability of violence against women and girls (VAWG) including sexual harassment.**

### Individual factors

**Capital can be embedded in human beings (human capital), embedded in society (social capital), or possessed in the form of a tangible asset, by an individual, a household, or a group (economic capital).** Capital is especially important for women entrepreneurs to navigate the “structures of constraint” they face in doing business. Yet evidence suggests that women suffer capital deficits relative to men, and that this affects their performance<sup>19</sup>.

**Human capital includes business, entrepreneurial, vocational, and sectoral information, knowledge and skills, and an understanding of rights, key policies and regulations; basic cognitive skills such as literacy and numeracy; financial and digital skills; and social-emotional skills such as aspiration, self-esteem, goal setting and communication.** Uneven investments in girls' and young women's human capital create pre-existing constraints that are exacerbated through unequal access to market services, opportunities, and economic and social capital<sup>20</sup>.

<sup>18</sup> Marcus (2021)

<sup>19</sup> McKenzie et al. (2021); Batista et al. (2021)

<sup>20</sup> Calder et al. (2021)

**The exercise of individual choice is significantly enabled by stores of social capital.** Social capital refers to networks, rooted in norms and social trust, that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit, that are informed by long-standing values of solidarity and mutuality<sup>21</sup>. Women are often further constrained by their disproportionate reliance on horizontal social networks - connections and relations between those in similar socioeconomic situations - as compared to vertical networks with people of different socioeconomic standing. However, horizontal social capital can be valuable to women insofar as it enables them to join with others in collective action, for example through collective enterprises.

**Finally, economic empowerment requires women to access and control economic capital,** including: financial assets such as earnings, savings, and investments; productive assets such as business equipment (including phones), inventory and inputs, livestock, and land; and private/domestic infrastructure assets such as fuel-efficient stoves, durable housing and solar power that increase women's ability to engage in paid work<sup>22</sup>.

**Given an enabling environment, these interlinked forms of capital support women to exercise greater choice and agency in relation to their work.**

Therefore, the lack of capital is more of a problem for women: firstly, because systemic and structural constraints allocate more opportunities to build capital to men; and secondly, because women need more capital than men simply to overcome structural constraints and engage in markets productively and profitably<sup>23</sup>.

<sup>21</sup> Adato and Hoddinott (2008) in Calder and Tanhchareun (2014)

<sup>22</sup> Calder et al. (2021)

<sup>23</sup> Calder et al. (2021)



# 3. Country context

## 3.1 Demographics, geography and politics

**Uganda is a landlocked country in the Great Lakes Region of East Africa, bordering Rwanda, Sudan, Kenya, DRC and Tanzania.**

The topography is diverse and includes mountains, plateaus, Great Rift Valley, plains as well as a number of large lakes including Lake Victoria in the south of the country. It has a total population of approximately 47.1 million of which just over half (51%) are women.<sup>25</sup> The population is mostly rural; in 2020 approximately three quarters of the population (34 million people) were estimated to be living in rural areas.<sup>26</sup>

<sup>24</sup> UWOPA (Parliament of the Republic of Uganda) n.d.

<sup>25</sup> Euromonitor International Passport (2022)

<sup>26</sup> World Bank (2020)





### Uganda political system at a glance

|                           |   |
|---------------------------|---|
| <b>Type of government</b> | Presidential democratic republic  |
| <b>Executive</b>          | President and Government  |
| <b>Legislature</b>        | Unicameral parliament<br><br>Female Speaker (elected March 2022)<br>Cabinet ministers: 45% women (14 out of 31)<br>Ministers of state: 48% women (24 out of 50) |
| <b>Judiciary</b>          | Supreme Court, the High Court and the Honourable Justices of the Court of Appeal  |
| <b>Political parties</b>  | Multi-party system since 2005<br><br>Ruling party: <b>National Resistance Movement (NRM)</b> , in power since 1986  |
| <b>Governance</b>         | Federal Republic with two levels of government: Federal, Local  |
| <b>Voting system</b>      | First-past-the-post voting  |

With a median age of 16.8,<sup>27</sup> over 50% of the population (male and female) are aged under 18.<sup>28</sup> The average fertility rate is high at 5.7, and the population is expanding by approximately 3.3% annually.<sup>29</sup> If the population continues to grow at this rate, UN population projections forecast Uganda's population will increase to 64 million in 2030, 106 million in 2050, and 214 million in 2100.<sup>30</sup> This "demographic situation" presents both opportunities and challenges for realising economic growth, and it is estimated that Uganda will need to create

more than 600,000 jobs per year before 2030, and over one million jobs per year by 2040 to meet current population growth needs.<sup>31</sup> Furthermore, the country records an unusually high dependency ratio<sup>32</sup> (1 dependent/person of working age, and 1.42 dependents/employed person).<sup>33</sup> However, if appropriate and timely investments are made in both male and female youth populations to prepare them with the knowledge and skills necessary for the future job market, Ugandan youth could be an important driver of economic growth.

<sup>27</sup> Euromonitor International Passport (2022) <sup>28</sup> UNFPA (2017) <sup>29</sup> Based on 2022 US Census Bureau estimates

<sup>30</sup> UNDESA (2017) <sup>31</sup> International Monetary Fund (2019); World Bank (2020)

<sup>32</sup> The ratio of dependents - people younger than 15 or older than 64 - to the working-age population

<sup>33</sup> Merotto (2020) <sup>34</sup> Uganda Safari Tours (n.d.) <sup>35</sup> See <https://www.worldatlas.com/articles/largest-ethnic-groups-in-uganda.html>

**Uganda is one of the most ethnically diverse countries globally.** It is home to 56 tribes and 9 indigenous communities, each with their own culture and customs.<sup>34</sup> The largest ethnic groups are the Baganda (16.9%), Banyankole (9.5%) and Basoga (8.4%).<sup>35</sup> Furthermore, in recent years, conflicts in the Great Lakes Region have led to unprecedented numbers of refugees fleeing neighbouring countries for Uganda.<sup>36</sup> This sees Uganda hosting approximately 1.6 million refugees and asylum seekers, including 80% women and children, in 13 settlements across the country and Kampala, making it the largest refugee-hosting country in Africa.<sup>37</sup>

**An estimated 12.5% of the population are living with disabilities, including 15% of women and 10% of men.**<sup>38</sup> Disability limits access to health care, education and employment, and women and girls with disabilities face double discrimination and are more vulnerable to social and economic exclusion.

**Uganda is highly vulnerable to climate change and variability to floods and droughts affecting both the economy and wellbeing of Ugandans.**<sup>39</sup> Over the last 50 years, climate patterns in East Africa have been changing, in a way that falls outside of historical patterns.<sup>40,41</sup> Climate change-induced disruptions in rains and other

natural cycles will increase the burden on Ugandan labourers especially in agriculture.<sup>42</sup>

## 3.2 Human development

**While Uganda has seen significant progress in human development outcomes over the past 20 years, it continues to be ranked in the low human development category,** with a value of 0.544 for 2019, positioning it 159 out of 189 countries and territories. The World Bank has calculated that children born in Uganda reach only 38% of their full productivity potential due to interrupted access to health and education.<sup>43</sup> Given existing high levels of gender inequalities in health and education, addressing these gender disparities is key to achieving higher productivity.

**Global gender indexes and reports highlight gender inequalities in key human development indicators in Uganda.** In particular, Ugandan women continue to face discrimination in secondary and tertiary education, politics and paid employment (see table below).

<sup>36</sup> Herbert, S., & Idris, I. (2018) <sup>37</sup> UNHCR (2021) <sup>38</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2016)

<sup>39</sup> CDKN Global (2020) <sup>40</sup> USAID (2018) <sup>41</sup> Epule et al. (2017) <sup>42</sup> LTS International (2018)

<sup>43</sup> Walker, R., Stucka, T., Sebudde, R., Atamanov, A., & Myers, C. (2020)

| Index  | Score | Insights on score  |
|--|-------|--|
| <p><b>Africa Gender Index (2019)</b><br/>Composite measure of parity between men and women across three dimensions (Economic, Social and Empowerment/Representation) (<i>closer value to 1 indicates less inequality; score of 1 implies parity between men and women</i>)<br/><b>Africa average: 0.486   East Africa average 0.518<sup>44</sup></b></p> | 0.613 | Dimensional scores include: Economic (0.663); Social (0.916); and Empowerment/Representation (0.379). Through legislation and quotas, Uganda has taken steps to increase the number of women in political positions.   |
| <p><b>Gender Inequality Index (2019)</b><br/>Composite measure reflecting inequality in reproductive health, empowerment and labour (<i>lower score is better</i>)<br/><b>Global average: 0.436   SSA average: 0.570<sup>45</sup></b></p>  | 0.535 | Above-average adolescent birth rate (119 vs 105 SSA per 1,000 women aged 15-19). Below-average portion of female population with at least secondary education (27.5% vs 28.8% SSA).  |
| <p><b>Global Gender Gap Report (2021)</b><br/>Economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, political empowerment. (<i>higher score is better</i>)<br/><b>Global average: 0.677   SSA average: 0.672<sup>46</sup></b></p>   | 0.717 | There is a 60% gap in the estimated earnings between men and women. Almost 35% of both parliament seats and ministerial positions are occupied by women. Scored worst on women's access to land use, control and ownership.  |
| <p><b>Women's Workplace Equality Index (2018)</b><br/>Accessing institutions, building credit, getting a job, going to court, protecting women from violence, providing incentives to work and using property. (<i>higher score is better</i>)<br/><b>Global average: 64.79   SSA average: 57.86<sup>47</sup></b></p>                                    | 61.6  | Poor performance on availability of building credit (0/100), on property use equality (40/100) and provision of incentives for women to work (50/100). The law does not prohibit discrimination by creditors on the basis of gender and marital status. Payments for childcare are not tax-deductible. Ranks 18 out of 47 SSA countries. |

 = Among the top scoring countries in SSA
  = Among the lowest scoring countries in SSA  
 = Average score based on SSA averages

<sup>44</sup> African Development Bank (AfDB) & UN ECA (2019) <sup>45</sup> UNDP (2020a) <sup>46</sup> World Economic Forum (2021) <sup>47</sup> World Bank (2021a)

| Index   | Score | Insights on score  |
|---|-------|--|
| <p><b>Gender Parity Score (2019)</b><br/>Measures distance from gender parity and takes into consideration gender equality at work and in society<br/><i>(higher score is better)</i><br/><b>Africa average: 0.58<sup>48</sup></b></p>  | 0.62  | Extremely high gender inequality at work (0.49). Extremely high disparity in terms of performing unpaid care work (0.26) and proportion of leadership positions occupied by women (0.47). There is also a considerable unmet need for family planning among women (0.29).  |
| <p><b>Women, Business and the Law (2022)</b><br/>Measures legal regulations affecting women's economic opportunity via eight indicators: mobility; workplace; pay; marriage; parenthood; entrepreneurship; assets; and pension<br/><i>(higher score is better)</i><br/><b>Global average: 76.1   SSA average: 71<sup>49</sup></b></p> | 73.1  | Best performance in workplace and pay provisions (100/100). Other areas of improvement include freedom of movement (75/100), women starting and running a business (75/100) and pension benefits (75/100). Lowest performance on laws affecting "parenthood"/women's work after having children (40/100) as women get only 60 days of paid maternity leave (Uganda Employment Act, Section 56), and "assets"/gender differences in property and inheritance (40/100) as sons and daughters do not have equal inheritance rights. |
| <p><b>SDG Gender Index (2022)</b><br/>14 of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and 51 issues ranging from health, gender-based violence and climate change<br/><i>(higher score is better)</i><br/><b>Global average: 67.8   SSA average: 52.0<sup>50</sup></b></p>  | 49.0  | With a change in score by 0.2 points between 2015 and 2020, Uganda was categorised as having witnessed 'no progress' (i.e. change between +1 and -1 point). Uganda ranked 129th out of 144 countries covered.  |

 = Among the top scoring countries in SSA
  = Among the lowest scoring countries in SSA  
 = Average score based on SSA averages

<sup>48</sup> McKinsey Global Institute (2019) <sup>49</sup> World Bank (2021a) <sup>50</sup> Equal Measures 2030 (2022) EM2030

**At the national poverty line of USD1.04, the poverty level in Uganda reduced slightly from 21.4% in 2016/17 to 20.3% in 2020.**<sup>51</sup> In relation to population, almost 1 in 5 people in Uganda live in poverty, while location wise, about 33.8% and 19.8% of the rural and urban population respectively live in poverty.<sup>52</sup> At the global poverty line of USD1.90 however, over a third of all men and women live in poverty, with more Ugandan women **living below the poverty line in 2020 (39.6%) compared to 37.5% of men** (see table below). Over one in every four Ugandan households (31%) are headed by females, and these female-headed households are more likely to live in poverty than male-headed households.<sup>53</sup> UN modelling indicates that the population of women living below the poverty line is expected to increase to 13 million by 2030 because of the COVID-19 pandemic.<sup>54</sup>

| Indicator  | Female | Male |
|--|--------|------|
| Population* under global poverty line in Uganda, % (2020)**  | 39.6   | 37.5 |
| Population* under global poverty line, average for Sub-Saharan Africa, % (2019)**  | 44.2   | 43.5 |
| Ratio of % female-headed households in poverty to % male-headed households in poverty (2020)*** (including households that were 'chronically poor' and households that 'slipped into poverty') | 1.08   |      |

Notes and Sources:

\* The indicator is based on the country's total female/male population

\*\* UN Women, UNDP and Pardee Center for International Futures (Accessed September 21, 2022)

\*\*\*Uganda Bureau of Statistics (Accessed September 21, 2022)

**“In Uganda there are more girl-child school dropouts. By the time these children reach employment age, the number is already skewed - there are more men than women.**

**In some communities some families do not want ladies to be educated, they want them to be married...They also face a problem of early teenage pregnancy; you find that...most girls who get pregnant, dropout...those who impregnated them continue with education. Also, you find most girls dropping those hard subjects, the hard science...so in terms of employment in those fields they end up with no female scientists.”**

Source: Government Official, (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>51</sup> SDG Secretariat, Uganda (2021) <sup>52</sup> SDG Secretariat, Uganda (2021) <sup>53</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2016) <sup>54</sup> UN Women (2020a)

**While literacy rates in Uganda for both male and female populations are higher than the Sub-Saharan Africa average, female literacy rates are almost 12% lower than males' at 70.8%.** The past decade has seen significant progress in achieving gender parity in primary school enrolment rates.

However, dropout<sup>55</sup> rates are alarmingly high, with only 41% of children (43% of girls and 39% of boys) completing primary school.<sup>56</sup> Girls are less likely to go to secondary school and progress to tertiary education than their male peers; less than half of girls (44.9%) go to secondary school, and only 4.1% enrol for tertiary education (see table below).

Pathways Study interviewees noted multiple reasons for girls to drop out of school including norms around child marriage, adolescent pregnancy, and poor water, sanitation and hygiene facilities. A recent study drawing on research from 2011-2019 identified associated educational costs and poverty, child marriage, adolescent pregnancy, domestic labour, norms around menstruation and puberty, school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV), and norms and attitudes devaluing girls' education as leading causes of school dropout for girls.<sup>57</sup>

| Indicator                           | Uganda |      | SSA average |      |
|-------------------------------------|--------|------|-------------|------|
|                                     | Female | Male | Female      | Male |
| Literacy rate*, %                   | 70.8   | 82.7 | 58.9        | 72.2 |
| Enrolment in primary education, %   | 96.9   | 94.1 | 72.4        | 78.1 |
| Enrolment in secondary education, % | 44.9   | 55.1 | 40.6        | 45.9 |
| Enrolment in tertiary education, %  | 4.1    | 5.6  | 8.2         | 10.7 |

Source: World Economic Forum – Global Gender Gap Report (2021)

Note: \*Percentage of the adult population (over 15 years of age) of each gender with the ability to both read and write and make simple arithmetic calculations<sup>58</sup>

**High fertility rates are coupled with high unmet need for family planning, with adolescent girls and young women particularly at risk.** The rate of unmet need for family planning among sexually active women aged 15-19 is 60% and half of all pregnancies are unattended.<sup>59</sup> Consequently, maternal mortality rates are high at 343 per 100,000 live births.<sup>60</sup> Drivers of poor sexual and reproductive health (SRH) outcomes include gender and social norms which encourage large families and son preference, early child marriage and limited access to youth-friendly services.<sup>61</sup>

<sup>55</sup> This study uses the term “dropout” to align with conventional phrasing, but recognises that “forced out” is the more appropriate term as most children/youth do not willingly abandon their education, but are forced to do so due to a lack of systemic support (funding for tuition and supporting materials like stationery, uniforms, menstrual pads for girls, etc.) to remain in school

<sup>56</sup> Based on UNICEF data on completion rates <https://data.unicef.org/topic/education/primary-education/>

<sup>57</sup> Atim, T et al. (2019) <sup>58</sup> World Economic Forum (2021) <sup>59</sup> Guttmacher Institute (2019)

<sup>60</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2016) <sup>61</sup> USAID (2017)

**Uganda is home to five million child brides, of which 1.3 million were married before the age of 15.**<sup>62</sup> Over a third of all women aged 20-49 were married before they were 18.<sup>63</sup> Rooted in gender inequality, child marriage violates girl's and women's basic rights including disrupting access to education, increasing their risk of experiencing violence and abuse, and heightens the risk of adolescent pregnancy. Approximately a quarter of all pregnancies are from teenage mothers, with maternal deaths higher among this age group and with more than 300,000 adolescent pregnancies ending in unsafe abortions further risking young girls' lives.<sup>64</sup>

**According to the 2016 demographic and health survey, half of all women (50%) aged 15-49 have experienced some form of physical or sexual violence by an intimate partner, and almost one in three (30%) had experienced intimate partner violence (IPV) in the previous 12 months.**<sup>65</sup> Polygamous marriages and relationships are still prevalent in certain parts of the country, partly due to cultural norms which allow men to "inherit" widows of deceased relatives.<sup>66</sup> Furthermore, while the rate of female genital mutilation (FGM), at 0.3%, is lower than Uganda's East African neighbours, its prevalence reaches 50% in some sub-counties of Uganda where it is deeply rooted in inequitable gender norms and traditions.<sup>67</sup>

### 3.3 Status of the economy, labour force participation and employment

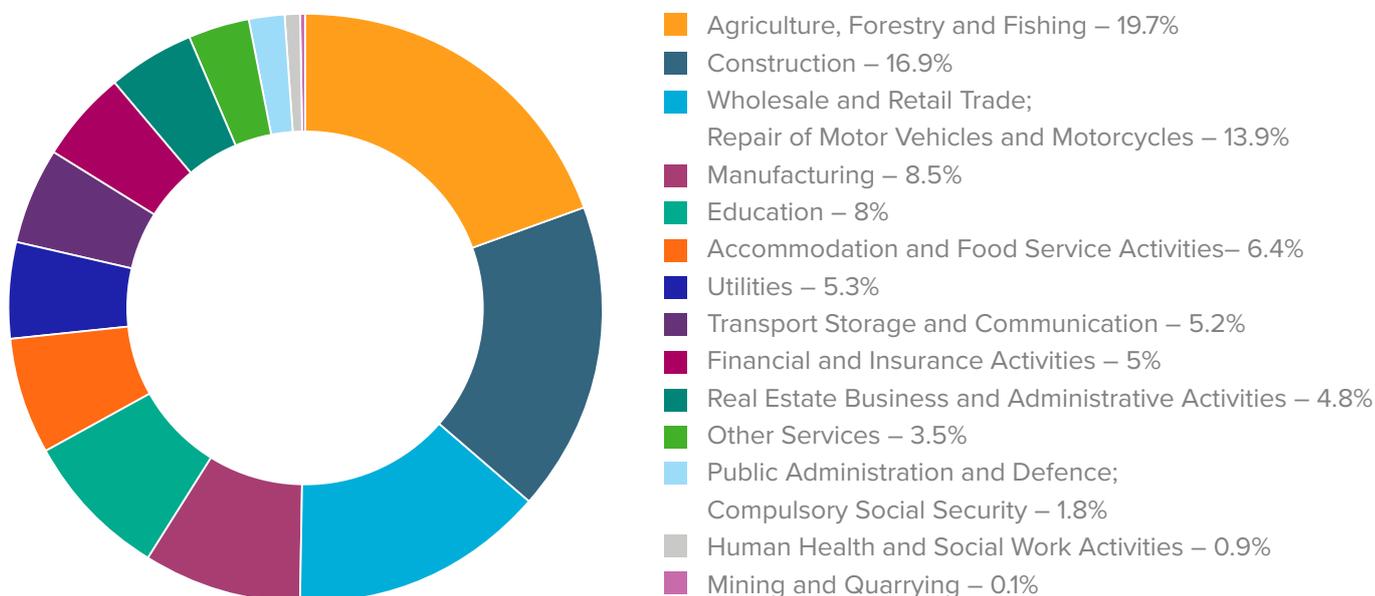
**The third largest economy in East Africa after Kenya and Tanzania, Uganda's economy has expanded over the past two decades on the back of successful stabilisation policies and substantial natural resources.** In recent years, economic growth in Uganda has averaged 4-6%,<sup>68</sup> and by 2019 (pre-pandemic), Uganda's GDP stood at USD35.1 billion.<sup>69</sup>

**Despite this consistent growth, Uganda remains one of the poorest countries globally, with 75.6% of its population living on less than USD2 a day.**<sup>70</sup> The United Nations classifies Uganda among the world's least developed countries.<sup>71</sup> Particularly lagging are the country's North and Northeast regions, with their growth stifled by long-running civil and international conflict as well as recurring natural disasters.<sup>72</sup>

**The agriculture sector (including fishing) has expanded in recent years and accounts for approximately 20% of the economy, while employing an estimated 72% of the workforce.**<sup>73</sup> In addition to agriculture, manufacturing (9% of GDP<sup>74</sup>), construction (17% of GDP<sup>75</sup>), and accommodation and food service activities including tourism and hospitality (6% of GDP) also contribute significantly to the Ugandan economy.<sup>76</sup>

<sup>62</sup> UNICEF/UNFPA (2019) <sup>63</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2016) <sup>64</sup> UNICEF/UNFPA (2019) <sup>65</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2016) <sup>66</sup> Oxfam (2018) <sup>67</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics and UNICEF (2020) <sup>68</sup> Euromonitor International; IDRC (2020) <sup>69</sup> World Bank (2021b) <sup>70</sup> Euromonitor International; IDRC (2020) <sup>71</sup> UNTAD (2020) <sup>72</sup> CIA Factbook (2021) <sup>73</sup> Euromonitor International, Scorecard Analysis 2020 <sup>74</sup> World Bank (n.d. (a)). Accessed in March 2022 <sup>75</sup> World Bank estimates that industry, including construction, constitutes 26.2% of Uganda's GDP. World Bank (n.d. (a)). Accessed in March 2022 <sup>76</sup> Euromonitor International, Scorecard Analysis 2020

## Uganda - Gross Value Added (GVA) Share per Sector



Source: International Labour Organisation (ILO) estimates

“Agriculture employs over 70% of Ugandans especially women and youth. This indicates a less developed economy...One key aspect of maintaining a low unemployment rate is to promote agro-based SMEs (e.g. processing chips, maize, etc.) for less or semi-skilled people... going as far as rural communities.”

Source: Government Official (Pathways Study Interview)

And the same three sectors are the country’s fastest growing - having expanded by 70-80% in between 2014 and 2019.<sup>77</sup> Furthermore, the country’s ICT sectors were experiencing 20% per annum growth prior to the COVID-19 pandemic,<sup>78</sup> with companies such as MTN and Airtel fast-tracking higher connectivity, as well as funding and networking opportunities for digital entrepreneurs.<sup>79</sup>

**In 2020, the female unemployment rate was nearly double the male rate** (3.4% of women compared to 2.2% of men), even if still nominally low overall.<sup>80</sup> However, Uganda’s low unemployment rate does not reflect a thriving formal economy. About 84% of Ugandan men and 88% of Ugandan women work in the more precarious and less lucrative informal economy.<sup>81</sup>

<sup>77</sup> Euromonitor International; IDRC (2020) <sup>78</sup> International Trade Center (2020) <sup>79</sup> Guiliani and Malinz (n.d.)

<sup>80</sup> Based on ILO modelled estimates for 2020. World Bank (n.d. (b)) <https://data.worldbank.org/>

<sup>81</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2017)

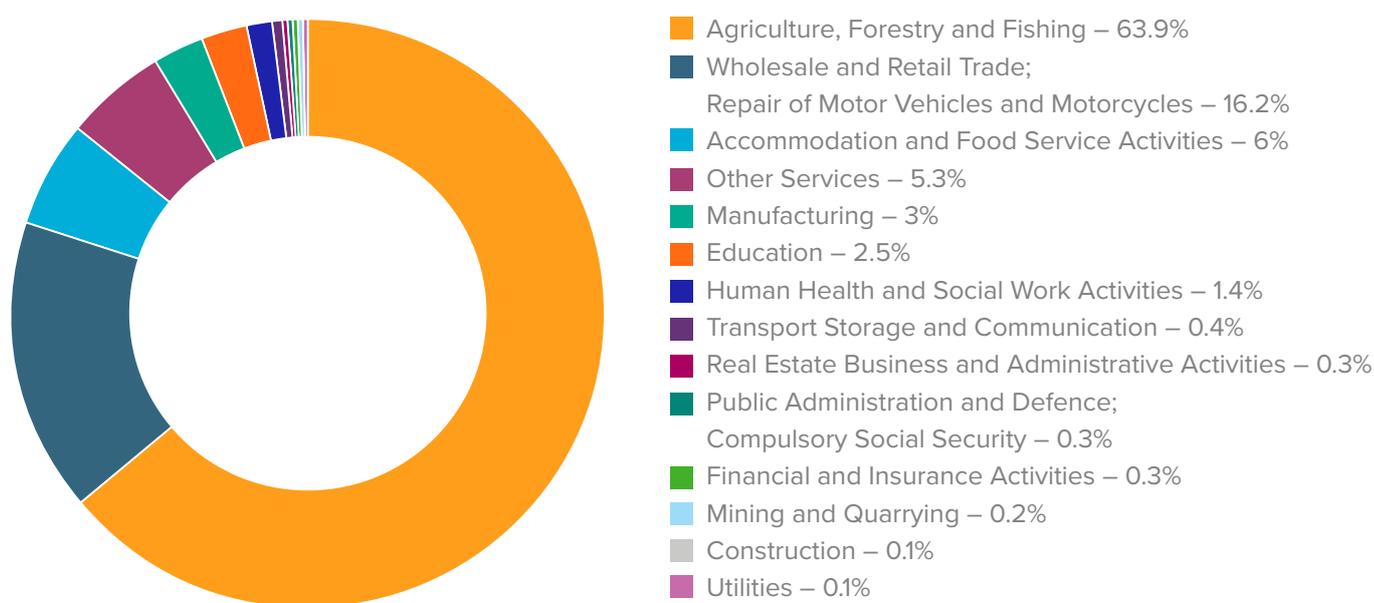
**Female labour force participation (FLFP) has increased in recent years but still lags at 68.2% for women compared to 73.9% for men in 2021.**<sup>82</sup> Ugandan women's economic participation is largely in informal employment particularly in small-scale farming and subsistence agriculture (64% of the total female labour force - see chart), as well as trade, manufacturing, and other sectors. Men tend to dominate as paid employees in transport and construction -sectors associated with higher skills, higher pay and the transition to industrialisation.<sup>83</sup> Ugandan women also make up a disproportionate number of persons in own-account labour.<sup>84</sup> Furthermore, women

are more disproportionately represented in unpaid subsistence, care and domestic work (see section 4.2), which is not accounted for in LFPR and gross domestic product (GDP) computations.

