

**GENDER ANALYSIS REPORT FOR TREPA PROJECT PROPOSAL ON
“TRANSFORMING EASTERN PROVINCE THROUGH ADAPTATION” (TREPA)**



March 2021

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACHPR	African Charter on human and people's rights on the rights of women
ACRWC	African Charter on Rights and Welfare of the Child
CASS	College of Arts and Social Sciences
CEDAW	Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Violence against Women
CGS	Centre for Gender Studies
CTA	Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation
DDP	District Development plan
DDS	District Development Strategy
EAC	East African Community
EDPRS2	Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy
EICV4	Integrated Households living conditions survey
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FFRP	Forum des femmes Rwandaise Parlementaires (<i>Rwanda</i> Women Parliamentary Forum)
FFS	Farmer Field Schools
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
GHG	Greenhouse Gas
GMO	Gender Monitoring Office
GTZ	Germany Technical Cooperation Agency
ICCPR	International Convention on Social and Cultural Rights
IWRM	Integrated Water Resource Management
KIIs	Key Informant Interviews
MDGs	The Millennium Development Goals
MINAGRI	Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources
MINALOC	Ministry of Local Government

MINECOFIN	Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning
MININFRA	Ministry of Infrastructure
MINIRENA	Ministry of Natural Resources
NGO	Non- Governmental Organisation
NISR	National Institute for Statistics of Rwanda
NST1	National Strategy for Transformation
NWC	National Women Council
RAB	Rwanda Agriculture Board
RDHS	Rwanda Demographic and Health Survey
RWH	Rain Water Harvesting
SGBV	Sexual and gender-based violence
TREPA	Transforming Eastern Province through Adaptation and Mitigation
UDHR	UN Declaration on Human Rights
UNCRC	UNCRC: UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
UNSCR	The United Nations Security Council Resolution on Peace and Security
VUP	Vision Umurenge Programme
W4GR	Water for Growth

Table of Contents

1	CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION.....	8
1.1	Purpose of Gender analysis.....	8
1.2	Methodology	9
	CHAPTER 2: NATIONAL POLICY, LEGAL, INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORKS AND STRATEGIES FOR GENDER EQUALITY	10
2.1.	Policy Framework & Strategies.....	10
2.1.1.	Vision 2020.....	10
	Rwanda Vision 2050	10
	Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (EDPRS I&II)	11
2.1.2.	National Strategy for Transformation (NST1)	11
	Strategic Plan for Agriculture Transformation 2018 - 2024 (PSTA IV).....	11
	National Gender Policy, Sector Gender Mainstreaming Strategies and Girls' Education Policy..	12
	The National Policy against GBV and its Strategic Plan	12
	The National Decentralization Policy	12
	The Health Sector Policy 2015 and the Health Sector Strategic Plan.....	13
	The National Food and Nutrition Policy	13
	The recent National Integrated Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn, Child, Adolescent Health policy	13
	National Social Protection Strategy	14
2.2.	Legal Framework for Gender Equality in Rwanda.....	14
2.3.	Institutional framework for gender mainstreaming in Rwanda	16
2.3.1.	Gender Machinery Institutions	16
	CHAPTER 3: GENDER SITUATION ANALYSIS	17
3.1.	Achievements and gaps in gender equality promotion.....	17
3.1.1	Gender capacity building.....	17
3.1.2	Fighting against GBV.....	18
3.2.	The poverty situation of women in Rwanda and Social protection measures.....	20
3.2.1	Brief analysis of the poverty situation of women.....	20
3.2.2	Poverty reduction strategy through social protection programmes	21
3.2.3	Social protection measures promoting economic activities of women	22
3.3.	Population Statistic	24
3.4.	Access to and control of resources.....	26

3.4.1 Access to education	26
3.4.2 Access to health facilities and nutrition	28
3.4.3 Access to employment.....	30
3.4.4 Access to water and Sanitation.....	39
3.4.5 Land use and ownership rights	40
3.5 Agriculture and livestock	43
3.6 Gender Access to Finance.....	58
3.7 Access to Energy by Gender	58
3.8 Power and Decision-making.....	60
3.9 Gender Roles and Time Use in Domestic Context	64
3.10 Climate Change and Gender.....	66
CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSIONS	69
REFERENCES.....	71

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Distribution of the De facto household population aged 6 and above in Eastern province by highest educational level attained	28
Figure 2. Distribution of women aged 15-49 by nutrition status in Eastern Province.....	30
Figure 3	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Figure 4 Distribution of married women aged 15-49 according to their report on who decides how men cash earning is used.....	41
Figure 5. Proportion of purchased, sold, rented out or sharecropped land disaggregated by sex and rural/urban	41
Figure 6 Percentage of crop-producing households per sex and geographical location	46
Figure 7 Percentage of crop-producing households by sex of the head of the household	46
Figure 8 Percentage of households having purchased inputs for agricultural production	47
Figure 9 Percentage of male and female extension workers.....	50

Figure 10 Distribution of farmer promoters in the four agro-ecological zones in Rwanda.....	51
Figure 11 Percentage of households raising livestock by sex of the head of the household	54
Figure 12 Percentage of households raising livestock by types of livestock and sex.....	55
Figure 13 Number of exporters of agricultural products by sex	56
Figure 14. Percentage distribution of women reporting to make decisions per type of decision	63
Figure 15: Distribution of individuals by quintile	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Figure 16. Percentage of households with dwelling affected by environmental destruction per location	68

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 VUP Beneficiaries by component (%).....	23
Table 2 Demographic characteristics per Province.....	24
Table 3 Percentage (%) of population that migrated in the last five years, by urban/rural, province, and sex.....	24
Table 4 Distribution (%) of households, by urban/rural and province EICV5 (2016/17)	25
Table 5 Gender equality in Primary, Secondary, TVET and Higher Education.....	26
Table 6 Employed men and women by economic activity	32
Table 7 Labour underutilization by sex and by area of residence	33
Table 8 Women and men in managerial positions.....	34
Table 9 Occupations with high gender segregation	35
Table 10 Female Labour force participation.....	35
Table 11 Male and Female outside the labour force.....	36
Table 12 Proportion of working age population who are own use producers by sex	39
Table 13 Percentage of households with Access to Improved Sanitation Facilities.....	39
Table 14 Land ownership by sex of household head, (EICV5, EICV4).....	43
Table 15: Table 15 Percentage of population aged 18 and above with loan from formal financial institutions by sex.....	48
Table 16 Men and Women Access to Agricultural Loans since 2012-2015	49
Table 17 Master trainers, facilitators and trained farmers	53
Table 18 Men and Women's membership in cooperative	57
Table 19 Gender Equality and access to Finance	58

Table 20 Distribution of Households (HHs) by Main Type of Energy for Cooking (%)	59
Table 21 Women representation in Parliament.....	61
Table 22 . Men and Women Representation in Decentralized Local Government	61
Table 23 Men and Women in Executive Committees of PSF Chambers at National and Provincial Level.....	63
Table 24 Men and Women in Executive Committees of PSF Chambers at District Level	63
Table 25. Domestic tasks carried out per sex.....	65
Table 26 Average number of hours spent in own use production activities by type and sex	Error!
Bookmark not defined.	
Table 27 Proportion of working age population engaged in Own use production of services by residential area and activity.....	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Table 28 Main types of fuel used by Households for cooking	Error! Bookmark not defined.

1 CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

In the aftermath of the 1994 genocide, the Government of Rwanda undertook radical and far-reaching reforms to address the political, social, legal, and economic status of women. Of particular impact were legal reforms to give women property rights, and to enable them to inherit property, including land. The Constitution, adopted in 2003 and amended in 2015, proactively promotes gender equality. It outlaws any form of gender discrimination, and enshrines the principle of equality within marriage. The National Strategy on Climate Change and Low-Carbon Development has also laid the foundation for gender equality and equity in that specific sector.

However, despite tremendous efforts from the policy and legal perspectives, a patriarchal culture and persistent disparities continue to characterize gender relations in Rwanda in general, and in the Eastern Province of Rwanda in particular. Disparities persist in post-primary education; in access to and control of assets, property (including land), and economic resources; in employment opportunities and entrepreneurship; in decision-making at household and community levels; in family responsibilities and unpaid care work; and in the experience of violence, harassment, conflict, and insecurity. Sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) persists at high levels in Rwanda. While women have made impressive political progress, especially at the national level, their progress in terms of economic empowerment has not been as strong, and economic opportunities remain markedly gender-differentiated.

The significant rise in atmospheric greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations in modern times from human activity is exacerbating climatic changes and leading to extreme and uncertain conditions. The impacts of these conditions—as well as the impacts of the actions taken to combat the causes of climate change and cope with its effects—are and will continue to be dramatically differentiated for people depending on their geographical, economic and sociocultural conditions, including their gender.

In Rwanda and in Eastern Province, structural barriers to economic and social spaces and resources have significantly reduced abilities to enact measures to adapt to climate change impacts. In Rwanda, these structural inequalities are at a lower level compared to other countries in the world, because of leading gender-considerate policies across sectors. However, the point remains that women's ability to access, use and control natural resources, infrastructure and services differently is still low compared to men. This means the degradation of natural resources and new infrastructure will affect women and men differently, and will generally result in greater vulnerability of women. Women are vital agents of change and can be powerful leaders from the community to global level in mitigating and adapting to climate change.

1.1 PURPOSE OF GENDER ANALYSIS

Gender analysis is a systematic process that identifies the differences in men and women's lives, including those that lead to sociocultural and economic inequalities, and applies this understanding to project development. The gender analysis has the following main objectives:

- To analyze gender roles in the context of the project or activity that will be designed;
- To identify root causes of existing gender inequalities in that context and increase understanding about how to address them;
- To identify different needs and priorities of men and women, over the short and long-term.
- To collect sex-disaggregated baseline data;
- To avoid perpetuating traditional power imbalances;
- To enhance the likelihood of strengthened and sustainable project or activity results.

The purpose of this gender analysis is to ensure adequate and appropriate attention is paid to gender issues across and within the TREPA project interventions. This analysis will also help assure that the project proposal design and implementation will be informed by a thorough understanding of gender roles, power relations and dynamics. This assessment provides information to address the critical issues relevant for the transformation into a climate resilient agro-ecological systems from a gender perspective.

The information gathered from the gender analysis and assessment should be considered in all stages of the TREPA project cycle: design, formulation, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. In each of these stages, project managers should keep a ‘gender lens’ in mind, looking at ways the project can:

- address gender inequalities that emerge from the project;
- ensure the differential needs of women and men are addressed;
- ensure women and men have equal access to resources, services, and capacity development;
- ensure equal participation of women and men in management arrangements and as beneficiaries, partners and key stakeholders; and
- ensure women’s equal participation in decision-making processes.

Based on key expected outcomes, the gender assessment will provide a realistic gender action plan to be implemented in the Eastern Province during the TREPA project. The responsible institutions that need to be involved, and the required financial resources are mentioned for each type of intervention.

1.2 METHODOLOGY

The methodology utilized in this project is based on the framework of human rights for women, under the guiding principles of gender equality, non-discrimination and sustainable development. It is based on the practical realization that gender equality and women's empowerment are necessary conditions for effective environmental conservation and climate change initiatives and interventions. This methodology transcends formulaic women-only projects that only consider women as a vulnerable group, and instead moves beyond that view to empower women and enhance gender equality--by focusing on women as agents of change.

The assessment is qualitative in nature and used a mixed data collection and analysis methods mainly to ensure triangulation of results for a better interpretation of the gender situation in Eastern Province of Rwanda. The primary data collection tools that were used include Key Informant Interviews (KII) for selected individuals from different institutions on a purposive basis that was supplemented by 3 Focus Groups Discussions (FGD) with community members in Kayonza, Kirehe and Gatsibo districts of the Eastern Province. A review of the secondary source data also was undertaken, including existing national policies and strategies for promoting gender equality and the existing institutional and legal framework as well as relevant surveys and censuses data and other analyses.

CHAPTER 2: NATIONAL POLICY, LEGAL, INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORKS AND STRATEGIES FOR GENDER EQUALITY

2.1. POLICY FRAMEWORK & STRATEGIES

Rwanda is internationally recognized as a world leader in promoting gender equality principles and women's empowerment. In the aftermath of the 1994 genocide, the Government undertook radical and far-reaching reforms to address the political, social, legal, and economic status of women. Legal reforms to give women property rights, and to enable them to inherit property, including land, were especially important. The GoR has made a strong political commitment to gender equality and it ensures that it is reflected in its policies at all levels. This chapter analyses gender aspects in different policies of Rwanda relevant for TREPA and spells out the key political commitments and policies on agriculture and gender equality.

2.1.1. Vision 2020

The Government of Rwanda attaches great importance to the promotion of gender equality and as a prerequisite for sustainable development. With 53% of total Rwanda population being women, the Vision 2020 national government strategy emphasises that Gender equality will be one of the driving factors towards achieving rapid growth and sustainable development and hence the Vision's goal. Vision 2020 synthesizes the political, social and economic aspirations of the Rwandan people. Gender is a crosscutting issue considered in all the fundamental pillars, with targeted actions: updating and adapting laws with gender aspects; supporting education for all; eradicating all forms of discrimination; combating poverty; promoting female presence in associative and cooperative networks; generalizing training and information regarding gender and population issues. Vision 2020 commits to continuously update and adapt laws on gender, strategies for an increased access to productive resources by women, representation in decision-making positions and apply positive discrimination in favour of women (Republic of Rwanda, 2012).

Rwanda Vision 2050

The Vision 2050 strategy takes the Vision 2020 one-step further and envisions Rwanda is achieving upper middle-income status by 2035 and high-income status by 2050. Through these achievement

Rwanda will ensure high standards of living for all Rwandans, including: sustained food security and better nutrition status; universal, sustainable, and reliable household access to improved water and sanitation; and universal access to quality health care and services. Both the Vision 2020 and the forthcoming Vision 2050 highlight Gender and Family Promotion as one of the crosscutting areas (Gender Monitoring Office, 2019).

Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (EDPRS I&II)

As a mid-term development policy, the EDPRS aimed at advancing the realization of the goal of achieving equity of voice, participation and accessibility to services in every sector. Its implementation is undertaken in every sector and all districts with the coordination of MINECOFIN. This helps ensure that actions are taken in a timely manner and aligned to agreed priorities. The EDPRS-2 ensure that the achievements realised during EDPRS-1 are sustained and promote new approaches in terms of gender mainstreaming and monitoring. While the first EDRPRS contained a statement highlighting that gender should crosscut all development sectors, the second goes beyond and stresses that national planning and budgeting processes should ensure the gender consideration both at central and decentralized levels. More importantly, EDPRS 2 highlights that wherever possible, thematic outcome indicators has to be gender-disaggregated, which is a laudable novelty. Out of the 40 thematic outcomes of EDPRS 2, 10 outcomes are gender sensitive.

EDPRS-2 set out the government's efforts to transform the economy according to Vision 2020. Quality, demand and accessibility of primary health care were seen as one of the foundational issues to achieve targets, and the strategy identified gender and family, sensitization around HIV/AIDS and NCDs, and disability and social inclusion as crosscutting issues that needed to be mainstreamed in all sector strategies and district plans. This Strategy has since been replaced by the National Strategy for Transformation. (MINECOFIN, 2007, 2013)

2.1.2. National Strategy for Transformation (NST1)

The National Strategy for Transformation (2017-2024) provides the platform and pillars for accelerated transformation on the pathway to the prosperity sought by Vision 2050. In this seven-year government plan, five interventions were set to sustain family promotion and women empowerment. It includes; mainstreaming gender in employment and job creation, access to finance and continuing awareness and fight against Gender based violence (GBV). (Republic of Rwanda, 2017)

Strategic Plan for Agriculture Transformation 2018 - 2024 (PSTA IV)

The Strategic Plan for Agriculture is of key importance for TREPA as it provides that intensification and commercialization of Rwandan agricultural sector will be essential to reduce poverty and drive growth. Additionally, strategies to address key gender issues within the sector were outlined by the plan. It is complemented by the Agriculture Gender Strategy (2010) which guides the Ministry of

Agriculture and Animal Resources (MINAGRI), its agencies and partners to effectively mainstream gender in their programs and interventions (GMO, 2017:2).

National Gender Policy, Sector Gender Mainstreaming Strategies and Girls' Education Policy

The **National Gender Policy** (2010) aims to support programs in various sectors that are directly aimed at addressing gender inequalities and women's rights. The policy envisages to set the Rwandan society free from all forms of gender based discrimination and create an environment where both men and women equally contribute to and benefit from the national development goals (Gender Monitoring Office, 2019: 10) The main goal of the NGP is to contribute to reducing gender inequalities in all sectors, as a key component of sustainable development. To accomplish this goal, groups that are traditionally marginalized, such as women and children, benefit from the procedures, processes and attract attention to existing issues the Policy generates across government programmes and agencies and society at large. These issues include but are not limited to environmental protection and land use management.

In line with the aspirations of the National Gender Policy, different sectors including but not limited to Private Sector, Infrastructure, Agriculture, and Employment have developed gender-mainstreaming strategies to guide their strategic interventions on the promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women. (GMO, 2019:10).

The overall objective of the **Girls' Education Policy** is to guide and promote sustainable actions aimed at the progressive elimination of gender disparities in education and training as well as in management structures.

The National Policy against GBV and its Strategic Plan

The overall objective of the National Policy against Gender-Based Violence (2011) is the progressive elimination of gender-based violence through development of a protective and supportive environment for GBV prevention and response. The National Anti-GBV Strategic Plan is designed to improve the impact of existing interventions, and to fill the gaps in prevention and response to gender-based violence. The policy also aims to identify and reduce the vulnerability of groups most at risk, provide comprehensive services for victims improve accountability and eliminate impunity, and build better M&E systems and expand the data available on SGBV. (USAID, 2018:17)

The National Decentralization Policy

This policy underlines the commitment of the Rwandan government to empower its people to determine their destiny. The implementation of decentralized structures down to the lowest level of *Umudugudu* (Village) is a strategic approach for ensuring that national gender policy is effectively addressed throughout the planning cycle, and that a sense of community ownership by the different social groups is enhanced. It is only through this grass roots gender mainstreaming, as reflected in

consultations with different key stakeholders, that the government sees it will be possible to foster enhanced appreciation of gender equality as a critical component in national development.

The Health Sector Policy 2015 and the Health Sector Strategic Plan

The policy envisages ‘people-centered services’ as one of its guiding principles and values, focusing on “the well-being of individuals and communities”, with special attention to women and children. (GMO 2019:11)

The Fourth Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP IV, 2018-2024) sets out the national strategic direction for the health sector in order to improve health standards of Rwandans. It elaborates the strategic directions defined in the Health Sector Policy. The strategy recognizes that the specific health needs of women and men at all stages of life are related to both their physical differences and societal roles. It acknowledges that a gender-sensitive approach is needed not only for sexual and reproductive health but also for other key health programs. Among key gender issues, teenage pregnancies and related risks such as maternal mortality, fertility rates, gender disparities with regard to HIV/AIDS, nutritional disorders especially among children and women, and gender-based violence are specifically addressed. (USAID, 2018:17).

The National Food and Nutrition Policy

The National Food and Nutrition Policy outlines as its most important priority addressing the high level of chronic malnutrition in children under two years through multisector support and coordination at the national, district, and community levels. The policy seeks to strengthen existing community-based activities for child growth monitoring and improve the prevention and management of malnutrition. The policy supports expanding services and practices for household food security, improving the link between household food security and the health and nutrition of women and children, and strengthening of nutrition education in schools. The policy acknowledges the links between nutrition and HIV/AIDS, hygiene and sanitation, and nutrition-related non-communicable diseases. Pregnant women, lactating mothers, and young children are central in this policy. (USAID, 2018:17)

The recent National Integrated Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn, Child, Adolescent Health policy

The recent National Integrated Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn, Child, Adolescent Health (RMNCAH) policy aims to advance the implementation of the Maternal, Newborn, and Child Health and Family Planning and Sexual and Reproductive Health strategic plans. The overall goal of the policy is to eliminate preventable maternal, neonatal and child deaths and promote the wellbeing of women, men, children, and adolescents using a multisectoral approach to ensure healthy development and ageing. The policy identifies a need to educate the population about RMNCAH and encourage health-seeking behavior. The focus is on women, newborns, children, adolescents, and their universal

access to sustainable quality health care delivered in a continuum of care across the life course and moves away from disease- and condition-specific approaches. (USAID, 2018:17).

National Social Protection Strategy

National Social Protection Strategy (2011) defines social protection across two domains: direct income support through cash transfers and means of ensuring access to public services – such as education and health – by enabling poor households to overcome financial barriers that they may face. Additionally, it outlines a number of social development initiatives and complementary activities to social protection that are focused on helping poor households graduate out of poverty (USAID, 2018:20).

2.2. LEGAL FRAMEWORK FOR GENDER EQUALITY IN RWANDA

The preamble to the Constitution of Rwanda of 4 June 2003, as amended on December 24, 2015, affirms the fundamental rights of all citizens of Rwanda, consistent with the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights and other human rights instruments. According to Article 11 of the Constitution: *“All Rwandans are born and remain free and equal in rights and duties. Discrimination of whatever kind based on, inter alia, ethnic origin, tribe, clan, color, sex, region, social origin, religion or faith, opinion, economic status, culture, language, social status, physical or mental disability or any other form of discrimination is prohibited and punishable by law.”* Article 16 further enshrines the principle of gender equality, and the Government has committed to establishing equity and equality at all levels of society. Key constitutional provisions are:

- The preamble reaffirms Rwanda’s adherence to human rights conventions, including CEDAW and declares Rwanda’s commitment to ensure equal rights between women and men.
- Outlaws any form of gender discrimination (Articles 11 and 16).
- Mandates a minimum quota of 30% female representation in the Senate and other areas of public governance (Articles 9, 76, and 82)
- Prohibits discrimination in employment (Article 37)
- Enshrines equality within marriage (Article 26).¹

Over the years, Rwanda's legal framework has evolved to become quite progressive in promoting gender equality and in reducing gender-based imbalances. Key gender-progressive laws include:

- The Electoral Law, Article 7 of which stipulates a minimum quota of 30 per cent of women in government leadership positions
- Organic Law N° 12/2013/OL of 12/09/2013 on State Finances and Property: For gender commitments to be realized a gender responsive planning and budgeting programme (GRB) was adopted by the Government of Rwanda. The implementation of the programme was further reinforced by a law that stepped up accountability on financing for gender equality,

1 This article only recognizes “civil monogamous marriages between a man and a woman.”

providing mandatory gender responsive planning and reporting through Gender Budget Statements (GBS). (GMO, 2019:11).

