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Scaling Up Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport: Policies, Practices, Impacts and Monitoring Processes

Final Synthesis Report



Nite Tanzarn

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Women’s transport burden. Photo provided by Regina Obilie Amoako-Sakyi

Women’s transport burden. Photo provided by Mt. Elgon Labour-Based Training Centre (MELTC)

Women at work. Photo provided by MELTC

Female operator. Mbarara Fort Portal Road. Photo provided by MELTC

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Abstract

This report synthesises four country case studies conducted in Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda as part of a networked research project. The case studies analysed transport sector policies, legislation, regulations and programmes in order to generate key learning around good and promising gender mainstreaming practices for possible up-scaling.

Each of the case study countries has political frameworks that allude to gender equality, to varying degrees, in law and policy. However, many of these political commitments are yet to translate into gender equitable transport. The attempts to incorporate gender in most of the national transport policies were found not to be methodical with some relegating gender to specific sections of the documents. The traffic and safety regulations were found to be most lacking in gender responsiveness, as they did not refer to sexual and gender-based violence that is reportedly prevalent in public transport spaces.

A project cycle analysis of seven rural transport projects revealed various innovative approaches adopted to mainstream gender, some of which informed transport policy and practice.

To further institutionalise mainstreaming, the report recommends evidence-based policy engagement, collection of gender disaggregated transport data, gender capacity building of transport and engineering professionals/researchers and retrofitting of policy and regulations for improved gender sensitivity.

Key words

Gender Equitable Transport, Mainstreaming, Rural, Time Poverty, Policy, Good Practice

AFRICA COMMUNITY ACCESS PARTNERSHIP (AfCAP) ***Safe and sustainable transport for rural communities***

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Acronyms, Units and Currencies

AfCAP	Africa Community Access Partnership
ADB	Asian Development Bank
AFD	Agence Française de Développement
AfDB	African Development Bank
ASCAP	Asia Community Access Partnership
BFP	Budget Framework Paper
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
EOC	Equal Opportunities Commission
FYDP II	Second Five-Year Development Plan
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GDI	Gender Development Index
GGGI	Global Gender Gap Index
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GoG	Government of Ghana
GoU	Government of Uganda
GSS	Ghana Statistical Services
HDI	Human Development Index
IFRTD	International Forum for Rural Transport and Development
IMT	Intermediate Means of Transport
ITP	Integrated Transport Policy
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
LGTP	Local Government Transport Programme
MAAIF	Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industries and Fisheries
MDA	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MoCDGC	Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children
MoCT	Ministry of Communications and Transport
MoES	Ministry of Education and Sports
MoFEP	Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning
MoFP	Ministry of Finance and Planning
MoGCSD	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development
MoGCSP	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection
MoGLSD	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
MoGSCSS	Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services
MoID	Ministry of Infrastructure Development
MoJCA	Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs
MoT	Ministry of Transport
MoW	Ministry of Works
MoWT	Ministry of Works and Transport
MTP2	Second Medium Term Plan
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NCLR	National Council for Law Reporting
NDPII	Second National Development Plan
NDPC	National Development Planning Commission
NDPF	National Development Policy Framework
NGEC	National Gender Equality Commission
NGP	National Gender Policy
NMT	Non-Motorised Transport
NPA	National Planning Authority
NTP	National Transport Policy
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act
RAI	Rural Access Index
ReCAP	Research for Community Access Partnership

RoK	Republic of Kenya
RRP	Rural Roads Programme
RSPS	Road Sector Programme Support
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index
SGBV	Sexual and Gender Based Violence
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index
TRP	Transport Rehabilitation Project
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UK	United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Northern Ireland)
UKAid	United Kingdom Aid (Department for International Development, UK)
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VTTP	Village Travel and Transport Programme
WEF	World Economic Forum

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Executive Summary

The overall objective of the research project is to contribute to knowledge that can lead to improved policies and practices for sustainably mainstreaming gender in rural transport. This was a networked research that was conducted in four ReCAP focus countries, namely: Ghana, Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. Ghana and Uganda provided the backbone of the research work, with supplementary analysis from Kenya and Tanzania. The research employed qualitative methods of data collection that included a desk study and key informant interviews in Ghana and Uganda.

The desk study involved a review of national policy documents to map the respective country case study gender policy landscape. An analysis of transport sector documents was undertaken to assess how gender is incorporated in the respective transport policy, legislation, planning, budgeting and programming of each country. Drawing on available national statistics, the case studies profiled gender relations in the context of rural transport.

One rural transport project was selected from each case study country for in-depth review. The review involved assessing the quality as well as the tools, indicators and targets used to mainstream gender in the case study projects and to examine their effectiveness. The review was undertaken along the different stages of the project cycle including: identification, design, appraisal, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Each of the case study countries has political frameworks that incorporate gender equality to some degree in law and policy. These include gender sensitive constitutional provisions, employment legislation and long- and mid-term development plans. Kenya and Uganda have adopted gender responsive budgeting (GRB) through the use of fiscal policy and fiscal administration to advance gender equality and women's empowerment. Whereas Uganda's GRB initiative is through ensuring that all public resources are allocated in a manner that promotes gender equality (through ministry, department and agency (MDA) budgets), Kenya's approach is more targeted towards women's empowerment, requiring that at least 30 percent of Government procurement is earmarked for firms owned by women and other disadvantaged groups.

The four case studies have made a good attempt to mainstream gender in transport policy and development plans, with Uganda being the most advanced. However, no resources are allocated to implement the good policy intentions suggesting that these largely remain neglected. The Ghana case study reported that where these are implemented, it is with the support of donors. Most of the policies do not contain sex and gender disaggregated data. Further to that, they do not provide for the collection of disaggregated data to inform policy and planning.

The rural transport projects assessed demonstrated the feasibility of mainstreaming gender in the sector, as follows:

Ghana: World Bank funded Second Transport Rehabilitation Project (TRPII 1991-1997)

The Ghana TRPII adopted an integrated approach that included both transport and non-transport interventions, some of which were designed to alleviate women's transport burden. The inclusion of components that responded to women's needs contributed to the project's success as the communities were reportedly more involved in implementation. The project set an ambitious target of 70 percent participation by women and achieved an average of 50 percent. The project's good practices were not up-scaled and, reportedly, did not influence transport policy and practice. For instance, the on-going Government-funded Cocoa Roads Rehabilitation Programme (COCOBOD, 2015-2020) does not incorporate gender.

Kenya: Government of Kenya and French Government funded Roads 2000 Programme Central Phases 1 and 2 (2007-2011, 2013-2017)

Whereas there was an attempt to incorporate gender in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the Government of Kenya and French Government funded Roads 2000 Programme, this was largely restricted to fixing minimum quotas for women's participation as labourers, specifying outputs measuring their participation and counting the number of women benefitting from labour based works. The project specified a target of, and achieved an average of 30 percent women's participation.

Tanzania: Village Travel and Transport Programme (1995-2004) and Local Government Transport Programme (2008-ongoing)

The Tanzania VTTP pioneered promising approaches to gender mainstreaming. The project achieved 50 percent women's participation and brought to the attention of policy makers, women's disproportionate transport burden. Unfortunately, most of the achievements and knowledge acquired from this project were not documented. However, most of the knowledge acquired during implementation has been incorporated into Tanzania's transport policy and applied in the ongoing Government rural transport programme (LGTP).

Uganda: Danida funded Road Sector Programme Support Phases 1 and 2 (1999-2002, 2003-2007) and the Rural Roads Programme (2008-2010)

The three Danida-funded projects adopted gender-transformative programming. The projects contributed to the transformation of gender relationships in the rural transport sector and resulted in more equitable distribution of benefits between women and men. Besides infrastructure works, the projects included various components such as labour-based training and institutional support to the ministries of transport and finance. All the components included a gender perspective and implementation was guided by time- and resource-bound gender equality plans that included both qualitative and quantitative indicators.

The projects set and achieved an average of 30 percent women's participation as labourers. Women also benefitted from labour-based training and some have become sub-national, national and regional contractors. Gender was mainstreamed in the Mount Elgon Labour-Based Training Centre and courses were offered to contractors as well as engineering and non-engineering local government staff.

The projects adopted a systematic approach to mainstreaming gender, setting standards and guidelines that subsequent rural road projects apply and follow. The institutional support components included the development of policies, guidelines and manuals, some explicitly on gender, others with a gender dimension. However, many are yet to be fully implemented.

The country-specific recommendations are contained in the case study reports. Recommendations are provided to strengthen knowledge creation, management and embedment essential for sustainable mainstreaming of gender and can be summarised as follows:

1. Lack of political commitment was identified as a challenge in Ghana and Uganda, as is the perception that gender mainstreaming is a donor-driven agenda.

Recommendation:

- Engage transport policy makers with regards to the significance of gender mainstreaming.
2. Lack of quantitative evidence base to effectively advocate for gender mainstreaming.

Recommendations:

- In collaboration with the respective country bureaus of statistics, support baseline surveys to collect nationally relevant data on gender relations in the context of rural transport.
- Support the transport sectors to incorporate sex and gender disaggregated data in their respective transport management systems.

3. Gender is not systematically mainstreamed in most transport policies and some countries lack rural transport and NMT policies.

Recommendations:

- Support the review and engendering of transport policies and investment plans.
- Support the development of gender responsive rural transport and NMT policies for Ghana, Kenya and Tanzania.

4. There is a general lack of capacity to use gender as a framework to create new knowledge and stimulate gender-responsive transport solutions.

Recommendation:

- Gender capacity building of African transport and engineering professionals/researchers.

5. The four case studies generated information on various approaches that different countries and transport projects have adopted to mainstream gender in policy and practice, some of them more effective than others.

Recommendation:

- Support the dissemination of the results to a wider audience to gain an understanding of the gains of gender equality and to facilitate the replication of the good mainstreaming practices.

1 Introduction

1.1 Background to the Research Project

This project is part of the ReCAP research initiative on gender mainstreaming in rural transport in eight countries in Asia, Eastern Africa and West Africa. The underlying premise of this research project is that rural transport interventions that give due consideration to gender differences result in significant and more equitable benefits to women and men in terms of increased access to socio-economic services. This is besides the potential to address women's time poverty as well as promote safe transport and travel spaces. However, substantial gaps exist in knowledge, policy and practice in respect of sustainably mainstreaming gender in the rural transport sector.

The project was implemented in four AfCAP countries, namely Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. With the exception of Ghana, the case study countries are predominantly rural. Poor mobility is particularly apparent for a significant proportion of rural women and men in all the case study countries. According to the World Bank Rural Access Indicator (RAI), the proportion of the rural population in the case study countries who lived within 2 km of an all season road in 2006, irrespective of the availability of suitable transport services, was less than 50 percent. The new (2016) RAI defined by the proportion of the rural population who live within 2 km of the nearest road in good condition, also indicates that rural accessibility continues to be a challenge (see Table 1).

Table 1 Rural Accessibility by Case Study Country

Case Study Country	Rural Population (%)	Rural Access Indicator (RAI), 2006 ¹	Rural Access Indicator (RAI), 2016 ²
Ghana	44	44	-
Kenya	74.4	44	44.9
Tanzania	68.4	38	51.8
Uganda	83.9	27	37.8

Source: Transport & ICT. 2016. Measuring Rural Access: Using New Technologies

The research project, which ran from September 2016 to December 2017, was implemented by the International Forum for Rural Transport (IFRTD). IFRTD is a global network of people, organisations and champions interested in improving the methods of delivering transport solutions so as to bring equitable social and economic benefits to rural women, children and men. A glossary of key terms found in this report is provided in Annex A.

1.2 Reflections on Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport

The World Economic Forum (2017) reports that a variety of models and empirical studies have suggested that improving gender parity may result in significant economic dividends. The transport sector plays a central role in mainstreaming gender in development. Transport infrastructure (roads in particular) and services influence women's and men's subsistence and domestic needs, employment opportunities, access to and utilisation of social services, as well as engagement in commodity and producer markets. Accordingly, supply side responses which address women's and men's mobility and accessibility needs have a catalytic effect on the gender responsiveness of the other sectors of the economy such as health, education and agriculture (Tanzarn, 2013).

¹ Percentage of the population living within 2km of an all season road, irrespective of the availability of suitable transport services.

² The proportion of the rural population who live within 2 km of the nearest road in good condition.

However, transport is a traditionally male-dominated sector, both from an employment point of view and for the values it embodies (Tanzarn, 2013). Roads are conventionally viewed as engineered infrastructure linking one point to the next. Accordingly, transport policies are formulated, investment plans are prepared, resources are allocated and road projects are designed with the general aim of increasing the number of kilometres developed or maintained. Performance is arguably measured by the length of infrastructure improved according to the specified technical standards with a fleeting mention of the social and distributional impact.

Conventional discussions on transport policy typically exclude the extensive length of non-engineered infrastructure (community access roads, tracks, footpaths and bridges) at the lowest levels of the network hierarchy. Yet these carry significant volumes of pedestrian travel and non-motorised transport in rural areas. How does the transport sector meet the Agenda 2030 (Sustainable Development Goals) aim of leaving no one behind?

Understandably, transport engineering should be grounded in technical approaches, but transport policy, planning and programming should focus on the users. The central question being transport for whom and for what purpose? Women and men are the primary beneficiaries of investments in infrastructure and thus their respective accessibility and mobility needs should define the minimum standards in road development and maintenance (Tanzarn, 2013). Putting people at the centre leads to a different narrative that brings to the fore the socially constructed nuances of interaction between women and men in the context of rural transport.

A strong body of evidence shows that asymmetries in women's time/space activity patterns, assets and 'voice' in decision-making, relative to men's, results in gender differentiated demands for, and benefit from rural transport investments and ancillary productive activities (Porter, 2012; ADB, 2013; Tanzarn, 2016). Accordingly, transport policy has differentiated implications on women and men. Does policy and the associated investment decisions take into consideration women's and men's distinct transport needs?

Large infrastructural projects involve land acquisition, compensation, displacement and a significant influx of (male) migrant labour as well as incomes in the communities. Do social impact assessments evaluate employment equity, the differential impacts on women and men and the potential risk of sexual violence against women and girls? Do resettlement action plans take into consideration the needs of the voiceless and landless women?

Do investments in (large) rural transport infrastructure benefit (rural) women and men who largely secure their livelihoods using footpaths, trails and tracks? How can the benefits of investments in transport infrastructure be maximised to deliver equitable benefits to rural women and men?

The transport sector, and in particular, the roads sub-sector, has broadened the approaches to construction through the adoption of labour-based methods (LBM). While this approach expands employment opportunities for unskilled women and men, it is also time-intensive. Does the working environment and the organisation of rural projects enable women to balance their domestic responsibilities with potential employment opportunities in road works?

Non-motorised transport (NMT) that includes walking and cycling, is the predominant mode in rural areas. Anecdotal evidence suggests that besides affordability, negative cultural traditions in some communities inhibit women from using bicycles. Further to that, the roadster bicycles commonly in use in rural Africa were designed for use by men. Does transport policy promote NMTs? Do transport regulations enhance safety for pedestrians and cyclists? How can transport policy ensure that women benefit from the greater efficiency that NMT can provide (thus alleviating their transport burden)?

Public transport and road travel spaces are gendered. Micro-level case studies and media reports suggest that women's personal safety during travel and sexual harassment on public transportation is a growing concern. Women reportedly experience physical and verbal assault on account of being pregnant, travelling with young children or being "inappropriately" dressed. Violence against women and girls has gained a lot of attention, particularly in a domestic setting and in the workplace, but not so much in transport spaces. How can transport policy and regulations improve women's and girls' autonomous mobility and safety in public transport spaces?

Women are under-represented in road construction and transportation due to gender inequalities in capabilities and opportunities. Furthermore, prevailing gender stereotypes define the transport sector as a male domain and a diasporic space for women. This imposes restrictions on women's entry into the sector and those who attempt to do so are labelled transgressors. Are rural women and men given equal voice during the identification, design and implementation of road policy, regulations and investment plans? How does transport policy promote equitable participation in the sector?

Efforts to mainstream gender in rural transport have been on-going since the early 1990s. These have involved conducting case studies and production of guidelines and toolkits, largely supported by development partners. While greater account is increasingly being taken of gender in a variety of areas, little progress has been made in the transport sector. Why is there extensive gender analysis and sex/gender disaggregated data in sectors such as water, health and education and almost nothing on transport? Why do rural women continue bearing a disproportionate transport burden? Why do women and girls continue experiencing sexual and other violence in public transportation and transport spaces? Why do women not participate in, and benefit from investments in the transport sector, equitably with men?

The level of engagement and disengagement with gender mainstreaming over the years has been dependent on champions in the respective development agencies. Governments rely on donor funding rather than tax revenues to implement gender equality enhancing aspects of transport policy and programmes, typically as separate rather than mainstreamed components.

This report attempts to answer the questions raised above.

1.3 Objectives of the Research Project

The overall objective of the research project is to contribute to knowledge that can lead to improved policies and practices for sustainably mainstreaming gender in rural transport. The research project sought to answer the following questions:

- a. What is the nature and extent of gender inequalities within the case study countries and how do these manifest in the rural transport sector?
- b. How responsive are transport policies and institutions to gender differences in mobility and accessibility?
- c. What evidence exists on the effectiveness of processes, tools and indicators of mainstreaming gender in rural transport projects?
- d. What value is added by mainstreaming gender in rural transport?
- e. What are the opportunities for sustainable scaling up of gender mainstreaming, i.e., from projects to national (rural) transport policies?
- f. What cross country lessons can be learnt and disseminated?

