

The Gatt Uruguay Round A Negotiating History 1986-1992 Subsidies And Countervailing Measures

The GATT Uruguay Round: A Negotiating History 1986-1992 Subsidies and Countervailing Measures **the gatt uruguay round a negotiating history 1986-1992 subsidies and countervailing measures** marks a pivotal era in international trade negotiations that reshaped global commerce and laid the groundwork for the World Trade Organization (WTO). Spanning from 1986 to 1992, this round was the most ambitious and comprehensive round of trade talks under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). Among the many complex issues tackled, subsidies and countervailing measures stood out as critical areas of discussion due to their impact on fair competition and trade distortions worldwide. Understanding the nuances of this negotiating history not only sheds light on the evolution of international trade law but also helps appreciate the delicate balance countries sought between protecting their domestic industries and promoting free trade.

The Context of the Uruguay Round Negotiations

Before diving into the specifics of subsidies and countervailing measures, it's essential to grasp the broader context in which the Uruguay Round unfolded. By the mid-1980s, the global trade landscape had become increasingly intricate, with new challenges emerging from the rise of non-tariff barriers, trade in services, intellectual property rights, and agricultural subsidies. The previous rounds of GATT negotiations primarily focused on reducing tariffs, but the Uruguay Round aimed to address these deeper, more complex issues. This round was initiated in Punta del Este, Uruguay, in September 1986, involving 123 countries. It was unique not just for its scale but also for its ambition to extend GATT rules into new areas like services (GATS) and intellectual property (TRIPS), alongside traditional merchandise trade. The issue of subsidies and countervailing measures became a hot topic as many countries, especially developed ones, employed subsidies to support domestic industries, which often led to trade distortions and disputes.

Understanding Subsidies and Their Role in International Trade

What Are Subsidies?

In the realm of international trade, subsidies refer to financial assistance provided by governments to their domestic producers or industries. These can take various forms, such as direct cash payments, tax breaks, low-interest loans, or government provision of goods and services at below-market rates. Subsidies aim to improve the competitiveness of domestic products, encourage exports, or support struggling sectors. While subsidies can be beneficial for a country's economic development, they often distort international trade by giving unfair advantages to subsidized producers. This can lead to overproduction, dumping of goods at artificially low prices, and harm to producers in other countries who cannot compete on an uneven playing field.

The Challenge of Countervailing Measures

Countervailing measures are trade remedies that importing countries impose to neutralize the negative effects of subsidized imports. Essentially, if a country believes its domestic industry is being harmed by subsidized imports, it can impose additional duties (countervailing duties) to offset the subsidy's advantage. Before the Uruguay Round, the rules

governing subsidies and countervailing measures were fragmented and often inadequate. Disputes over subsidies were common, but the existing GATT provisions lacked clarity, making enforcement inconsistent and contentious. This situation underscored the need for a more structured and enforceable framework.

The Uruguay Round Negotiations on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures

Initial Positions and Major Players

During the Uruguay Round, the negotiations on subsidies and countervailing measures brought together diverse interests. Developed countries, particularly the United States and the European Community (now the European Union), pushed for stricter disciplines on subsidies, especially export subsidies that distorted global markets. They argued that many subsidies were protectionist tools that harmed their industries. On the other hand, some developing countries were wary of overly stringent rules that could restrict their ability to support nascent industries or pursue development strategies involving subsidies. The negotiations had to balance these competing concerns, ensuring fair competition without stifling legitimate economic policies.

Key Negotiating Issues

Some of the critical issues addressed in the subsidies and countervailing measures negotiations included:

1. **Definition of Subsidies:** Agreeing on what constitutes a subsidy was essential to avoid loopholes. The negotiations expanded the definition to cover a broad range of government financial contributions.
2. **Prohibited Subsidies:** Export subsidies and import substitution subsidies were targeted as especially trade-distorting and were proposed to be banned or disciplined rigorously.
3. **Actionable Subsidies:** Subsidies that cause adverse effects to other countries' interests were subject to challenge and possible countervailing duties.
4. **Countervailing Procedures:** The rules for investigating and imposing countervailing duties were clarified to ensure transparency, fairness, and timeliness.
5. **Special and Differential Treatment:** Recognizing the needs of developing countries, the negotiations included provisions allowing some flexibility in applying subsidy disciplines for them.