- Law N°27/2016 of 08/07/2016 Governing Matrimonial Regimes, Donations and Successions: In 1999, a gender revolution especially in terms of equal accessibility to and management of family patrimony was realized through the law on matrimonial regimes, donations and successions that was later revised in 2016. The law provides that both boys and girls have the same rights to inherit properties from their parents.
- The Penal Code (Decree-Law N° 21/77 of 18 August 1977) outlawing offenses related to the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography. A new draft of the Penal Code intends to integrate specific provisions on the protection of the child against violence and exploitation.
- Law N° 43/2013 OF 16/06/2013 Governing Land in Rwanda: The same as inheritance, Land reform in Rwanda supported women and men to have equal rights and enjoyment over their land properties. From this, both men and women have land titles registered on their names and this have facilitated especially women to access loans from financial institutions and engage in income generating activities.
- The law n° 59/2008 of 10/09/2008 on Prevention and Punishment of Gender-Based Violence.
- Law n° 27/2001 of 28/04/2001 concerning rights and protection of the child against violence. Section 2 is dedicated to crimes of rape and use of a child for dehumanizing acts.
- Law n°22/99 of 12/11/1999 as amended in 2017, regarding matrimonial regimes liberalities and successions provides the same right of succession to girls and boys.

International Commitments on Gender Equality and Women and Children Rights

The Government of Rwanda is committed to the attainment of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (among other no hunger and gender equality). The Government of Rwanda has demonstrated that, to fast track the achievement of the SDGs, both women and men must equally participate in and benefit from development processes. The government has also ratified and/or implemented numerous international conventions and instruments. Those include:

- The Convention on Slavery and Repression of Human Trafficking and its Additional Protocol repressing and punishing the sale and trafficking of children and women.
- The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) and the Optional Protocol on the CRC on Child Trafficking, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography.
- The African Charter on Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC)
- The African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa.
- ILO Convention 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labor.
- The Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Violence against Women (CEDAW),
- The Beijing Platform for Action, the African Charter on human and people's rights on the rights of women (ACHPR),
- The International Convention on Social and Cultural Rights (ICCPR),

- The United Nations Security Council Resolution on Peace and Security (UNSCR 1325 and 1820) and
- The UN declaration on human rights (UDHR).

These international commitments are supported in the country's Family Policy, which aims at improving the population's social, economic and cultural living conditions. The overall objective of the policy is to provide a framework that engages all key ministries involved in family-related programmes, in the implementation and monitoring of programmes to protect and support the family. This policy is focused on the promotion of women's and children's welfare and protection to enable it to play its central role in the country's development. Key implementation programmes are those managed by the Agriculture, Justice, Health, Education, and Local Government ministries or agencies.

2.3. Institutional framework for gender mainstreaming in Rwanda

2.3.1. Gender Machinery Institutions

Rwanda has established key Institutions responsible for coordinating and ensuring oversight of gender equality and women's empowerment in Rwanda (Gender machinery Institutions). They include Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion (MIGEPROF), Gender Monitoring Office (GMO), National Women Council (NWC) and Rwanda Women Parliamentarians (RWPF/FFRP). Gender machinery institutions work together in complementarity. The existence of these institutions facilitates the implementation, coordination and monitoring of the Gender Capacity Building Strategy.

Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion (MIGEPROF)

The Ministry responsible for Gender has the mandate of coordinating the implementation of the national gender policy and advocating on gender issues at different levels. MIGEPROF formulates policies and has gender mainstreaming units with work programmes on governance, social, and economic clusters.

The Gender Monitoring Office (GMO)

The GMO oversees and audits the extent to which gender is considered in public and private institutions, and undertakes monitoring and evaluation of gender mainstreaming across sectors. The Gender Monitoring Office with the role of monitoring progress towards gender equality.

The National Women's Council (NWC)

The National Women's Council has the role of advocating for women's rights and the promotion of gender equality; as well as the mobilization of women to participate in different development programmes and activities. The NWC is involved in implementation and mobilisation of women. The National Women's Council provides a formal structure to give voice to women and through which women can raise ideas and concerns to inform policy. It works from the grassroots to national levels

and includes all women at village level. However, the bottom-up information flow is challenged by lack of resources for these lower structures. (USAID, 2018:24)

Rwanda Women Parliamentarians (RWPF/FFRP).

FFRP as an institution at higher, legal, and political levels is concerned with the oversight of legal issues and advocates at the level of law formulation. The FFRP works to build the capacity of women Parliamentarians, in order to carry out advocacy around gender and development issues, and to successfully manage their other parliamentary duties.

The National Gender Cluster

This is a forum in which the Government of Rwanda, development partners, the Private Sector and Civil Society meet and discuss planning, coordination and prioritization of Gender Equality interventions.

CHAPTER 3: GENDER SITUATION ANALYSIS

3.1. ACHIEVEMENTS AND GAPS IN GENDER EQUALITY PROMOTION

Interviews performed for this study with selected gender focal points in key ministries revealed that several government ministries in Rwanda have developed plans and strategies, which address sustainable development and gender equality simultaneously. These ministries include the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MINECOFIN), Ministry of Natural Resources (MINIRENA), Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources (MINAGRI), Ministry of Infrastructure (MININFRA), and Ministry of Local Government (MINALOC). Strategies, policies and initiatives that are inclusive of gender, and sometimes specific to gender, developed under these ministries have helped shape the robust political framework for addressing the complex but crucial gender considerations in sustainable development programming. This is a critical first step to advancing gender equality.

3.1.1 Gender capacity building

In addition, some preliminary initiatives regarding gender capacity building have been initiated. These include but not limited to gender capacity building programmes and modules already developed and used in different trainings in Rwanda. Some were developed by the Centre for Gender Studies (CGS) of the College of Arts and Social Sciences (CASS)/ University of Rwanda, which has a programme that awards a master's degree in Gender and Development. This Centre has been an academic capacity reinforcement facility that offers potential gender-sensitive staff to implement different sector strategies.

Beside the achievements in setting up institution with gender equality promotion mandate, a number of gaps were identified. First, there is lack of capacity-building strategies in gender machinery. The study on capacity development strategy for the National Gender Machinery (NGM) revealed that

gender machinery institutions do not have capacity-building strategies to develop their staff's knowledge and skills on gender (MIGEPROF, 2012). Gender experts are employed on staff, but only a small number, with very few in decision-making positions. The other staff may acquire on-the-job advanced gender skills if training opportunities are offered.

Secondly, comprehensive strategies to mainstream gender in institutions' capacity building strategies and plans are also lacking. Institutions do not have a comprehensive strategy of mainstreaming gender in the entire system, comprising the functions of staff recruitment, staff training, and activity planning and budgeting. This lapse does not augur well for sustainable promotion of gender equality in these institutions.

At individual level, efforts have been made to identify gender capacity gaps and needs. MIGEPROFE has already conducted an institutional capacity assessment for the Rwanda National Gender Machinery comprised of MIGEPROFE, GMO, NWC, and FFRP (MIGEPROF, 2012). The gaps identified at the individual level included the limited number of the trained staff, management's prioritization of staff with gender training and skills, lack of staff retention measures, the lack of orientation packages for new employees, and clear handover procedures when staff exit the organization.

3.1.2 Fighting against GBV

In Rwanda, women from rural and urban area experience GBV. It includes sexual, physical, economic, and psychological violence. According to Rwanda Gender Statistic Report (2019), Gender based violence has negative health consequences for victims, especially with respect to the reproductive health of women and the physical, emotional, and mental health of their children.

The report indicate that, in Rwanda women and men suffered by different forms of violence. About 35% of women and 39% of men aged 15-49 reported that they have ever had experienced any physical violence committed by their current or most recent husband or partner, 22% of women reported any sexual violence compared to only 5% of men, and 27% of women reported any emotional violence compared to 17% of men. The most common perpetrators of sexual violence among ever-married women are current husbands/partners (34%), whereas the most common perpetrators among men are current/former girlfriends (20%).

The Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) 2014-15, which are nationally representative survey, indicate that, in the East Province 9.4% among women age 15-49 have been pregnant experienced physical violence during pregnancy. About 35% of ever-married women reported that they have ever had experienced any physical violence committed by their current or most recent husband or partner compared to 39% of men, 22% of women reported any sexual violence compared to only 5 % of men.

The DHS 2014-15, indicate that in Rwanda the most commonly reported perpetrator of physical violence is the current husband or partner (58%), followed by the former husband/partner (27%),

indicating a high level of spousal violence. Among ever-married men, the most common perpetrators are those in the “other” category (20%), followed by the current wife or partner (18%) and police or soldiers (17%). Among ever-married women, the most commonly reported perpetrators of sexual violence are current husbands/partners (34%), followed by former husbands/partners (22%). Among never-married women who have experienced sexual violence, the most commonly reported perpetrators are current/former boyfriends (41%), friends or acquaintances (16%), and family friends (12%).

There is strong political will in Rwanda to promote gender equality and to address gender-based violence. The national legislative framework supports gender equality goals and provides a foundation for further progress. At national level, all ministries and public institutions have Gender Focal Points. While at local level, there are designated professional staff in key government agencies in charge of addressing gender issues, and there are various structures to support gender equality and to combat gender-based violence, such as the anti-GBV committees and student clubs for gender.

However, many of these initiatives are not operational, due to lack of technical knowledge of staff to mainstream gender, in addition to the lack of means to achieve their ambitions. Consequently, many of these structures have neither action plans nor budgets. Field visits have made it clear that, even where there is a budget, the amount involved is negligible. The situation is similar for gender focal points within ministries and other institutions. While Rwanda has developed relevant and sound policies related to gender, the situation on the ground, as confirmed during the field visits, suggests a wide divergence between policies and their implementation, for the reasons outlined above. Some informants have even spoken of a “gender structures’ inflation,” a multiplication of committees and clubs intended to promote gender equality and to combat SGBV, but which are never operational. To date, there has been no specific study on the effectiveness of gender focal points, but informal discussions with some GFPs at different times suggest the many challenges they face, including the lack of budget and insufficient technical capacity.

Although there are challenges to fully prevent and combat gender-based violence, different fronts (Government institutions, service providers, OSCs, International Organizations and others), have made their contribution in this fight. According to Scippa, D. at all (2019), several bodies and agencies have been set up at national and decentralized levels to advance, coordinate, and advocate for gender issues and women’s empowerment as well as to combat GBV. These entities include The Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion, the Ministry of Justice, the National Gender cluster, the National Women’s Council (NWC), and gender desks within the ministry of defense and the national police. And that, there is a robust network of organizations working on the frontlines of responding to the needs of GBV survivors and in prevention efforts, from faith-based organizations to legal-assistance providers to organizations focused on GBV prevention and behaviour change with men, such as Rwanda Men’s Resource Centre (RWAMREC) and Rwanda Women’s Network.

To prevent and respond to GBV, the Govern of Rwanda and the Ministry of Justice created the ISANGE One Stop Centers (OSC) for GBV, which are embedded in district hospitals. The ISANGE OSCs provide holistic responses to GBV under one roof to minimize the risk of revictimization, compromised evidence, and delayed justice. The Rwanda Women's Network also works in GBV prevention area. Currently in 11 districts, the network has established safe spaces that offer referral services, community outreach, and dialogues sessions that bring women together. The approach on GBV prevention, its focus on financial inclusion and literacy, solidarity initiatives that help women create village savings and loans cooperatives, engagement with male allies; and Fem'Dialogues that are conversation circles that promote critical thinking about cultural practices and social norms. The RWAMREC and the Karuna Center for Peacebuilding, are Kigali based and although they prioritize outreach to rural communities, much of their work in GBV prevention and reducing violent conflict tends to be concentrated in urban areas. (Scippa, D and Bamusiime, M A, 2019).

3.2. THE POVERTY SITUATION OF WOMEN IN RWANDA AND SOCIAL PROTECTION MEASURES

Prior to the gender analysis in different aspects, there is a need to make a brief analysis of poverty situation in Rwanda and some social protection measures that are being undertaken to promote socio-economic development of both men and women

In Africa, poverty often carries a female face, more so for countries like Rwanda that are still ranked amongst the poorest in the world. In this regard, the Rwandan Government has taken upon itself the enviable task of empowering women in the national development process, based on the notion that if you provide development opportunities for women you have developed a nation. Historically, the poverty situation is the consequence of many factors that include political, economic and geographic. Existing economic structures have not succeeded in achieving a productivity growth proportional to the rapid population growth. (Internet source: <https://www.newtimes.co.rw/section/read/4527> visited 20 February 2020).

3.2.1 Brief analysis of the poverty situation of women

Rwanda has achieved impressive sustained economic growth since the 1990s, considerable reduction in poverty and important gains in health, education and other development outcomes (for example meeting most of the Millennium Development Goals by the end of 2015). Income inequality statistics have decreased in recent years. (Becky Carter, 2018:9).

With the government committed to gender equality, women empowerment and promoting women rights, the analyses find that Rwanda's legal and policy framework provides a strong basis for promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women (Abbott and Malunda, 2015: 3; Abbott et al, 2015b: 81). The 2003 Constitution mandates gender equality, and it is mainstreamed in all government policies. Gender quotas ensure the representation of women at a national level in government and gender-responsive budgeting is practiced (Abbott et al, 2018). Rwanda is the first country in the world to achieve the target of 50 per cent of parliamentarians being women. IMF (2017:

36) concludes “the gains in institutional and policy reforms for gender equality have placed the country among the global leaders in advancing gender equality”.

Rwanda has made great efforts to promote inclusive economic development with special focus on traditionally excluded groups including women. Considering poverty status, the data from EICV5 shows that 39.5% of female-headed households are classified as poor compared to 37.6% of male-headed households in 2016/17, hence there is no significant difference between gender groups. (NISR, EICV5, 2018:8).

While there is room for improvement in the legal provision (for example, better protecting the rights of women in consensual unions), Abbott et al (2015b: 4, 81) find that implementation is the critical challenge. Rwandan women continue to be disadvantaged, especially poor women and those living in rural areas (Abbott et al, 2015: 932). Women are significantly less likely than men to be in decent paid employment are, operating mainly as dependent family workers, working significantly longer hours than men when domestic work is taken into account, especially in rural areas (Abbott et al, 2015: 932). Female-headed households are more likely to be poor than male-headed households (and more likely to be extremely poor (EICV4) and to be food insecure (IMF, 2017: 35; WFP, 2015: 3). Female heads of household are often widows and tend to be less educated than their male counterparts (WFP, 2015: 3) are. A range of household situations can be problematic for women and children’s food security, including female-headed households but also polygamous households, households with many children, and households with male breadwinners who fail to take responsibility for their families (Nzayisenga et al, 2016: 293-294).

3.2.2 Poverty reduction strategy through social protection programmes

The extreme poverty among male and female HHs has dramatically reduced from 22.5% and 26.0% in 2010 down to 15.0% and 17.8% respectively in 2017. This is attributed to various poverty reduction initiatives and programmes including Vision 2020 Umurenge and other social protection interventions initiated by the Government and partners, the introduction of cooperatives like SACCOs and agriculture programmes like Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security, among others. (GMO, 2019: 45).

The social protection program aims at ensuring that all poor and vulnerable people are guaranteed a minimum income and access to core public services, those who can work are provided with the means of escaping poverty, and that increasing numbers of people are able to access risk-sharing mechanisms that protect them from crisis and shocks. Underpinning Rwanda’s vision for social protection system are three important principles; that it be protective (providing essential support to those living in poverty), preventative (providing a safety net to those in danger of falling into poverty) and promotive (supporting people to pull themselves out of poverty and graduate from the need for social protection). (MINALOC, 2011:2). Social protection also takes place across a range of other sectors, in which its focus is on ensuring that poor people can overcome financial barriers to accessing public services. The Strategy sets out the governments key social protection commitments in the areas of health,

education, agriculture, youth and disaster management. These include health insurance, free basic education and Girinka, the one cow one family programme.

3.2.3 Social protection measures promoting economic activities of women

One cow per a poor family (Girinka Program)

Initiated by the GoR in 2006, One Cow per Poor Family Program has greatly contributed to reducing poverty among vulnerable male and female headed HHs, fighting malnutrition, increasing crop productivity and household income through surplus milk sales and promoting social harmony/cohesion among the Rwandan community through pass on the gift (Kwitura). (GMO, 2019:46). As of 2017, 296,230 cows have been distributed to poor male and female-headed households since the implementation of the programme (*Evaluation Report of the Seven-Year Government Program, 2017*). The Girinka Program gives one cow to poor families to reduce childhood malnutrition and increase household income through access to and sale of milk. According to the findings from the EICV4 (2015), 6 percent of Rwandan households received a cow under the 'One Cow per Poor Family' policy. The highest rate can be observed in Eastern Province (10 percent).

Other social protection schemes and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) also distributed animals to households: 9 percent of households received such an animal overall, and the proportion of households benefiting from such programmes was highest in Southern Province (11 percent) and Northern Province (12 percent). However, it was found that more female-headed households (13 percent) than male-headed households (7 percent) received an animal from other social protection schemes than the 'One Cow per Poor Family' scheme, in which fewer women- (5.8 percent) than men- (6.1 percent) headed households benefited from the policy.

Vision 2020 Umurenge Program (VUP)

The Vision 2020 Umurenge Program (VUP) improves the livelihoods of the poorest families by reestablishing the public works system to create off-farm employment, developing credit packages to address extreme poverty, and providing direct income support to households without a member eligible to work. These programs offer both direct and indirect health benefits including expanded access to sources of nutrition and financial resources to make health care-related decisions.

A study conducted by FAO on social protection (2016) indicated that participation in VUP public works is positively enabling female beneficiaries to access wage labor and earn cash, some for the first time and, for many, it encourages them to look for other similar work in the labour market. Most public works employees are women and are likely, but not always able, to retain full or partial control over their own incomes through saving and credits Cooperatives (SACCO) loan association accounts. Joint control was also reported between spouses, reflecting variations in persons in the household working and/or decisions made within the household to open the account in joint names. Regression results in the quantitative study corroborate this finding, indicating correlation between VUP public

works participation and achieving “adequacy in control over use of income” for both male and female beneficiaries.

Table 1 VUP Beneficiaries by component (%)

VUP - Financial Services Beneficiaries									
	2012/2013			2014/2015			2016/2017		
	VUP - Financial Services			VUP - Financial Services			VUP - Financial Services		
	Indivi duals	Groups	Cooperative s	Individuals	Groups	Cooperatives	Individua ls	Group	Cooperati ves
Male	60.5	46	54.3	60.8	51.6	46.7	60.2	45	47.2
Female	39.5	54	46.7	39.2	48.4	43.3	39.9	55	43.8
VUP-Public Works									
		2012/2013		2014/2015		2016/2017		Average	
Male		51.2		52.6		47.2		51.6	
Female		48.8		47.4		52.8		48.4	
VUP-Direct Support									
		2012/2013		2014/2015		2016/2017		Average	
Male		33.9		34.5		28.8		34.9	
Female		66.1		65.5		71.2		65.1	

Source: LODA, *Annual Reports from 2009-2017 Cited in GMO (2019:46)*

Started in 2008, VUP Umurenge program greatly contributed to improving the livelihoods and poverty reduction among male and female beneficiaries by helping them respond to daily life needs, working with financial institutions, and starting income generating activities. However, the trend shows that more female Headed HHs have been benefiting from VUP Direct support than male Headed HHs. As per the program beneficiaries’ selection criteria, this shows that poverty is more observed in female-headed HH than ones headed by males are.

Social protection in agriculture Sector

MINAGRI recognises that men and women farmers still have limited capacity to access inputs and improved seeds, and yet it is imperative to increase their use for an increased agriculture production. MINAGRI opted to subsidise inputs, improved seeds and irrigation facilities for easy access of farmers. This offers additional benefits to women, as they are the poorest.

In line with facilitating increased investment in agriculture, MINAGRI introduced credit facilities and set-up an Agriculture Guaranty Fund that are managed by the Business Development Fund. These schemes provide specific incentives for women. With regard to nutrition security, MINAGRI has different programmes that aim to increase nutrients for households. The One Cow per Poor Family Program that provided 236 932² cows –38 percent to female-headed households--to poor families to increase not only their consumption of proteins, but also for increased access to manure for an increased agriculture production. One Cup of Milk per Child is another programme that aims at

²MINAGRI reports

reducing stunting of children for 85,028³ beneficiaries, who are students in primary schools staying in the districts with high level of malnutrition.

3.3. POPULATION STATISTIC

The following table highlights the proportion of male and female per province.

Table 2 Demographic characteristics per Province

	Male proportion	Female proportion	Total population (000s)
Rwanda	48%	52%	11,893
Kigali City	50.1%	49.9%	1631
Eastern province	47.7%	52.3%	2998
Southern Province	47.8%	52.2%	2739
Western Province	47.8%	52.2%	2685
Northern province	47.2%	52,8%	1841

Source: NISR, EICV5, 2017:33

From the above table, there a small difference as far as the number of men and women in each province. All provinces have almost equal number of men and women. The small difference is only for Kigali city where female are more represented (49.9%) and consequently male are more represented in the City of Kigali.