1.4 About the Report

This report presents a synthesis, including a comparative analysis, where applicable, of the networked research that involved case studies conducted in four AfCAP focus countries, namely: Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. The four detailed country case study reports are presented under different cover.

The report is organised in five sections. The methodology used to conduct the research is presented in Section 2. Section 3 presents the gender policy landscape in the four case study countries. The fourth section presents an analysis of the quality of gender mainstreaming in the respective case study transport policies and strategies. Section 5 presents illustrative cases of good gender mainstreaming practices in the selected transport projects and how these have influenced the rural transport value chain. The last section draws conclusions from the research and also makes recommendations for sustainable scaling up of gender mainstreaming in rural transport, including the role of ReCAP, therein.

2 Methodology

2.1 Approach

This was a networked research that was conducted in four ReCAP focus countries, namely: Ghana, Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. Ghana and Uganda provided the backbone of the research work, with supplementary analysis from Kenya and Tanzania. The research employed qualitative methods of data collection that included a desk study and key informant interviews in Ghana and Uganda.

The desk study involved a review of national policy documents to map the respective country case study national gender policy landscape. Drawing on available national statistics, the case studies profiled gender relations in the context of rural transport. An analysis of transport sector documents was undertaken to assess how gender is incorporated in the respective country case study (rural) transport policy, legislation, planning, budgeting and programming.

Key informant interviews using open-ended questionnaires were conducted with the ministries of transport, development partners, civil society organisations (CSOs) and the private sector in Ghana and Uganda to elicit information on gender mainstreaming in practice, including perceptions, achievements, challenges and lessons learnt.

One rural transport project was selected from each case study country for in-depth review. The review involved assessing the quality as well as the tools, indicators and targets used to mainstream gender in the case study projects and to examine their effectiveness. The review was undertaken along the different stages of the project cycle including: identification, design, appraisal, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

The following projects were reviewed:

- a. **Ghana:** World Bank funded Second Transport Rehabilitation Project (TRPII 1991-1997)
- b. **Kenya:** Government of Kenya and French Government funded Roads 2000 Programme Central Phases 1 and 2 (2007-2011, 2013-2017)
- c. **Tanzania:** Village Travel and Transport Programme (1995-2004) and Local Government Transport Programme (2008-ongoing)
- d. **Uganda:** Danida funded Road Sector Programme Support Phases 1 and 2 (1999-2002, 2003-2007) and the Rural Roads Programme (2008-2010)

Prior to the onset of the country case study research, a virtual methodology seminar involving all the research project team members was conducted. The objectives of the seminar were to:

- a. Clarify the aims and scope of the research.
- b. Generate a shared meaning of the key concepts underlying the research.
- c. Provide an overview of the methodology.
- d. Review the research instruments.
- e. Agree on the modalities of data collection, cleaning, analysis and reporting.

2.2 Analytical Framework

The analytical underpinning of the research project is that discriminatory socio-cultural norms, values and practices underlie gender inequalities. These are reflected in women's work overburden and related time poverty, gender differences in space/activity patterns, inequitable distribution of resources and restricted women's voice and decision-making power. As a result, women and men have different travel patterns as well as safety, mobility and accessibility needs. In addition, a combination of retrogressive norms and gender inequalities in resources imposes restrictions on women's mobility and entrepreneurship as well as their access to means of transport and employment opportunities in the transport sector.

2.3 Limitations to the Research Project

The major limitation to the research project was the lack of nationally relevant sex and gender disaggregated (rural) transport data. Further to that, there was a big lapse of time since some of the selected projects for review had been completed (Ghana's TRPII in 1997 and Tanzania's VTTP in 2004) and this limited accessibility to project documentation. Additionally, the research in Kenya and Tanzania was purely desk top that relied almost exclusively on documents available in the public domain. In Uganda, research fatigue was a notable limitation.

3 Gender Policy Landscape in the Case Study Countries

3.1 Legal Frameworks for Gender Mainstreaming

3.1.1 Constitutional provisions on gender equality and women's rights

The national constitutions of all the four case study countries that provide the overall legal point of reference for gender equality are progressive and uphold and guarantee women's rights.

The constitution of Ghana (GoG, 1992) outlaws gender-based discrimination. In addition, it commits the State to ensure the full integration of women into the mainstream of economic development. More specifically, it provides for gender balance in recruitment and appointment to public offices and guarantees women equal rights to training and promotion. In recognition of women's reproductive roles, the Constitution states that facilities shall be provided for the care of children below school-going age to enable women to realise their full potential. Adding that special care shall be accorded to mothers during a reasonable period before and after childbirth; and during those periods, working mothers shall be accorded paid leave.

The 2010 national Constitution of Kenya (NCLR, 2010a) requires the State to enact affirmative action programmes to ensure that marginalised groups, including women, are provided special opportunities in education and employment and have reasonable access to water, health services and infrastructure. Further to that, it expects State agencies and public officials to address the needs of women. Furthermore, it commits the State to take legislative and other measures to implement the principle that not more than two-thirds of the members of elective or appointive bodies are of the same gender.

Tanzania's Constitution of 1977, revised in 2004 (URT, 2004), obligates the State and all its agencies to direct their policies and programmes to accord equal opportunities to all citizens, women and men alike. It also provides for affirmative action for women's representation in political leadership.

Uganda's 1995 Constitution, amended in 2005, (GoU, 2005) recognises equality between women and men; provides for gender balance and fair representation; recognises the role of women in society; accords affirmative action in favour of women; and articulates specific rights of women including outlawing customs, traditions and practices that undermine their welfare and interests. The constitution also commits the State to provide the facilities and opportunities necessary to enhance women's welfare to enable them to realise their full potential and advancement. Further to that, it obliges employers to accord women protection during pregnancy and after birth.

3.1.2 Gender provisions in legislation on labour relations/employment

Ghana's National Labour Act of 2003 (GoG, 2003) prohibits gender discrimination in employment. The Act specifically states that, unless with the employee's consent, an employer shall not assign or deploy a pregnant employee or one nursing a child below eight months to undertake night duty or overtime. Furthermore, it outlaws dismissing female employees for getting pregnant or taking maternity leave. Additionally, it forbids assigning pregnant employees to a post outside their place of residence after the fourth month of pregnancy, if the assignment is deemed to be detrimental to their health or that of the foetus. The Act provides for paid maternity leave and states that a nursing mother is entitled to interrupt her work for an hour to nurse her baby. The Act obligates employers to provide separate toilet and washing facilities and adequate facilities for the storage, changing, drying and cleansing from contamination of clothing for male and female workers. The Act also outlaws sexual harassment in the workplace.

Kenya's Employment Act of 2007 explicitly addresses gender discrimination in employment (NCLR, 2012b). It commits the Government to take affirmative action measures consistent with the promotion of equality or the elimination of discrimination in the workplace. The Act outlaws direct or indirect discrimination or harassment of an employee or prospective employee on the grounds of, amongst other things, sex, disability and pregnancy.

The Act provides for three months fully paid maternity leave and job security associated with the role/function and two weeks' paternity leave for female and male employees respectively. It also provides for the collection of disaggregated data and requires every employer to keep a register of employees indicating the full name, age, sex, occupation, date of employment, nationality and educational level.

The Act states that an employer who employs 20 or more employees shall issue a policy statement on sexual harassment containing a comprehensive definition of sexual harassment. The Act specifically provides for separate facilities for women (and children) and men.

Tanzania's Employment and Labour Relations Act of 2004 (URT, 2004) prohibits discrimination on the basis of gender, sex, disability status, marital status, and pregnancy. It also provides for paid maternity leave to employed women for up to 84 days (12 weeks), paid at 100 percent of the average daily earnings, financed by a national social security fund.

Uganda's Employment Act of 2006 provides for measures to address barriers to women's participation in the labour force (GoU, 2006a). The Act outlaws discrimination in employment on the basis of, amongst other things, sex.

- a. Defines sexual harassment and outlines measures to seek redress.

- b. Requires an employer who employs more than 25 employees to have in place measures to prevent sexual harassment occurring at their workplace.
- c. Provides for 60 working days of fully paid maternity leave and job security associated to the role/function.
- d. Provides for 4 working days of paternity leave.

3.1.3 Gender equality in fiscal legislation

Ghana

Ghana is yet to adopt gender responsive budgeting.

Kenya

The Government has instituted various policy tools to ensure that women benefit from public resources, equitably with men. These include the Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Act (2012), the Women Enterprise Fund, the Uwezo Fund and the Free Maternal Health Care Programme.

Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Act, 2015

The Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Act, 2015 (RoK, 2015) includes various clauses with the potential to promote gender equality and women's empowerment as follows:

- a. Gender balance in all the statutory governance bodies created under the Act.
- b. All procurement and asset disposal planning to reserve a minimum of thirty percent of the budgetary allocations for enterprises owned by women, youth, persons with disabilities (PWDs) and other disadvantaged groups.
- c. County treasuries to establish a procurement function which shall, among others, promote preference and reservations schemes for small and micro enterprises, citizen contractors, women, youth, PWDs, minorities and marginalised groups in public procurement at the county level.
- d. Tender securities not required in procurements reserved for small and micro-enterprises or enterprises owned by women, youth, PWDs and other disadvantaged groups participating in a procurement proceeding.
- e. Performance securities may be waived or fixed at not more than one percent of the contract price for works and supplies reserved for women, youth, PWDs and other disadvantaged groups.
- f. Every procuring entity shall ensure that all money paid out to an enterprise owned by youth, women or PWDs is deposited into an account where the mandatory signatory is a youth, woman or a PWD.
- g. All procurement reports to include disaggregated data indicating the number of disadvantaged groups that have benefitted.

Tanzania

Whereas Tanzania was a pioneer of gender responsive budgeting in Africa, this has not been fully embedded in the budget and other fiscal policy or tools.

Uganda

The Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) of 2015 (GoU, 2015a) obliges all MDAs to prepare gender responsive budget framework papers (BFP). Further to that, the PFMA provides that the MoFPED, in consultation with the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC), issues a certificate specifying:

- a. That the national budget framework paper is gender and equity responsive.
- b. Measures taken to equalise opportunities for women, men, persons with disabilities and other marginalised groups.

3.2 National Operational Frameworks for Gender Mainstreaming

All the four case study countries have long-term development blueprints/visions that are implemented through a series of five-year medium-term rolling plans. The medium-term plans are important for gender equality because all planning and budget instruments are supposed to be aligned to the priorities set out in them. Further to that the medium-term plans define guiding principles, objectives and interventions to be adopted by the respective sectors of the economy, including the transport sector.

3.2.1 Long-term national development planning frameworks

Ghana's Vision 2020 (NDPC, 1995) is, amongst others, aimed at improving women's health and nutritional status, access to productive resources including capital and technology, and increasing female enrolment and achievement at all levels of education.

Kenya's Vision 2030 (RoK, 2007a) highlights several aspects of women's disempowerment at the household, community and national levels as follows:

- a. Restrictions in accessing labour markets and productive resources resulting in relatively higher levels of women's relative to men's poverty.
- b. Women's and girls' role in household water provisioning restricting their engagement in economic and educational activities, respectively.
- c. Restricted decision-making power and political voice.
- d. Limited access to capital, education, training and health care undermine the full potential of women's capabilities.
- e. Exposure to vulnerabilities from civil and domestic violence, economic shocks and environmental hazards.

The 2030 vision for gender is "gender equity in power and resource distribution" to be achieved through expanding opportunities, promoting empowerment, building capabilities and addressing vulnerabilities. Vision 2030 commits the Government to implementing the following strategies to reduce gender disparities and address vulnerabilities:

- a. Gender mainstreaming in Government policies, plans, budgets and programmes.
- b. Affirmative action for women's representation at all levels of decision making.
- c. Provide financial support to women to raise their incomes and reduce the gender gap in earnings.
- d. Increase the number of women in Parliament.
- e. Give priority to female employees in the public sector in order to attain at least 30 percent representation in recruitment, promotion and appointment of women to all decision making levels.
- f. Increase the proportion of women using family planning methods from 39 to 70 percent.
- g. Double the number of births attended by skilled health personnel from 42 percent to 84 percent.
- h. Increase adult literacy rates of men and women from 64 and 59 percent, respectively, to 70 percent.
- i. Reduce gender-based violence.
- j. Reduce the rate of high-risk sex through increased access to safe sex methods.
- k. Reduce the proportion of female and male population living below the poverty line to 25 percent.

Vision 2030 includes two gender equality enhancing interventions amongst its flagship projects, namely:

- a. Increase funds and training available to women entrepreneurs.

- b. Increase women's representation at the executive level in all branches of Government and the private sector close to that of the best practices in the middle income countries.

The Tanzania Development Vision 2025 (URT, nd) commits the Government to avail equal opportunity to all citizens to participate in and contribute to the development of the nation, paying particular attention to gender balance. One of the goals of Vision 2025 is to achieve "gender equality and the empowerment of women in all socio-economic and political relations and cultures".

The specified gender sensitive targets to be achieved by 2025 are as follows:

- a. Gender imbalances redressed such that economic activities will not be identifiable by gender.
- b. All social relations and processes which manifest and breed inequality, in all aspects of the society (i.e., law, politics, employment, education, culture) will be reformed.

Uganda's Vision 2040 (NPA, 2013) acknowledges that reducing gender inequality is a prerequisite for accelerating and sustaining socio-economic transformation. Vision 2040 acknowledges the persistent gender inequalities in the country. These include:

- Gender disparities in access to and control over productive resources such as land;
- Limited share of women in wage employment in non-agricultural sectors;
- Sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV);
- The restrictions imposed on women by their work in the care economy;
- Negative social cultures; and
- Limited women's participation in household, community and national decision-making.

Vision 2040 commits the Government to:

- a. Formulate gender-responsive policies and plans to enable women to participate in education and skills development, business, agriculture and industry, and all levels of political decision-making.
- b. Instituting deliberate measures, including policies for flexible working conditions, to facilitate gender equitable participation in the development process.
- c. The total elimination of retrogressive socio-cultural practices.
- d. Eliminate SGBV.
- e. Affirmative action to keep girls in school.
- f. Strengthen the laws on non-discrimination to promote inclusion of women, the youth and other disadvantaged groups in electoral and political processes.

Vision 2040 is implemented through five-year national development plans (NDPs) that guide the Government's policy decisions including formulation of sector policies, strategies, plans and budgets.

3.2.2 Medium-term national development planning frameworks

Ghana's Medium-Term National Development Policy Framework (NDPF), 2014

The NDPF (NDPC, 2014) contends that despite the increasing levels of gender awareness, the prevailing retrogressive socio-cultural norms that are detrimental to women's rights perpetuate sex discrimination. The NDPF recognises the multiple roles of women in society and the related disproportionate work burden that imposes restrictions on their mobility as well as their participation in economic development, in general, and the labour force, in particular. The NDPF specifically underscores women's and children's burden of collecting firewood for domestic use. Additionally, it draws attention to the pervasive levels of women's poverty attributed to low literacy rates, heavy work burdens and insecure access to productive resources, including credit. Further to that it points out the high prevalence of harassment of women.

The NDPF identifies the institutional level challenges to gender mainstreaming as follows:

- a. Lack of Government commitment to eliminate gender-imposed inequalities.
- b. Lack of gender responsive budgeting,
- c. Inadequate procedures and tools to monitor progress.

The NDPF defines the following interventions intended to promote gender equality and promote women's economic empowerment:

- a. Ensure the integration of a gender perspective in all Government policies, processes, programmes, systems and structures as follows:
 - Engender the legislative and regulatory environment to promote women's ability to make effective choices for improved development outcomes.
 - Institutionalise gender-responsive budgeting.
 - Promote the effective integration of gender considerations in all stages and dimensions of data production and creation of statistical knowledge.
 - Evolve an efficient system for generating relevant, reliable and timely quantitative and qualitative gender disaggregated data to inform policy and planning.
 - Promote gender equity in land reforms and land use planning and management.
- b. Develop an Affirmative Action Policy for women.
- c. Introduce affirmative action for persons with disabilities with due consideration of gender.
- d. Institute measures to achieve a gender balance in all Government-appointed bodies.
- e. Safeguard the security and safety of, and protect the rights of girls and women.
- f. Assess and bridge capacity gaps for the active and equal participation of women and men at all levels of civil society, economy, peace building and governance.
- g. Develop women's entrepreneurial and technical skills.
- h. Develop and implement specialised schemes to facilitate women entrepreneurs' access to investible resources.

Transport sector-specific strategies

- a. Actively promote the use of small-scale multi-purpose machinery and equipment along the value chain, including the use of IMTs.
- b. Facilitate efficient and safe use of NMT facilities such as bicycle lanes and pedestrian walkways in congested central business districts.
- c. Continue to promote women's participation in the transport sector service delivery.

Kenya's Second Medium Term Plan (MTP2)

The MTP2 underscores the persistent challenges of retrogressive socio-cultural norms, low levels of gender awareness, high incidences of gender-based violence (GBV) as well as inadequate implementation of gender responsive policies and laws (RoK, 2013).

The MTP2 includes several flagship projects explicitly intended to promote gender equality and protect women's rights. These are packaged under three categories, namely: gender mainstreaming, women's empowerment and policy, legal and institutional reforms.