Outcomes and Significance of the Uruguay Round Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures

The negotiations culminated in the Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures (SCM Agreement), which became one of the cornerstone agreements of the Uruguay Round package concluded in 1994. This agreement has had a lasting impact on international trade by establishing clear, enforceable rules regarding subsidies and trade remedies.

Key Features of the SCM Agreement

1. **Clear Definitions:** The SCM Agreement provided a comprehensive definition of subsidies, including financial contributions by governments and specificity to certain industries or enterprises.
2. **Prohibition of Export Subsidies:** Export subsidies for goods were prohibited, eliminating a major source of trade distortion.
3. **Actionable Subsidies and Dispute Settlement:** Subsidies that cause injury to other members or nullify benefits under GATT could be challenged through the WTO dispute settlement mechanism.

4. **Regulated Countervailing Measures:** The agreement established strict guidelines for investigations and the imposition of countervailing duties, promoting transparency and fairness.
5. **Special Treatment for Developing Countries:** Developing nations received longer transition periods and some exemptions to help balance development goals with trade rules.

Why It Matters Today

The SCM Agreement remains a vital part of the WTO framework, helping maintain a level playing field in global trade. It prevents governments from engaging in harmful subsidy practices while providing a legal avenue for countries to protect their domestic industries against unfairly subsidized imports. This balance fosters predictability and stability in international markets, which benefits exporters, importers, and consumers alike. Furthermore, the Uruguay Round's success in negotiating these complex issues illustrated the power of multilateral cooperation in addressing global economic challenges. The disciplines on subsidies and countervailing measures have influenced subsequent trade negotiations and continue to shape debates on trade policy and economic development.

Lessons from the Uruguay Round's Subsidies and Countervailing Measures Negotiations

Reflecting on the GATT Uruguay Round negotiating history 1986-1992 subsidies and countervailing measures offers valuable insights for anyone interested in trade diplomacy or economic policy:

1. **Negotiation Requires Balance:** The talks showed the importance of balancing the interests of developed and developing countries, ensuring that trade rules support both fair competition and economic growth.
2. **Clarity and Enforcement Matter:** Vague rules create uncertainty and disputes. Clear definitions and enforceable agreements help build trust and compliance.
3. **Multilateralism Is Key:** Addressing complex trade issues is more effective through collective negotiation rather than unilateral actions, which can provoke retaliation and trade wars.
4. **Flexibility for Development:** Recognizing the different capacities and needs of countries is crucial to creating equitable trade rules.

For policymakers, businesses, and scholars, the Uruguay Round's approach to subsidies and countervailing measures remains a foundational case study in crafting trade agreements that are both ambitious and pragmatic. The GATT Uruguay Round negotiating history 1986-1992 subsidies and countervailing measures not only transformed international trade law but also demonstrated the intricate dance of diplomacy, economics, and law in shaping global markets. Its legacy continues to influence how countries negotiate trade rules, manage disputes, and strive for a fair and open trading system in an ever-evolving global economy.

The GATT Uruguay Round: A Comprehensive Analysis of Negotiating History, Subsidies, and Countervailing Measures (1986–1992)

The GATT Uruguay Round, formally known as the Uruguay Round of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), stands as one of the most transformative trade negotiations in modern economic history. Spanning from 1986 to 1992, this landmark multilateral effort fundamentally reshaped global trade governance, particularly in agriculture and industrial subsidies, introducing complex mechanisms to regulate subsidies and countervailing measures. This article delivers an ultra-deep, search-intent dominant exposition of the GATT Uruguay Round, dissecting its historical evolution, core

negotiation dynamics, intricate subsidy disciplines, countervailing instrumentation, real-world impacts, strategic frameworks, persistent myths, and forward-looking implications. Designed to dominate authoritative search rankings, it integrates semantic precision, technical depth, and authoritative analysis.

Historical Foundations: The Genesis of the Gatt Uruguay Round (1986–1992)

The Uruguay Round emerged from a protracted impasse within GATT, which had struggled to manage rising trade

The GATT Uruguay Round: A Negotiating History 1986-1992 Subsidies and Countervailing Measures **the gatt uruguay round a negotiating history 19861992 subsidies and countervailing measures** represents a pivotal chapter in the evolution of global trade regulation. This extensive negotiation phase under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) not only redefined international trade rules but also addressed complex issues surrounding subsidies and countervailing measures—a topic that had long challenged fair trade practices. Spanning from 1986 to 1992, the Uruguay Round was marked by intense diplomatic bargaining, economic interests, and a growing recognition of the need for a robust, rules-based trading system.

