

Guidelines for Mainstreaming Gender in Rural Transport

Desk Review



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Abstract

The report presents findings of a review of seven projects funded under the ReCAP Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport Initiative. The main purpose of the review was to synthesise lessons learnt and good practices to inform the preparation of illustrative guidelines for mainstreaming gender in rural transport. The review established that there have been several initiatives in Africa and Asia to mainstream gender in transport policy, planning, institutions and projects. These initiatives have contributed to the increased visibility of the gender dynamics of rural transport and have expanded women's employment opportunities and thus access to income. However, these gender mainstreaming in transport policy and planning initiatives have not yet triggered transformative changes, and therefore risk not being sustainable in the longer term.

Key words

Transformative Gender Mainstreaming, Gendered Travel Patterns, Women's Spatial Mobility

Acknowledgements

This report is partly based on seven gender mainstreaming in transport research projects commissioned by ReCAP in Africa and Asia. The research projects were undertaken by the following institutions: Helvetas (Nepal), HelpAge International (Tanzania), IFRTD (Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda), MetaMeta (Ethiopia), Tacitus (Kenya), University of Swansea (Liberia and Sierra Leone) and WISE Nepal (Nepal).

Research for Community Access Partnership (ReCAP)

Safe and sustainable transport for rural communities

ReCAP is a research programme, funded by UK Aid, with the aim of promoting safe and sustainable transport for rural communities in Africa and Asia. ReCAP comprises the Africa Community Access Partnership (AfCAP) and the Asia Community Access Partnership (AsCAP). These partnerships support knowledge sharing between participating countries in order to enhance the uptake of low cost, proven solutions for rural access that maximise the use of local resources. The ReCAP programme is managed by Cardno Emerging Markets (UK) Ltd.

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Acronyms, Units and Currencies

| | |
|---------|--|
| ADB | Asian Development Bank |
| AfCAP | Africa Community Access Partnership |
| AfDB | African Development Bank |
| AIDS | Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome |
| AsCAP | Asia Community Access Partnership |
| DoLI | Department of Local Infrastructure Development |
| DoLIDAR | Department of Local Infrastructure Development and Agricultural Roads |
| ECOSOC | Economic and Social Council |
| FGD | Focus Group Discussion |
| GIZ | Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (German Development Agency) |
| GRB | Gender Responsive Budgeting |
| HIV | Human Immunodeficiency Virus |
| ICT | Information Communications Technology |
| IFRTD | International Forum for Rural Transport and Development |
| ILO | International Labour Organization |
| IMT | Intermediate Means of Transport |
| KeRRA | Kenya Rural Roads Authority |
| LGTP | Local Government Transport Programme |
| MoWT | Ministry of Works and Transport |
| NMT | Non-Motorised Transport |
| OECD | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| PSNP | Productive Safety Net Programme |
| PWD | People With Disabilities |
| ReCAP | Research for Community Access Partnership |
| SDC | Swiss Development Cooperation |
| SGBV | Sexual and Gender-Based Violence |
| TSDMS | Transport Sector Data Management System |
| UK | United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Northern Ireland) |
| UKAid | United Kingdom Aid (Department for International Development, UK) |
| UN | United Nations |
| VTTTP | Village Travel and Transport Programme |
| WIT | Women in Transportation |

Executive Summary

This project builds on the ReCAP Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport Research Initiative, which involved seven research projects implemented in Africa and Asia. The specific purpose of the project is to develop illustrative practical guidelines for mainstreaming gender in rural transport in an effective and visible way drawing on lessons learnt and good practices from the seven research projects. The guidelines will be beneficial to transport ministries, roads authorities, road funds, local government works departments, traffic and road safety agencies, and transport regulators as well as the wider transport research community, donors, international organisations.

This report presents a synthesis, including a comparative analysis, where applicable, of the findings of the seven research projects. This is supplemented by a review of non-ReCAP funded research projects demonstrating good gender mainstreaming practices. This review was guided by the following questions:

- a. What has been the transformative impact of mainstreaming gender in rural transport?
- b. Have gender mainstreaming efforts served as a catalyst for transformative changes in gender relations?
- c. What are the lessons learnt and unlearnt in mainstreaming gender in: i) rural transport policy and planning; ii) transport institutions; iii) the design, management and improvement of infrastructure; and iv) the provision of rural transport services?

The review established that there are various existing national commitments to mainstreaming gender in transport policies, planning, institutions and projects. However, many of the transport policy directives on gender mainstreaming remain unimplemented either due to lack of political commitment, institutional capacity gaps, lack of dedicated budgets for mainstreaming, gender being treated rhetorically or as separate women's projects.

National attempts to mainstream gender in transport are yet to be fully institutionalised. This is due to, among other reasons, a lack of understanding of the benefits of gender mainstreaming in transport, the inadequacy of sex and gender disaggregated data as well as examples of practically applicable methods for systematic knowledge-based gender analysis. Besides legislative measures, the review established that there are hardly any examples of mainstreaming gender in the delivery of transport services.

Gender mainstreaming initiatives in transport projects have largely focused on promoting women's participation in terms of numbers. Whilst this has expanded women's employment opportunities in construction and thus a chance to earn an income, it has not triggered transformative changes in gender relations. Most initiatives do not challenge the status quo, and in fact some accommodate the prevailing power dynamics, perpetuate stereotypes and heighten gender inequalities such as women's time poverty.

The review established a general lack of capacity to use gender as a framework to create new knowledge and stimulate gender-responsive transport solutions. Further to that, it demonstrated a need for developing practical guidelines for mainstreaming gender in rural transport in an effective and visible way drawing on lessons learnt and good practices from the seven research projects. The guidelines will be beneficial to transport ministries, roads authorities, road funds, local government works departments, traffic and road safety agencies, and transport regulators.

1 Background

1.1 Introduction

Transport facilitates both women's and men's access to goods, services and economic opportunities. In addition, it enables undertaking of care activities, largely the responsibility of women, for the maintenance of households and families. A growing body of knowledge shows that differences in women's time/space activity patterns, assets and voice in decision-making, relative to men's, result in gender differentiated demands for, and benefit from rural transport infrastructure, services and ancillary activities (OECD, 2004; AfDB, 2009; Grieco, 2009; Turner and Grieco, 2000; World Bank, 2010; ADB, 2011; Porter, 2012; ADB, 2013; Tanzarn and Gutierrez, 2015). Pioneering research undertaken in Ghana (Howe and Barwell, 1987) and Tanzania (Barwell and Malmberg Calvo, 1989; Dawson and Barwell, 1993) underscored the unequal transport burden between rural women and men. In Ghana, the studies established that men spent only 35 percent of the time and exerted only 25 percent of the load-carrying effort relative to women. Comparative work in Tanzania revealed that trips by women accounted for 70 percent of all transport time and ton-km carried and that women often spent 15-30 hours a week on transport activities.

Subsequent research has further elaborated on the gender dimensions of rural transport. The research has indicated that whereas women are the main transporters, there are gender differences in the ownership and use of many means of transport either due to cultural and financial restrictions or inappropriate technology (Malmberg Calvo, 1994; Mudzamba, 1998; Starkey, 2001). Accordingly, fewer women than men ride bicycles, use oxcarts or wheelbarrows or hire or operate transport services. Peters (2013) and Amoako-Sakyi and Owusu (2011) argue that societal dictates of precluding girls from riding bicycles in some communities in Ghana makes it disproportionately difficult for them to access educational opportunities. This is particularly so where distances to school are long and the spaces are unsafe. A study conducted in Uganda found that many men and women felt that if women used bicycles, people would think they were acting like men. Men were suspicious about the implications of such liberated behaviour, particularly for their wives (Malmberg Calvo, 1994).