- **Gender Mainstreaming**
 - a. Coordinate monitoring of gender mainstreaming across all ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs).
 - b. Enact a national affirmative action policy.
 - c. Collect gender disaggregated data to guide policy decision making.
 - d. Establish a Gender Research and Documentation Centre. *This has been established at the University of Nairobi in collaboration with UNESCO.*

- e. Establish integrated one-stop sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) response centres in all healthcare facilities in Kenya.
- f. The National Gender and Equality Commission to issue sanctions and recommend prosecution in relation to cases of gender discrimination.
- **Women's Empowerment**
 - a. Implement the 30 percent public procurement preference for women entrepreneurs.
 - b. Expand access to finances and promote women-led enterprises at the constituency level through the Uwezo Fund.
 - c. Review, re-brand and re-launch the Women Enterprise Fund.
- **Policy, Legal and Institutional Reforms**
 - a. Develop and enact the Women Enterprise Fund Bill.
 - b. Develop and implement the National Equality Bill.
 - c. Develop and implement the SGBV Policy.
 - d. Finalise and implement the National Affirmative Action Policy.
 - e. Review the National Gender and Development Policy.
 - f. Develop and implement the Public Financial Management (Uwezo Fund) Regulations 2013.
 - g. Implement the Public Procurement and Disposable (Preference and Reservation) Regulations 2013 for women.

Tanzania's second National Five Year Development Plan (FYDP II), 2016/17 – 2020/21

The FYDO II (MoFP, 2016) identifies various gender inequalities in the country, namely:

- i) Women's overburden with household work and the related time poverty;
- ii) Long distances walked by women in search of fuel wood;
- iii) Women's relatively higher poverty levels compared to men;
- iv) The high prevalence of child marriage that limit girls' educational opportunities and, subsequently, impose restrictions on their employment options;
- v) Relatively low women's participation in economic activities; and
- vi) Inadequate enforcement of maternity rights for women working in informal and private sector.

The FYDP II underscores the importance of gender mainstreaming not only as a way of unleashing women's potential to contribute to national socio-economic transformation but more importantly, as a matter of human rights. One of the expected outcomes of implementation of the FYDP II is reduction of gendered income inequalities.

The FYDP II commitments to promoting gender equality and women's empowerment are as follows:

- a. Enhance gender equity through affirmative action for women.
- b. Promote employable skills particularly for youth, women, and persons living with disabilities (PWDs).
- c. Extend low cost credit to women and youth.
- d. Promote and protect human rights for all, particularly for poor women, men and children and other vulnerable groups.
- e. The FYDP II monitoring and evaluation framework to provide for detailed diagnostic work to provide more insights into the constraints that women and men face in realising economic opportunities.
- f. Gender disaggregated FYDP II baselines and targets.
- g. Service delivery surveys to provide gender disaggregated data.

The FYDP II includes a Women's and Girls' Empowerment Programme with a five-year budget of TShs. 883.21 billion.

Uganda's Second National Development Plan (NDPII), 2015/16-2019/20

The NDPII (GoU, 2015a) defines (gender) mainstreaming in Government programmes and projects during its implementation, monitoring and evaluation as one of its nine key strategies. As regards the transport sector, the NDPII states, *inter alia*, that investment will focus on improvement of the currently degraded stock of rural road network especially feeder, community and trunk roads, as well as construction and upgrading of strategic roads and the rail system along key routes, to ease delivery of agricultural products to domestic and regional markets.

The NDPII commits the Government to promote gender equality and women's empowerment as follows:

- a. Design and Implement a national programme for women's economic empowerment.
- b. Increase the percentage of women accessing economic empowerment initiatives from 12 percent in 2009/10 to 30 percent by 2019/20.
- c. Strengthen the capacity of women for increased competitive entrepreneurship through skills development and provision of incentives.
- d. Enhance women's participation in decision making at all levels.
- e. Provide appropriate technologies to women.
- f. Expand labour intensive public works to poor and vulnerable households.
- g. Ensure a framework for coordinated interventions through a national policy to eliminate GBV.
- h. Evaluate compliance of MDAs to gender responsive budgeting through the gender and equity certificate mechanism.
- i. Strengthen the capacity of state and non-state actors to mainstream equal opportunities and affirmative action in all policies, laws, plans, programmes, activities, practices, traditions cultures, usages and customs.
- j. Mainstream gender and rights in sectors and local Governments' policies, plans and programmes.
- k. Promote formulation of gender sensitive regulatory frameworks in all sectors and local governments with a focus on emerging areas of climate change and oil and gas.
- l. Formulate a National Sexual Harassment Policy.

One of the NDPII flagship (core) projects is the 'Uganda Women's Entrepreneurship Programme'.

3.2.3 National Gender Policies

Ghana's National Gender Policy (MoGCSP, 2015) is aimed at mainstreaming gender equality and women's empowerment in national development. The policy specifically commits the Government to facilitate affordable, reliable and decent transport services and infrastructure for all, particularly women, the vulnerable, older people and persons with disabilities. One of the policy directives is to review and promote existing arrangements with transport service providers and agencies to ensure that their service priority users include pregnant women, children, older people and persons with disabilities.

Kenya's National Policy on Gender and Development, 2000 (MoGSCSS, 2000) is the reference point for Government's commitment to gender and provides the overall operational framework for mainstreaming gender equality in all policies, planning and programming (MoGSCSS, 2000). The overall objective of the NPGD is to facilitate the mainstreaming of the needs and concerns of women and men in all areas of the development process. The policy adopts a dual approach: mainstreaming gender in all aspects of development and promotion of women's empowerment.

Kenya also has a Ministerial Gender Policy formulated with the purpose of institutionalising the National Policy on Gender and Development (2000) within the then Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development (MoGCSD, 2011). The Policy was designed to strengthen internal gender mainstreaming (within the MoGCSD) as a foundation for promoting gender equality and women's empowerment in all Government policy, legislation and programmes.

The main objective of the Tanzania Women and Gender Development Policy is to ensure that the gender perspective is mainstreamed into all policies, programmes and strategies (MoCDGC, 2000).

The Uganda Gender Policy of 2007-17 (MoGLSD, 2007) provides a framework that guides ministries, government departments and agencies (MDAs) and local governments to incorporate a gender dimension in planning, resource allocation, service delivery, performance monitoring and reporting.

3.3 National Institutional Mechanisms for Gender Mainstreaming

All the four case study countries have multiple mechanisms that constitute the national machinery for mainstreaming gender in policies and Government programmes. The technical leadership in the respective countries is provided by Ghana's Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection (MoGCSP); Kenya's State Department of Gender in the Ministry of Public Service, Youth and Gender Affairs of Kenya; Tanzania's Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children (MoCDGC); and Uganda's Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MoGLSD).

In addition to the ministries responsible for gender, all the case study countries have designated gender focal persons in all MDAs. These are responsible for championing the gender equality agenda in their respective institutions. Their role is to ensure that pertinent gender issues are mainstreamed in the design, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of the respective sector policies and programmes.

Kenya's National Gender Equality Commission (NGEC) and Uganda's Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) provide policy oversight to gender mainstreaming. NGEC and EOC are both mandated to ensure that public and private sector institutions are in compliance with the provisions of the respective national constitutions, which address gender equality and non-discrimination.

3.4 Summary Analysis

The foregoing sections show that all the four case study countries have relatively enabling policy frameworks for gender mainstreaming. All the countries have constitutional provisions that require the respective States to promote and protect women's rights. The respective labour laws promote equal opportunities in employment, recognise women's maternity role and generally provide for a gender sensitive working environment. The overarching long- and medium-term policy frameworks contain gender equality enhancing strategies and some, such as the Kenya Vision 2030 and MTP2; Tanzania's FYDP II and Uganda's include costed flagship programmes with the potential to promote women's economic empowerment.

Kenya is the most advanced as regards making gender mainstreaming a statutory obligation. The Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Act (2015) guarantees women's access to public resources including contracts. The Performance Contract is a strategic tool for ensuring that MDAs implement Government's commitments to gender equality and women's empowerment. Uganda's PFMA of 2015 offers great potential for the institutionalisation of gender mainstreaming in sector planning and budgeting.

Table 2 summarises the national gender policy directives in the context of the roads sub-sector.

Table 2 Summary of National Gender Policy Directives in the Context of the Roads Sub-Sector

Policy Directive	Ghana	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Targeted sector Instrument
	Legislation/Policy/ Instrument				
Mainstream gender in transport policy /Address women's transport needs	- NDPF - NGP	- Vision 2030 - MTP2	- Constitution - Vision 2025	- Vision 2040 - NDPII	Ministry of transport
Adopt labour-based approaches.	-	-	-	- NDPII	Transport policy and strategic investment plans.
Provide improved access to reproductive health care.	-	- Vision 2030	-	- Vision 2030	
Provide improved access to schools.	-	- Vision 2030	-	- Vision 2030	
Promote female entrepreneurship in contracting and transport operations through skills development and the provision of incentives.	- NDPF	- Performance Contract	- FYDP II	- NDPII	
Allocate resources to remove barriers to women's participation in the transport sector, relative to men's.	- NDPF	- Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Act - Performance Contract	-	- PFMA	- Transport policy and strategic investment plans.
Allocate resources to enhance women's benefit from transport infrastructure and operations, relative to men's.	- NDPF		-	-	-
Mainstream gender in transport planning, budgeting and road improvement.	- NDPF - NGP		-	- Constitution	- FMA - Vision 2040 - NDPII
Provide/promote appropriate transport technologies for women.	-	- Constitution	- Constitution	- NDPII	Transport regulations.
Transport legislation and regulations should be sensitive to women's needs.	- Constitution - NDPF - NGP	- Constitution - MTP2	- Constitution - Vision 2025	- Constitution - NDPII	Transport legislation and regulations.
Address retrogressive cultural practices in construction projects.	- NDPF	-	-	- Constitution - Vision 2040 - NDPI	Transport policy, investment plans, guidelines.
Address SGBV in construction projects.	- NDPF	- Vision 2030 - MTP2	- FYDP II	- Constitution - Vision 2040 - NDPII	- Transport policy - Technical specifications. - Contract documents)
Provide women-friendly transport services, spaces and facilities.	- Constitution - NGP	- Vision 2030 - MTP2	- Constitution	- Constitution - Vision 2040	Transport regulations.
Address SGBV in public transportation	- NDPF	- Vision 2030 - MTP2	- FYDP II	- Constitution - Vision 2040 - NDPII	Transport regulations.
Ensure women's and girls' autonomous mobility and safety in public transport spaces.	- NDPF - NGP	- Vision 2030 - MTP2	-	- Constitution - Vision 2040 - NDPII	Transport regulations.
Gender balance in the governance of roads sub-sector institutions.	- Constitution - NDPF	- Vision 2030 - MTP2	- Constitution - Employment and Labour Relations Act	- Constitution - NDPII	Transport legislation setting up statutory bodies
Collect sex and gender disaggregated transport data to inform policy, plans and projects.	- NDPF	- MTP2 - Performance Contract	- FYDP II	- PFMA	Roads sub-sector institutions
Gender equality enhancing measures in the workplace.	- Constitution	- Employment Act	-	-	- Roads sub-sector institutions - Technical specifications for roads and bridges. - Contract documents (Consultants and contractors)
Non discrimination against women.	- Constitution - National Labour Act	- Constitution	- Constitution - Employment Act - Vision 2025	- Constitution	
Equal employment opportunities for women and men.	- Constitution - National Labour Act	- Employment Act	- Constitution - Employment Act	- Constitution - NDPI - Employment Act	
Affirmative action for women in infrastructure works/road projects.	-	- Vision 2030 - MTP2	- FYDP II	- Constitution - NDPI	
Affirmative action for women in recruitment and training.	- Constitution - NDPF	- Constitution - Employment Act	- FYDP II	- Employment Act	
Gender awareness creation and capacity building.	- NDPF	- Performance Contract	-	- NDPII	
Collect sex disaggregated employment and training data.	- NDPF	- Employment Act	- FYDP II	-	
Flexible working conditions for women	- National Labour Act	-	-	- Vision 2040	
Provide separate latrine/toilet/bathroom facilities for female and male employees.	-	- Employment Act	-	-	
Equal opportunities for female- and male-led contracting firms.	- Constitution - NDPF	- Constitution	- FYDP II	- Constitution - NDPI	
Fully paid maternity leave and job security.	- Constitution	- Employment Act	- Employment Act	- Employment Act	
Policy statement/code of conduct on sexual harassment in the workplace.	- National Labour Act	-	-	-	

4 Gender Relations in the Context of Rural Transport

4.1 Gender Profiles of the Case Study Countries

Whereas the four case study countries have relatively enabling environments for promoting gender equality, implementation of laws and policies that uphold and protect women's and girls' rights seems to be inadequate. This, coupled with retrogressive cultural practices restrict women's economic participation and opportunity, denies them a voice and decision-making power, and violates their safety and personal security.

4.1.1 Gender-based discrimination

According to the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) developed by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2014), women in the four case study countries experience medium (Kenya and Uganda) to high (Ghana and Tanzania) levels of discrimination. The SIGI is a composite index that measures gender-based discrimination in social norms, attitudes, practices that impose restrictions on women's and girls' access to rights, justice and empowerment opportunities. These translate into gender gaps in development outcomes such as labour force participation, levels of poverty and marginalisation, and education as outlined in the sections below.

4.1.2 Human development

The UNDP (2016) categorises Ghana amongst the countries with a medium human development, ranking 139 out of 188. At a rank of 146, Kenya is regarded as one of the rapidly developing countries. On the other hand, Tanzania is categorised among the poorest countries in the world, ranking 159. Uganda has the lowest level of human development amongst the case study countries at a rank of 163. Women in Uganda are particularly vulnerable to poverty with more female (62.8%) than male (50.5%) headed households experiencing multidimensional aspects of deprivation (GoU, 2014).

4.1.3 Prevailing gender inequalities

According to the UNDP Gender Development Index (GDI) Tanzania is categorised under group 3 that comprises countries with medium equality in human development achievements between women and men (UNDP, 2016). Kenya is categorised under group 4 that comprises countries with medium to low equality in HDI achievements between women and men. Ghana and Uganda are categorised under group 5 that comprises countries with the lowest equality in HDI achievements between women and men.

With regards to the Gender Inequality Index (GII) that benchmarks national gender gaps based on economic, political, education and health criteria, Uganda ranks 121 out of 159 countries assessed (UNDP 2016), largely due to the progress registered as regards women's political participation. Tanzania, Ghana and Kenya rank 129, 131 and 135 on the GII, respectively (ibid.).

With a ranking of 45 out of 144 countries assessed Uganda outperforms the rest of the case study (and other African) countries as regards the Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) that seeks to capture the magnitude of national gender-based disparities (WEF, 2017). Tanzania, Ghana and Kenya rank 68, 72 and 76 on the GGGI, respectively (ibid.).

According to WEF (2107), Ghana one of the high performers in respect to closing the gender gaps in labour force participation, wage equality and income ranking 14 out of the 144 countries assessed on the GGGI: economic participation and opportunity. All the four case study countries fare poorly with regard to women's educational attainment relative to men's. As regards women's political participation, Uganda ranks 30, closely followed by Tanzania at 44. In contrast, Kenya and Ghana

rank poorly at 83 and 112, respectively. This is attributed to relatively low proportions of seats held by women in the respective national parliaments.

Table 3 Some Key Gender Equality Indicators by Case Study Country

Index	Source	Year	Ghana	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Total Ranked	
Level of discrimination against women	OECD	2014	High	Medium	High	Medium		
Gender Development Index category	UNDP	2016	5	4	3	5	188	
			Rank					
Human Development Index	UNDP	2016	139	146	151	163	188	
Gender Inequality Index	UNDP	2016	131	135	129	121	159	
Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI)	WEF	2017	72	76	68	45	144	
GGGI: Economic participation & opportunity	WEF	2017	18	44	69	59	144	
GGGI: Educational attainment	WEF	2017	119	120	125	124	144	
GGGI: Political participation	WEF	2017	112	83	44	30	144	
Indicator	Ghana		Kenya		Tanzania		Uganda	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Demographics								
Population, total (millions)	27.4		46		53.5		39	
Rural population (%)	44		74.4		68.4		83.9	
Proportion of population (%)	51	49	51	49	51.3	48.7	51	49
Education								
Expected years of schooling	11.1	11.7	10.8	11.4	8.3	9.3	9.9	10.1
Mean years of schooling	5.8	7.9	5.7	7	5.4	6.2	4.5	6.8
Population with at least some secondary education (% ages 25 and older)	51.8	68.5	27.8	34.1	10.1	15.3	25.9	32.1
Population with no schooling (25+ years %)	43.0	26.6	24.9	27.0	32.3	18.6	33.7	13.3
Economic participation & opportunity								
Labour force participation rate (% ages 15 and older)	75.5	78.5	62.1	72.1	74	83.3	82.3	87.7
Estimated gross national income per capita (2011 PPP\$)	3,200	4,484	2,357	3,405	2,359	2,576	1,266	2,075
Reproductive Health								
Mandatory paid maternity leave (days)	84		90		84		84	
Adolescent birth rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15-19)	66.8		90.9		118.6		111.9	
Maternal mortality ratio (deaths/ 100,000 live births)	319		510		398		343	
Gender-Based Violence								
Violence against women ever experienced, intimate partner (%)	22.9		41.2		43.6		50.5	
Violence against women ever experienced, non-intimate partner (%)	4.2		3.5		2.9		3.7	
Political Participation								
Share of seats in parliament (% held by women)	10.9		20.8		36		35	

Sources: OECD, 2014. *Gender, institutions and development database*; UNDP, 2016. *Human Development Report 2016*; World Economic Forum, 2016. *The Global Gender Gap Report 2016*; World Bank, 2016. *Gender Statistics*

4.2 Gender, Work and Women's Time Poverty

Women's and men's work in rural African economies is generally gendered and this influences their daily mobility patterns. Women and men organise their lives differently within the framework of the family and the household.