Background and Context of the Uruguay Round

The Uruguay Round emerged during a period when the global trade landscape was rapidly evolving. The earlier GATT rounds, focused mainly on tariff reductions, had not sufficiently tackled non-tariff barriers, trade-distorting subsidies, or the mechanisms to counter unfair trade practices. By the mid-1980s, with growing protectionism and disputes over subsidies, the international community acknowledged that a comprehensive overhaul was necessary. Negotiations commenced in Punta del Este, Uruguay, in September 1986, involving 123 countries. The round aimed to foster greater transparency, discipline, and enforcement in international trade, particularly concerning subsidies and countervailing measures. These issues were critical because subsidies—financial aid provided by governments to local industries—often distorted competition and harmed foreign producers. Countervailing measures, including tariffs imposed to offset subsidies, were key tools for affected countries but lacked consistent regulation under previous GATT agreements.

Key Issues on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures

Understanding Subsidies in the Uruguay Round Context

Subsidies can take various forms: direct financial transfers, tax incentives, low-interest loans, or government provision of goods and services below market rates. While intended to support domestic industries, subsidies can create unfair advantages, leading to trade disputes. Before the Uruguay Round, GATT provisions on subsidies were limited and ambiguous, resulting in inconsistent application and enforcement. The negotiating history reveals that members aimed to clarify what constituted a prohibited subsidy—especially those contingent on export performance or the use of domestic over imported goods—and what subsidies were permissible. The goal was to balance the sovereign right to support domestic industries with the need to prevent market distortions harmful to global trade.

Countervailing Measures: A Tool for Protection or a Barrier?

Countervailing measures (CVMs) are tariffs or duties imposed to neutralize the negative effects of subsidized imports. Prior to the Uruguay Round, GATT lacked detailed rules governing these measures, leading to disputes over their application. Many countries faced challenges in proving the existence and impact of subsidies, and the methodologies for calculating duties varied widely. During negotiations, members sought to establish clearer rules defining when and how

CVMs could be applied, including procedures for investigations, evidentiary standards, and dispute settlement mechanisms. This was crucial to prevent arbitrary or protectionist use of countervailing duties while protecting domestic industries from unfair competition.

The Negotiating Process: Challenges and Breakthroughs

Negotiations over subsidies and countervailing measures proved among the most contentious aspects of the Uruguay Round. Developed countries, often exporters of subsidized agricultural and industrial products, resisted overly stringent disciplines. Conversely, developing countries pushed for stronger rules to safeguard their markets and promote fair competition. Several rounds of bilateral and multilateral talks focused on defining categories of subsidies, procedural norms for CVM investigations, and remedies for violation. The complexity was compounded by overlapping interests—agriculture, manufacturing, and services sectors each had distinct concerns regarding subsidies. A breakthrough came with the establishment of the Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures (SCM Agreement), which codified detailed rules and enforcement mechanisms. The SCM Agreement, adopted as part of the Uruguay Round package, was a milestone, providing a legal framework that balanced discipline and flexibility.

Features of the SCM Agreement

1. **Classification of Subsidies:** The agreement distinguishes between prohibited subsidies (e.g., export subsidies), actionable subsidies (subject to challenge if they cause adverse effects), and non-actionable subsidies (initially allowed but later phased out).
2. **Investigation Procedures:** Established clear guidelines for domestic authorities to investigate alleged subsidization and injury to local industries.
3. **Countervailing Measures:** Defined rules for imposing CVMs, including calculations of subsidy margins and limits on duration.
4. **Dispute Settlement:** Integrated with the broader WTO dispute settlement system, providing a more effective mechanism for resolving conflicts.

Implications and Impact on Global Trade

The Uruguay Round's treatment of subsidies and countervailing measures significantly shaped the modern World Trade Organization (WTO) framework. By clarifying definitions and procedures, the SCM Agreement reduced ambiguities that had previously led to trade tensions. It enhanced predictability and transparency, benefiting exporters and importers alike. However, the agreement also attracted criticism. Some developing countries argued that the new disciplines limited their policy space to support infant industries or strategic sectors. Others contended that the investigative procedures favored countries with greater administrative capacity. Balancing these concerns remains an ongoing challenge in WTO negotiations. From an economic perspective, the Uruguay Round disciplines on subsidies contributed to reducing trade distortions and fostering more competitive markets. Countries became more cautious in granting subsidies that could provoke countervailing actions, leading to a more level playing field. The enhanced dispute settlement mechanisms also encouraged compliance and deterred unilateral retaliations.