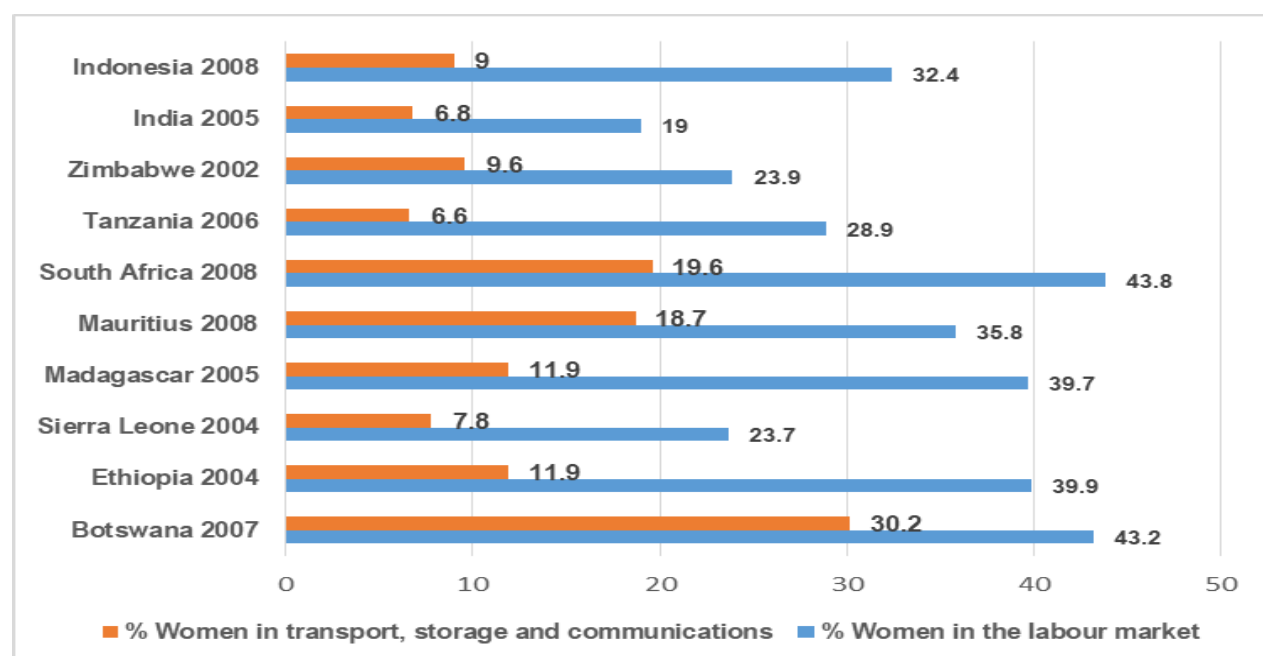
Sociocultural norms also impose restrictions on women's spatial mobility. Women's socially ascribed place is in the private, domestic sphere and the men, the public and moving from one space to another is perceived as deviant (Tanzarn, 2003). This limits women's participation in transport improvement projects as well as community structures such as road development committees. Evidence from Ghana suggests that society is prejudiced about women's involvement in the transport sector as drivers or conductors (Peters, 2013; Amoako-Sakyi and Owusu, 2011). This, coupled with women's relatively lower educational levels, results in their under-representation in the transport sector (see Figure 1).

The research on the subject also highlights the 'invisibility' of women's transport needs in policy and planning, with many of the gender mainstreaming efforts being perceived as donor-driven (Starkey, 2001; Porter, 2012; Tanzarn, 2016). This is, in part, attributed to a lack of capacity and/or interest amongst transport professionals to develop methodologies and tools for incorporating gender in policy and planning.

The nexus between gender, transport and other sectors, is increasingly being highlighted, particularly in health. Poor physical access is acknowledged as a significant factor in the limited number of rural women giving birth in health facilities and in the significant proportion who die when giving birth through medical complications. Babinard and Roberts (2006) argue that transport

is an influential factor in 75 percent of maternal mortality cases, an argument that is echoed by Transaid (2013). An audit of obstetric fistula in South Africa, found that 40 out of the 41 cases sampled cited lack of transport as a major factor of delay in seeking emergency medical care (Ramphal, Kalane, Fourie and Moodley, 2008). In Uganda, 64.4 percent of women admitted with a ruptured uterus lived more than 10 km away from a hospital (Kadowa, 2010).

Figure 1 Proportion of Women Employed in Transport, Storage and Communications



Source: Turnbull P, 2013

A comprehensive literature review by Porter, Hampshire, Dunn and Hall (2013) draws attention to the potential health impacts of head-loading. The review identified five major components of potential harm to health and wellbeing. These include: energy costs of headloading, long-term bio-mechanical impacts (musculoskeletal injury and degenerative changes), risk of acute injury, impacts on maternal and foetal health, and psychosocial impacts (reported pain and social participation). Many of these health risks can potentially impose further restrictions on women's ability to labour.

There is also a growing awareness of sexual harassment and gender-based violence in public transportation spaces and on construction sites (World Bank, 2016a, ADB, 2015, ILO, 2013), both of which are male-dominated. In 2015, the World Bank discontinued support to a construction project in Uganda based on allegations of, amongst others, road workers' sexual relations with minor girls and resulting pregnancies, the increased presence of sex workers in the community, the spread of HIV and AIDS and sexual harassment of female employees (World Bank, 2016a). In 2017, the Bank suspended disbursements to a road project in the Democratic Republic of the Congo following serious allegations of sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) against community members in the Bukavu-Goma area.

This is supported by research undertaken by the ILO (2013), which asserts that violence against transport workers serves as a critical barrier to women's entry and retention in the sector. Table 1 is indicative of the magnitude of violence against women and girls in public transportation.

Table 1 Reported Prevalence of Harassment of Female Public Transportation Users

| Country | Source | Reported prevalence of (sexual) harassment of female public transportation users (%) |
|----------------|---|--|
| Nepal | World Bank, 2013 | 25 |
| Chennai, India | ADB, 2014 | 66 |
| Pakistan | ADB, 2014 | 85 |
| Western Kenya | Women's Economic Empowerment Link, 2015 | 54 |
| Kenya | GeoPoll Flash Survey, 2016 | 47 |

1.2 Conceptualisation of Gender Mainstreaming

Gender, the socially constructed relationship between women and men is typically one of difference and inequality where women are disadvantaged relative to men. Initial development efforts to close the differences and address the inequalities exclusively focused on women as a target group. Thus, the emergence of women-only interventions such as income generating activities or measures to promote women's participation in development. A typical example in the transport sector is the promotion of women's employment opportunities in labour-based road projects. These women-only initiatives do not always yield the expected results of narrowing gender gaps and often result in backlashes. For instance, a growing body of evidence suggests a link between women's increased market-oriented economic activity and their experience of domestic violence as well as sexual harassment (Mejiam et al, 2014, Hidrobo and Fernald, 2013).

Gender mainstreaming emerged due to the recognition that promotion of women's participation in development was not enough and that prevailing inequalities would not be resolved through "marginal" initiatives (UN, 2002). The underlying causes of gender inequalities are structural thus suggesting a need to transform the institutions that create, reproduce and perpetuate these inequalities. Further to that, gender is relational thus necessitating a shift of focus from 'women' as a target group, to gender equality as a development goal (UN, 2002), a shift that requires male engagement in the promotion of women's empowerment.

Gender mainstreaming as defined by ECOSOC (1997) is "the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated. The goal is to achieve gender equality".

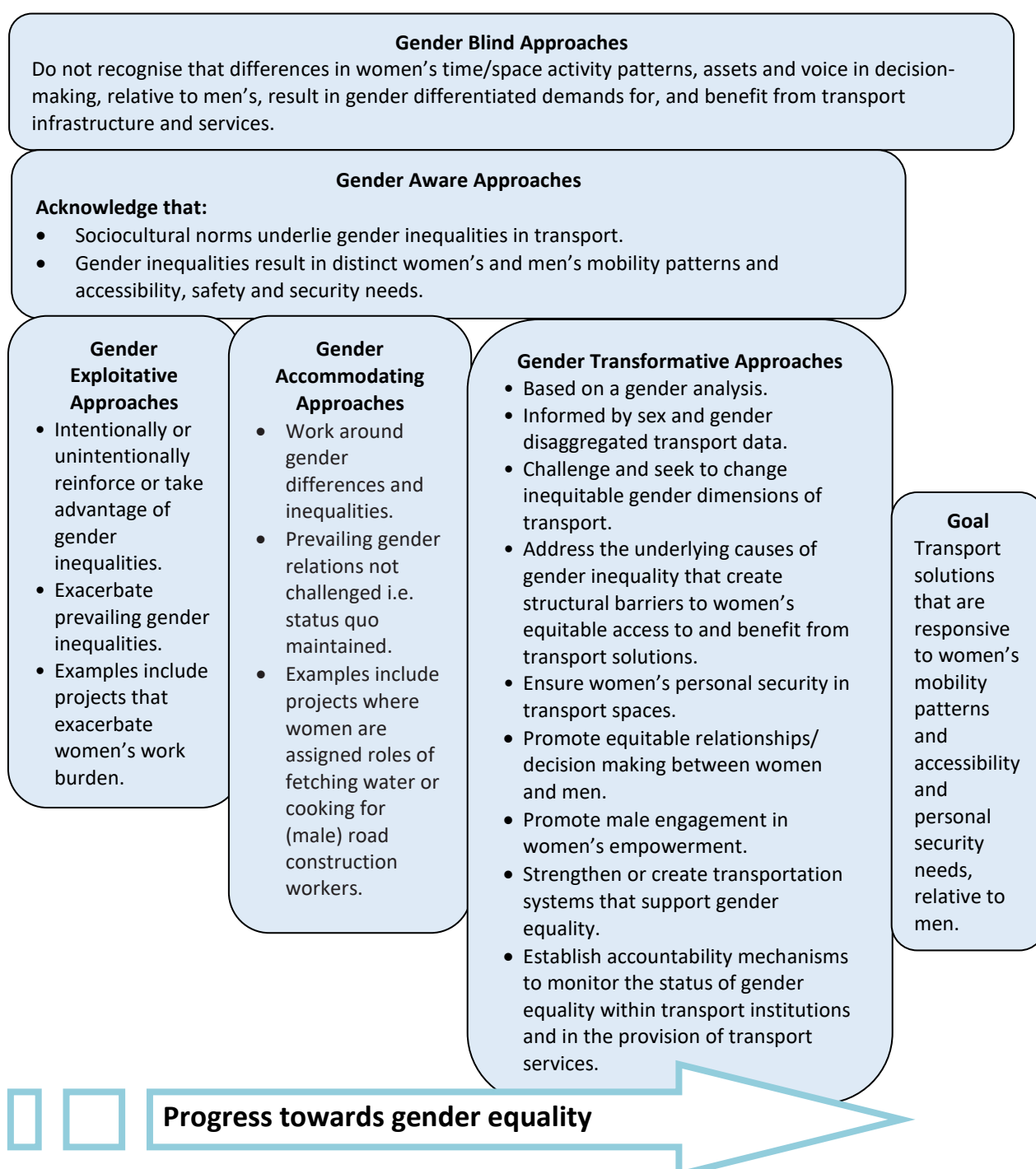
Gender mainstreaming does not preclude the need for specific targeted actions (UN, 2002) to address the distinct needs of women and men. Given that women are typically disadvantaged compared with men, gender mainstreaming in transport implies explicit attention to women's transport burden, time poverty, autonomous mobility and safety in public transport spaces and under-representation in unskilled labour as well as in technical, supervisory and decision-making positions.