**In 2018, women-owned enterprises constituted 33.8% of businesses in the country;<sup>85</sup> these businesses tend to be smaller than men's, more often informal,<sup>86</sup> and yield 30% less profit on average.<sup>87</sup>**

Rural women's enterprises are largely seasonal and temporary,<sup>88</sup> unprotected by labour law, while urban women's employment rate has been falling, and their enterprises have been badly affected by COVID-19.<sup>89</sup>

### Full-Time Female Labour by Sector (2019)



Source: International Labour Organisation (ILO) estimates

<sup>82</sup> World Economic Forum (2021) <sup>83</sup> Euromonitor International; IDRC (2020); World Bank (2021d)

<sup>84</sup> Byamugisha; Shamchiyeva; Kizu (2014) <sup>85</sup> Forum for Women in Democracy (FOWODE) (2020)

<sup>86</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2017) <sup>87</sup> Nakafeero; William; Puerto (2021) <sup>88</sup> Guloba; Ssewanyana; Birabwa (2017)

<sup>89</sup> Puerto; Kirkwood; Gokalp; Copley; Papineni (2021)

“Government has put affirmative action in, e.g. advertising for jobs, they say women will be given the opportunity and yet in the private sector, it is not very strong...it has not been put well in place. Secondly, some employers think that women don’t have responsibilities. So, when setting salary scale, their (women’s) salary is lower than for men.”

Source: INGO Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

**Gender inequalities in economic opportunity are also reflected in high wage inequality for similar work.** Median monthly earnings for women are estimated to be half that of men at USD28.90 for women compared to USD57.90 for men.<sup>90</sup> Young women continue to face discrimination in economic opportunities, earning 25% less than young men.<sup>91</sup> A Pathways Study interviewee suggested that the gender pay gap is particularly pronounced in the private sector, where gender-based discrimination in employment practices is rife.

**The COVID-19 pandemic has had a severe impact on economic activity in Uganda and a disproportionate effect on women.** While the COVID-19 pandemic was slow to spread in Africa, Uganda recorded some of the highest numbers within the Eastern and Great Lakes regions around April 2020.<sup>92</sup> In an attempt to halt the spread of the virus, the Ugandan government instituted one of Africa’s strictest lockdowns, which severely disrupted economic activity across

the country.<sup>93</sup> Additional spikes led to a further lockdown in September 2020 and loss of life, coupled with global trade and supply chain disruptions, plus sharply contracted economic activity including public investment and private consumption. In June 2021, as infections increased rapidly, another 42-day lockdown was imposed including school closures, and restrictions were only eased in November 2021.<sup>94</sup>

**In March 2020, Uganda’s Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development projected an increase in the number of people living in poverty by 2.6 million, domestic revenue shortfalls and heightened fiscal pressure due to the COVID-19 pandemic.**<sup>95</sup> Household incomes have been severely impacted by the pandemic; in the initial lockdown period most households (91%) involved in non-farm family businesses received less or no income from their businesses, and income from farming and wage employment remained lower in about 40% of households.<sup>96</sup>

<sup>90</sup> World Economic Forum (2020) <sup>91</sup> Khamis, M. (2019) <sup>92</sup> UNDP (2021) <sup>93</sup> Famine Early Warning Systems Network (2020)  
<sup>94</sup> FAO, USAID and IFPRI (2021) <sup>95</sup> UNDP (2021) <sup>96</sup> World Bank (2021b)

The persistence of the pandemic through 2021 was estimated to have cost 3.8 million jobs temporarily, and 0.6 million jobs permanently, particularly in the North and West regions.<sup>97</sup> Finally, Uganda's exports, which fell sharply in the early part of the COVID-19 pandemic, have achieved a partial recovery, led by coffee and gold. Uganda's tourism sector, however, is still generating less than half of its pre-pandemic revenue.<sup>98</sup>

**Global and regional evidence has highlighted the disproportionate effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on women.**

In Uganda, gender gaps in paid work and business ownership have increased, while job losses and school closures have increased women's unpaid care burden which in turn has limited their time for economic opportunities.<sup>99</sup> A rapid gender analysis during the pandemic found that in Uganda, 47% of women compared to 41% of men stopped working during the pandemic as a result of pandemic-related restrictions, and the decrease in working for a living was more significant for women (21% decrease) than for men (11% decrease).<sup>100</sup>

Findings of a 2020 phone survey study of 556 women aged 13 to 79 years in Wakiso district indicated that nearly half of the sample were experiencing increased IPV (physical or verbal).<sup>101</sup> A 2021 phone survey study on the gendered impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic found that while rural men reported selling assets as a coping strategy, rural women mostly reported borrowing (including from rotating savings schemes).<sup>102</sup> 17% of respondents also reported seeing or hearing underage girls getting married due to their household's economic difficulties during the pandemic, while around 50% of respondents reported seeing or hearing about teenage girls that got pregnant during school closures in late 2020.<sup>103</sup> This indicates that the long-term psychological, physical and socioeconomic effects of the COVID-19 pandemic could be more far-reaching for women and girls in Uganda due to IPV, depleted savings, child marriage and pregnancy.

<sup>97</sup> Lakuma; Sunday; Sserunjogi, Kahunde; Munyambonera (2020) <sup>98</sup> World Bank (2021d) <sup>99</sup> World Bank (2021d)

<sup>100</sup> UN Women (2020b) <sup>101</sup> Miller, AP., Mugamba, S., Bulamba, RM., Kyasanku, E., Nkale, J., Nalugoda, F., et al. (2022)

<sup>102</sup> FAO, USAID and IFPRI (2021) <sup>103</sup> FAO, USAID and IFPRI (2021)



# 4. Barriers and enablers to women's economic empowerment in Uganda

**This section of the report provides a detailed analysis of cross-cutting barriers and enablers to women's economic empowerment in Uganda, presented by each domain of the conceptual framework.**

## 4.1 Structural factors

### 4.1.1 Legal and policy commitments

**The Ugandan Constitution (1995) provides for equal rights of men and women** (33(1), et seq.), and prohibits “Laws, cultures, customs or traditions” which discriminate against women (33(6)). Uganda has ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), although it has not yet signed CEDAW’s Optional Protocol.<sup>104</sup>

#### **The government promotes equality through laws, policies and strategies on gender.**

The government’s effort in promoting gender equality has included the drafting of bills, such as the Domestic Violence Act (2020), The Prohibition of Female Genital Mutilation (2010) Marriage Bill (2007), the Succession Amendment Act (2018), the Sexual Offences Bill (2019), and the Equal Opportunities Commission Act.<sup>105</sup> Other efforts have included the National Gender Policy (2007), which guides gender mainstreaming across government sectors, the National Policy and Action Plan on Elimination of GBV (2016),<sup>106</sup> and the National Plan of Action for Sexual and Gender Based Violence and Violence Against Children (2019).<sup>107</sup>

**Several government institutions are involved in these efforts.** The Uganda Women Parliamentary Association (UWOPA)

oversees promoting new initiatives within parliament. The National Women’s Council was established in 1993 (amended in 2010) as an autonomous agency working to bring Ugandan women together for development purposes. The Ministry for Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD) plays the lead role in mainstreaming gender into policy and practice together with gender focal points and units from other ministries.<sup>108</sup> However, a Pathways Study interviewee noted challenges for other ministries such as the Ministry of Agriculture to fully mainstream gender, due to budget constraints, and the perception that gender is MGLSD’s mandate.

**The Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic development (MFPED) has issued a requirement for gender-responsive budgeting** in the 2015 Public Finance Act, as well as awarding certificates for gender compliance to Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) as a mandatory requirement for financial allocations. The Equal Opportunities Commission (established in 2007) oversees assessing compliance on Gender and Equity. The commission has, for example, assessed the Ministerial Policy statements of Agriculture, noting improvements in scores over the years (49%, 70% and 79.3% for the FYs 2016/2017, 2017/2018 and 2018/2019, respectively).<sup>109</sup>

<sup>104</sup> Based on the UN Treaty Database. Available at [https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/\\_layouts/15/TreatyBodyExternal/Treaty.aspx?CountryID=182&Lang=EN](https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/15/TreatyBodyExternal/Treaty.aspx?CountryID=182&Lang=EN) <sup>105</sup> UNDP (2020b) <sup>106</sup> UNDP (2020b) <sup>107</sup> Ministry of Health, Republic of Uganda (2019) <sup>108</sup> UNDP (2017) <sup>109</sup> IWCA (2019a)

**Women MPs are working together for more gender-sensitive legislation**  
 Women politicians are increasingly focusing on facilitating social change. A noteworthy example is the Uganda Women Parliamentary Association (UWOPA), which comprises all female members of parliament, as well as some male MPs, and honorary caucus members. Founded during Uganda's Fifth Parliament (1989-1994), the caucus actively promotes gender equality in the legislative process, as well as raising awareness and encouraging lobbying and advocacy. In this way, UWOPA has garnered support for legislation such as the Domestic Violence Bill, the Children's (Amendment) Bill, and the bill against female genital mutilation. A unified legislative agenda for women was also developed, namely, to bring a coherent approach to gender equality in the legislative process. UWOPA has likewise developed plans to promote the implementation of this agenda - through means such as advocacy, alliance building and mentoring.

Source: UWOPA 2016-2021 Strategic Plan

#### 4.1.2 Policy environment

Uganda's policy framework is generally supportive of women's economic activities although some gaps exist with regard to parental leave<sup>110</sup> and protection against discrimination and harassment. Key policies and provisions are discussed immediately below.

The **Third National Development Plan (NDP III; 2020/21-2024/25)** and **Vision 2040** prioritises women's empowerment and gender equality. Measures include promoting women's economic empowerment, through investment in entrepreneurship programmes, expanding social protection, scaling up gender-based violence (GBV) prevention and

responses, or supporting gender-sensitive budgeting at local government level.<sup>111</sup>

The Parish Development Model (PDM) launched by the Ugandan government in February 2022 is a strategy for participatory public service delivery, wealth creation and employment generation.<sup>112</sup> With seven pillars aligned to NDP III,<sup>113</sup> the Ugandan government is prioritising "production, storage, processing and marketing" and financial inclusion for job creation. The need for the PDM to be well aligned with the NDP III (from planning to implementation and monitoring) in order to achieve its objectives has been flagged.<sup>114</sup> The importance of awareness building among communities is also key for acceptance and potential success.<sup>115</sup>

<sup>110</sup> The Ugandan 2006 Employment Act makes no relevant provision for paid parental leave. World Bank 2022 (Women, Business and the Law) and ILO <sup>111</sup> World Bank (2021d) <sup>112</sup> Guloba, M. (2022) <sup>113</sup> Guloba, M. (2022) <sup>114</sup> Ainomugisha, S. (2022) <sup>115</sup> ACODE (2021)



| Law   | Key Areas to Address  |
|---|---|
| Succession Amendment Act 2019                   | Does not apply to Muslim communities  |
| Domestic Violence Act                           | Does not cover cohabiting partners  |
| 2004 amendment to the Land Act of 1998          | Does not recognise co-ownership of land between spouses   |
| Employment (Sexual Harassment) Regulations 2012 | Does not cover full range of unacceptable behaviours directed at a person because of their sex or gender      |
| Sexual Offences Bill 2019                       | Criminalises consensual sex work and does not cover protections against sexual harassment of informal workers |
| 2006 Employment Act                             | No requirements for paid parental leave, does not prohibit sexual harassment by co-workers                    |

Relatedly, in implementing the PDM, lessons learned from preceding initiatives including Operation Wealth Creation (OWC) should be leveraged.

The Constitution of Uganda **protects choice of work as well as equal pay**. Uganda's Employment Act reinforces these provisions, making discrimination based on sex or HIV status illegal, among other protected groups.

The **National Co-operative Policy (2010)** states that its vision is "a self-driven, vibrant, prosperous and gender responsive cooperative movement". However, there have reportedly been gaps in sufficient budgetary allocations, actions, and monitoring to effectively promote gender mainstreaming in practice.<sup>116</sup>

The **Agricultural Sector Strategic Plan 2015/16 - 2019/20** seeks to create employment opportunities especially for women and

youth, seeking to promote more inclusive and efficient agricultural systems, with gender a key cross-cutting issue. It promotes the use of gender analysis and gender-based budgeting in all community-based development programmes. Relevant gender-responsive activities include facilitating training in joint decision making; encouraging women to take up leadership positions in farmer groups and cooperatives; developing appropriate labour-saving technologies; institutionalise gender mainstreaming; and promoting a women's fund.<sup>117</sup> Other supporting agricultural policies recognising the role of women and/or with specific provisions for include: National Fertiliser Policy (2016: Section 4.6.1), National Organic Agriculture Policy (2019: Sections 3.3 and 5.2), National Agriculture Policy (2013: Sections 4.12 and 4.17), National Irrigation Policy (2017: Sections 2.6 and 4) and National Water Policy (1999).

<sup>116</sup> Majurin (2012) <sup>117</sup> Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industries and Fisheries (2016)

Ugandan law **recognises gender equality in access to financial services** including accessing bank accounts, signing contracts and registering businesses, but it **does not prohibit discrimination in access to credit** based on gender. In practice, poor law enforcement means that women face greater obstacles in accessing financial services than men.<sup>118</sup>

The **National Social Protection Policy for Uganda**, which was launched in November 2015, provides a wider framework for social protection implementation. However, as acknowledged in the 2017 Social Protection Gender Equity Strategy, interventions so far are generic in nature, “without special attention to the needs of the various categories of vulnerabilities”,<sup>119</sup> such as women, youth and the elderly.

A critical recent development is the **Succession Amendment Act, 2021**. A result of intense advocacy and lobbying by the women’s rights movement, the revised law addresses previous inequalities in inheritance by providing equal provisions for female and male heirs and dependents’ right to inherit land and other assets. This includes a stipulation that surviving spouses will now be entitled to 50% of the estates of a deceased intestate,<sup>120</sup> up from the previous 15%.<sup>121</sup> However, Muslims are exempt on religious grounds, and there is a lack of data on implementation to date.

In addition, in April 2020, the **Employment (Amendment) Bill** was also passed, stating that all employers are now required to put in place measures to prevent sexual harassment in the workplace, and to prohibit abuse, harassment or violence against employees. This bill also provides care for unpaid domestic workers, most of which are women.<sup>122</sup> However, Uganda is yet to ratify the International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention No. 190 on Violence and Harassment, and gaps remain in national legislation to fully protect female workers from discrimination, harassment and abuse.<sup>123</sup> Furthermore, legal provisions do not sufficiently protect paid work for women who want to continue to work following childbirth.<sup>124</sup>

**Pathways Study interviewees highlighted key gaps between national level policy and local level implementation.** Insufficient resourcing of national policy was raised as a critical challenge, as well as challenges rolling out national level policy commitments at the local level.

**Customary law continues to govern several areas of people’s lives in different parts of the country.** Informal customary land ownership is much more common than formal land ownership; only 15–20% of land is formally registered. Women face barriers to formal land ownership given prohibitive costs

<sup>118</sup> World Bank (2021c) <sup>119</sup> The Republic of Uganda (2017)

<sup>120</sup> Dying intestate refers to a situation whereby an individual dies without making a will

<sup>121</sup> Parliament of Uganda (2021, 31 March) <sup>122</sup> UN Women (2021, 23 August) <sup>123</sup> Varia (2019, 25 June)

<sup>124</sup> World Bank (2021c); World Bank (2021d)

“...Policies are living, they change over time and the policy environment is usually not very stable...(and) we build policies but there are usually few resources to implement them in their entirety. So, some of the provisions are not actually implemented, and it becomes a serious constraint...you also need human and monetary resources to implement... from national to rural to the village level, but the political will is also constrained by resources to implement.”

Source: Government Official (Pathways Study Interview)

and are discriminated against when it comes to the customary land tenure system, which is not required to include women as co-owners.<sup>125</sup>

### 4.1.3 Government programmes and initiatives promoting women’s economic empowerment

**A comprehensive landscaping of WEE programmes and initiatives in Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya found that most interventions focus on financial inclusion, property and asset, vocational and life skills acquisition.**<sup>126</sup> For example, the Ugandan Women Entrepreneurship Programme, aims to boost entrepreneurship among women through adequate access to interest-free credit, market intelligence and capacity building. In Kamuli district, 89 women groups (comprising 1,018 women) have received UGX584.9 million in UWEP funding from 2015/2016<sup>127</sup> to 2019/2020. Beneficiaries have utilised profits from UWEP ventures to purchase household assets such as furniture, and also benefit from training.

Similarly, key intervention areas in the NDP III explicitly target women by focusing on employment programmes, vocational training, land tenure security for women, access to agricultural finance, and support for women farmers to transition to agro-business, export-orientated production.<sup>128</sup> Still, more research and evidence is needed to assess the effectiveness of these programmes on women’s economic empowerment.

**On the other hand, WEE areas with limited policy and programme attention include digital inclusion, social and workplace protection, and alleviation of unpaid care and domestic work.** The same study identified that a main barrier to achieving women’s economic empowerment is that many of the large economic development programmes are not explicitly designed to address women’s economic empowerment, and generally fail to mainstream issues related to gender, with monitoring of WEE-related outcomes weak and inconsistent.<sup>129</sup>

<sup>125</sup> World Bank (2021c); World Bank (2021d)

<sup>126</sup> Stanford’s Global Center for Gender Equality (2020) <sup>127</sup> Republic of Uganda, Local Government, Kamuli District (n.d.)

<sup>128</sup> The Republic of Uganda (2020) <sup>129</sup> Stanford’s Global Center for Gender Equality (2020)

#### 4.1.4 Selected non-governmental stakeholders supporting women

Civil society organisations in Uganda are mostly active in the areas of programming (including for training/skill development and protection from gender-based violence (GBV)) and advocacy around women's rights. Some notable organisations and their focus areas are highlighted in the table below.

| Organisation   | Key Focus Areas   | Research | Advocacy | Programming |
|--|---|----------|----------|-------------|
| <b>Ugandan Women's Network (UWONET)</b>                                | Network of 16 women's organisations. In 2015, UWONET released "The Women's Manifesto 2016-2021" to highlight policy priorities for women in both rural and urban areas. The five major priorities are: the betterment of women's health; land and property rights; education; economic empowerment; and decision making in politics | ✓        | ✓        | ✓           |
| <b>National Association of Women's Organisations in Uganda (NAWOU)</b> | Work focuses on the prevention of gender-based violence and economic empowerment for women  |          | ✓        | ✓           |
| <b>Uganda Women's Entrepreneurs Association (UWEAL)</b>                | Interventions target women in trade, mindset and skills development, and girl and youth empowerment   |          | ✓        | ✓           |
| <b>Akina Mama wa Afrika</b>  | Large, pan-African, Kampala-based organisation focused on sexual health, economic justice, peace and security and women in decision making  | ✓        | ✓        | ✓           |
| <b>Forum for Women in Democracy</b>                                    | Aligned with UWOPA, working on gender and economic justice, political leadership (e.g. training) and research   | ✓        | ✓        | ✓           |
| <b>Mentoring Empowerment Programme for Young Women</b>                 | Training on human rights and gender, sexual and reproductive health and leadership, as well as advocacy work  |          | ✓        | ✓           |
| <b>MIFUMI</b>  | NGO works on strengthening of women's rights in Uganda and protection of women and children experiencing violence and other forms of abuse  |          | ✓        | ✓           |
| <b>Little Light Uganda</b>   | "Umoja", the women's group within the NGO, improves the lives of women from Namowungo slum by providing them with the tools to achieve autonomous economic and social prosperity through beadwork   |          | ✓        | ✓           |
| <b>Resilient Women's Organization (RWO)</b>                            | Aims to create lasting solutions for unemployment and poverty in the lives of teenage mothers, young women, and other at-risk groups through female education and empowerment programmes  |          | ✓        | ✓           |

## 4.2 Normative factors

### 4.2.1 Norms around paid and unpaid labour

“When [women] are married, they live with their husbands who want them to concentrate on family issues; if they happen to get work outside home, the husbands have a negative attitude about it.”

Source: Producers’ Association Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

**Ugandan’s patriarchal society shapes gender norms and roles which impact on economic activity and women’s potential. Gendered roles and stereotypes which position women as caregivers and men as protectors, undermine and perpetuate inequalities in the provision of unpaid care work.** Consequently, women tend to undertake the bulk of care work (childcare as well as care for family members), in addition to undertaking unpaid labour such as food production on land they do not own.<sup>130</sup> A mixed-methods survey from 2017 with over 1,000 households in three districts found that more women (18.2%) engaged in unpaid care work the previous day compared to men (3.1%), while more men (24%) engaged in paid work than women (13.8%). On average, women spent 32 hours weekly on unpaid care work and 21 hours weekly on unpaid production of produce for home consumption, while men spent 20 and 10

hours per week, respectively. The burden for looking after younger siblings increased for older girls (13-17 years). Peak periods of care and domestic work were the morning (7am-10am) and lunchtimes (11am-2pm).<sup>131</sup>

**In all examined sectors for this report, women contribute a significant portion of the labour, but tend to be concentrated in lower-paid positions.**<sup>132</sup> Men continue to dominate further up the value chain in more remunerative and management positions.<sup>133</sup> For example, in the agricultural sector, women tend to provide most of the labour in planting and tending any given crop, though men also play a role. Men then predominate in selling the crop, as well as further up the value chain (such as coffee grinding or maize milling) (see sections 5.1 and 5.2, respectively). In fishing, men reap and sell the most valuable catch, Nile perch, while women play a greater role in less valuable

<sup>130</sup> Government of Uganda, National Planning Authority (NPA), (2017)

<sup>131</sup> Oxfam (2018)

<sup>132</sup> C Chang (2010), in AfDB (2016); Farm Africa (2020); AfDB (2016); Specialty Coffee Association of America (2015); Godfrey (2010)

<sup>133</sup> Godfrey (2010) in McKenna (2014)

**“You find that women do much of the work in farming. The men just do ploughing. From planting, it is women. Weeding and harvesting all fall under women. Men appear at the time of selling.”**

Source: Farmers’ Association Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

species (see section 5.3). In tourism, women predominantly occupy low-paid hospitality positions, such as waitressing, housekeeping and hotel reception, while men predominate in managerial positions (see section 5.4).

This relegation inherently constrains women’s potential, such that as the sectors develop, the growth benefits men more than women. Noteworthy is that gender norms and roles present just the causal perspective. The impact perspective relating to the potential internalisation of gendered roles by women also deserves attention and action, as women could passively accept these lower paying and labour-intensive roles or even avoid certain tasks, having been socialised to do so.

**Pathways Study interviewees highlighted how women’s economic opportunities are constrained by their household and reproductive responsibilities.** In particular, evidence from the coffee sector suggests that while women and girls plant and harvest the coffee crop, this labour is often viewed as part of women’s duties to the household similar to other uncompensated forms of labour such as childcare.<sup>134</sup> Another household survey from 2010 found that while women were responsible for growing the crop in 53% of cases, they sold it in just 9% of cases and only played a role in deciding how the money from the sale was spent in 17% of cases.<sup>135</sup>

**“...women contribute up to 75% of total agricultural labour; 55% of land preparation, 65% of planting, and 90% of weeding and food processing)...”**

Source: World Bank (2021) Uganda Economic Update. From Crisis to Green Resilient Growth: Investing in Sustainable Land Management and Climate Smart Agriculture.

<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/35689?show=full&locale-attribute=fr>

<sup>134</sup> Austin, K. F. (2017)

<sup>135</sup> Godfrey, A.B. (2010)

“...The board that governs BHTB (Buganda Heritage & Tourism Board) has ladies: the CEO is a lady down to the staff - cashiers, office assistants, administrators, ushers and tour guides. You will appreciate the role these ladies play especially when you go to one of our sites. If you go to the palace, a complete tour of the palace takes a minimum of 40 minutes, but it includes walking a stretch of about 200 metres to and from, so 400 metres. For a woman who can do three tours a day, it’s not an easy job. You do the talk, and you do the walk...”

Source: Industry Association Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

**Nevertheless, insights from Pathways Study interviews highlighted that some women have managed to circumvent these normative challenges in the different focus sectors.** For example, in tourism, some women have moved into relatively lucrative positions such as tour guides. And, in coffee, tourism and aquaculture (though not as much in capture fishing), some women had worked their way into executive positions at the top of the industry. In most cases, the support of male family members appears important for women advancing their careers. These

examples, potentially highlight examples of “positive deviants” which can be promoted through gender-responsive behaviour change interventions.

### Employment segregation

**Gendered employment segregation<sup>136</sup> in Uganda is high;** women are restricted to low-skilled, low-paying jobs, often in the informal sector where they earn less than their male counterparts. Consequently, at the national level, the median monthly earnings for women are estimated to be half those of

“...a woman cannot decide what crop to grow, which crop to harvest, what to sell and what to eat...a woman cannot even make decisions on her own money because of the norms, the culture.

As you are getting married they are telling you, “omwami” (husband), she’s even making the money and giving to “omwami”. These are engraved as social cultural norms...we need to sensitise both men and women but also not forget about transformation of the mindset (of women), whether they are able to make their own decisions, have a voice...”

Source: Industry Association Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>136</sup> Defined as the unequal distribution of female and male workers across and within job types. Das and Koticula (2019)

“Gender roles of women are a barrier to their employment and have implications for their career development and growth because they must take time away from work. Employers would prefer to hire men who may take five days paternity leave compared to maternity leave which is three months.”

Source: Industry Association Representative (Tourism & Hospitality) (Pathways Study Interview)

men (UGX140,000 for women compared to UGX250,000 for men, both in their main job).<sup>137</sup> Pathways Study interviewees also highlighted gender discriminatory practices in hiring, especially in the private sector including women not being hired due to potential maternity leave requirements, or women being offered lower salaries than their male counterparts.

**Norms around land ownership significantly restrict women’s economic opportunities in the agricultural sector.** In this sector, while women constitute just over half of the agricultural labour force,<sup>138</sup> they are disproportionately represented in low-value farm work, and significantly fewer women own land compared to men. National source estimates are that women own only 28% of

land in Uganda.<sup>139</sup> However, sub-national situations differ. For example, considering both individual and joint ownership, a 2011 study in Masaka district found that 88% of men owned land compared to 32% of women, with individual ownership figures being 43% for men and 17% for women.<sup>140</sup> Another 2017 study in Lango region found that men owned around 70% of the land, 25% was jointly owned by a married couple and inherited from the man’s family, while women owned just 5% of the land.<sup>141</sup>

Men, on the other hand, tend to predominate in the sale of crops and value-added activities such as maize milling or coffee grinding. Men also operate as intermediaries, as market representatives of coffee, and other cash crops that women largely cultivate. Ugandan

“...government has introduced affirmative action, e.g. in advertising for jobs, they say women will be given the opportunity, and yet if you are in the private sector, it (affirmative action) is not very strong. Then, some employers, they think that women don’t have responsibilities. So, when setting salary scales, their salary is lower than for a man.”

Source: INGO Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>137</sup> World Bank (2021d) <sup>138</sup> World Economic Forum (2020) <sup>139</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS 2012) in Tibenkana, S. (2019)  
<sup>140</sup> Kes, A., Jacobs, K., & Namy, S. (2011) <sup>141</sup> Kaweesa, S., Mkomwa, S., Loiskandl, W. (2018)

“Access to land is an issue for women...men own land and decide which crop is to be grown where. Men also decide which portion of land the woman will plant her crops and which portion remains for the man. So, access is still wanting (resource allocation). Land belongs to men and even in Buganda where we have customary land, it is men who occupy, even in Busosa...the woman only has the power if she has bought her own piece of land. Women can access but don't have power over that land.”

Source: NGO Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

women thus find themselves confined to underpaid, or often unpaid, labour in the coffee sector, while men dominate the roles with greater potential for wealth creation. As an example, in one study of households cultivating maize, both men and women interviewed reported that men received more revenue from sales than women, both by selling more of the crop and also for receiving a better price for it.<sup>142</sup>

**Cash crops are typically seen as men's property as linked to the land, which influences how roles and management are distributed across agricultural value chains.**<sup>143</sup> Conversely, food crops are seen as a woman's domain. For cash crops, men

usually retain decision-making authority in such matters as when or what to grow, how to control pests and when to harvest.<sup>144, 145</sup> In agriculture, women comprise only 11% of Ugandan extension workers, and extension services target women farmers less often than they do men.<sup>146, 147</sup>

These gender norms around paid and unpaid labour in Uganda are potentially rooted in or were reinforced by colonial-era practices. The contribution of unpaid work/labour by women and women not benefiting from proceeds of cash crops despite contributing labour in their cultivation are reported as having occurred during the colonial period.<sup>148</sup>

“The biggest issue of land ownership here in Africa: it is perceived land belongs to men, that cash crops also belong to men. So women are left with food crops which are seasonal.”