Comparison with Previous GATT Provisions

Before the Uruguay Round, GATT's Article VI addressed subsidies and countervailing duties but lacked comprehensive definitions and procedural clarity. The SCM Agreement represents a significant evolution by:

1. Providing a detailed classification system for subsidies, reducing interpretative disputes.
2. Instituting formal investigation timelines and evidentiary requirements.

3. Linking countervailing measures to clearly demonstrated injury caused by subsidized imports.
4. Integrating enforcement with the WTO's Dispute Settlement Understanding (DSU), improving compliance.

This framework marked a departure from the more ad hoc, case-by-case approach of earlier decades.

Legacy and Continuing Relevance

Nearly three decades after the conclusion of the Uruguay Round, its negotiating history on subsidies and countervailing measures remains highly relevant. The SCM Agreement continues to be a cornerstone of international trade law, frequently invoked in WTO disputes. Its rules influence national trade policies, shaping how governments support industries in a globalized economy. Moreover, ongoing debates around subsidies—especially in emerging sectors like renewable energy, digital technology, and state-owned enterprises—trace their roots back to the principles negotiated during the Uruguay Round. Countries grapple with balancing economic development goals and adherence to international trade disciplines, echoing the tensions of the 1986-1992 negotiations. In this light, understanding the GATT Uruguay Round a negotiating history 1986-1992 subsidies and countervailing measures offers valuable insights into the complexities of regulating state interventions in trade. It highlights the delicate interplay between national interests and multilateral cooperation that defines the global trading system today.

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What develops is not just familiarity with content, but confidence in learning itself. The reader knows that understanding can grow gradually, shaped by patience and repeated engagement.

And in that steady rhythm—open, pause, return—knowledge finds its place naturally.

The Gatt Uruguay Round: A Crucible of Agricultural Subsidies and Global Trade Tensions (1986–1992) In the annals of international trade, few negotiations have been as consequential for the global agricultural order as the Gatt Uruguay Round, particularly the contentious 1986–1992 Uruguay Round sessions centered on the Agreement on Agriculture (AoA). More than a technical trade pact, this round crystallized decades of geopolitical friction, economic asymmetry, and industrial lobbying that reshaped farm subsidies, countervailing measures, and the very architecture of global food markets. To understand the Gatt Uruguay Round is to trace the deep roots of today's trade wars, domestic farm policy crises, and the enduring tension between market liberalization and protectionism. The origins of the Uruguay Round lie not in 1986, but in the late 1970s and early 1980s, when agricultural trade became a flashpoint in broader GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade) negotiations. During the 1970s, food price volatility—driven by the 1973 oil crisis, grain speculation, and erratic production cycles—exposed the fragility of global food systems. Exporting nations, notably the United States and members of the European Community (EC), wielded export subsidies and domestic support mechanisms so aggressive that they distorted global prices, undercutting producers in developing economies. The U.S. farm belt, bolstered by federal price supports and direct payments, became a de facto export behemoth, while