4.2.1 Women's and men's work in the market economy

Women constitute a significant proportion of workers in agriculture, the largest and most important sector of African economies. For instance, in Ghana most rural women (67.9%) and men (74.5%) are employed in the sector (GSS, 2014a). In contrast, in Uganda 69 percent of the women compared to only 10 percent of the men are employed in agriculture (UBOS, 2014). Anecdotal evidence suggests that an estimated 70 percent of agricultural produce is carried by head loading, a task that is predominantly undertaken by women and their children (Tanzarn, 2013, Porter, Hampshire, Dunn

and Hall, 2013). In Kenya, women constitute 80 percent of the agricultural workers, are responsible for most of the food storage and transport from farm to the home (80%) and undertake 60 percent of the harvesting and marketing of crops (AfDB, 2007). In Tanzania, women comprise more than half (54%) of the agricultural labour force. Furthermore, 81 percent of the women compared to 73 percent of the men in employment are engaged in agriculture (FAO, IFAD and ILO, 2010).

In Tanzania, other than headloading/back loading, women are nearly absent from other forms of agricultural transport such as operating bicycles, motorcycles, pickups and lorries (Njenga, Willilo and Hine, 2015). In Uganda, women are, for the most part, not involved in agricultural marketing (MAAIF, 2010), beyond the first point of commercial interface.

Most of women's and men's trips to and from their fields and the markets are predominantly undertaken on community access roads or foot paths.

4.2.2 The care economy and women's work burden

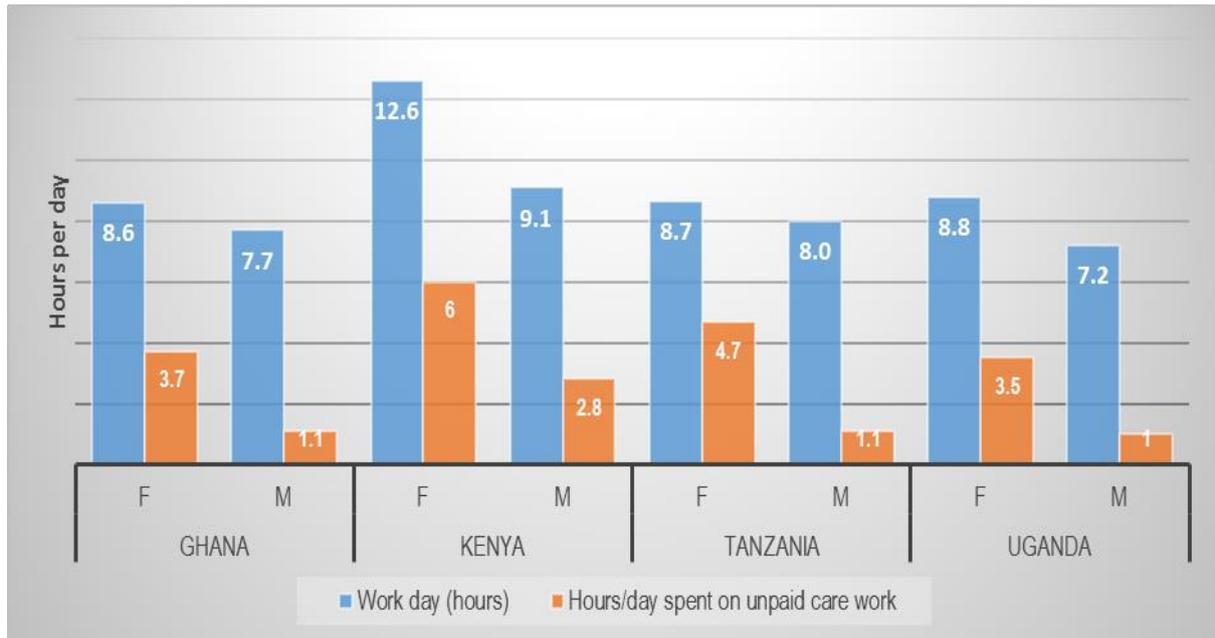
In addition to productive work, women take on a disproportionate responsibility of the labour and time intensive activities in the unpaid care economy. These involve work undertaken for the maintenance of the household and its members such as such as caring for children, the sick and the elderly as well as head and back loading heavy loads of water, firewood and food.

In Ghana, 68 percent of rural households use fuel wood for cooking, most of which [92.4%] is collected predominantly [71.6%] by adult women. Further to that, about five times the proportion of adult women (60%) compared to adult men (11.6%) fetch water for their households (GSS, 2012). Likewise, women in Tanzania participate more in providing unpaid domestic services (87%) than men (47%) (NBS, 2017). Likewise, women in Uganda bear a disproportionate burden of domestic work (74%) in general, fuel wood collection (70%) and fetching water for domestic consumption (63%) (UBOS, 2014). In Kenya, women are responsible for collecting drinking water in 57 percent of the rural households (KNBS, 2014).

Women and girls typically make more than one trip per day to fetch water frequently travelling long distances. Nearly half of the households in Tanzania (44%) and Uganda (47%) have to travel 30 minutes (round-trip) or longer for their water, compared to 15.1 and 27.8 percent for Ghana and Kenya, respectively (World Bank, 2016). In Kenya, 19 percent of rural households spend more than one hour a day fetching drinking water (Catholic Relief Service, 2010).

A time use survey conducted in four countries (Kenya, Nepal, Nigeria and Uganda) established that women in Uganda spend around 7.5 hours per day on unpaid care work, compared with under 2 hours per day for men. Additionally, women's workday is about 10 percent longer than men's (around 11.5 hours/day for women vs. 10.3 hours/day for men). In Kenya, the study showed that women spend less time on unpaid care work than their counterparts in Uganda (6 hours/day vs. 2.8 hours/day for men). However, their workday is much longer (12.6 hours/day), compared with men's (9.1 hours/day). In both countries, women spend around 2.5 times more time per day on fuel and water provisioning than do men (Budlender and Moussié, 2013).

Figure 1 Women’s Time Use Relative to Men’s by Case Study Country



Sources: Budlender D and Moussié R, 2013. making care visible: women's unpaid care work in Nepal, Nigeria, Uganda, and Kenya, GSS, 2012. Ghana time use survey 2009. how Ghanaian women and men spend their time. main report. NBS, 2014. Integrated labour force survey, Tanzania

A study in 7 communities in Western Kenya shows that women and girls in households with water connections save about 1.5 hours per day which they put to beneficial use (Crow, Swallow and Asamba, 2012). On account of climatic stress, women are increasingly being forced to walk even longer distances to fetch water and collect firewood. Long distances to reach the nearest potable source is one of the underlying factors for rural households not accessing safe water.

Rural women's role in agriculture coupled with the disproportionate burden of household work means that they are more labour constrained than men and face trade-offs among competing uses of time, which in turn limits their ability to engage in economic activities including employment opportunities in the transport sector. For instance, in Tanzania, more females (20.3%) than males (5.1%) report domestic care responsibilities as a reason for not being involved in income generating activities (NBS, 2014).

As with productive work, community access roads, tracks, paths and foot bridges are the main travel routes used for fetching water, collecting firewood and going to the grinding mills, schools and health facilities.

4.2.3 Summary analysis

The foregoing shows that women and men have distinct mobility patterns and accessibility needs. Yet dominant transport planning models rarely consider gender differences in accessibility, mobility, as well as use of transport services. The analysis also suggests that footpaths created as a consequence of human movements to destinations frequently used by the communities are important for both rural women and men in securing their livelihoods and sustaining their households.

Rural women’s travel patterns are more localised. However, their work in the care economy typically involves frequent and multipurpose trips. Additionally, women walk long distances carrying heavy loads without the benefit of labour or energy saving technology. Rural men’s travel, on the other hand, tends to be more direct, for example to and from the farm or other place of work.

Women are overburdened with domestic work and thus experience time poverty rendering their labour to not being easily transferable to road works. Time poverty imposes restrictions on women’s physical mobility relative to men thus influencing their economic choices and their ability to enhance and exercise their capabilities as well as participate in meetings where decisions are made, skills are developed and information is disseminated (Tanzarn, 2014). Time poverty also impacts significantly on how much time women can allocate for travel—where they go, for how long, and for what purpose, and the scheduling of trips they make (ADB, 2013).

Considering their reproductive role, women are disproportionately affected by long distances to health facilities, and in particular those offering child and maternal care. Time poverty further compounds their access to, and utilisation of services.

Maximising benefits of investments in rural transport infrastructure, to women and men, requires prioritising community access roads, foot paths and footbridges. Additionally, provisions in road projects such as childcare and breast feeding facilities as well as paid maternity leave can lift the constraints on women’s time and increase their participation in the labour force. Further to that, promoting intermediate means of, as well as non motorised transport (IMTs/NMTs) have the potential to alleviate the transport burden of rural women. This is particularly so in contexts where it is socially acceptable for women to utilise IMTs and their adoption result in redistribution of unpaid care work as men or boys start to collect water using an IMT, for instance (Starkey, 2001).

Transport infrastructure projects can also promote all-inclusive socio-economic viability through incorporating gender equality enhanceive components in the design. These could include interventions such as transforming gravel borrow pits into water resources or constructing road side markets, where there is a clear demand for such.

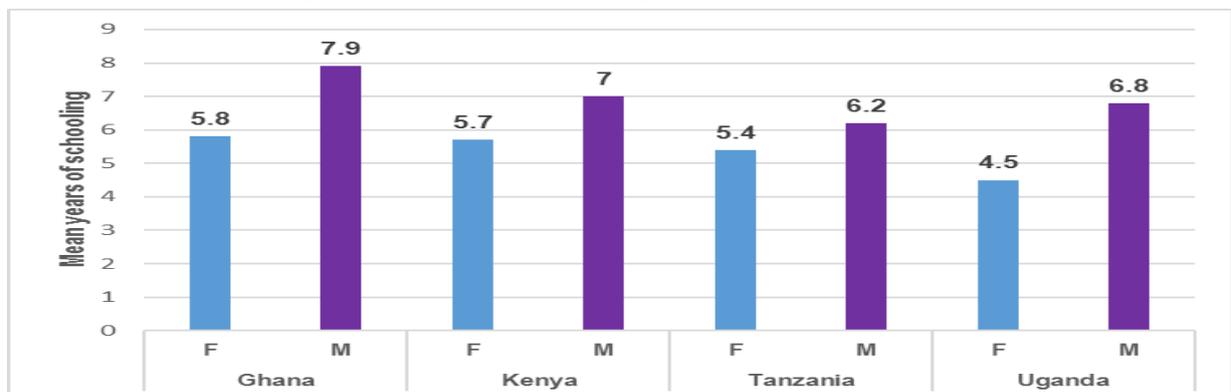
4.3 Resources, Power and Voice

As with work and time use, there are gender differences in security of access to productive assets such as human, natural and financial resources as well as social capital.

4.3.1 Restricted access to education and employment opportunities

Whereas gender parity in primary education is or has been nearly achieved in most study countries, inequalities still persist. More women than men aged 25 years or more, with the exception of Kenya, have never been to school (World Bank, 2016) and this is reflected in the mean years of schooling (see figure 2) and the relatively higher levels of female adult illiteracy rates. Illiteracy implies that many women experience restricted access to information on work opportunities, road safety, etc. that requires an ability to read and write.

Figure 2 Mean Years of Schooling by Study Country and Sex



Source: World Bank, 2016. Gender Statistics

Women are also under-represented in science-based courses in universities. For instance, in Ghana, the female share of graduates in engineering, manufacturing and construction is only 9 percent (World Bank, 2016). In Uganda, women constituted 17.6 and 11.4 percent of civil engineering and mechanical engineering graduates in 2012, respectively (Tanzarn, 2013).

Evidence from Ghana indicates that a negligible 0.1 percent of females compared to 19.4 percent of males aged 11 years and above had apprenticeship training in transport and material moving trades (GSS, 2014a). One barrier to women's participation in the rural transport sector labour force could be the long hours usually expended by workers. More than half of the workers in the transport and storage sector work for 60 hours or more per week. In contrast, 60.7 percent of the employees in agriculture, forestry and fishing work less than 40 hours per week (MoGCSP, 2015).

Women constitute only 8 percent of the engineering workforce in Kenya. Additionally, the majority of the actors in transport operations including owners, operators, traffic code enforcers are men. Women comprise 13.6 percent of the informal transport operators and an even lower 5 percent of the workers, the majority (62.3%) of whom are employed as conductors, office and route managers (Mwangi, 2014). In Tanzania, only 0.2 percent of the employed women are involved in in transportation and storage (vs. 5% men) and an even lower (0.1%) in construction (vs. 4% men) (NBS, 2014)

None of the civil engineering consulting firms in Uganda is owned by a woman and mainstream works/technical services departments are male dominated, with no female district engineers. Further to that, women generally constitute only 15 percent of works and transport sector public institutions in Uganda (Tanzarn 2013).

4.3.2 Insecure access to land

Restrictions on women's secure access to, and ownership of land persist in all the four case study countries despite legislative measures to redress the situation. This is largely on account of the existence of parallel legal systems consisting of statutory and (restrictive) customary laws that create contradictions and inconsistencies during implementation. Besides, women are not financially endowed to purchase land rights in the market.

Customary law predominantly governs the land tenure system in Ghana and considers property as a family asset to be administered by the family head, who is usually a man. As a result, only 8 percent of the women own land alone compared to 25 percent of the men (MoGCSP, 2015). In Uganda, discriminatory customary practices persist in regard to women's land rights, despite the government's adoption of the 2004 Land Act designed to improve women's access to land and grant them the right to manage their property (Uganda National Land Policy, 2013). Consequently, women represent one-third of owners or co-owners of land in Uganda (OECD, 2015).

Whereas women in Kenya are (legally) free to buy, own and sell assets as they choose, in practice, their access to land is severely restricted by customary law, which prevent them from owning or inheriting land and other forms of property. Accordingly, only 7 percent of the women own land alone compared to 28 percent of the men (KNBS, 2014). Women in Kenya are granted "life interest" in property rather than full ownership, which prevents them from using it as collateral for bank loans. In the event of the husband's death, this "interest" disappears upon remarriage. Even when women are able to acquire assets in their own name, their husbands often act as intermediaries in the transaction (OECD, 2014).

In Tanzania, the 1995 National Land Policy gives women the right to acquire and own land. However, this right is contradicted in the Policy itself, which states that family land will continue to be governed by “custom and tradition” with regard to inheritance (OECD, 2014).

The implications of women’s restricted access to land, relative to men’s, are many. First, most commercial banks require land title deeds as a guarantee to access loans essential for women to participate and compete effectively with men in the transport construction industry. Second, the needs of the landless are often not given adequate consideration in land acquisition (for road development), compensation and resettlement. Further to that, anecdotal evidence suggests that after being compensated for their land, many men abandon their wives and children and set up new families. Accordingly, women are likely to suffer the negative impacts of land acquisition and resettlement disproportionately.

4.3.3 Restricted access to financial capital assets

As noted above, women’s access to credit is, in part, curtailed due to their uncertain relations to land. In addition, most women do not have a secure personal income as many are in vulnerable employment as unpaid family workers and own-account workers. In Ghana, the average hourly earnings by women is 57 percent of that of men (MoGCSP, 2015). Additionally, 14 percent of the women are not paid for their work compared with 7 percent of the men (GSS, 2014b).

A higher proportion of women (20%) than men (7%) in Kenya is not paid for their work (KNBS, 2014). In Tanzania, salaries paid to women are on average 63 per cent lower than those paid to men. In Uganda, one out of every four compared to one out of every ten employed men (12%) is not paid for the work they perform (UBOS, 2011). Additionally, there are gender disparities in the median monthly nominal wages for paid employees in Uganda with women earning an average of half the pay of men (UBOS, 2014).

In Uganda, more women (31%) than men (27%) are excluded from financial institutions (UBOS, 2013). The proportion of women with accounts at formal financial institutions in 2014 ranged from 17 percent in Tanzania (vs. 21% for men) to 52 percent in Kenya (vs. 59% for men). In the same year, the proportion of female borrowers ranged from 35 percent in Ghana (vs. 38% for men) to 78 percent in Kenya (vs. 80% for the men). However, a significantly lower proportion of women ranging from 9 percent in Ghana to 21 percent in Kenya borrowed to start, operate, or expand a farm or business (World Bank, 2016). Further to that, most women borrow from family and friends rather than finance institutions and the amounts involved are relatively smaller compared to the men. Women experience inequitable access to credit facilities compared to those borrowed by men on account of poor access to information, lack of collateral, low literacy leading to inability to handle the loan processing procedures and the structure and terms of the loan that do not favour small scale enterprises.

Considering their low earnings compared to men coupled with the restricted access to credit, women are not likely to save enough to invest in means of transport or in infrastructure equipment, or construction enterprises. For instance, in Ghana more than 90 percent of males compared to less than six percent of females own a bicycle, motorbike, donkey or cart (GSS, 2012). A higher proportion of men than women in Uganda own bicycles (35.6% vs. 18.4%) and motorcycles (10.3% vs. 3.1%) (UBOS, 2014a).