Source: NGO Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>142</sup> Van Campenhout; Lecoutere; Spielman (2020) <sup>143</sup> Farm Africa (2020) <sup>144</sup> hang (2010), in AfDB (2016); Van Campenhout; Lecoutere; Spielman (2021); Wessel et al. (2019); Acosta et al. (2020) <sup>145</sup> Kumara, Y.A. (2018) <sup>146</sup> Van Campenhout; Lecoutere; Spielman (2020) <sup>147</sup> Nkonya, E.M., Kwapong, N. A., Kato, E., Rwamigisa, P., Bashaasha, B., Mangheni, M.N. (2020). This source also indicates that NGO-affiliated extension services employed more women extension agents (26.9% share versus the 10.3% share of government female extension workers and the 16.7% share of National Agriculture Advisory Services of Uganda (NAADS) female extension workers). The NGO-affiliated extension services also targeted female farmers more often than other extension services.

<sup>148</sup> Whitehead (1990) and Summers (2002) in de Haas (2022)

## 4.2.2 Voice, representation and leadership in decision making

### Women's political participation and leadership

**Despite some recent progress in women's political representation, politics and decision making remain male-dominated in Uganda.** According to the 2021 Global Gender Gap Report,<sup>149</sup> only 31.8% of legislators, senior officials and managers are women. At the local level, although Article 180 (2:b) of the Ugandan constitution of 1995 states that one third of the membership of each local government council shall be reserved for women, in reality, women councillors are under-represented in all districts and women mayors are a rarity.<sup>150</sup> Furthermore, female parliamentarians reportedly face discrimination including hostility and abuse from male parliamentarians as well as exclusion from bars and social clubs where much of the informal business of the Ugandan parliament takes place.<sup>151</sup> Still, as discussed earlier in

section 4.1.2, UWOPA is making strides with its awareness and advocacy activities in Parliament.

**When policies are supportive of women in leadership in formal groups, women's active participation increases, providing role models for the next generation of female leaders.** For example, the Uganda National Farmers' Federation (UNFFE) promotes women in leadership through a quota system whereby a third of leaders must be women. A representative interviewed for the Pathways Study explained that this policy has helped to promote women in different stages of the value chain, improved women's self-confidence and negotiating skills, and increased their information access and active participation in meetings and training, while another Pathways Study interviewee explained the transformative effects of women in leadership on girls' and young women's aspirations.

“There is a time we went to Kamuli (district in Eastern Uganda) where we had a project with the youths who were asked: “in future what do you want to be”? They said “we want to be like you”. These young girls in Kamuli keep saying if you ask them, what you want to be in future, that I want to be like Kadaga (first female speaker of Uganda's parliament). So, I think if we have many women who are inspirational and these girls are given opportunity, they can contribute greatly to the sector.”

Source: NGO Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>149</sup> World Economic Forum (2020) <sup>150</sup> International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (2021) <sup>151</sup> Refki et al. (2014)

### Intra-household decision making<sup>152</sup>

**For women operating informal businesses such as in agriculture, their households and communities act like market institutions,** as both can limit or enable women's economic activities, transactions and relationships, as well as women's control over and access to the fruits of their labour.<sup>153</sup>

As many women do not hold titles to family land, they are unable to make key economic decisions despite contributing the majority of the labour for key agricultural activities: up to 75% of total agricultural labour; 55% of land preparation; 65% of planting; and 90% of weeding and food processing.<sup>154</sup> A study with farmer households in Nwoya district in Northern Uganda found that contrary to expected processes and outcomes associated with intra-household decision making, joint decisions between spouses ranged from “no conversation” to situations where the woman's opinion was considered but the man's decision was final.<sup>155</sup> **Women's limited decision-making power within most Ugandan households hinders their economic potential as well as the economic wellbeing of their families.** Pathways Study interviewees highlighted women's limited decision-making power concerning financial decision making including what crops to grow, when to harvest and sell crops, and which produce to keep for household consumption, as well as

how to spend any income earned. Qualitative research in Uganda also found that women need permission from or consult with men to spend the money they have earned through sales of crops or use of assets.<sup>156</sup> Further evidence highlights that despite some limited joint spousal discussions, male heads of household most often make the ultimate decisions regarding the adoption of agricultural practices and consumption expenses. This cuts across household and domestic matters and the production and sale of agricultural produce. In business, men tend to have control over marketing, sales, and spending with their authority over these aspects especially extending to cash crops such as coffee.<sup>157</sup>

**When development interventions focused on women fail to engage with intra-household decision making and norms, they struggle to effectively improve women's economic and social capital.**

For example, a Pathways Study interviewee described how an intervention targeting women in the maize sector found that men tend to dominate and control the milling machines given to women, and subsequently any increase in income from the intervention. Another Pathways Study interviewee highlighted the potential for backlash (household clashes) from women's empowerment interventions which fail to engage men too (e.g. as beneficiaries from

<sup>152</sup> Discussions held between or among members of a household to reach decisions that affect all household members directly or indirectly <sup>153</sup> Heintz 2021 in Calder et al., 2021 <sup>154</sup> Sebudde et al. (2021) <sup>155</sup> Acosta et al. (2020) <sup>156</sup> Coffee Quality Institute (n.d.) <sup>157</sup> Acosta et al. (2020)

“Most of the solutions will need to involve the couples in training. In our organisation, for instance, we have a group of 10 people: seven women and three men, you train them on how to utilise their crops well, for example, on harvesting. They need to plan as a family but also emphasise to the men that ladies should be involved in the decision making of the family. For instance, if they have produced 100kg of maize, let the men first sit with their ladies and discuss how to utilise the maize because she knows the food requirements of the household per day.”

Source: Producers’ Association Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

the intervention, in sensitisation about the added value of potential economic support from their partners and in training on how to support their female partners). Still, besides co-opting men, supporting initiatives should be established specifically for women including market linkages, networking, business skills training, etc.

**However, where there is joint intra-household decision making, women appear to have more access to their own income and income from family farms, with positive effects on household food security.** For example, a Pathways Study interviewee explained how women’s engagement in crop harvest decisions is essential to ensure household food security

given that they better understand long-term household food requirements. Similarly, another Pathways Study interviewee highlighted the importance of engaging men and boys in all economic interventions targeting women and girls. Besides correcting socialised gender norms that men and boys may hold, it also builds trust and fosters cooperation as benefits are not limited to women and girls only. Secondary evidence supports the benefits of such an approach; a recent study on decision making in smallholder coffee farming households in central Uganda found that participatory intra-household decision making contributed to women’s enhanced access to household income from coffee products.<sup>158</sup> These findings highlight the importance of targeted

“...my wife has her own coffee and also I have mine. She can sell her own coffee and she decides what to use her money for. When it comes to taking care of my coffee, she does it with ease because after all she also has hers and, she knows the value of coffee.”

Source: Representative, Producers’ Association, Coffee (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>158</sup> Farm Africa (2020)

interventions working to promote more equitable intra-household relationship dynamics.

### 4.2.3 Women's freedom of mobility

**Norms around women's mobility, and attachment and responsibilities associated with the family home restrict the types of income-earning activities they can be involved in.** Case studies have highlighted how some husbands will not allow their wives to become tour guides if such a business activity would lead to their extended absence from home. Conversely, husbands may encourage their wives to produce handicrafts, in part because women can do so from home, while still meeting their domestic responsibilities.<sup>159</sup>

**“For a woman to ride a motorcycle in Kapchorwa here, it is like a tourist attraction. Actually, in Kapchorwa here, I only know two women who can ride a motorcycle.”**

Source: Cooperative Official (Pathways Study Interview)

**Along the same lines, agricultural outputs such as maize for sale attract the lowest price at the farm gate, where it is sold to itinerant traders.** If sold at more centralised markets, the crop attracts a higher price -

by almost 50%, in some cases.<sup>160</sup> However, women's greater domestic duties, and related stigmas against women travelling for too long or too far from the family home, often prevent them from going to market.<sup>161</sup>

**Pathways Study interviewees also highlighted the issue of lack of transport constraining women, impacted by norms around what is considered suitable transport for women.** For example, in some areas, social prohibitions, such as against women riding bicycles or motorbikes (the main form of transportation), further inhibit market sales.

### 4.2.4 Violence against women and girls

**The most recently available (2012) estimate of the annual cost of service provision for intimate partner violence (IPV) cases for various providers and duty bearers is UGX56 billion (USD22.4 million).**<sup>162</sup> Violence against women and girls constrains women's economic outcomes, while at the same time, women who are in employment or earning more than their partner may be more at risk of experiencing intimate partner violence for challenging the status quo.<sup>163</sup> According to the 2016 demographic and health survey, half of all women (50%) aged 15-49 have experienced some form of physical or sexual violence by an intimate partner, and almost one in three

<sup>159</sup> UNWTO (2019) <sup>160</sup> Yamano; Arai (2011) <sup>161</sup> USAID (2017) <sup>162</sup> Kasirye, I. (2012) Economic Costs of Domestic Violence in Uganda <https://www.cedovip.org/download/economic-cost-of-domestic-violence-in-uganda/> <sup>163</sup> Stöckl, H et al. (2021)

(30%) had experienced intimate partner violence in the previous 12 months.<sup>164</sup>

**Underlying high levels of VAWG are gender-inequitable attitudes and norms which normalise forms of abuse.** For example, a recent large-scale survey found that about one third of men and women believed that a woman should tolerate violence to keep her family together (34%), and more than half of respondents (57-58%) believed violence should be a private matter without interference from others.<sup>165</sup>

**Economic violence and asset dispossession are key barriers to women's economic empowerment.** While there is limited data available on the scale of economic violence, anecdotal evidence from case studies suggests this form of gender-based violence is normalised, such as husbands demanding their partner's income or denying women control over the income they earn.<sup>166</sup> When women challenge their male partner's control over income, they may be

subjected to increased forms of violence and abuse. Furthermore, while currently under-researched, gender-based land dispossession - against widows and divorced women - significantly affects household livelihoods, with dire consequences for women's economic empowerment, and consequently the economic development of Uganda.<sup>167</sup>

**Sexual harassment at work presents barriers to women's economic opportunities and wellbeing.** While data on the scale of sexual harassment in the workplace is limited, small-scale studies have highlighted the issue of sexual harassment in the export horticultural industry where supervisors sexually harass women workers.<sup>168</sup> Women with low-income levels and casual workers in insecure jobs may be particularly at risk.<sup>169</sup>

**“The new entrants were complaining about the issue of sexual harassment/advances. That when you want to get a stall in the market, the person or office you are supposed to go to will tell you first give me “something” before I give you a stall...if you don't “allow”, then they put you in those corners whereby even customers accessing you might find it very hard.”**

Source: Community-Based Organisation Official (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>165</sup> Vlahovicova et al.(2019) <sup>166</sup> UNWTO (2019) <sup>167</sup> Housing and Land Rights Network (2021) <sup>168</sup> Barrientos (2014)  
<sup>169</sup> Jacobs; Brahic; Olaiya (2015)

### 4.3 Individual factors

Individual factors, including human, social and economic capital, influence women's economic opportunities and outcomes, as well as their exposure and resilience to economic and climatic shocks.

#### 4.3.1 Human capital

**Inequalities in education and skills affect access to economic and financial opportunities and benefits.** Women's educational attainment in Uganda lags men's, largely due to families prioritising boys' education over girls', and, relatedly, young women dropping out of school more often, or earlier, than young men (see section 3.2). Some of these gaps have been exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic, with fewer girls resuming education than boys following national lockdowns. Gaps in educational attainment coupled with norms around occupational sex segregation - exclude women from higher-skilled, higher-paid jobs and enterprise ownership.<sup>170</sup> Lower levels of educational attainment also correspond with lower wage employment; of the working population, only 42.5% with some primary education are employed compared to 67.8% who have completed secondary education employed and 84.9% of those with post-secondary and higher education employed.<sup>171</sup> Female students are also the minority in Business Technical Vocational Education and Training (BTVET)

institutions that provide skills training in more technical, higher-paying economic sectors.<sup>172</sup>

**Over a third of Ugandan women are illiterate.**<sup>173</sup> Lack of educational attainment and financial literacy undermines women's ability to keep financial records or articulate plans and projections needed to access financial institutions.<sup>174</sup> Higher levels of education likewise improve access to financial services,<sup>175</sup> and hence the ability to invest in current land holdings or expand those holdings. Finally, at the top end of the value chain, and especially in formal employment, many positions require education beyond the primary level.<sup>176</sup> Furthermore, women typically have less access to sector-specific information than men, due to norms which constrain them to the home, according to a Pathways Study interviewee.

**There is a clear gender gap in the skill levels of jobs in most sectors of Uganda, with men tending to dominate in higher skilled jobs and professions.**<sup>177</sup> Besides technical and financial skills gaps, because of gender inequalities and socialisation, women may lack non-cognitive skills such as self-confidence, self-esteem and determination, especially in typically male-dominated sectors.<sup>178</sup> Furthermore, women (especially young women) neither aware of nor knowledgeable about alternative and more remunerative livelihoods.<sup>179</sup>

<sup>170</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2021) in World Bank (2021d) <sup>171</sup> World Bank (2021d) <sup>172</sup> World Bank (2021d)

<sup>173</sup> Uganda Bureau of National Statistics (2016) <sup>174</sup> Norfund (2020) <sup>175</sup> Buyinza; Tibaingana; Mutenyo (2018)

<sup>176</sup> University of Portsmouth (n.d.) <sup>177</sup> World Bank (2021d) <sup>178</sup> Francisco et al. (2019) <sup>179</sup> World Bank (2021d)

**“We need training to concretise their saving culture, and need to give them more working capital...training such as book-keeping is very important. A woman should be able to know that if I buy tomatoes of this quantity, I should be able to record all expenses and see how much I have profited.”**

Source: NGO Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

**Lack of digital skills and lack of mobile devices prevent Ugandan women from accessing digital technologies.**<sup>180</sup> According to a recent survey, there is a significant gender gap in basic internet access with only 19% of Ugandan women online compared to 27% of men. Also, only 69% of women own mobile phones compared to 84% of men.<sup>181</sup> Moreover, evidence suggests male farmers adopt new agricultural technology more readily than female farmers, because of better access to finance, higher education levels and larger plots of land.<sup>182</sup>

**High fertility rates and high unmet need for family planning, and short birth spacing coupled with poor or non-existent maternity provision affect women’s labour market participation and broader economic outcomes.** Adolescent pregnancy increases risk of educational dropout which in turn affects economic outcomes; adolescent mothers are three times less likely to have professional jobs and twice as likely to be in subsistence agriculture than other women.<sup>183</sup>

### 4.3.2 Social capital

**Women in Uganda tend to have less access to vertical social capital than men, who have greater access to job networks and mentors in higher-paying (typically male-dominated) fields.**<sup>184</sup> Similarly, a study of banana farmers from 2004/2005 found that women engage less than men in information exchange with others, civic engagement and social institutions. Furthermore, men had wider private social networks than female-headed households.<sup>185</sup> A more recent in-depth qualitative study from the rice and cassava value chains similarly found that gender norms impede women’s ability to develop inter-organisation business relationships (i.e. between non-family actors) necessary for growing family businesses because of restricted mobility, lack of trust by men, limited freedom of communication, and unpaid care and work burdens.<sup>186</sup>

<sup>180</sup> Atim (2021) <sup>181</sup> Finscope Uganda (2018) <sup>182</sup> Teklewold; Adam; Marenja (2020) <sup>183</sup> UNFPA (2022) <sup>184</sup> World Bank (2021d)  
<sup>185</sup> Smale et al. (2008) <sup>186</sup> Theeuwien et al. (2021)

**From a sample of primary cooperatives across various regions of Uganda and different sectors, women constituted about 42% of cooperative members in 2009.**<sup>187</sup> Women's participation in cooperatives is reportedly on the rise in Uganda, in part due to the rise in Savings and Credit Cooperative Organisations (SACCOs). However, women remain under-represented in mixed-sex cooperatives in terms of membership, employees and leadership. On the other hand, women-led cooperatives remain limited in number and more limited in connections to support institutions than male-led cooperatives.<sup>188</sup> Furthermore, women continue to be excluded from participation, leadership and decision making. A mixed methods study with coffee farmer learning groups in Sironko and Manafwa districts found that “among the high-level participants, about 47% were men as compared to 26% who were women”.<sup>189</sup> The study attributed women's lower participation to women's lower status in society.<sup>190</sup>

**When Ugandan women can join/form women-led cooperatives, there is evidence that this increases their (vertical) social capital, skills and access to financial resources.** For example, the Bokonzo Joint Co-operative Union in Western Uganda is 83% owned by women coffee farmers. Women members have had the opportunity

of acquiring leadership skills and have assumed leadership positions.<sup>191</sup> Another example is the Manyakabi Area Cooperative Enterprise (MACE), founded by a group of women who had been widowed, which continues to maintain an overwhelmingly female membership. Entering an agricultural venture collectively has allowed female farmers to not only improve their livelihoods, but also reduce vulnerability. Being part of a collective improved market linkages through the creation of relationships with traders and large-scale buyers, and allowed for information sharing. Cooperative members also reported an increased sense of business skills, leadership and independence.<sup>192</sup> A quasi-experimental study on the impact of membership of agricultural cooperatives on women's empowerment in Uganda found that for women members of the Popular Knowledge Women's Initiative (P'KWI) Farmer-to-Farmer Co-operative Society in North Eastern Uganda, cooperative membership was positively correlated with enhanced capabilities, skills and knowledge, as well as decision-making power at household, group and community levels. However, women's membership did not have any effect on intra-household labour divisions for domestic or farm-related activities.<sup>193</sup>

<sup>187</sup> Majurin (2012) <sup>188</sup> Majurin (2012) <sup>189</sup> Ochago (2017) <sup>190</sup> Ochago (2017) <sup>191</sup> Ikweria; Twongyirwe (2019)  
<sup>192</sup> Ferguson; Kepe (2011) <sup>193</sup> Lecoutere (2017)

“For rural women, they belong to what is called a Village Savings and Loan Association (VSLA) - community-based savings. So from there, they can get some loans and start something small. With these, at least they can be able to get money even when they have no substantial collateral. Just social connections are enough for such women.”

Source: NGO Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

**Village Savings and Loan Associations (VSLAs) also play an important role in increasing women’s social and economic capital.** Pathways Study interviewees highlighted how VSLAs are particularly valued given that unlike formal lenders, they do not require collateral to take out a loan. VSLAs have attracted a largely female base in Uganda - one study found 71% of VSLA membership is made up of women.<sup>194</sup> An evaluation of a Farm Africa-led gender-sensitive VSLA intervention in the coffee sector found that the intervention led to a large increase in women’s decision-making power about agricultural production, improved access to financial services, improved ownership of productive assets and improved control over income.<sup>195</sup> However, a Pathways Study interviewee suggested that the success of such schemes is dependent on other factors as weather patterns and other shocks may affect harvests, which may in turn affect women’s ability to repay loans.

### 4.3.3 Economic capital Financial assets

**According to a FinScope survey of over 3,000 individuals, roughly a quarter of the population are financially excluded<sup>196</sup>** (23% of women and 22% of men), with a higher proportion of financial exclusion among the rural population and younger people aged 14-35. The main barriers to financial services for both men and women were associated with too high costs of service provision (for financial institutions) in rural areas where 76% of Ugandan adults reside as well as a lack of trust, indicating issues in terms of the quality of services available, especially for the poorest and most marginalised.<sup>197</sup> Ugandan women are less likely to own a bank account (23.1% of women compared to 32.5% of men),<sup>198</sup> and may face more barriers accessing loans with lower access to finance and collateral (including land and other assets) and discriminatory perceptions of female borrowers among financial providers holding back the performance of women-owned enterprises.<sup>199</sup>

<sup>194</sup> IERC (2021) <sup>195</sup> Farm Africa (n.d.) <sup>196</sup> Defined in the report as not having access to or use of formal or informal financial services  
<sup>197</sup> Finscope Uganda (2018) <sup>198</sup> World Economic Forum (2018) <sup>199</sup> World Bank (2019)

**Pathways Study interviewees highlighted how a lack of access to credit and savings limits women's opportunities to establish and develop businesses**, as they lack the capital to invest in stock and inputs. In a study of cooperative members from 2012, female members were found to have 18% less savings than male members. The same study found that women's average loan size was less than men's (USD99 compared to USD110) and that women were more likely to take out a loan for family reasons, and less likely to take out a loan for business purposes than men.<sup>200</sup> **Small-scale studies suggest that women are expected to spend income and profits from small-scale businesses on domestic needs such as school fees, buying food and paying medical bills, leaving limited possibilities to invest in developing their business.** While on the other hand, men are more likely to spend the proceeds from sales of cash crops for their own benefit rather than for the benefit of the household.<sup>201</sup>

**Women who do not have access to financial services are more likely to be financially dependent on others;** among women who do not have access to or use financial services, over a third (40%) are financially dependent on others including parents, spouses or other relatives. Furthermore, most women, regardless of whether they access financial services or not, do not have money of their own to spend.<sup>202</sup>

### Productive assets

**Global literature demonstrates that women's asset ownership provides benefits to themselves and to their families**, as it is linked to increased spending on children's schooling, food, shelter and durable goods, which in turn can improve health outcomes for the family. Asset ownership has also been linked to increased voice and empowerment of women, and protection from domestic violence, as well as macroeconomic outcomes, such as increased

**“Women come with very few assets. What do you sell to have a start-up? What do you have as collateral to have a loan in small banks, in SACCOs? Given that, we find that there is a category of women who will not come into the designated markets... [Without capital], it affects business growth and expansion...**

**So, you find that most of them work merely to bring food to the table, but they are not able to meet their real dreams...they have unsupportive husbands according to their stories. Besides having meagre capital, their meagre income is worsened by expenditure at home.”**

Source: Community-Based Organisation Official (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>200</sup> Majurin (2012) <sup>201</sup> Bakesha; Nakafeero and Okello (2009) in Buskens and Webb (2009) <sup>202</sup> Majurin (2012)

agricultural productivity, resistance to shocks and economic growth.<sup>203</sup>

**However, in Uganda, women own fewer productive assets than men, including housing, land and other material assets.**

In 2011, an ICRW (International Center for Research on Women) study (sample of 674, of which 329 were women) found that most men (88%) reported land ownership (individual or joint), while only 32% of women reported owning land. When looking at individual ownership, only 17% of women owned land, compared to 43% of men. Similarly, more men than women reported owning houses, and material assets, including productive assets such as machinery, agricultural tools, transport and communication assets.<sup>204</sup> Overall, only a third (28%) of privately-owned land in the country is held by women.<sup>205</sup>

**Gender inequalities in asset ownership and access/control (including land) are also key barriers to financial inclusion, and to access to finance for women's businesses.** Today, 70% of women in Uganda do not hold required collateral to access credit.<sup>206</sup> Pathways Study interviewees highlighted the link between women's weak land rights and limited access to capital. In addition, secondary evidence suggests that women also face stricter collateral requirements than men because of the discriminatory practices of lenders.<sup>207</sup> **These inequalities in land ownership are driven by social norms shaping discrimination in inheritance, male privilege in marriage and other inequalities within the land market.**<sup>208</sup> Although there are no laws prohibiting women from owning land, customary law (which covers around 80% of agricultural land) dictates that women traditionally do not own family land in Uganda. Land generally belongs to the family or clan and is held by men, though women may have the right to live on land and farm

**“For the men, it is a bit easy. They have land titles, so they can easily access loans to mechanise production. But the women do not have land titles to access loans. No bank can give you money unless you can offer some form of collateral. Even if the woman wants to get a loan, the husband may not be interested to give his land title, even when this title was contributed to by both the man and the woman.”**

Source: NGO Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>203</sup> Various sources in ICRW (2011) <sup>204</sup> Various sources in ICRW (2011) <sup>205</sup> UBOS (2013), in Tibenkana (2019)

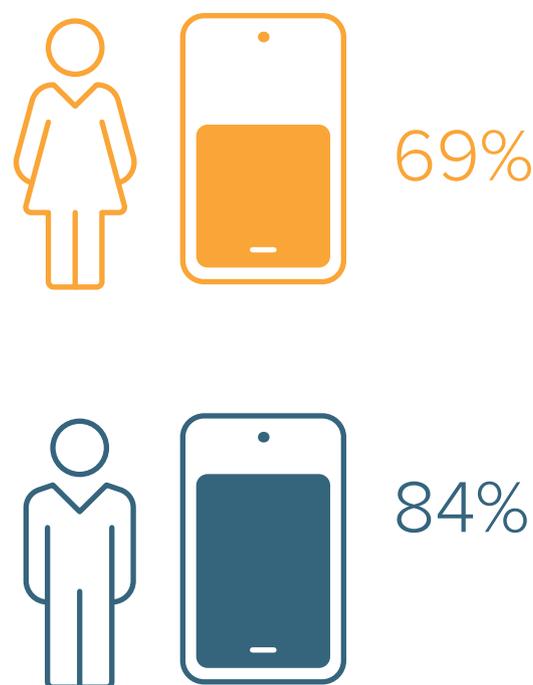
<sup>206</sup> Babiha (2021, February 03) <sup>207</sup> World Bank (2021a)

<sup>208</sup> Ministry of Land, Housing and Urban Development, The Republic of Uganda (2015)

it.<sup>209</sup> Furthermore, large-scale land acquisition (“land grabbing”) is further undermining women’s access to land,<sup>210</sup> with female-headed households particularly vulnerable to asset and land dispossession.<sup>211</sup>

**Women are less likely to own a mobile phone than men** (69% of women compared to 84% of men).<sup>212</sup> Mobile phone ownership is positively correlated with financial inclusion, with 57% of financially included women and 12% of financially excluded women owning a mobile phone.<sup>213</sup> However, when women do have access to mobile phones, this can be an enabler of increased access to market and market information, investment and financial services, and asset ownership for women farmers. This in turn facilitates increased participation in household decisions.<sup>214</sup> Interestingly, switching loan disbursement through mobile money may increase the likelihood that the funds will be used on women’s businesses, as found by a survey of 3,000 women microfinance clients in urban Uganda. Social pressures to share money with the households are reduced when the funds are disbursed to digital accounts rather than in cash.<sup>215</sup>

### Women are less likely to own a mobile phone than men



<sup>209</sup> Fédération internationale des ligues des droits de l’homme (2012) <sup>210</sup> CSM (2017)

<sup>211</sup> Housing and land rights network (2021) <sup>212</sup> Finscope Uganda (2018) <sup>213</sup> Finscope Uganda (2018)

<sup>214</sup> Sekabira and Qaim (2017) in International Coffee Organization (2011) <sup>215</sup> Riley (2020)

## 5. Sector briefs

**The following sector briefs provide an overview of four key sectors in Uganda: maize, coffee, fishing and aquaculture, and tourism and hospitality.**

This includes an overview of the gendered composition of jobs and the value chain, as well as analysis of barriers and enablers to women's economic empowerment within the sector. Finally, they highlight key opportunities, entry points and sector-specific recommendations for consideration by both public and private stakeholders to improve women's economic status within these sectors.

| Coffee, Maize   | Region    |           |           |          |           | Total     |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|-----------|-----------|
|   | Central   | Eastern   | Western   | Northern | National* |           |
| <b>Stakeholder type</b>                                     |           |           |           |          |           |           |
| <b>Associations, collectives, organizations, rep bodies</b> | 1         | 3         | 2         | 2        | 7         | <b>15</b> |
| <b>Government agencies/ departments</b>                     | 3         | 3         |           | 1        | 6         | <b>13</b> |
| <b>Producers, farms, exporters and resellers</b>            | 8         | 14        | 9         | 5        | 4         | <b>40</b> |
| <b>NGOs</b>   | 1         |           |           | 1        | 9         | <b>11</b> |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>13</b> | <b>20</b> | <b>11</b> | <b>9</b> | <b>26</b> | <b>79</b> |

From the stakeholder mapping exercise for agriculture (coffee and maize specifically), 79 stakeholders were identified across the various regions of Uganda. A summary table of stakeholder types across the regions is shown here, and the detailed information about stakeholders' activities (including women-focused provisions) can be accessed [here](#) on the Pathways study website.