Table 3 Percentage (%) of population that migrated in the last five years, by urban/rural, province, and sex.

EICV 5	% migrating in last 5 years	Total population (000s)
All Rwanda	13.0	11,893
Sex		
Male	13.2	5,711
Female	12.7	6,183
Urban/rural		
Rural	9.5	9,699
Urban	28.5	2,194
Provinces		
Kigali City	33.3	1,631
Southern	9.9	2,739
Western	7.0	2,685
Northern	6.3	1,841
Eastern	14.2	2,998

Source: NISR, EICV5, 2018:14S

Kigali City has the highest percentage (33%) of persons who migrated in the last five years, followed by Eastern Province (14%). The percentage of females who migrated in the last five years has increased from 12% in EICV4 to 13% in EICV5, while the percentage of male that migrated increased from 13% to 13.2%. The percentage of internal migrants in the last five years increased from 11% in

³MINAGRI reports

EICV4 to 12.3 % in EICV5. At national level, the percentage of internal migrants leaving the Northern Province has fallen from 12% in EICV4 to 9% in EICV5, whilst the percentage of migrants leaving the Eastern Province has risen from 19% in EICV4 to 24% in EICV5. (NISR, EICV 5, 2018:15).

Another aspect to note is that Eastern Province has the second highest average household size (4.9) after Western Province for male-headed households compared to other provinces, as illustrated by the below table.

Table 4 Distribution (%) of households, by urban/rural and province EICV5 (2016/17)

EICV 5	%	Total number of households (000s)
All Rwanda	100	2708
Sex		
Male	13.2	5,711
Female	12.7	6,183
Urban/rural		
Rural	80.7	2184
Urban	19.3	524
Provinces		
Kigali City	15.1	410
Southern	23.1	626
Western	21.2	574
Northern	15.6	422
Eastern	25.0	677

Source: NISR, EICV5, 2018:10

The table above shows the distribution of households by size. The Eastern Province has the highest number of household size. The average number of persons per household is estimated at 4.4 in EICV5, compared to nearly 4.6 in EICV4. Around 56% of households have between one to four persons, a small increase from 53% in EICV4 with the increase more notable in urban areas. The highest percentage of single person households (one member only) is in Kigali City (15%),

Findings from EICV5 (2016/17) show that 25% of households are headed by female while 6% of households were headed by female in the absence of a male head (De facto female-headed households). The overall sex ratio for the country is 108 females for every 100 males. This implies that there is a deficit of males within the population of Rwanda. Female household heads were found much older than male household heads. About 35.8% of female household heads were over 60 years old and above, compared with 13% of male household heads of the same age. On the other hand, 4.1% of female- heads were under 25 years compared to 5.7% of male heads. As far as Poverty incidence of male /female-headed households is concerned, the data from EICV5 shows that 39.5% of female-headed households are classified as poor compared to 37.6% of male-headed households in 2016/17. (NISR, EICV5, 2018:8).

3.4. ACCESS TO AND CONTROL OF RESOURCES

The consultant identified various gender-based constraints in access and control of resources. The analyses will help to identify also who has greater means to access opportunities, for example in regards to natural and economic resources or opportunities (e.g., employment and income-earning opportunities, markets); productive assets (e.g., land use and ownership rights, appropriate technologies); financial services, health and education¹, employment, information and communication, and benefits (e.g., credit, payments for environmental services). The consultant will analyse if women are being discriminated on access to resources (e.g. training, credit etc.) due to lack of land rights, ownership of the agriculture products and of collateral.

3.4.1 Access to education

Education is an important social determinant of health, and disparities in literacy and educational attainment can lead to differential access to information and services. (USAID, 2018:26).

Girls' education is a strategic development priority. Better-educated women tend to be healthier, participate more in the formal labour market, earn higher incomes, have fewer children, marry at a late age, and enable better health care and education for their children. (EICV5, 2018:76).

Gender equality in School Attendance

Overall, ever-attended school has remained consistently high in Rwanda (87%) over the past three years, with 90% of all men and 85% of all women age 6 and above who have ever attended school. In general, ever-attended school is higher in urban areas (95%) than in rural areas (88%). In addition, Kigali City has the highest percentage of people who have ever attended school (95%) compared to other provinces. In terms of gender, no major disparity can be observed between males and females among pupils ever attended school. (EICV5, (2016/17:60). The EICV 5 (2018:60) show that the majority of female workers with no educational level are working in agriculture (92%) compared to only 77% of male with same educational level. It is worth noting that majority of female with University level are working in service sector (87%) slightly higher than that of male with same level (82%). As it can be observed in table below, there is gender inequality in Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) and Higher Education though there is no big difference in Primary and Secondary education.

Table 5 Gender equality in Primary, Secondary, TVET and Higher Education

Primary Education

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Male	49.3	49.2	50.5	50.1	49.9	50.3
Female	50.7	50.8	49.5	49.9	50.1	49.7

Secondary education

	2008	2011	2013	2015	2017	2019
Male	52.2	49.5	47.4	47.2	46.7	46.8
Female	47.8	51.5	52.6	52.8	53.3	53.2

Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET)

	2011	2013	2015	2017	2018
Male	61.2	64.5	58.2	57.1	56.2
Female	38.8	35.5	41.8	42.9	43.8

Tertiary Education

	2009	2011	2013	2015	2017	2018
Male	56.5	56.8	55.9	56.6	54.7	57.3
Female	43.5	43.2	44.1	43.4	45.3	52.7

Source: *Education Statistical Yearbooks 2011 – 2018*

Data from the above table indicate that there is no big difference between male and females in terms of accessing primary education. The number of girls and boys enrolled in primary education stands almost equal which indicates that parents now equally value the education for both girls and boys, contrary to the decades before where the community less valued girls' education. The removal of tuition fees for basic education enabled more children, boys and girls to enroll in primary education especially those from poor families. This empowers the future generations to equally realize their full potentials and contribute to the country's social economic development. This also contributed to the reduction of adult illiteracy rate for the future generation which currently stands at 22.5% and 30.6% for male and female respectively. (GMO, 2019:34.)

At secondary level, the number of girls and boys enrolled in secondary schools is also almost equal, with the number of girls a bit higher than that of boys. This success is attributed to the effective implementation of national policies and strategies such as the Girls' Education Policy (2008), the establishment of the 12-year basic education system, introduction of school feeding program, establishment of girl's room and increased infrastructure for learning facilities. EICV 5 corroborate the information; according to findings from EICV5 , there is an increase in number of female students attending school at primary level compared to male, while attendance of female at secondary school has declined. (EICV5:2018:79). As far as TVET is concerned, though there is increasing number of females, the gender stereotypes prevail among the community whereby girls and women usually enroll mostly in TVET traditional soft trades. Those are for example tailoring, hairdressing, secretarial studies, nursing, food and nutrition, while boys and men on the other side dominate in traditional male occupations like carpentry, construction, motor mechanics, welding and electricity among others. (GMO, 2019:36).

At tertiary level, although the gender inequality is still prevailing in favour of men, the number of females considerably increased even if it is still lower than that of males, especially in public tertiary institutions. The increase of female enrollment in tertiary education is attributed to increment of private tertiary learning institutions that facilitated more female enrollment with diversified learning programs including day, evening, week end and e-Learning. The higher educational level female and male have the higher probability of working outside the agriculture sector.

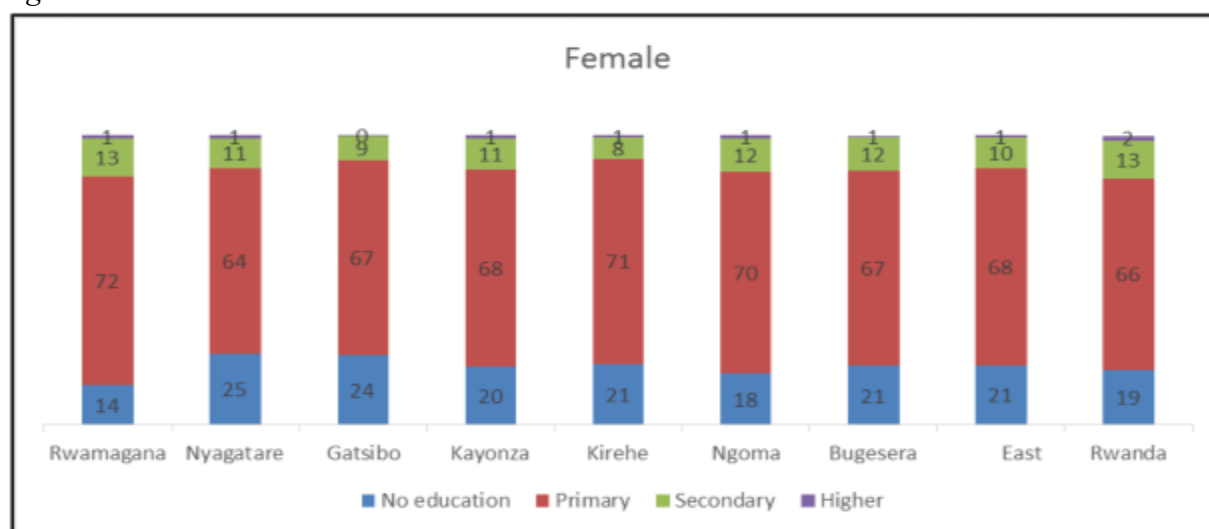
Furthermore, data reveals that 69% of the female population aged 15 and above are literate (able to read and write) in at least one language compared to 77.5% of males. In addition, according to EICV5, a person is considered "computer literate" if he/she expressed her/himself confident with using a computer. In Rwanda, only 7% of female aged 15 years and above are computer literate compared to

11% male of same age bracket. The findings indicate also the same gender imbalance for age group 15-24 years where female still lag behind compared to their male counterparts (10% compared to 11%). (EICV5, 2018:10).

Population living in urban areas are more likely to be literate than those living in rural areas (87% vs 70%), and the gap in literacy rates between males and females is higher in rural than in urban areas. Ninety-one percent of urban males and 83% of urban female are literate, as compared with 74% of rural male and 66 of rural females. Literacy among females decreases with age, from 88% among those aged between 15 and 19 to 63% among those aged between 45 and 49. (EICV5, (2016/17:68).

The figure below illustrates the distribution of female and male respondents from RDHS5 by highest level of education attained in districts of the East Province. The proportion of women who attained primary school is slightly lower to that of men in the Eastern Province (68 percent and 73 percent, respectively). At the secondary education level, the percentages are 10 percent for women and 12 percent for men in the East Province. Those who attended higher education are 1 percent for both women and men. The highest attendance in primary education for women is observed in Rwamagana District (72 percent) and in Kirehe for men (76 percent) while the least one is observed in Nyagatare for women (64 percent) and in Gatsibo for men (70 percent). Rwamagana has also the highest Secondary attendance for women and men (13 percent and 15 percent respectively) while Kirehe has the lowest attendance for women (8 percent) and Kayonza for men (10 percent).

Figure 1. Distribution of the De facto household population aged 6 and above in Eastern province by highest educational level attained



Source: RDHS, 2014-15

3.4.2 Access to health facilities and nutrition

Health is viewed as a "women's issue," where women have a primary responsibility for health care within the family including the nutrition part. A very large body of research from many countries

around the world confirms that putting more income in the hands of women yields beneficial results for child nutrition, health and education (FAO, SOFA 2010). Therefore, the prevalent malnutrition problem in Rwanda can be attributed to the fact that women lack power about household expenditures in male-headed households.

Patriarchal social structures and culturally held beliefs, in particular, continue to impact women's health

In 2015, only 23% of women reported being empowered to make decisions for their own health care independently, and 16% reported that decisions were mainly made by their husbands (DHS 2015). In 2015, 48% of married women reported using modern contraceptive methods compared to 45% in 2010 (DHS 2015 and DHS 2010). Sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) also poses serious health risks to women. In the 2015, 44% of women reported ever having experienced physical or sexual violence, and 36% reported having experienced injuries due to intimate partner violence in the past twelve months (DHS 2015).

Despite progressive gender legislation and national attention to this issue, institutional constraints and patriarchal norms limit reporting of SGBV and consequently support for survivors. In 2015, only 12% of women who experienced SGBV reported having ever sought help from health centers, police, or social workers to stop violence (DHS 2015; Umubyeyi et al.2016). Males and females aged 5 and plus had almost the same rate for disability (4.2%) in Rwanda in 2016/17, with a slight decrease of 0.4% among female and 0.1% among male since 2013/14. Approximately, 75% of the female population reported having health insurance in Rwanda in 2016/17 with a slight difference compared to male (73%). (EICV5, 2018:9).

Sexual Health and Family Planning.

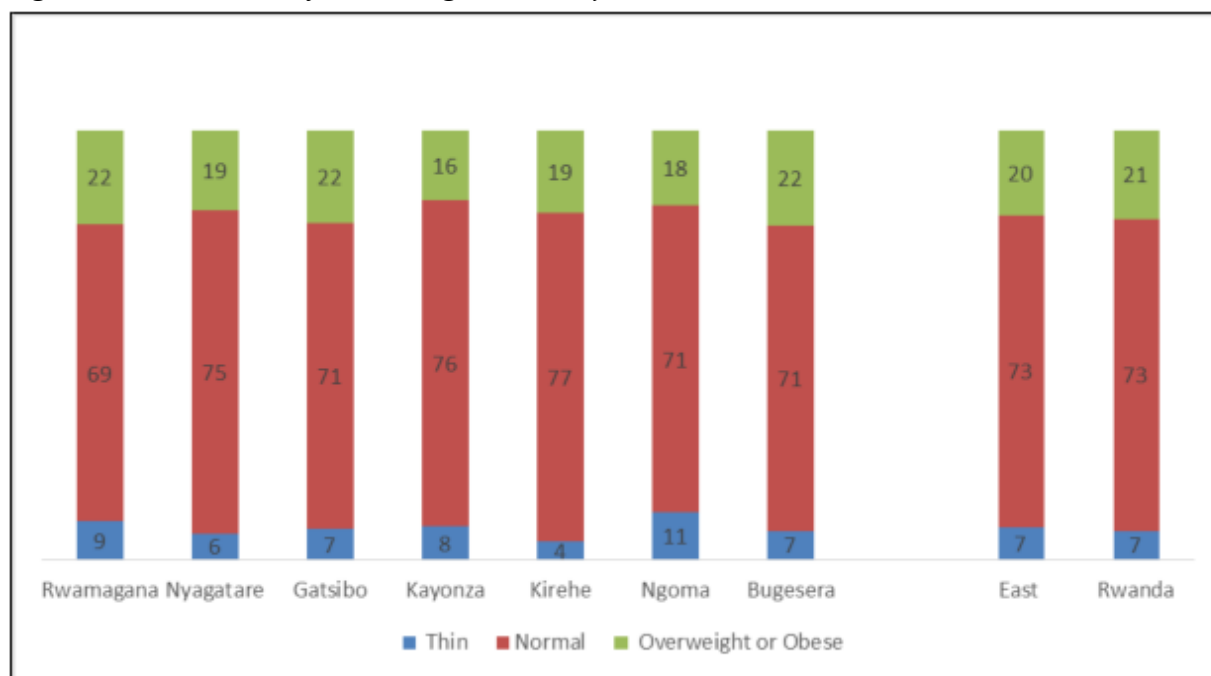
The 2015 DHS identifies an unmet need for family planning of 19%. Access to and use of modern family planning methods is complicated by gender roles. Women may need their partners' assent to use certain methods, and men are not motivated to use male forms of birth control. The expectation that young unmarried people, especially young women, should have no need for sexual health services deters them from approaching CHWs, who are typically respected members of their communities, for family planning. Access to and acceptance of family planning is further complicated by religious beliefs that oppose modern methods of contraception. This opposition creates barriers to access especially in some rural locations where health centers are run by faith-based organizations that refuse to stock family planning commodities (USAID, 2016:24).

Women's nutritional status

Women's nutritional status and the proportions of women falling into two high-risk categories of nutritional status in Eastern Province are illustrated by the figure below. Seven percent of women are considered underweight (BMI below 18.5). The proportion being much higher in Ngoma (11 percent) and lower in Kirehe District (7 Percent). 20 percent of women are overweight or obese in the East Province as compared to 21 percent at the national level. Variation among District is highest in

Rwamagana, Gatsibo and Bugesera (each 22 percent) and lowest in Kayonza (16 percent). The percentage of normal standards among women of the East Province districts varies from 69 percent in Rwamagana to 77 percent in Kirehe.

Figure 2. Distribution of women aged 15-49 by nutrition status in Eastern Province



Source: RDHS, 2014-15

For children, nationally, as per the RDHS (2014-2015) 38 percent of children under age 5 are underweight, and 14 percent are severely. Analysis by age group indicates that stunting is apparent even among children less than age 6 months. Stunting increases with the age of the child, rising from 18 percent among children age 6-8 months to a peak of 49 percent among children age 18-23 months before gradually declining to 37 percent among children age 48-59 months.

The RDHS (2014-2015) indicated that the prevalence of underweight children is 9 percent in the North and East provinces and 5 percent in the city of Kigali. RDHS data also indicate that a mother's wealth status and educational level are negatively associated with the likelihood that her child is underweight.

3.4.3 Access to employment

Women's concentration in unpaid family work suggests that cultural factors (norms about domestic responsibilities) play an important role in labor market decisions. Consequently, even if more wage employment becomes available, women's access to such jobs may not be equal to men's (African Development Bank, 2014:2). In addition, given that the cultural constraints are linked to women's reproductive roles, if the reduction in fertility is sustained, it will free up time for women to engage in paid employment. Similarly, availability of childcare or other forms of social protection schemes

would significantly benefit women, allowing them to enter paid employment. (African Development Bank, 2014:2). The female unemployment rate (17.0 percent) was higher than the male rate (13.8 percent) and the unemployment rate was almost the same in urban and rural areas (around 15.2 percent). (NISR, 2019:2).

Cultural expectations continue to affect perceptions of appropriate roles and responsibilities of men and women whereby men are perceived as the breadwinners and providers for their families, and women's economic opportunity/autonomy is highly restricted: A study conducted by USAID (2012) indicated that 21 percent of men, but only 14 percent of women, agree with the statement that "a man is less of a man if he earns less than his wife. Therefore, women tend to be concentrated in low-paying occupational categories (earning low income) and cannot secure the family food security and nutrition if there is no full involvement of their counterparts (men) who earn more and who culturally have a final word on the household expenditure priorities.

Labour force participation

In Rwanda, working age population is defined as those who are aged 16 years old or above. According to presented results, the population in labour force represents 53.4 percent of the working age population. The remainder of the population is outside labours force (46.6 percent) of which 23.4 percent are in subsistence foodstuff production, 9.7 percent studying only and 13.5 percent as other outside labour force such as elderly people, disabled, discouraged job seekers etc.). (NISR, Labour Force Survey, 2019:5).

The labour force participation rate, i.e., the ratio of the labour force to the working age population expressed in percentage terms, is an indicator of the level of labour market activity. It measures the extent of the working age population who is in the labour force.

Like most of the countries, the Rwanda labour force participation rate has an inverted-U shape. The male curve is above the female curve, reflecting a higher labour force participation of male at virtually all age groups. For each sex, the curve increases for young people when they leave school and enter the labour market. It reaches a peak in the age group 30-34 years for men and in the age group 25- 29 for women. The labour force participation rate decreases sharply for both men and women from 50-year-old, as people leave and retire from the labour market at older ages. The age from which more than a half of working age population is out of labour force is 60 years old for males and 50 years old for females.

Among the districts of Rwanda, the Labour force participation rate is higher in the Districts of the City of Kigali (Highest in Kicukiro with 70.7 percent, Gasabo with 66.8 percent, and Nyarugenge with 66.5 percent) and in Nyagatare (60.1 percent). Conversely, the labour force participation rate was lower in in Nyaruguru(39.7 percent, Muhanga(41.3 percent), Nyanza(42.5 percent), Rusizi (42.8 percent) and Nyamagabe(44.2 percent). (NISR, Labour Force Survey, 2019:7). Women accounted for close to 44.8 percent of the labour force, mostly engaged as crop farm labourers, domestic cleaners

and helpers, stall and market salespersons, and shopkeepers. Among employed persons with managerial positions, 32.1 percent were women. (NISR, 2019:1).

The national labour force participation rate, that is the percentage of the working age population engaged in the labour force, was 53.4 percent, indicating that slightly more than half of the working age population was either working for pay or profit or seeking employment.

The working age population in Rwanda is defined as all persons 16 years old and over (NISR, 2019:2). The male labour force participation rate was 62.8 percent, which is higher than the female's (45.1 percent). At the same time, the labour force participation rate in urban areas (67.0 percent) was higher than the rate in rural areas (49.9 percent). The ratio was 45.3 percent according to the LFS 2019 results. The employment-to-population ratio was higher among men (54.2 percent) than women (37.4 percent), and higher in urban areas (56.7 percent) than in rural areas (42.3 percent). (NISR, 2019:1)

Women access to Economic activity in Rwanda

Women accounted for close to 44.8 percent of the labor force, mostly engaged as crop farm laborers, domestic cleaners and helpers, stall and market salespersons, and shopkeepers. Among employed persons with managerial positions, 32.1 percent were women.