Probably due to income poverty only two of the contracting firms registered with UNABCEC [Uganda National Association of Building and Civil Engineering Contractors) in Uganda, are owned by women (Tanzarn, 2013). Walking is the predominant means of transport for both rural women and men.

However, income poverty may impose restrictions on women accessing other modes of transport that require purchasing power.

Starkey (2001) argues that many socially important transport tasks, such as fetching water and collecting firewood, do not have easily quantifiable financial benefits that would justify investment in transport technologies. This could partly explain why transport technologies are predominantly designed without considering female user needs.

Table 4 presents some key indicators regarding distribution of assets between women and men in the case study countries.

Table 4 Some Key Indicators of Gendered Distribution of Resources by Case Study Country

Indicator	Year	Ghana		Kenya		Tanzania		Uganda	
		F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Population with no schooling (25+ years %)	2012	43.0	26.6	24.9	27.0	32.3	18.6	33.7	13.3
Female share of graduates in engineering, manufacturing and construction (% , tertiary)	2014	9.7		-		-		-	
Female share of graduates in science (% , tertiary)	2014	30.3		-		-		-	
Proportion that do not own land (% female/male, age 15-49)	2014	78.1		61.3		-	-	61.3	
Wage and salaried workers (% of female/male employment)	2013	11.4	25.3	-	-	10.7	21.4	13.4	26.1
Share of women in wage employment in the nonagricultural sector (% of total nonagricultural employment)	2013	31.9		35.7		32.5		34.7	
% of firms with female participation in ownership	2013	31.6		48.7		24.7		26.6	
Vulnerable employment	2013	-	-	-	-	79.7	68.5	85.5	72.1
Account at a financial institution (% age 15+)	2014	34.0	35.3	51.9	58.9	17.1	21.1	23.1	32.5
Borrowed any money in the past year (% age 15+)	2014	35.1	37.8	78.3	80.2	54.7	56.4	75	83
Borrowed to start, operate, or expand a farm or business (% age 15+)	2014	9.3	11.1	21.1	27.8	18.1	26.6	21.2	23.4

Source: World Bank. Gender statistics, 2016

4.3.4 Restricted voice and decision-making power

Women have limited decision making power over resource use as well as over their mobility. Women's decision-making power and status determine both their ability to choose their own development pathways and the well-being of their families. Even where women can access credit, they may not be able to control how it is used or its repayment.

In Ghana, more than 90 percent of rural men, compared to less than 6 percent of women, are involved in household decision-making (GSS, 2012). In Uganda, less than half [49%] of rural women exercise influence over how their cash earnings are used (UBOS, 2011). In Kenya more than half (51%) of the married women do not make independent decisions on how their cash earnings are used (KNBS, 2014).

As regards freedom of movement, 95 percent of Ugandans believe that women should seek permission from their spouse before undertaking a journey away from home, compared to only 50 percent who think that this restriction should apply to married men as well (OECD, 2015). Anecdotal evidence suggests that men also feel insecure when their wives start earning. Accordingly, husbands reportedly deny their wives the chance to participate in transport improvement projects.

4.3.5 Summary analysis

Women and men have different capabilities to participate in the design and delivery of transport infrastructure and services. Women have less access to employment generated in the transport sector due to under-representation in engineering, lack of information on recruitment opportunities; cultural issues over women working outside the home; and difficulties of organising childcare. Women are under-represented amongst transport professionals implying that their views and needs are not adequately reflected in policy, planning and infrastructure design.

Women also experience restricted access to productive assets, which limits their potential to invest in the sector. Additionally, due to their limited purchasing power, women are disproportionately affected by high transportation costs.

Promoting gender equality thus calls for defining quotas for women's representation in the unskilled labour market (through promotion of labour-based approaches) as well as affirmative action for qualifying female professionals in rural transport projects. Additionally, offering capacity-building and providing flexible credit facilities to female entrepreneurs has the potential to promote their effective participation along the rural transport value chain.

Further to that is the need for gender awareness creation to change attitudes and practices that result in asymmetries in allocation of household resources and decision-making power.

4.4 Safety and Personal Security

4.4.1 Gender dimensions of public transport and road travel spaces

A travel survey conducted in Uganda concluded that public transport and road travel spaces are gendered (Tanzarn, 2013). Whereas the survey was conducted in an urban setting, many of the findings are applicable to rural areas. The survey established that the priority concern for both female and male pedestrians is the issue of safety on the roads for vulnerable users who also include cyclists. Women [91%] expressed more concerns for personal safety, crime and disorder than men [78%]. Some women reported that the fear of losing personal items restricted them from travelling to certain parts of the city. Both female and male pedestrians identified unlit spaces and ways, both in the city and the suburbs, as one of the causes of physical and gender based violence on the roads.

The risk of sexual violence restricts women's and girls' participation in economic, political and social activities outside the home after dark. Besides high tuition fees, the reasons cited by parents in Uganda for not taking their girl children to secondary school is the fear of their daughters walking very long distances in relatively unsafe environments (MoES, 2004).

As regards public transport space in Uganda, most male users (83%) of passenger service vehicles pointed to the lack of regulation resulting in high transportation costs as their biggest challenge. In contrast, most female users (84%) identified sexual harassment, by transport operators and fellow passengers as their biggest concern. Furthermore, they pointed out issues such as disrespectful transport operators who physically and verbally assault women on account of being pregnant, travelling with young children and being "inappropriately" dressed (Tanzarn, 2013).

A study conducted in Kenya identified use of insulting language (26 being forced into vehicles by operators (23%) and unwelcome and indecent touching by male crews (18%), as the most common forms of violence against women and girls in public transportation (Women's Empowerment Link, 2015). Others include rape, overcharging, denial of bus fare balances and stripping of female commuters.

Head and back loading over long distances is a safety issue that has not been given due consideration in policy and practice. Besides the health risks, overloading on the head or back may affect women's ability to see and hear the sound of oncoming vehicles, potentially contributing to number of accidents. Women are disproportionately affected by accidents as both victims and caregivers of survivors.

4.5 Sexual and Gender-Based Violence in Transport Infrastructure Projects

Sexual and gender based violence is pervasive. This is despite the study countries, with the exception of Ghana, having legislation specifically criminalising sexual harassment. SGBV is perpetuated by unequal power relationships between women and sanctioned by gender norms. Transport infrastructure projects can potentially promote SGBV as a result of the influx of migrant labour and income, especially in large projects.

Safety of women and girls living near construction sites is thus a concern. Transport infrastructure construction workers spend considerable amounts of time away from their families and have a regular supply of money from their work. Many engage in casual and multiple sexual relationships some of which result in unwanted pregnancies and increase exposure to health risks such as sexually transmitted infections including HIV and AIDS. This is in contexts where many women and girls are largely not aware of their rights (Tanzarn, 2016).

There have been reported incidences of defilement of girls by road workers as well as sexual harassment of female employees in Uganda that led to the cancellation of a World Bank funded project in 2015.³ However, most cases of sexual violence go unreported. The survivors fear to report lest they are stigmatised. The perpetrators bribe their way to freedom, which further discourages reporting. Poor parents prefer to settle out of court, for money (Tanzarn, 2016). In Uganda, inadequate transport is another barrier mostly because the level of courts handling sexual violence cases are too far and are thus largely inaccessible to the survivors. (MoJCA, 2012)

4.6 Summary analysis

Safety issues in transport services have a gender dimension that appears to be invisible to policy makers and planners. Yet concerns about being exposed to accidents and SGBV can serve as barriers to women's and girls' use transport services and participation in road improvement projects, respectively.

Promoting safe transport services for both women and men requires mainstreaming gender in traffic and safety regulations and ensuring enforcement. Creating safe spaces for women in construction projects entails, amongst other things, providing separate bathroom facilities and sleeping arrangements for the female and male workers. Where applicable, project managers should enforce legislative and/or contractual obligations on SGBV. Further to that, projects should institute and popularise codes of conduct clearly outlining unacceptable behaviour and consequences for sexual harassment and other gender based violence.

Community awareness creation on rights. Involving women's groups as well as engaging men are powerful entry points for addressing SGBV in construction.

5 Gender Responsiveness of the (Rural) Transport Sector

This section presents a comparative analysis of how the respective national gender policy frameworks translate into the (rural) transport sector of the case study countries. The section also assesses to what extent the policy and regulations take into consideration the following gender dimensions of transport, namely:

- Socio-cultural norms and practices play a dominant role in the rural transport economy.
- Women are overburdened with domestic and productive work and this imposes (time) restrictions on their participation in the transport economy.

³ <http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2015/12/21/wb-statement-cancellation-uganda-transport-sector-development-project>

- Women and men have distinct mobility patterns and accessibility needs.
- Women are under-represented in road construction and transportation due to gender inequalities in capabilities and opportunities.
- Rural women bear a disproportionate transport burden.
- Transport and travel spaces are gendered and can potentially promote SGBV.
- Considering their socially ascribed caring role, women tend to travel with children, the sick and elderly.

5.1 National Transport Policies

Whereas gender is not systematically mainstreamed in the national transport policies of the four case study countries, the policies contain directives with the potential to address some of the prevailing inequalities in the roads sub-sector.

Ghana

One of the objectives of Ghana's **National Transport Policy, 2008** (MoT, 2008) is to promote the role of women in the transport sector as providers of services, professionals and managers. The Policy contains the following gender and equity sensitive directives:

- a. Ensure that transport regulations do not discriminate against women, children, older people and physically challenged.
- b. Consider accessibility needs of women, children, older people and physically challenged in transport facilities.
- c. Develop and enforce regulations to ensure minimum standards of accessibility are provided and maintained for women, children, older people and physically challenged in transport facilities.
- d. Subsidise transport services targeting the most vulnerable and excluded groups, using appropriate models such as public service obligation or subsidy concession.
- e. Invest in transport infrastructure and services that meet the vision of providing access and mobility to all users, particularly the poor and physically challenged.
- f. Develop NMT infrastructure to improve affordability and accessibility for urban and rural communities aiming at 10 percent of passenger movement.
- g. Raise awareness of benefits of NMT especially the use of bicycles and pedestrian safety.

Kenya

The **Integrated National Transport Policy, 2009** (MoT, 2009) acknowledges that women bear a disproportionate burden of the household social and economic activities. Adding that, women, especially in poor rural and informal urban settlements, spend a lot of time walking in search of basic needs, leaving them with very little time to engage in viable commercial and economic activities. Further to that, the Policy points out that women transport goods by back and head loading, as they have no access to other modes of transport.

The Policy underscores the potential role of non-motorised and intermediate of transport (NMIMT) in, amongst other things, alleviating women's transport burden. It thus commits the Government to creating a conducive environment for the development and use of NMIMTs, especially among women. Further to that, it commits to the provision of appropriate basic road infrastructure, furniture and other amenities including pedestrian crossings, walkways, footbridges and other facilities for NMIMTs.

The Policy points out the prevalent prejudices against NMIMTs, in general, and their use by women and girls, in particular. The Policy thus commits the sector to promote the increased use of NMIMTs through awareness creation campaigns addressing gender, and other stereotypes.

Tanzania

The **National Transport Policy** (MoCT, 2003) identifies gender as one of the issues of concern in the sector. Adding that most movements in the rural areas are on footpaths, tracks and trails away from the formal road network. Furthermore, walking distances as far as 10 km, and head/back loading dominate travel and transport activities in rural areas. The Policy points out that women are traditionally most active in the day-to-day upkeep of rural life, adding that they spend an estimated 75 percent of their time walking long distances to their farms, to fetch water and to collect firewood.

The Policy points out that NMTs such as bicycles, tricycles, animal drawn carts and wheelbarrows are variably used depending on income levels, availability of appropriate livestock, equipment, terrain and social cultural factors. Furthermore, in Tanzania, only 25 percent of the total carriage in rural areas is undertaken using NMTs, which reduces efficiency and perpetuates poverty in the rural areas.

One of the objectives of the Policy is to minimise rural transport-related problems affecting women. The proposed Policy direction to alleviate rural women's transport-related concerns include:

- a. Promote women's participation in the provision of transport services.
- b. Promote cheap NMT technology.
- c. Awareness creation to promote the use of NMTs among women in rural uses.
- d. Use participatory approaches to organise households to contribute to the improvement of village infrastructure
- e. Improve rural transport infrastructure in the rural areas to cater for all means of transport, including NMTs.
- f. Mainstream gender in corridor development and management.

Tanzania's draft **National Transport Policy** (MoT, 2011) is even more progressive and proposes to put in place legal instruments, including enacting a law, to support the implementation of, *inter alia*, gender mainstreaming in the sector. The Policy direction on gender includes:

- a. Annual joint sector reviews to include monitoring the performance of ministries, public sector entities, and private sector (contractors, consultants and operators) as regards sensitivity to gender.
- b. Gender auditing plans and designs for transport infrastructure, equipment and services.
- c. Mainstreaming gender in bidding and procurement documents.

Uganda

The **Transport Policy and Strategy, 2003** (MoWHC, 2003) provides for equal opportunities to be accorded to women to obtain gainful employment or to provide services in the construction industry and in ministries and Government agencies. Further, it commits Government to ensure that all relevant gender concerns are taken into account in the planning, design and construction of infrastructure and that adequate facilities or mitigation measures are provided to the satisfaction of both men and women. In addition, it states that all the stakeholders in the industry will be made aware of gender issues and be required to conform to the appropriate legislation and regulations.

Table 5 Gender Score Card of National Transport Policies

Key Gender Mainstreaming Indicators	Ghana	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda
	National Transport Policy, 2008	Integrated National Transport Policy, 2009	National Transport Policy, 2003	Transport Policy and Strategy, 2003
A SITUATION ANALYSIS				
Does the document acknowledge?				
Women's relative to men's time use	NO	YES	NO	NO
Women's time poverty	NO	YES	YES	NO
Gender differences in resource ownership	NO	NO	NO	NO
Restricted women's decision-making power	NO	NO	NO	NO
Women's relative to men's transport burden	NO	YES	YES	NO
Differences in women's relative to men's travel patterns	NO	NO	PARTLY	NO
Differences in women's relative to men's transport needs	YES	NO	PARTLY	NO
Women's relative to men's safety and personal security	NO	NO	NO	NO
SGBV in infrastructure projects	NO	NO	NO	NO
SGBV in public transportation	NO	NO	NO	NO
Women's restricted mobility	NO	NO	NO	NO
Women's restricted employment opportunities in the sector	YES	NO	NO	NO
Women's restricted access to means of transport	YES	PARTLY	PARTLY	NO
Women's restricted entrepreneurship in the transport sector	NO	NO	NO	NO
Retrogressive socio-cultural norms and values impose restrictions on women's demand for and benefit from the sector	NO	PARTLY	YES	NO
B OBJECTIVES AND STRATEGIES				
Does the document include gender objectives?				
Does the document include the following gender strategies/activities?	YES	NO	YES	NO
a. Affirmative action for women	NO	NO	NO	YES
b. Flexible credit facilities for women	NO	NO	NO	NO
c. Capacity building for women	YES	NO	NO	NO
d. Women friendly working environment	NO	NO	NO	PARTLY
e. Gender awareness creation	NO	YES	YES	YES
f. Addressing sexual and gender based violence in construction	NO	NO	NO	NO
g. Addressing sexual and gender based violence in public transportation	NO	NO	NO	NO
h. Providing safe travel spaces	NO	NO	NO	NO
i. Promoting NMTs/IMTs	YES	YES	YES	NO
j. Prioritising investments in community access roads	NO	NO	YES	NO
k. Prioritising investments in foot paths and bridges	NO	YES	YES	NO
C PERFORMANCE MONITORING				
Does the document include gender sensitive indicators?				
Does the document provide for the collection of sex and gender disaggregated data?	NO	NO	NO	NO
D GENDER BUDGETING				
Are resources allocated for implementing the prioritised gender strategies?				
	NO	NO	NO	NO

5.2 National Construction Policies

Tanzania

The National Construction Industry Policy (NCIP) (MoW, 2003) acknowledges that despite efforts to involve women in road works, their level of participation remains low. Further to that, the Policy asserts that due to limited technical skills, the few women employed in construction tend to be confined to manual jobs, adding that women are under-represented amongst artisans, technicians and technical professionals in the construction industry. One of the Policy objectives is to promote women's participation in construction industry activities.

The Policy commits the sector to the following:

- Promote women's participation in the construction industry through implementing positive discrimination measures.
- The government and the stakeholders of the industry shall promote the development, participation and representation of women and youth in the construction industry to enable them acquire marketable skills and thus enhance their income generation opportunities.

- c. The Government shall establish coordination units to facilitate implementation of women and youth participation activities at regional levels.
- d. Promote voluntary collaboration forums for women and youth in technical fields related to the construction industry.