## 5.1 The coffee sector

### Sector overview



**In 2019/2020, Uganda was the seventh largest producer of coffee in the world,<sup>216</sup> and the government is actively seeking to expand coffee production.<sup>217</sup> Coffee is a cash crop and a key export commodity for the country, with estimates ranging from 15% to 50% of Ugandan exports per year.<sup>218</sup> The majority of Ugandan coffee (94%) is exported,<sup>219</sup> often minimally processed.<sup>220</sup>**

**According to the latest National Population and Housing Census, there are over half a million coffee farmers in Uganda.<sup>221</sup> The majority of coffee farmers are**

smallholders, who account for 90% of coffee production.<sup>222</sup> Other estimates suggest that up to 1.7 million households grow coffee, on an average area of one acre each (often intercropped with food crops),<sup>223</sup> of which 40% are estimated to be female-headed households.<sup>224</sup> Only 15% of coffee producers are in associations.<sup>225</sup>

**Other key market players are processing facilities (around 26 in number)<sup>226</sup> intermediaries/traders, estimated at more than 10,000,<sup>227</sup> and exporters (72 operating as at 2019),<sup>228</sup> as well as other actors working in the sector, such as agricultural cooperatives, government and NGOs.**

<sup>216</sup> ICO (n.d.) <sup>217</sup> UCDA (2015) <sup>218</sup> See, e.g. Igami (2015) states that Uganda receives more than half of its export revenues from coffee; USAID states one third of Uganda's exports come from coffee; USAID (2017); Atwine (2021) notes in the most recent Ugandan government statements that 13-15% of the country's exports come from coffee <sup>219</sup> ICO (2019) <sup>220</sup> Trust (2012) notes that the bulk of it is exported after hulling and grading (secondary processing), without further refinement. A smaller amount is exported following tertiary processing (roasting and grinding) <sup>221</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics UBOS (2014) in Morjaria and Sprott (2018) <sup>222</sup> AfDB (2016) <sup>223</sup> Feed the Future Alliance for Resilient Coffee (n.d.), accessed in March 2022 <sup>224</sup> Estimate based on unpublished report on the Pilot Coffee Farmers Registration exercise in Mukono and Buikwe districts (2017), in ICO (2019) <sup>225</sup> For example, belonging to a cooperative or farmers' association. Feed the Future Alliance for Resilient Coffee (n.d.), accessed in March 2022 <sup>226</sup> Trust (2012) <sup>227</sup> Enveritas (2020) <sup>228</sup> ICO (2019)

**Most farmers sell unprocessed products to middlemen at the farm gate**, while over a third (40%) do some initial processing at the farm (hulling),<sup>229</sup> and a minority bring their coffee to mills. For example, out of a sample of 300 farming households, only 3% of sale transactions were for milled coffee, and none of these were from women farmers.<sup>230</sup> Coffee farmers face many challenges, including lack of extension support, good planting material, market access and market information, which leads to low productivity. Lack of strong support structures also mean that farmers are often dependent on middlemen, and often trapped in cycles of debt, which in turn limits their ability to negotiate good prices.<sup>231</sup>

**Several challenges exist for the coffee sector, including exports of mostly unprocessed produce,<sup>232</sup> lack of local consumption,<sup>233</sup> climate change (with climate-induced losses of up to 50%)<sup>234</sup>,<sup>235</sup> and high cost of fertiliser.<sup>236</sup>** Farmers are also vulnerable to economic and social challenges such as poverty, lack of access to inputs or land tenure, deforestation and coffee disease.<sup>237</sup> Furthermore, some coffee producers are in locations that are recovering from severe conflict, which has continuing implications for building trust and collective action, as is the case, for example in Kasese district.<sup>238</sup>

**Although the COVID-19 pandemic has not impacted coffee exports, as restrictions did not overlap with the harvesting season,<sup>239</sup> losses have been felt by farmers** due to movement restrictions that further limited farmers' choice of middlemen buyers and drove down coffee prices.<sup>240</sup>

### Women's roles in the coffee value chain

**Secondary qualitative data suggests that women who are involved in coffee value chains are generally older, usually aged 35+.** This is attributed to the fact that coffee, as a perennial cash crop, requires more access and control over assets, including land and, as well as more time availability - it thus attracts older people who may have (acquired) more resources over time relative to youth.<sup>241</sup>

**"...for coffee, they (women) do the planting, weeding, harvesting, but sharing the money has still been a challenge because the men take the money since they know where the coffee market is."**

Source: Farmers' Association Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>229</sup> Trust (2012) <sup>230</sup> Hill & Vigneri (2009) in FAO (2011); Hill & Vigneri (2014) <sup>231</sup> Hanns R. Neumann Stiftung Africa (2016)

<sup>232</sup> Republic of Uganda (n.d.) <sup>233</sup> Daily Monitor (2016, August 22) <sup>234</sup> Funk et al. (2012) <sup>235</sup> Jassogne, L., Läderach, P., & Van Asten, P. (2013) The Impact of Climate Change on Coffee in Uganda: Lessons from a case study in the Rwenzori Mountains Oxfam and IITA (2013)

<sup>236</sup> Pathways Study Interview <sup>237</sup> Feed the Future Alliance for Resilient Coffee (n.d.), accessed in March 2022

<sup>238</sup> Farnworth and Akamandisa (2011) <sup>239</sup> Luyombya (2021, July 27) <sup>240</sup> In July 2020, 61% of coffee-farming households reported loss of income, and 86% reported being worse off financially than before COVID-19. JDE, Laterite and Technoserve (2020a). However, in subsequent survey rounds, following the end of the coffee harvest, the percentage of households reporting loss of income reduced to 26%. JDE, Laterite and Technoserve (2020b) <sup>241</sup> Ochago, R. (2017)

**Women provide most of the labour on coffee farms, but they do not benefit equally as men, as they are concentrated at the lower end of the value chain, in positions which provide lower returns, and lower control over income.** The African Development Bank (AfDB) estimates that women account for 60% of labour in the coffee sector.<sup>242</sup>

**Women primarily contribute to fieldwork and harvesting roles, and make up on average 70% of this workforce in coffee-producing countries (including Uganda).** Only 10% of in-country trading and export roles are taken up by women.<sup>243</sup> In Uganda, a gender analysis study in Kanungu district, a major coffee-growing area, found that although women provided 58% of labour at the fieldwork and harvest stage, and 72% during post-harvest (where most of the value and profit is added), men control marketing and processing activities, as well as the income from sales.<sup>244</sup> One study found that gender differences in participation in market channels are influenced by the fact that women market

smaller quantities of coffee, and do not own bicycles to access the nearby coffee market.<sup>245</sup> Findings from the Kibinge Coffee Farmers' Co-Operative Society, with a third of women members, indicate that becoming Fairtrade certified helped both male and female members access improved benefits including higher market prices, utilising the Fairtrade Premium<sup>246</sup> to expand their production area, and establish a farm supply shop and a savings and credit union.<sup>247</sup>

**Women are excluded from income made from coffee sales.** In Kanungu district, it was found that women in male-headed households were not involved in processing and marketing because of the interests the men have in the income generated.<sup>248</sup> A 2010 study of the Gumutindo Coffee Cooperative Enterprise (GCCE), found that although women did most of the work on coffee farms (up to 90%), they received few of the benefits. Members of one of the primary societies reported that men do not share the income with their wives, nor are the women consulted about how this income is to be spent.<sup>249</sup>

**“...the selling of processed coffee is not a common business even for men. Most of the coffee is processed in the nearby towns. So when it comes to women, they mainly sell their coffee to these traders who buy coffee on bicycles in the villages. Processing coffee requires money because you cannot take one bag to the huller and you think you will make money.”**

Source: Government Official (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>242</sup> AfDB (2016) <sup>243</sup> ITC (2008) in Specialty Coffee Association of America (2015) <sup>244</sup> Farm Africa (2020) <sup>245</sup> Hill & Vigneri (2009) in FAO (2011); Hill & Vigneri (2014) <sup>246</sup> An additional amount that Fairtrade farmers and workers receive beyond the Fairtrade price. This premium goes into a communal fund for farmers and workers to use to improve their social, economic and environmental conditions <sup>247</sup> Fairtrade (n.d.) <sup>248</sup> Farm Africa (2020) <sup>249</sup> Chang (2010), in AfDB (2016)

**Female-headed farming households are less profitable than male-headed households**, up to 44% lower in Uganda (World Bank census data analysis).<sup>250</sup> A study in two Ugandan regions confirms that female coffee producers earned 41% less income than male farmers. The capacity for value addition may be a key driver of these differences. Within the study sample, a third (29%) of male-headed households sold coffee with post-harvest processing (in green form), while only 18% of female growers sold their coffee in green form, which is likely the reason for the lower sale price.<sup>251</sup>

**Pathways Study interviewees described how a minority of women have nevertheless been able to take higher-return roles within the value chain**, including as coffee intermediaries and traders. Strong human, economic and social capital is a prerequisite for such success, however, which, as detailed in this report, most women do not have equal access to, due to a range of largely normative constraints.

**The COVID-19 pandemic may have exacerbated the existing problem of child labour in Ugandan coffee production.**<sup>252</sup>

The COVID-19 pandemic appeared to have contributed to an increase in child labour in the coffee industry, at least temporarily. To help contain the pandemic, Uganda's government closed schools, and numbers of children, out of school during that time, reportedly took jobs with coffee producers.<sup>253</sup>

<sup>250</sup> ICO (2018)

<sup>251</sup> Sekabira; Qaim (2017) in ICO (2018)

<sup>252</sup> US Department of Labor (2020)

<sup>253</sup> Karakire (2021, 16 September)

## Summary table of barriers to and opportunities for women's economic empowerment in the coffee value chain

| Barriers  |  |  |
|---|--|--|
| Structural  | Normative  | Individual   |
| <p>Customary law not favouring women's access to land</p> <p>Lack of gender lens in mainstream programming</p> <p>COVID-19 pandemic impacted farmers' livelihoods</p> <p>Gaps between national level policies, and local level implementation and budgeting</p> | <p>Gender norms which dictate male ownership of cash crops and influence how roles are distributed across the value chain</p> <p>Intra-household power dynamics and decision making disadvantage women</p> <p>Gender-based violence including economic violence and land dispossession</p> <p>Finance is seen as men's domain</p> <p>Norms around unpaid care and unpaid work influence women's ability to fully benefit from their labour or opportunities within the coffee value chain</p> <p>Norms around mobility hinder access to market</p> | <p>Women's limited educational attainment and access to assets/resources (social, economic)</p> <p>Lower access to extension services or training</p> <p>Lower uptake of improved agricultural practices or climate-resilient practices due to barriers in accessing resources or training</p> <p>Women have limited access to and control over land</p> <p>Lower ownership of mobile phones</p> <p>There are barriers in accessing, participating in and leading cooperatives</p> <p>Less likely to be able to access financial services or to have savings</p> |

## Summary table of barriers to and opportunities for women's economic empowerment in the coffee value chain

### Opportunities and entry points

| Structural  | Normative  | Individual  |
|---|--|---|
| National Coffee Policy promotes gender and youth mainstreaming, and includes specific strategies such as a special fund | Promoting participatory intra-household decision making  | Building women's human, social and economic capital, including through cooperatives |
| Gender-responsive commitments in the Agriculture Sector Strategic Plan 2015/16-2019/20                                  | Preventing and strengthening local level response to gender-based violence including economic violence | Improving women's digital inclusion   |
| Parish Development Model (PDM) could increase potential for women's inclusion at grassroots level                       | Coffee value chains can be an entry point to challenge discriminatory norms                            | Increase women's access to training, extension services and agricultural resources  |
| Policies mandating quotas for women in leadership positions   | Innovations addressing women's unpaid care burden  |   |
| Gender-responsive budgeting and community monitoring  |  |   |

## Structural factors

**The national policy environment includes several gender-responsive strategies presenting opportunities to expand women's economic opportunities within the sector.** The Uganda National Coffee Strategy 2015/16-2019/20 is aligned with Vision 2040, the NDP III and the draft Agriculture Sector Strategic Plan (ASSP) and includes targets and results for the next 25 years. The strategy includes gender and youth mainstreaming as a key theme. Strategy 1.9 focuses on mainstreaming through development and promotion of affirmative action for both women and youth; integration of a "Household Approach"<sup>254</sup> to ensure extension services address relevant issues; documentation and evaluation of the impact of norms' influence on participation of women and youth; and facilitation of a special fund for youth and women-led cooperatives and groups.<sup>255</sup> The supporting **National Coffee Act (2021)** provides for coffee research and development as well as coffee extension services and stipulates safety and handling regulations to ensure high product quality for global competitiveness.<sup>256</sup> However, concerns have been expressed about the Act restricting free trade and sector growth, for example, the requirement for all coffee farmers to be registered potentially leading to bureaucratic delays.<sup>257</sup> **The Agriculture Sector Strategic Plan 2015/16-2019/20** includes promotion of gendered

innovation in agricultural research centres and extension services as key innovations.<sup>258</sup>

Structural factors influencing women's ownership of land are particularly important to understanding women's economic opportunities within the coffee sector. While the **Succession Amendment Act, 2021** now provides equal provisions for female and male heirs and dependents' right to inherit land and other assets, there is limited evidence to date on implementation, and women continue to be discriminated against in the customary land tenure system.

**Pathways Study interviewees highlighted key gaps between national level policy and local level implementation.** Insufficient resourcing of national policy was raised as a critical challenge, as well as challenges rolling out national level policy commitments at the local level. However, the Pathways Study did find some promising examples of gender-responsive policies at the local level. For example, the Uganda National Farmers' Federation (UNFFE) promotes women in leadership through a quota system whereby a third of leaders must be women. A UNFFE representative explained that this policy has helped to promote women in different parts of the value chain, improved women's self-confidence and negotiating skills, and increased women's active participation in meetings and training.

<sup>254</sup> This approach entails extension workers engaging all members of the household including women and youth. The policy notes that costs for this activity cover establishment of nurseries, youth mobilisation and training. UCDA (2015) <sup>255</sup> IWCA (2019a)

<sup>256</sup> Food Safety Africa (2021) <sup>257</sup> Rational Standard (2021) <sup>258</sup> Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fishing (2016)

## Normative factors

**Coffee (a cash crop) is seen as a man’s crop, which influences how roles and management are distributed across the value chain.**<sup>259</sup> Women’s segregation in lower-return roles hinders their control over income. Two studies (2010 and 2020) with farmers in Uganda found that the segregation of roles within the value chain meant that men find themselves in a position to control income from sales, and women have little say over decisions on how this income is spent, even though they provided labour at earlier stages of production.<sup>260</sup> This division of labour also means that initiatives aimed at benefiting coffee farmers’ primarily benefit men. This was found, for example, by a study carried out with producer organisations exporting certified coffee, which aimed to understand whether involvement in certified coffee had benefits for women and created possibilities to move up in the value chain.<sup>261</sup> Norms around mobility dictate that women should not travel to distant markets. When they do challenge these norms, they risk backlash and even violence from their families.<sup>262</sup>

**Finance and income are seen as men’s domain.** Qualitative research in Uganda shows that women need permission from or must consult with men to spend the money they have earned through sales of crops or use of assets.<sup>263</sup> Although women contribute labour to coffee production, they tend to resort to other sources of income to buy essential household and children’s needs.<sup>264</sup> In Kanungu district, commercial and household finance decisions are generally seen as men’s domain. Men control the coffee plantations, decide production processes, and what land and inputs to use, often having power over financial decision making. However, when women do get involved in the management of plantations or gardens, women find the sharing of tasks empowering, and are more likely to be involved in household decisions, including on how to spend the income made through coffee sales.<sup>265</sup>

“Women can access land but do not make the overall decision on what to grow on this land; many would wish to grow coffee on this land but they have to seek permission from men. If the man refuses, there is no way this woman can go into coffee.”

Source: Government Official  
(Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>259</sup> Farm Africa (2020) <sup>260</sup> Chang (2010), in AfDB (2016); Farm Africa (2020); SCAA (2015) <sup>261</sup> Kasente (2012) <sup>262</sup> USAID (2017)  
<sup>263</sup> The Coffee Institute (n.d) <sup>264</sup> Coffee and Climate (2015) <sup>265</sup> Farm Africa (2020)

**Norms around unpaid care and domestic work influence women’s ability to fully benefit from their labour or opportunities within the coffee value chain.** Evidence from the coffee sector suggests that while women and girls plant and harvest the coffee crop, this labour is often viewed as part of women’s duties to the household similar to other uncompensated forms of labour such as childcare.<sup>266</sup> In addition, women’s unpaid care responsibilities have a direct impact on women’s mobility and their engagement in coffee marketing activities,<sup>267</sup> as well as their ability to join or take on leadership positions within cooperatives.<sup>268</sup> Crucially, these norms mean that women’s burden of unpaid labour does not decrease if increased time is spent on productive activities, highlighting the importance of addressing women’s unpaid care burden as well as providing economic opportunities. For example, a study in Uganda found that when households joined an organic coffee project, women’s overall labour load increased, while men’s did not.<sup>269</sup>

**Coffee value chains can be an entry point to challenge discriminatory norms, through engagement of coffee farmers and households.** For example, the Bukonzo cooperative has demonstrated that implementation of the Gender Action Learning System (GALS) methodology resulted in significant life changes for participants. These changes were increased male participation in unpaid care or farming tasks, and greater shared household decision making over income and expenditure, which then led to shared business and land investments. Reductions in gender-based violence and alcohol use were also reported.<sup>270</sup>

**Asset dispossession further hinders WEE opportunities within the sector.** Qualitative data from Uganda suggests that partners hide asset ownership from each other due to lack of trust. Assets include mobile phones and savings, as well as income from coffee sales. Women were concerned about being dispossessed of their assets, while men were worried about being asked to share.<sup>271</sup>

<sup>266</sup> Austin (2017) <sup>267</sup> Farm Africa (2020) <sup>268</sup> The Coffee Institute (n.d) <sup>269</sup> Initiative for Climate and Coffee 2015 citing Bolwig 2012 in Manfre and Laytham (2017) <sup>270</sup> Farnworth and Akamandisa (2011) <sup>271</sup> The Coffee Institute (n.d.); this is also mentioned in a separate report: Coffee and Climate (2015)

## Individual factors

### Studies find significant levels of difference in educational attainment between male and female coffee farmers.<sup>272</sup>

For example, a study in two regions in Uganda looking at male heads of households, female heads of households, and females in male-headed households found that women had fewer years of formal education and lower rates of literacy.<sup>273</sup>

### Extension service providers do not reach rural farmers effectively, and especially women, who are even less likely to be able to access available training.

Overall, government extension services appear to reach only a minority of farmers, principally those close to cities and larger towns. When extension services are accessed, there are no measurable effects on farmers' agricultural outcomes.<sup>274</sup> A study in Kanungu district found that there are no sufficient or appropriate extension services to address women's needs. These services were largely inaccessible to all and reach few women. Lack of access to these services has implications

for women's ability to improve quality and size of yields.<sup>275</sup> Another study found that within a sample of over 400 households, 58% of male household heads attended training, compared to only 40% of their partners and 46% of female farmers.<sup>276</sup> In addition, agricultural improvement strategies may not consider how changes to coffee practices may increase women's existing farm workload, making women less interested in these adaptations.

**Lower access to training, extension services and resources means that women are less likely to adopt improved agricultural practices or adapt to climate-resilient practices.** Women's low access to training and extension services compromises quality.<sup>277</sup> They often cannot access information on technologies for climate adaptation; financial and resource constraints are other key barriers to climate resilience adaptation for women farmers. For example, Pathways Study interviewees highlighted inefficient storage practices and lack of post-harvest handling technologies as being key

**“Women need to be given special attention in (ICT) training because a few years from now, we shall be doing most things on phones - like trading and other transactions. For farmers like those in our groups, they can easily post their coffee and matoke and connect with traders and consumers in Kampala.”**

Source: Farmers' Association Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>272</sup> Coffee Quality Institute (n.d.) <sup>273</sup> Meemken; Veettil; Qaim (2017) in ICO (2018) <sup>274</sup> Nuwagaba; Banugire; Milton (2018)  
<sup>275</sup> Farm Africa (2020) <sup>276</sup> Meemken; Veettil; Qaim (2017) in ICO (2018) <sup>277</sup> Coffee Quality Institute (n.d.)

“...Men have mortgaged up land for sugar cane growing. They have even uprooted coffee in favour of sugar cane. So the challenge now is that sugar cane is no longer a profitable venture and now they are coming back to grow coffee but they don't have land and now face a dilemma.”

Source: Producers' Association Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

challenges limiting the economic benefits of maize farming for both men and women.<sup>278</sup> Another Pathways Study interviewee highlighted the importance of digital skills to enable access to digital solutions, including linking women farmers to traders and consumers.

**Due to normative and financial barriers, women are often unable to transport coffee to market, restricting their role in the coffee value chain.** Few women own such means of transport.<sup>279</sup> In addition, high transport costs can be a barrier to women coffee farmers, who typically have less access to household cash.<sup>280</sup>

**Women's limited access to and control over land affects their opportunities within the coffee sector.** Land is a key asset when growing perennial cash crops such as coffee.<sup>281</sup> However, women are less likely to own land, often because of norms and discrimination in customary law. This also excludes them from accessing credit or increasing their decision-making power and control over production and sales.<sup>282</sup>

In Kanungu district, where men hold most decision-making power around coffee production, women's lack of agency is partly due to lack of access and control over land.<sup>283</sup>

**Land is also often a prerequisite for joining coffee cooperatives,<sup>284</sup> and women's limited land ownership can exclude them from doing so.** For example, as of 2010, only 12% of members of the Gumutindo Coffee Cooperative were women, as owning coffee trees was a prerequisite for joining the cooperative.<sup>285</sup> Furthermore, women may be excluded from government support such as free coffee seedling distribution, as farmers must own at least an acre of land to benefit from this.<sup>286</sup> An interviewee for the Pathways Study shared a current challenge where many men reportedly sold their land (previously used to grow coffee) to large sugar cane plantations. Although not explored in the research, this could indicate a form of land dispossession, especially if women were not involved in the decision to sell.

<sup>278</sup> Jost et al. (2016) in Manfre and Laytham (2017) <sup>279</sup> FAO (2011) <sup>280</sup> Farm Africa (2020) <sup>281</sup> Uganda (2017) <sup>282</sup> Farm Africa (2020)  
<sup>283</sup> Farm Africa (2020) <sup>284</sup> Chang (2010), in AfDB (2016) <sup>285</sup> Chang (2010), in AfDB (2016) <sup>286</sup> Kajubu (2017, March 2017)

**Cooperatives' internal policies, cultures, structures and procedures often do not allow women to join and lead cooperatives.** This further strengthens men's control over marketing activities.<sup>287</sup> Positive examples do exist. The Bukonzo Joint Cooperative Society, whose members are primarily women (85%), and whose growth into international markets and commitment to quality have been recognised, has committed to address women's participation to decision making and financial planning through Women's Empowerment Mainstreaming and Networking (WEMAN) and Gender Action Learning Systems (GALS) programmes. In addition, the cooperative addresses community needs beyond farming, by setting up a maternal health and women's clinic in a region with high maternal mortality rates.<sup>288</sup> Beyond land, or joint land ownership, key enabling factors that promote women's membership in coffee cooperatives in Uganda include the duration of cooperative membership, access to extension services, and more equal power relations within the household.<sup>289</sup>

**When women are part of mixed-gender cooperatives, their level of participation and leadership is lower than men's due to women's lower status in society.**

Global literature suggests that women's active participation in groups is lower than that of men, with women generally

excluded from participation, leadership and decision making.<sup>290</sup> In Uganda, in two coffee-producing regions, 81% of men participated in farmers' groups compared to 64% of women.<sup>291</sup> Another study targeting coffee farmer members of learning groups in Sironko and Manafwa districts found that over half of men (58%) contributed ideas to the group, compared to just over a third (37% of women), and male ideas were more likely to be adopted (58% vs 40%). Women also held lower leadership positions than men, and age was a key factor that influenced participation, with older women more likely to participate.<sup>292</sup>

**Women have less access to financial services, savings and emergency finance than men.** For example, women farmers are less likely to use mobile money services: among a sample of coffee farmers, 47% of female heads of households used these services, compared to 67% of male heads of households.<sup>293</sup> Women's lower access to mobile devices is an underlying cause (see section 4.3.1 on mobile device ownership for women vs men). Women coffee farmers, whether household heads or female partners, are less likely to have a personal savings account than men (39% of male heads of household confirmed having an account, compared to 26% of their partners, and 24% female heads of household).<sup>294</sup> Finally, male farmers are also more likely to be able

<sup>287</sup> Farm Africa (2020) <sup>288</sup> Government of USA (2013) <sup>289</sup> Selhausen (2015) <sup>290</sup> Various sources in Ochago (2017)

<sup>291</sup> Meemken, Veetil and Qaim (2017) in ICO (2018) <sup>292</sup> Ochago (2017) <sup>293</sup> Sekabira; Qaim (2017) in ICO (2018)

<sup>294</sup> Meemken, Veetil and Qaim (2017) in ICO (2018)

to raise emergency finance, due to their higher income and savings levels as well as financially stronger social networks as discussed earlier. For example, while 68% of male farmers interviewed for a COVID-19 survey (in August 2020) indicated they could raise emergency finance within a month, only 57% of female farmers indicated they could do so.<sup>295</sup>

**Although accessing loans is difficult for all Ugandan coffee farmers, who tend to resort to high-interest short-term loans or buying smaller or lower quality inputs, accessing loans is even harder for women.**

This is because women lack access and control to physical resources that can be used as collateral, and because high levels of illiteracy make the application process harder. In some cases, women can access loans through savings groups instead, but these are usually micro-loans.<sup>296</sup>

### Sector-specific recommendations

This section highlights sector-specific recommendations, aimed at public and private sector stakeholders to consider, which would improve women's economic empowerment within the coffee sector.

#### 1. Strengthen the coffee sector's commitment to gender equality.

Recommended strategies include:

- Support industry actors, including

international buyers, to commit to policies, regulations and actions that further gender equality, and monitor gender equality commitments.

- Develop economic incentives for coffee produced by women-led cooperatives and/or on women's land. This may be a price premium for coffee that can be traced back to land (or trees) owned and managed by women or those with equal ownership. A supporting or alternative strategy is to train couples on the importance and advantages of collective production and marketing to improve cohesion and prevent household tensions arising from women getting higher prices than men.
- Address child labour in the sector. Potential pathways can include advocating for increased implementation and monitoring of child labour legislation and promoting a zero-tolerance approach, and implementing social norms behaviour change campaigns.
- Support for the enforcement and monitoring of the National Coffee Policy's gender and youth commitments.
- Capacity building for Fairtrade membership and certification.
- Committing resources to collecting and reporting on sex-disaggregated data across various topics including land ownership and access, financial and digital access plus impact on livelihoods, membership in cooperatives, etc.

<sup>295</sup> JDE, Laterite and Technoserve (2020b) <sup>296</sup> Coffee and Climate (2015)

**2. Work with market actors including the government to improve the reach of interventions to women farmers, and to tailor support to women farmers' needs.**

Recommended strategies include:

- Undertake a gender review of seedling and other coffee agricultural input distribution schemes, including targeting and access criteria considering women's limited access to land and roles within value chain, to more effectively target them with inputs they may specifically need.
- Improve the reach of extension and training services in rural areas, considering what skills/knowledge would be most useful for women, and design training (including timing and locations) to ensure accessibility for women around domestic responsibilities.
- Facilitate partnerships with input suppliers, to recruit and train female extension agents; provide training to all agents and trainers (men and women) to provide inclusive services.
- Improve women farmers' access to finance, including use of mobile money platforms, for improved agricultural and climate resilience practices and emergency finance. Tailor financial product terms, timing and collateral requirements, and develop alternative products suited to women.
- Create partnerships with buyers and sellers, to source and market coffee produced by women, or coffee produced under initiatives that promote gender equality, at both cooperative and household levels.
- Strengthen women's cooperatives for collective production and marketing, to benefit from economies of scale on production and processing, marketing and transportation.

**3. Improve women's human, social and economic capital through leveraging collectives and cooperatives.**

Recommended strategies include:

- Support women through collectivisation, leveraging existing women's cooperatives, and supporting the formation of new women-led cooperatives.
- These women's cooperatives should be supported in activities such as collective processing, collective transport and collective selling, by providing asset/capital financing or matching of pooled funds, training on improved agricultural practices including climate-resilient activities, better access to market linkages (for example through Fairtrade certification), etc.
- Leverage women's cooperatives and collectives on improving and/or developing courses in financial literacy for women, training to improve soft skills

around leadership, negotiation and team dynamics; as well as efforts to improve business capabilities.

- Promote women's participation in mixed-gender cooperatives, through promotion of inclusive organisational cultures, as well as explicit and intentional strategies, that promote women's participation in leadership, women's voice and participation in decision-making processes, to identify and address discrimination and barriers along the value chain.