Table 6 Employed men and women by economic activity

Main occupation	Agriculture, forestry and fishing	Mining and quarrying	Manufacturing	Construction	Wholesale, retail trade, repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles	Transportation and storage
Men	45.4%	94.2%	55.7%	85.4%	58.3%	97%
Women	54.6%	5.8%	44.3%	14.6%	41.7%	3%
Accommodation and food service activities	Information and communication	Financial and Insurance activities	Professional, scientific and technical activities	Public administration and defence	Education	Human health and social work
53%	74.5%	50.1%	68.9%	74.2%	54.3%	46.1%
47%	25.5	49.9%	31.1%	25.8%	45.7%	53.9%

Source: NISR, Labor Force Survey, 2018 cited by GMO (2019:22)

Women have also been encouraged and supported to venture into sectors previously dominated by men, including the formal trade sector, construction, manufacturing and mining. However, more efforts are especially needed to increase women participation in mining and quarrying as well as transportation and storage sectors. Though almost 70 percent of jobs in Rwanda are in “agriculture, forestry, and fishing” (NISR, 2015), the proportion rises to 79 percent in rural areas but only 23 percent of jobs in urban areas. For women the proportion is higher, with around 79 percent of main usual jobs in this industry, compared to 59 percent of men. The analysis of labor underutilization

rate by sex and by area of residence is given below. Labor underutilization refers to mismatches between labor supply and demand. It reflects the unmet need for employment among the population. Measures of labor underutilization include, but may not be restricted to unemployment; time-related underemployment; and potential labor force. (NISR, 2019:66)

Table 7 Labour underutilization by sex and by area of residence

	Male	Female	Total
Underutilization rate	47.4	63.7	55.7
	Rural	Urban	Total
Underutilization rate	60.7	37.8	55.7

Source: National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), Labour Force Survey, 2019, page 30

In terms of gender and age group, the composite measure of labour underutilization closely follows the pattern of the unemployment rate though at a much higher level. The female rate of labour underutilization (63.7 percent) is relatively higher than the male rate (47.4 percent). Similarly, youth (16 to 30 years old), are mostly affected by labour underutilization at a relatively higher rate (58.3 percent) than other age population groups. According to area of residence, the rate of labour underutilization is higher in rural areas (60.7 percent) than in urban areas (37.8 percent). The reason may be attributed to a large pool of subsistence foodstuff producers in the rural areas outside the labour force, who is available for employment but not seeking work. (NISR, 2019:30).

Figure 3. 3: Share of employment by broad branch of economic activity



Source: National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), Labour Force Survey, 2019

In line with the above table, Agriculture includes forestry, fishing and animal husbandry. Industry includes Mining and quarrying, Manufacturing, Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply,

Water supply, sewerage and waste management, and Construction. Services cover the remaining branches of economic activity.

The table above shows that women make up 46% of work force in market-oriented agriculture compared to only 31% men. Thus, female are more likely to be engaged in market-oriented agriculture than males while in industry and services, the proportion among males was relatively higher than the one among females.

Wage and non-wage employment

Wage employment includes any salaried or paid job under contract (written or not) to another person, organization or enterprise in both the formal and informal economy. (Internet Source: <https://asksource.info/topics/livelihoods/wage-employment> visited 25 May 2020). As far as non-wage employment is concerned, it is where salaried workers are paid a set rate per year no matter how much they work; i.e. paid 80,000\$ whether they work 40 hours or 60 hours or 80 hours per week.

While the majority of Rwandans are engaged in non-wage employment in form of agricultural self-employment, the percentage fell sharply from 73% in 2005/06 to 64% in 2010/11. This decline was largely attributable to a sharp drop in the percentage of male workers in non-wage employment—from 68% to 51%—as men moved out of agricultural self-employment to wage non-farm (African Development Bank, 2014:15).

Agriculture sector follows the services sector in providing most of the employment opportunities for both men and women. However, there is a large gender gap in employment in the agriculture sector with women occupying mostly informal jobs. There are fewer women professionals and other staff in agricultural institutions and this has implications for the overall transformation of agriculture, especially the capacity to address issues in a gender-responsive manner. (GMO, 2019:18).

Women are gradually increasing their numbers as managers. The primary goal of Rwanda is to promote opportunities for both women and men to obtain decent work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and dignity. Despite significant progress over the past few years, Rwanda is on track for achieving gender equality in the working place. In the managerial positions, the proportion of women is still lower than men. (NISR, 2019:38)

Table 8 Women and men in managerial positions

	Chief executives, senior officials and legislators	Administrative and commercial managers
Men	67.9%	67.3%
Women	32.1%	32.7%

Source: NISR, *Labour Force Survey*, 2019:38

The primary goal of Rwanda is to promote opportunities for both women and men to obtain decent work. Over the past few years, Rwanda has experienced a significant progress toward achieving gender equality in the working place. However, in the managerial positions, the proportion of women is still lower than men. (NISR, 2019:37). As stated above, higher paid positions are stereotypically

considered by society to be more appropriate for males. However, other factors that impede women from occupying senior positions include limited mobility due to social responsibilities (unpaid care work), the educational level as well as access to and control of productive resources.

Table 9 Occupations with high gender segregation

No	Occupation	Male	Female	Total
1	Crop farm labourers	374,448	557,771	932,219
2	Building construction labourers	141,106	18,586	159,692
3	House builders	64,284	869	65,153
4	Mining and quarrying labourers	58,073	3,989	62,062
5	Hand and pedal vehicle drivers	52,592	0	52,592

Source: National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), Labour Force Survey, 2019, p.38

It can be observed from these results that building construction labourers, ‘mining and quarrying labourers’, house builders and ‘hand and pedal vehicle drivers’ are male-dominated occupations while crop farm labourers, is female dominated occupations.

Women involvement in formal sector

The results of main labour force indicators and female Labour force participation are shown in the following table.

Table 10 Female Labour force participation.

Numbers in ,000	Total	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Population 16 years old and over	7,232	3,394	3,837	1,479	5,752
Labour force	3,863	2,133	1,730	991	2,872
Employed	3,274	1,838	1,436	839	2,435
Unemployed	589	295	294	152	437
Outside labour force	3,369	1,261	2,107	489	2,880

Source: National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), Labour Force Survey, 2019, Page 1

According to these results, among the 7,232,000 persons 16 years old and over who were living in regular households, about 3,863,000 persons were in the labour force, either employed (3,274,000) or unemployed (589,000). The remainder 3,369,000 persons were outside the labour force including about 1,693,000 persons engaged wholly or mostly in subsistence foodstuff production, not classified as employment according to the 2013 new international standards on statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization.

The national labour force participation rate, that is the percentage of the working age population engaged in the labour force, was 53.4 percent, indicating that slightly more than half of the working age population was either working for pay or profit or seeking employment. The male labour force participation rate was 62.8 percent, which is higher than the female’s (45.1 percent). At the same time,

the labour force participation rate in urban areas (67.0 percent) was higher than the rate in rural areas (49.9 percent). (NISR, Labour Force Survey, 2019:1)

Male and female outside the labour force

In general, persons outside the labour force include persons of working age population who were neither in employment nor in unemployment during the reference period of measurement. Persons outside the labour force may be classified in terms of their current main activity status as well as the main reason for not being engaged in the labour force and their potential future labour force engagement. The international standards recommend the classification of persons outside the labour force by main activity status, as self-declared, with the following categories:

- own-use production of goods or own-use provision of services;
- unpaid-trainee work;
- volunteer work;
- studies;
- self-care (due to illness or disability);
- leisure activities (social, cultural, recreational).

The main status of the individual is to be determined by the person himself or herself, or in practice by the survey respondent if the survey allows for proxy-response. Additional classifications of the population outside of the labour force (or more generally, the population not in employment) that may be considered in survey design are past work employment and characteristics of last employment for those who had past employment experience, and main current source of livelihood. (NISR, 2019:68). A particular characteristic of countries with large subsistence production is the fact that the size of the working age population outside the labour force may be as big as the size of the labour force itself. In Rwanda, the 2019 LFS shows that the number of working age persons outside the labour force was 3,368,737 against 3,862,798 in the labour force. The majority of the persons outside the labour force are subsistence foodstuff producers (50.3 percent). (NISR, 2019, 33).

Table 11 Male and Female outside the labour force

Sex	Total	Percentage
Male	1,261,485	37.4
Female	2,107,253	62.6

Source: National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), Labour Force Survey, 2019, page 36

The table above describes the relationship between population outside the labour force and some demographic characteristics. It is observed that 62.8 percent were females while 37.4% were male. According to the results of the 2019 LFS, the unemployment rate in Rwanda stood at 15.2 percent; it has remained almost stable compared to the previous year (15.1 percent). The unemployment rate stood at 15.3 percent in the urban areas and 15.2 in the rural areas. The unemployment rate was higher among female (17.0 percent) than male (13.8 percent) and among the youth (19.4 percent) than in the adults (12.0 percent). (NISR, 2019:25).

Rwandan Women still face challenges that hinder the access to decent work and these include:

- Limited entrepreneurial and innovation skills among women continues to limit women's engagement in bigger investments thus impeding their low participation in the private sector development.
- Women mass engagement in the informal sector has also proved to be a challenge to realise women's full economic empowerment.
- Women especially those in the rural areas spend much of their time on households care activities such as cooking, childcare, thus are unable to focus on income generating activities.
- Predominant representation of women in subsistence farming and high illiteracy rate among women affect the level of their participation in decent employment opportunities resulting in high dependency on family and husband revenues. (GMO, 2017:6).

Women involvement in the informal sector in the farm and non-farming business

The concept of informal sector is broadly characterized as unincorporated enterprises owned by Households⁴. In such economic units, the fixed capital and other assets of the enterprise do not belong to the production units as such but to their owners, and may be used for both production and personal purposes. Production expenditure can hardly be separated from household expenditure. In practice, in the LFS, employment in the informal sector was defined as all persons 16 years of age and over who were engaged in unregistered⁵ private business enterprises that did not keep written records of accounts. Workers engaged by households were excluded from the classification of employment in the informal sector. (NISR, 2019: 15).

Informal employment refers primarily to employment in enterprises that lack registration and social security coverage for their employees (OECD, 2009). It also refers to self-employment and precarious employment in formal enterprises. A distinctive feature of this type of employment is lack of social coverage and other related benefits applicable to formal employment. Hence, it is highly precarious and vulnerable. Gaspirini and Tornarolli (2007) in their study of informality in Latin America identify the following characteristics to the informal labor workforce: mostly unskilled and operating in low productivity jobs, in marginal, small scale and often family-based activities. They add: "They are self-employed or salaried workers in small, precarious firms without a signed contract in compliance with labor regulations, and without access to protection against health and unemployment shocks, to savings for old age, to employment protection and to labor related benefits." These characteristics are also widely observed in Africa. According to ILO (2002), informal wage employment in Africa encompasses employees of informal enterprises as well as various types of informal waged workers who work for formal enterprises, households, or who have no fixed employer. These include casual day laborers, domestic workers, industrial outworkers, undeclared workers, and part-time or temporary workers without secure contracts, worker benefits, or social protection. (World Bank,

⁴ ILO, *Resolution on the measurement of employment in the informal sector*, Fifteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS), Geneva, 1993.

⁵ Unregistration meant not registered with the Rwanda Revenue Authority or not paying PAYE/TPR.

2014). According to NISR in Labour Force Survey Report, informal employment is defined in terms of the employment relationship. A job held by an employee is considered informal, if the job does not entail social security contribution by the employer, and is not entitled to paid sick leave and paid annual leave. (NISR, 2019:16)

Rwanda's population pyramid has a wide base, indicating a high dependency ratio. Given that women in Rwanda still bear the burden of child nurturing and care, this population structure suggests that women's employment prospects are constrained by their reproductive and domestic roles.

Women account for more than half of Rwanda's workers, but men are more likely increasing pressure on health systems, highlighting the need to address family planning in the formal and the informal sector where earnings are relatively high. Women's concentration in unpaid family work suggests that cultural factors (norms about domestic responsibilities) play an important role in labor market decisions. Consequently, even if more wage employment becomes available, women's access to such jobs may not be equal to men's. Land rights legislation was a step toward reducing cultural constraints that limit women's labor market opportunities. In addition, given that the cultural constraints are linked to women's reproductive roles, if the reduction in fertility is sustained, it will free up time for women to engage in high-paying employment. Similarly, availability of childcare or other forms of social protection schemes would significantly benefit women, allowing them to enter paid employment (African Development Bank, 2014:4).

The 2019 NISR report shows that there were about 2,480,363 employed persons in the informal sector, corresponding to about 75.8 percent of total employment and most of them were male. There were in total 2,931,494 persons with informal employment at main job constituting almost 89.5 percent of total employment. A significant result was the presence of some 238,264 persons with informal jobs in formal sector. (NISR, 2019:5)

Own-use production work

Persons in own-use production work are defined as all those of working age who, during a short reference period, performed any activity to produce goods or provide services for own final use for a cumulative total of at least one hour. "For own final use" is interpreted as production where the intended destination of the output is *mainly* for final use (in the form of capital formation, or final consumption by household members, or by family members living in other households). In the case of agricultural, fishing, hunting or gathering goods intended mainly for own consumption, a part or surplus may nevertheless be sold or bartered.

Subsistence foodstuff producers constitute an important subgroup of persons in own-use production work. They are defined as all those who performed any of the specified activities to produce foodstuff from agriculture, fishing, hunting or gathering that contribute to the livelihood of the household or family. Excluded are persons who engaged in such production as recreational or leisure activities.

Own-use producers and in particular persons engaged in own-use production of goods such as subsistence foodstuff producers (and for that also matter unpaid trainee workers or volunteer workers) may be engaged, in the same reference period, in other activities, including employment or search for employment. On the basis of their other activity, therefore, certain own-use producers may also be in the labour force and classified as employed, unemployed or other labour underutilization category.

Table 12 Proportion of working age population who are own use producers by sex

	Own use production work	Looking after elderly children &	Cooking and shopping	Repairing household	Manufacturing household goods	searching fooder or grazing	Fetch water	Collect firewood
Male	68.2	15.3	34.3	7.5	0.6	33.5	37.4	26.8
Female	90.4	47.8	86.3	4.1	2.9	34.8	51.3	47.4

Source: National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), Labour Force Survey, 2019, Page 55

The table above illustrates the proportion of working age population who were engaged in own use production activities by sex. Females were more engaged in own-use production (90 percent) than males (68 percent). Except for repairing of own dwelling, the proportion of females in working age engaged in other type of own use production activities was higher than the proportion of males in working age.

3.4.4 Access to water and Sanitation

Generally, the overall access rate to improved sanitation facilities is high among Rwandan population. However, the proportion of female HHs with access to improved sanitation facilities (80.6%) is low compared to that of male HHs (88.0%). This is related to unequal income distribution between men and women headed HHs where women HHs mostly have low income compared to men headed HHs. The recent efforts to improve human security have tremendously increased the status of sanitation in general. (GMO, 2019:49).

Table 13 Percentage of households with Access to Improved Sanitation Facilities

	2010/2011		2013/2014		2016/2017	
	HHs that use improve sanitation by sex of Headed HH	HHs with no toilet facilities by sex of Headed HH	HHs that use improve sanitation by sex of Headed HH	HHs with no toilet facilities by sex of Headed HH	HHs that use improve sanitation by sex of Headed HH	HHs with no toilet facilities by sex of Headed HH
Male	78.6	5.8	85.7	2.2	88.0	2.8
Female	70.4	6.4	76.6	6.0	80.6	6.8

Source: NISR, EICV 3, 4 and 5 Cited in GMO (2019:49)

Generally, the overall access rate to improved sanitation facilities is high among Rwandan population. However, the proportion of female HHs with access to improved sanitation facilities (80.6%) is low compared to that of male HHs (88.0%). This is related to unequal income distribution between men

and women headed HHs where women HHs mostly have low income compared to men headed HHs. The recent efforts to improve human security have tremendously increased the status of sanitation in general.

3.4.5 Land use and ownership rights

Often, women are given a small plot on which to plant and maintain a home garden, whose products are largely used for household consumption with some products being sold in local markets. In addition, women are expected to help their husbands to cultivate the rest of the plot for cash crops. They are the one responsible for small animals keeping. Although cows are viewed as “men’s work,” women have some responsibilities associated with keeping cows, such as feeding and ensuring proper hygiene of all utensils for milking. Culturally, women are not allowed to milk the cows; although some women do. (USAID, 2015:6).

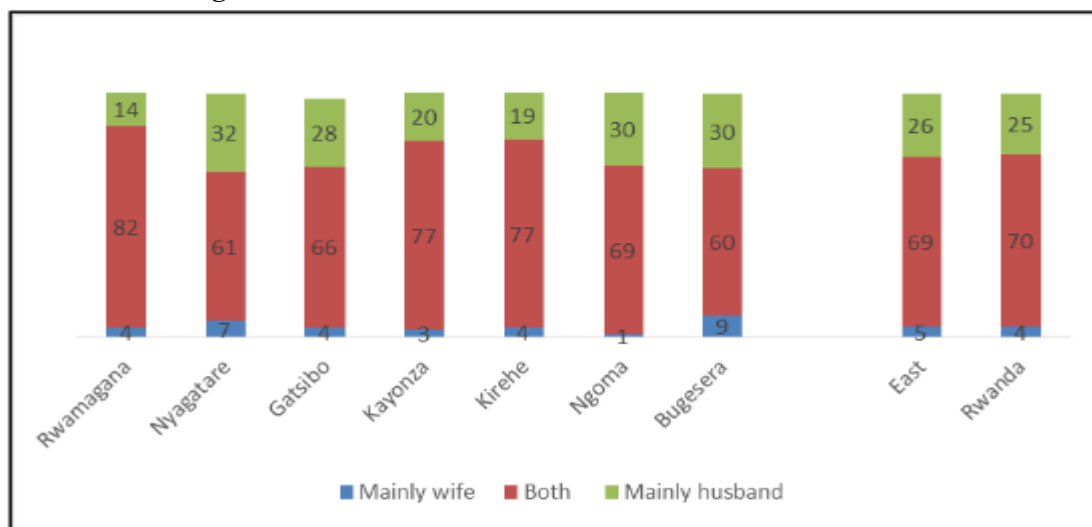
Land is the main asset for production and investment. Land ownership has been very instrumental in contributing to women's access to finance. The agricultural sector accounts for a third of Rwanda's GDP and more than 70% of Rwandan women are engaged in farming activities since their childhood. Yet, they do not have the same access to land, production inputs, finance or markets as men. As a result, women farmers are mostly relegated to subsistence farming. While their families rely on their harvests as the main source of food and nutrition, the lack of quality agricultural inputs and technology reduces the yield and diversity of their crops. This in turn affects the food and nutritional security of their families. (UNWOMEN, 2018).

Countrywide, 89 percent of all households in Rwanda own agricultural land, with a strong divide between urban (60 percent) and rural areas (95 percent) (NISR, 2015). The Joint Land ownership for spouses is a result from different innovations about land law and land policy reform. However, some respondents mentioned that, though women legally own land, there are still some cultural barriers that still hamper the effective implementation of the above-mentioned law and policy. This limited control over land therefore affects their decision on the crops to be grown, use of land as collateral to access credit from financial institutions and hinders other women's economic activities. This has also been confirmed through findings from the Focus Group discussion with community members in different districts of Eastern Province and Kigali City. It revealed that at the family level, conflicts often arise due to competition between cash and food crops. This aspect becomes a gender issue because food crops are tendered and managed by women while men are heavily involved in cash crops. This aspect is confirmed by the results from the consultation showing the categorization of crop by gender. Land is controlled by men and therefore men's crops are allocated more land, it was observed. Women continually struggle to meet family food and income needs from the little food crops that they harvest

Twenty-six percent (26%) of women in Eastern Province whose husbands have cash earnings report that their husband mainly decides how his cash earnings are used, a figure slightly higher than the 24 percent reported by men themselves. Sixty-nine percent of women report that decisions are made jointly, as compared with 74 percent of men, and 5 percent of women report that they mainly decide how to use their husband's earnings as compared with 2 percent of men who made the same

declaration. These figures do not differ from those of national level. Thirty-two percent of women in Nyagatare and 30 percent of women in Ngoma and Bugesera whose husbands have cash earnings report that their husband mainly decides how his cash earnings are used compared to 14 percent of women in Rwamagana district. According to the men declaration, Men in Gatsibo and Kayonza (36 percent each) are more likely to be the main decision-makers regarding their own earnings than men in other district while as for women declaration; this percentage is lowest in Rwamagana district (10 percent).

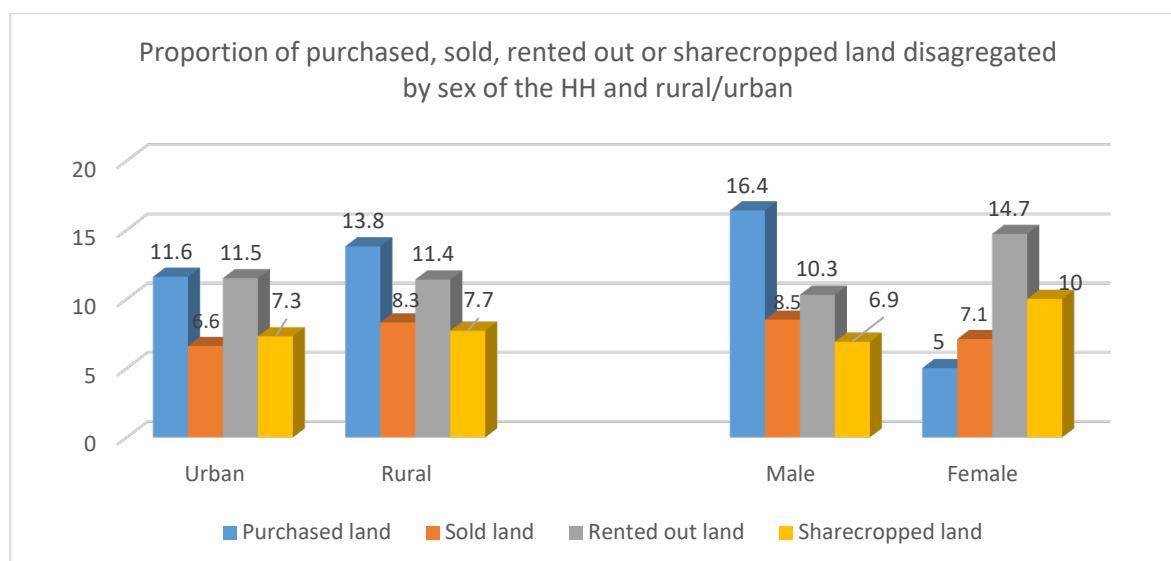
Figure 3 Distribution of married women aged 15-49 according to their report on who decides how men cash earning is used



Source: RDHS 2014-15

While there is no significant difference between male- and female-headed households in terms of land ownership, both groups of households engage very differently in the land market. The percentage of households that purchased land in 2015 was much higher among male-headed households (16 percent compared to 5 percent in female-headed households), whereas female-headed households more often rented out land or gave it out for sharecropping as indicated by the figure below.