Whereas gender inequalities are determined, shaped by, and embedded in social systems of power, experiences of marginalisation and privilege are also defined by other identity factors, such as age, disability, educational and poverty levels, ethnicity, and socio-economic status. Thus, not all women or all men have the same mobility patterns and accessibility, safety and security needs.

Consequently, effective gender mainstreaming requires consideration of the ways in which women's as well as men's transport needs intersect with other vulnerabilities.

The European Institute for Gender Equality (2016) argues that gender mainstreaming, as a strategy, can trigger transformation. However, not all efforts to mainstream gender actively seek to transform the power dynamics and structures that serve to reinforce inequalities between women and men. Gender-blind approaches fail to recognise prevailing inequalities in terms of roles, rights and power relations and how these give rise to differences in women's relative to men's participation in development and the associated entitlements. While gender-aware approaches acknowledge these inequalities, some can be exploitative, accommodating, or transformative. Figure 2 presents a continuum of gender mainstreaming within the context of transport.

Figure 2 Continuum of Gender Mainstreaming in the Context of Transport



1.3 The Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport Research Initiative

In 2015, ReCAP launched the Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport Research Initiative. The underlying premise of the research initiative was that whereas efforts to mainstream gender in rural transport have been on-going since the early 1990s, substantial gaps exist in knowledge. The overall objective of the initiative was to contribute to the evidence base to stimulate transformative gender-responsive rural transport solutions. The initiative comprised of seven projects that were implemented in AfCAP (Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, and Uganda) and AsCAP (Nepal) partner countries as follows:

1. HelpAge International, 2017. Impacts and implications of gender mainstreaming in the rural transport sector in Tanzania with reference to women with multi-dimensional vulnerabilities (TAN2044H)
2. MetaMeta, 2017. Gender mainstreaming in rural road construction in Ethiopia: impacts and implications (ETH2044E)
3. WISE Nepal, 2017. Gender mainstreaming in rural transport projects in Nepal: case studies of transformative roles of women and disadvantaged groups (DAGs) at household and community levels (NEP2044D)
4. Helvetas, 2017. Transforming gender relations in the trail bridge programme in Nepal: an analysis of policies and practices (NEP2044C)
5. Tacitus, 2017. Gender mainstreaming in the rural transport sector in Kenya (KEN2044F)
6. IFRTD, 2018. Scaling up gender mainstreaming in rural transport: analysis of policies, practices and impacts. (RAF2044J)
7. University of Swansea, 2018. Assessing opportunities and obstacles for gender mainstreaming in the motorcycle taxi sector in rural Sierra Leone and Liberia (RAF2044K)

1.4 Overview of the Research Projects

1.4.1 Impacts of gender mainstreaming in rural transport programmes in Tanzania

Tanzania's Village Travel and Transport Programme (VTTP), whose implementation started in 1994, was among the first in Africa to recognise the disproportionately heavy transport burden borne by women. The programme explored possibilities of transferring some of women's transportation responsibilities to men using intermediate means of transport (IMTs). The ongoing Local Government Transport Programme (LGTP) builds on the good gender mainstreaming practices of the VTTP.

The research, conducted by HelpAge International, was conceptualised on the basis that discussions on gender mainstreaming in transport typically perceive women as a homogenous group and tend to focus on women in the reproductive and productive age groups. Accordingly, mobility and transport are some of the key areas that have been under-studied with respect to the intersectionality of inequalities such as disability and age. Yet, women with multi-dimensional vulnerabilities experience more restricted mobility (than other women) and encounter unique accessibility challenges. The overall aim of the research was to assess whether gender mainstreaming efforts in rural transport in Tanzania have had a transformative effect on women facing multiple forms of discrimination and exclusion.

Research questions:

- a. Did gender mainstreaming in the VTTP and the LGTP rural transport programmes in Tanzania result in transformative changes for women?
- b. Are women facing intersecting inequalities benefiting from ongoing gender mainstreaming efforts in rural transport programmes?

- c. What transformative changes would women with multidimensional inequalities, specifically the elderly, those living with disabilities and the widows, like to see through gender mainstreaming in rural transport programmes?
- d. What factors constrain or facilitate transformative changes for women facing multiple levels of exclusions?
- e. What disparities (if any) do women with intersecting inequalities have in access, use and benefit from the mobile phone/information communications technology (ICT) that is bridging the rural transport and communication gap?

The research was conducted using participatory and inclusive methodologies. Focus group discussions (FGD) were conducted with different groups of women and men within the communities while key informant interviews were held with district government representatives in charge of infrastructure development. Additional national level key informant interviews were held with policy makers, regulators and development partners.

1.4.2 Gender mainstreaming in rural road construction in Ethiopia: Impacts and implications

In 2004, the Government of Ethiopia launched the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP), a rural social protection initiative that combines employment guarantee with public assets development. The project targets chronically food-insecure rural households to participate in the development of community rural infrastructure. PSNP reaches more than seven million people with an annual budget of USD 600 million. The programme incorporates special arrangements to promote women's participation, including in decision-making.

The overall objective of the research, conducted by Meta Meta, was to examine the differential experiences of women heads of household, women spouses and men, in PSNP rural road planning and construction initiatives, as well as their mobility as a net effect of improved infrastructure and transport services.

Research questions:

- a. What are the social, cultural, economic and administrative factors that limit women's influence in decision-making?
- b. What are the gaps in the implementation of the gender mainstreaming provisions of the PSNP?
- c. What are the differences between women heads of household's participation in rural road planning, relative to women spouses'? What accounts for those differences?
- d. What are the priorities of women heads of household, with respect to road development, relative to women spouses'?

The research employed a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods including FGDs, semi-structured interviews, photo voice and a survey of mobility patterns and access to rural transport. The participants included women heads of household, women spouses and men drawn from road-adjacent communities in the study districts. Key informant interviews were conducted with actors in the gender, roads, and transport sectors. To supplement this, a gender analysis of data from a previous project investigating transport options and preferences among 529 households was conducted to draw insights relevant to the research questions.

1.4.3 Gender mainstreaming in rural transport projects in Nepal: Transformative changes

The Swiss Development Cooperation (SDC) has been assisting Nepal's Department of Local Infrastructure Development and Agricultural Roads (DoLIDAR)¹ in the rural roads, bridges and trail bridges sub-sectors for several years. Gender and social inclusion are mainstreamed in all the roads and bridge building projects supported by SDC. The research aimed to explore the contexts and the actual changes brought about by the conscious effort made by these projects in mainstreaming gender with a focus on transformative impacts at the household and community levels.

Research questions:

- a. What are the most significant changes in the lives of the beneficiaries?
- b. How has gender mainstreaming contributed to changing women's roles in the household?
- c. Has gender mainstreaming changed decision-making at the community and district levels?

The research was carried out in two districts with completed and on-going rural roads and bridges supported by SDC. Primary data were collected using immersion studies, FGDs with communities and in-depth interviews with key district stakeholders in the two study districts.

1.4.4 Transforming gender relations in the trail bridge programme in Nepal

Trails and trail bridges are an essential feature of rural access in Nepal providing a safe and easy river crossing facilities. An estimated 1.2 million people cross the more than 6000 trail bridges. More than 90 percent of the trail bridges are short span with a length of less than 120 m. These are built through user committees supported by bridge technicians and social mobilisers.

The overall objective of the research, undertaken by Helvetas, was to establish how the trail bridge programme has contributed to transformation of gender relations in the communities.

Research questions:

- a. How and to what extent does the trail bridge programme and its related policies consider gender relations and attempt to change them in a progressive manner?
- b. How can trail bridge related policies, programmes and tools promote women's participation in social, economic and public life, and sustain their leadership while ensuring quality implementation?
- c. Is there a gap between prevailing policies and practices in realising gender mainstreaming and ensuring women's rights and gender equality?
- d. How and what sort of impact on women has been observed through the trail bridge programme in different social and geographic settings of Nepal?