#### 4. Support interventions at the household level to increase women's economic, social and human capital.

Recommended strategies include:

- Support initiatives strengthening women's access to formal land titling, for example bulk land acquisition by women-only cooperatives, with ownership transferring to members after phased repayments for individual plots are completed.
- Implement livelihoods and economic empowerment initiatives coupled with gender-based approaches to interventions at the household level; to increase women's access to and control over economic assets; access to financial products and services.
- Sensitisation of men on human rights to reduce vulnerability to economic and other forms of gender-based violence.

- Capacity building of local institutions on gender mainstreaming.
- Facilitate local authorities to destigmatise and support women to seek help and services, including legal help, if required.
- Investment in behaviour change communication at local level, through religious groups, CBOs, local NGOs, etc., to conduct community and household dialogues.
- Strategic partnerships to empower collectives and cooperatives, a channel through which to finance matters and income allocation, the importance of women's involvement in decision making around the home and community and how to spend generated income.
- Sensitisation of men on farming as a family business,<sup>297</sup> and the use of the generated income to support both the household expenditure (such as children's welfare) and business growth.
- Address gender-inequitable attitudes and norms including around gender roles in the coffee value chain and women's mobility within household interventions, through community level sensitisations.
- Address drivers of economic violence within the coffee sector including land and asset dispossession and strengthen GBV response services.
- Monitor, track and mitigate against any signs of backlash including increased rates of gender-based violence.

<sup>297</sup> UNCTAD (2015)

### 5. Support household and community level interventions addressing women's unpaid care and domestic work burdens.

Recommended strategies include:

- Address women's unpaid labour burden within coffee farming through gender-transformative interventions at the household level including community sensitisation on the economic impact of women's contributions to the household economy especially when household responsibilities are shared.
- Support and promote labour- and time-saving innovations and technology, via demonstration workshops in national languages (Luganda, Swahili, English, etc.) to impart training of how to utilise them.
- Work with private and public sectors to ensure that women have access to energy, water, hygiene and sanitation facilities.
- Ensure that all interventions consider and mitigate risks such as increased unpaid work burden for women.

### 6. Address research gaps and build evidence of what works.

Recommended strategies include:

- Commission and undertake participatory research to understand the barriers and challenges faced by different marginalised groups of women in the coffee value chain including those with disabilities.
- Incorporate gender issues, awareness into school curricula to ensure both boys and girls know about gender discrimination and its negative impact on the household, economic opportunities for women and the economy as a whole.
- Commission and undertake research to understand the scale and dynamics of economic violence including land dispossession.
- Commission and undertake research to understand the gendered impacts of COVID-19 on coffee farmers.
- Support research to investigate the effects of climate change on women coffee farmers and assess the effectiveness of climate-resilient practices that benefit women.
- Through quarterly, bi-annual or yearly evaluations, ensure rigorous monitoring of the coffee sector's commitments to gender equality and various interventions to strengthen the evidence base on what works for achieving increased women's economic empowerment in the coffee sector.
- Collect and use data to build the business case for increased gender equality in the coffee sector.
- Ensure meaningful participation of women farmers in design of all interventions, including through participatory methods.





## 5.2 The maize sector

### Sector overview

**Maize, both a food and cash crop, is the third most cultivated crop in Uganda, following plantain and cassava,<sup>298</sup> and constitutes Uganda's third most valuable export crop after coffee and tea.<sup>299</sup> Maize production is growing (with an annual increase of 3.7% a year between 2015 and 2020). The Ugandan government has committed to its further expansion, by identifying it as one of nine priority crops for further investment.<sup>300</sup> The production is dominated by smallholder farmers, as three quarters of the country's output is cultivated on plots of less than 0.5 hectares.<sup>301</sup> Two million Ugandan households engage in maize production.<sup>302</sup>**

#### **Small farmers generally sell at the farm gate, to small, itinerant intermediaries.**

In other cases, small farmers will consume the maize on-farm,<sup>303</sup> roast and sell part of the crop themselves, transfer their crop to organised farmers' groups such as cooperatives, or sell directly to local maize processors. Selling at the farm gate is less profitable than selling through markets.<sup>304</sup> As adaptive measures to reduce storage losses (and perhaps to avoid additional costs of post-harvest storage chemicals),

some farmers sell entire maize fields before harvest, while others sell maize shortly after harvest - these practices limit the price that farmers can aim for.<sup>305</sup>

**The crop passes through a few intermediaries, which also exacerbates quality control problems.<sup>306</sup>** Intermediaries include small players who buy at the farm gate and sell to small maize processors, and bigger players who work in towns and urban centres and transfer the crop to large maize processors. Both small and large processors mill the crop, and then sell to local shops, supermarkets and institutions such as schools; the Ugandan government estimates 780 maize milling plants operate in the country.<sup>307</sup>

**Challenges faced by the sector include the seasonal nature of harvests, limited adoption of improved agricultural practices or improved varieties;<sup>308</sup> decentralised selling practices, which limit producers' income; post-harvest losses<sup>309</sup> and challenges in post-harvest handling;<sup>310</sup> small farm sizes;<sup>311</sup> weaknesses in coordination of cooperatives; and vulnerability to climate change.<sup>312</sup>** Maize farmers are often inadequately linked to food suppliers and customers, and unable to achieve their quality standards, due to limited

<sup>298</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2015) in Daly et al. (2016) <sup>299</sup> Bank of Uganda, composition of export values and volumes

<sup>300</sup> The Republic of Uganda (2020) <sup>301</sup> USAID (2010); Joughin (2012) in Daly et al. (2016) <sup>302</sup> National Agricultural Advisory Services (n.d.). Accessed in March 2022 <sup>303</sup> Estimates of on-farm maize consumption vary widely, from as little as 1% (Agona et al. (undated)),

to as much as 60%. ([Global yield gap](#) (undated)). Recently, the [Uganda Bureau of Statistics](#) estimated on-farm consumption of maize at about 28% (see also [here](#)) <sup>304</sup> Yamano; Arai (2011) <sup>305</sup> Omotilewa (2018) <sup>306</sup> Daly et al. (2016) <sup>307</sup> The Republic of Uganda (2020)

<sup>308</sup> The Republic of Uganda (2020) <sup>309</sup> FAO (2019) <sup>310</sup> Wilton (2019) <sup>311</sup> The Republic of Uganda (2020)

<sup>312</sup> BFS/USAID (2017); Epule et al. (2017)

infrastructure, inefficiency and low product quality. This limits their opportunities to improve their livelihoods beyond daily survival.<sup>313</sup> Furthermore, a modelling study of the impact of climate change on maize yield in the Victoria Nile sub-basin of Uganda found that due to reliance on rain-fed farming and growing season temperature increases beyond optimal limits, maize yield in Uganda could reduce by as high as 1-10%, 2-42% and 1-39% in the near (2021-2040), mid (2041-2070) and late futures (2071-2099), respectively, depending on the agro-ecological zone.<sup>314</sup>

A survey study of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on Uganda's maize value chain found that the effects were mainly downstream - affecting traders and millers more than farmers. Reduced incomes and business closures affected mostly traders who suffered the effects of business closures especially during the second lockdown in mid-2021. As at this period, the most pressing effect of the pandemic reported by surveyed farmers was decreased household incomes (78%), decreased revenue (71%), decreased scale of operations (51%), food insecurity (18%) then closed businesses (2%). The largely informal nature of the maize value chain may have allowed for flexible arrangements among actors, hence the low closures, especially as maize farmers likely

diversify their product portfolio to include cash crops such as coffee.<sup>315</sup>

### Women's roles in the maize value chain

**Both men and women grow maize in Uganda, although married women are more likely to cultivate maize as a household and income crop than unmarried women (who mostly cultivate income crops such as bananas, coffee and beans).**<sup>316</sup> Maize is considered both a food and a cash crop.<sup>317</sup> For example, among farming communities in the Busonga region, maize is the most important food crop for families, who also derive half of their household income from maize sales.<sup>318</sup>

**When used as a cash crop, maize is predominantly sold by men.**<sup>319</sup> Women are involved in the sale of maize, although to a lesser extent than men. A study targeting spouses in maize farming households showed that most sales are done jointly, followed by men alone. When men and women sell maize alone, men appear to assume/report a higher selling price than women do, potentially to reinforce their cultural role as providers.<sup>320</sup>

<sup>313</sup> Tugendhat (2017) <sup>314</sup> Bwambale, J., Mourad, K. (2022) <sup>315</sup> Nabwire, L., & Campenhout, B. V. (2021)

<sup>316</sup> Goldman; Heldenbrand (2002) <sup>317</sup> McKenna (2014) <sup>318</sup> Tugendhat (2017) <sup>319</sup> Twinorugyendo (2019)

<sup>320</sup> Van Campenhout; Lecoutere; Spielman (2021).

**Women are less likely to sell at points beyond the farm gate and are concentrated in roles at the lower end of the value chain.**

A study looking at Ugandan markets found that men comprised between 65% and 95% of “grain traders” (in this case, signifying maize and beans).<sup>321</sup> A study in Iganga district found that some women are involved in selling roasted maize, but this is a small-scale activity done near the home, while none of the women interviewed were adding value to their crops through post-harvest production such as milling.<sup>322</sup> One processing task that women are involved in is traditional shelling. This is a slow and labour-intensive task that is done by hand or using sticks and is usually done by women when alternative modern shelling equipment is not available nearby.<sup>323</sup>

“We have less women in maize value addition because of the maize mills; many of these are owned by men. Even in roasting the maize on the street, women are few because they have a backlog of work at home involving going to the garden and coming back at around midday, by the time they reach home, there is a lot of work and only decide to come to the streets to roast maize around 4pm.”

Source: Farmers’ Association Representative (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>321</sup> Godfrey (2010)    <sup>322</sup> McKenna (2014)    <sup>323</sup> Chemonics International (2017, 22 September)

## Summary table of barriers to and opportunities for women's economic empowerment in the maize value chain

| Barriers   |   |  |
|--|---|--|
| Structural   | Normative   | Individual   |
| <p>Customary law not favouring women's access to land</p> <p>Lack of gender lens in mainstream programming</p> <p>Gaps between national level policy and local level implementation and resourcing</p> | <p>Maize is both a food and a cash crop. It is seen as a women's crop, until it becomes marketable</p> <p>Household norms may confine women to only growing maize as a food crop</p> <p>Few vertical networks</p> <p>Lower decision-making power around production in the household</p> <p>Maize labour is often seen as part of women's unpaid duties</p> <p>Mobility norms exclude women from better sales opportunities outside of the farm gate</p> <p>Lower access to markets means reduced interaction with other value chain actors and reduced opportunities for value addition</p> <p>Women have lower negotiating power at sales point with middlemen</p> | <p>Limited access to skills, information and networks</p> <p>Lower access to improved agricultural practices, and climate change-resilient practices, linked to lower access to finance and technology or productive assets</p> <p>Inefficient storage practices</p> <p>Limited access to post-harvest handling technologies</p> |

## Summary table of barriers to and opportunities for women's economic empowerment in the maize value chain

### Opportunities and entry points

| Structural  | Normative   | Individual   |
|---|---|--|
| Gender-responsive commitments in the Agriculture Sector Strategic Plan 2015/16-2019/20            | Strengthening horizontal and vertical networks through cooperatives                 | Provide women with skills, information and knowledge about the quality of their product to improve confidence and negotiation skills |
| Parish Development Model (PDM) could increase potential for women's inclusion at grassroots level | Affordable, safe and accessible transport for women to take their product to market | Improve access to finance, technology and productive assets  |
| Policies mandating quotas for women in leadership positions                                       | Improving women's power and role in intra-household decision making                 | Improve knowledge, skills and practices around storage and increase access to post-harvest handling technologies                     |
| Gender-responsive budgeting and planning  |   |  |

## Structural factors

**The national policy environment includes several gender-responsive strategies presenting opportunities to expand women's economic opportunities within the sector.** These include Vision 2040, the NDP III and the draft Agriculture Sector Strategic Plan (ASSP) including targets and results into year 2040. The strategy includes gender and youth mainstreaming as a key theme. Strategy 1.9 focuses on mainstreaming through development and promotion of affirmative action for both women and youth; integration of a "Household Approach"<sup>324</sup> to ensure extension services address relevant issues; documentation and evaluation of the impact of norms' influence on participation of women and youth; and facilitation of a special fund for youth and women-led cooperatives and groups.<sup>325</sup> **The Agriculture Sector Strategic Plan 2015/16-2019/20** includes promotion of gendered innovation in agricultural research centres and extension services as key innovations.<sup>326</sup>

Structural factors influencing women's ownership of land are particularly important to understanding women's economic opportunities within the maize sector. While the **Succession Amendment Act, 2021** now provides equal provisions for female and male heirs and dependents' right to inherit land and other assets, there is limited evidence to date on implementation and women continue

to be discriminated against in the customary land tenure system.

**Pathways Study interviewees highlighted key gaps between national level policy and local level implementation.** Insufficient resourcing of national policy was raised as a critical challenge, as well as challenges rolling out national level policy commitments at the local level. However, the Pathways Study did find some promising examples of gender-responsive policies at the local level. For example, the Uganda National Farmers' Federation (UNFFE) promotes women in leadership through a quota system whereby a third of leaders must be women. A UNFFE representative explained that this policy has helped to promote women in different parts of the value chain, improved women's self-confidence and negotiating skills, and increased women's active participation in meetings and training.

## Normative factors

**Maize is seen as a woman's crop, until it becomes marketable.** In Sironko and Kamwende districts, women typically named food crops when asked what they grow. However, they complained that sometimes men would harvest them before maturity and sell them, without sharing the proceeds with the women who had invested their own time, labour and money. This is also the case for other crops such as beans and sorghum. Men,

<sup>324</sup> This approach entails extension workers engaging all members of the household including women and youth. The policy notes that costs for this activity cover establishment of nurseries, youth mobilisation and training. UCDA (2015)

<sup>325</sup> IWCA (2019a) <sup>326</sup> Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fishing (2016)

on the other hand, stated that these sales helped them contribute to household income. Selling of household food crops, often at low prices across the Kenyan border, can impact household food security, due to reduced food supplies for the year.<sup>327</sup>

### **Women hold lower decision-making power on choices around maize production.**

One study on spousal decision making in Ugandan agricultural households asked spouses in focus group discussions to make decisions around maize seeds during the group discussions. In most cases, men and women did jointly discuss aspects of maize production, but men ultimately dominated the discussion, and, in any event, retained final decision-making authority.<sup>328</sup> Another study confirmed that decisions regarding production (maize planting, timing, spacing, striga (a parasitic weed) control and weeding) are done jointly on about half of the plots surveyed (over 3,700 plots). On plots where only one spouse made decisions, the decision maker was more likely to be the man.<sup>329</sup>

### **Household norms may confine women to only growing maize as a food crop.**

A qualitative study looking at the use of herbicides in maize production found that not only did women have to prioritise providing unpaid labour on their husbands' plots before their own, in some cases

men opposed women growing maize commercially.<sup>330</sup> Unpaid care, domestic work and time poverty also influence women farmers' efficiency on joint maize plots.<sup>331</sup>

### **Gendered mobility norms exclude women from accessing markets and better prices.**

The majority of sales is done at the farm gate; however, opportunities for selling at better prices can be found elsewhere, such as in more centralised markets, where prices can be 50% higher in some cases.<sup>332</sup> Norms on mobility dictate that women should not travel to distant markets, and when they do break this norm, they risk backlash or violence from their families.<sup>333</sup> In some areas mobility and market access is further hindered by norms that prohibit women riding bicycles or motorbikes (the main form of transportation).<sup>334</sup>

**Access to markets is also influenced by lack of appropriate transport or storage infrastructure or the non-existence of local cooperatives** that support small farmers in some rural areas. This can drive up transport costs for all small rural maize farmers.<sup>335</sup>

<sup>327</sup> USAID (2017) <sup>328</sup> Acosta et al. (2019) <sup>329</sup> Van Campenhout; Lecoutere; Spielman (2021) <sup>330</sup> Rietveld; van der Burg (2021)  
<sup>331</sup> Sell et al. (2018) <sup>332</sup> Yamano; Arai (2011) <sup>333</sup> USAID (2017) <sup>334</sup> Godfrey (2010) <sup>335</sup> McKenna (2014)

**Lower access to markets means reduced interaction with other value chain actors and reduced opportunities for value addition.** Mobility norms and associated lack of market access mean that women have limited interaction with value chain actors, such as input suppliers, wholesalers and consumers. Men, who have better access to value chains, can dominate value-addition processes, thanks to access to more profitable markets and ownership of better but more expensive equipment, such as maize mills.<sup>336</sup>

**When women can sell, they usually do so to middlemen who come to farms and have little negotiating power.** Women maize farmers in Iganga district stated that middlemen exploit their lack of access to better markets and buy at low prices. As women sell small amounts of maize, it is difficult for them to negotiate prices.<sup>337</sup>

### Individual factors

**When women are provided with skills, information and knowledge about the quality of their product, they can increase confidence and improve negotiating skills, especially when working together.** For example, a project with farmers in Kamuli provided weighing scales as an opportunity for joint marketing with other women, leading to improved negotiation with intermediaries.<sup>338</sup> In addition, an example from the Munyakabi area cooperative

enterprise in South Western Uganda shows that increased involvement of women in local price negotiation can influence increased control of maize and beans produce, increased confidence in marketing, and increased control in decision making on how much of the crop to sell and how much to consume.<sup>339</sup>

**Pathways Study interviewees highlighted non-ideal storage practices and lack of post-harvest handling technologies as being key challenges limiting the economic benefits of maize farming for both men and women.** Targeting women with information can lead to improved knowledge, adoption of recommended practices and inputs, as well as increased decision making. A research study focused on providing information through targeted videos found that directing extension information at women within maize farming households had positive effects on women's involvement in maize production, around improved knowledge of agronomic practices, participation in agricultural decision making, and adoption of recommended practices and inputs. The analysis also revealed positive outcomes on maize production, such as maize yield and market participation.<sup>340</sup>

<sup>336</sup> USAID (2017) <sup>337</sup> McKenna (2014) <sup>338</sup> Smith; Naeve (2012) <sup>339</sup> Ferguson; Kepe (2011) in Twinorugyendo (2019)

<sup>340</sup> Van Campenhout; Lecoutere; Spielman (2020)

**Lower access to finance, technology and productive assets means that women are less likely to adopt improved agricultural practices or climate-resilient practices.**<sup>341</sup>

Few maize farmers adopt improved agricultural practices. Lack of access to technology and need for financial resources are key barriers to improvement for all farmers, and these barriers might be harder to overcome for women, who generally have lower access to these resources. Even simple practices to build healthier soil may be out of reach for women farmers, and women do not have incentives to make a long-term investment due to lack of access to land ownership or long-term land lease agreements.<sup>342</sup> A qualitative study looking at the use of herbicides in maize production found that women had less access to this input because gender norms related to mobility kept them from going to shops to buy it, and because of lack of money.<sup>343</sup>

**Uptake of climate change-resilient varieties is also low among maize farmers<sup>344</sup> with lower adoption by women.**<sup>345</sup> A study in Dokolo, Iganga and Masindi districts found that barriers to adoption included affordability, knowledge and access to agro-dealers, and that these barriers may be more significant for women.<sup>346</sup>

## Sector-specific recommendations

**This section highlights sector-specific recommendations for consideration,** aimed at public and private sector stakeholders to economically empower women working within the maize sector.

### 1. Support interventions at the household level to increase women's economic, social and human capital.

Recommended strategies include:

- Carry out interventions that specifically address household norms around crops that are both food and cash crops; address negotiating crop ownership, harvesting, processing and storage, as well as the potential role of women beyond food crop growers. This is a crucial step to ensure women's participation in the maize value chain when it is considered a marketable crop.
- Ensure that these interventions monitor, track and mitigate against any sign of backlash including gender-based violence.
- Carry out household dialogues or other behaviour change interventions that address income negotiation, support women's involvement in decision making around how to spend income - as well as men's increased use of own income to support household expenditure (such as children's welfare) - and that address maize's role in household food security.

<sup>341</sup> Daly et al. (2016) <sup>342</sup> Smith; Naeve (2012) <sup>343</sup> Rietveld; van der Burg (2021) <sup>344</sup> BFS/USAID (2017); Epule et al. (2017)

<sup>345</sup> Fisher; Carr 2015; Fisher et al. (2019) in Voss et al. (2021) <sup>346</sup> Mastenbroek et al. (2020)

- Design interventions aimed at enhancing commercially-orientated farming as a family business.<sup>347</sup>

## 2. Establish specific initiatives that give women ownership and control of maize farmland and crops.

Recommended strategies include:

- Set up initiatives that designate specific portions of household land for women to grow crops of their choosing. This could be championed through/ supported by household and community level sensitisations on the economic contributions of women to the household economy.
- Create incentives that promote attention to quality and harvesting at the right time, to reduce premature harvesting and selling by other household members.
- Identify and engage partners to train on grading and standards, to benefit from higher prices.
- Identify buying partners who commit to buying women-produced maize as part of their corporate social responsibility (CSR)/community development efforts and gender equality commitments.
- Identify processors to engage women-led cooperatives for contract farming. This can be in the form of outgrower schemes to formalise commitments of buyers/processors and ensure a market for women's crops.

## 3. Improve women's knowledge, skills and practices to improve confidence and negotiating skills.

Recommended strategies include:

- Promote better agricultural and climate resilience practices by tailoring information campaigns and training to women.
- Integrate gender considerations within extension training, or create training targeted to women farmers, including using digital platforms to achieve scale.
- Identify input supply companies (seed, fertiliser, etc.) to engage women-led cooperatives; provide training/certification as input retailers through village-based outlets.

## 4. Improve women's human, social and economic capital through cooperatives and collective activities.

Recommended strategies include:

- Address women's lower access to market by creating and leveraging women's cooperatives.
- Improve women's collective storage and general post-harvest handling practices.
- Implement initiatives that organise collective transport and collective sales of crops, to increase price negotiation power, as well as access to markets beyond the farm gate.
- Implement collective initiatives that focus on processing and value addition.

<sup>347</sup> UNCTAD (2015)

For example, building facilities and providing machinery in closer proximity to those who engage in processing work. Ensure risk mitigation strategies are put in place so that women who do shelling do not lose out on opportunities, and women farmers are supported to increase processing and can benefit from these opportunities.

- Support women's cooperatives to meet buyers' quality standards through best practice training on various crop stages - planting, nurturing, harvesting, post-harvest handling, storage, packaging, etc.

##### **5. Facilitate women's access to affordable finance and technology through better products and services.**

Recommended strategies include:

- Work with technical partners to increase (especially rural) women's access to digital technologies through financial support to purchase easily accessible technology such as feature phones.
- Support the provision of easily accessible agricultural tips/practices and training collateral via offline solutions (such as WiderNet's eGranary solution<sup>348</sup>) tailored for women farmers. This can be deployed to women's cooperatives in communities.
- Work with financial providers to tailor products and services to women's needs, including utilising mobile money, and tailor communication and marketing strategies to reach women farmers.

- Provide affordable financing to support access to quality inputs and access to agricultural technologies and innovations (including climate-resilient and time-saving technologies).
- Provide financial products that support food security, such as crop insurance.
- Explore the use of commodities as collateral (i.e. using agricultural commodities - pre-harvest and harvested/ in storage, as collateral for credit for women and women's cooperatives.<sup>349</sup>

##### **6. Focus on research to fill evidence gaps and build on evidence of what works.**

Recommended strategies include:

- Commission and undertake research to understand the gendered impacts of COVID-19 on maize farming households and around food security more broadly.
- Commission and undertake research to further understand gender household dynamics around control of maize harvesting, as well as post-harvest processing and storage.
- Commission and undertake research with diverse groups of marginalised women to understand and address different barriers women face.

<sup>348</sup> eGranary is a "plug-and-play server that provides instant access to millions of digital educational documents without the need of an internet connection". See <https://widernet-egranary.org/>

<sup>349</sup> Varangis, P., & Saint Geours, J. (2017)



### 5.3 The fishing and aquaculture sector<sup>350</sup>

#### Sector overview

**The fishing and aquaculture sector contributed over 1.6% to Uganda's GDP (in 2016) and currently sustains up approximately 1.5 million households nationally.**<sup>351</sup> Exports have grown by 35.7% between 2009 and 2019, although stocks have dwindled due to over exploitation of lakes and lack of sustainable fishing practices.<sup>352</sup> Fish are caught in five major lakes, surrounding small lakes and riparian systems: Victoria, Kyoga, Albert, George and Edward.<sup>353</sup> Many Ugandans have migrated to landing sites<sup>354</sup> in search for livelihoods, making these locations ethnically diverse.<sup>355</sup> The majority of fishers (80%) are classed as artisanal, meaning fish are either sold directly to the consumer or caught for domestic use.<sup>356</sup>

**In capture fishing, once fishers have taken their catch, they may sell to one of several types of buyers.** These include buyers for fish factories, such as operators of transport boats, or fish factory agents and middlemen. Buyers for local markets also operate on shore and include larger fishmongers, traders, or transporters; small fish traders; small, itinerant, fishmongers; small market fishmongers; or consumers. At this level, one person may fill multiple roles, as well as

operate other small businesses such as frying fish or providing food and services to fishers.

**For aquaculture, Ugandan households have also established an estimated 20,000 fish ponds,** typically clay structures built on a family's land whether or not it has direct access to a lake or river.<sup>357</sup> Aquaculture is often promoted as an alternative to capture fishing, but it is not an easy industry to enter. Multiple permits are required to grow fish for sale, and tax exemptions on inputs are difficult to obtain. The aquaculture value chain has weaknesses in input supply and delivery, which result in low productivity, and is vulnerable to climate change.<sup>358</sup>

**The fishing sector faces a number of challenges,** including inadequate infrastructure, unsustainable practices, environmental degradation in capture fishing, vulnerability to climate change,<sup>359</sup> underdeveloped and unproductive aquaculture, and vulnerability to COVID-19. As there is a market preference for fresh fish, this creates competition and low negotiation power among fishers, as fish spoils quickly and fishers do not have access to cold chain storage facilities and efficient transport to access centralised markets. This happens, for example, with Nile perch catch. Furthermore, while some fish farmers participate in

<sup>350</sup> Note: Most of the available research/evidence on the fishing and aquaculture sector are before 2015, with more recent studies specifically focusing on health-linked research like HIV prevalence and family planning access in fisher communities

<sup>351</sup> UNWCMC, (2020) <sup>352</sup> AsonInsight (2019) <sup>353</sup> FAO (2004) in Timmers (n.d.) <sup>354</sup> FAO (n.d.) defines fish landing sites as "first point of sale for products". Landing sites also serve restocking purposes for fishers to obtain supplies such as food, fuel and ice

<sup>355</sup> Beuving (2010) in Pearson et al. (2012) <sup>356</sup> UNWCMC (2020) <sup>357</sup> Ssegane, Tollner and Veverica (2012) <sup>358</sup> Timmers (2012)

<sup>359</sup> Ministry of Water and Environment (MWE) 2007) and USAID (2013), in Timmers (n.d.)

associations, they face challenges, including weak leadership, inactive members and lack of commitment towards the stated goal.<sup>360</sup>

**In some cases, fish catch degradation has pushed fishing communities to find alternative livelihoods.** For example, one landing site on Lake Victoria is now predominantly used for timber work, as declines in fish catches affected livelihood options for both men and women.<sup>361</sup> The impact of climate change through increased temperatures (plus higher evaporation) has caused reduction in the size of various fish species and a decline in stock of larger fish species.<sup>362</sup>

**COVID-19 has caused disruptions to the fishing industry, especially international exports.** The sector's supply chain side was significantly affected by the COVID-19 guidelines that forced many fishermen and other sector players to scale back their operations,<sup>363</sup> while restrictions impacted production and transport.<sup>364</sup> Where restrictions included the suspension of fishing activities combined with transport disruptions, such as on Lake Albert, this led to lack of food supply at landing sites, the creation of informal settlements, and instances of residents trying to flee the area.<sup>365</sup> On the demand side, foreign markets and exports were impacted by the pandemic,<sup>366</sup> as was demand from other sectors such as hotels, supermarkets and recreation facilities, which stopped operations.<sup>367</sup> Restrictions also limited many consumers' ability to travel to markets.<sup>368</sup>

| Fishing and Aquaculture Stakeholder type             | Region    |          |          |          |           | Total     |
|--|-----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|-----------|
|  | Central   | Eastern  | Western  | Northern | National* |           |
| Associations, collectives, organizations, rep bodies | 21        | 2        | 1        | 1        | 8         | 33        |
| Producers, farms, exporters and resellers            | 24        | 3        | 1        |          |           | 28        |
| Research agencies and bodies                         | 1         |          |          |          | 2         | 4         |
| Government agencies/ departments                     |           | 2        | 1        | 3        | 3         | 9         |
| Projects/Initiatives                                 | 1         | 1        |          |          |           | 2         |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>47</b> | <b>8</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>14</b> | <b>78</b> |

From the stakeholder mapping exercise for fishing and aquaculture, 78 stakeholders were identified across the various regions of Uganda. A summary table of stakeholder types across the regions is shown here, and the detailed information about stakeholders' activities (including women-focused provisions) can be accessed [here](#) on the Pathways study website.