Figure 4. Proportion of purchased, sold, rented out or sharecropped land by sex and rural/urban



Source: NISR, RDHS 2014-2015

As the above graph indicated (engagement of the spouses on the land market), women's land right, full control over land use and ownership of the agriculture products within a household is still questionable (this will be discussed fully in the following parts on gender in crop production, agriculture value chain and livestock and access to credit) due to the negative cultural norms and beliefs whereby the husband is considered as the head of household and the primary owner of all the household assets, especially land, regardless of whether the couple is legally married or not and regardless of the matrimonial regime they have chosen.

A critical gender gap in that area is that the protections afforded by the law are also limited by the constitutional provision that its provisions relating to equality in marriage only apply to legally recognized monogamous marriages. Women in polygamous marriages – which, although illegal, are common in Rwanda – are in a similar position. The practice has handicapped women in many ways, as this affects decision-making power in the home, as well as ownership rights and claims to property. As a mitigation strategy, the Government's response to this was to promote legal marriage, for example through group weddings in rural areas but still the non-formal partnerships are unavoidable while the formal law can provide its protections only to those who have a legally registered monogamous marriage.

The 2014-15 RDHS collected information on women's and men's ownership (alone, jointly, and both alone and jointly) of two high-value assets, namely land and a house. The data indicated that 51 percent of women countrywide aged 15-49 do not own a house, and 54 percent do not own any land. Eight percent of women own a house alone, and 10 percent own land alone. Rural women are more likely to own a house and land than urban women are. Women in the highest wealth quintile are least likely to own either a house or land.

Nearly 30% of households in rural areas are headed by women with increasing numbers of older women (over 50), which can be attributed to the number of widows left following the war and

genocide of the 1990s. Households headed by females are smaller than male-headed households are, they tend to be poorer and greater numbers of female heads of household are economically active. Fewer female-headed households have access to tap water (32%) than male-headed HHs (36%) and female-headed HHs are less likely to have a household pit latrine or toilet. Approximately 5% of female-headed households and 7% of male-headed households in rural areas had access to electricity. (USAID, 2015:5)

Table 14 Land ownership by sex of household head, (EICV5, EICV4)

EICV5	Male Headed	Female Headed	Total
HH or any member currently owning farm land	79.6	81.8	80.1
HH bought land in last 12 months	11.6	3.6	9.6
HH sold land in the last 12 months	8.2	7.4	8.0
HH rented out land in the last 12 months	9.7	12.6	10.4
HH sharecropped any land in the past 12 months	6.8	11.2	7.9
HH received land gift in the last 12 months	5.7	3.2	5.0
EICV 4			
HH or any member currently owning farm land	89.5	88.8	89.3
HH bought land in last 12 months	16.4	5.0	13.5
HH sold land in the last 12 months	8.5	7.1	8.1
HH rented out land in the last 12 months	10.3	14.7	11.4
HH sharecropped any land in the past 12 months	6.9	10.0	7.7
HH received land gift in the last 12 months	7.9	3.7	6.8

Source: EICV 5, EICV5_Thematic Report_Gender, 2018. Page 26

Ownership of land is critical to social and economic empowerment of women. Female-headed households owning farmland has decreased by 7 percentage points from 89% in 2013/14 to 82% in 2016/17 and male-headed households owning farm land has decreased by 10 percentage points from 90% in 2013/14 to 80% in 2016/17. An upward trend is only observed in the percentage of female-headed households that sharecropped any land in the past 12 months preceding the survey, from 10% in 2013/14 to 11% in 2016/17 and for male heads from 10% to 11.2% in the same period.

3.5 AGRICULTURE AND LIVESTOCK

Women's role in agriculture and livestock production and processing

Agriculture sector follows the services sector in providing most of the employment opportunities for both men and women. However, there is a large gender gap in employment in the agriculture sector with women occupying mostly informal jobs. There are fewer women professionals and other staff in agricultural institutions and this has implications for the overall transformation of agriculture, especially the capacity to address issues in a gender-responsive manner (GMO, 2019:18)

From the data of LFS, the following four categories were identified to explain the status of workers in agriculture: Those who are engaged in market oriented agriculture as main job, working for pay or self-employed; those who are exclusively engaged in subsistence agriculture; those who have their

main job out of agriculture but performed foodstuff production activities for own use and finally, those who were involved in market oriented agriculture as their secondary job.

The full count of workers in agriculture sector reveals that in 2019, about 52.5 percent of working age population were involved in agriculture activity either in subsistence or market oriented. On one hand, workers engaged exclusively in subsistence agriculture presented the majority of agriculture sector (52.8 percent), followed by those engaged in market oriented agriculture as their main job (32.3 percent). On the other hand, the proportion of those who combine non-agricultural employment and subsistence agriculture represented 14.7 percent and the remaining 0.6 % were involved in market oriented agriculture as their secondary job. (NISR, Labour Force Survey, 2019, Page 49).

Women are key players in the Rwandan agricultural economy, producing food for both their families and the market. Therefore, all interventions should be gender-responsive to tackle the gender issues in general and women farmers' issues in particular to reach sustainable results. (GMO, 2019:16)

In rural areas, females and males are active in the labor force primarily in agriculture-related employment with nearly three quarters of women being self-employed in agriculture (63% of men are self-employed). Unemployment rates are higher in urban areas and are higher for women than men are, especially for women aged 20-29. Some of this is because in urban areas there are fewer opportunities while in rural areas, there are more employment opportunities in agricultural work. For both men and women, the predominant choice of occupation is related to skilled agriculture, forest, or fishery (82% women, 63% men). Approximately, 14% of women are “contributing family workers” compared to 7% of men. More women than men are economically inactive (16.2%, 13.1% respectively). Being a student or caring for the home were women's primary reasons for being economically inactive, and for men, it was being a student. (USAID, 2015: 5)

Ownership of land is critical to social and economic empowerment of women. Female-headed households owning farmland has decreased by 7 percentage points from 89% in 2013/14 to 82% in 2016/17 while male-headed household has decreased by 10 percentage points from 89.5% to 80% in the same period. On the other side the average size of land cultivated per female head of household remained constant in the last three years at national level (0.5 ha), and the same case applies for male headed household too (0.6 ha). Overall, there has been a reduction in the percentage of households raising any livestock. Data indicate that, 57.3% of female-headed household own any type of livestock compared to 60.3% of male heads. (EICV5, 2018:9).

As far as livestock is concerned, 57.3% of female-headed household own any type of livestock compared to 60.3% of male heads. Slightly more male heads in urban area own any livestock than female heads, and the same pattern is observed in rural area. When the province is considered, more female heads in Northern Province own a livestock than in any other province, and the same trend is observed for male heads. (NISR, EICV5, 2018:50).

Despite the policy efforts in mainstreaming gender in agricultural transformation, there is a low participation of women in input and output markets. Women's contribution in production is considerable and compared to men, they are sometimes considered as being more responsible of this. Their limited participation in purchasing inputs and being in contact with the agro-dealers would reduce their ability to handle these products (e.g., dosage and storage) at the expense of agricultural productivity. Similarly, their low participation in output markets limits their access to other agribusiness opportunities. For example, little experience with output markets could limit the commercialization of beans (considered as women's crop) and further commercialization initiatives for other crops. Second is the lower participation of women in decision making on agricultural activities and income. There is gap in power relations when it comes to agricultural income and men are more privileged. This can be a source of demotivation to fully engage in cash crop production and market orientation in the long run. (Ingabire, Mshenga, Amacker, Langat, Bigler, and Birachi. 2018:16).

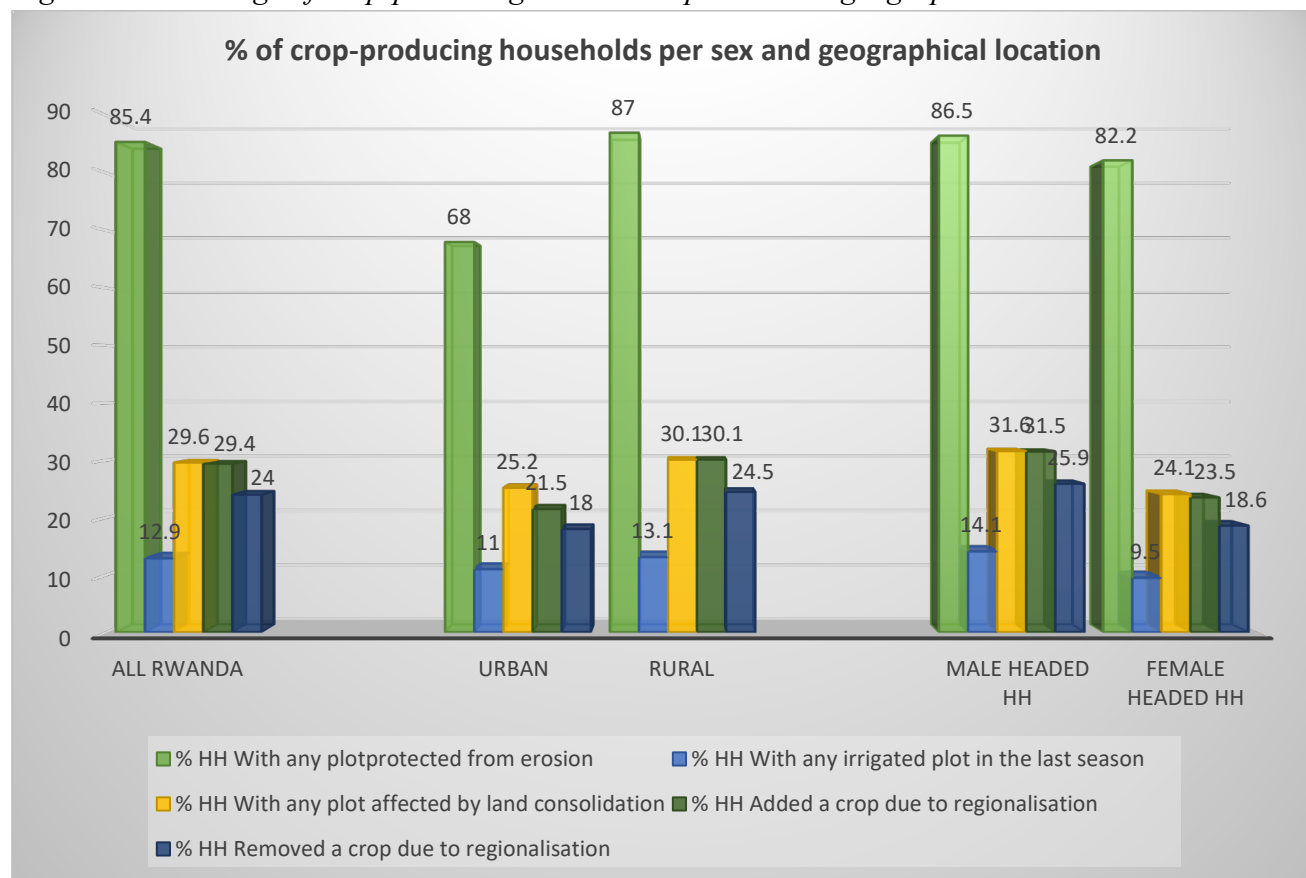
According to MINAGRI (2018),⁶ the share of agriculture in employment in 2014 is 68% and the majority of the labor force in agriculture is composed of independent farmers (65 per cent), while hired wage farmers represent 35 per cent. Women constitute 66% of the agricultural work force. In the agricultural sector, generally men occupy more paid jobs (25%) than women (19.7%), while there are more women (42.1%) than men (40%) in paid non-farm employment. With high population pressure and dependency on agriculture for livelihood and with a predominant number of women in the agriculture sector in Rwanda, it is evident that any climate change and vulnerability effects touching the sector are slated to affect more women than men.

Gender aspects in crop production

The findings from EICV 2014-2015 (NISR, 2015) indicated that the percentage of crop-producing households with any cultivated plot affected by land consolidation is estimated at 29.6 percent at national level (see figure 6). It found that the highest percentages of households affected by land consolidation are in the Northern Province (43 percent) and the Western Province (38 percent). The increase in the last 5 years (from the EICV3 to EICV 4) in land consolidation and regionalisation programmes was higher among male-headed households. This can be explained by the fact that in average men own fertile land plot than women. Among crop-producing households, male-headed households more often had a plot protected from erosion (87 percent compared to 82 percent) or a plot with irrigation (14 percent compared to 10 percent). The following graph summarises the situation as of year 2015. This can be explained by the fact that, it is a labour intensive to build erosion protection.

⁶ Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources. (2018) STRATEGIC PLAN FOR AGRICULTURE TRANSFORMATION 2018-24 available at http://www.fonerwa.org/sites/default/files/Rwanda_Strategic_Plan_for_Agriculture_Transformation_2018.pdf

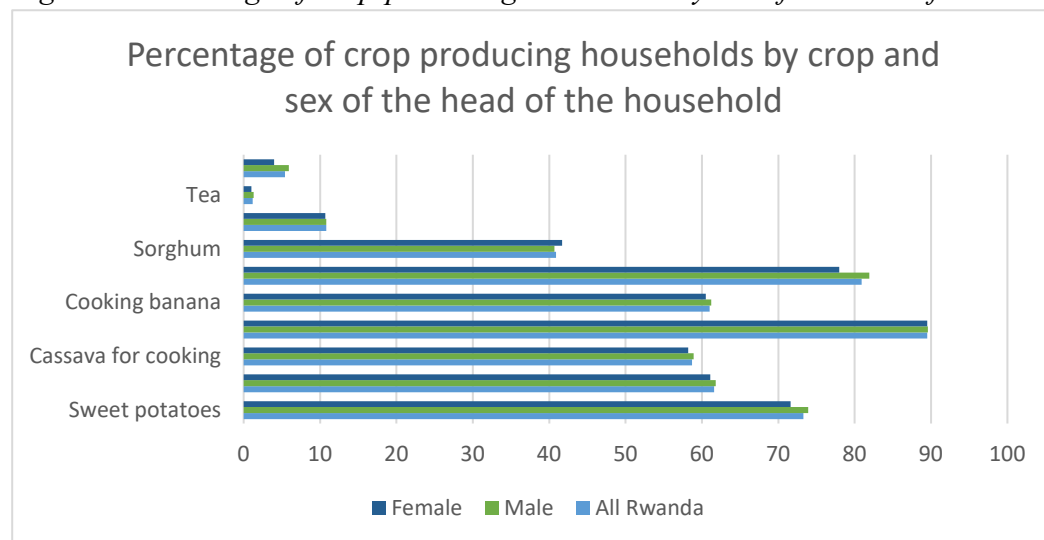
Figure 5 Percentage of crop-producing households per sex and geographical location



Source: NISR, EICV 2013-14, 2015

Few Rwandans are involved in cash crops and horticulture due to the exiguity of land, where a big number of households are concentrated in staple crops for food security. The difference between male and female headed households involved in cash crop farming is insignificant as per the below figure.

Figure 6 Percentage of crop-producing households by sex of the head of the household



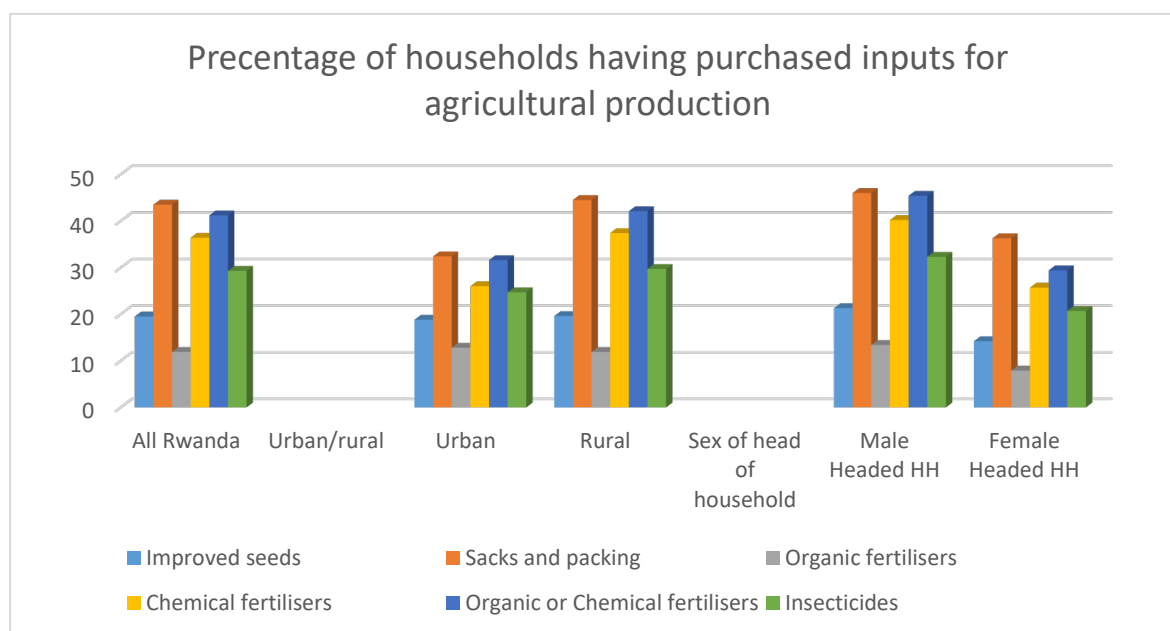
Source: NISR, EICV4

Some cash crops are more strongly commercialised than others are. For example, coffee (93 percent of harvest is sold) and tea (91 percent) that are grown by relatively few farmers (NISR, 2015).

Input and equipment use for agricultural production

The percentage of crop-producing households purchasing improved seeds ranges between only 13 percent in Eastern Province and 26 percent in Northern Province, per the results of the EICV conducted by NISR in 2015. The survey indicated that the percentage of households purchasing chemical fertiliser stood at 36 percent of households on a national level, with a higher percentage of households purchasing chemical fertilisers found in the Western Province (49.4 percent) and Northern Province (from 39 percent to 48.9 percent). However, the EICV (NISR, 2015) pointed out that there is a notable gap between female- and male-headed households in purchasing modern agricultural inputs, and the gap is widening overtime. For example, while 40 percent of male-headed, crop-cultivating households purchased chemical fertiliser, only 26 percent of female-headed, crop-cultivating households did so. Compared to the previous EICV, for male-headed households, this number had increased by eight percentage points against five percentage points for female-headed households.

Figure 7 Percentage of households having purchased inputs for agricultural production



Source: NISR, EICV4

Although female-headed households are almost equally involved in food crop production as male-headed households, women's control within male-headed households over the commercial process especially cash crop is still questionable.

There is a marked gender gap in access to and control over agricultural produces. Women have unequal access to and control over harvesting, selling and use of income from agricultural produces and livestock's products. Also, women face constraints limiting them from accessing market, including cultural conventions that allocate lower-value subsistence crops to women and cash crops to men; limited access to tools and transport to which men have priority access; limited skills or confidence; limited voice in cooperatives; limited decision-making power over sale, price, and agricultural investments. This is mainly attributable to the unequal power relations and negative cultural norms at the family level.

Access to loan (credit)

Limited access to loans is widely regarded a major hindrance to successful development, especially for women highlighted in the following table.

Table 15: Percentage of population aged 18 and above with loan from formal financial institutions by sex

Formal Financial institutions (EICV5)	National			Urban			Rural		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Commercial Bank	36.0	30.8	34.2	68.0	63.3	66.3	22.0	16.2	20.0
Cooperative Bank	19.3	24.6	21.1	10.4	9.7	10.1	23.2	31.4	26.0
Microfinance	9.9	12.6	10.9	8.4	11.0	9.3	10.6	13.4	11.6
SACCOs	34.8	31.9	33.8	13.3	16.1	14.2	44.2	39.1	42.5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NISR, Gender Thematic Report, 2018:47

Data from the above table shows out of the total female population, which acquired a loan from a formal financial institution, (32%) has secured their loans from SACCOs while for male; commercial bank is the main source (36%). It should be noted that, the least financial institution used as source of credit for female and male population is the microfinance with 12% and 10%.

When the area of residence is considered, majority of female and male secure their loan from commercial banks in urban area (63% and 68% respectively), while in rural area, SACCOs are the most popular for female and male to secure loan (39% and 44% respectively) (NISR, 2018:45).

Agricultural credit facilitates an increase in resources available for agriculture along its value chains and improves or creates alternative employment opportunities for women and men along the production and supply chains. However, Agriculture credit remains limited in general because the sector remains very dependent on weather patterns. Investing in climate change management and introducing gender-friendly mechanisms will help both men and women to sustain their incomes

through agriculture. There is also need to devise special measures to encourage more women to apply for agricultural loans.

Table 15 Men and Women Access to Agricultural Loans since 2012-2015

	2012		2013		2014		2015	
	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
Male	1,643	76.7	1,166	74.6	5,238	83.6	7,716	74.5
Female	498	23.3	397	25.4	1,025	16.4	2,644	25.5

Source: BNR, Financial Stability Directorate, Administrative Data, 2016, cited in GMO (2019:19)

Therefore, investing in climate change management and introducing gender-friendly mechanisms will help both men and women to sustain their incomes through agriculture. From the above table, it is observable that few women have access to agriculture loan unlike men. Thus, there is also need to devise special measures to encourage more women to apply for agricultural loans.