the EC's Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) entrenched a system of guaranteed prices and intervention buying that locked in overproduction. Meanwhile, Latin American exporters—Brazil, Argentina, and Uruguay—struggled under the weight of low prices and retaliatory measures, their small-scale producers squeezed by subsidized competition. By 1986, with GATT's Tokyo Round (1973–1979) having yielded inconclusive results on agriculture, the impetus for a dedicated agricultural negotiation emerged. The Uruguay Round, launched in Punta del Este, Uruguay, in June 1986, aimed to bring agriculture—long exempt from multilateral discipline—into the global trade framework. But the path was fraught. The EC, under Jacques Delors, resisted binding discipline, fearing erosion of CAP autonomy. The U.S., led by Agriculture Secretary Earl Butz's successor, Richard Lyng, pushed for aggressive reductions in domestic support but guarded its export credit and marketing loan systems. Japan, a net importer, sought improved access to EC and U.S. markets, while developing nations, grouped in the G-33 and later the G-20, demanded meaningful cuts to Northern subsidies and special treatment for food security. The industrial context of the 1980s was pivotal. The Reagan and Thatcher eras had entrenched market-oriented doctrines, yet agricultural protectionism persisted as a political and economic anchor. In the U.S., farm income had grown steadily from the 1970s despite farm crises in the early 1980s—subsidies functioned not merely as support but as political stabilizers for rural voting blocs. In Europe, CAP's budget had ballooned to 60% of the EC's total expenditure by 1986, provoking public skepticism over fiscal sustainability. Japan's Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (MAFF) maintained high tariffs and non-tariff barriers, shielding domestic rice and beef production from foreign competition. Brazil's agribusiness, nascent but dynamic, saw subsidies abroad as a threat to its export potential in soy, cotton, and sugar. Uruguay, though small, symbolized the vulnerability of secondary producers: its dairy and beef sectors depended on fair access to larger markets, yet lacked the leverage to negotiate bilateral deals. The negotiations themselves unfolded over six years, marked by shifting coalitions, brinkmanship, and incremental breakthroughs. Early deadlock centered on the definition of “amber box” subsidies—those deemed trade-distorting—and the measurement of “true” support levels. The U.S. initially proposed capping all domestic support at 10% of agricultural receipts, but EC countered with a demand for absolute ceilings, fearing caps would allow loopholes via “green box” decoupled payments. Japan insisted on tariff rate quotas (TRQs) to protect sensitive products, while developing countries demanded asymmetrical treatment, arguing that Northern subsidies depressed global prices and undermined their export competitiveness. A turning point came in 1988 with the “Bruxelles Package,” which introduced the first formal disciplines: a 20% average reduction in domestic support over five years, with transitional provisions for developed nations. Yet the agreement remained fragile. The EC's CAP reform of 1992—still pending ratification—would later embed the “de minimis” clause (allowing 5% support for members with small farms) and expanded peace clauses shielding direct payments from challenge. The U.S., in turn, secured exemptions for marketing loans and countercyclical payments, preserving tools critical to farm income stabilization. Japan's TRQ expansions allowed gradual tariff increases on sensitive imports, buying time for domestic adjustment. Countervailing measures emerged as a critical enforcement mechanism. Under GATT Article VI, member states could impose tariffs to offset subsidies deemed to cause “injury” to domestic industries. The Uruguay Round formalized procedures for anti-dumping and countervailing investigations, but disputes quickly revealed their asymmetry. The U.S. and EC, with sophisticated legal and technical capacities, dominated proceedings, while developing countries faced steep costs in litigating complex subsidy cases. Brazil's landmark 1991 challenge to U.S. cotton subsidies—alleging \$1.2 billion in annual damages—exposed the imbalance: despite strong evidence, procedural hurdles and technical delays delayed resolution for over a decade, underscoring the power of institutional asymmetry. Expert analysis reveals the round's structural flaws. Economists like Marc van der Linden and Anne Krueger emphasized that “de minimis” thresholds and “blue box” subsidies (production-limiting payments) allowed continued distortion under the guise of reform. The OECD's 2002 study found that global agricultural support had grown from 0.5% to 0.7% of agricultural GDP by 2000—still exceeding WTO targets—while effective protection levels remained high in exporting nations. The AoA's “peace clause” (1995–2000) temporarily shielded domestic support from challenge, but its retroactive nature legitimized prior distortions, entrenching inequity. The geopolitical stakes were immense. For the U.S., agricultural trade was a lever of foreign policy: access to EU and Japanese markets hinged on willingness to reform. For the EC, CAP reform was existential—budgetary pressures and political dissent in rural France and Italy demanded compromise. In the Global South, the round symbolized a struggle for sovereignty: could developing nations retain policy space to protect food security, or were they condemned to dependency on Northern markets? Uruguay's delegation, led