<sup>360</sup> Atukunda et al. (n.d.) <sup>361</sup> Pearson et al. (2013) <sup>362</sup> Wambi, M. (2015) <sup>363</sup> Isingoma (2020) <sup>364</sup> Abet (2020) <sup>365</sup> Isingoma (2020) <sup>366</sup> The Independent (2020, May 28) <sup>367</sup> Daily Monitor (2020, July 22) <sup>368</sup> Abet (2020); The Independent (2020, May 28)

## Women's roles in fishing and aquaculture

**Men predominate in capture fishing and occupy the most lucrative roles.** In Lake Wamala, fishing, fish trade, transport and all positions of political leadership governing the fishery are roles almost exclusively undertaken by men.<sup>369</sup> In Lake Victoria, men are more likely to engage in tasks such as fishing, loading and off-loading boats, fish mongering and repairing nets.<sup>370</sup> Men are also more likely to move between landing sites and islands on the lake. In Lake Victoria, 47% of male respondents and 25% of women reported being away from home for two days or more in the previous month. This migration is often related to seasonal changes in fish catch.<sup>371</sup> Although there are some exceptions, women fishers are still a minority. In Lake Wamala, among a sample of 785 fishers, only six were women.<sup>372</sup>

**In capture fishing, men deal with more lucrative fish,** such as Nile perch, to sell to fish factories. Women more typically deal in less lucrative fish, such as mukene (freshwater sardine), or Nile perch not meeting fish factory standards. Men's predominance as capture fishers in turn gives them an advantage in establishing themselves as boat owners or fish factory agents, though some women are acting in these capacities. Women tend to participate in processing (sun drying) and trade, though women engaged

in supporting activities in fish landing sites (e.g. bars, restaurants, tailoring, petty trading) appeared to earn more than women processing or trading fish.<sup>373</sup>

**Women are involved in selling fish to local markets in Lake Victoria<sup>374</sup> and Lake Wamala.<sup>375</sup>** Trading is also generally done by female groups. For example, trading of mukene in North and Eastern Uganda is primarily done by women. These groups of women typically pool resources and provide loans to individuals and catering services.<sup>376</sup>

**Women generally participate in small-scale processing, involving typically slow processes and minimal financial returns. This includes drying, smoking and frying.<sup>377</sup>** Women who get involved in processing most often start by buying and processing a small number of fish, then use the proceeds to buy more stock to slowly build up their business. In some cases, women have involved a partner who is a fisher, although this support can be inconsistent due to the unreliability of fishing activities.<sup>378</sup>

**Although women are involved in processing, this form of value addition is generally done for preservation rather than to improve profit margins.** This is the case, for example, in the Buikwe district, where mukene is sun dried, while tilapia and Nile perch are either smoked, deep fried or

<sup>369</sup> Timmers (n.d.) <sup>370</sup> Pearson et al. (2013) <sup>371</sup> Asiki (2011), in Pearson et al. (2013) <sup>372</sup> Timmers (n.d.) <sup>373</sup> Pearson et al. (2013)  
<sup>374</sup> Pearson et al. (2013) <sup>375</sup> Timmers (n.d.) <sup>376</sup> Ssebisubi (2013) <sup>377</sup> Timmers (n.d.) <sup>378</sup> Pearson et al. (2013)

salted. Due to the capital-intensive nature of the fish trade, women are hired for offloading and drying mukene and are often paid in-kind (paid one out of every seven volumes of dry fish).<sup>379</sup>

**Large-scale land acquisitions displace fishers, and disadvantage women processors as they have limited opportunities for alternative livelihoods.**

Women in the Mukono district, for example, are mostly engaged in smoking or sun drying fish, which is done on land. When people in Bulebi were evicted and moved, many women no longer had enough space to sun dry their fish. The limited space becomes available to those who arrive first. Those who cannot dry their fish are forced to sell it quickly before it spoils, but for lower profits.<sup>380</sup>

**Some women have also progressed to boat ownership and rental.**<sup>381</sup> Boat owners generally have higher incomes than crew members and are an important group of stakeholders.<sup>382</sup> However, due to rigid gender roles and norms most women remain in lower-income roles in the sector.<sup>383</sup> Fishing remains a more lucrative and faster way to acquire livelihoods or assets, compared with other activities within the capture fishing value chain at these sites.<sup>384</sup>

**Communities at landing sites have been established to serve the needs of highly itinerant (and primarily male) fishers.**

These communities include numerous inexpensive lodging establishments, restaurants and bars. As in the broader hospitality industry, described in the next sector brief, women predominate in public-facing positions such as desk attendants and wait staff, as well as services such as retail or tailoring.<sup>385</sup> For example, in Lake Victoria, although both women and men can own food outlets, these are generally run by women. These outlets suffer from the same seasonal income fluctuations as fishing, as when fishers do not have catch to sell, they do not have income to spend.<sup>386</sup>

**After the introduction of gender quotas in beach management units (BMUs), an average of two women members are found in each of the 28 BMUs (as of 2013).**<sup>387</sup>

In 2003, a system of co-management was introduced to improve participation. Beach management units were designed to represent all resource user groups, and a quota system is in place. Each unit elects a committee, which should include boat owners, boat crew, processors, boat and gear makers, equipment dealers, managers and charterers, and fishmongers. A third (30%) of members should be women. In practice, however, fisheries' decision-making processes are still dominated by wealthier boat owners.<sup>388</sup>

<sup>379</sup> Ssebisubi (2013) <sup>380</sup> CSM (2017) <sup>381</sup> Timmers (n.d.) <sup>382</sup> Burnley et al. (2014) <sup>383</sup> Burnley et al. (2014)  
<sup>384</sup> Nunan (2006), in Burnley et al. (2014); Timmers (n.d.) <sup>385</sup> Pearson et al. (2013) <sup>386</sup> Pearson et al. (2013)  
<sup>387</sup> Ssebisubi (2013) <sup>388</sup> Burnley et al. (2014)

**In aquaculture, women provide much of the daily labour, but men own the fishponds,<sup>389</sup> and oversee several activities, including decision making on production and selling.<sup>390</sup> These include pond site selection and construction, stocking, sampling, sourcing of inputs, as well as harvesting and sales, and keeping of records. Women are more likely to carry out routine activities, such as feeding fish and supervising workers when maintenance is needed.<sup>391</sup>**

<sup>389</sup> Atukunda et al. (n.d.) <sup>390</sup> Atukunda et al. (n.d.) <sup>391</sup> Atukunda et al. (n.d.)

## Summary table of barriers to and opportunities for women's economic empowerment in the fishing and aquaculture value chain

| Barriers  |  |  |
|---|--|--|
| Structural  | Normative  | Individual   |
| <p>Customary law not favouring women's access to land (for aquaculture ponds)</p> <p>Lack of gender lens in mainstream programming</p> <p>COVID-19 restrictions forced fishers and other actors to stop and scale back activities</p> | <p>In capture fishing, fishing on the lakes is seen as a male profession, superstitions contribute to keeping women away from this role</p> <p>Women who transgress norms face backlash</p> <p>In aquaculture, roles are closely linked to household gender norms</p> <p>Aquaculture is seen as men's activity as it requires land ownership</p> <p>Women's effective participation in fishing co-management committees influenced by norms</p> <p>Gender-based violence influences women's participation in the capture fishing value chain</p> <p>Norms on unpaid care influence roles and opportunities, as well as women's time use to fill gaps in health and sanitation</p> <p>Norms on riding bicycles and motorcycles exclude women from markets</p> | <p>Lower levels of education</p> <p>Exclusion from extension services</p> <p>Marital status determines roles in sector, with married women facing more restrictions</p> <p>Female-headed households, due to husband's migratory roles, experience particular socioeconomic challenges</p> <p>Lower access to associations in aquaculture, and groups' benefits such as information sharing and market access</p> |

## Summary table of barriers to and opportunities for women's economic empowerment in the fishing and aquaculture value chain

### Opportunities and entry points

| Structural  | Normative  | Individual  |
|---|--|---|
| <p>Gender-responsive commitments in the Agriculture Sector Strategic Plan 2015/16-2019/20 - including promotion of mukene fishing</p>       | <p>Gender-based violence prevention and strengthening local level response</p>                     | <p>Marketable skills are enablers to successful enterprises in supporting trades</p>          |
| <p>Gender quotas introduced in co-management system</p>   | <p>Challenging restrictive social and gender norms and myths which limit women's participation</p> | <p>Target extension services at women</p>   |
| <p>Parish Development Model (PDM) could increase potential for women's inclusion at grassroots level</p>                                    | <p>Provision of safe and affordable transport for women</p>  | <p>Access to capital is a key enabler, but women have lower access to credit</p>              |
| <p>Organisational and institutional strengthening of collectives and associations in the fishing sector to improve gender mainstreaming</p> |  | <p>Women's cooperative models to improve quality of products and improve members' capital</p> |
| <p>Gender-responsive natural resource management interventions</p>  |  |   |

## Structural factors

### The Agriculture Sector Strategic Plan

2015/16-2019/20 includes promotion of gendered innovation in agricultural research centres and extension services as key innovations.<sup>392</sup> Priorities within the fishing sector include the development of small pelagic (mukene) fish - which are typically fished by women.

Structural factors influencing women's ownership of land are relevant regarding pond ownership. While the **Succession Amendment Act, 2021** now provides equal provisions for female and male heirs and dependents' right to inherit land and other assets, there is limited evidence to date on implementation, and women continue to be discriminated against in the customary land tenure system.

## Normative factors

**Gender norms in Uganda prescribe capture fishing as a male profession,<sup>393</sup> due to the physical nature of the job,<sup>394</sup> and influenced by gender-discriminatory myths, superstition and taboos around women accessing boats or lakes.** Women's access to fish is therefore mediated through interaction with fishers, who are most often men.<sup>395</sup> In some districts, it is believed that if women go on fishing boats men will not catch fish.<sup>396</sup> In Lake Wamala, the myth of

the lake's creation has led to two specific taboos: The first excludes menstruating women from entering the lake (the waters of which are seen as the equivalent of Lake Wamala's mother's amniotic fluid). Secondly, as the lake is considered male, it is viewed as indecent for women to get in and out of fishing boats as this is believed to disrupt the lake's spirit and cause storms or declines in fish stock. These myths work to effectively exclude women from capture fishing.<sup>397</sup>

**Aquaculture practice is also seen as a male activity, and women's participation is limited by their limited ownership of land.**<sup>398</sup> Dynamics around land ownership and management at household levels therefore influence the role that women can have in aquaculture or even fish farming. The decision to use land for aquaculture or other agricultural enterprises lies with the head of household, most often a man. In addition, as fish farming is most often done for income rather than household food, men tend to claim ownership of such activities, in line with dominant norms.<sup>399</sup>

**The threat of gender-based violence is a key barrier to women's engagement in the sector.** Incidences of violence are common, and the risk excludes women from being alone in remote or dark spaces, confining them to activities that can be done in groups and during the day.<sup>400</sup> Women are also at risk

<sup>392</sup> Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fishing (2016) <sup>393</sup> Pickerill (2016) <sup>394</sup> Timmers (n.d.) <sup>395</sup> Pickerill (2016)  
<sup>396</sup> Ibale (1998) <sup>397</sup> Timmers (n.d.) <sup>398</sup> Timmers (2012) <sup>399</sup> Atukunda et al.(n.d.) <sup>400</sup> Timmers (n.d.)

of coercion, with fishers demanding “sex for trade” agreements to allow women’s access to fish catch.<sup>401</sup>

**Furthermore, while under-researched, economic violence appears to be normalised in fishing communities.** Men control income from much of the fishery value chain; however little of this income makes it back to the household, as men withhold information about their income and expenditure. Conversely, when women do earn an income, they fear that their husbands will withdraw all financial assistance to the household and so are compelled to hide their earnings.<sup>402</sup>

**Although some women have taken business-orientated roles such as boat ownership, they may still have to endure community backlash.** For example, in Lake Wamala, women who rent boats to male fishers are considered business savvy by some community members, but experience mockery from others.<sup>403</sup>

**Norms around unpaid care and domestic work influence roles and opportunities that are available to women.** Women whose husbands are fishers use a significant portion of their time on unpaid care and domestic work.<sup>404</sup> Fishers’ wives (whose husbands are highly mobile), do however also need to make income to cover expenses when their husbands are away.<sup>405</sup>

**Gaps in water, sanitation and hygiene provisions increase women’s unpaid labour, and time availability for paid labour, as they are generally the ones responsible for caregiving and domestic labour.**<sup>406</sup> In the Bukiwe district, just under a quarter (23%) of households at landing sites had latrines, primarily due to rocky or sandy shore substrate where it is difficult to dig or avoid collapses.<sup>407</sup> Among households living at the Kachanga landing site in Masaka district, none had latrines at home, and most got their drinking water from the lake.<sup>408</sup>

**Women are more likely to take on tasks that can be done close to home and alongside childcare** (e.g. renting boats and processing fish), and this is closely linked to their household responsibilities. This is reflected in gender roles within the capture fishing value chain, as tasks that require travelling are generally done by men.<sup>409</sup>

**In Central Uganda, norms around riding bicycles and motorbikes (the two main forms of transportation) limit women’s mobility and participation in the value chain.** These modes of transport are essential for fish trade in larger amounts, as sales are done across rural areas where houses are far from each other.<sup>410</sup>

<sup>401</sup> Pearson et al. (2013) <sup>402</sup> Geheb et al. (2007) <sup>403</sup> Timmers (n.d.) <sup>404</sup> Timmers (n.d.) <sup>405</sup> Burnley et al. (2014)  
<sup>406</sup> Burnley et al. (2014) <sup>407</sup> Ssebisubi (2013) <sup>408</sup> Burnley et al. (2014) <sup>409</sup> Timmers (n.d.) <sup>410</sup> Timmers (n.d.)

## Individual factors

**Women in fishing communities have lower levels of education.** For example, a 2013 study of livelihood pursuits of women in five landing sites across Masaka, Mukono and Wakiso districts on Lake Victoria's shores, found that most women had not completed secondary or primary school, due to a number of factors, including lack of funds, early pregnancy or civil conflict.<sup>411</sup> Boat crews are also less educated than boat owners. Those with highest education are usually boat owners or individuals who hold local council or beach management unit committee positions within the beach.<sup>412</sup> Women's lower education is a barrier to women's participation in the leadership of beach management units.<sup>413</sup> Furthermore, many women working at landing sites migrated from internal villages to the lakeshore with limited social capital and support.<sup>414</sup>

**Marital status is a key determinant of value chain participation, as married women are more likely to be expected to take on reproductive roles.** A study in Lake Wamala suggests that women who engage in productive aspects of the value chain, and therefore transgress gender norms, are usually unmarried, separated or widowed. In contrast, communities perceive that married women are responsible for preparing fish in the household, and it is the husband's role to bring income.<sup>415</sup> Over a quarter of families

in fisher communities are de facto female headed due to the migratory nature of fisher husbands' jobs.<sup>416</sup>

**Extension services targeted at fish farmers are often biased towards men, as they are assumed to be the farmers.** Activities are usually scheduled at times that are not convenient for women due to their household responsibilities. There is also low usage of information and communication technologies (ICT) in information provision.<sup>417</sup>

**When fish farmer groups exist, membership is often extended to the male landowner, excluding women from the benefits of group participation,** even when women perform the routine activities. This means that women have less access to opportunities for information sharing, training, access to inputs or marketing. While men get opportunities to share benefits of belonging to groups, women remain limited in terms of knowledge and skills needed to enhance their roles.<sup>418</sup> However, there are also women-led fish cooperatives such as the Uganda Fish Network which may offer the benefits of collectivisation.

<sup>411</sup> Pearson et al. (2013) <sup>412</sup> Burnley et al. (2014) <sup>413</sup> Ssebisubi (2013) <sup>414</sup> Pearson et al. (2013) <sup>415</sup> Timmers (n.d.)  
<sup>416</sup> Ssebisubi (2013) <sup>417</sup> Atukunda et al. (n.d.) <sup>418</sup> Atukunda et al. (n.d.)

**In fishing communities, HIV/AIDS incidence is higher than the national average (28.8%, compared to 7.8%)<sup>419</sup> and is higher among women (33.9%) than men (23.9%).** A 2021 scoping review of studies of HIV/AIDS in fishing communities in Uganda found that HIV prevalence is 3-5 times higher than the national average, and ranges from 22% to 37%. The study also found a higher prevalence in women - female fishers and women working in supporting services including bar owners, traders, food vendors, housewives, etc.<sup>420</sup> Engagement in transactional sex at landing sites is a key driver of HIV infection. Other drivers include alcohol consumption, having multiple sexual partners,<sup>421</sup> as well as migration, and women's low social status.<sup>422</sup> Qualitative research from Lake Victoria found that within established partnerships with a transactional sex element, women are more at risk of HIV, sexually transmitted infections and pregnancy. While transactional sex is not unique to the fishing sector, the unpredictable nature of income as well as increased risks and exposure women may face are more pronounced than in other settings.<sup>423</sup>

**Health facilities are generally far from fishing communities.** For example, in the Buikwe district, only 18 out of 52 fishing communities could reach a health facility within five kilometres. In terms of maternal health facilities, these are most likely to be over 10 kilometres away.<sup>424</sup> Similarly, a 2020 study of family planning use in two large fishing communities along Lake Victoria's shores - Kigungu and Nsazi Island with around 30,000 and 8,000 residents, respectively - found that referrals for comprehensive services are made to Entebbe and Kisubi hospitals located about 10 kilometres from Kigungu and 27 kilometres over water from Nsazi Island, respectively.<sup>425</sup>

**Factors such as access to capital and family support are key enablers for women moving to landing sites in search of economic opportunities.** A qualitative study found that women who had capital when they first moved, had a significant advantage over those who did not. This capital often came from family or partners. Although risks remained, and occurrences of theft, ill health or pregnancy interrupted work, women who had assets or were well supported were able to quickly return to work. Support from partners is particularly important, although this is often inconsistent.<sup>426</sup>

<sup>419</sup> MoH (2011); AIC-Uganda (2012) in Ssebisubi (2013) <sup>420</sup> Musumari, P. M., Techasrivichien, T., Srithanaviboonchai, K., Wanyenze, R. K., Matovu, J. K., Poudyal, H., ... & Kihara, M. (2021) <sup>421</sup> Tumwesigye et al. (2012) in Ssebisubi (2013) <sup>422</sup> Ssebisubi (2013) <sup>423</sup> Pearson et al. (2013) <sup>424</sup> Ssebisubi (2013) <sup>425</sup> Nanvubya, A., Wanyenze, R. K., Kamacooko, O., Nakaweesa, T., Mpendo, J., Kawoozo, B., ... & Van Geertruyden, J. P. (2020) <sup>426</sup> Pearson et al. (2013)

**Roles within the capture fishing value chain influence access to credit.** For example, boat crew members (generally men) have better options for earning opportunities and control over assets than women, individual fishers, day labourers and other poor community members. Boat crew members have better opportunities to become boat owners.<sup>427</sup>

### Sector-specific recommendations

This section highlights sector-specific recommendations for consideration aimed at both public and private sector stakeholders to improve women's economic empowerment through the fishing and aquaculture sector.

#### 1. Strengthen the fishing and aquaculture sector's commitments to gender equality.

Recommended strategies include:

- Strengthen gender mainstreaming within existing sector-wide associations.
- Support women's leadership in the sector including in beach management units.
- Advocate with government for improved gender-responsive policies in the sector, including upholding women's land rights linked to aquaculture ponds.
- Committing resources to collecting and reporting on sex-disaggregated data across various topics including pond ownership and access, financial and digital access plus impact on livelihoods, membership in cooperatives, etc.

#### 2. Support interventions at the household level to increase women's economic, social and human capital.

Recommended strategies include:

- Support household-based interventions focused on the role of women within households, to promote their participation in different fishing activities, as well as control and access to fishing income. Consider the needs of women in households where the husband is a transient fisher.
- Implement and integrate into current initiatives norm change interventions focused on women's role in fishing, and promoting gender-equitable attitudes and norms, and tackling sector specific myths and misconceptions about women with water-based livelihoods.
- Ensure that interventions focus on landing sites and involve both stable fishing communities and transient fishers.
- Support community-based interventions addressing roles within landing sites relationships. Consider the risks of economic violence and coercive sexual relationships at fishing landing sites.
- Support household interventions that address women's role and decision making in aquaculture tasks, land ownership and control, access to fishing associations, access and control to income, as well as unpaid care and childcare responsibilities.

<sup>427</sup> Burnley et al. (2014)

- Work with community and religious leaders, men and women, to shift harmful gender and social norms that put women at risk and reduce their beneficial engagement in capture fishing.
- Ensure interventions address women's holistic needs including access to HIV prevention, testing and treatment as well as broader health services.
- Monitor, track and mitigate against any signs of backlash in response to increasing women's involvement in non-traditional roles such as capture fishing.

### 3. Support interventions to improve the profitability and productivity of women in the value chain and supporting sectors.

Recommended strategies include:

- Support existing and new women's groups selling or processing mukene fish, including investing in diversification into more lucrative fish species. Processing/ Preservation efforts (drying, smoking, salting, deep frying) should be positioned as value addition (augmented for example by packaging and branding) in order to increase women's profit margins.
- Address women's transport-specific mobility constraints by supporting collective transport options for women to sell at markets.

- Support initiatives that provide marketable skills training, such as tailoring or other services that support growing fishing communities.
- Carry out gender-responsive natural resource management interventions.
- Improve women's access to affordable finance, including use of mobile money platforms. Tailor financial product terms, timing and collateral requirements, and develop alternative products suited to women.

### 4. Support household and community level interventions addressing women's unpaid care and domestic work burdens.

Recommended strategies include:

- Implement interventions to address women's unpaid care and domestic work burden.
- Support and promote labour- and time-saving innovations and technology.
- Work with private and public sectors to ensure that women have access to energy, water, hygiene and sanitation facilities.
- Ensure that all interventions consider and mitigate risks such as increased unpaid work burden for women.

### 5. Improve women's participation and labour conditions in the industrial fishing sector.

Recommended strategies include:

- Encourage increased numbers of women in supervisory and managerial positions, ensuring support to them in these roles.
- Promote safety and opportunities for women within factories, with a focus on addressing sexual harassment and exploitation.

### 6. Improve women's human, social and economic capital through leveraging collectives and cooperatives.

Recommended strategies include:

- Support women through collectivisation, leveraging existing women's cooperatives, and supporting the formation of new women-led cooperatives.
- Support women's cooperatives in activities such as collective processing, collective transport, and collective selling.
- Leverage women's cooperatives and collectives for human capital interventions, including efforts to improve soft skills around leadership, negotiation and conflict management; as well as efforts to improve business capabilities.

#### Capture fishing

- Explore possibilities to support women's collective ownership of key productive assets such as boats and nets.

- Support cooperatives focused on capture fishing value addition, where women are concentrated, with focus on quality, marketing, collective transport, as well as business skills development. For example, a women's cooperative could support fish processors who trim and smoke fish by collective buying, while guaranteeing a quality product by implementing quality assurance processes and creating a "brand" for the final product.
- Support the creation of service cooperatives that provide women with access to basic bookkeeping, training, networking and other services as relevant.
- Support cooperatives or networks working with women working in related sectors, such as hospitality.

#### Aquaculture

- Improve women's access to extension services and training, with a particular focus on their independent access to information through ICT solutions such as training (audio and video) in local languages (Luganda, Swahili, English, etc.).

### 7. Address research gaps and build evidence of what works

Recommended strategies include:

- Commission and undertake research to complement the available evidence (largely from 2012-2014) on women in the sector, including: (i) research with

marginalised groups to understand the different barriers and challenges women may face; and (ii) research on economic benefits for women in aquaculture vs capture fishing.

- Commission and undertake research to understand the gendered impact of COVID-19 on temporary fishing communities, and the resulting displacements.
- Commission an assessment of organisational and institutional capacity of fishery sector associations, to understand needs for capacity building on gender equality and women's participation.
- Ensure meaningful participation of women in the design of all interventions, including through participatory methods.

## 5.4 The tourism and hospitality sector<sup>428</sup>

### Sector overview



**Tourism constitutes one of Uganda's largest sources of export income and foreign currency.** In 2018, the sector was worth USD1.6 billion in foreign exchange and employed over 700,000 people. However, the sector was one of the worst affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, expected to lose over one million tourist arrivals in 2020.<sup>429</sup> Pre-COVID-19, tourism generated

7.75% of Uganda's GDP in 2018, and 6.7% of employment.<sup>430</sup> Tourism is largely driven by regional business travel as well as international travel from North Americans and Europeans attracted by Uganda's flora and fauna.<sup>431</sup>

### **The government of Uganda is actively seeking to expand the tourism sector.**

Uganda's Third National Development Plan (NDP III) states that tourism is a key development strategy and notes that it is one of the best-performing sectors under service exports. Targets include to increase revenue from tourism to USD3 billion, increase tourism employment to 10% of total employment, and more than doubling the number of visitors from Europe, the US and China by 2024/2025. That said, some observers note that promised government funding for tourism has sometimes not materialised, and/or remains only a fraction of what neighbours such as Kenya and Rwanda spend.<sup>432</sup>

### **Various government entities are involved (directly or indirectly) in regulating Uganda's tourism sector. These include:**

(i) the Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife, and Antiquities; (ii) Ministry of Education and Sports; (iii) Ministry of Gender, Labour, and Social Development; (iv) Uganda Tourism Board; (v) Uganda Wildlife Authority; and

<sup>428</sup> An extremely broad sector, tourism and hospitality encompasses, inter alia: international and local travel; food and restaurants; bars and nightlife; hotels and other lodging; and support, such as travel agencies and booking websites. For the sake of simplicity, and because it will mostly focus on inbound international travel, this section will generally refer to this array of activities in Uganda as simply "tourism" <sup>429</sup> Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities (2020) <sup>430</sup> EABW Editor (2019, 18 September)

<sup>431</sup> Murray; Wolf (2017) <sup>432</sup> Adiyia et al. (2015); Ahebwa, W., & English, P. (2018); Seetna; Saab (2019)

| Tourism and Hospitality Stakeholder type             | Region    |          |          |          | National* | Total     |
|--|-----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|-----------|
|  | Central   | Eastern  | Western  | Northern |           |           |
| Associations, collectives, organizations, rep bodies | 2         | 1        | 3        | 1        | 12        | 19        |
| Government agencies/ departments                     |           |          |          |          | 17        | 17        |
| Private Companies                                    | 11        | 2        | 3        | 1        | 16        | 33        |
| NGOs   | 2         |          |          |          | 2         | 9         |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>15</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>47</b> | <b>78</b> |

From the stakeholder mapping exercise for tourism and hospitality, 78 stakeholders were identified across the various regions of Uganda. A summary table of stakeholder types across the regions is shown here, and the detailed information about stakeholders' activities (including women-focused provisions) can be accessed [here](#) on the Pathways study website.