Agricultural extension

Agriculture extension is a very important component of the country's agriculture transformation agenda. It contributes to the professionalization of producers and to the effective adoption of agricultural innovations, to increase, diversify and intensify agricultural production, under economic profitability conditions for producers.

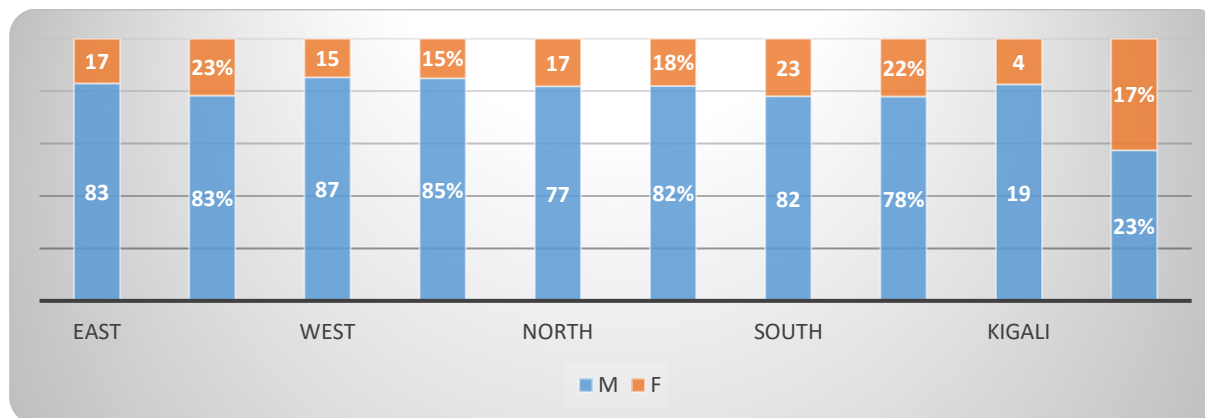
Both the National Gender Policy 2010 (MIGEPROF), the Strategic Plan for the Transformation of Agriculture 2018 (PSTA3) and the Agriculture Gender Strategy 2010 (MINAGRI) include specific commitments to increase the number of extension personnel. They also commit to equip agriculture extension personnel with skills to implement agricultural extension methods in district and sector programmes, using a gender-friendly approach. The PSTA3 recommends the adoption of important measures to promote gender equality, such as recruiting more female extension agents, taking gender preferences and requirements into account in agricultural research programmes, and including women representatives in water user's associations.

Under the current Agriculture Extension System in Rwanda, the delivery of agricultural extension services is under direct responsibility of the decentralized entities, namely Districts, which have a very important role in social mobilization and organization of farmers. The decentralized structure of the Ministry of Local Government on agriculture comprises of one bachelor degree holder agronomist at each District and Sector. The reporting system goes on from the Sector to District and from District to Province and from Province to the Ministry of Local Government (MINALOC).⁷ The role of Local Administration is thus very important in social mobilization and organization of farmers in the decentralized extension system.

⁷ MINAGRI, (2009) National Agriculture Extension Strategy.

Despite the existence of such a decentralized agriculture extension system and despite the recent policies and strategies on gender mainstreaming, gender disparities are evident, and there are still only very few women qualified extension officers as reflected in the figure below.

Figure 8 Percentage of male and female extension workers



Source: Compiled from RAB's raw data. Department of Planning and M&E, 2014

According to data in the figure above, in all the four agricultural zones, the number of female agriculture extension workers is remarkably low. The overall number of District and Sector's Agronomists in the country is 424, of which the majority (348) are male (82 percent) and only 76 are female (18 percent). The same trend is observed in the four agricultural zones and in the capital city of Kigali.

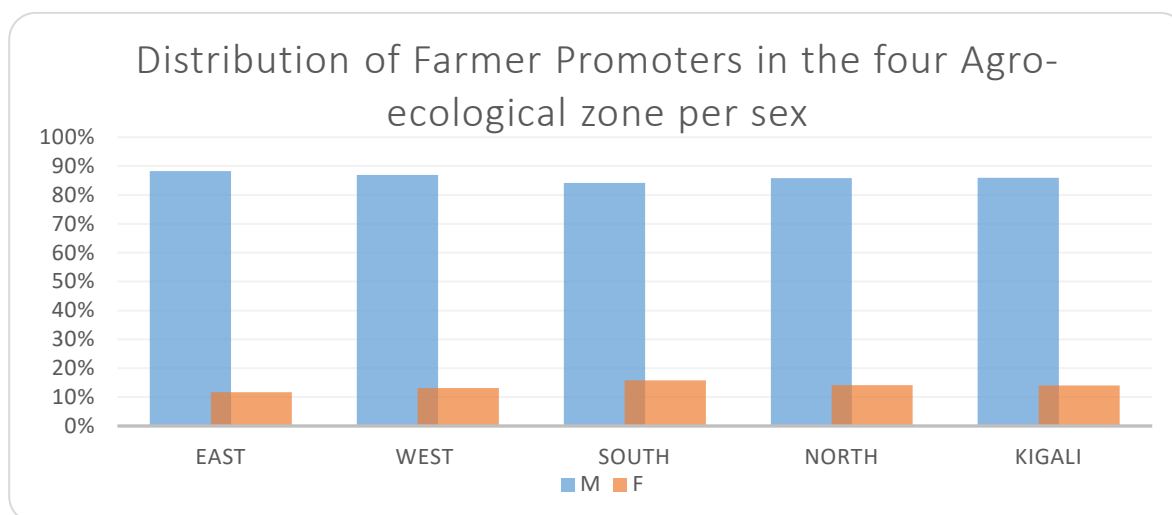
Strategies have been developed to increase the number of female candidates in higher learning institutions. However, the participation of female as extension agents is still low, and the low number of women extension officers can hinder women's accessibility to extension services. As established by the UNFAO,⁸ male extension agents tend to approach male farmers more often than female farmers because of the general misperception that women do not farm and that extension advice will eventually "trickle down" from the male household head to other members. In addition, because women have lower levels of education than men, which may limit their participation in some kinds of trainings, they may be bypassed by extension service providers who are more likely to direct services towards male farmers. Males are perceived to be more likely to adopt modern innovations with sufficient resources.

Farmer promoters are volunteer community leaders in each village, provided with training and resources to increase their knowledge of agricultural best practices on a variety of topics. Practices include use of compost and fertilizer, crop-specific planting techniques, harvest activities, post-harvest storage and value addition. The goal of training farmer promoters is to achieve proximity

⁸FAO, Men and Women in agriculture: Closing the gaps, 2011

extension services through model farmers (promoters), and to have them pass along their technical knowledge to their fellow farmers. With a trained farmer promoter in every village, all farmers in Rwanda will have local access to an extension agent. As the level of technical knowledge in every village improves, crop yields and quality increase along with household incomes.

Figure 9 Distribution of farmer promoters in the four agro-ecological zones in Rwanda



Source: Compiled from RAB's raw data, 2014

Notwithstanding the fact that farmer promoters are very instrumental in the dissemination of extension services, agricultural good practices and technology innovations, again women are not well represented in this platform. In all the four agricultural zones, women represent their colleagues in those platforms are between 12 percent (the lowest being Eastern Province) to 16 percent (the highest being Southern Province). Given this situation, Eastern Province needs attention. The following were the reasons for women underrepresentation, per the findings from the FGDs conducted with women and men in Kayonza District:

- One fundamental reason is the low access of women to information about agriculture services, which is a consequence of their limited participation in meetings with government extension agents. Hence, men tend to meet and share information about agriculture extension services and about the farmer promoter system with peer men, so that information rarely reaches women.
- The second factor is related to social status. In general, being part of the farmer promoters is regarded by many villagers as an elevation to a higher social status giving them more exposure and involvement in community affairs. This prompts men to jump to the opportunity, especially given their position as head of families.
- The third reason relates to opportunities associated with farmer promoters' activities, such as training opportunities, participation in study tours, etc. Men tend to make sure that they are at the front of such initiatives so that they can benefit from these opportunities. The absence

of affirmative actions at policy level to promote equitable participation of men and women among farmer promoters can be highlighted as a key factor that explains the above-mentioned gaps.

- Another factor mentioned is the limited time of women farmers in rural areas to engage in extra-farm activities. Being overburdened with the labour-intensive work of agriculture in addition to their usual household chores and other unpaid work, women find it difficult to dedicate time to community development activities, such as the farmer promoters.

Farmer Field Schools (FFS)

In a bid to help smallholder farmers, the ministry for agriculture and animal resources introduced a learning farm system called farmer field school since 2014. Also known in Kinyarwanda as ‘Ishuri ry’Abahinzi mu Murima’ (IAMU), the initiative is implemented through a learning practical scenario where the plant symbolizes a teacher; the field is the school itself and the farmer, the learner. The initiative was made decentralized at the village level, employing best-trained farmers who teach their neighbours using their own best fields (Elias Hakizimana, 2017)

Introduced in Rwanda since 2009, Farmer Field School is a participatory extension approach in which selected farmers are trained to become facilitators. The FFS approach imparts best farming practices on major crops, from land preparation, pest and disease management, crop harvesting to skilling and organizing workers in a bid to increasing productivity. It also helps in integrating research in the field as well as continuously looking for innovations in agriculture. Participatory agricultural extension approaches include elements of participatory development in that it enables farmers to participate in problem diagnosis, solutions identification, and experimentation of technologies to choose those that are adapted to their specific challenges, and validate adopted technologies.

Cultural norms limit women’s ability to participate in and access training programs, including farmer field days and demonstration events. This inability to learn about new agricultural techniques, seeds, and technologies leads to lower productivity for women farmers. Improving access to these resources and programs involves changing ways that tradition and culture hold women back. For example, training programs need to be offered at times of the day and at distances that women can attend. (USAID, 2015:14) As of 2014, Rwanda Agriculture Board identified 44 FFS Master Trainers and 2,547 FFS Facilitators countrywide who work with 96,856 Farmers organized in 3,912 FFS groups.

Table 16 Master trainers, facilitators and trained farmers

	FFS Master Trainers			FFS Facilitators			Trained Farmers		
	TOTAL	Male	Female	TOTAL	Male	Female	TOTAL	Male	Female
Number	44	25	19	2,547	1,671	876	96,856	50,365	46,491
Percentage	100	56.8	43.2	100.0	65.6	34.4	100.0	52.0	48.0

Source: *RAB Administrative data, 2014 Cited in GMO (2019:17)*

Participation of Women in Proximity Extension services has various advantages:

- Increased participation in various agriculture programs as beneficiaries
- Change of mindset that men are the only decision-makers as to land use and farming systems
- More access to new knowledge, technologies, and agricultural information
- Increased productivity and yield for women owned farms (GMO, 2019: 17).

As it can be observed from the table above, there is a good participation of women in Farmer Field Schools, though men represent the bigger percentage. By the end of 2014, a total of 44 Rwandan Master Trainers of which 25 were male and 19 females had graduated after completing eighteen months of intensive field course that provided them with practical skills in farm management to help them foster agriculture development. With the highest percentage of women engaged in farming activities, there is need to increase their engagement in extension services.

It is expected that FFS Master Trainers will play a big role in streamlining the FFS extension approach in Rwanda, especially under the new Twigire extension model, a nationally adopted holistic approach in decentralizing extension services to the village level, and meant to empower agricultural promoters living daily with farmers. At the level of FFS Facilitators (those that has successfully completed a season-long training on improved farming practices, pest and disease management, crop harvesting, training and organizing workers), data from the Rwanda Agriculture Board show there are 2,547 FFS Facilitators spread over four agro-ecological zones as of December 2014.

Women make enormous contributions to the agricultural value chain and household food security through labour on the farm and in home gardens that often goes unrecognized in national statistics (MINAGRI, 2010). However, their access to training opportunities are limited for several reasons. Women heavy workload including households chores combined with their limited mobility, household power relations and competing reproductive work are among the key factors that hinder women's effective participation in agricultural programs such as extension services and trainings. (GMO, 2017:10).

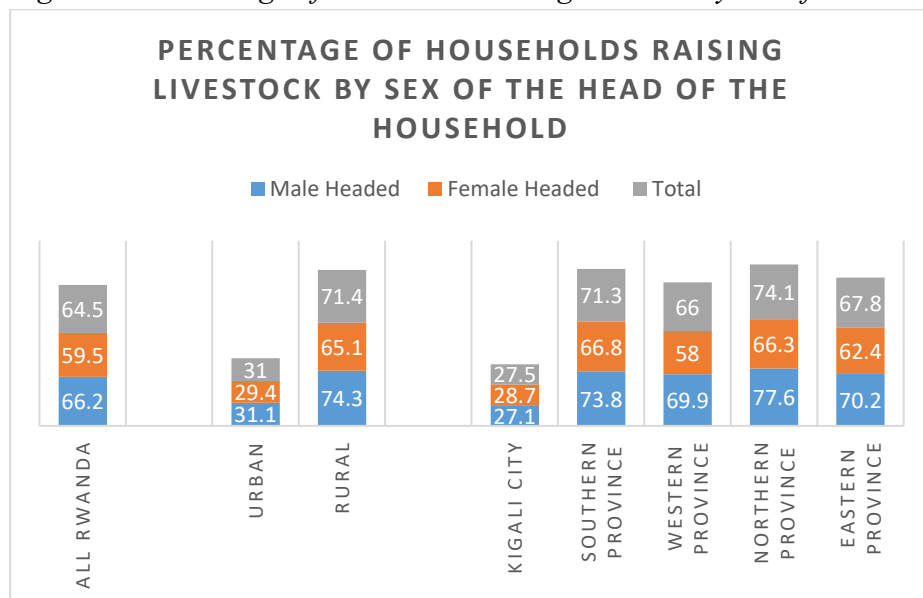
Many women also defer to their male spouses, even if the women perform most farm work. Trainers are not required to ensure that an equal number of men and women participate in trainings, and performance targets tend to be expressed as numbers of farmers trained, without being disaggregated by sex (MINAGRI, 2010). Most extension staff are men, and they find easier to communicate with

male farmers. As a result, there is little incentive to recruit women participants. Training programmes are also often designed without regard to the needs of women with respect to childcare and household duties, among other things.

Livestock-specific conditions

In Rwanda, 64.5 percent of the population raise one or more types of livestock, with a slight difference between men-headed (66.2 percent) and women-headed (59.5 percent) households. In terms of geographic location, the Northern and the Southern provinces have the highest rates, as illustrated by the figure below.

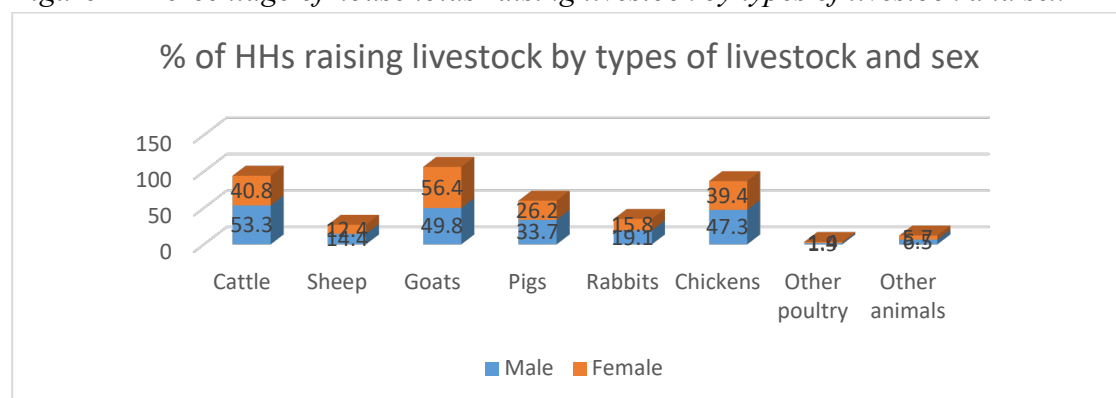
Figure 10 Percentage of households raising livestock by sex of the head of the household



Source: NISR, EICV4 Thematic Report – Gender, 2015

The proportion of male- and female-headed households who own livestock differs by the type of livestock. Overall, the difference between male and female-headed households at the national level in terms of the proportion of households owning livestock is not so alarming. However, a general observation from the EICV 2014-2015 findings is that the proportion of men-headed households who own any types of livestock is always higher than female-headed ones, except for goats, where the female proportion (56.4 percent) outnumbers the one for male (49.8 percent).

Figure 11 Percentage of households raising livestock by types of livestock and sex



Source: NISR, EICV 2014-2015

Agribusiness and agro processing (including SME)

Fewer women than men work in the formal agriculture business, because they face challenges such as the consent of their husbands to engage in business for married women, limited access to the loan services, access and control over land, and a lower level of education as well as technical know-how and access to technology. While men are engaged in formal small and medium enterprises, women entrepreneurs are more likely than their male colleagues involved in the informal sector. Typical activities of women include running smaller firms mainly in service sectors and thus operating in lower value-added sectors. In addition, they operate more home-based businesses than men do.

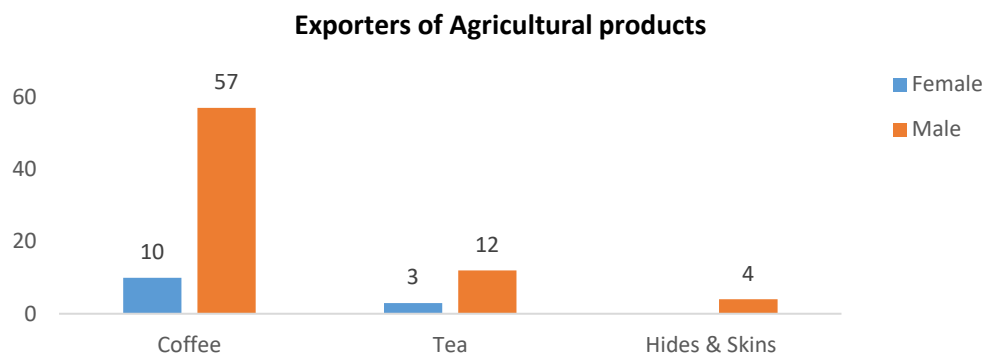
Rwandan Government supported the establishment of Microfinance Institutions as a way of providing financial accessibility to all Rwandans who cannot afford big loans from the banking institutions especially the Rwandan women with a representation of 54% of the total population. Rwandan SMEs make up approximately 98% of the total business and account for 41% of all private sector employments where women are headed for 42% of enterprises in the country and they comprise 58% of the enterprises in the informal sector that accounts for the 30% of the GDP. Despite microfinance contribution to the economy, women in Rwanda, like those around the world, continue to experience many problems in their businesses, which have led to a different mix of constraints including financial credit accessibility, limited share of contracts, access to trade and procurement guidelines and regulations and limited knowledge about financial services, and businesses. (RDB report 2014). It is upon the above that is why the researcher would like to establish the extent to which Micro Finance contributes to the growth of Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) in Rwanda (Musomandera Laetitia, Jaya Shukla, Anthony Luvanda, 2015:3).

The same study showed that the largest number of establishments in micro- and small-sized enterprises were sole-proprietorships, and that the owners were the sole employee. In general, sole-proprietorship is by far the most common form of legal status--90.8 percent of the micro and small-sized enterprises. Focusing on the agricultural sector, around 59 percent of enterprises were sole-proprietorships and around 40 percent were female sole-proprietorships.

Agriculture remains central to the export economy, representing 70 percent of the total value of exports. Tea and coffee account for more than 90 percent of export revenue and remain the most widely cultivated cash crops. The diversification to horticulture is expected to further boost agricultural exports.

In the Eastern Province, women are widely engaged in agriculture, but less presenting agricultural exports. The table below is an example of gender disparities for traditional commodities for export, including coffee, tea, and hides and skins.

Figure 12 Number of exporters of agricultural products by sex



Source: NAEB, 2014

In Rwanda, the norm is for women to be involved in the primary production and for men to be involved in the marketing of the product, and subsequently have control of the income. The situation above for cash crop value chains confirms that women have limited access to and control of productive resources, and have less control of household income from farming, due to their larger agriculture and household workload than men have, and their low literacy levels. Due to the latter, they also have reduced access to lucrative employment opportunities.

Agriculture technologies

The government and development partners are increasingly supporting farmers to shift from rain-fed agriculture to irrigated systems. Some of these are automated and this will contribute to the increasing of the involvement of females and economically empowering them. The irrigated systems also produce high yields, are more reliable, and hence will increase men and women's incomes. The irrigated systems such as marshland for rice production throughout the country or center pivot or sprinkler systems mainly used for maize production in Eastern Province have considerably increased food production and reduced food insecurity in the area, because of either increased yields or more production during season C (the third growing season).

The Rwandan government has set a goal to establish irrigation systems on 60,000 hectares of hillside land by 2020.⁹ However, men are the most involved in irrigation and water management related activities. Information from FGDs indicates that they spend extra hours putting in place and maintaining irrigation infrastructures, especially during dry seasons. Women mainly perform marginal works that do not require much physical efforts, i.e. water distribution in drainage systems and other support services. Participants to FGD also indicated that women are not interested in irrigation initiatives, since most of crops cultivated on area under irrigation are not staple crops, which are crucial to the family food security.

Presently, marshland irrigation has been developed, while hillside irrigation is newly developed only on a small scale. All marshlands are public land managed by the government. Large-scale irrigation and drainage systems have been built and these systems are then lent to farmer associations or cooperatives. The area land under irrigation system has now reached 3 percent of agricultural land (or total land surface?).¹⁰ The government has developed all irrigation infrastructures, and farmers with support of the government have developed very few small-scale irrigation works. Thus, there are no data concerning the owners of farmland under irrigation systems. Use of modern tools (machines) for planting, post-harvesting and other agricultural activities is becoming a common practice in Rwandan agriculture. This may facilitate agriculture activity value Chains.