Uganda

The Policy for Developing and Strengthening the National Construction Industry, 2010 (MoWT, 2010) commits the Government to various implicit and explicit measures to promote gender equality in road construction as follows:

- a. Periodically generate disaggregated baseline data upon which policy makers and planners will draw to design efficient and effective interventions that will respond to the needs of the marginalised groups in the construction industry.
- b. Disseminate guidelines to stakeholders aimed at achieving fairness in resource and opportunity distribution.
- c. Provide an enabling environment where both women and men participate in, and benefit from, developments in the construction industry in an equitable manner.
- d. Ensure that resources are allocated in a manner that responds to the identified needs of the marginalised groups.
- e. Incorporate concerns of the marginalised groups in specifications, standards, manuals, tender documents and guidelines for physical infrastructure works.
- f. Periodically provide training and sensitisation of all stakeholders on issues and concerns of marginalised groups in implementation of physical infrastructure facilities.
- g. During procurement of public works and services, consider only contractors and consultants with gender sensitive health schemes which take into account all people including the marginalised groups such as women and youths including maternity and paternity concerns.
- h. Increase awareness and promote use of labour-based technology in order to, *inter alia*, create employment for specifically marginalised citizens. The Policy states that there will be gradual increases in the use of labour-based methods targeting at achieving the following minimums:
 - Main roads – 10%
 - District and urban roads – 50%
 - Other civil engineering works – 50%

The Policy provides a very good foundation for effective gender mainstreaming in all the constitutive aspects of the roads construction industry. Apart from the attempts to disseminate the gender mainstreaming guidelines, there is no evidence of implementation of the Policy commitments to gender equality. According to the representative of the Uganda National Association of Building and Civil Engineering Contractors (UNABCEC) interviewed, the only attempt at gender mainstreaming by the association is employing women in decision-making in their contracting firms. The representative pointed out women's lack of physical strength and sexual harassment in road projects as some of the barriers to women's involvement in the construction sector.

Table 6 Gender Score Card, National Construction Policies

Key Gender Mainstreaming Indicators	Tanzania	Uganda
	National Construction Industry Policy 2003	National Construction Industry Policy, 2010
A SITUATION ANALYSIS		
Does the document acknowledge?		
Women's time poverty	NO	PARTLY
Gender differences in resource ownership	NO	NO
Restricted women's decision-making power	NO	NO
Women's relative to men's safety and personal security	NO	NO
SGBV in infrastructure projects	NO	NO
Women's restricted employment opportunities in the sector	YES	PARTLY
Women's restricted entrepreneurship in the transport sector	YES	PARTLY
Retrogressive socio-cultural norms and values impose restrictions on women's demand for and benefit from the sector	NO	PARTLY
B OBJECTIVES AND STRATEGIES		
Does the document include gender objectives?		
	YES	NO
Does the document include the following gender strategies/activities?		
a. Affirmative action for women	YES	PARTLY
b. Flexible credit facilities for women	NO	NO
c. Capacity building for women	NO	PARTLY
d. Women friendly working environment	NO	YES
e. Gender awareness creation	NO	YES
f. Addressing sexual and gender based violence in construction	NO	NO
g. Prioritising investments in community access roads	NO	N/A
a. Promote labour-based approaches	NO	YES
b. Mainstream gender in specifications, standards, manuals, tender documents, financial planning	NO	YES
c. Gender considerations in procurement	NO	YES
d. Stakeholder gender capacity building	NO	YES
C PERFORMANCE MONITORING		
Does the document include gender sensitive indicators?		
	NO	NO
Does the document provide for the collection of sex and gender disaggregated data?		
	NO	YES
D GENDER BUDGETING		
Are resources allocated for implementing the prioritised gender strategies?		
	NO	PARTLY

5.3 Transport Sector (Investment/Development) Plans

Ghana

The **Integrated Transport Plan (ITP) for Ghana, 2011-2015** (MoFEP, 2010) acknowledges the persistent disparities between women and men as regards access to and control over productive, human and social capital assets. Adding that whereas there are some female engineers and contractors, the majority of women are employed as labourers in road projects. The ITP recognises that women bear a disproportionate transport burden. The ITP objectives include promoting equality to ensure that all transport infrastructure and services provide adequate access for women, children, older people and physically challenged.

The Plan includes the following gender and equity sensitive strategies:

- a. Mainstream gender in the transportation system.
- b. Incorporate gender analysis in all transport planning to identify potential gender outcomes before project implementation.
- c. Promote cycle use amongst women to replace human portorage.
- d. Education campaign in villages and cities to address the cultural barriers to women cycling.
- e. Micro-credit or subsidies to enable women purchase bicycles.
- f. Promote NMT and IMTs.

The **draft Sector Medium-Term Development Plan, 2014-2017** (MoT, 2014) is not informed by a gender analysis but commits the Government to continue promoting women's participation in the transport sector service delivery.

Ghana's National Transport Policy (2008) contains proposals to subsidise transport services targeting the most vulnerable and excluded groups and to develop and enforce regulations to ensure minimum standards of accessibility are provided and maintained for women, children, older people and physically challenged. The Tanzania National Transport Policy (2003) proposes to promote women's participation in the provision of services.

Kenya

The Road Sector Investment Programme and Strategy (RSIP), 2010-2024 (MoR, 2010) outlines the strategies, programmes and projects for the development of road infrastructure in the short, medium and long-term to enable achievement of the Kenya Vision 2030. The RSIP recognises women's triple roles as income earners, home-makers, and community managers. Furthermore, it acknowledges that due to their socially ascribed roles of carrying fuel, water, and agricultural produce, often by head-loading, women experience a disproportionate transport burden. And yet they have less access than men to private vehicles, public transportation and NMTs. In addition, these transport tasks are unpaid as well as time consuming, leaving women little time to participate in formal employment.

The RSIP highlights how culture and the inequitable intra-household power relations contribute to gender inequalities in transport, which in turn reinforce women's disadvantage as follows:

- a. Poor women are more dependent on public transportation than men. However, the off-peak and peripheral public transit routes on which many women depend for their travel to shopping or social facilities receive less priority than the radial commuter corridors that go straight to the city centre.
- b. Although women carry the lion's share of the transport burden, services, at the times they need them and at prices they can afford, rarely exist.
- c. The most predominant mode of travel for low income women is walking and head-loading.
- d. Women make shorter, more frequent and more dispersed trips than men.
- e. Rural women in Africa transport at least three times more ton-kilometres per year than men.
- f. Women in urban areas experience restricted access to transport services either because these are too expensive or inconveniently located.
- g. Besides walking, cycles or animal-drawn carriages are the most accessible and affordable modes of transport available for women. However, prevailing socio-cultural norms impose restrictions on women's use of these NMTs. For instance, in many societies, it is culturally unacceptable for women to ride bicycles and yet these represent the most appropriate means for shorter and medium length trips with multiple stops.
- h. Transport infrastructure and services do not benefit women and men equitably. Rather, they largely serve men who work in the formal sector, but are generally lacking for women in their roles as informal sector traders, subsistence farmers, and transporters of children (to school and health facilities) as well as water, food, and fuel for domestic use.

One of the underlying principles of RSIP is the full participation of both women and men in road management. The RSIP identifies gender mainstreaming among the critical aspects to the successful delivery of transport projects. Additionally, it acknowledges that transport interventions that respond to women's transport needs expand their income-earning activities, increase their productivity and promote gender equality. Accordingly, the RSIP recommends that transport

planning should be informed by a gender analysis. Further to that, it underscores the need for a roads sub-sector gender policy and mainstreaming guidelines.

One of the RSIP prioritised actions is the provision of NMT facilities such as cycle tracks and footpaths as well as the construction of pedestrian crossings during road improvements. Citing the success of the labour-based Rural Access Roads Programme, Minor Roads Programme and Roads 2000 Programme in generating employment opportunities for women, the RSIP recommends the use of innovative infrastructure delivery procedures to promote gender equitable transport.

The RSIP proposes a checklist of questions to be used during the preparation stage of transport projects capturing the following:

- a. Women's time use and travel patterns relative to men's.
- b. Women's transport needs relative to men's.
- c. Responsiveness of transport infrastructure and services to women's needs relative to men's.
- d. Cultural, time, economic and other barriers to women's access to transport relative to men's.
- e. Women's relative to men's participation in the prioritisation and design of the respective transport project.

To ensure that the roads sub-sector addresses cross-cutting issues, the RSIP allocates a dedicated budget of KShs 2 billion annually for gender and equity mainstreaming.

Tanzania

The **10-Year Transport Sector Investment Programme (TSIP)** (MoID, 2008) acknowledges that due to a lack of a well-developed transport system in the rural areas, social and economic services are typically scarce and unaffordable. Adding that vulnerable groups, and in particular rural women who, spend most of their time walking long distances to fetch water, collect firewood and to access social services, bear the brunt of this burden.

Two of the TSIP objectives are explicitly gender sensitive: i) Ensure gender mainstreaming in all issues related to transport development; and ii) Ensure that transport development takes into consideration issues related to the disadvantaged groups including women, children, people with disabilities, and rural communities.

The TSIP specifies the following strategies to address gender-related transport concerns:

- a. Undertake studies on the gender dimensions of the transport sector including appropriate actions to be taken.
- b. Give priority to infrastructure projects that give due consideration to gender and that also promote women's participation in their development and execution.
- c. Increase women's participation in the management and operations of the transport sector through capacity building.
- d. Facilitate vulnerable groups to effectively participate in the transport sector.
- e. Roll out the VTTP (this includes development of community roads/paths/tracks/footbridges, IMTs and non-transport interventions) to all districts.
- f. Promote cheap NMTs such as carts, bicycles and tricycles sector.

The TSIP allocated USD 53.50 million for implementing cross-cutting issues including environment, safety and HIV/AIDS, over the five-year period, 1.9 percent (USD 1 million) of which was explicitly dedicated to gender mainstreaming.

Uganda

MoWT Sector Strategic Plan 2011/12-2015/16 (MoWT, 2011) is completely silent on gender. The Strategic Plan does make reference to the MoWT Gender Policy Statement for the Roads Sub-Sector issued in 2008.

The MoWT is in the process of reviewing and updating the Strategic Plan, providing an opportunity to incorporate a gender dimension.

The **Third Road Sector Development Programme (RSDP3)** acknowledges that the efforts to promote gender equality in the roads sub-sector through policy and mainstreaming guidelines have not yielded the expected results (MoWT, 2012b). Adding that road policies, programmes, and monitoring and evaluation frameworks (M&E) do not systematically address gender.

To address these gaps, the RSDP3 considers gender and livelihood strategies amongst the strategic socio-economic and socio-cultural issues to be addressed. Further to that, it recommends various actions for promoting gender equality in the road sub-sector, namely:

- a. Budget lines for environmental social impact assessment (ESIAs) must allow for adequate consultations with women and men about their transport needs in order to inform the design, implementation and monitoring of RSDP3 road projects.
- b. Bills of quantity (BOQ) for road projects and annual work plans should include a sum for gender analysis, mainstreaming and monitoring (e.g. 1% of project cost).
- c. Gender focal persons should be appointed in all road sector agencies in line with the MoGLSD directive.
- d. Inter-sectoral planning should seek participation from the MoGLSD and related agencies for proposed development of road sector policies, plans and programmes. This can be funded by the Road Fund.
- e. Training in gender awareness and gender analysis should be done through incorporation of gender in all transport-related training institutions including their curriculum and training materials.
- f. To monitor and evaluate men's and women's participation in the programme, gender audits should be carried out during project implementation.
- g. The collection of gender-disaggregated data needs to be improved to better inform policy and planning, and for monitoring the effectiveness of gender-mainstreaming initiatives. This data should be inputted into the UNRA database (since UNRA already has the capacity to expand its database to accommodate this type of data), and it should be accessible to all road sub-sector institutions.

The **Strategic Implementation Plan for the National Transport Master Plan (2015-2023)**, which defines the general orientations of the Government of Uganda in terms of transport infrastructure is completely silent on gender (MoWT, 2015). This suggests that transport infrastructure planning is likely not to be responsive to the distinct mobility and transport needs of women and men.

In addition to the mainstreaming policies, Uganda has a gender sensitive Non-Motorised Transport Policy (2012) and draft Rural Transport Policy and Strategy (2013), as well as a Policy Statement of Mainstreaming Gender in the Roads Sub-Sector (2008). Uganda's Road Safety Policy of 2014 is reportedly 'gender blind' and does not ensure women's personal security and safety during travel.

Table 7 Gender Score Card: Transport Sector (Investment/Development) Plans

Key Gender Mainstreaming Indicators	Ghana		Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda		
	Integrated Transport Plan for Ghana, 2010	Draft Sector Medium-Term Development Plan, 2014	RISP, 2010	TSIP, 2010	Sector Strategic Plan, 2011	RSDP3, 2012	SIP, 2015
A. SITUATION ANALYSIS							
Does the document acknowledge?							
Women's relative to men's time use	NO	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO
Women's time poverty	NO	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO
Gender differences in resource ownership	YES	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO
Restricted women's decision-making power	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Women's relative to men's transport burden	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO
Differences in women's relative to men's travel patterns	NO	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO
Differences in women's relative to men's transport needs	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO
Women's relative to men's safety and personal security	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
SGBV in infrastructure projects	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
SGBV in public transportation	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Women's restricted mobility	NO	NO	YES	PARTLY	NO	NO	NO
Women's restricted employment opportunities in the sector	NO	NO	NO		NO	NO	NO
Women's restricted access to means of transport	NO	NO	YES	PARTLY	NO	NO	NO
Women's restricted entrepreneurship in the transport sector	NO	NO	NO		NO	NO	NO
Retrospective socio-cultural norms impose restrictions on women's demand for and benefit from the sector	NO	NO	YES	PARTLY	NO	YES	NO
B. OBJECTIVES AND STRATEGIES							
Does the document include gender objectives?	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO
Does the document include the following gender strategies/activities?							
a. Affirmative action for women	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO
b. Flexible credit facilities for women	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
c. Capacity building for women	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO
d. Women friendly working environment	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO
e. Gender awareness creation	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO
f. Addressing SGBV violence in construction	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
g. Addressing SGBV in public transportation	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
h. Providing safe travel spaces	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
i. Promoting NMTs/IMTs	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO
j. Prioritising investments in community access roads	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO
k. Prioritising investments in foot paths and bridges	NO	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO
C. PERFORMANCE MONITORING							
Does the document include gender sensitive indicators?	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Does the document provide for the collection of sex and gender disaggregated data?	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO
D. GENDER BUDGETING							
Are resources allocated for implementing the prioritised gender strategies?	NO	NO	YES	YES	NO	PARTLY	NO

6 Gender Mainstreaming in Practice in Rural Transport Programmes

This section presents illustrative cases of best practice of mainstreaming gender along the road improvement cycle from the four country case studies with an emphasis on tools and drivers of success, based on the following projects:

- a. **Ghana:** World Bank funded Second Transport Rehabilitation Project (TRPII: 1991-1997)
- b. **Kenya:** Government of Kenya and French Government funded Roads 2000 Programme Central Phases 1 and 2 (Roads 2000/AFD 1 & 2: 2007-2011, 2013-2017)

- c. **Tanzania:** Village Travel and Transport Programme (VTTP: 1995-2004) and Local Government Transport Programme (LGTP: 2008-ongoing)
- d. **Uganda:** Danida funded Road Sector Programme Support Phases 1 and 2 (RSPS1 & RSPS2: 1999-2002, 2003-2007) and the Rural Roads Programme (RRP: 2008-2010)

The projects were assessed against a predefined checklist. As indicated in the methodology section, we were unable to access a complete project document set of both the TRPII and the VTTP to conduct a comprehensive assessment.

6.1 Project Identification

All the projects assessed were informed by baseline studies that identified various pertinent gender issues. The baseline studies leading up to the VTTP, whose implementation started in 1994, were among the first in Africa to recognise the disproportionately heavy transport burden borne by women.

The TRPII baseline surveys identified head portage as a massive burden for women in the project communities. The surveys pointed to cultural gender norms, particularly women’s lack of confidence in the presence of men, as an issue. Further to that, they established that poverty rather than culture was the potential barrier to women’s use of bicycles in the project communities. Additionally, they revealed that the number of women willing to work more than exceeded the estimated labour demand for the project. The project also identified women’s time use relative to men’s as an indicator of gender inequality. Further to that the TRPII supported the recruitment of a UN volunteer with specialisation in women’s development to provide support to the project manager. Two NGOs were identified to serve as a liaison between the project and the female beneficiaries.

Under the Agence Française de Développement (AFD) funded Roads 2000 project, baseline studies were conducted to establish the level of women’s engagement in business activities that could potentially be impacted on by the project. RSPS1, RSPS2 and RRP recognised the need for the utilisation of women-specific channels to disseminate employment and training opportunities and recommended the use of non-State gender justice organisations for the purpose. RSPS1 underscored how the interplay of social norms, values and practices undermine women and privilege men.

Table 8 Levels of Gender Sensitivity in the Identification of the Study Transport Projects

Checklist for assessing gender sensitivity in project identification	Ghana: TRPII	Kenya: Roads 2000/AFD	Tanzania: VTTP & LGTP	Uganda: RSPS1, RSPS2 & RRP
Gender expertise in project formulation team?	YES	NO	-	YES
Women and men consulted to identify their aspirations and transport needs.	YES	NO	YES	YES
A gender analysis was conducted establishing the prevailing gender relations in respect to:				
• Women’s unpaid and paid work relative to men’s?	YES	NO	-	YES
• Women’s time use relative to men’s?	YES	NO	-	YES
• Women’s poverty levels relative to men’s?	YES	NO	-	YES
• Women’s educational levels relative to men’s?	YES	NO	-	YES
• Distribution of resources between women and men?	YES	NO	-	YES
• Women’s transport burden?	YES	NO	YES	PARTLY
• Discriminatory cultural practices that could restrict women’s participation in the project?	YES	NO	NO	YES
• Women’s groups identified which could be involved in the mobilisation of labour/as small-scale labour-based (LB) contractors?	YES	NO	YES (LGTP)	YES
• Opportunities for strengthening women’s participation relative to men’s identified?	YES	NO	YES	YES
Tools/approaches to identify gender issues and needs identified?	YES	NO	NO	YES
Institutional gender capacity gaps identified?	YES	NO	NO	YES

6.2 Project Design and Appraisal

The respective project formulation documents were reviewed to assess the extent to which these were responsive to the gender and mobility/accessibility issues identified and to determine the measures put in place to address the potential barriers to women's equitable participation, relative to men's. The assessment also established whether dedicated resources were allocated to implement and indicators defined to monitor the defined gender strategies a gender appraisal was conducted and the related findings and key recommendations including measures to minimise potential negative impacts on gender relations.