(vi) National Council on Higher Education. However, some sources indicate that these entities reportedly sometimes pursue overlapping, or conflicting, mandates, limiting the Ugandan government's ability to manage the sector or productively guide its strategic direction.<sup>433</sup> The Uganda Tourism Association (UTA) seeks to represent the country's tourism sector and is made up of seven constituent organisations.<sup>434</sup> However, the bulk of Uganda's tourism sector lacks formal representation.<sup>435</sup>

**The tourism sector is dominated by SMEs and family-owned businesses.**<sup>436</sup> Many operate as single proprietorships, and the majority employ fewer than 10 people.<sup>437</sup> Key tourism-related businesses include tour operators, transport, drivers and tour guides,

accommodation providers, food and beverage providers, attraction and activity providers,<sup>438</sup> as well as community enterprises that offer handicrafts and demonstrations.<sup>439</sup> NGOs and community-based tourism associations also support the marketing of community enterprises such as women's craft products and other opportunities for women including training.<sup>440</sup>

**COVID-19 has severely affected Ugandan tourism, leading to large job losses, especially among women.**<sup>441</sup> The pandemic has had severe negative effects on Uganda's tourism sector, with expected losses of up to USD1.6 billion.<sup>442</sup> According to available research, already in April 2020, Uganda's tourism industry recorded 65% loss of jobs.<sup>443</sup> As of July 2021, hotel bookings were

<sup>433</sup> Adiyia et al. (2015); Ahebwa, W., & English, P. (2018)

<sup>434</sup> These include: (i) Association of Uganda Tour Operators (AUTO); (ii) Uganda Safari Guides Association (USAGA); (iii) Uganda Hotel Owners Association (UHOA); (iv) The Uganda Association of Travel Agents (TUGATA); (v) Uganda Community Tourism Association (UCOTA); (vi) National Arts and Cultural Crafts Association of Uganda (NACCAU); and (vii) Association of Uganda Women in Tourism Trade (AUWOTT). See: <https://ugandatourismassociation.org/our-members/>

<sup>435</sup> Adiyia et al. (2015) <sup>436</sup> Altes (2018) <sup>437</sup> Ahebwa, W., & English, P. (2018) <sup>438</sup> Altes (2018) <sup>439</sup> UNWTO (2014)

<sup>440</sup> UNWTO (2019) <sup>441</sup> Guloba; Kakuru; Ssewanyana (2021) <sup>442</sup> Biryabarema (2020, 2 June) <sup>443</sup> Guloba; Kakuru; Ssewanyana (2021)

down 96.5% year on year, with concomitant negative effects on businesses such as restaurants and bars.<sup>444</sup> Women dominate roles in tourism establishments such as hotels, bars and restaurants, which were closed during lockdown, and so women experienced acute job losses.<sup>445</sup> Furthermore, anecdotal evidence suggests that young women who dropped out of school since the COVID-19 pandemic have sought income in local markets, and these young women are especially vulnerable to sexual and gender-based violence and exploitation.<sup>446</sup>

### Women's roles in the tourism and hospitality sector

**Overall, men and women constitute roughly equal proportions of people employed in Ugandan tourism; however, women are disproportionately represented in lower-paying sub-sectors.**<sup>447</sup> For example, the restaurant and mobile food sector employs 78% women, and women constitute 63% of employees for staging events. Up to 90% of community tourism-focused enterprises such as handicrafts are initiated and managed by women.<sup>448</sup> By contrast, men appear to be mostly drivers and field guides,<sup>449</sup> with Pathways Study interviewees suggesting that this is because many women are unable to drive and speak English (often a prerequisite for these jobs). Crucially, these positions pay a higher salary than most female-dominated jobs, such as waitressing,

reception or housekeeping. They also provide a recognised way to move up the tourism value chain: guides become local arrangers, who can then move on to establish local or even national tourism businesses.<sup>450</sup> Likewise, men also make up many tourism managers,<sup>451</sup> even though women now constitute most graduates of some Ugandan tourism training institutions.<sup>452</sup> In the tourism sector, Ugandan women make about 85 cents for every dollar a man makes.<sup>453</sup>

### Sex work intersects with the tourism and hospitality sector at several points.

Populations of itinerant men appear particularly likely to seek out paid sex. Hence, many sex workers gather at hospitality venues, such as truck stops that host many travellers, whether Ugandan or foreign. Some lodging establishments facilitate sex work, offering condoms and, at least in theory, some protection from potentially violent customers. Likewise, transactions for paid sex frequently occur in Uganda's restaurants and, especially, bars. Hospitality staff facilitate sex work, helping establish links between providers and potential customers. Some hospitality staff also engage in sex work themselves, to supplement the relatively meagre income derived from waitressing, bartending, housekeeping, or other hospitality occupations often regarded as low skilled.<sup>454</sup>

<sup>444</sup> Guloba; Kakuru; Ssewanyana (2021) <sup>445</sup> Guloba; Kakuru; Ssewanyana (2021) <sup>446</sup> Based on insights from Pathways Study interviews  
<sup>447</sup> UNWTO (2014) <sup>448</sup> UNWTO (2014) <sup>449</sup> Altes (2018) <sup>450</sup> Staritz; Reis (2013) <sup>451</sup> Kumara, Y.A. (2018) <sup>452</sup> UNWTO (2014)  
<sup>453</sup> UNWTO (2019) <sup>454</sup> Mbonye et al. (2013)

## Summary table of barriers to and opportunities for women's economic empowerment in the tourism and hospitality sector

| Barriers   |   |  |
|--|---|--|
| Structural                                       | Normative   | Individual   |
| Inadequate quality of tourism education provided | <p>Gender norms which dictate that men dominate in higher- income and decision-making roles</p> <p>Inequitable intra-household decision making</p> <p>Gender stereotypes of young women's roles in the service industry</p> <p>Sexual exploitation, abuse and harassment</p> <p>Intimate partner violence including economic violence</p> <p>Gender pay gap</p> | <p>Low levels of education, knowledge and skills (including English language)</p> <p>Limited access to social and economic support networks/resources</p> <p>HIV/AIDS prevalence</p> |

## Summary table of barriers to and opportunities for women's economic empowerment in the tourism and hospitality sector

### Opportunities and entry points

| Structural  | Normative   | Individual   |
|---|---|--|
| <p><b>The Employment (Amendment) Bill</b> stipulating measures to prevent sexual harassment in the workplace</p> <p>Uganda Hotel Owners Association delivering capacity building on gender-sensitive HIV/AIDS response in the tourism sector</p> <p>Parish Development Model (PDM) could increase potential for women's inclusion at grassroots level</p> | <p>Improve women's status in the household and promote equitable household decision making</p> <p>Challenge gender-inequitable norms and stereotypes of women in the sector</p> <p>Prevent and respond to gender-based violence including sexual harassment, violence and abuse</p> | <p>Developing business linkages between women-led cooperatives and the tourism and hospitality sector as a market for products</p> |

## Normative factors

### As with other sectors, men tend to dominate in decision-making roles.

Small-scale studies have found that in some handicraft enterprises, while women are producing the items for sale, men are running the handicraft businesses.<sup>455</sup> Furthermore, intra-household gender dynamics and decision making can act as barriers or enablers to women's economic empowerment. For example, case studies from Uganda highlighted in a recent global report found that among female guides, while their income had increased their decision-making authority within the household and community, they still needed "permission" from their husbands to engage in their career. Furthermore, women engaged in community-based cultural tourism activities in Bwindi National Park reported facing challenges with their husbands seeking to control their income and, in some cases, objecting to their wives working.<sup>456</sup>

**Gendered stereotypes are pervasive in the tourism sector and influence the types of roles and jobs that women take on.** Young women represent a disproportionate number of women working in tourism,<sup>457</sup> in part due to gender-related stereotypes that "cheerful and attractive" young women are particularly suited to customer service roles. The government of Uganda has recently exploited gender stereotypes to promote tourism in Uganda. Its 2019 tourism strategy focused on promoting its "naturally endowed nice-looking women", through a national beauty pageant "Miss Curvy Uganda", was widely criticised by the women's rights movement.<sup>458</sup>

**Sexual harassment and violence against women are pervasive within the tourism sector.** Worldwide, some studies have reported that nearly 90% of women working in hospitality experience sexual harassment.<sup>459</sup> Although there is a dearth of evidence on the scale of sexual harassment in the sector in Uganda, anecdotal evidence suggests it is widespread.<sup>460</sup> Pathways Study interviews underlined this reality. It was reported that men who own the various

**"For those in the field, most of the accommodation options have not catered for female guides; women stay at hostels with 10 other male guides with no privacy. The whole experience is not attractive...it is prone to work-related violence and exploitation."**

Source: Industry Association Stakeholder (Pathways Study Interview)

<sup>455</sup> Tucker; Boonabaana (2012) <sup>456</sup> UNWTO (2019) <sup>457</sup> Guloba; Kakuru; Ssewanyana (2021) <sup>458</sup> Adams (2019, 6 February)

<sup>459</sup> Johnson; Madera (2018, 18 January); Nordic Union (2016, 25 May); Topping (2018, 24 January);

<sup>460</sup> The Independent (2019, 19 August)

**“Unfortunately, because of the lack of skills that are required in the industry, many of the management positions are going to expatriates from Kenya and South Africa who have got more experience in hospitality.”**

Source: Industry Association Stakeholder (Pathways Study Interview)

businesses in the private sector-led tourism services industry, “consider women as faces”, and employ them as “a client attractive measure”. A Pathways Study interviewee stated that this has contributed to “persistent sexual harassment - a common practice during employment consideration and recruitment.” In the wildlife and conservation tourism sub-sector, which is dominated by men, this harassment and violence was linked to the fact that women share living quarters in remote locations where men far outnumber them.

**Sexual harassment and violence are reported within the hotel and hospitality sub-sector where high numbers of women are employed.** An interviewee for the Pathways study recounted how young women are expected to indicate their willingness to enter arrangements for sex when being interviewed for work in hotels. The long hours and night shift work was also identified as a contributory factor to the violence that women experience in the industry. In the cultural and community tourism markets, women’s access to stalls to sell their products may be mediated by demands for sexual favours.

## Individual factors

**Pathways Study interviewees frequently cited low levels of education as a cross-cutting barrier to better pay, better positions and opportunities for promotion.** The reverse also applied, namely that low-paying jobs prevent women from being able to further their education. Furthermore, educational qualifications even at tertiary level, do not appear to facilitate entry into the senior management positions from which women are largely absent in the sector. Tourism education in Uganda is fragmented and does not meet international standards.<sup>461</sup> The Ugandan government thus estimates that, in many cases, Uganda lacks adequate personnel to meet even current tourism needs.<sup>462</sup> Studies estimate that up to 80% of tourism graduates find themselves unemployable upon graduation, due to a lack of practical knowledge and skills. As a result, foreigners, especially Kenyans and South Africans, fill many managerial and other high-skilled roles.<sup>463</sup>

<sup>461</sup> The Republic of Uganda (2020)    <sup>462</sup> The Republic of Uganda (2020)

<sup>463</sup> Tukamushaba; Xiao (2012); English, P., & Ahebwa, W. (2018)

**The prevalence of HIV/AIDS appears to be higher in the tourism and hospitality sector than in the Ugandan population at large - 7.4% in the general population, versus 10.3% in tourism and hospitality.**<sup>464</sup>

Women living with HIV make up 80% of those living with HIV in the hostel industry.<sup>465</sup>

Vulnerability to HIV is associated with mobility and migration, poor terms and conditions of work, gender inequality, lack of comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS, stigma and discrimination and high proximity for personal interaction and socialisation. Female workers living with HIV can face a degree of social stigma, limiting opportunities for employment or advancement within a particular field. On the other hand, paying for medical care further strains the already-low wages many women in hospitality and tourism receive. Ill-health might also necessitate taking time off work, further limiting both opportunities for advancement and potential wages received. That said, as described above, some industry bodies, such as the Uganda Hotel Owners Association, have taken steps to try to reduce the prevalence of HIV/AIDS in the industry, including providing workshops and resources on gender-sensitive HIV/AIDS response in the tourism business.<sup>466</sup>

**Community-based women-led tourism-focused enterprises may increase women's skills and ability to earn an independent income as well as access to microfinance and savings.** For example, members of Buhoma-Mukono Women's Handicraft Group have been able to earn an independent income and generate savings to invest in household needs through their membership. Crucially, women's collective investments in property and land have shielded their income and savings from husbands. The challenges faced by the group highlight the importance of ensuring access to markets for crafts, coupled with training in handicraft-making and business skills and education for career development.<sup>467</sup>

### Sector-specific recommendations

This section highlights key opportunities and entry points, and sector-specific recommendations for consideration by both public and private sector stakeholders who wish to contribute to the improvement of women's economic status within the tourism sector.

#### 1. Strengthen the tourism and hospitality sector's commitment to gender equality.

Recommended strategies include:

- Support industry actors, to commit to policies, regulations and actions that further gender equality, and monitor gender equality commitments.

<sup>464</sup> ILO (n.d. (d)). Accessed in March 2022 <sup>465</sup> UNWTO (2019) <sup>466</sup> UNWTO (2019) <sup>467</sup> UNWTO (2019)

- Support the implementation and monitoring of gender commitments.
- Promote women's participation in sector leadership and enable active engagement by women in the planning for the expansion of domestic tourism.
- Strengthen gender mainstreaming within existing tourism-focused associations.
- Committing resources to collecting and reporting on sex-disaggregated data across various topics including employment in higher-paying roles such as tour guidance, ownership of tourism-linked businesses such as handicraft production, membership in and leadership of cooperatives and industry associations, etc.

## 2. Support interventions at the household level to increase women's economic, social and human capital.

Recommended strategies include:

- Support normative interventions that promote women's participation to non-traditional roles, as well as power imbalances in negotiating choices for paid work.
- Ensure interventions targeting family-run tourism enterprises address inequitable household dynamics.
- Implement household programmes focused on control of income and risks of intimate partner violence.
- Implement household programmes that address how gender dynamics influence management and control over small

family-managed enterprises.

- Ensure interventions address women's holistic needs including access to HIV prevention, testing and treatment, as well as broader health services.
- Monitor, track and mitigate against any signs of backlash in response to increasing women's involvement in non-traditional roles such as tour guides.

## 3. Work with employers to promote gender-sensitive and safe workplaces.

Recommended strategies include:

- This should focus on addressing sexual harassment in the sector, promoting zero tolerance, as well as promoting job security and stability.
- Implement initiatives to support women in supervisory and management roles.
- Implement initiatives to increase interest in hiring women in non-traditional roles and sectors, including initiatives focused on showcasing female role models and on creation of mentorship opportunities.

## 4. Engage with and protect the most marginalised.

Recommended strategies include:

- Targeted interventions working with sex workers in the industry to improve access to sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR) services.
- Sector-wide campaigns to protect children and vulnerable adults from sex tourism and exploitation.

### 5. **Implement skills building and vocational training to improve women's opportunities in the sector.**

Recommended strategies include:

- Focus on skills for roles and sub-sectors where women are less represented, work alongside companies to promote hiring of women, and for mentorship opportunities.
- Support initiatives that link skilled candidates to job opportunities, improve initiatives' success by providing incentives such as "payment for results" and monitoring of gender targets and number of people obtaining jobs.
- Improve the quality of existing higher-level tourism education and promote and ensure equitable access for young women.
- Support business skills programmes for women entrepreneurs and collectives.

### 6. **Improve women's human, social and economic capital through leveraging collectives and cooperatives.**

Recommended strategies include:

- Support women through collectivisation, leveraging existing women's cooperatives and supporting the formation of new women-led cooperatives.
- Support women's cooperatives in activities such as collective processing, collective transport and collective selling.

- Leverage women's cooperatives and collectives for human capital interventions, including efforts to improve soft skills around leadership, negotiation and conflict management; as well as efforts to improve business capabilities.
- Support small tourist associations, as well as women- and community-led enterprises, support collective investment in land and assets and promote access to training and credit opportunities.
- Support sectors where women are highly represented (such as handicrafts) through collectivisation for better marketing of products and access to international markets.

### 7. **Address research gaps and build evidence of what works.**

Recommended strategies include:

- Commission and undertake research on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on women in the tourism sector, to enable recommendations to "build back better".
- Commission and undertake research with marginalised groups (such as women with disabilities) to understand different barriers and challenges and to design inclusive interventions.
- Ensure meaningful participation of women in the design of all interventions, including through participatory methods.



# 6. Overarching implications and recommendations

**This report has highlighted significant structural, normative and individual level barriers that affect women's economic empowerment and wellbeing in Uganda.** While barriers at all levels are significant, the findings point to the salience of deep-seated harmful norms and practices including unpaid care and domestic work, VAWG, and gender norms and stereotypes which significantly constrain women's economic opportunities in the Ugandan context.

**Achieving meaningful and sustainable changes in women's economic opportunities and wellbeing requires work at multiple levels.** For example, programmes focused on individual-level skills gaps of women are unlikely to be successful unless they also address norms at the household level which dictate male privilege over economic decision making. At a minimum, careful consideration of these normative factors is needed in order not to exacerbate discrimination or do further harm.

**The findings point to significant opportunities to enhance women in Uganda's economic opportunities and potential.** No one actor alone can address all the barriers to women's economic empowerment; to achieve meaningful and sustainable change in women's lives will require a coordinated, multi-pronged and multi-stakeholder approach to tackle barriers at each of these levels. The following recommendations and considerations are aimed at policy makers, programmers and researchers - including both those engaged in WEE-focused programmes and initiatives, as well as more general economic development programming which may not have women's economic empowerment as a central aim. These proposed recommendations can serve as a starting point for further deliberations by multiple stakeholders including government to ensure actionable interventions within mutually agreed timeframes.

## 6.1 Policy/Advocacy recommendations

### 1. Address key policy gaps and improve implementation and monitoring of key legislation around women's land ownership, girls' education and gender-based violence.

Recommended strategies include:

- Create an enabling environment, with clear and predictable economic policies supporting women's economic empowerment and protecting women's rights both at home and at the workplace.
- All agricultural/agribusiness policies should adopt a gender-based approach.
- Strengthen policies, accountability and remediation mechanisms on equal land ownership, sexual harassment and gender-based violence.
- Ensure effective implementation and monitoring of the Succession Amendment Act, 2021 and the 2020 Employment (Amendment) Bill.
- Ensure implementation and monitoring of gender-responsive activities in the Agricultural Sector Strategic Plan 2015/16-2019/20.
- Ratify the ILO Convention (190) on Violence and Harassment.
- Ensure sufficient legal provisions to protect paid work for women who want to continue to work following childbirth.
- Advocate for full abolition of child marriage.

- Advocate for greater public investments and incentives to keep girls in school and encourage more engagement in science and technical subjects.
- Increase investment in physical infrastructure and public goods: roads, warehousing, irrigation, processing facilities.

## 2. Undertake community sensitisation, capacity building and advocacy around existing legislation to strengthen women's rights.

Recommended strategies include:

- Training and capacity building of key duty bearers including traditional customary structures, local government and law enforcement on key legislation regarding women's right to land ownership, including the Succession Amendment Act, 2021 to reduce bias and discrimination against women, and improve transparency and consistency of decision making.
- Facilitation of community conversations and peer training, e.g. with elders/chiefs, social workers, community health volunteers, teachers and other stakeholders on women's rights and constitutional law.
- Community-based sensitisation on women's rights, what constitutes child marriage and issues such as gender-based violence (including economic violence), available reporting mechanisms

and services outlining obligations of service providers, and where complaints (including regarding bad treatment, bribes or corruption) can be lodged.

- Social and behaviour change communications (SBCC) focused on gender-equitable land distribution and inheritance, as well as promoting positive non-violent relationships. Local authorities and county leaders play a critical role in championing these activities.

## 3. Advocate to remove gender-based barriers to finance and promote women-friendly financial services.

Recommended strategies include:

- Pass and enforce legislation against gender-discriminatory practices in access to credit.
- Work with lenders to reduce gender-discriminatory practices in lending practices.
- Ensure inclusive policies for cooperative enterprises and women-led cooperatives.
- Facilitate women-led cooperatives to access traditional and innovative finance, through partnerships with lenders and microfinance institutions.
- Support improved financial literacy among women to ensure that women keep proper accounting records and have a credit history, both of which are critical to accessing business loans. These could

be incorporated into a “credit reference bureau” for women entrepreneurs which also assists them in preparing project loan documents that are acceptable to financial institutions.

- Meaningfully engage women in the design of financial services and products (including mobile money products), to ensure that they are accessible and affordable to all women, including those most marginalised (young women, women with disabilities, rural and illiterate small holders, etc.). This will also ensure women’s specific needs are taken into account.
- Non-bank or microfinance institutions should be supported through specific legislation (and, possibly taxation policies) to encourage lending to female entrepreneurs.

## 6.2 Programming recommendations<sup>468</sup>

1. **All programming should be based on a robust gender analysis which identifies risks and mitigating measures at each level of the change pathway.** This is essential for all types of programmes, including those that may not have gender or women’s economic empowerment as a core area of focus.
2. **Assess and address women’s and girls’ unpaid care and domestic work burden**

so that they can complete their education, acquire marketable skills and work for pay outside the household.

Recommended strategies include:

- Carefully assess the extent to which project activities could increase women’s workload, and actively incorporate time- and labour-saving interventions targeted at women.
- Work with private and public sectors to ensure that households have access to energy, water, hygiene and sanitation facilities in order to reduce women’s and girls’ drudgery and time poverty.
- Provision of basic necessities related to educational needs including school meals for all and provision of free sanitary pads for girls, as evidence indicates that such incentives increase girls’ attendance and reduce their dropout rates.<sup>469</sup>

3. **Work with and grow women’s collectives to build social, human and economic capital, and tackle normative barriers.**

Recommended strategies include:

- Work to strengthen existing groups as well as to support the formation of new commercially-orientated women-led cooperatives. The population data resources of the Parish Development Model (PDM) could be leveraged for identification and outreach to women’s cooperatives across Uganda’s 10,000+ parishes.<sup>470</sup>

<sup>468</sup> For stakeholders directly involved in WEE initiatives and stakeholders involved in general economic development programming not focused on women <sup>469</sup> African Development Bank (AfDB) & UN ECA (2019) <sup>470</sup> Guloba, M. (2022)

- Design training activities which incorporate business mentorship and networking; specific training activities targeting youth on digital skills; specific training activities including mixed groups, targeting farming as a family business.<sup>471</sup> Evidence from microcredit and entrepreneurship programmes in Uganda show that couples training can improve household power dynamics and increase economic wellbeing.<sup>472</sup>
- Conduct gender mapping exercises to assess the extent of women's participation in various sectors, and to respond to their needs more effectively. There is a need to initiate a dynamic dialogue across all sectors, encompassing farmers and other stakeholders. This dialogue should recognise the important role of women farmers and their contribution to Africa's agriculture (coffee and maize, for example), and the critical need to involve and integrate them into more business-orientated farming ventures.
- Ensure that all work to support agricultural value chains includes a focus on supporting women on collective storage, aggregation and marketing. This provides economies of scale and cheaper access to services (transportation), to access more lucrative markets.
- Support women's cooperatives to utilise facilities of the Ugandan Warehouse Receipt System Authority (UWRSA) through commodity accumulation and transportation, with a view to holding to benefit from higher prices and/or using as security/collateral for credit (inventory financing).
- Provide bridge financing for women's cooperatives to invest in asset- and business-supporting infrastructure including cold chain storage facilities and transportation.
- Ensure equitable access to productive resources and extension services (including through increasing access to digital solutions). This could include developing and/or financing offline knowledge/training repositories.
- Through public-private partnership (PPP), identify and train female youth within the cooperatives, to provide extension services. This serves a dual purpose of creating employment for female youth and making much-needed extension services more accessible for women.
- Support women's cooperatives to build connections with financial institutions and other relevant service providers.

<sup>471</sup> UNCTAD (2015) <sup>472</sup> Oxfam 2017

#### 4. Work with women and girls holistically to improve their human capital and wellbeing.

Recommended strategies include:

- Improve “education to employment” pathways for adolescent girls and young women through internships, vocational training and apprenticeships. Evidence from previous programmes in Uganda shows that offering safe spaces for girls to gain life skills, learn trades and acquire financial literacy increases their socioeconomic opportunities and outcomes in the long term.<sup>473</sup>
- Address barriers to girls’ education and factors influencing school dropout.
- Include efforts to improve soft skills around leadership, negotiation and conflict management.
- Include efforts to improve business capabilities, including digital skills.
- Focused interventions to move women up value chains and into more lucrative/productive sectors.
- Include focus on building capacity to improve resilience to future economic shocks.
- Ensure girls and women have access to SRHR services.

#### 5. Work with large employers to promote gender-sensitive and safe workplaces.

Recommended strategies include:

- Workplace empowerment programmes that improve women’s health knowledge and access to goods and services, e.g. SRHR literacy, access to affordable contraception and menstrual health products, as well as financial literacy, and training addressing both hard and soft skills.
- Improve working conditions for women through the following:
  - Digitised wage systems through financial wallets to enable women to receive and control income safely.
  - Provision of a living wage, flexible working hours and parental leave.
  - Addressing the gender pay gap.
  - Provision of childcare services on site.
  - Good parental leave policies.
  - Loans for access to piped water or off-grid energy solutions.
- Support company policies to proactively procure from female suppliers and women-owned businesses.
- Full compliance with ILO Convention and Recommendation (190) Violence and Harassment in the World of Work (2019).
  - Ensure anti-sexual harassment policy that explicitly condemns sexual harassment and gender-based violence in the workplace and at home.

<sup>473</sup> Bandiera, Oriana, Niklas Buehren, Robin Burgess, Markus Goldstein, Selim Gulesci, Imran Rasul, and Munshi Sulaiman. 2020. “Women’s Empowerment in Action: Evidence from a Randomized Control Trial in Africa.” *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 12 (1): 210-59.

- Implement confidential grievance and complaints procedures that women workers feel confident to use.
- Training managers and supervisors to raise awareness of the harmful effects of violence and harassment and how to prevent it.
- Working directly with male employees and management to shift attitudes and behaviours related to VAWG. Develop codes of conduct at the work place to ensure checks and balances.

## 6. Address inequitable intra-household dynamics and norms.

Recommended strategies include:

- Cooperatives and other socioeconomic interventions should consider household approaches which explicitly stimulate discussions, promote gender-equitable attitudes and norms and support families to negotiate about gender roles and norms which guide intra-household decision making and labour.
- Support livelihoods and economic empowerment initiatives coupled with gender-transformative interventions which increase women's access to and control over economic assets and access to financial services, promote their financial independence, reduce their vulnerability to economic and other forms of gender-based violence, and support women's ability to seek services.

- Build on existing efforts to improve understanding of what works to increase women's access to and control over land and other assets.

## 6.3 Research, monitoring and evaluation recommendations

### 1. Commission and undertake research to address research gaps including:

- Studies to understand the dynamics of economic violence such as asset and land dispossession in Uganda, as well as what works to prevent and respond to these forms of gender-based violence.
- Research to understand barriers faced by the most marginalised groups of women, including women with disabilities and widows.
- Studies to understand the effectiveness of current government interventions such as the Ugandan Women Entrepreneurship Programme under the NDP III targeting women including employment programmes, vocational training, initiatives promoting land tenure security for women, access to agricultural finance and support to female agro-businesses.
- Assessment and inclusion of the gender approach in agricultural research programmes.

2. **This research should include measures of key factors enabling or constraining women's economic empowerment** including gender-specific measures focused on women's capabilities and agency, household relations and gender norms and attitudes. This should also include tracking signs of potential backlash including increased rates of intimate partner violence.
3. **At a minimum, disaggregate results by sex** and include sex-disaggregated targets. Wherever possible, programmes and research should further disaggregate by other socioeconomic characteristics including head of household (female, male, income, age, race, disability, migratory status and geographic location).
4. **Commission mixed-method research and theory-based evaluations** on these issues (e.g. economic violence, marginalised women) to understand what works, how and why change happens, and the extent of change.
5. **Support participatory qualitative research to enable women to tell their own stories** in order to better understand women's lived realities and propose more context- cognisant, non-linear and tailored solutions.<sup>474</sup>
6. **Monitor, track and mitigate against any signs of potential backlash** during programme implementation, including increased rates of violence against women.

<sup>474</sup> Haruna, Z. (2021)

# Appendices

## Appendix 1 - Explanation of methodology

### Scoping study

A scoping study was implemented to guide research fundamentals

Euromonitor International undertook preliminary research to analyse the existing literature on women's economic empowerment in the 13 countries, identify research and data gaps to help develop research objectives/questions and guide the methodology design of the Pathways Study.

Multiple drivers and barriers to women’s economic empowerment exist, and the initial scoping research helped identify key commonalities as well as underlying differences across sectors and countries. In agriculture, the role of women within local governance and resource control/distribution structures is critical to success, and cooperatives/collectives have been effective at increasing women’s economic outcomes and agency. In non-agriculture sectors, employment segregation and unpaid care work, both usually driven by gender norms, are key barriers relegating women to certain roles and/or restraining women from certain sectors and/or to lower-paying positions/occupations within sectors.