The research involved a review of relevant policies, laws and regulations; consultations with key policy makers, enforcers and advocates as well as FGDs with female and male user committee members and labourers. Additionally, 27 in-depth case studies were prepared with women and their family members, representative of user committee members, labourers, general beneficiaries, and women who had participated in community leadership training. The study sites included nine and one short and long span trail bridges,

1.4.5 Gender mainstreaming in rural transport sector institutions in Kenya

Kenya has a very progressive gender policy environment that provides a solid foundation for mainstreaming gender in the transport sector. The cornerstone of the enabling policy environment is

¹ As result of federalisation and restructuring in Nepal, DoLIDAR has now changed its name to the Department of Local Infrastructure (DoLI), since September 2018.

the 2010 Constitution, which amongst other things, encourages the sector to address women's transport needs and guarantee their participation in the governance of the sector institutions. Kenya's Vision 2030 obliges the sector to address SGBV. The performance contracting process of ministries, departments and agencies obligates the sector to deliver gender equitable services. The procurement laws require the sector to stimulate female entrepreneurship in transport. The employment legislation outlaws gender-based discrimination and sexual violence in the workplace.

The main objective of the research, undertaken by Tacitus, was to assess the extent to which national gender mainstreaming efforts have transformed the Kenya rural transport sector institutions at policy, legislative and executive levels.

Research questions:

- a. Has the requirement to deliver a gender mainstreaming agenda resulted in changes in rural transport institutions:
 - Staff composition?
 - Budget and expenditure allocations?
 - Decision-making?
- b. What have been the factors that stimulated (or constrained) such changes? Are the changes positive or problematic? Are they sustainable?

The research involved an analysis of the different institutions active in delivering rural transport infrastructure and services at national, county, and community levels. These included the Kenya Rural Roads Authority, Kenya Roads Board, National Construction Authority, and the decentralised counties of Machakos, Murang'a and Homa Bay. Key informant interviews were conducted with decision-making level officials of the respective institutions.

1.4.6 Scaling up gender mainstreaming in rural transport: Policies, practices and impacts

This was a networked research study that was conducted in four ReCAP focus countries by the International Forum for Rural Transport and Development (IFRTD), namely: Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. The project analysed transport sector policies, legislation, regulations and programmes 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 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) using fiscal policy and 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 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 overall objective of the research project was to contribute to knowledge to inform improved policies and practices for sustainably mainstreaming gender in rural transport.

Research questions:

- a. What is the nature and extent of gender inequalities within the case study countries and how do they 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?

The research employed qualitative methods of data collection that included a desk study and national level key informant interviews in Ghana and Uganda. 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. One rural transport project was selected from each case study country to audit the sustainability of the gender components and to distil the lessons that can be learnt. 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.

1.4.7 Gender mainstreaming in the motorcycle taxi sector in rural Sierra Leone and Liberia

This research, by the University of Swansea, moved away from rural transport infrastructure and focused on transport services, motorcycles, in particular. Legitimate safety concerns notwithstanding, motorcycle taxis have transformed the rural transport landscape in many developing countries. Motorcycles are often the most common means of transport in rural areas. Whereas motorcycle taxis are more expensive than other transport services, they are popular due to being timely and fast. Motorcycles became a feature of rural transport at the end of the civil wars in Liberia (1989-2003) and in Sierra Leone (1991-2002). The research confirmed that most motorcycle taxi riders are males, serving what is perhaps a majority female clientele. The study aimed to understand the barriers to women's greater involvement in the motorcycle taxi sector, both as users and service providers, including addressing the challenges posed by poor track conditions.

Research questions

- a. To what extent has the availability of motorcycle taxi services in rural areas changed the lives of, and livelihood opportunities for women?
- b. What are the barriers and challenges women face in becoming motorcycle taxi riders in peri-urban and rural settings?
- c. Will track building, with explicit gender mainstreaming values, help women to become motorcycle professionals, or to take up roles and livelihoods not hitherto associated with females?

The research involved three research sites in rural Sierra Leone (Kenema, Moyamba, and Bombali District) and one research site in rural Liberia (Nimba County) that included a community-driven rural track construction project funded by GIZ and implemented by Global Communities. The project promoted the active and deliberate involvement of women in all aspects of track planning, design, implementation and maintenance.

2 Objectives of the Research Project

The findings of the "Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport Research Initiative" are to be published in a peer-reviewed journal targeting the academia and researchers. A key conclusion from the initiative was the general lack of capacity to use gender as a framework in transport policy, planning, regulation, and performance monitoring as well as in infrastructure design, management and improvement.

This project builds on the momentum of the Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport Research Initiative to enhance knowledge sharing amongst rural transport practitioners in ReCAP countries

and beyond. The specific purpose of the project is to develop illustrative practical guidelines for mainstreaming gender in rural transport in an effective and visible way drawing on lessons learnt and good practices from the seven research projects. The guidelines will be beneficial to transport ministries, roads authorities, road funds, local government works departments, traffic and road safety agencies, and transport regulators.

The project involves a review of the seven research reports produced under the Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport Research Initiative as a basis for:

- a. Preparing a paper to be presented at the Eastern Africa Women in Transportation (WIT) Conference, organised by the Flone Initiative and the Institute for Development Studies (IDS), University of Nairobi, Kenya will be held between 22-23 November 2018.
- b. Preparing an academic paper to be published in a peer reviewed journal.
- c. Preparing guidelines for mainstreaming gender in rural transport.

Annex 2 presents an outline of the guidelines.

3 About the Report

This report presents a synthesis, including a comparative analysis, where applicable, of the findings of the seven-gender mainstreaming in rural transport research projects. This is supplemented by a review of non-ReCAP funded research projects demonstrating good gender mainstreaming practices. The review was guided by the following questions:

- a. What has been the transformative impact of mainstreaming gender in rural transport?
- b. Have gender mainstreaming efforts served as a catalyst for transformative changes in gender relations?
- c. What are the lessons learnt and unlearnt in mainstreaming gender in: i) rural transport policy and planning; ii) transport institutions; iii) the design, management and improvement of infrastructure; and iv) the provision of rural transport services?

4 Key Findings from the Review

4.1 Gender Relations in the Context of Rural Transport

The seven research projects confirmed that most rural transport takes place in and around the community on foot or on non-engineered roads often with intermediate modes of transport such as bicycles and motorcycles. Further to that, the studies reported that the first mile (from the homestead to the first point of commercial interface) can be as long as 5 km or more. Moreover, it was found that women and men have distinct economic and social roles and responsibilities and consequently, there are significant differences in travel patterns as well as safety, mobility and accessibility needs.

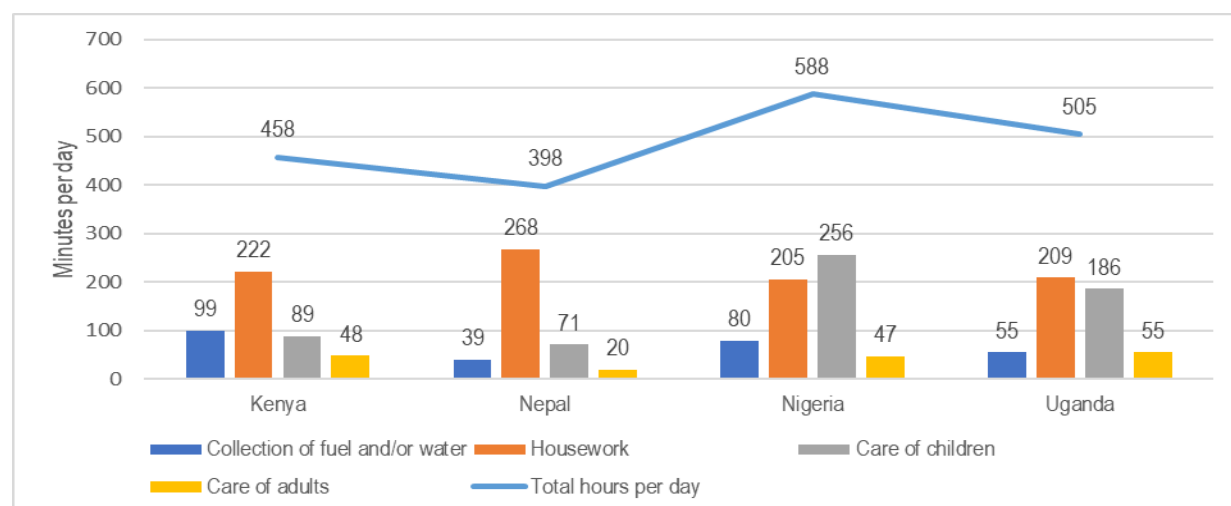
Rural women often travel by foot, concentrated around their household. WISE Nepal (2017) reports that more women than men (usually older women) have either never left the village or had not left the village for a very long time. Helvetas (2017) quoting Chhetry (2015) reports that women primarily use trail bridges for performing household chores such as taking cereal to the mill (58% vs 42% men), and men predominantly use trail bridges to access employment (63% vs 37% women) and markets (65% vs. 35% women).