6.2.1 Strategies to address gender and mobility/accessibility issues

The two key strategies adopted by the projects to address the gender and mobility/accessibility issues identified were promotion of NMT and IMTs as well as prioritising investments in community access, foot paths/bridges.

One of the RTPII strategies was the introduction of low-cost IMTs, including bicycles and trailers, aimed at reducing head portage and thus alleviating women's transport burden. VTTP interventions explored possibilities of transferring some of women's transportation responsibilities to men through the use of IMTs. Phase 2 of the LGTP provides for the promotion of IMTs as cost-effective local transport. The RSPS1 piloted a community transport and travel programme (CTTP) designed to generate lessons for promoting IMTs and for improving local transport infrastructure. RSPS2 included a community access component while the main focus of RRP was district roads and community access.

6.2.2 Measures to improve women's participation in, and benefit from projects

The projects included various measures to promote women's participation as follows:

1. Defining minimum quotas for women's participation

The minimum target for women's participation in the RTPII and Roads 2000/AFD was 70 and 30 percent, respectively. The LGTP provides for affirmative action for women. Whereas RSPS1, RSPS2 and RRP provided for affirmative action for women during training and selection of the contractors and recruitment of labour for the road works, no predefined targets were set.

2. Promoting women's voice

The LGTP explicitly stated that the programme would ensure that women would be given a voice in decision-making processes. The RSPS1 emphasised the importance of involving women, as road users, in the transport improvement agenda. Further to that, it required road prioritisation procedures to solicit and incorporate women's views.

3. Awareness creation on rights and entitlements

Gender awareness creation was one of the predefined RSPS1, RSPS2 and RRP strategies intended to increase the participation of women in what is traditionally a male-predominated sector. Both the RTPII and Roads 2000/AFD included community gender sensitisation in the project activities.

4. Providing women-friendly work spaces

RSPS1 required contractors to provide separate facilities for women and men in road labour camps. RSPS2 obliged the MELTC master plan incorporates accommodation and facilities for women. RRP specified that project implementation would take into consideration women's work burden and time poverty informed by a mapping of the prevailing gender division of labour in the respective beneficiary communities.

5. Capacity-building for women

Phase 2 of the LGTP provides for the promotion of women's participation in the management and operations of the transport sector through *inter alia* capacity building with respect to financial and procurement procedures. RSPS1, RSPS2 and RRP provided for the inclusion of women in road-related training. RSPS1 specified that contractors would be encouraged to employ women in non-traditional areas and to promote their leadership as supervisors, forepersons, gang leaders, storekeepers.

6. Promotion of labour-based methods

RSPS1, RSPS2, RRP and TRPII adopted labour-based approaches to road improvement, in part, to promote (unskilled) women's participation in and benefit from the respective programmes.

7. Gender responsive non-transport interventions

Gender was given prominent consideration as regards non-transport VTTP interventions. The TRPII included well digging and woodlot plant amongst the project activities in response to women's expressed concern about the long distances they walked to fetch water and fuel wood. The project also included provision of food supplements and nutrition education to ensure that the nutritional status of female workers was not affected by the additional physical effort required for road building. The trunk road component of RSPS1 included a gender responsive socio-economic sub-component to maximise returns to the communities.

8. Institutionalise gender mainstreaming in the [rural] transport sector

Phase 2 of the LGTP provided for studies on gender dimensions of transport including recommendations on appropriate actions to be taken. One of the RSPS1 strategies was to review road sector documents, including training manuals, for improved gender sensitivity. RSPS2 specified the following strategies

- Incorporate specific gender recruitment, including sensitisation and mobilisation requirements into contract documentation.
- Develop and institutionalise national guidelines for gender assessment and management for the road sector.
- Develop mandatory gender equal opportunities labour recruitment procedures including sensitisation and mobilisation for incorporation into road works contracts.
- Review and revise the Mount Elgon Labour-Based Training Centre (MELTC) curricula and training manuals for further gender sensitivity.
- Review and revise guidelines for selection and registration of contractors for MELTC training to ensure equal opportunities for women.

6.2.3 Gender sensitivity of performance monitoring framework

The RTTPII included the following performance monitoring indicators:

- Women employed in project and their income/expenditure in project area.
- Women engaged in productive/ income generating activities.
- Incidence of head portage.
- Number of range of community self-help activities.

The VTTP monitoring and evaluation framework included indicators for impacts of the transport interventions on the transport burden of women in terms of time and effort. The LGTP formulation document specified that there would be a gradual introduction of (gender sensitive) implementation targets to give time to test and perfect the procedures. The LGTP has provisions for indicators that are supposed to be embedded in contracts to oblige contractors to record employment created for women and men. The project performance monitoring indicators include:

- Women's participation in decision-making bodies related to local transport infrastructure.
- Studies successfully carried out on barriers to gender equality in the transport sector.

The RSPS1 provided for:

- A study to be conducted to inform the mainstreaming of gender in implementation.
- The revision of social and gender baseline and performance monitoring indicators for road works.
- The revision of formats and modalities for reporting on gender in the road sector.
- Monitor trainee, tender documents as well as contractor gender compliance.
- Monitoring tender documents and contractor gender compliance.
- The collection of gender disaggregated road works data.
- The establishment of a road sector social and gender information system and database.

RSPS2 and RRP included costed and time-bound gender management and action plans with verifiable indicators to guide the systematic mainstreaming of gender in the respective project components. The RRP provided for flexibility regarding setting quotas for women's participation and required district engineers to set quarterly/annual targets that could be realistically attained, bearing in mind the importance of ultimately achieving the 30 percent minimum set by the MoWT. The annual reviews of RSPS1, RSPS2 and RRP included an assessment of the extent to which progress had been achieved in fulfilling the gender objectives of the respective projects and recommendations for changes needed, as appropriate.

6.2.4 Gender responsive budgeting

The projects provided budgetary allocations to enhance gender outcomes. RTPII allocated US\$2.98 million (3.1%) of the total project sum of US\$ 96.0 to activities designed to achieve gendered outcomes. Both phases of the Roads 2000 project allocated a dedicated budget for mainstreaming cross-cutting issues, including gender. The RSPS1 recommended a dedicated budget line of about 5 percent to facilitate gender-oriented activities for all future Danida funded road projects.

6.2.5 Project appraisal

The feasibility studies of RSPS1, RSPS2 and RRP included an assessment of the steps taken to mainstream gender equality and women's empowerment, including objectives and indicators, in the formulation documents. RSPS1, RSPS2 and RRP acknowledged that the use of labour-based approaches to road works coupled with the promotion of women's participation was likely to lead to sexual relationships between workers themselves, or between workers and members of the local communities thus increasing the risk of HIV infection.

Table 9: Gender Responsiveness in the Design of the Study Transport Projects

Checklist for assessing gender responsiveness of project design	Ghana: TRPII	Kenya: Roads 2000 /AFD	Tanzania: VTTP & LGTP	Uganda: RSPS1, RSPS2 & RRP
Gender equality objectives?	-	NO	-	YES
Gender specific outputs?	-	PARTLY	-	YES
Gender specific strategies:	-	NO	-	YES
• Promote NMT and IMTs?	YES	NO	YES	YES (RSPS1)
• Prioritise investments in community access, foot paths/bridges?	-	NO	-	YES
• Minimum quotas for women's participation/ affirmative action for women?	YES	YES	YES (LGTP)	YES
• Promote women's voice?	-	NO	YES (LGTP)	YES (RSPS1)
• Awareness creation on rights and entitlements?	YES	YES	-	YES
• Provide women-friendly work spaces?	-	NO	-	YES
• Capacity-building for women?	YES	-	YES (LGTP)	YES
• Promote of labour-based methods?	YES	YES	YES (VTTP)	YES
• Gender responsive non-transport interventions?	YES	NO	YES (VTTP)	YES (RSPS1)
• Institutionalise gender mainstreaming in the transport sector?	NO	NO	YES (LGTP)	YES
Provision for gender expertise in implementation?	YES	YES	-	YES
Provision for women's groups'/local government officers' participation in implementation?	YES	NO	YES (LGTP)	YES
Gender sensitive baseline indicators defined?	PARTLY	PARTLY	-	YES
Gender sensitive performance and impact indicators defined?	YES	PARTLY	YES	YES
Dedicated budget for gender mainstreaming?	YES	PARTLY	-	YES
Gender appraisal conducted?	NO	NO	-	YES

6.3 Implementation, Monitoring and Reporting

The reviewed projects adopted various approaches to, and tools for mainstreaming gender in implementation as documented below and summarised in Table 10.

Implementation of RTPII works was usually task based thus allowing women some level of flexibility to balance their project work with their domestic responsibilities. Additionally, the workers who were unable to work could opt to send relatives to perform their tasks on their behalf, thus allowing further flexibility to women's labour and time use. During implementation of the TRPII, women's domestic work burden was identified as a barrier to the achievement of the target of 70 percent.

The Roads 2000/AFD project socio-economic baseline studies captured data on women's cumulative participation in the project, as labourers and their level of engagement in business enterprises alongside the respective road link to be improved. The VTTP review ToRs specified that the review team would consider among others, application of participatory procedures and flexibility of methods and gender sensitivity. The ToRs also required a gender balanced evaluation team.

Gender awareness creation for attitudinal and behavioural change amongst all stakeholders was integral to community mobilisation before the start of RSPS1 and RSPS2 project activities. The RSPS1 project work day was, for the most part, structured to facilitate women's participation. The project implementation and evaluation teams of RSPS1, RSPSII, RRP and for both phases of Roads 2000/AFD included a sociologist/gender expert.

All the projects had an aspect of institutionalising gender in the [rural] transport sector either through capacity building, engendering policy or training material. However, none put in place measures to address potential SGBV. The projects, with the exception of were also quite weak with regards to gender reporting and knowledge sharing.

Table 10: Gender Sensitivity in Implementation, Monitoring and Reporting

Checklist for assessing gender sensitivity of project implementation	Ghana: TRPII	Kenya: Roads 2000 /AFD	Tanzania: VTTP & LGTP	Uganda: RSPS1, RSPS2 & RRP
Gender expertise integral to project implementation?	-	YES	-	YES
Flexibility in work and training schedules taking into consideration women's domestic burden and relative immobility?	YES	NO	-	PARTLY
Flexibility in execution of tasks?	YES	NO	-	PARTLY
Reasonable walking distance from home to work or training sites?	YES	YES	-	YES
Separate toilet facilities for female and male workers on work sites and training?	-	YES	-	PARTLY
Child care facilities near the worksite with paid childminder?	-	NO	-	PARTLY
Maternity and paternity leave for workers?	-	YES	-	YES (RSPS1)
Minimum quotas for women's participation in employment and training?	YES	N/A	-	YES
Affirmative action for women workers and women's small contracting firms?	YES	PARTLY	-	YES
Institutional gender capacity building?	YES	NO	-	YES
Sex and gender disaggregated data for time poverty (or use), home-work site distance, and labour etc.?	YES	PARTLY	-	PARTLY
Gender equality bills of quantity in contract documents?	-	NO	-	YES
BOQs for road projects include a sum for gender analysis, mainstreaming and monitoring?	-	NO	-	YES
Gender awareness creation of communities?	YES	PARTLY	-	YES
Gender training of implementing staff and/or a gender specialist on the team?	YES	YES	-	YES
Resource-bound gender management/implementations plan?	NO	NO	-	YES
Zero tolerance to sexual harassment?	NO	NO	-	NO
Code of conduct including measures to minimise sexual and gender based violence?	NO	NO	-	NO
Checklist for assessing gender sensitivity of project monitoring				
Project monitoring reports on progressive achievements in gender equality and women's empowerment?				
• No of women relative to men employed disaggregated across different project components/skilled/unskilled?	NO	NO	-	PARL LY
• No of women's relative to men's workdays?	YES	YES	-	YES
• No of female relative to male participants of different project capacity building?	NO	NO	-	YES
• No of women relative to men in leadership positions in project i.e. as gang leaders?	NO	NO	-	YES
• No. of women relative to men assigned tasks that challenge the status quo/do not reflect traditional roles?	NO	NO	-	YES
• No of women's group/small contracting firms involved in implementation?	NO	NO	-	YES
• Total wages earned by women relative to men?	NO	NO	-	NO
• No of qualifying women offered maternity leave?	NO	NO	-	NO

6.4 Evaluation and Gender Outcomes

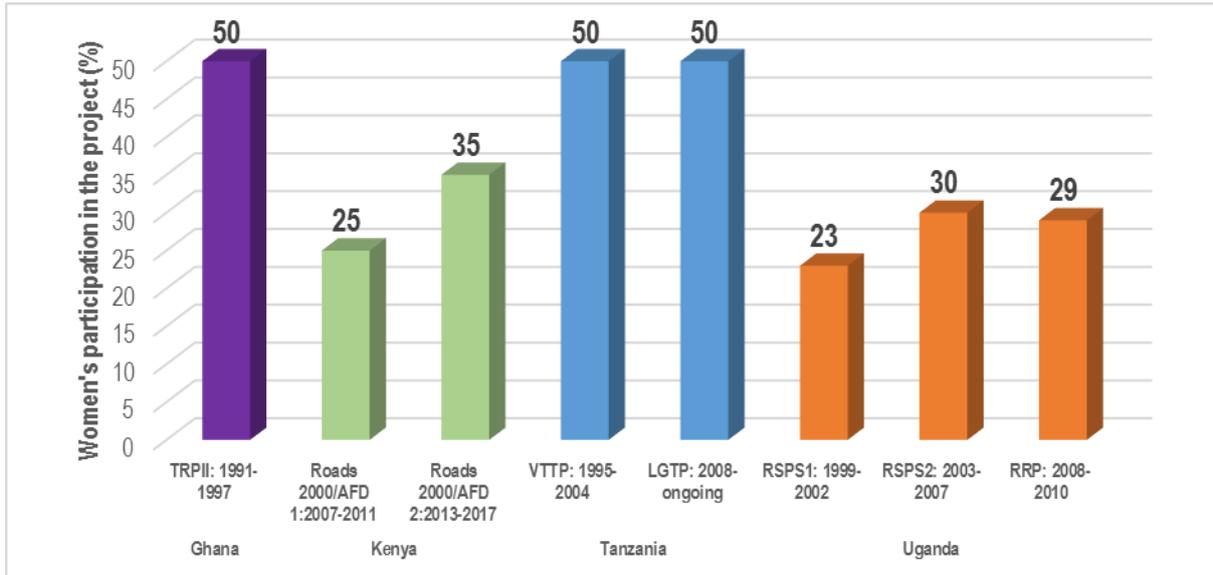
This section presents the quantitative and qualitative outcomes of the different projects on gender equality and women's empowerment as documented in the various evaluation reports.

6.4.1 Women's Participation in the Projects

The projects achieved varying levels of women's participation. Under TRPII, women constituted an average of 50 percent of the labourers, which could be attributed to the ambitious target set (70%). Women's participation in VTTP activities was 50 percent or more and in the LGTP, it was an average of 50 percent. Women comprised 25 percent of the total person days generated in phase 1 of the Roads 2000/AFD project, which was lower than the defined target of 30 percent. This increased to 35 percent during the second phase as a result of changes made to ensure women-friendly work site i.e. provision of mobile toilets and breast feeding.

The highest percentage achieved as regards women's participation in the trunk road rehabilitation component of the RSPS1 was 17.1 percent. This was quite impressive considering that the project employed equipment-based approaches to road works. Women's labour in contracted works of the district roads component of the RSPS1 constituted 23 percent of the total 485,000 worker days. Under RSPS2 and RRP, about 30 percent of labour-based worker-days were undertaken by women.

Figure 3 Women's Participation by Project and Case Study Country



6.4.2 Contribution to the alleviation of women's transport burden

Whereas the bicycle-trailers and Single-wheel Farm Vehicles (SFV) introduced under the TRPII were considered unaffordable by many households, some women used their earnings from the project to purchase the former, thus potentially contributing to the reduction of the prevalence of head portering. Women were major beneficiaries of the auxiliary works of the trunk road rehabilitation component of the RSPS1. These included improvements in health facilities, water supplies, market structures, school facilities, and the rehabilitation of several community access roads.

6.4.3 Promoting women's entrepreneurship in the construction industry

One of the three sub-contractors under the equipment-based trunk road rehabilitation component of the RSPS1 was a woman. Under the RSPS1 district roads component, women constituted 11 percent of the total person training days in labour-based methods (LBM). Further to that 5 percent of the 20 private sector firms trained and eligible for certification as LBM contractors (rehabilitation) were owned by women. Furthermore, females comprised 106 of the 514 firms/individuals (20.6%) prequalified and trained by MELTC to undertake labour-based routine maintenance. Women comprised about 15 percent and 2.5 percent of the trained contractor staff under RSPS2 and RRP, respectively.