Additionally, while national institutions are often tasked with addressing women’s economic empowerment broadly, local entities and sector-specific organisations are better placed to implement meaningful changes/localised solutions that expand women’s economic opportunities in a sustainable way.

### Sample findings from scoping study

| Shared barriers across SSA   |  | Country-level barriers  |
|--|--|---|
| Employment concentration in informal, low-wage and low-skilled sectors                           | Inadequate access to financial institutions and affordable credit facilities | <br>High fertility/adolescent fertility rates                      |
| Employment concentration in administrative positions, low representation in managerial positions | Under-investment in education beyond baseline and primary levels             | <br>Inadequate access to reproductive health/family planning needs |
| Broad wage gap in both formal and informal sectors   | Imbalanced household power dynamics/sociocultural barriers on gender roles   | <br>Low life expectancy/high maternal mortality rates              |
| Under-representation in key growth sectors   | Significant time spent on unpaid care work and domestic household chores     | <br>Inadequate access to safe transport                            |
| Education and employment discrimination that contributes to employment segregation               | Gender norms that limit women’s opportunities                                |   |

Employment
  Access to resources
  Social and cultural
  Health and safety

Note: Countries listed under the country-level reflect SSA countries that are struggling the most with the listed WEE barriers

## Sector selection

In executing the first key objective of the Pathways research programme (“Identifying sectors with the most potential to contribute to and benefit from expanding women’s opportunities”), Euromonitor International considered the level of these opportunities, both in terms of potential/scope (reaching majority of women across the country) and in terms of feasibility (ease to expand opportunities). Quantitative and qualitative methods were utilised to ensure a balanced perspective on the sector selection.

### Focusing on priority sectors, using economic modelling to tease out the data/quantitative story for women’s economic empowerment

The United Nations’ globally recognised International Standard Industrial Classification of Economic Activities (ISIC Rev. 4)<sup>475</sup> was utilised for the definition of sectors. In order to ensure full alignment with other data sources (including Euromonitor International’s proprietary Passport database from which other data was sourced), the ISIC’s 21 categories/sectors were consolidated into 14 overall sectors (please refer to Appendix 2 for full definitions). Euromonitor International’s Analytics team analysed historic and current data available at a country level on the main economic sectors. The team developed forecasts for

productivity, employment and women’s economic potential in each economic sector. This modelling used variables including Gross Value Added (GVA) at sector level, Gross Domestic Product (GDP), Employment Data, Capital Data, Demographics Data, sourced from Passport (Euromonitor International’s Passport database). The analysis also incorporated data from the International Labour Organization statistical database (ILOSTAT<sup>476</sup>): (i) Employment data by sex and economic activity, and (ii) Mean weekly hours worked per person by sex and economic activity. The African Development Bank Group (AfDB) database<sup>477</sup> provided additional input on: (i) GVA from Education, Human Health and Social Work Activities - for Angola, Botswana and South Africa; and (ii) Gross Capital Formation per public/private sector. These metrics were utilised in a model to predict the GVA share from GDP using fixed effect panel data regression. The metrics were also used in another model to assess the benefit of women’s inclusion per sector (using a Cobb-Douglas production function with labour disaggregated by gender<sup>478</sup>).

Euromonitor International then developed these findings into a visual scorecard that ranks sectors based on three scenarios: (i) sector performance; (ii) labour opportunity and productivity; and (iii) gender labour gap.

<sup>475</sup> See [https://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/seriesm/seriesm\\_4rev4e.pdf](https://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/seriesm/seriesm_4rev4e.pdf) <sup>476</sup> <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>

<sup>477</sup> <https://dataportal.opendataforafrica.org/> <sup>478</sup> The methodology was adjusted based on earlier work by Espinoza, Raphael and Ostry, Jonathan D. and Papageorgiou, Chris, *The Armistice of the Sexes: Gender Complementarities in the Production Function* (June 2019). CEPR Discussion Paper No. DP13792, Available at SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3428312>

## Scorecard scenarios for ranking economic sectors

| Scenario 1:   |  | Scenario 2:  |  | Scenario 3:   |  |
|---|--|--|--|---|--|
| Women's opportunities rest mainly on the sectors' performance: Women will benefit from huge increase of GVA in the most dominant sectors. |  | Women's opportunities rest mainly on labour performances: Women will benefit from huge increase of labour force and sector productivity. |  | Women's opportunities rest mainly on the current gender gap: Women can win in sectors where gender gap is high and sectors will highly benefit from female inclusion. |  |
| Rank  | Sectors  | Rank   | Sectors  | Rank  | Sectors  |
| 1   | Agriculture, Forestry And Fishing                                    | 1  | Agriculture, Forestry And Fishing                                    | 1   | Construction   |
| 2   | Construction   | 2  | Utilities  | 2   | Agriculture, Forestry And Fishing                                    |
| 3   | Wholesale And Retail Trade; Repair of Motor Vehicles And Motorcycles | 3  | Construction   | 3   | Transport Storage And Communication                                  |
| 4   | Manufacturing  | 4  | Wholesale And Retail Trade; Repair of Motor Vehicles And Motorcycles | 4   | Wholesale And Retail Trade; Repair of Motor Vehicles And Motorcycles |
| 5   | Education  | 5  | Financial And Insurance Activities                                   | 5   | Real Estate Business And Administrative Activities                   |
| 6   | Utilities  | 6  | Manufacturing  | 6   | Financial And Insurance Activities                                   |
| 7   | Financial And Insurance Activities                                   | 7  | Education  | 7   | Utilities  |
| 8   | Accommodation And Food Service Activities                            | 8  | Accommodation And Food Service Activities                            | 8   | Manufacturing  |
| 9   | Transport Storage And Communication                                  | 9  | Transport Storage And Communication                                  | 9   | Education  |
| 10  | Other Services   | 10   | Other Services   | 10  | Other Services   |
| 11  | Public Administration And Defence; Compulsory Social Security        | 11   | Public Administration And Defence; Compulsory Social Security        | 11  | Public Administration And Defence; Compulsory Social Security        |
| 12  | Real Estate Business And Administrative Activities                   | 12   | Real Estate Business And Administrative Activities                   | 12  | Accommodation And Food Service Activities                            |
| 13  | Human Health And Social Work Activities                              | 13   | Human Health And Social Work Activities                              | 13  | Human Health And Social Work Activities                              |
| 14  | Mining And Quarrying   | 14   | Mining And Quarrying   | 14  | Mining And Quarrying   |

The scorecard was shared with country working group participants through workshop sessions to ensure that sector selections reflected inputs from country-level stakeholders

In order to ensure a balanced approach to choosing the sectors of focus, Euromonitor International organised “sector selection” workshops per country to discuss the findings from the scoping study and scorecard.<sup>479</sup>

Leveraging Steering Committee and partner networks, participants/stakeholders from the private and public sectors of the country were invited to share their feedback on the scorecard sectors and to provide input on sectors/sub-sectors of focus. Country stakeholders' knowledge and experience were incorporated to ensure that the selection of the sectors was contextually cognisant, while considering the informal economy and the socioeconomic, political and cultural

<sup>479</sup> These “sector selection” workshops for the Ugandan Pathways Study occurred between December 2020 and February 2021

factors that are likely to drive women's opportunities. Noteworthy is that the sectors proposed by participants were mostly aligned with the scorecard findings.

Euromonitor International then conducted additional secondary research to validate the sectors proposed during the workshop in order to develop a matrix of criteria and considerations (see below) to support the final selection of two broad sectors: (i) Agriculture, covering three sub-sectors - Coffee, Maize, Fishing and Aquaculture; and (ii) Tourism and Hospitality.

## Stakeholder mapping

The research team identified key WEE stakeholders in relevant sectors mainly via desk research and supplemented with interviews. The research team then mapped these stakeholders per location (e.g. region/province/state) in the country

The research team (Euromonitor International and country research partners) used desk research and targeted outreach and interviews to identify and map key stakeholders playing a key role in women's economic empowerment within each sector.

## Selection Criteria Deep Dive: Uganda

| Broad Economic Sector   | Specific Sectors/ Commodities (if applicable) | Criteria fulfilled (checklist) |   |   |   |   |   | Criteria fulfilled (explanation)   | Considerations met & Explanation   | Potential Challenges (conducting research in sector + sector-specific)   |
|-------------------------|---|--------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|--|--|--|
|                         |   | 1                              | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |  |  |
| Agriculture             | Coffee  | ✓                              | ✓ |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Rural + Urban Interplay. Medium term opportunity.  | Export opportunity. Specific to higher-ground regions                        | Lack of organised marketing. Poor access to processing equipment (to add value to product). Poor extension support and lack of capital.  |
|                         | Maize   | ✓                              | ✓ |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Rural focus. Immediate opportunity. Export crop.   | Staple commodity.  | Commercial vs subsistent tension in product availability/ trade.   |
|                         | Fishing and Aquaculture                       | ✓                              | ✓ |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Rural + Urban Interplay. Immediate opportunity. Key export commodity and focus of national development plan (NDP). | Rural + Urban interplay. Applies to women across ages.                       | Endangered species. Overfishing and declining fish stock. Over-reliance on capture fishing. Low investment in aquaculture. Pollution. Poor regulation. Low secondary processing (e.g., fish meal, fish oils) – results in wastage. |
| Tourism and Hospitality | Nature Tourism                                | ✓                              | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Survey results on women's preferences exists and confirms interest in sub-sector.                                  | Rural focus. Applies to women across ages and various education levels.      | Poor (supporting) service delivery e.g., lodging. Bad roads and other infrastructure. Limited marketing. Stiff competition from other East African countries.  |
|                         | Accommodation                                 | ✓                              | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Clear alignment with scorecard and working group recommendations.  | Applies to urban regions and women across ages and various education levels. |  |
|                         | Foodservice                                   | ✓                              | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Tourism and service sector part of national development plan (NDP).  |  |  |

### Criteria

1. Incorporating informal economy

2. Ability to effect change

3. Women's preferences & agency

4. Alignment with govt strategy/national devpt plan

5. Timescale of intended impact + sector potential

6. Scorecard priority

| Interviewee Type   | Agriculture | Tourism and Hospitality | General  |
|--|-------------|-------------------------|----------|
| Community-Based Organisations and Non-Governmental Organisations (National and Global) | 6           | -                       | 1        |
| Cooperatives/Collectives (including Producer Associations)                             | 4           | -                       | -        |
| Government Bodies  | 3           | -                       | -        |
| Industry Associations (including Employer/Employee Associations)                       | 9           | 9                       | 2        |
| Private Companies/ Organisations   | -           | 1                       | -        |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>22</b>   | <b>10</b>               | <b>3</b> |

The objective of this mapping was twofold: (i) to identify key stakeholders - public and private per sector in each country, their operations within the supply/value chain, key projects/initiatives, any key provisions for women (e.g. membership, leadership, gender-focused programmes, etc.) and their impact on women's economic empowerment; and (ii) to identify potential stakeholders to be interviewed for the Pathways Study.

This mapping produced 230+ stakeholders in Uganda across the two focus sectors: (i) Agriculture (Coffee, Maize, Fishing and Aquaculture); and (ii) Tourism and Hospitality. These stakeholders included: (i) sectoral structures (associations, cooperatives and collectives, organisations and representative bodies); (ii) government ministries, departments and agencies; (iii) private companies; and (iv) non-governmental organisations - NGOs (international and country).

Please refer to the [Pathways website](#) for the full mapping of stakeholders.<sup>480</sup>

## Interviews

The research team conducted interviews with key stakeholders to dive into women's roles per sector, including the drivers and challenges faced and future opportunities

The research team for Uganda conducted a total of 35 in-depth interviews with stakeholders including cooperatives/collectives, industry associations, NGOs/INGOs and civil society organisations, private companies and public entities. The objective was to discuss women's participation in the sub-sectors in Uganda, the key drivers/barriers to expanding women's opportunities, and the actionable steps to getting there. The questions were structured into three broad themes/objectives (examples of broad topics discussed per theme above):

<sup>480</sup> Stakeholder listing is based on secondary research and interviews, so all stakeholders (especially those with highly localised and/or offline operations) may not have been captured in the listing. All maps and tables present best-available information and can be updated as new information is received

### 1. Sector/Sub-sector overview and trends

- What are the sector's drivers and constraints - generally and for women specifically?
- How does the sector provide opportunities for achieving sustainable employment and/or sustainable livelihoods?

### 2. Current status of women in sector/sub-sector

- What types of positions/jobs do women hold (formal and informal)? Why?
- What are the drivers of and barriers to women's (increased) economic participation in the sector/sub-sector (employment, entrepreneurship, career advancement, etc.)?

### 3. Future opportunities for women in the sector/sub-sector and actionable solutions

- What type of roles/positions/jobs/opportunities (including self-employment) can women target? How? What is needed to support them?
- What are the current solutions being implemented?
- Are there any other solutions not yet being implemented that may improve women's economic participation in the sector?
- Who are specific key stakeholders crucial to implementing identified solutions?

## Analysis and reporting

Findings from primary and secondary sources were analysed and developed into a report (including actionable recommendations) that was reviewed by multiple stakeholders/partners

The research team then analysed data and insights collected from secondary and primary research to produce key findings and proposals to improve women's economic opportunities. Key drivers and barriers plus preliminary recommendations were then developed for discussion/elaboration with country working group participants in a "developing recommendations" workshop facilitated by Euromonitor International.<sup>481</sup> This was in order to integrate their expertise and knowledge of the country's context into the analysis, to ensure the final recommendations are tailored, relevant and feasible for women in the country.

Feedback from country working group participants was then incorporated ahead of sharing the draft reports with key stakeholders (sector experts, thematic experts, Steering Committee) for validation, and working with Kore Global for finalisation.

<sup>481</sup> These "developing recommendations" workshops for the Pathways Study occurred between March 2021 and June 2021

## Appendix 2 - Sector classification<sup>482</sup>

### Overall sectors based on International Standard Industrial Classification of Economic Activities (ISIC Rev. 4)

| # | Sector Name                               | Description  |
|---|---|--|
| 1 | Accommodation and Food Service Activities | This category corresponds to Section I of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and comprises units providing customers with short-term lodging and/or preparing meals, snacks, and beverages for immediate consumption. The section includes both accommodation and food service activities because the two activities are often combined at the same unit.   |
| 2 | Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing         | This category corresponds to Section A of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and covers the exploitation of vegetal, animal and fish natural resources. The section comprises the activities of growing crops, raising animals, harvesting timber and harvesting other plants and animals from a farm or their natural habitats. Fishing is defined as the use of fishery resources from marine or freshwater environments, with the goal of capturing or gathering fish, crustaceans, molluscs and other marine products (e.g. pearls, sponges, etc.). |
| 3 | Construction                              | This category corresponds to Section F of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and includes general construction and special trade construction for buildings and civil engineering, building installation and building completion. It includes new work, repair, additions and alterations, the erection of prefabricated buildings or structures on the site and also construction of a temporary nature.   |
| 4 | Education                                 | This category corresponds to Section P of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and includes public as well as private education at any level or for any profession, oral or written as well as by radio and television or other means of communication. It includes education by the different institutions in the regular school system at its different levels as well as adult education, literacy programmes, etc. Also included are military schools and academies, prison schools, etc., at their respective levels.                                |

<sup>482</sup> This is a definitions summary of all 14 sectors analysed in developing the scorecard for the 13 countries. However, the broad sectors of focus per country are limited to two to three, with a deep dive analysis of sub-sectors and/or agricultural commodities

## Overall sectors based on International Standard Industrial Classification of Economic Activities (ISIC Rev. 4)

| # | Sector Name                             | Description  |
|---|---|--|
| 5 | Financial and Insurance Activities      | This category corresponds to Section K of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and comprises units primarily engaged in financial transactions, i.e. transactions involving the creation, liquidation or change of ownership of financial assets. Also included are insurance and pension funding and activities facilitating financial transactions. Units charged with monetary control, the monetary authorities, are included here.   |
| 6 | Human Health and Social Work Activities | This category corresponds to Section Q of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and includes the provision of health care by diagnosis and treatment and the provision of residential care for medical and social reasons, as well as the provision of social assistance, such as counselling, welfare, child protection, community housing and food services, vocational rehabilitation and childcare to those requiring such assistance. Also included is the provision of veterinary services.  |
| 7 | Manufacturing                           | This category corresponds to Section C of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and includes: manufacture of food, beverages and tobacco; textile, wearing apparel and leather industries; manufacture of wood and wood products; manufacture of paper and paper products, printing and publishing; manufacture of chemicals and chemical petroleum, coal, rubber and plastic products; manufacture of non-metallic mineral products, except products of petroleum and coal; basic metal industries; manufacture of fabricated metal products; other manufacturing industries. |
| 8 | Mining and Quarrying                    | This category corresponds to Section B of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and includes the extraction of minerals occurring naturally as solids (coal and ores), liquids (petroleum) or gases (natural gas). Extraction can be achieved by underground or surface mining or well operation.  |

## Overall sectors based on International Standard Industrial Classification of Economic Activities (ISIC Rev. 4)

| #  | Sector Name   | Description   |
|----|---|---|
| 9  | Other Services  | This category corresponds to Sections R, S, T and U of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and includes services provided by businesses and government units to individuals, other businesses or the community as a whole, activities within households, where the same household is the consumer of the products produced.   |
| 10 | Public Administration and Defence; Compulsory Social Security | This category corresponds to Section O of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and includes activities normally carried out by the public administration. However, the legal or institutional status is not, in itself, the determining factor. This division includes units that are part of local or central public bodies that enable the administration of the community to function properly. The section includes general administration (e.g. executive, legislative, financial administration, etc., at all levels of government) and supervision in the field of social and economic life; defence, justice, police, foreign affairs, etc.; management of compulsory social security schemes. |
| 11 | Real Estate Business and Administrative Activities            | This category corresponds to Sections M, N and L of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and includes activities that focus mainly on the business sector with the obvious exception of real estate activities.  |
| 12 | Transport Storage and Communication                           | This category corresponds to Sections H and J of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and includes activities related to providing passenger or freight transport, whether scheduled or not, by rail, pipeline, road, water or air; supporting activities such as terminal and parking facilities, cargo handling, storage, etc.; postal activities and telecommunication; renting of transport equipment with driver or operator.   |

### Overall sectors based on International Standard Industrial Classification of Economic Activities (ISIC Rev. 4)

| #  | Sector Name   | Description   |
|----|---|---|
| 13 | Utilities   | This category corresponds to Sections D and E of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and covers the activity of providing electric power, natural gas, steam supply, and water supply through a permanent infrastructure (network) of lines, mains and pipes.   |
| 14 | Wholesale and Retail Trade;<br>Repair of Motor Vehicles and Motorcycles | This category corresponds to Section G of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC Rev. 4), and includes wholesale and retail sale (sale without transformation) of any type of goods and rendering services incidental to the sale of merchandise. Wholesaling and retailing are the final steps in the distribution of merchandise. Also included in this section are the repair of motor vehicles and the installation and repair of personal and household goods. |

## Appendix 3 - Cross-sectoral summary of barriers and opportunities and entry points

| Structural Barriers   | Coffee | Maize | Fishing and Aquaculture | Tourism and Hospitality |
|---|--------|-------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Customary law not favouring women's access to land <sup>483</sup>   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| COVID-19 pandemic impacted livelihoods  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Gaps between national level policies and local level implementation and budgeting                               | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Lack of physical infrastructure such cold chain storage, warehousing facilities; dilapidated road/rail networks | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| Inadequate quality of education in tourism and hospitality management   |        |       |                         | ✓                       |
| Low development of tourism-related value chains   |        |       |                         | ✓                       |

| Structural Opportunities and Entry Points  | Coffee | Maize | Fishing and Aquaculture | Tourism and Hospitality |
|--|--------|-------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| National Coffee Policy promotes gender and youth mainstreaming, and includes specific strategies such as a special fund              | ✓      |       |                         |                         |
| Gender-responsive commitments in the Agriculture Sector Strategic Plan 2015/16-2019/20.  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| Parish Development Model (PDM) could increase potential for women's inclusion at grassroots level                                    | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Policies mandating quotas for women in leadership positions  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| Gender-responsive budgeting and community monitoring   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Organisational and institutional strengthening of collectives and associations in the fishing sector to improve gender mainstreaming |        |       | ✓                       |                         |
| The Employment (Amendment) Bill stipulating measures to prevent sexual harassment in the workplace                                   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Uganda Hotel Owners Association delivering capacity building on gender-sensitive HIV/AIDS response in the tourism sector             |        |       |                         | ✓                       |
| Mechanisms to promote women's participation in decision making and increased access to tourism-related economic opportunities        |        |       |                         | ✓                       |
| Prioritisation of human and gender rights advocacy   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |

<sup>483</sup> World Bank (2021d). Customary land tenure agreements dominate land ownership in Uganda (~80%), as only 15-20% of national land is registered with formal land rights. Customary law is not mandated to allow women to own, co-own or manage land, so norms determine access to and control of the majority of Ugandan land

| Normative Barriers  | Coffee | Maize | Fishing and Aquaculture | Tourism and Hospitality |
|---|--------|-------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Gender norms which dictate male ownership of cash crops influence how roles are distributed across the value chain  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| Intra-household power dynamics and decision making disadvantage women   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Gender-based violence including economic violence and land dispossession  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Finance is seen as men's domain   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Norms around unpaid care and unpaid work influence women's ability to fully benefit from their labour or opportunities within the value chains                                    | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Maize is both a food and a cash crop. It is seen as a women's crop, until it becomes marketable   |        | ✓     |                         |                         |
| Household norms may confine women to only growing maize as a food crop  |        | ✓     |                         |                         |
| Few vertical social networks  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| Labour is often seen as part of women's unpaid duties   |        | ✓     |                         |                         |
| Mobility norms exclude women from higher prices and better sales opportunities outside of the farm gate (norms on riding bicycles and motorcycles)                                | ✓      | ✓     |                         |                         |
| Lower access to markets means reduced interaction with other value chain actors and reduced opportunities for value addition  | ✓      | ✓     |                         |                         |
| Women have lower negotiating power at sales point with middlemen  | ✓      | ✓     |                         |                         |
| In capture fishing, fishing on the lakes is seen as a male profession, as superstitions contribute to keeping women away from this role; women who transgress norms face backlash |        |       | ✓                       |                         |
| In aquaculture, roles are closely linked to household gender norms  |        |       | ✓                       |                         |
| Seen as men's activity as it requires land ownership  |        |       | ✓                       |                         |
| Women's effective participation in fishing co-management committees influenced by norms   |        |       | ✓                       |                         |
| Gender norms dictate that men dominate in higher-income and decision-making roles   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Gender stereotypes of young women's roles in the service industry   |        |       |                         | ✓                       |
| Sexual exploitation, abuse and harassment   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Intimate partner violence including economic violence   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Gender pay gap  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |

| <b>Normative Opportunities and Entry Points</b>  | <b>Coffee</b> | <b>Maize</b> | <b>Fishing and Aquaculture</b> | <b>Tourism and Hospitality</b> |
|--|---------------|--------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Promoting participatory intra-household decision making  | ✓             | ✓            | ✓                              | ✓                              |
| Strengthening local level response to gender-based violence including economic violence                                    | ✓             | ✓            | ✓                              | ✓                              |
| Coffee value chain can be an entry point to challenge discriminatory norms   | ✓             |              |                                |                                |
| Innovations addressing women's unpaid care burden; Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)                                   | ✓             | ✓            | ✓                              | ✓                              |
| Strengthening horizontal and vertical networks through cooperatives  | ✓             | ✓            | ✓                              | ✓                              |
| Improved infrastructure to ensure affordable, safe and accessible transport for women to transport their produce to market | ✓             | ✓            | ✓                              |                                |
| Improving women's power and role in intra-household decision making  | ✓             | ✓            | ✓                              |                                |
| Challenging restrictive social and gender norms and myths which limit women's participation                                | ✓             | ✓            | ✓                              | ✓                              |
| Challenge gender inequitable norms and stereotypes of women in all sectors   | ✓             | ✓            | ✓                              | ✓                              |

| Individual Barriers  | Coffee | Maize | Fishing and Aquaculture | Tourism and Hospitality |
|--|--------|-------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Women's low educational attainment and limited access to social and economic resources and support/networks  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Lower access to extension services or training   | ✓      | ✓     |                         |                         |
| Women have limited access to and control over land   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| Lower internet access and mobile phone ownership (vs men) limiting access to information   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| There are barriers in accessing, participating and leading cooperatives  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Women are less likely to access financial services or to have savings  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Lower access to improved agricultural and climate change-resilient practices linked to lower access to finance and technology or productive assets | ✓      | ✓     |                         |                         |
| Limited access to post-harvest handling technologies, hence inefficient storage practices  | ✓      | ✓     |                         |                         |
| Marital status determines roles in sector, with married women facing more restrictions   |        |       | ✓                       |                         |
| Female-headed households experience socioeconomic challenges due to husband's migratory roles  |        |       | ✓                       |                         |
| Lower access to associations in aquaculture and groups' benefits such as information sharing and market access                                     |        |       | ✓                       |                         |
| Low levels of education, knowledge and skills (including English language)   |        |       |                         | ✓                       |
| HIV/AIDS prevalence  |        |       | ✓                       | ✓                       |

| Individual Opportunities and Entry Points   | Coffee | Maize | Fishing and Aquaculture | Tourism and Hospitality |
|---|--------|-------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Access to entrepreneurial skills, information and networks is key enabler   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Leveraging cooperatives to improve women's skills and access to , social and economic capital   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Improving women's digital inclusion   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Increase women's access to training, extension services and agricultural resources  | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| Provide women with skills, information and knowledge on grading and standards of their produce/products, to improve confidence and negotiation skills | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| Improve access to finance, technology and productive assets   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Facilitate access to improved practices on storage and post-harvest handling technologies   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| Marketable skills are enablers to successful enterprises in supporting trades   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Development of extension services, with a gender-based approach   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       |                         |
| Access to capital is a key enabler, but women have lower access to credit. Design product-enabling affordable access to finance                       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Innovative commercial-orientated women's cooperative models for improved quality of products and increased member capital                             | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |
| Strengthen community-based, women-led initiatives   | ✓      | ✓     | ✓                       | ✓                       |

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## Limitations of Research

The Pathways Study is subject to the following research limitations, related to both the scope and timing of the study. The most important of these are captured below, but this list may not be exhaustive.

NOTE: Research design for the Pathways Study was completed in mid-2020, ground-level econometric data forecasting was completed in late 2020, fieldwork was carried out over January to June 2021 and the reports were prepared from then into 2022.

### Evolving Topics/Input – General Factors and External Events

- Country policies are live guidelines which are periodically updated. The Pathways Study focuses on policy provisions and/or omissions for women's economic empowerment (WEE); its core focus has not been on analysing policies (e.g., the learnings, adjustments, and impact over time). Rather, the gendered linkages are the key focus of the Pathways Study.
- A qualitative inquiry about the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on women's economic empowerment across sectors was incorporated into fieldwork and reports. However, given the research timing, at the beginning of and during the pandemic, new insights on its impact continue to emerge and could not be fully captured.
- The Pathways study recognises the importance of climate change, with broad impact that varies by sector, commodity, and gender, amongst other factors. While this did not form the focus of this study, the research explores its broad effects on the economy and (women in) agriculture and proposes relevant recommendations (e.g., climate-smart interventions) while also recognising recent country measures to integrate gender into the climate change agenda.
- Similarly, the ongoing conflict between Russia and Ukraine has impacted various sectors globally including in Sub-Saharan Africa. There is no doubt that the geopolitical challenges and supply chain disruptions have an impact on women's economic opportunities. However, this is not captured in the report as the Russia-Ukraine war started after data collection was completed.
- Gender-based violence (GBV) harms many women and girls across Sub-Saharan Africa and beyond. The Pathways Study reports cover GBV under Normative barriers (sub-section 4.2.3) and highlight its different forms. Beyond analytical findings, some specific recommendations (across policy/advocacy, programming and research) are made to tackle GBV on a sectoral basis, which was the research focus. However, tackling GBV in girls and students requires specific inquiry and responses which go beyond the scope of this study.

### Other Topics

Most recommendations are made without reference to specific stakeholders (e.g., faith-based groups, interest-based groups). The operations and belief systems of this rich variety of potential stakeholders also varies across the 13 countries covered. The Pathways Study sought to make recommendations relevant to all stakeholders involved in policy development and programming, regardless of their specific areas of application.