Women's membership in cooperatives/associations

Rwanda has experienced significant economic growth following the 1994 Genocide. This growth is attributed to the expansion of its agricultural sector, specifically farming intensification and the government's focus on creating strong agriculture cooperatives. (John Elliot Meador & David O'Brien. 2019:2)

Table 17 Men and Women's membership in cooperative

	2010	2011	2012	2015
Men	57.9%	56.8%	55.7%	58%
Women	42.1%	43.2%	44.3%	42%

Source: Rwanda Cooperative Agency (RCA), *Administrative Data, 2016 cited by GMO (2019:20)*

When it comes to membership in agriculture cooperatives, the number of women is low compared to that of men. This is mainly attributed to the distribution of family responsibilities, which leave women with limited time to participate in other development initiatives. In addition, when it comes to decision, making men are the ones to take high leadership positions including chairpersonship, presidency and other related posts.

⁹MINAGRI, (2012), Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries of Rwanda. Fact-finding Survey for the Support of Aid to Developing Countries (Fiscal Year 2011 Research Project)

¹⁰NISR, (2012), EICV 3

Data from *RCA, Administrative data, 2013* and cited by GMO (2017), 57.7% of men occupy leadership positions in leadership position against 42.3% of women. Women take over subordinate and stereotyped posts such as the vice presidency, secretariat and treasury which have limited advantages in terms of decision making and access to opportunities such as information and trainings.

3.6 GENDER ACCESS TO FINANCE

The target for the Financial Sector Development Programme (FSDP) was to ensure that 80 percent of the Rwandan population has access to formal financial services by 2017. With respect to financial inclusion, the 2016 FinScope report found that 87 percent of women are financially included as well as 91 percent of men, with a relatively low overall gender gap of 4 percent. This is a significant improvement from 2008 and 2012, when women's inclusion was at 26.8 percent and 39 percent, respectively. (GMO, 2019: 25). The following table gives the details:

Table 18 Gender Equality and access to Finance

	Formally Served (2016)	Informally Served(2016)	Financially Excluded (2016)
Men	74%	17%	9%
Women	63%	24%	13%

Source: *FinScope 2016 cited by GMO (2019:25)*

Financial inclusion looked at in terms of proximity and access to formal banking products, services needs to be accelerated to meet female consumers' aspirations. The table above highlights gender inequality in favour of men in terms of access to finance. Women may engage in savings groups, cooperatives, income-generating groups or other entrepreneurial activities, and community activities. However, for many women in Rwanda, access to credit programs and services is still restricted due to illiteracy, lack of collateral and time issues. Both women and men most commonly use informal credit, such as borrowing from family, friends, or local money lender (Country Survey Rwanda 2012:6). With majority of women relying on borrowing from informal groups, more efforts are needed in addressing women full inclusion.

3.7 ACCESS TO ENERGY BY GENDER

Utilization of electricity for lighting among Female Headed Households greatly improved from 7.7% in 2010 to 20.3% in 2017 while the number of users of firewood as main source of lighting reduced from 9.4 in 2010 down to 2.5 in 2017 for men headed HHs and from 8.2 in 2010 to 7.1 in 2017 for women headed households. (GMO, 2019:51). However, the use of Biomass (Firewood and Charcoal) remains predominant among male and female-headed households as source of cooking energy as highlighted in the table below:

Table 19 Distribution of Households (HHs) by Main Type of Energy for Cooking (%)

	2010/2011					2013/2014					2016/2017				
	Firewood	Charcoal	Crop waste	Gaz or biogaz	Other	Firewood	Charcoal	Crop waste	Gaz or biogaz	Other	Firewood	Charcoal	Gaz or biogaz	Crop waste	Other
Male	85.5	11.6	2.0	0.1	0.8	82.2	16.2	0.6	0.2	0.7	78.3	18.9	0.6	1.2	1.1
Female	88.5	8.1	3.0	0.0	0.3	86.3	12.2	1.1	0.1	0.3	84.7	13.0	0.8	0.9	0,6

Source: EICV4, 2013/2014 and EICV5 2016/2017 cited in GMO (2019:52)

There is need to increase awareness targeting female headed households on the availability of Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG) as an alternative source of clean fuel for cooking, provide incentives for the private sector to invest in storage and filling facilities across the country to improve Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG) availability and reliability.

The forest sector in Rwanda is regarded as the main source of energy for cooking with a predominance of the firewood consumption at the rate of 85.7 percent by female-headed households compared to 80.8 percent by male-headed households.¹¹ The use of burning charcoal occupies the second position used by 9.3 percent of female-headed households as compared to 14.7 percent of male-headed households.¹²

There is a wider gap between female-headed households and male-headed households when it comes to comparing the sources of energy for cooking based on area of residence. Thus, in urban areas female-headed households using firewood represent 41 percent compared to 28.5 percent of male-headed households. Charcoal is more used in urban areas with a significant gap between female-headed households (55.1 percent) and male-headed households (65.1 percent).¹³ It is worth noting that to reduce the level of firewood consumption, the GoR has been promoting the installation and use of energy-saving cooking stoves in private households. Energy-saving cooking stoves are more popular in rural areas (38 percent) than in urban areas (20 percent).¹⁴ However, it is noteworthy that at the national level, female-headed households possessing energy saving stoves represents 32 percent, compared to male-headed households with only slightly higher at 35 percent.¹⁵

The EICV4 findings, as per the below table, indicated that regarding the main type of fuel that households use for cooking, 86 percent of female-headed households used firewood in 2013/14 while male-headed households that used firewood in 2013/14 were 82 percent. Charcoal is more used by male-headed households than female-headed households are.

¹¹Fourth Rwanda General Population and Housing Census, 2012.

¹²ibid.

¹³ibid.

¹⁴ibid.

¹⁵MIGEPFOP, National strategic plan for the implementation of the national gender policy 2016- 2020

Table 20 Main types of fuel used by Households for cooking

Type of cooking fuel	Male-Headed	Female-Headed	De facto Female-Headed	Total
EICV 4				
Firewood	82.2	86.3	82.8	83.3
Charcoal	16.2	12.2	15.9	15.2
Crop waste	0.6	1.1	0.8	0.8
Gas or biogas	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2
Other	0.8	0.2	0.1	0.6
Total	100	100	100	100
EICV 3				
Firewood	85.3	88.5	86.6	86.3
Charcoal	11.7	8.1	10.9	10.6
Crop waste	2.1	3.0	1.8	2.3
Gas or biogas	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1
Other	0.8	0.3	0.7	0.7
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: EICV4 and EICV3

3.8 POWER AND DECISION-MAKING

In addition to being a basic human right, gender equality is increasingly seen as a development catalyst. It is a key role-player in Rwanda's democracy and integration into the East African Community (EAC). Ensuring equal participation in governance processes and providing equal access to services are preconditions to facilitate inclusive and effective democratic governance.

Gender equality should not only be recognised on a legal and legislative level, but should be integrated into political, economic, social and cultural strata. Despite formal efforts made to address gender equality, in practice, women and men do not enjoy the same rights, and social, political, economic and cultural inequalities persist. These inequalities are a result of social constructs based on gender stereotypes within families, public life, political processes, administrative procedures, and the organisation of society as a whole. However, within these domains, there is also the opportunity to adopt new approaches and initiate change.

The Government of Rwanda (GoR), with the United Nations (UN) as a key partner, has been pursuing gender equality since 1994. The political participation of Rwandan women has been facilitated by a constitutional mandate and the work of key institutions such as the Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion, the Rwanda Women Parliamentarians Forum (FFRP), National Women's Council (NWC) and the Gender Monitoring Office (GMO). Rwandan women have created a remarkable political space for themselves in just twenty years. During the 2013 Rwandan Parliamentary elections, a record-breaking 64% of seats were won by women candidates (Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion (MIGEPROF, 2010).

In Rwanda, a conscious effort been made to implement gender-related policies and laws. In its preamble, the Constitution of the Republic of Rwanda of 2003 states that the country is committed to ensuring equal rights for all Rwandans without prejudice, while adhering to the principles of gender equality and complementarity in national development.

Decision making and governance

Transformational Governance includes the role of men and women and their participation in governance and justice in order to build a secure and stable nation, which provides a platform for economic and social transformation. The Gender constitutional quota of 30% as provided by the Rwandan constitution, combined with a strong political will, gender responsive policies and legal environment as well as enhancement of capacity and mentorship for women led to increased representation of women in decision making organs and improved gender responsiveness of development programmes (GMO, 2019: 53).

Table 21 Women representation in Parliament

Year/ Time line	1994	1995- 1997	1998	1999	2001- 2002	2003- 2008	3008- 2013	2013- 2018	2018- 2022
Total Number of Deputies	70	70	70	70	74	80	80	70	70
Women (%)	14	17	19	21	23	48.8	56.4	64	61

Source: Parliament Administrative Data, 2018 cited in GMO (2019:56)

Despite the political will to promote gender equality in leadership positions, and to increase women participation in Parliament, women are still lagging behind in terms of involvement in local government decision making as well as in some key positions as highlighted in the following table:

Table 22 . Men and Women Representation in Decentralized Local Government

	2016					
	Governors	Bureau of Districts' Councils	Districts Councils	District Mayors	Vice Mayors/ Social Affairs	Vice Mayors/ Economic Affairs
Male (%)	60	29	54.8	83.3	26.7	80
Female (%)	40	71	45.2	16.7	73.3	20
	2017					
	80	53.4	54.8	80	23.3	83.3
	20	46.6	45.2	20	76.7	16.7
	2018					
Male (%)	60	44.1	54.8	73.3	33.3	83.3
Female (%)	40	55.9	45.2	26.7	66.7	16.7

Source: MINALOC administrative data, 2018 cited in GMO (2019:57)

It is important to note that increased gender inclusion in governance contributed to fast track the implementation of gender equality and women's empowerment programs and increased gender responsiveness in service delivery. In spite of gender commitment as enshrined in the decentralization policy, participation of women in some leadership positions is still low. Therefore, more efforts are needed to address the existing gender gaps and ensure that strategies to improve women/ men's participation are established.

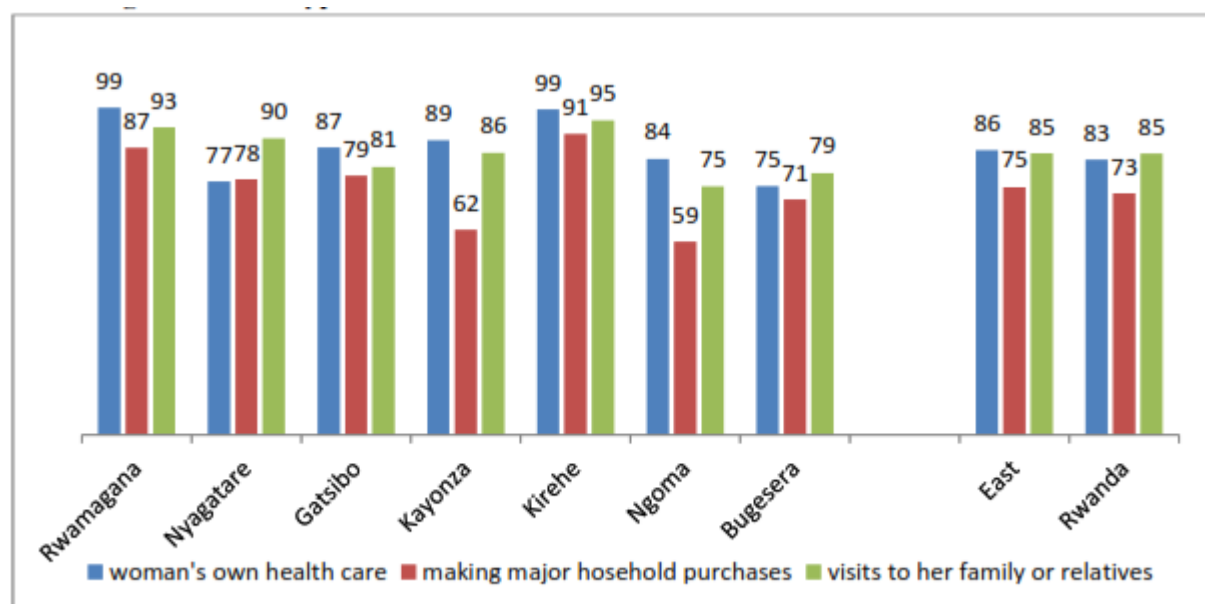
Constraints limiting women's participation in decision making

In this section, the consultant document any cultural, social, legal, and other constraints limiting women's participation in decision making at the household and community levels, or the use of resources and distribution of project benefits. Opportunities for women's voices and rights (e.g., participation and/or representation in decision-making processes and structures, for example in watershed management groups, landscape restoration committees); political empowerment (e.g., local governance structures, leadership training); or access to grievance mechanism(s) will be analysed in this section. Moreover, women's barriers and constraints to full participation in decision-making is highlighted in this section.

The Figure below shows that in Eastern Province, 86 percent of currently married women age 15-49 say they make decisions about their own health care meaning (deciding whether or when to see a doctor) either by themselves or jointly with their husbands, and 75 percent of women say they participate in decisions about major household purchases. 85% of married women say they participate in decisions about visits to their own family or relatives.

Many women are not empowered within their households and need permission from men to access health care. In 2015, only 23% of women reported being able to make decisions independently about their own health, and 16% reported that decisions were made mainly by their husbands (DHS, 2015). Women are also not always involved in household decision-making and depend financially on their partners. As a result, they must ask their partners for money for health care-related decisions like transport to health facilities, CBHI premiums, or copayments and service fees. (USAID, 2018:25).

Figure 13. Percentage distribution of women reporting to make decisions per type of decision



Source: RDHS, 2014-15

Men and women representation in the private Sector

The Private Sector Federation (PSF) has made progress in establishing the institutional and coordination framework through the 10 Chambers including Chamber for Women Entrepreneurs. In addition, a gender accountability programme (Gender Equality Seal) initiated by PSF, GMO and UNDP is striving to promote gender accountability in the sector (GMO, 2019: 62).

Table 23 Men and Women in Executive Committees of PSF Chambers at National and Provincial Level

	At National level			At Provincial Level		
	Presidency	First Vice Presidency	Second Vice President	Presidency	First Vice Presidency	Second Vice President
Male (%)	100	100	100	100	60	60
Female (%)	0	0	0	0	40	40

Source: PSF, Private Sector Structures Elections, Executive Report, 2018

Table 24 Men and Women in Executive Committees of PSF Chambers at District Level

	2017			2018		
	Presidency	First Vice Presidency	Second Vice President	Presidency	First Vice Presidency	Second Vice President
Male (%)	100	40	60	100	80	80
Female (%)	0	60	40	0	20	20

Source: PSF, Private Sector Structures Elections, Executive Report, 2018 cited in GMO (2019:62)

There is a noticeable trend of having more women as the second president at almost all levels, and this has to be looked into and assessed to identify impact on women participation in the private sector.

In addition, much more efforts are needed to bring more women on board especially in strategic positions including those in PSF chambers.

3.9 GENDER ROLES AND TIME USE IN DOMESTIC CONTEXT

By talking about time and space in gender analysis, the consultant would like to recognize gender differences in the availability and allocation of time as well as the space in which time is spent. It includes the division of both productive and reproductive labor, identifying how time is spent and committed during the day, week, month, or year, and in different seasons, and determining how people contribute to the maintenance of the family, community, and society.

Division of labour

Women continue to face a “double burden” where their time is taken up with domestic responsibilities such as collection of fuel wood and water for household use and consumption, cooking, care of infants and the elderly, and care of small animals, and they carry out many activities related to production such as, paid employment and help on family farms (USAID, 2015:2). The different structural roles of men and women in the market economy are coupled with correspondingly different—and unbalanced—roles in the household economy. In unskilled labour, men dominate in some types of work such as lifting cans, loading and off-loading, while women tend to perform work requiring less physical strength, such as cleaning. Participation in skilled labour such as office work or transformation processes depends on the level of education and experience of both men and women.

Because of unequal gender roles in the household, women have double or even triple the responsibility of men. While men typically work outside the home, women care for children and sick relatives and perform household chores in addition to subsistence farming. Unequal gender roles are considered common by most men and women and are introduced at early age. Key informants provided examples of young girls being expected to help their mothers with household tasks while boys are given more opportunities to play, attend school, or study. Female headed household are at a particularly disadvantage since they must fulfill their household responsibilities in addition to earning income to support their families. (USAID, 2018:24)

The time burden of responsibilities both inside and outside the home can prevent women from accessing health services. They do not have time for long waits in health centers, traveling to distant facilities, or navigating the different steps in the referral process. Informants reported that women usually do not take the time to look after their own health until they are very sick. Additionally, judgement from community members when men perform tasks culturally attributed to women deter men from assuming household responsibilities when women are ill or occupied at health facilities. Unequal gender roles also affect reporting of SGBV since women fear for their families’ wellbeing if men, the main income earners, are condemned. (USAID, 2018:24)

Gendered division of labour can be observed at all nodes of the value chain; roles are influenced by the production system. In the extensive grazing system that predominates in Nyagatare, for instance, men and boys bring animals to graze and find water, while women mainly care for calves and home processing of milk into fermented milk and butter. In the zero-grazing system, which predominates in the rest of the country and is associated with the national dairy development programmes, the workload is generally heavy, particularly for women, who are responsible for ensuring the cleanliness of utensils and stalls as well as feeding the animals. (Umuzigambeho, 2017:10).

Gender inequalities in employment and income generation, particularly in wage employment, are still prevalent. Women spend significantly longer time than men on domestic tasks and have less time for leisure and for seeking other work using their new skills, for personal care and for rest. (FAO, 2016:22)

In addition to their prominence in agriculture and in the informal sector, women bear the brunt of domestic tasks that are often arduous, time-intensive, and energy-consuming: processing food crops, providing water and firewood, and caring for the children, elderly and the sick as indicated by the table below

Table 25. Domestic tasks carried out per sex

Domestic work	Male		Female		All	
Worked in last seven days	Yes	Median hours	Yes	Median hours	Yes	Median hours
EICV4						
Fetch water for the household	50.3	2	62.6	2	56.8	2
Forage for firewood	29.5	2	43.2	3	36.7	3
Searching for fodder or grazing	43.9	7	43.7	4	43.8	5
Go to the market for the household for shopping	22.3	2	44	2	33.8	2
Cook for the household	22.6	3	76.2	10	50.9	8
Other household chores	37.1	2	78.4	3	58.9	3
All hours on domestic work		8		21		15
Hours worked in all current jobs		35		28		30
All hours domestic and work for profit or pay		43		53		48

Source: NISR, EICV4 Gender thematic report

Although in general male employees work more hours (35 hours) than female employees (28 hours) in Rwanda as portrayed in the table above, the focus on domestic work shows that women spent the most time in cooking. This demonstrates the extent to which there are still inequalities in domestic tasks distribution among women and men. For this reason, women find it difficult to move into non-agricultural jobs. This is generally the case for all provinces.

Through the government initiatives to establish early childhood development ECDs, the women would be empowered to carry out other task including income-generating activities and are implicated

in other catchment measures. No single solution can be implemented to address that issue but multiple actions are required, namely:

- Training of men and women on gender equality and complementarity;
- Reduce women burden by improved access to water by settled households for domestic use;
- Promote improved cooking stove to reduce time and hardship of firewood and reduce pressure on forest as rural area use firewood as the main cooking fuel;
- Partnership with local private companies to support establishment of ECDs;
- Rainwater harvesting facilities can help access water and to enhance men responsibility in some home tasks such as watering the cattle;
- The recent initiative of E-public works, whereby the women and men farmers can be paid by working on landscape restoration activities.

3.10 CLIMATE CHANGE AND GENDER

“Climate change is a major threat to the environment and natural resources, which we need for the sustainable development of our globe. Climate change will undermine the very foundation of socioeconomic development and will increase inequality and poverty. It will have a serious impact on the livelihoods of poor women in developing countries, as the increasing droughts and storms will affect agriculture and water resources, which are often the responsibility of women”¹⁶ Gender is a vital element to be taken into account when considering actions both to mitigate and to adapt to climate change. Climate change impacts are not only economic and physical, but also social. Because of gender differences in social-cultural and economic roles and responsibilities, the effects of climate change affect women and men in different ways and often women more harshly.

Worldwide climate change impacts will be differently distributed among different regions, generations, age, classes, income groups, occupations and genders (IPCC 2001).¹⁷ Variability due to climate change is posing specific challenges for Rwanda, including more frequent and intense extreme weather events, such as floods and droughts, which have significant negative impact on natural resources, food security,¹⁸ the country’s economy, and differentiated impacts on women and men.¹⁹

People’s vulnerability and capacity to be resilient and adapt depend on the access to assets. In Rwanda compared to men, women tend to have more limited access to resources that would enhance their capacity to adapt to climate change—including land, credit, agricultural inputs, access to markets, decision-making bodies, technology and training services like it has been highlighted previously. Having less access to asset makes women in Rwanda more vulnerable and less resilient to climate

¹⁶ Halonen, T. 2012. Foreword to “The Art of Implementation: Gender Responsible National and Regional Strategies Transforming Climate Change Decision Making”. IUCN Global Gender Office. Washington D.C. USA.

¹⁷ IPCC, 2001: *Climate Change 2001: The Scientific Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Third Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* [Houghton, J.T., Y. Ding, D.J. Griggs, M. Noguer, P.J. van der Linden, X. Dai, K. Maskell, and C.A. Johnson (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 881pp.

¹⁸ The four most vulnerable regions (out of twelve) are the Eastern Agro-Pastoral Zone, the Eastern Semi-Arid Agro-Pastoral Zone, the Bugesera Cassava Zone in the south, and parts of the Eastern Congo-Nile Highland Subsistence Farming Zone.

¹⁹ AfDB (2018) Climate Change profile Rwanda available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Rwanda_3.pdf

change than men. Women's coping mechanisms to climate change are still limited due to the high poverty among them, low literacy rate, limited access to extension services and different cultural norms, traditional roles, and power relations between men and women as highlighted above. The GTZ (2010) and the Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation (CTA, 2014) emphasized the vulnerability of women to climate change globally; and stated that, as a rule, poor social groups bear the brunt of climate change--not only because they are more dependent on natural resources, but also because they lack the requisite capacity to adapt to climate change.