6.4.4 Contribution to institutionalising gender dimensions of transport

The VTTP contributed to the improved visibility of women's transport burden. As a result of the RSPS2, the MoWT started including activities and budgets to support the improvement of community access roads in its development programmes. In financial year 2009/2010, the Uganda Road Fund disbursed funds, for the first time, for bottlenecks removal on community access roads. The MELTC extension service to local governments and the private sector resulted in a wider appreciation of gender issues in the road sub-sector, countrywide.

6.4.5 Gender capacity building of State and non-State institutions

CSOs attached to the project received training in gender and acquired skills in the construction of wells. RSPS1, RSPS2 and RRP offered training to engineering and non-engineering staff of the respective project beneficiary districts.

6.4.6 Challenging gender stereotypes

Women's participation in non-traditional road activities such as concrete works and mechanical engineering works, including equipment operation, reached a peak of 13.3 percent during implementation of the trunk road rehabilitation component of the RSPS1. 70 percent of the trained contractors had women in supervisory positions of forepersons and gang leaders. Further to that, women's participation in construction site meetings ranged from 16-21 percent. Women also comprised of 37 percent of the community members engaged in the 7,416 spin off businesses from the RSPS1, most of them selling food and beverages to the workers. As a result of their participation in the project, many women gained confidence and stood for elective positions in local elections. Increasingly positive attitudes towards female contractors and labourers.

Table 11: Gender Sensitivity in Project Evaluation

Checklist for assessing gender sensitivity of project evaluation	Ghana: TRPII	Kenya: Roads 2000 /AFD	Tanzania: VTTP & LGTP	Uganda: RSPS1, RSPS2 & RRP
Gender expertise in evaluation team?	-	YES	-	YES
Evaluation reports include:				
• Proportion of women relative to men employed by category: target and achievement?	PARTLY	YES	PARTLY	YES
• Proportion of total workdays undertaken by women?		YES	NO	YES
• Proportion of women relative to men benefitting from different aspects of project capacity building?	NO	NO	-	YES
• Proportion of women, relative to men, in leadership positions in the project?	NO	NO	-	YES
• Institutional gender capacities built?	PARTLY	NO	-	YES
• Proportion of wages earned by female and male workers?	NO	YES	-	YES
• Qualitative gender outcomes i.e. extent to which infrastructure assets and services produced through the project:				
- Address women's time poverty?		NO	-	YES (RSPS1)
- Address women's transport burden?	YES			NO
- Challenge prevailing gender norms?	YES			YES
- Promote more equitable division of labour between women and men?	NO	NO	-	YES (RSPS1)
- Promote women's participation in leadership positions in road works as well as in community structures?	NO	NO	-	YES (RSPS1)
- Strengthen women's relative to men's security of access to resources?	YES	NO	-	YES (RSPS1)

6.5 Lessons Learnt Implementing the Reviewed Rural Transport Projects

This section presents the lessons learnt based on the most and least successful approaches, methods, processes, and practices adopted during the course of the projects reviewed. A key lesson is the need for the adoption of a systematic approach to mainstreaming gender along all stages of the road improvement cycle based on a comprehensive (and mandatory) gender analysis. The significance of documenting and sharing lessons learnt to achieve continuous improvement of mainstreaming gender in transport projects. Is also underscored. So is the need to address prevalent gender norms that impose restrictions on women's participation in, and benefit from transport projects relative to men.

6.5.1 Ghana

1. Within tight timeframes, the mandatory analyses, such as those for procurement, financial management and safeguards, often take precedence over social and gender analysis.
2. Transport projects that incorporate components designed to respond to community needs contribute to enhanced acceptability and promote (community) participation.
3. The TRPII evaluation reported that the target of 70 percent women's participation was not met because some of the tasks, such as excavation of materials and loading on the trucks and trailers were found to be difficult for women and resulted in initial setbacks including delays.

6.5.2 Kenya

1. Providing a gender-friendly working environment is key to women's participation in transport projects.
2. Gender mainstreaming in transport project goes beyond targeting women's participation.

6.5.3 Tanzania

1. Documentation of good practices is key to upscaling results. For instance, whereas there is anecdotal evidence of good gender mainstreaming practices in the VTTP, most of these were not documented.
2. Similarly, the wide range of gender mainstreaming practices in the LGTP are not captured and disseminated due to the lack of routine evaluation.

6.5.4 Uganda

1. The sustained focus on mainstreaming gender during the formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the three projects drew attention to the significance of gender equality but the deeply ingrained practices limited the desired outcomes. Mainstreaming gender in projects can only be achieved after a sustained period of systematic and constant attention.
2. Baseline studies are key to analysing the underlying gender inequalities and are the foundation for defining appropriate approaches corresponding to the varying socio-cultural variations.
3. One of the underlying reasons for the low visibility of (gender mainstreaming) outcomes is the lack of clarity about how to mainstream and to measure progress.
4. Adoption of LB approaches to road improvement as well as investment in community access offer the greatest potential development impact on gender equality. The gender outcomes of investment in national road sector institutions, national gravel roads as well as district roads are medium.
5. Effective gender mainstreaming requires defining clear objectives, instituting accountability mechanisms; (gender) expertise and providing a dedicated budget.
6. Application of participatory methodologies that involve Government and CSOs enhances women's participation relative to men's.
7. Gender sensitive performance indicators need to be clearly defined, realistically measurable and should, preferably, be integrated into the existing monitoring systems.
8. Including exact specifications on how to address gender in contract and BOQs improves enforcement especially when combined with a separate budget line.
9. Tender specifications and tender evaluation criteria that allocate points to the use of female labour and supervision, provision of special facilities for women and men (toilets, shelter for children, etc.) improve women's participation.
10. To ensure the effectiveness (and acceptability) of a gender specialist/sociologist on the contractor's team:
 - a. The ToRs for the specialist need to be outlined in the tender documents, including objectives, outputs and activities.
 - b. The specialist should be mobilised at the beginning of the project.
 - c. Contract documents provide an operational budget for the specialist.
11. Regular monitoring of the extent of compliance to gender mainstreaming is critical in gaining knowledge and insight into an area (transport) that is generally difficult to grasp.
12. The lack of penalties for non-compliance resulted in the non-enforcement of the contractual obligations to gender mainstreaming.
13. Women are generally willing to work if given the opportunity and their participation contributes to breaking the stereotype that road works are for men.

14. Contractors perceive women to be more disciplined, trustworthy and reliable workers and achieve better quality LB works than men, albeit at a slower rate.
15. Due to prevalent gender stereotypes (i.e. women not speaking freely in the presence of men), parity in representation in road/work committees does not necessarily result in gender-responsive decision-making.
16. Supporting technical education of women and small-scale labour-based contracting industries provide strategic entry points for gender mainstreaming.
17. Most success in increasing women's participation in road projects was achieved at the lowest levels due to either limited technical background, unwillingness of the female engineering professionals to work in rural areas or their preference to stay in town with their families.
18. Provision of a regular income (through LB approaches) even over a short period helps many women to escape poverty since they tend to invest their earnings in income generating activities.
19. Women's participation in road projects improves their confidence to aspire for community leadership positions thus improving their status in society and contributing to the attainment of gender equality.

6.6 Institutionalising Gender Mainstreaming in the Transport Value Chain

This section illustrates how the good practices identified in the case study projects influenced gender mainstreaming in the respective countries' rural transport policy landscape.

6.6.1 Ghana

Some aspects of rural transport in the current Ghana transport policy might have had their root in the success of the RTPII. However, RTPII appears not to have influenced gender mainstreaming in Ghana's (rural) transport sector. Ghana's drive towards mainstreaming gender in (rural) transport projects, particularly those funded by the Government, reportedly ended with the completion of the donor-funded project. For instance, the quota defined for women's participation in Government-funded labour-based works is currently 30 percent. It is not surprising then that the RTPII implemented between 1991-1993, is considered to be the most successful rural transport programme with a gender dimension that has been implemented in Ghana.

The Government-funded Cocoa Roads Rehabilitation Programme (COCOBOD, 2015-2020) does not have specific gender equality objectives. Women's direct involvement in the project includes providing water to the project site.

The gender mainstreaming success of the RTPII was not upscaled due to possibly the lack of an enabling gender policy environment at the time. The Ghana case study concludes that whereas almost all donor-funded programmes have gender mainstreaming components, those funded by the Government do not always consider this as critical.

6.6.2 Kenya

The AFD-supported project contributed to the implementation of Government's Roads 2000 Strategy Roads. It is, however, not clear to what extent project impacted on Kenya's rural transport policy, in general and on the Roads 2000, in particular.

6.6.3 Tanzania

The VTTP provided a pioneering perspective on the gender dimensions of rural transport at a time when knowledge in the area was very limited. This contributed to the integration of gender in subsequent policies and programmes such as the National Transport Policy (2003) and The Local

Government Transport Program-District Roads Management. The rural roads component of the LGTP programme has sought to replicate some of the approaches from the VTTP.

6.6.4 Uganda

All three projects recognised the need for capacity building in gender analysis, planning and implementation as a way of ensuring that this is routinely addressed by road sector institutions and incorporated in relevant structures and systems. Further to that, they acknowledged the need for a policy framework to provide guidance on gender mainstreaming. The projects underscored the need for awareness creation of policy makers, planners, road construction managers and contractors about the significance of promoting women's participation and mainstreaming gender in the roads sub-sector.

Each project had a component on institutional support to both the ministries of transport and that of finance. The major gendered outcome of support to this component was the institutionalisation of the good gender mainstreaming practices through the publication of national manuals, contract documents, and guidelines as well as the formulation of policy documents.

The projects supported the preparation of the following documents, which were adopted by the Government. The documents are either focused exclusively on promoting gender equality and women's empowerment in the roads sub-sector or have an explicit gender dimension.

- a. MoWHC, 2002. Final Draft White Paper on Sustainable Maintenance of District, Urban and Community Access Roads
- b. MoWHC, 2002. District Road Works Vol. No.5, Manual C: Gender Guidelines for District Engineers
- c. MoWHC, 2002. District Road Works. Vol 1: Planning Manuals. Manual A: Functional road classification. June 2002.
- d. MoWHC, 2002. District Road Works. Vol 2: Contract Documentation Manuals. Manual B: Contract documentation and procedures for labour-based routine maintenance. June 2002
- e. MoWHC, 2005. General Specification for Roads and Bridge Works, January 2005
- f. MoWT, 2008. Gender Policy Statement for the Roads Sub Sector. January 2008
- g. MoWT, 2008. Gender Mainstreaming Guidelines for the Roads Sub Sector. January 2008
- h. MoWT, 2012. Monitoring and Evaluation Framework for Cross-Cutting Issues in the Transport Sector. Monitoring indicators for environment, gender, HIV/AIDS, OSH and PWDs
- i. MELTC, 2011. Curriculum of Labour-Based Roads Work Training. For training both the public and private sector
- j. MoWT, 2009. Community Access Planning Manual
- k. MoWT, 2009. Reference Guide for Road Management Committees

An evaluation of Danish assistance to Uganda concluded that in terms of impact, Danida and non-Danida informants perceived Danish assistance to have been key in getting gender equality and women's empowerment onto the (transport) policy agenda. Most of the research participants in this study concurred with this view and generally agreed that: "One is ruled out of order if they do not include women and/or gender in whatever transport intervention".

The projects contributed to gender equality being given due consideration in, *inter alia*, the National Construction Industry Policy; the RSDP2 and the Strategy for Sustainable Maintenance of District, Urban and Community Access Roads.

Not all the above documents have been fully implemented or utilised and gender is not systematically addressed during road design, implementation and monitoring. This is reportedly, in part, due to gender being the least of Government priorities.

7 Conclusions and Recommendations

This section draws general conclusions from the case studies and proposes actions that could be considered to strengthen knowledge creation, management and embedment essential for sustainable mainstreaming of gender in rural transport. The country-specific recommendations are contained in the four case study reports.

1. Lack of political commitment was identified as a challenge in the Ghana and Uganda case studies so is the perception that gender mainstreaming is a donor-driven agenda.

Recommendation:

- Engage transport policy makers with regards to the significance of gender mainstreaming.

2. Lack of quantitative evidence base to effectively advocate for gender mainstreaming.

Recommendations:

- In collaboration with the respective country bureaus of statistics, support baseline surveys to collect nationally relevant data on gender relations in the context of rural transport.
- Support the transport sectors to incorporate sex and gender disaggregated data in their respective transport management systems.

3. Gender is not systematically mainstreamed in most transport policies and some countries lack rural transport and NMT policies.

Recommendations:

- Support the review and engendering of transport policies and investment plans.
- Support the development of gender responsive rural transport and NMT policies for Ghana, Kenya and Tanzania.

4. There is a general lack of capacity to use gender as a framework to create new knowledge and stimulate gender-responsive transport solutions.

Recommendation:

- Gender capacity building of African transport and engineering professionals/researchers.

5. The four case studies generated information on various approaches that different countries and transport projects have adopted to mainstream gender in policy and practice, some of them more effective than others.

Recommendations:

- Support the dissemination of the results to a wider audience to gain an understanding of the gains of gender equality and to facilitate the replication of the good mainstreaming practices.
- Support the development of a gender mainstreaming reference manual, including a checklist and practical examples for Government and other actors involved in the rural transport sector.

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Annex A Glossary of Key Terms

Sex and Gender

Sex is the biological difference between women and men. Sex differences are universal: they are the same throughout the human race and involve women's as well as men's bodies. The term gender refers to the economic, social, political and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female. Gender is determined by the conception of tasks, functions and roles attributed to women and men in society and in public and private life. In most contexts, women and men differ in the activities they undertake, in access to and control over resources, and in participation in decision-making. These differences limit the ability of women to develop and exercise their full capabilities and therefore, their full participation in and benefit from investments in the transport sector.

Time Poverty

Time poverty refers to working long hours with insufficient time for rest and leisure. Women are more time poor relative to men due to their work in the household which includes fetching water, collecting fuelwood, cooking, cleaning and taking care of the young, the sick and the old. As such they are relatively immobile compared to men and their labour is not easily transferrable to infrastructure improvement projects especially if it involves travelling long distances from home. For equitable benefits for women and men, training and work sites should be a reasonable distance from the communities and transportation projects should offer child care facilities as well as flexibility in the execution of the work.

Gender Analysis

A systematic way of examining the attribution and organisation of roles, responsibilities, resources and values attached to women and men in order to assess the differences and inequalities between them and to map out their specific interests, opportunities, constraints and needs in relation to transport.

Gender Equality

Equal enjoyment by women and men of transport infrastructure, services and employment and other opportunities in the sector. For example, equal pay for equal work, equal numbers of male and female workers, equal representation of men and women in staffing, equal allocation of budget and other resources to respond to women's relative to men's needs.

Gender Equity

Appropriate and fair allocation of human, physical, social, financial and other resources in the transport sector to address the specific needs and aspirations of women and men. For instance, considering that women are less educated and less skilled than men, the transport sector should provide capacity building for women to ensure equitable participation in, and benefit from employment opportunities accruing from investments in infrastructure.

Gender Mainstreaming

Mainstreaming gender is a strategy to achieve gender equality. It means recognising that women and men often have different needs and priorities, face different constraints, and have different aspirations. It requires technical staff to incorporate a gender equality perspective in the way they work as well as in all stages of the transport policy, planning, budgeting and infrastructure improvement cycles. Considering that women are the majority disadvantaged, gender mainstreaming includes specific actions to empower women and bring them at par with men.

Affirmative Action

An active measure taken to redress perceived disadvantages due to overt, institutional, historical or involuntary discrimination to ensure equal opportunity between women and men. This could involve defining minimum quotas for women's, PWD's and other disadvantaged groups' participation in employment, training programmes, and contracting.

Gender Blind

A conscious or unconscious way of doing or saying things without recognizing or considering differences in women's relative to men's position, needs and feelings.

Gender Sensitive

The ability to recognise the differences between women's and men's perceptions, aspirations and needs as regards transport policy, planning, budgeting and infrastructure improvement.

Gender Aware

The ability to identify gender issues arising from stereotyping, discrimination and inequalities.

Gender Responsive

Planning and implementing transport policies, plans, budgets and projects that address women's as well as men's mobility and accessibility needs and which take into account differences in [women's and men's] labour allocation, time use, educational levels, resource and skill base.

Inclusive Language

The use of language which is not derogatory and discriminatory that promotes exclusivity or a sense of hierarchy which places one group of people, usually women, below others thus creating or perpetuating negative social stereotypes. Examples of inclusive language would be the use of "*works in progress*" instead of "men at work"; "*forepersons*" instead of "foremen"; "*human resources*" instead of "manpower"; "*chairperson*" instead of "chairman".

Sexual and Gender Based Violence [SGBV]

The different types of violence that are either sexual by nature or based on one's gender identity or expression. Includes physical, sexual, emotional and psychological dimensions. An underlying cause of SGBV is unequal power relations i.e. male dominance over women and girls as well as women's limited decision-making power.

Sex and Gender Disaggregated Data [SDD/GDD]

Information collected that indicates the different roles and responsibilities of men and women and the way opportunities and benefits from works and transport sector are distributed between the two sexes. SDD and GDD facilitate equitable targeting and planning projects which respond to women and men's needs. Further, such data helps in developing gender sensitive monitoring and evaluation indicators.

Adapted from: Tanzarn Nite and Maria Teresa Gutierrez Illustrated Guidelines for Gender Responsive Employment Intensive Investment Programmes [EIIPs]. Geneva, International Labour Office, ILO 2015. Available at:

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