Women's travel times, and thus transport burden, are reportedly longer because they walk more than men, even though men travel longer distances. Women are in charge of frequent chores such

as fetching water and collecting firewood, which require them to travel on under-developed paths on foot, rather than on roads using other means of transport. Often women and girls can spend up to 10 hours every day alone in tasks such as water collection (MetaMeta, 2017). In Ghana, about five times the proportion of adult women (60%) compared to adult men (11.6%) fetch water for their households (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017). Women are responsible for collecting drinking water in 57 and 63 percent of the rural households in Kenya and Uganda, respectively (Tanzarn 2017b, Tanzarn, 2017c). Adult women are also predominantly responsible for fuelwood collection in Ghana (71.6%) (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017), and in Uganda (70%) (Tanzarn, 2017c).

A study conducted in Kenya, Nepal, Nigeria and Uganda (Budlender and Moussié, 2013) show that women spend a minimum of eight hours per day on unpaid care work activities (see Figure 3). Most of the research projects reported that the overburden with care work imposes restrictions on women's participation in the transport economy. Peters et al (2018) report that whereas women are interested in becoming motorbike riders, they "are expected to stay at home to carry out domestic duties including cooking and childcare, especially if they are the only female in the family". WISE Nepal (2017) adds that due to domestic workloads, women cannot fully take advantage of the significant work opportunities.

Figure 3 Time use of Women on Unpaid Care Work Activities



Source: Budlender and Moussié, 2013

In addition to the time-based constraints affecting rural women, there are (negative) perceptions about women's strength, ability and keenness to work. HelpAge (2017) notes that despite their involvement in heavy agricultural and household work, women are perceived as being incapable of participating in road construction. Professional representation of women in technical, supervisory and managerial positions in construction and infrastructure development is limited. This can often be attributed to social and cultural attitudes towards women's participation in technical and engineering fields. There is also a tendency for women to experience discrimination regarding education and training in technical areas due to gender stereotyping. 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 (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017). Women comprise less than one tenth (8.6%) of the 9,000 registered engineers in Kenya (Orwa, 2017). In Tanzania, only 0.2 percent of the employed women are involved in transportation and storage (vs. 5% men) and an even lower (0.1%) in construction (vs. 4% men) (Tanzarn, 2017a).

MetaMeta (2017) reports that women in Ethiopia make more frequent trips with loads compared to men who travel with bigger, heavier cargo but only around the harvest period. Men are also more

likely to take a bus or to summon a Bajaj motor rickshaw on non-market days (when mini or mid-buses are not available) than women. Moreover, male-headed households can carry more cargo, as they are able to pay more, compared to female-headed households.

Rural women rely more on non-motorised transport (NMT) and intermediate modes of transport (IMT), such as bicycles or animal-drawn carts (ADB, 2013) and yet these are absent from most rural areas (MetaMeta, 2017). Moreover, women travelling with children are less inclined to use overcrowded multipurpose trucks or buses, which predominate the rural public transport system. Peters et al (2018) argue that the introduction and spread of motorcycle taxis in rural areas has radically changed access and mobility for villagers, offering motorised transport in areas and on routes not previously served by public transport providers. Similarly, WISE Nepal (2017) indicates that the only private means of transportation in their study districts is motorcycles, which are owned by only about 13 percent of the population. Both studies show that motorcycle riders are exclusively men. Women reportedly lack riding skills (WISE Nepal, 2017) or are perceived as not being strong enough to deal with breakdowns in remote areas (Peters et al, 2018). Besides the perceived physical constraints, the potential threat of sexual harassment, the association of female mobility with promiscuity and the misconception that riding contributes to infertility were also noted barriers to women's riding motorcycle taxis (Peters et al, 2018).

Mhalila and Kinyashi (2017) argue that women are generally excluded from rural transport services operations of all types due to the high costs of entry, a culture of aggression, and the existence of cartels and other unorthodox means of operating transport businesses. Adult males are usually better resourced financially enabling greater potential to purchase transport equipment such as bicycles and motorcycles (HelpAge, 2017).

4.2 Institutionalisation of Gender in National Transport Policy and Planning

Political commitment is crucial to sustainable gender mainstreaming in transport. This review established notable advances and achievements in mainstreaming gender in the study countries' national development frameworks. Anti-discrimination (against women and other disadvantaged groups) laws and equal opportunities legislation are enshrined in the respective national constitutions and enforced by equality committees or agencies. Institutional mechanisms to mainstream gender comprise of ministries of women/gender as well as focal points/equality units in line ministries, departments and agencies. The study countries have made varying levels of attempts to mainstream gender in their respective overarching national policy, planning, resource allocation and service delivery frameworks.

Policies provide the operational framework for determining which transport issues receive priority in planning and resource allocation. Mainstreaming gender in transport policy is thus crucial in ensuring that the sector is responsive to women's needs. This section examines the extent to which transport policy and planning take account of women's mobility, safety and security needs, relative to men's.

The research projects report that various steps have been taken to mainstream gender in national transport policies, strategies and regulations. Uganda's Transport Policy and Strategy (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 considered in the planning, design and construction of infrastructure and that adequate facilities or mitigation measures are provided to the satisfaction of both women and men. 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.

Uganda's Policy for Developing and Strengthening the National Construction Industry (2010), provides for women's participation in the construction industry, the periodic generation of gender disaggregated transport data, gender-responsive budgeting, gender training and gender-sensitive procurement of public works and services. Furthermore, Uganda's Third Road Sector Development Programme (2012) recommends various actions for promoting gender equality in the roads sub-sector. These include a provisional sum of 1 percent in the bills of quantity for gender analysis and mainstreaming, gender mainstreaming in all transport-related institutions, conducting of gender audits during project implementation, consultation of both women and men, and the collection of sex and gender disaggregated data.

Ghana's National Transport Policy (2008) aims to promote the role of women in the transport sector as providers of services, professionals and managers. The Policy also commits to develop and enforce regulations to ensure minimum standards of accessibility are provided and maintained for women, children, the elderly and physically challenged in transport facilities.

Kenya's Integrated National Transport Policy (2009) commits to promoting the increased use of non-motorised and intermediate means of transport through awareness creation campaigns addressing gender, and other stereotypes. Kenya's Road Sector Investment Programme and Strategy, 2010-2024 (2010) identifies gender mainstreaming among the critical aspects for 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, it recommends the use of innovative infrastructure delivery procedures to promote gender equitable transport. This is in addition to the requirement for transport planning being informed by a gender analysis. The strategy allocates a dedicated budget of KShs 2 billion annually for gender and equity mainstreaming.

Tanzania's National Transport Policy (draft, 2011) is even more progressive and proposes to put in place legal instruments, including enacting a law to support the implementation of gender mainstreaming in the sector. The Policy also specifies that annual performance monitoring of ministries, public sector entities, and the private sector (contractors, consultants and operators) will be gender sensitive. This is besides the requirement for gender auditing of plans and designs for transport infrastructure, equipment and services.

Furthermore, Tanzania's National Construction Industry Policy (2003) promotes women's participation in the construction industry through implementing positive discrimination measures. Tanzania's 10-Year Transport Sector Investment Programme (2008) includes various strategies to address gender-related transport concerns. These include conducting studies on the gender dimensions of transport, giving priority to infrastructure projects that give due consideration to gender and that also promote women's participation in their development and execution, and improving women's participation in the management and operations of the transport sector through capacity building. The programme allocated USD 1 million to gender mainstreaming efforts over a five-year period.

Nepal's Local Infrastructure Development Policy (2004) considers gender and social inclusion. Nepal's Trail Bridge Strategy (2006) specifies the goal of construction and operation of trail bridges as promoting access for local people, particularly women, disadvantaged groups and marginalised classes, to social and basic services, economic resources and opportunities. In addition, the Strategy requires that at least 30 percent of trail bridge user committee members are women and calls for equal pay for equal work, irrespective of sex.

While these policies and plans mention gender, it is not fully mainstreamed but is rather an add-on, typically presented as sections in, or annexes to the main reports. As Wise Nepal (2017) argues, there is need for further policy improvements towards a more gender transformative agenda. Moreover, there is policy evaporation in practice. For instance, Orwa et al (2017) argue that there has been no visible action related to implementing the gender equality provisions of Kenya's Integrated National Transport Policy (2009). Most transport regulations, apart from Nepal, are silent on gender.

The Nepal Public Transport Code of Conduct, 2010 provides for priority seats for women, children and the elderly and women-only seats in buses travelling long distances. The Code of Conduct ensures the use of reserved seats for women and disabled persons; and prevents conduct such as the use of rude language by drivers and conductors, rude graffiti and posters which may offend women, prevention of driving with intent to harm women, and misbehaviour towards women who are travelling on long distance night buses. However, this is yet to be implemented (World Bank, 2013).