If there is no clean drinking water, women must walk longer and more often over rough terrain to look for it. If there is less food, a woman is the last in the family to eat. Thus, climate changes increase the existing gender gaps, and continue to adversely and disproportionately affect women, particularly, smallholder women farmers and pastoralists.²⁰

Children and women most of the time are the ones in charge of firewood collection taking them between one hour and three hours. This remains a huge workload for women, limiting them a chance to engage in other productive activities. The use of Biomass (Firewood and Charcoal) remains predominant among male and female-headed households as source of cooking energy in the country. Scale up of alternative sources of energy for cooking will reduce workload on women while giving ample time to engage in economic activities. This will also reduce air pollution and health issues resulting from the use of firewood.²¹

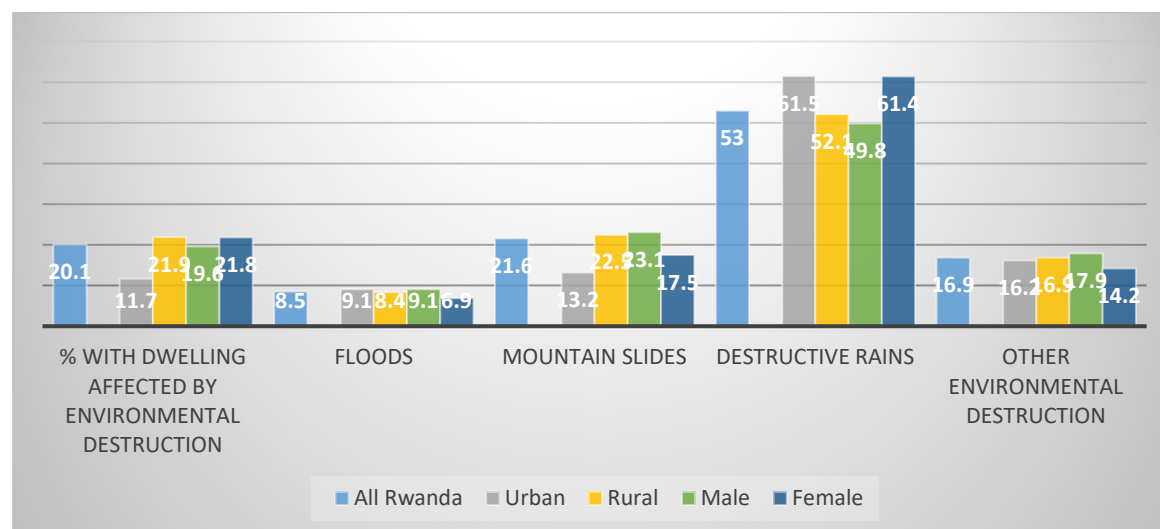
The National Climate Change Vulnerability Index defines the Eastern Province as the area with the highest levels of vulnerability in the country. Existing gender imbalances between men and women (particularly, traditional gender roles and patriarchal attitudes towards women in rural Rwanda) weaken their adaptive capacity and make them more vulnerable to shocks and stresses linked to climate change. As a result, women bear the most negative effects of climate change-induced disasters.

Primary data findings highlight women's limited mobility outside their homes, unpaid care work/household chores, and power relations within the households. In fact, in the case of hunger/famine in the households or community, women and children are the most affected, because men can move away from home in search of food or money and can come back home even after one or two months, as indicated by the CTA (2014). The above is confirmed by the results from the EICV 4 as per figure 16.

²⁰NEPAD, Gender, Climate Change and Agriculture Support Programme (GCCASP)-Rwanda, September 2014

²¹ Government of Rwanda. 2018. Gender Profile in the Energy Sector. Available at http://www.gmo.gov.rw/fileadmin/user_upload/profiles/new/Gender%20Profile%20in%20Energy%20Sector.pdf

Figure 14. Percentage of households with dwelling affected by environmental destruction per location



Source: EICV4. Base population: percentage of households with dwellings affected by environmental destruction

Women's heavy household workload including childcare does not allow them to go out of home in these circumstances. They mostly work in the vicinity of their homes. In this situation, men continue to be considered as the breadwinner and engine of the household, while women are caregivers, which makes women more economically dependent and vulnerable to any economic shock, including climate-induced shocks. Therefore, women remain more vulnerable both in droughts and even during the heavy rain seasons and flooding periods.

Climate change has been outlined in the EDPRS II as a crosscutting issue that should be mainstreamed across all strategic plans to ensure equitable and inclusive development, which also is environmentally sustainable. The National Gender Policy Strategic Plan 2016-2020²² includes among other objectives the government's priorities for environmental protection. It advances this priority by promoting equal participation of men and women in environmental management, through increasing awareness of men and women heads of households on the benefits of radical and progressive terracing for erosion control, and encouraging them to participate in related works. It also stresses increasing the use of biogas for both male- and female-headed households, especially in rural areas.

²²MIGEPROF, National Gender Policy Strategic Plan 2016-2020, April 2016

CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSIONS

Rwanda has made great efforts to promote economic inclusiveness with special focus on traditionally excluded groups including women. This gender analysis report provided an overview of key policies, legislations and institutional strategies to promote women empowerment and gender equality. It also presented key selected statistics and indicators to highlight progress in economic development and empowerment but also identified prevailing gender gaps. An important finding is that women make up a disproportionate percentage of workers in the informal sector including as domestic workers in subsistence farming systems or seasonal workers. However, while women constitute 66% of the agricultural work force, only 19.7% of women are paid for their labor and lack access income-earning opportunities. Cultural expectations continue to affect perceptions of appropriate roles and responsibilities of men and women whereby men are perceived as breadwinners and providers for their families which restricts women's economic opportunity/autonomy.

The study also focused on understanding the conditions for accessing and controlling productive resources such as access to land (use and ownership rights), agricultural inputs, technology and markets, financial services, education and health; and identified key barriers that hindered women's access and opportunities for economic development. Important hindering factors are lack of land ownership (as productive resource itself but also as barrier to access credit), lack of information and training, lack of involvement in decision-making, but also lack of experience and models that demonstrate gender-relevant opportunities for transformation and change. Women's coping mechanisms to climate change are further limited due to high poverty, low literacy rates, limited access to extension services and different cultural norms, traditional roles, and power relations between men and women. Women are also more affected by threats to hunger/famine due to prolonged drought, as they provide resources for their children first and because men are more mobile in the search of food or income.

Women are key players in the agricultural sector and their livelihoods are highly dependent on agricultural outputs and access to sustainable energy resources. The project provides important entry points for addressing identified gender gaps and barriers of women farmers and women-headed households and also for improving their ability to benefit from agroforestry and silvopastoral systems. The findings of the study in terms of barriers and constraints as well as needs and priorities of women and men should be fully taken on board in the detailed design of the project. Therefore the following recommendations are made:

- Ensure that women farmer are provided equal opportunities for training on climate resilient agricultural practices (e.g. agroforestry techniques)
- Identify and promote women entrepreneurs as role models in activities around local enterprise development, e.g. in the context of managing trees nurseries, nursery for fodder trees, value chains etc.

- Support women and strengthen female small-holder groups to become a more active and recognized actor in natural resources management (e.g. in the context of woodlots and tree plantations, district forests concessions etc.)
- Provide opportunities and build capacity of women leaders, lead farmers, farmer trainers and female government extension staff
- Train women farmers, farmer groups and cooperatives on organizational and financial management to enable access to financing including through mobilization of savings;
- Improve women access to credit from the supply site (e.g. by improving financial products of microfinance institutions)
- Strengthen women involvement in decision making on site selection and management of water infrastructure provided by the project (water tanks, rainwater harvesting etc.)
- Promote access to sustainable energy sources for household consumption, in particular for women-headed households and poorest households
- Ensure women inclusion in central and district level planning and management decisions on agriculture, livestock and forestry

REFERENCES

Abbott, P. & Malunda, D. (2015). *The promise and the reality: Women's rights in Rwanda*. Oxford University Rights Hub. University of Oxford, Faculty of Law.
<https://ohrh.law.ox.ac.uk/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2015/07/OxHRH-Working-Paper-Series-Number-5-Abbott-and-Malunda1.pdf>

Abbott, P. & Mugisha, R. (2014). *The Socio-economic Situation and Sexual and Reproductive Health Status of Historically Marginalised People in the Western Province of Rwanda*. UNFPA-Rwanda 2014.

Abbott, P., Mugisha, R., & Sapsford, R. (2018). Women, Land and Empowerment in Rwanda. *Journal of International Development*. <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/jid.3370>

Abbott, P., Mutesi, L. & Norris, E. (March, 2015). *Gender Analysis for sustainable livelihoods and participatory governance*. Oxfam International, Kigali, Rwanda.
https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Pamela_Abbott3/publication/273444601_Gender_Analysis_for_Sustainable_Livelihoods_and_Participatory_Governance_in_Rwanda/links/550169bb0cf2aee14b597fc8/Gender-Analysis-for-Sustainable-Livelihoods-and-Participatory-Governance-in-Rwanda.pdf

Abbott, P., Rwirahira, J., Corry, B., Festo, N. & Marin, J. (2012). *The Socioeconomic Status and Social Integration of Historically Marginalised People in Rwanda*. Institute of Policy Analysis and Research – Rwanda.

Abbott, P., Sapsford, R. & Rwirahira, J. (2015). Overcoming poverty and inequality: Rwanda's progress towards the MDGs. *Development in Practice*, 25(7), pp.921-934.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09614524.2015.1073691>

Action Aid. 2014. *Insights and Experiences of Women Smallholder Farmers in Ghana and Rwanda Women's Rights to Sustainable Livelihoods Project consolidated baseline survey report 2014*. Available at the website
<https://actionaid.org/sites/default/files/full20report20final20public20281129.pdf> Accessed on 10 February 2020

African Development Bank, 2014. *Analysis of Gender and Youth Employment in Rwanda*. Available at the website https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Publications/Rwanda_-_Analysis_of_Gender_and_Youth_Employment.pdf accessed on 10 February 2020

Bayisenge, J., 2018. From male to joint land ownership: Women's experiences of the land tenure reform programme in Rwanda. Available at the website
<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1111/joac.12257> Accessed on 14 February 2020

Bayisenge, J., Shengde, H., Harimana, Y., Karega, J. B., Nasrullah, M. and Tuyiringire, D., 2019. *Gender Equality, Agriculture and Rural Development: Evidence from Nyamasheke Coffee Production in Rwanda* International Journal

Becky Carter. 2018. *Linkages between poverty, inequality and exclusion in Rwanda*. Helpdesk Report. Available at the website https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/5c702109ed915d4a3506adcd/359_Linkages_Between_Poverty_Inequalities_and_Exclusion_in_Rwanda.pdf

CEDAW (October, 2014) *Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under article 18 of the Convention. Seventh to ninth periodic reports of States parties due in 2014*

Devereux, S. 2012. *Third annual review of DFID support to the Vision 2020 Umurenge Programme (VUP), Rwanda*. Report commissioned by the UK Department for International Development. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies, UK Centre for Social Protection.

Elias Hakizimana, 2017, *How farmer field school (FFS) transformed lives for local farmers*. Available at the website <http://rwandainspirer.com/2017/11/29/how-farmer-field-school-ffs-transformed-lives-for-local-farmers/> accessed on 9 February 2020

Eastern Province (2013) *Districts Development Plan (2013-2018)*

Eastern Province (2018), *Draft District Development Strategy(2018-2024)*

FAO (2011), *Men and Women in agriculture: Closing the gaps*

FAO. 2016. *Research on rural women's economic empowerment and social protection The impacts of Rwanda's Vision 2020 Umurenge Programme (VUP)*. Available at the website <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i5430e.pdf> accessed on 1 April 2020

Gender Monitoring Office, 2019. *The State of Gender Equality in Rwanda. From Transition to Transformation*. Available at the website http://gmo.gov.rw/fileadmin/user_upload/Researches%20and%20Assessments/State%20of%20Gender%20Equality%20in%20Rwanda.pdf consulted 10 January 2019

Gender and Women's Studies June 2019, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 29-40. Available at the website https://www.researchgate.net/publication/334390036_Gender_Equality_Agriculture_and_Rural_Development_Evidence_from_Nyamasheke_Coffee_Production_in_Rwanda/link/5d26e8a1299bfl547cab69cb/download Consulted on 9 April 2020

Gender Monitoring Office (2017). *Gender and Agriculture*. Available at the website http://gmo.gov.rw/rw/fileadmin/user_upload/profiles/Gender_Profile_in_Agriculture_GMO_March_2017.pdf Accessed on 11 February 2020

Gender Monitoring Office, 2017. *Labour Market Policies, Gender and Poverty Eradication: The Experience of Rwanda*. Available at the Website <https://www.un.org/development/desa/dspd/wp-content/uploads/sites/22/2017/04/Rose-Rwabuhiri-LABOR-MARKET-POLICY-AND-STRATEGIES-RWANDA-CASE.pdf> Accessed on 11 February 2020

Gender Monitoring Office, *Key Gender Indicators and Baseline in Four Sectors: Governance, Agriculture, Infrastructure and Private Sector*, 2011

GIZ. 2012. *Country Survey Rwanda: Gender Differences in the Usage of formal Financial Services*.

Government of Rwanda, *7 Years Government Programme: National Strategy for Transformation (NST 1) 2017 – 2024*

Government of Rwanda (2014), *Beijing +20 Rwanda Country Report*, 2014
National Agriculture Gender Policy, 2010

Government of Rwanda (September 2014), *The combined 7th, 8th and 9th periodic report on the implementation by Rwanda of the convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women*

Government of Rwanda (October 2015), *RWANDA NUTRITION, MARKETS & GENDER ANALYSIS 2015. An integrated approach towards alleviating malnutrition among vulnerable populations in Rwanda*

Ingabire, C, Mshenga PM, Amacker M, Langat JK, Bigler C, Birachi EA. 2018. *Agricultural transformation in Rwanda: Can Gendered Market Participation Explain the Persistence of Subsistence Farming?* Gender and Women's Studies. Available at https://www.izfg.unibe.ch/unibe/portal/center_generell/title_fak_ueberg/izfg/content/e7734/e730465/e823461/files823464/Ingabire_agricultural-transformation-in-rwanda-can-gendered-market-participation_ger.pdf Accessed on 10 February 2020

IMF (2017). *Rwanda – selected issues. IMF Country Report No. 17/214*. Washington D.C.: International Monetary Fund. <http://www.imf.org/en/Publications/CR/Issues/2017/07/13/Rwanda-Selected-Issues-45080>

Ingabire, Mshenga, Amacker, Langat, Bigler, and Birachi. 2018. *Agricultural transformation in Rwanda: Can Gendered Market Participation Explain the Persistence of Subsistence Farming?*

Gender and Women Studies. Available at https://www.researchgate.net/publication/330620438_Agricultural_transformation_in_Rwanda_Can_Gendered_Market_Participation_Explains_the_Persistence_of_Subsistence_Farming Accessed on 13 February 2020

Government of Rwanda, *Government Seven Year Programme 2010-2017*, October 2010

Government of Rwanda, *Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy 2*, (2013-2018)

Institute of Policy Analysis and Research (IPAR) (2012), *Agricultural policy and institutional framework for transformation of agriculture, economic development and poverty reduction in Rwanda*

IUCN. 2018. *Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment Policy: Mainstreaming gender-responsiveness within the IUCN programme of work*. Available at https://www.iucn.org/sites/dev/files/annex_9_to_c_95_8_iucn_gender_equality_and_womens_empowerment_policy.pdf

John Elliot Meador & David O'Brien. 2019. *Placing Rwanda's agriculture boom: trust, women empowerment and policy impact in maize agricultural cooperatives*, Volume 11, Issue 4, pp 869–88. Available at <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s12571-019-00944-9> Consulted 10 February 2020

MIGEPROF (2005), *National policy for Family promotion*

MIGEPROF (March 2009), *Gender Profile 2005-07 in Rwanda*.

MIGEPROF (2010), *National Gender Policy*, July 2010

MIGEPROF (2016), *National strategic plan for the implementation of the national gender policy 2016- 2020*

MINAGRI (July 2010), *Agricultural Mechanization Strategies for Rwanda: Shifting from Subsistence Agriculture to Market-oriented Agriculture*

MINAGRI (November 2010), *Agriculture Gender Strategy*

MINAGRI (2012), *Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries of Rwanda. Fact-finding Survey for the Support of Aid to Developing Countries (Fiscal Year 2011 Research Project)*,

MINAGRI (2013), *Strategic Plan for Agriculture Transformation III*, 2013-2018

MINALOC. 2011. *National Social Protection Strategy*

MINECOFIN. (2007). *EDPRS-I*.

MINECOFIN. (2013). *EDPRS 2*.

Ministry of Lands, Environment, water, forests and mines (February 2004), *National Land Policy*

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR). *Fourth Rwanda General Population and Housing Census, 2012*.

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR) (2012), EICV3, Thematic Report on Agriculture

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR) (2012), EICV3, Thematic Report on Gender

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), *Integrated Household Living Conditions (EICV) 4* (2013/2014)

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR) (2014), *The fourth population and housing census, thematic report on labour force participation*, January

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), EICV4 - Gender thematic Report, December 2015

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), *Rwanda Demographic and Health Survey 2014-15*, 2016

Nduwayezu, Anastase, Kantungeko, Déo, Hakizimana, Bernadette Marie, Njuki Nyaga, John, Blomme, Guy, Legg, James Peter and Kroschel, Jürgen. 2019. *The Role of Women in Production and Management of RTB Crops in Rwanda and Burundi: Do Men Decide, and Women Work?* Available at the website <https://www.mdpi.com/2071-1050/11/16/4304/htm>.

NEPAD (August 2014), *Gender, Climate change and Agriculture Support Program's Inception Report*

NEPAD (September 2014), *Gender, climate change and agriculture support programme (GCCASP)-Rwanda*

NISR.2019. *Labour force survey*. Kigali, Rwanda. Available at the website <https://www.statistics.gov.rw/publication/labour-force-survey-annual-report-2019>. Accessed on 15 May 2020

- NISR.2016. *Labour force survey*. Kigali, Rwanda
- National Institute of Statistic of Rwanda (NISR).2018. *Labour Force Survey*. Available at <https://www.google.com/search?q=Women+in+informal+sector+in+Rwanda&ei=trZCXrD0HpDJkwXSnI-AAg&start=10&sa=N&ved=2ahUKEwiwp-nD18nnAhWQ5KQKHVLOAyAQ8NMDegQIDhBE&biw=1525&bih=730>. Accessed on 12 February 2020
- NISR, 2018. *EICV5 Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey Thematic Report GENDER-2016/2017*
- Nzayisenga, M.J., Orjuela, C. & Schierenbeck, I. (2016). Food (In)Security, Human (In)Security, Women's (In)Security: State Policies and Local Experiences in Rural Rwanda. *African Security*, 9(4), 278-298. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19392206.2016.1239971>
- Republic of Rwanda. (2012). *Revised Rwanda Vision 2020*.
- Republic of Rwanda. (2017). *National Strategy for Transformation*
- Sam Rugege. 2015. *Women and Poverty in Rwanda: The Respective Roles of Courts and Policy* Chief Justice of the Constitutional Court of Rwanda Working Paper No. 1 January 2015, <https://ohrh.law.ox.ac.uk/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2015/07/OxHRH-Working-Paper-Number-1-Rugege1.pdf>
- Scippa, Dina and Bamusiime, Mary Alice. USAID/Rwanda Gender and Social Inclusion Analysis Report. Prepared by Banyan Global. 2019. <https://banyanglobal.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/12/USAID-Rwanda-Gender-and-Social-Inclusion-Analysis-Report.pdf>
- Umuzigambeho, J.F. 2017. *Gender assessment of dairy value chains: evidence from Rwanda*, Rome, FAO. Available at the website <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i6845e.pdf> Accessed on 13 February 2020
- UNWOMEN, 2016. *Empowering women farmers of Rwanda through mobile technology*. Available at the website <https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2016/10/empowering-women-farmers-of-rwanda-through-mobile-> . Accessed on 13 February 2020
- UNWOMEN, 2018. *Empowering women farmers in Rwanda to grow better crops, better food and incomes*. Available to the website <https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2018/10/feature-empowering-women-farmers-in-rwanda> accessed on 11 February 2020
- USAID & EAT (2012), Rwanda Cross-Border Agricultural Trade Analysis

USAID Rwanda/ LAND Project (2014), *The engendered nature of land and property rights in post-reform Rwanda*, April

USAID.2015. *Gender Analysis for USAID/Rwanda Feed the Future (FtF) Project December 2015 EXTERNAL VERSION*. Available at the website
<https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1860/GA%20-%20FtF%20-%20FINAL%20December%2014%202015%20-%20Public%20Version.pdf> consulted 2 March 2020

USAID.2018. *Gender and Social Inclusion Assessment. From data to policy* . Available at
https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1860/Gender_and_Social_Inclusion_Assessment_Final_Report_20181211.pdf accessed on 10 February 2020

World Bank, 2001. *Engendering Development through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources, and Voice, A World Bank Policy Research Report*, World Bank and Oxford University Press, Washington, D.C. and New York.

World Bank, IFAD, FAO (2008), *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*,

World Bank, 2011c. *Women, Business, and the Law, Removing Barriers to Economic Inclusion: Measuring Gender Parity in 141 Economies*, World Bank and International Finance Corporation, Washington, D.C.

World Bank Group (2016), *Women, Business and the Law 2016*

World Bank (2016), *The Global Gender Gap and its Implications*

World Food Programme (WFP) (2015). *Rwanda 2015. Comprehensive food security and vulnerability analysis*.

<https://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/ena/wfp284395.pdf>