by negotiator Enrique Iglesias, argued that “special and differential treatment” was not charity but necessity—small exporters needed breathing room to scale competitively. Controversies erupted at every stage. The 1991 U.S. farm crisis, marked by farmer suicides and foreclosures, intensified domestic pressure for subsidy maintenance, even as global rules eroded. The 1995–1996 Asian financial crisis and 1997 dot-com crash later revealed agriculture’s role in broader economic fragility, but during negotiations, food security was often subordinated to fiscal discipline. Critics, including Via Campesina and civil society coalitions, condemned the round as a “subsidy cartel,” where Northern wealth insulated farmers while Southern producers bore the costs. The 1994 North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), signed concurrently, amplified fears that U.S. subsidies would flood Mexico, undermining small-scale corn farming—a precursor to the backlash seen in the 1996 Uruguay Round’s ratification battles. Risks embedded in the agreements were profound. The AoA’s reliance on self-reporting of domestic support created loopholes: export credits, state-sponsored loans, and “green box” decouplings inflated support beyond nominal caps. The World Bank’s 1999 assessment warned that without robust monitoring, subsidy regimes would persistently distort trade, while the IMF cautioned that fiscal imbalances in agriculture could exacerbate balance-of-payment crises in vulnerable states. The round’s failure to address export competition comprehensively left persistent overcapacity—especially in EU and U.S. grain sectors—fueling price volatility. Comparative analysis offers instructive contrasts. The 1979 GATT Tokyo Round addressed industrial tariffs but excluded agriculture, creating a lasting asymmetry. The 1994 Uruguay Round was the first multilateral attempt to discipline agricultural support, yet its compromises reflected power politics more than equity. In contrast, the 2001 Doha Round (launched amid renewed frustration) sought deeper reforms—eliminating all export subsidies, cutting domestic support by 36% (with higher ceilings for developing nations)—but collapsed over unresolved North-South divides. Today, the AoA’s legacy endures in WTO disputes: the 2023 U.S.–Brazil cotton case, and ongoing challenges to EU sugar and dairy policies, testify to the round’s incomplete resolution. Long-term implications shape contemporary trade. The Uruguay Round entrenched a system where subsidies persist but are formally “regulated”—a compromise that preserved domestic political stability at the cost of market fairness. The rise of non-tariff barriers (sanitary standards, geographical indications) now masks protectionism, while digital trade and climate pressures strain the AoA’s framework. The 2023 WTO Ministerial in Abu Dhabi saw renewed calls for reform, with India and African nations demanding reciprocity, but the U.S. and EU remain cautious, fearing loss of policy flexibility. Strategic insight reveals a paradox: the round aimed to liberalize, yet institutionalized subsidy lock-in. For developing nations, the AoA remains a double-edged sword—formal rules enable legal recourse, but structural imbalance persists. Uruguay’s own transformation into a major soy exporter illustrates the double edge: subsidies enabled scale, but dependency on global prices persists. Brazil’s agribusiness ascendancy, supported by decades of countervailing defense, underscores how trade rules reward scale, not equity. Looking ahead, the long shadow of the Gatt Uruguay Round demands reimagined governance. The

Questions & Answers About the gatt uruguay round a negotiating history 19861992 subsidies and countervailing measures

No	Question	Answer
1	What was the Uruguay Round in the context of the GATT negotiations?	The Uruguay Round was a series of multilateral trade negotiations conducted under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) from 1986 to 1994, aimed at extending trade liberalization and addressing new trade issues including subsidies, services, and intellectual property.
2	Why were subsidies and countervailing measures a significant focus during the Uruguay Round?	Subsidies and countervailing measures were significant because they affect fair competition in international trade. The Uruguay Round sought to clarify and strengthen the rules on subsidies and provide better mechanisms for countervailing measures to address unfair trade practices.

3	What negotiating challenges were faced regarding subsidies in the Uruguay Round?	Negotiators faced challenges in balancing the interests of developed and developing countries, defining permissible subsidies, and agreeing on effective disciplines and enforcement mechanisms to prevent trade distortions caused by unfair subsidies.
4	How did the Uruguay Round improve disciplines on subsidies compared to previous GATT agreements?	The Uruguay Round introduced the Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures (SCM Agreement), which established clearer definitions, prohibited certain subsidies outright, and set detailed rules for the use of countervailing measures, enhancing transparency and enforcement.
5	What role did the SCM Agreement play in the Uruguay Round negotiations?	The SCM Agreement was a key outcome of the Uruguay Round, providing a comprehensive legal framework to regulate subsidies, prevent trade distortions, and guide the application of countervailing duties, thereby improving the predictability and fairness of international trade.
6	How did the Uruguay Round negotiations address the interests of developing countries related to subsidies?	The negotiations included provisions allowing developing countries some flexibility in subsidy use for economic development and transition, along with technical assistance to help them comply with new rules while gradually integrating into the global trading system.
7	What is the historical significance of the Uruguay Round for global trade governance?	The Uruguay Round marked a major milestone by expanding trade rules beyond tariffs to include subsidies, services, and intellectual property, resulting in the creation of the World Trade Organization (WTO) and establishing a stronger, more comprehensive international trade regime.

GATT Uruguay Round, negotiating history, 1986-1992, subsidies, countervailing measures, trade negotiations, international trade law, WTO formation, trade policy, dispute settlement

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