4.3 Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport Sector Institutions

Another aspect of internal gender mainstreaming are the concrete political actions taken to ensure that transport policy formulation, planning, resource allocation and service delivery are responsive to women's relative to men's needs. This section examines the extent to which national gender mainstreaming efforts have contributed to transformative changes in rural transport institutions. The assessment is against the following indicators institutional transformation outlined by the European Institute for Gender Equality (2016):

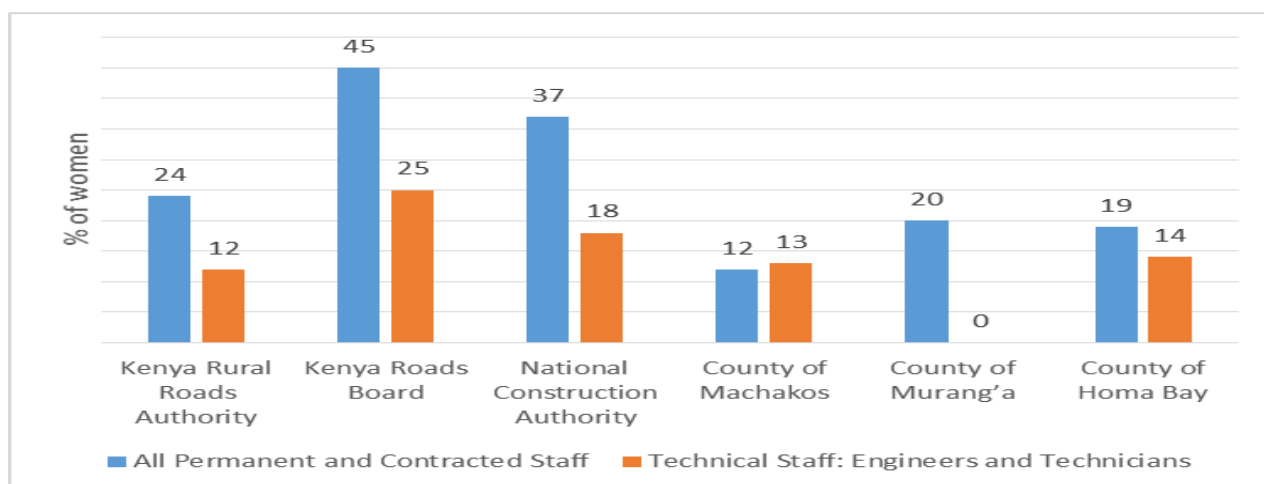
- a. Strengthening accountability about gender mainstreaming
- b. Allocating resources to institutionalise gender mainstreaming
- c. Developing a gender mainstreaming strategy and a working plan to institutionalise gender mainstreaming
- d. Establishing a gender mainstreaming support structure
- e. Introducing gender mainstreaming methods and tools
- f. Developing gender equality competence
- g. Establishing a gender information management system
- h. Monitoring and evaluating the process of institutionalising gender mainstreaming

4.3.1 Gender representation in transport sector institutions

Tanzarn (2017c) reports that, as of March 2011, women in Uganda constituted only 6 percent of the engineering and works staff of the total public service workforce and that only one in every four (26%) employees of Works and Transport sector public institutions is a woman. Additionally, that women are nearly absent in decision-making positions of the Ministry of Works and Transport (MoWT) comprising only 4.3 and 20.2 percent of the top, and senior management, respectively.

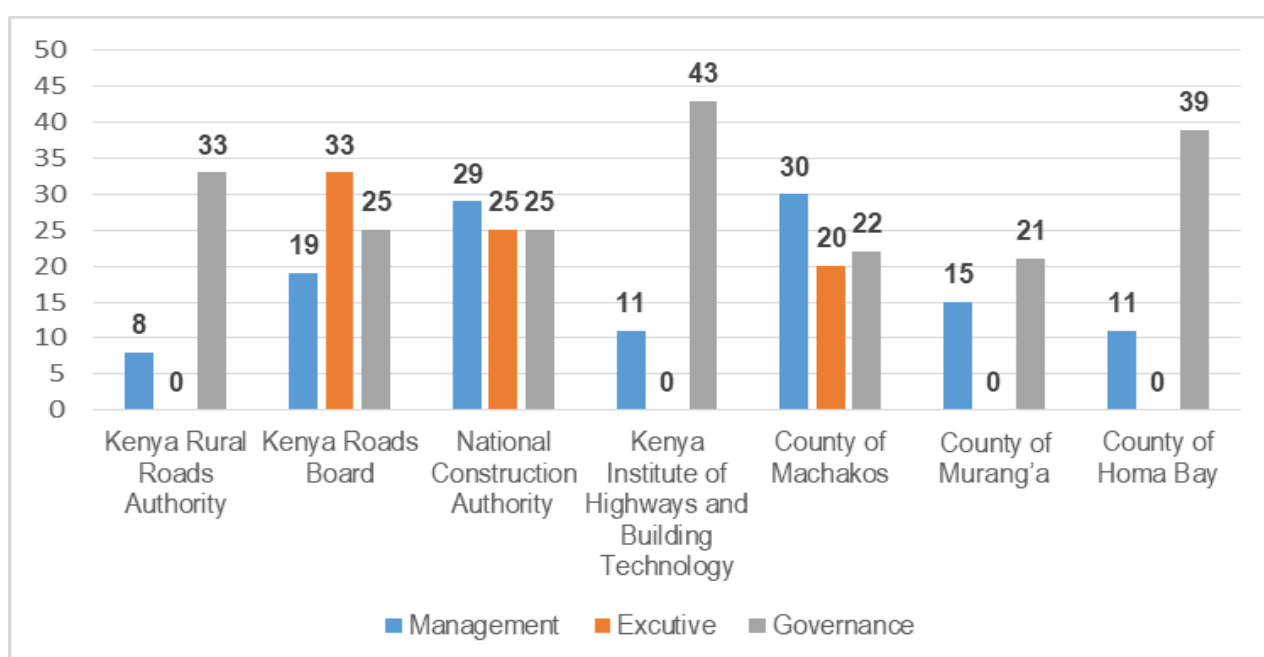
Figures 4 and 5 point to a gender imbalance in selected rural transport sector institutions in Kenya. There is greater representation in governance largely due to the affirmative action provisions in the statutory instruments for setting up the institutions.

Figure 4 Gender Composition of Permanent and Contracted Staff in Kenya (2016)



Source: Orwa S, Ombai M Nyangueso S and Sheba S, 2017

Figure 5 Representation of Women in the Leadership of Selected Road Sector Institutions



Source: Orwa S, Ombai M Nyangueso S and Sheba S, 2017

4.3.2 Gender policies or statements for the transport sector

Some of the research projects reported on the existence of declarative statements for the transport sector that institutionalises a commitment to and set guiding principles for mainstreaming gender equality objectives and accountability measures in the respective sector policies, strategies, programmes, structures and service delivery.

Nepal's Ministry of Federal Affairs and Local Development, which is responsible for rural transport and development has a Gender and Social Inclusion Policy that is supposed to be mainstreamed in all local infrastructure development projects by administrative bodies including the district and village development committees. Kenya's Ministry of Transport and Infrastructure has a broad policy

on gender and its SGBV policy clearly articulates zero tolerance to sexual harassment in the work place (Tanzarn, 2017b). Further to that, its code of ethics includes a clause that states that: “A public officer shall not sexually harass a member of the public or a fellow officer”. Uganda has Gender Policy Statement (2008) and Gender Mainstreaming Guidelines (2008), but these pertain to only the roads sub-sector and are yet to be implemented.

4.3.3 Gender units/focal points in transport sector institutions

Designated gender focal persons in the transport ministries are responsible for championing the gender equality agenda. The review established that in addition to the ministries responsible for gender/women, the ministries responsible for transport/roads Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda have gender focal points. 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. Whereas the focal points/units are supposed to be catalytic in nature, they reportedly hold the overall responsibility for mainstreaming gender in their respective institutions. Moreover, the focal points are not strategically positioned to influence decision-making, may not have the required expertise, are not always empowered and gender mainstreaming is typically an added function.

Kenya’s Ministry of Transport has an inter-departmental committee to oversee compliance to diversity mainstreaming (including gender) in recruitment, training, annual planning and routine data collection and periodic reporting (Tanzarn, 2017b). Besides the gender focal points in all transport sector institutions, Uganda

has an Environmental Liaison Unit within the ministry of transport with a technical oversight role for gender mainstreaming in the sector. The Uganda National Roads Authority Environment and Social Safeguards Unit is responsible for, amongst others, addressing gender in the management of

Measures Put in Place by the Uganda Road Fund to Mainstream Gender in the Management of Road Maintenance Funds

- Incorporation of gender equality enhancing measures in the fund allocation formula.
- The planning guidelines issued by the Fund to the designated agencies specifically require them to incorporate gender issues, and in particular, to recruit a specific percentage of women.
- The monitoring and evaluation framework provides for the collection of data on women’s participation in road maintenance and the designated agencies have to include this in their routine performance reports.
- Disbursement of funds to remove bottlenecks on community access roads.

Measures Put in Place by the Uganda National Road Authority to Mainstream Gender in the Management of the Development and Maintenance National Roads

- An unwritten affirmative action policy for female contractors in procurement. The challenge is that there are very few women in the market who meet the minimum technical and financial requirements.
- All contractors are obliged to employ a sociologist and to have a policy and work plan on gender mainstreaming (including women’s participation), sexual harassment and child protection. As a result, some contractors have ring-fenced off some tasks, such as flags persons, for women.
- All project consultants are obliged to employ a sociologist.
- The contractor can sub-contract the implementation of social safeguards to an NGO mobilising around social and/or gender issues.
- UNRA was granted a waiver by the Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Authority to procure the services of NGOs with an SGBV mandate to address sexual violence in construction.
- Liaising with local Government authorities (police, district officials) to ensure that negative social impacts that arise during project implementation are managed in line with policy.
- Job advertisements encourage women to apply.

Source: Tanzarn, 2017c

national road development and maintenance. The Authority also instituted a gender and equity committee to facilitate institutional gender mainstreaming (see text box for further details).

4.3.4 Building staff gender competency

Effective gender mainstreaming gender equality competence across all functions and irrespective of sex. It is apparent that gender knowledge is not an integral part of human resources development in the transport sector institutions. Orwa et al (2017) and Tanzarn (2017c) identify the relatively low levels of gender awareness as a challenge and highlight some of the perceptions about gender being synonymous with women, being donor-driven, being overrated, having no added value and have nothing to do with engineers. Surprisingly, the officials in Uganda reported having undergone gender training, with some attending more than one training course.

4.3.5 Gender sensitive data management systems

The collection, analysis and dissemination of data on gender dimensions of rural transport is important in setting priorities to guide policy and design programmes. The Roads 2000 programme under the Kenya Rural Roads Authority (KeRRA) captures gender disaggregated data through its Road Management System for analysis and planning purposes. Uganda's Transport Sector Data Management System (TSDMS) only captures data limited to presence of gender focal person and women in employment in the transport sub-sector institutions. Whereas road project monitoring reports typically include annexes on gender performance, the data are not analysed and are not captured in the TSDMS (Tanzarn, 2017c). The Uganda Road Fund monitoring and evaluation framework provides for the collection of data on women's participation in road maintenance.

4.3.6 Adoption of gender responsive budgeting

Orwa et al (2017) report that there is compliance to the Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Act of 2015 that requires all procurement and asset disposal planning reserve a minimum of 30 percent of the budgetary allocations for enterprises owned by women, youth, persons with disabilities (PWD) and other disadvantaged groups. As a result of this, female-owned/predominated contracting firms are emerging in Kenya. It is not clear to what extent the transport sector is compliant with other aspects of the Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Act such as: i) tender securities not being required in procurements reserved for enterprises owned by women, youth, PWDs; and ii) 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.

Ethiopia: PSNP Gender Mainstreaming Provisions

- Explicit quotas for women's participation in decision-making structures.
- Conduct separate consultations for women and men.
- Equal wages for equal work for both women and men.
- Paid nine months maternity leave with effect from end of second trimester of pregnancy.
- Flexible working hours.
- Provision of support for community childcare (crèches)
- Allocate physically light works to women and flexible working hours (considering their potential need to arrive late and leave early)
- Lower daily work targets (fewer hours and less units of work) for women.
- Revise planning template to better capture gender issues.
- Conduct community gender sensitisation.
- Use gender disaggregated data in prioritisation of works.

Source: MetaMeta, 2017

4.4 Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport Projects

The research projects documented various strategies undertaken to mainstream gender along different stages of the road improvement cycle.

4.4.1 Project Identification

Some of the transport projects were informed by baseline studies that identified various pertinent gender issues. Among others, the baselines identified head portering as a massive burden for women, highlighted how the interplay of social norms and values undermine women and contribute to their lack of confidence in the presence of men and recognised time poverty as an issue to be addressed (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017; Mhalila and Kinyashi, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017c). Some of the projects recognised the need for the utilisation of women-specific channels to disseminate employment and training opportunities and to serve as liaison between the implementers and the female beneficiaries (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017c).

4.4.2 Project Design and Appraisal

The projects included various measures to mainstream gender in the design. The two key strategies adopted by the projects to address the gender and mobility/accessibility issues were promotion of NMT and IMTs as well as prioritising investments in community access, foot paths/bridges (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017; Mhalila and Kinyashi, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017c). Most projects defined minimum quotas for women's participation in decision-making structures, training and selection of the contractors and recruitment of labour ranging from 30-70 percent. Others were, however, cautious about setting arbitrary quotas and instead recommended a gradual introduction of targets to give time to test and perfect the procedures (Mhalila and Kinyashi, 2017). Some projects explicitly promoted women's voice in the transport improvement agenda (HELVETAS, 2017; MetaMeta, 2017; Mhalila and Kinyashi, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017c; WISE Nepal, 2017).

Nepal: Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Dimensions in Trail Bridge Construction

Pre-construction Phase

- A public hearing is conducted - all potential users (both women and men) are invited.
- User committees are formed, having at least 40% of women.
- Female user committee members provided with demonstration model bridge training.

Construction Phase

- Community leadership training conducted for female user committee members.
- Employment opportunities targeted towards disadvantaged groups, including women.
- Equal pay for equal work upheld, and all labourers are covered by a group accident insurance policy.

Post-Construction Phase

- Women are prioritised as bridge wardens for routine maintenance.
- Inclusion of 40% women in bridge maintenance committee.

Source: HELVETAS, 2017

Gender awareness creation was one of the predefined strategies intended to increase the participation of women in what is traditionally a male-predominated sector (MetaMeta, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017b; Tanzarn, 2017b). Some projects also incorporated capacity building for women in management and operations as well as financial and procurement procedures and road-related training (Helvetas, 2017; MetaMeta, 2017; Mhalila and Kinyashi, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017c). Others specified that contractors would be encouraged to employ women in non-traditional areas and to promote their leadership (Tanzarn, 2017c). To promote (unskilled) women's participation, most projects adopted labour-based approaches to road improvement.

Most projects provided for gender-friendly work spaces in the form of separate facilities and or childcare (Metameta, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017c). Some projects also specified that 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 (Tanzarn, 2017c). A few projects incorporated non-transport interventions such water facilities, woodlots and markets in response to women's expressed transport burden (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017; Mhalila and Kinyashi, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017c).

The levels of gender sensitivity of the respective projects' performance monitoring frameworks varied. Some of the defined gender sensitive indicators include impacts on women's transport burden in terms of time and effort, women's participation in employment, training and decision-making, and tender and contractor gender compliance (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017; Mhalila and Kinyashi, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017c).

Some of the projects included gender management/action plans (MetaMeta, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017c), some of which were costed, time-bound and with verifiable indicators to guide the systematic mainstreaming of gender in the respective project components. Some projects provided budgetary allocations for gender mainstreaming ranging from 3-5 percent of the total project sum (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017; HELVETAS, 2017; Tanzarn, 2017c).

An increasing number of World Bank projects include practices to prevent violence against women in public transport systems (World Bank, 2016b). These include:

- a. Community involvement in project design, implementation, and monitoring.
- b. Innovative use of ICT to report cases of harassment, generate relevant data, and improve access to information or services that help address harassment.
- c. Training of transport staff on physical security and gender-related topics.
- d. Use of communication campaigns to raise awareness and try to change social norms, attitudes and overall behaviour related to violence against women and girls.

4.4.3 Implementation, Monitoring and Reporting

The review established that not all gender mainstreaming provisions in project design were fully implemented. For instance, women's voices are generally under-represented in rural road planning meetings. Whereas the Ethiopia PSNP implementation manual (2014) instructs implementers to promote women's participation in decision-making, only 14 percent of women in both female- and male-headed households participated in PSNP-related consultations (MetaMeta, 2017). Furthermore, in male-headed households, husbands reportedly participate in the meetings on behalf of their wives. Even when women participate, they are rarely recognised, and their views receive less priority. HelpAge (2017) reports that while women comprise an estimated 80 percent of the consultation meetings, seven out of 10 contributions are made by men. This is attributed to their lack of self-confidence and the deeply held prejudices with regards to women's potential.

Some of the projects' work day were structured to facilitate women's participation (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017, Tanzarn, 2017c) while others did not offer a full degree of flexibility. In recognition of women's reproductive role, women receive up to 17 months paid maternity leave nearly double the nine months specified by the PSNP (MetaMeta, 2017). The drawback is that if a woman is married, the husband must take on additional eight months work obligation.

All the projects had an aspect of institutionalising gender in the [rural] transport sector either through capacity building, engendering policy or training material. Projects that included a sociologist or socio-economist and incorporated awareness creation for attitudinal and behavioural change were reportedly more likely to be compliant to the gender mainstreaming provisions in the design.

Besides sex disaggregation, most of the projects, were quite weak with regards to gender reporting and knowledge sharing. Whereas the projects carefully control the quality of technical work, social processes including gender mainstreaming are rarely monitored (HELVETAS, 2017) and when they are, the focus is on the numbers of women's participation.

4.5 Transformative Impacts on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment

4.5.1 Women's participation in the projects

Women's participation in rural transport projects is a significant step toward gender equality. The projects achieved varying levels of women's participation. Table 2 suggests that affirmative action through defining minimum quotas for women's participation may not guarantee expanded opportunities for their employment.

Table 2 Women's Participation in Selected Transport Projects by Defined Quota and Achievement

| Country | Project | Women's Participation (%) | |
|----------|--|---------------------------|-------------|
| | | Target | Achievement |
| Ghana | World Bank funded Second Transport Rehabilitation Project: 1991-1997 | 70 | 50 |
| Kenya | Government of Kenya and French Government funded Roads 2000 Programme Central Phase 1: 2007-2011 | 30 | 25 |
| | Government of Kenya and French Government funded Roads 2000 Programme Central Phase 2: 2013-2017 | 30 | 35 |
| Nepal | Trail bridge programme | - | 29 |
| Nepal | SDC funded Rural Roads Projects (participation in user committees) | 40 | 45 |
| Tanzania | Village Travel and Transport Programme: 1995-2004 | None | 50 |
| | Local Government Transport Programme: 2008-ongoing) | None | 50 |
| Uganda | Danida funded Road Sector Programme Support Phase 1: 1999-2002 | None | 23 |
| | Danida funded Road Sector Programme Support Phase 2: 2003-2007 | None | 30 |
| | Danida funded Rural Roads Programme: 2008-2010 | None | 29 |

Sources: HELVETAS, 2017, Tanzarn, 2017a and WISE Nepal, 2017

4.5.2 Contribution to the alleviation of women's transport burden

The gender mainstreaming efforts in transport projects have brought up some changes including an improved awareness of the gender dimensions of mobility and accessibility, as well as the improved

visibility of women's transport burden. This is evident in the Ethiopia case study, where a key criterion in approving community requests for rural roads improvement is connection to the government-run maternal ambulance service (MetaMeta, 2017). Some women used their earnings from the respective projects to purchase IMTs (Amoako-Sakyi, 2017), thus potentially contributing to the reduction of the prevalence of head portage. Women were the major beneficiaries of the auxiliary works that included improvements in health facilities, water supplies, market structures, school facilities, and the rehabilitation of several community access roads (Tanzarn, 2017c).

4.5.3 Promoting women's entrepreneurship in the construction industry

Some of the projects contributed to building women's entrepreneurship in the construction industry. In Uganda, this was achieved through promoting women's participation in road construction training and ensuring their prequalification as contractors (Tanzarn, 2017c).

4.5.4 Changing perceptions about women's participation in transport projects

The review established that affirmative action for women in construction and in user groups is apparently increasingly being accepted. WISE Nepal (2017) reports a near doubling in women's representation on road user committees in Nepal: from 21 percent in fiscal year 2005/06 to 45 percent in 2015/16. While the promotion of women's participation in decision-making is important, it has also apparently exacerbated women's time poverty. Women reportedly feel overburdened by the requirements to take up leadership positions and to attend meetings and yet their input remains marginal (WISE Nepal, 2017).

4.5.5 Improved women's agency

Women's participation in decision-making structures, such as road committees, is potentially empowering and some young women members have indicated that they have become more self-assured. However, women are physically present but strategically absent from the committee meetings. Accordingly, they do not influence decision-making. According to WISE NEPAL (2017), "the men talk...the women listen and sign the attendance sheet..." to fulfil project requirements.

4.5.6 Changes in gender roles

Whereas the projects promoted women's participation, they did not contribute much to transforming gender roles. In Ethiopia, the PSNP requirement for women to be allocated light physical work reinforces the stereotype that construction work is a male domain. Women are typically tasked with fetching water for the road works, carrying cement bags, mixing construction materials, watering structures (MetaMeta, 2017) and cooking for the male workers (HelpAge, 2017). Men's involvement is mostly in the more labour intensive and technical engineering aspects.

4.5.7 Capital accumulation

Evidently, the transport projects provided women with an opportunity to earn an income. Some female beneficiaries reported an improvement in their economic security and enhancement in their social standing (MetaMeta, 2017) while others have invested in productive assets or started income generating activities (WISE Nepal, 2017).

5 Conclusions

5.1 Lack of Nationally Relevant Sex and Gender Disaggregated Transport Data

Rural transport interventions can serve as a catalyst to improve women's mobility, livelihoods and incomes, relative to men while ensuring their safety and personal security. However, there is a limited evidence base of women's travel patterns, time use, means of transportation and security concerns, relative to men's, to inform policy and planning.

5.2 Gender Analytical Capacity Gaps

Gender mainstreaming in transport requires developing a structured approach to understanding women's mobility, accessibility and safety needs, relative to men's, and defining measures to address those needs. However, there is a general lack of capacity to use gender as a framework to create new knowledge and stimulate gender-responsive transport solutions.

5.3 Rural Transport Policy and Planning

There have been various attempts at mainstreaming gender in transport policy and planning, but these efforts largely remain unimplemented either due to lack of political commitment, institutional capacity gaps, lack of dedicated budgets for mainstreaming, gender being treated rhetorically or as separate women's projects. While gender equality is part of the political discourse in all the study countries, gender mainstreaming in transport policy and planning is a relatively new phenomenon.

5.4 Transport Institutions

Kenya and Uganda are illustrative cases of attempts to mainstream gender in transport sector institutions. A notable gap is the apparent lack of understanding of the benefits of gender mainstreaming in transport, the inadequacy of sex and gender disaggregated data as well as examples of practically applicable methods for systematic knowledge-based gender analysis.

5.5 Design, Management and Improvement of Infrastructure

Gender mainstreaming initiatives in transport projects have largely focused on promoting women's participation in terms of numbers. Whereas this has expanded women's employment opportunities in construction and thus a chance to earn an income, this has largely excluded women with intersecting vulnerabilities such as elderly persons, female heads of households and persons with disability. Moreover, it has not triggered transformative changes in gender relations. Most initiatives do not challenge the status quo, and some accommodate the prevailing power dynamics, perpetuate stereotypes and heighten gender inequalities such as women's time poverty.

5.6 Provision of Rural Transport Services

There are very few examples of gender mainstreaming in transport services delivery suggesting a need for research in the area.

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Annex 1 Abstract for Eastern Africa Women in Transportation (WIT)

Conference panel presentation best relates to: Policy and practitioner interventions on women's role in transportation.

Conference theme: Employability and Opportunities for Women in Transport.

Mainstreaming Gender in Rural Transport in Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda
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Independent Consultant
July 2018

The paper is based on various research work conducted in Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda under the *Research for Community Access Partnership (ReCAP)*, funded by UK Aid. The research demonstrated that asymmetries in women's relative to men's time/space activity patterns, assets and voice in decision-making result in gender differentiated demands for, and benefit from rural transport investments. Furthermore, it showed that 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. Additionally, that whereas most national transport policy mention gender, this is not systematically mainstreamed. Nonetheless, the policies contain directives with the potential to expand women's employment opportunities.

The research provided a critique of rural transport as a male-dominated sector, both from an employment point of view and for the values it embodies. In particular, it showed that women are under-represented in road construction and transportation due to gender inequalities in capabilities and opportunities. Additionally, that prevailing gender stereotypes define the transport sector as a male domain and a diasporic space for women thus imposing restrictions on their entry with those attempting to do so being labelled transgressors.

The research also examined the nexus between national gender mainstreaming efforts and the institutions that deliver and support rural transport infrastructure and services. It also assessed the responsiveness of selected transport programmes to the needs of women including those facing multiple vulnerabilities with a focus on older persons.

The research highlighted that whereas violence against women and girls in public transport spaces is a growing concern, (transport) regulations do not provide for their autonomous mobility and safety.

Question for reflection

How to do we ensure sustainable implementation of the national gender policy directives in the transport sector?

Annex 2 Outline of Gender Mainstreaming & Rural Transport Guidelines

RATIONALE FOR THE GUIDELINES?
ABOUT THE GUIDELINES AND USERS
ORGANISATION OF THE GUIDELINES

1 GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN RURAL TRANSPORT POLICY AND PLANNING

- Steps and Guiding Questions
- Key Indicators
- Good Practices
 - Good Practice 1.1:
 - Good Practice 1.2:
 - Good Practice 1.3:
 - Good Practice 1.4:
 - Good Practice 1.5:

2 GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN TRANSPORT SECTOR INSTITUTIONS

- Guiding Questions
- Key Indicators
- Good Practices
 - Good Practice 1.1:
 - Good Practice 1.2:
 - Good Practice 1.3:
 - Good Practice 1.4:
 - Good Practice 1.5:

3 GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN THE RURAL ROADS IMPROVEMENT CYCLE

- Steps and Guiding Questions
- Key Indicators
- Good Practices
 - Good Practice 1.1:
 - Good Practice 1.2:
 - Good Practice 1.3:
 - Good Practice 1.4:
 - Good Practice 1.5:

4 GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN THE PROVISION OF RURAL TRANSPORT SERVICES

- Key Issues and Guiding Questions
- Key Indicators
- Good Practices
 - Good Practice 1.1:
 - Good Practice 1.2:
 - Good Practice 1.3:
 - Good Practice 1.4:
 - Good Practice 1.5:

5 GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN RURAL TRANSPORT RESEARCH

- Steps and Guiding Questions
- Key Indicators
- Good Practices
 - Good Practice 1.1:
 - Good Practice 1.2:
 - Good Practice 1.3:
 - Good Practice 1.4:
 - Good Practice 1.5: