



Food and Agriculture Organization
of the United Nations

Annex 8

Gender Assessment and project-level action plan

For the GCF-FAO Project “Transforming Livelihoods through Climate Resilient, Low Carbon, Sustainable Agricultural Value Chains in the Lake Region Economic Bloc, Kenya”

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADPs	Annual Development Plans
AFOLU	Agriculture, Forestry, and Other Land Use
AI	Artificial Insemination
CC	Climate Change
CCOs	County Coordinating Officers
CECMs	County Executive Committee Members
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CIDPs	County Integrated Development Plans
CRA	Climate Resilient Agriculture
CRLCSA	Transforming Livelihoods through Climate Resilient, Low Carbon, Sustainable Agricultural Value Chains in the Lake Region Economic Bloc, Kenya
CSA	Climate Smart Agriculture
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
EADD	East African Dairy Development
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GAP	Gender Action Plan
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GCF	Green Climate Fund
GDI	Gender Development Index
GESI	Gender Equality and Social Inclusion
GGGI	Global Gender Gap Index
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GoK	Government of Kenya
HDI	Human Development Index
KALRO	Kenya Agricultural and Livestock Research Organization
KBNS	Kenyan Bureau of National Statistics
LDC	Least Developed Countries
LVB	Lake Victoria Basin
LREB	Lake Region Economic Bloc
MCA	Members of the County Assembly
MoALFC	Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries and Cooperatives
MDG	Millenium Development Goal
NAP	National Adaptation Plan
NAPA	National Adaptation Programme of Action
NCCAP	National Climate Change Action Plans
NCCSR	National Climate Change Strategy Response
NDCs	Nationally Determined Contributions
PLWD	People Living With Disability
Pos	Producer Organizations
SACCO	Savings and Credit Cooperative Organisation
SRHR	Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infection
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
VCs	Value Chains

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Gender Challenges in Kenya

Kenya has made significant strides in enhancing gender equality and social inclusion (GESI) over the last decade. The Government of Kenya (GoK)'s introduction of Kenya's Constitution of 2010 and its development program, Kenya's Vision 2030 Blueprint, have generated policy and organizational reforms that have formally enabled greater gender equality across political, economic, and social spheres.¹ The process of gender mainstreaming in the devolution of government authority, resources, and functions to Kenya's 47 counties has laid a foundation for community-responsive development and created new opportunities for women and men, boys and girls, to participate as leaders and decision-makers at county level.²

Despite these political commitments, on-the-ground realities at county level and across different sectors indicate that gender gaps and inequalities persist in Kenya. These gender gaps are evidenced in various equality-based indexes. The Gender Development Index (GDI)³ and Kenya's Gender Inequality Index (GII)⁴ highlight gender gaps in education and living standards between women and men. According to the most recent Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) report, Kenya ranks 57th out of 146 countries, demonstrating gender gaps in economic opportunities, educational attainment, health, and political empowerment.⁵

Women in Kenya are incredibly diverse, with differences in age, marital status, socio-economic status, disability status, religion, and ethnic community influencing their levels of inequality and vulnerability relative to men. In the 14 counties targeted by the CRLCSA project in the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB)/Lake Region Economic Block (LREB), there are four ethnic communities that form the majority of inhabitants: In Bomet, Kericho, and Nandi (Kalenjin), In Kisii and Nyamira (Kisii), In Bungoma, Busia, Kakamega, Trans-Nzoia, and Vihiga (Luhya), and in Homa Bay, Kisumu, Migori, and Siaya (Luo).⁶ Specific local and historical dynamics and socio-cultural and gender norms mediate diverse women's access to and control over resources, influencing their engagement across different sectors, including agriculture.⁷ Where possible, this Gender Assessment includes discussion of how gender interacts with age status (i.e., young women and men) and disability status⁸, as they represent important dimensions of social differentiation that influence participation, benefits, and use of adaptation and mitigation strategies in agricultural value chains. In this way, the assessment views both GESI as core strategies towards the achievement of diverse women, People Living With Disability (PLWD), and youth to equitably benefit from project activities.

¹ UN Women. Global Gender Equality Constitutional Database. Constitution of the Republic of Kenya.

<https://constitutions.unwomen.org/en/countries/africa/kenya?provisioncategory=d91f71586bb54610baa13236037086c1>

² Hyun, M., Okolo, W., and Munene, A. 2020. USAID/Kenya Gender Analysis Report. Prepared by Banyan Global. 2020.

<https://banyanglobal.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/USAID-Kenya-Final-Gender-Analysis-Report.pdf>

³ <https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/specific-country-data#/countries/KEN>

⁴ <https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/thematic-composite-indices/gender-inequality-index#/indicies/GII>

⁵ Global Gender Gap Report. 2022. <https://www.weforum.org/reports/global-gender-gap-report-2022/in-full/economy-profiles-5b89d90ea5>

⁶ Nyabira, B.C. and Ayele, Z.A., 2016. The state of political inclusion of ethnic communities under Kenya's devolved system. *Law, Democracy & Development*, 20, pp.131-153.

⁷ Brisebois, A., Hallstrøm Eriksen, S. E., & Crane, T. A. The politics of governing resilience: Gendered Dimensions of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Kenya. *Frontiers in Climate*, 86. <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fclim.2022.864292/full>

⁸ Veronica Wanjiku N'gang'a. PWD in agriculture in Kenya: access to resources and training. Presented at Promoting equity: cross-cutting disability in international development research. Cross Cutting Disability Research Programme (CCDRP) Final Dissemination Conference, University College London, London, UK, 17 June 2013. (2013) 14 pp.

Women's representation and meaningful participation in the decision-making process trails men at national and county level, despite Kenya's Constitution of 2010 requiring a minimum of one-third representation of either gender in all elected and public posts. While the political participation rate for voting at national level is 47% women, and 52% men,⁹ the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments are lower. As of 2018, less than one-third of the National Parliament were women (31.8% of National Assembly (MPs) and 31.3% of Senators).¹⁰ For local government at the county assembly level, women's representation rates were significantly lower, with only 6.4% of governors and 14.9% of Deputy Governors.¹¹ Thus, while gender parity quotas are enshrined in Kenyan legislation, patriarchal customs and discriminatory socio-cultural and gender norms hamper women's ability to meaningfully and equally participate in policy-making and top decision-making and leadership roles.¹² Women who do enter politics and leadership positions at national level, as well as within local and community-based organizations (including agricultural cooperatives and producer organizations) often face backlash from men, including Gender-Based Violence (GBV) and intimidation, highlighting the continuing challenge in challenging discriminatory attitudes and practices towards women's role outside the home.¹³ Devastatingly, 39.4% of women in Kenya experience GBV in their lifetime.¹⁴

Knowledge and resource gaps in women's healthcare and sexual reproductive health and rights (SRHR) persist in Kenya. While women have a greater life expectancy than men (65 to 60 years), women and girls have greater malnutrition-wasting rates, obesity rates, and HIV infection rates than men.¹⁵ Anemia is also a significant health issue, with 29% of women of reproductive age (15-49 years old) reported as anemic in the 2019 national census.¹⁶ While the maternal mortality and infant mortality rates have decreased in recent years, 30% of births are not attended by skilled health personnel, and only 56% of the population has universal health coverage.¹⁷ There are also clear gaps between women's needs and the reality of SRHR healthcare provisioning. Almost 1/3 of women of reproductive age do not have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods, and women and girls under 25 years of age had the lowest level of understanding of reproductive rights.¹⁸ A 2021 study by the African Women's Development and Communication Network found that married women in Kenya expressed that they experienced a lack of autonomy, choice, or decision-making in negotiating for safe sex or not to have sex. Moreover, women and girls lack access to information about their basic reproductive health, with only 12% of girls aged 12-19 and 38% of women ages 21-30 are knowledgeable about menstruation.¹⁹

⁹ Nasimiyu, M.L. and E. Mariano. (2022). Sociocultural factors influencing women's participation in political leadership in Kakamega County, Kenya. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science*, 5(5) ISSN 2454-6186 <https://www.rsisinternational.org/journals/ijriss/Digital-Library/volume-6-issue-6/650-656.pdf>

¹⁰ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹¹ *ibid.*

¹² Nasimiyu, M.L. and E. Mariano. (2022). Sociocultural factors influencing women's participation in political leadership in Kakamega County, Kenya. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science*, 5(5) ISSN 2454-6186 <https://www.rsisinternational.org/journals/ijriss/Digital-Library/volume-6-issue-6/650-656.pdf>

¹³ Mwambi, M., Bijman, J., & Galie, A. (2021, July). The effect of membership in producer organizations on women's empowerment: Evidence from Kenya. In *Women's Studies International Forum* (Vol. 87, p. 102492). Pergamon.

¹⁴ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

¹⁵ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹⁶ <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.ANM.ALLW.ZS?end=2019&locations=KE&start=2000&view=chart>

¹⁷ The African Women's Development and Communication Network. 2022. Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights at a Glance: Fact Sheet for Kenya.

¹⁸ *ibid.*

¹⁹ *ibid.*

Women in Kenya have higher rates of poverty than men, and rural women have the highest levels of poverty and food insecurity.²⁰ Of the female population living below the national poverty line, young girls aged 0-17 years and elderly women 70 years and older are the most vulnerable and have the highest poverty levels (41% young girls and 39.1% elderly women are below the poverty line).²¹ Kenya has a 5% gender gap in adult literacy rates, with only 80% of women over 15 years old able to read compared to 85% of men.²² Although the gender gap in youth literacy rates and reading comprehension has closed between boys and girls²³, a 3.1% gender gap remains in mathematics comprehension at the Grade 2/3 level.²⁴ Gender gaps also exist in Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET), with only 43.2% (210,795) women compared to 56.8% (276,906) men enrolled.²⁵ According to the 2022 GGGI index, women had near-equal rights for access to financial services, but restricted rights for widows and daughters, and uneven rights for access to land assets and access to non-land assets.²⁶ For economic participation, women have higher rates of unemployment (9.6%) compared to men (5.3%)²⁷ and women earn 32% less than their male counterparts.²⁸ The 2019 Kenya census estimates a national labor force of 22.3 million, with women accounting for more than 50% of the total working population. According to the World Bank (2020) Report, Kenya's informal sector accounts for at least 87% of employment opportunities. The informal sector in Kenya offers employment to approximately 15 million Kenyans, according to 2018 estimates, compared to the 2.9 million who work in the formal sector.²⁹ These 15 million Kenyans are domestic workers, cleaners, beauticians, mechanics, and street vendors, among many more. Besides, the informal sector in Kenya is highly unregulated, with workers therein having limited or no social or labor protections.

Women in Agriculture

Recent estimates suggest that women account for approximately 75% of the agricultural labour force in Kenya and manage 40% of its small-scale farms.³⁰ While agriculture is central to the Kenyan economy accounting for 34.2% of its GDP and employing over 60% of the population, 70% who are living in rural areas³¹, women's participation as producers and sellers in formal agricultural value chain markets has lagged behind men. This is largely due to discriminatory social and gender norms that hinder women's involvement in agricultural value chains by shaping gender roles and responsibilities, and directing which types of crops, livestock species, marketing opportunities, and networks are appropriate for women to access.³² For example, traditional cash crops including coffee and tea, and the emergent formal dairy

²⁰ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

²¹ *ibid.*

²² UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). UIS Stat Bulk Data Download Service. Accessed November 24, 2022. apiportal.uis.unesco.org/bdd.

²³ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

²⁴ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

²⁵ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

²⁶ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

²⁷ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

²⁸ Equileap. 2019. Gender Equality in Kenya: Assessing 60 Leading Companies on Workplace Equality. Special Report. 24pp. https://equileap.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/Gender-equality-in-Kenya_Special-report-by-Equileap.pdf

²⁹ <https://www.genderandcovid-19.org/uncategorized/informal-women-workers-and-missed-opportunities-the-pandemic-economic-stimulus-package-in-kenya/>

³⁰ The Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis (KIPPRA). 2020. Women's Access to Agricultural Finance in Kenya. Policy Brief No. 03 of 2020-2021. <https://repository.kippira.or.ke/handle/123456789/2782>

³¹ *ibid.*

³² David, S. 2021. Women in agribusiness value chains in Africa: A white paper on constraints and opportunities for developing a gender-responsive agribusiness sector.

sector, are associated with men or are masculinized commodities, whereas informal food security crops and small livestock (e.g., poultry, rabbits) are feminized commodities.³³

Barriers to women's participation and benefit in agricultural value chains include limited access to affordable agricultural finance, affordable and appropriate technology, limited access to extension services, limited access to markets, and lack of access to inputs. Structural inequalities continue to prevent women from accessing higher levels of value chains and trading opportunities both at national, intra-regional and global level and in different areas of production.³⁴ For example, unequal land rights for rural women make it more difficult for them to engage in value chains that require large tracts of land to produce at scale (e.g., coffee, tea).³⁵

Intersectional gender differences also influence aspirations and opportunities for engaging in agriculture and cooperative societies in Kenya.³⁶ For example, young women are disincentivized to pursue agribusiness activities when they are the least likely to have access to productive resources and assets, access to credit and financial services, or business support services compared to men, women, or boys.³⁷ Young women and men usually do not hold positions of leadership or decision-making within cooperative organizations due to power dynamics that prioritize the opinions of elder men – this can also act as a disincentive.³⁸ PLWD are marginalized from participating in agricultural production more broadly, and the belief that they are unable to contribute as producers, marketers, or leaders.³⁹

Women and Climate Change in Agriculture

Women are disproportionately vulnerable to climate impacts based on existing inequalities in their roles, rights, and opportunities, which are defined by gender norms and socio-economic status.⁴⁰ For example, women tend to be more reliant on the natural resource base for securing their daily livelihoods (e.g., the collection of fuel wood for household energy, water collection for domestic and productive use), so the reduction in these resources due to climate change affects them more directly.⁴¹ Given that climate change amplifies existing socio-economic inequalities (e.g., control over or access rights to resources), women smallholder farmers in Kenya's lack of secure land rights, livestock assets, and technologies

³³ For more details on the gendered power embedded in agricultural commodities, see Tavenner, K., & Crane, T. A. (2018). Gender power in Kenyan dairy: cows, commodities, and commercialization. *Agriculture and Human Values*, 35(3), 701-715.

³⁴ Tavenner, K. and Crane, T., 2016. Best practice guide to socially and gender-inclusive development in the Kenyan intensive dairy sector. ILRI (aka ILCA and ILRAD).

³⁵ Rubin, D., Boonabaana, B., & Manfre, C. (2019). Building an inclusive agriculture: Strengthening gender equality in agricultural value chains. Annual Trends and Outlook Report: Gender Equality in Rural Africa: From Commitments to Outcomes, 83-96. <https://rtbfoods.cirad.fr/content/download/4186/31890/version/1/file/Building+an+inclusive+agriculture+-+Strengthening+gender+equality+in+agricultural+value+chains.pdf>

³⁶ Bullock, R. and Crane, T., 2021. Young Women's and Men's Opportunity Spaces in Dairy Intensification in Kenya. *Rural Sociology*, 86(4), pp.777-808. <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/pdfdirect/10.1111/ruso.12385>

³⁷ *ibid.*

³⁸ Bullock, R. and Crane, T., 2021. Young Women's and Men's Opportunity Spaces in Dairy Intensification in Kenya. *Rural Sociology*, 86(4), pp.777-808. <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/pdfdirect/10.1111/ruso.12385>

³⁹ Veronica Wanjiku N'gang'a. 2013. PWD in agriculture in Kenya: access to resources and training. Presented at Promoting equity: cross-cutting disability in international development research. Cross Cutting Disability Research Programme (CCDRP) Final Dissemination Conference, University College London, London, UK, 17 June 2013. (2013) 14 pp.

⁴⁰ Awiti, A. 2022. Climate change and gender in Africa: A review of impact and gender-responsive solutions. *Frontiers in Climate*. 4:895950. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fclim.2022.895950>

⁴¹ Caroli G, Tavenner K, Huyer S, Sarzana C, Belli A, Elias M, Pacillo G, Läderach P. 2022. The Gender-Climate-Security Nexus: Conceptual Framework, CGIAR Portfolio Review, and Recommendations towards an Agenda for One CGIAR. Position Paper No. 2022/1. CGIAR FOCUS Climate Security. <https://hdl.handle.net/10568/117590>

constrain them from adapting and coping with climate shocks.⁴² Added vulnerabilities include increased risk for GBV due to conditions such as longer distances to collect water and loss of livelihoods creating tensions within households.

While commercialization has been identified as a key strategy in assisting farmers adapt to climate change in Kenya⁴³, current business-as-usual practices in the way commercialization is performed tends to weaken women's control over decision-making and previously controlled incomes.⁴⁴ In Kenya, and specifically the 14 counties targeted by the CRLCSA project, this dynamic is underpinned by socio-cultural norms that assign gendered responsibility to certain agricultural activities and value chains as being "for men" (e.g., cash crops, coffee, tea, dairy) and others as "for women" (poultry, vegetables and fruits for homestead consumption).⁴⁵ Moreover, even in these activities that are customarily for women, as these activities become more profitable, men usually control the economic benefits gained from these activities.⁴⁶

Thus, value chain upgrading, and agricultural intensification in the context of a changing climate must be gender-responsive and acknowledge the gendered trade-offs that guide women's decisions in whether to engage in increasing marketization and/or formal marketing of agricultural and livestock products.⁴⁷ Gender-responsive solutions to these trade-offs would start with interventions working with local women's groups and cooperative societies to identify appropriate strategies to ensure women are equitably benefitting from participation in the value chain. For example, adding agricultural diversification or nutrition-based programming and actively investing in value chain activities that are shown to benefit women more directly (e.g., poultry production) in addition to planned commercialization activities.⁴⁸

The Gender Action Plan (GAP) for the proposed project tackles gender inequalities across several priority areas in agri-climate adaptation and mitigation⁴⁹. These include closing gender gaps and existing inequalities in participation (at intra-household level and within producer organizations/cooperatives), workloads (prioritizing agricultural technologies and practices for adaptation and mitigation that reduce workloads and negative impacts on women), access and use of productive resources (such as agri-climate information, technologies, livelihood incomes, credit), and collective action (working with women's groups as platforms for enhancing access, agency, and voice in climate-smart agriculture). In closing these

⁴² FAO and ARC. 2021. Women's leadership and gender equality in climate action and disaster risk reduction in Africa – A call for action. Accra, FAO. <https://doi.org/10.4060/cb7431en>

⁴³ GoK. Agricultural Sector Development Strategy 2010-2020. <https://faolex.fao.org/docs/pdf/ken140935.pdf>

⁴⁴ Tavenner, K., Van Wijk, M., Fraval, S., Hammond, J., Baltenweck, I., Teufel, N., ... & Manda, L. 2019. Intensifying inequality? Gendered trends in commercializing and diversifying smallholder farming systems in East Africa. *Frontiers in Sustainable Food Systems*, 3, 10.

⁴⁵ Ihalainen, M., Shaikh, S., Mujawamariya, G., Mayanja, S., Adetonah, S., Tavenner, K. and Elias, M., 2021. Promise and contradiction: value chain participation and women's empowerment. *Advancing gender equality through agricultural and environmental research: past, present and future*, pp.147-188.

⁴⁶ Tavenner, K. and Crane, T.A., 2018. Gender power in Kenyan dairy: cows, commodities, and commercialization. *Agriculture and Human Values*, 35(3), pp.701-715.

⁴⁷ Safa Barraza, A. and Berthelin, L. 2022. *Climate resilience and disaster risk analysis for gender-sensitive value chains: A guidance note*. Rome, FAO. <https://doi.org/10.4060/cc0051en>

⁴⁸ Tavenner, K., Van Wijk, M., Fraval, S., Hammond, J., Baltenweck, I., Teufel, N., ... & Manda, L. (2019). Intensifying inequality? Gendered trends in commercializing and diversifying smallholder farming systems in East Africa. *Frontiers in Sustainable Food Systems*, 3, 10.

⁴⁹ Adaptation requires adopting specific practices to lessen climate change impacts, while mitigation deals with addressing the root causes of climate change (i.e., Greenhouse Gas Emissions).

gender gaps, the project will use Gender Transformative Approaches (GTA),⁵⁰ and more specifically, Gender Action Learning Systems (GALS) to address the underlying discriminatory socio-cultural and gender norms that perpetuate gender inequality and constrain women's capabilities. This requires a culturally sensitive, multi-level approach that includes women and men in all their diversity.

The proposed project will use eight core strategies to achieve its gender and social inclusion (GESI) objectives. These are: (1) Supporting and strengthening Kenya's existing gender-responsive legal and institutional frameworks related to gender equality, climate change, and agriculture at national and community level (including within producer organizations, county agencies, and private sector); (2) Supporting gender-responsive and socially inclusive agri-climate information and services for vulnerable smallholders, both women and men, in adopting climate-resilient and low-carbon production and processing practices, technologies, assets, and risk reduction mechanisms; (3) Strengthening women, PLWD, and youth representation and participation in meaningful decision-making and leadership in cooperative societies and agrifood value chains; (4) Supporting agricultural extension to disseminate and demonstrate CRLCSA knowledge, technologies and practices in ways that are gender-responsive and socially-inclusive; (5) Requiring sex- and age-disaggregated data and relevant gender, agriculture, and climate indicators be collected, analyzed, and fed back into project activities iteratively and in a participatory manner; (6) Support GESI agri-climate finance for vulnerable smallholders and their organizations by increasing access to gender-responsive and socially inclusive financial products that support climate-resilient and low-carbon growth/Supporting gender-responsive and socially inclusive financial services, climate finance, and bundled services for enhancing women, PLWD, and youth actions towards climate adaptation and mitigation; (7) identifying and promoting gender-responsive and socially inclusive adaptation and mitigation technologies, markets, and labour practices; and (8) Promote and monitor gender and social safeguards to reduce climate risks for the most vulnerable, as well as risks to women's health, wellbeing, and livelihoods from increased engagement in cooperative organizations and leadership (for example, the risk of GBV or men's cooption of benefits from women's value chain labour).

The Gender Action Plan (GAP) should be further developed with the participation of women, men, girls, boys, youth, PLWD, and other vulnerable people who are most affected by the climate crisis within the agricultural sector to ensure all planned activities are gendered and meet the rights, needs, and experiences of women, men, girls, boys, youth, PLWD, and other vulnerable people.⁵¹

PART I: GENDER ASSESSMENT

1. Introduction

This Gender Assessment and accompanying Gender Action Plan (GAP) are presented in relation to the proposed project, "Transforming Livelihoods through Climate Resilient, Low Carbon, Sustainable Agricultural Value Chains in the Lake Region Economic Bloc, Kenya (CRLCSA)." The project mainstreams the achievement of gender equality and demonstrates its importance as a cross-cutting theme and prioritized climate and development goal. As such, the proposal has integrated gender mainstreaming into all project outputs and activities, as evidenced in the Gender Action Plan.

⁵⁰ For a full list of publications by the FAO Joint Programme on Gender Transformative Approaches for Food Security and Nutrition see: <https://www.fao.org/joint-programme-gender-transformative-approaches/resources/publications/en>

⁵¹ In alignment with the key recommendations from the 2020 report "Review of the National and County Planning and Budgeting Processes with a Gender Responsiveness and Social Inclusion Lens in Agriculture Sector, Kenya"

To illustrate that the project has meaningfully considered gender,⁵² and will commit actions towards the achievement of gender equality⁵³ through gender-responsive⁵⁴ programming, this assessment provides a situational analysis of the relevant gender dynamics in the proposed project sites in the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB), (also referred to as the Lake Region Economic Bloc, or LREB). Targeting is at county level⁵⁵, and includes the following 14 counties: Bomet, Bungoma, Busia, Homa Bay, Kakamega, Kericho, Kisii, Kisumu, Migori, Nandi, Nyamira, Siaya, Trans-Nzoia, and Vihiga, and across six value chains: coffee, tea, fruit trees, African leafy vegetables, livestock, and poultry.⁵⁶ Climate change impacts these value chains in significant ways – limited water supply coupled with high temperatures puts additional stress on crops such as coffee, tea, and African leafy vegetables, as well as dairy cows and poultry due to inadequate feed and fodder, water resources, and pest and disease outbreaks. There is generally a lack of sex and gender-disaggregated data at sub-national level⁵⁷, but county-level data on gender gaps in agricultural value chains and climate risks are presented using primary qualitative and quantitative data sources. Recommendations regarding where the project can have gender-responsive and gender-transformative⁵⁸ programming and results are discussed in Section 6.

This Gender Assessment recognizes the ways that gender intersects with other factors such as social differentiation, such as age, assets base, marital status, ethnic community, religion and class, within specific historical and cultural contingent contexts to influence people's ability to benefit from agricultural development and their vulnerability and resilience to climate change.⁵⁹ However, sex- and age-disaggregated data (qualitative or quantitative data that is collected and presented separately on men and women and by age⁶⁰) that goes beyond gender binaries are rarely collected. In this assessment, sex- and age-disaggregated data is presented from the 2019 Kenyan Census's national and county-level population statistics, as well as two quantitative surveys conducted in the Feasibility Study (i.e., climate risk survey and cooperative survey). The results of the qualitative research conducted in the Feasibility study are presented in section 5.2.7.

⁵² 'Gender' refers to the socially constructed system of classification that ascribes qualities of masculinity and femininity to people, often based on their biological sex. Gender characteristics can change over time and are different between cultures. We also recognize that gender interacts with other social categories (e.g., age, caste, class, ethnic community, disability, etc.) in unique ways that mediate people's engagement with agriculture and climate change adaptation based on relative privilege and sociocultural norms.

⁵³ 'Gender equality' refers to equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE). 2022. Glossary and thesaurus. <https://eige.europa.eu/thesaurus/terms/1168>

⁵⁴ 'Gender responsive' refers to approaches that reflect an understanding of and response to, socially constructed gender relations and roles in ways that try to address gender inequalities including encouraging equal, active participation equal opportunities, and fair distribution of benefits. Gender responsiveness is accomplished through gender analysis and gender inclusiveness. (Source: Nelson, G. (2015). Gender Responsive National Communications Toolkit. United Nations Development Programme).

⁵⁵ Following the Kenya Constitution 2010, the country is divided into 47 counties with devolved governments.

⁵⁶ Value chains were selected using ten criteria and a participatory approach (refer to FS Section 6 for detail on targeting and selection of VC). After consultation in the LREB, the value chains selected were three commercial value chains (dairy, tea, coffee) and three value chains that offer more direct food security benefits (fruit tree, African leafy vegetables, and poultry)

⁵⁷ <https://www.genderinkkenya.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/Gender-Sector-Statistics-Plan.pdf>

⁵⁸ 'Gender transformative' refers to approaches that seek to tackle the structured root causes of entrenched gender inequalities at multiple scales, including gender norms and roles, rather than merely responding to the symptoms of gender inequality such structures produce. Farhall, K. and Rickards, L., 2021. The "gender agenda" in agriculture for development and its (lack of) alignment with feminist scholarship. *Frontiers in Sustainable Food Systems*, 5, p.573424. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fsufs.2021.573424>

⁵⁹ Ravera, F., Martín-López, B., Pascual, U. et al. The diversity of gendered adaptation strategies to climate change of Indian farmers: A feminist intersectional approach. *Ambio* 45 (Suppl 3), 335–351 (2016). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13280-016-0833-2>

⁶⁰ Nelson, S. & Hill, C., 2019. *Gender in adaptation planning for the agriculture sectors: Guide for trainers*. Rome.

In Kenya, men's and women's gender roles, relations, and responsibilities are intimately connected to their fragility and resilience to climate change. On the one hand, existing gender inequalities exacerbate the negative impacts of climate change on women – their lack of access to resources, information, and technologies makes them more vulnerable to both rapid and slow-onset climate events⁶¹. On the other hand, women's specialized agricultural and environmental knowledge strengthens their adaptive capacity to climate impacts⁶². Thus, the gender-differentiated impacts and opportunities posed by climate change underscore women's vulnerability and disadvantage them in the face of a changing climate, as well as their resilience and power as agents of change in their households and communities in adapting to and mitigating climate change. In line with these observations, approaches to climate change adaptation have recently identified the co-benefit of women's empowerment.⁶³

In general, women face disproportionate climate change impacts given existing social inequalities. Even though women make up 75% of agricultural labor force⁶⁴, LVB/LREB communities are patriarchal and undervalue, exclude, and marginalize women's contribution to agriculture across sectors and value chain nodes. While women and children spend significant amounts of time laboring in production, harvesting, and post-harvesting activities, and may have decision-making power over food security crops, most women and youth do not own the land or other farm assets and do not have decision-making power over cash crops, or food security crops or livestock activities that become commercialized. Thus, women in the LVB/LREB region cannot use land for collateral, affecting their ability to access investment and loans to strengthen or expand their farming activities. Having fewer physical, capital, and financial resources to draw upon, women in the LVB/LREB are expected to face greater vulnerability as climate change impacts agricultural production.

While gender equality is part of Kenya's 2015 – 2030 climate change adaptation plan, in the LVB/LREB women are facing social and gender inequalities that climate change is exacerbating. These gender-based challenges are also evident in agricultural value chains in the context of a changing climate. Women's work is often invisible in agriculture – they frequently receive no payment for agricultural labor and are often not considered farmers by agricultural extension staff. Since women produce a large share of agricultural output and supply a large share of the labor (which has been increasing over time), any successful agricultural intervention requires raising women's empowerment and ensuring that gender-specific strategies are at the core of development programs.⁶⁵

To identify and create actionable steps towards addressing these challenges, gender analysis was used to explore the gender-based constraints and opportunities that influence women's engagement in agricultural value chains in the context of a changing climate. Gender considerations are crucial to ensure the gender gap in agriculture is addressed and closed. The gender gap refers to “the underperformance of the agriculture sectors in many developing countries, partly caused by women lacking equal access to

⁶¹ Ngigi, M. W., Mueller, U., & Birner, R. (2017). Gender differences in climate change adaptation strategies and participation in group-based approaches: An intra-household analysis from rural Kenya. *Ecological Economics*, 138, 99-108.

⁶² Bryan, E., Ringler, C., Okoba, B., Roncoli, C., Silvestri, S., & Herrero, M. (2013). Adapting agriculture to climate change in Kenya: Household strategies and determinants. *Journal of environmental management*, 114, 26-35.

⁶³ Women's empowerment refers to “the process by which women gain power and control over their own lives and acquire the ability to make strategic choices.” European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE). 2022. Glossary and thesaurus. <https://eige.europa.eu/thesaurus/terms/1102>

⁶⁴ The Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis (KIPPRA). 2020. Women's Access to Agricultural Finance in Kenya. Policy Brief No. 03 of 2020-2021. <https://repository.kippira.or.ke/handle/123456789/2782>

⁶⁵ Kristjanson, P., Bryan, E., Bernier, Q., Twyman, J., Meinzen-Dick, R., Kieran, C., Ringler, C., Jost, C. and Doss, C., 2017. Addressing gender in agricultural research for development in the face of a changing climate: where are we and where should we be going?. *International Journal of Agricultural Sustainability*, 15(5), pp.482-500.

the resources, decision making, and opportunities that they need to be productive. The gender gap harms society due to lost agricultural output, decreased food security, and stunted economic growth” (FAO, 2011)⁶⁶. There are also documented differences in women’s and men’s perception of climate change in Kenya, with gender-differentiated adaptation strategies evident at the intra-household level.⁶⁷ Their climate change adaptation actions suggest women and men pursue adaptation practices based on intra-household and community gender roles, responsibilities, and norms.⁶⁸

In creating action-based recommendations towards strengthening gender equality in the intervention sites, the CRLCSA project is integrated with the local agri-climate information ecosystem and seeks to leverage the potential for agricultural cooperatives and producer organizations as sites of gender-responsive programming and transformation. Indeed, agricultural cooperatives have been proven sites of resilience for women, who have leveraged their power in cooperatives to emerge as key agents for rural change.⁶⁹ The role of cooperatives in enhancing women’s participation, performance, benefits, and empowerment from engaging in agricultural value chains is well-documented, including in Kenya.⁷⁰ For example, by providing informational and technological resources, access to individual and communal credit schemes, access to farming inputs, and collective action for bargaining, cooperatives serve to build women’s confidence and provide them with the tools needed to increase their adaptive capacity and resilience to climate change.⁷¹

2. Methodology

This gender assessment presents a situational gender analysis of Kenya and the 14 targeted counties in the CRLCSA project. Gender analysis is defined as, “a systematic analytical process for organizing, collecting, analyzing, and interpreting qualitative and quantitative information that examines gender relations in a particular context, ranging from households to communities to nations.”⁷² The goal of gender analysis is to understand the specific roles of men and women, the relationships between men and women, their access to resources, their activities, and the constraints they face relative to each other. In identifying the different roles, needs, interests and opportunities for women and men, boys, and girls, a gender analysis helps identify relevant entry points, policies, and opportunities for enhancing gender equality (and social inclusion) in a particular intervention. In the context of agriculture and climate change interventions, a gender assessment also helps identify multiple causes of vulnerability, including gender and other social inequalities, and to build on the diverse knowledge and capacities within communities/households that can be used to make them more resilient to climate-related shocks and risks.⁷³ In alignment with GTA, the gender assessment sees that key to understanding gender power and

66 <https://www.fao.org/3/i2050e/i2050e00.htm>

⁶⁷ Ngigi, M., Mueller, U., & Birner, R. (2016). Gender differences in climate change perceptions and adaptation strategies: an intra-household analysis from rural Kenya. *Available at SSRN 2747856*.

⁶⁸ Nunow, A., Muthama, N. J., & Kinama, J. M. (2020). Analysis of gender parity in climate change adaptation actions within Kajiado and Kiambu counties, Kenya. *East African Journal of Science, Technology and Innovation*, 1(2).

⁶⁹ Lecoutere, E. (2017). The impact of agricultural co-operatives on women’s empowerment: Evidence from Uganda. *Journal of Co-operative Organization and Management*, 5(1), 14-27. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcom.2017.03.001>

⁷⁰ Lodiaga, M.D. 2020. The Cooperative Movement in Kenya: Women Only Cooperatives Their Potential for Women’s Empowerment and Enhancement of Gender-Just Peace. 7(4). *AJBSR*.MS.ID.001177. DOI:10.34297/AJBSR.2020.07.001177

⁷¹ *ibid*.

⁷² Mehar, M. and McDougall, C. (2017). Methods and tools for gender analysis in FISH: A preliminary consolidation and reference guide. Penang, Malaysia: CGIAR Research Program on Fish Agri-Food Systems. Internal document.

⁷³ Caroli G, Tavenner K, Huyer S, Sarzana C, Belli A, Elias M, Pacillo G, Läderach P. 2022. The Gender-ClimateSecurity Nexus: Conceptual Framework, CGIAR Portfolio Review, and Recommendations towards an Agenda for One CGIAR. Position Paper No. 2022/1. CGIAR FOCUS Climate Security.

relationships that mediate access, control, and decision-making, as well as assets, resources, and workloads, is to investigate the underlying socio-cultural norms, values, and beliefs that are expressed in the construction of gender identities and inequalities.⁷⁴ For additional guidance in performing gender-sensitive value chain studies, FAO has several key resources.⁷⁵

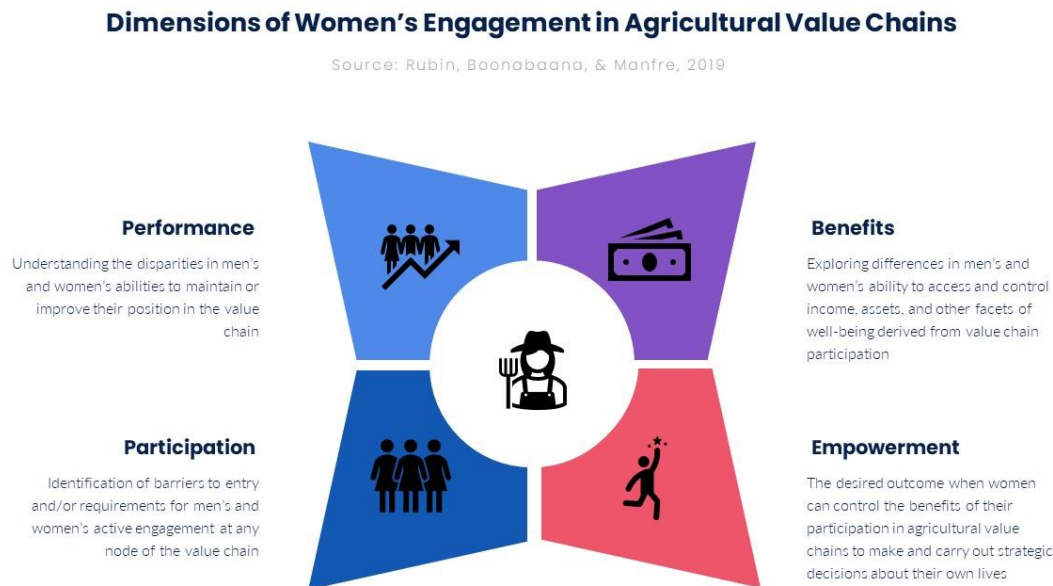
The Gender Assessment focuses on the current situation of rural women in the counties targeted by the proposed project: Bomet, Bungoma, Busia, Homa Bay, Kakamega, Kericho, Kisii, Kisumu, Migori, Nandi, Nyamira, Siaya, Trans-Nzoia, and Vihiga. The Gender Assessment is based on a desk review of recent literature on gender, climate change, cooperatives, and agricultural value chains in Kenya. Academic and grey literature from international institutions and NGOs, as well as national and county-level data and statistics are used to provide an empirical evidence base for the inclusion of gender in the proposal. Primary data was also collected in the counties targeted via three fieldwork activities. The first quantitative assessment presents data related to gender, climate information services, and agricultural decision-making in crop and livestock activities. The second assessment is qualitative, and explores the gender barriers, opportunities, and dynamics regarding women's participation, performance, and empowerment in the six value chains targeted. The third assessment is quantitative and explores gendered membership in cooperatives and value chains targeted in each county. The tools used for qualitative data collection are presented in the Appendix, while the quantitative data collection tools are annexed in the main report.

Qualitative interviews with cooperative members were designed to better understand the gender-based barriers and opportunities for women's engagement in the agricultural value chain, that influence their participation, performance, benefits, and empowerment. Interviews with cooperative leadership were designed to identify the key gender issues and inequalities within specific agricultural cooperatives, and discuss solutions towards improving women's participation, performance, benefits, and empowerment. These dimensions were chosen based on the gender analytic approach of Rubin et al. (2019) in investigating relevant dimensions of women's engagement in agricultural value chains (see Figure 1).

⁷⁴ Mehar, M. and McDougall, C. (2017). Methods and tools for gender analysis in FISH: A preliminary consolidation and reference guide. Penang, Malaysia: CGIAR Research Program on Fish Agri-Food Systems. Internal document.

⁷⁵ See: FAO. (2016). Developing gender-sensitive value chains – A guiding framework. Rome. [Developing gender-sensitive value chains \(fao.org\)](#); FAO. (2018). Developing gender-sensitive value chains – Guidelines for practitioners. Rome. [Developing gender-sensitive value chains \(fao.org\)](#); and Safa Barraza, A. and Berthelin, L. (2022). Climate resilience and disaster risk analysis for gender-sensitive value chains: A guidance note. Rome, FAO. <https://doi.org/10.4060/cc0051en>

Figure 1. Dimensions of Women's Engagement in Agricultural Value Chains



These questionnaires were used to address the 'big questions' emergent in gender analysis of agricultural value chains in the context of a changing climate across the four dimensions presented in Figure 1. For cooperative members, these included: What are the barriers to entry and/or requirements for men's and women's active engagement at any node of the value chain? What are the disparities in men's and women's ability to maintain or improve their position in the value chain? What are the differences in men's and women's ability to access and control income, assets, or other facets of well-being derived from value chain participation? What steps/changes are needed so that women can control the benefits of their participation in agricultural value chains to make and carry out strategic decisions about their own lives? For cooperative leadership, these included: What are the barriers to entry and/or requirements for men's and women's active engagement at any node of the value chain? What are the disparities in men's and women's ability to maintain or improve their position in the value chain? What are the differences in men's and women's ability to access and control income, assets, or other facets of well-being derived from value chain participation? What steps/changes are needed so that women can control the benefits of their participation in agricultural value chains to make and carry out strategic decisions about their own lives?

2.1 Organization of the Report

The report is intended as a 'living document' whereby the assessment data herein and Gender Action Plan (GAP) should be updated periodically based on new information obtained during the inception and implementation phases. It is expected that the project's Monitoring, Evaluation, and Learning (MEL) system and the mid-term evaluation will consider progress and gaps in the implementation of the GAP and provide feedback to further adjust and refine it. The gender expert assigned to the project will be responsible for a review of this document on a bi-annual basis.

The remainder of the Gender Assessment is organized as follows: Section 3 provides an overview of the legal and policy framework for the promotion of gender equality in Kenya. Section 4 presents a general

overview of the status of women and gender equality in Kenya. Section 5 consists of a gender analysis in the context of the project implementation sites. Section 6 introduces project strategies to integrate gender equality and social inclusion, which are further elaborated in the GAP.

3. Legal and policy framework for promotion of gender equality in Kenya

This section maps and assesses the existing institutional, policy, and legal frameworks pertaining to gender equality in Kenya. These include international frameworks and conventions on gender equality, national legal frameworks for the promotion of gender equality, and national climate-related policies. A brief analysis of the level of gender integration of the national climate-related policies is presented, before an overview of sectoral policies relevant to this proposal – namely, agriculture, livestock, and natural resources.

3.1 International Frameworks and Conventions on Gender Equality

There are multiple international instruments, policies and declarations that require states to develop and implement programmes and policies contributing to gender equality and women's rights. Article 2(6) of the Constitution of Kenya (2010) compels the Government to implement the obligations of the international treaties it has ratified. These include: the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action; the Programme of Action of the World Summit on Social Development (1995) and its review held in 2009; the BPfA (1995); the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women; the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) Action Framework on Women, Girls, Gender Equality and HIV (2009); and Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).⁷⁶ The latest CEDAW Committee concluding observations on the eight periodic report of Kenya gives specific recommendations for rural women under Article 42. The Committee calls upon the GoK to: (a) To promote the participation of rural women in decision-making processes and their access to high-quality health care, education and adequate water and sanitation; (b) To facilitate the access of rural women to land, eliminate all customs and traditional practices that impede their equal access to land and establish a clear legislative framework to protect their rights to inheritance and land ownership; (c) To develop and implement a national gender policy on agricultural development as set forth in the agricultural sector development strategy covering the period 2010–2020; (d) To ensure access to high-quality health care for rural women, including through increased training of midwives; (e) To ensure the equal participation of rural women and girls in policymaking processes on disaster mitigation and climate change; and (f) To implement the Climate Change Act of 2016 in a manner that prioritizes women's rights. While progress has been made in domesticating international treaties and conventions, the implementation and monitoring of some of these remains weak.

At the regional level, Kenya has ratified the following commitments: the AU Charter and its Protocol on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003); and as a member of the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), it recognizes that there are sharp gender inequalities in access to key productive assets including: land, labour, financial services, technology, and inputs; coupled with education and health care.⁷⁷ Despite these commitments, challenges for gender statistics persist in the country, as producers and users are not adequately coordinated. There is a need to harmonize methods and standards across producers and users of gender statistics in Kenya to address the gaps in sex-disaggregated and gender-specific statistics.

⁷⁶https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/15/treatybodyexternal/Download.aspx?symbolno=CEDAW%2FC%2FKEN%2FCO%2F8&Lang=en

⁷⁷ <https://www.genderinkenya.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/Gender-Sector-Statistics-Plan.pdf>

A recent review of gender in climate change and agriculture policies in the East African region found that while there is increasing gender responsiveness in the region, (i) gender issues are still interpreted as “women issues,” (ii) there is disharmony in gender mainstreaming across governance levels, (iii) budgeting for gender is not yet fully embraced by governments, (iii) allocations to gender at sub-national level remain inconsistently low with sharp differences between estimated and actual budgets, and (iv) gender activities do not address any structural inequalities.⁷⁸

3.2 National Legal Frameworks for the Promotion of Gender Equality

There are several legal frameworks to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination based on sex. These include: The Constitution of Kenya, 2010, Article 23; National Gender and Equality Commission Act, No. 15 of 2011, Section 8; The Prohibition of FGM Act, 2011; Prevention against Domestic Violence Act, 2015.⁷⁹

The 2010 Constitution is the cornerstone of Kenya's legal framework on gender equality and women's empowerment. Key provisions include:

- **Article 27:** Guarantees equality and freedom from discrimination. It prohibits discrimination based on gender, ensuring that men and women have equal opportunities in political, economic, cultural, and social spheres.
- **Two-thirds Gender Rule (Article 81(b)):** The Constitution mandates that not more than two-thirds of members of elective and appointive bodies should be of the same gender, promoting gender parity in political representation.
- **Affirmative Action (Article 27(8)):** This allows for measures to be taken to promote women's representation and participation in various spheres, including political, economic, and social.
- **Bill of Rights (Chapter 4):** Guarantees equal protection under the law for all citizens, including women, and prohibits any form of discrimination.

Several statutory laws have been enacted to implement these constitutional principles and promote gender equality:

- **The Sexual Offences Act (2006):** Provides comprehensive legal protection against sexual violence, aiming to safeguard women's bodily integrity and prosecute perpetrators of sexual offenses.
- **The Matrimonial Property Act (2013):** Protects women's property rights in marriage and after divorce, recognizing both monetary and non-monetary contributions made during the marriage.
- **The Prohibition of Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) Act (2011):** Criminalizes female genital mutilation and provides for the protection of women and girls from this harmful practice.
- **The Employment Act (2007):** Prohibits discrimination in employment on grounds of gender and mandates equal pay for work of equal value, ensuring that women are treated fairly in the workplace.
- **The Protection Against Domestic Violence Act (2015):** Provides legal protection for victims of domestic violence, who are predominantly women, and facilitates prosecution of offenders.

⁷⁸ Ampaire, E. L., Acosta, M., Huyer, S., Kigonya, R., Muchunguzi, P., Muna, R., et al. (2020). Gender in climate change, agriculture, and natural resource policies: insights from East Africa. *Clim. Change* 158, 43–60. doi: 10.1007/s10584-019-02447-0

⁷⁹ KNBS and UN Women. SDG Fact Sheet 2021 Kenya.

<https://data.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/documents/Publications/KNBS-Kenya-factsheet.pdf>

The **National Gender and Equality Commission**⁸⁰ (NGEC) was established by the National Gender and Equality Commission Act, 2011 pursuant to Article 59 (4) of the Constitution of Kenya. It is one of the three (3) successor commissions, NGEC, Commission on Administrative Justice and Kenya National Commission on Human Rights), to the Kenya National Human Rights and Equality Commission (KNHREC) established in Article 59 of the Constitution of Kenya 2010. NGEC's mandate is informed by Section 8 of the National Gender and Equality Commission Act 2011. Its mandate is to promote and ensure gender equality, principles of equality and non-discrimination for all persons in Kenya with a focus on women, persons with disability, children, youth, older members of society, minority and marginalised groups.

It monitors, facilitates and advises on the integration of the principles of equality and freedom from discrimination in all national and county policies, laws, and administrative regulations in all public and private institutions; and it also investigates and ensures compliance with legal frameworks and strategic plans.

3.3 National Climate-related Policies and Gender

Several government policies seek to improve gender equality and women's empowerment:

- **The National Gender and Equality Commission (NGEC):** Established under the National Gender and Equality Commission Act (2011), NGEC is a constitutional commission mandated to promote gender equality and freedom from discrimination. It monitors the implementation of laws and policies related to gender equality, advises the government, and conducts public education.
- **The Kenya Vision 2030:** Kenya's long-term development blueprint emphasizes gender equity in economic, social, and political spheres. It seeks to empower women through increased participation in leadership and decision-making, as well as enhancing women's access to education, healthcare, and economic opportunities.
- **The National Policy on Gender and Development (2019):** This policy provides a framework for mainstreaming gender issues into all aspects of government policy and program implementation. It focuses on addressing gender inequalities in areas such as education, health, and political participation.
- **Kenya Women's Economic Empowerment Strategy (2019–2023):** This strategy focuses on creating opportunities for women's economic participation by improving access to financial resources, land, employment, and entrepreneurial opportunities.

There are five recent national climate-related policies that are particularly relevant to the proposed project. Each of these is discussed in turn, followed by a table analyzing the level of gender integration of each of these policies.

Central Bank of Kenya - Guidance on Climate-Related Risk Management.⁸¹ **Passed 2019.** In October 2021, the Central Bank of Kenya issued this guidance under section 33(4) of the Banking Act, which empowers the Central Bank of Kenya to guide institutions to maintain a stable and efficient banking and financial system. The guidance recognizes that climate change poses a substantial risk and can pose an opportunity for the financial sector and requires banks to embed the consideration of the financial risks from climate change in their governance arrangements; incorporate the financial risks from climate change into their existing financial risk management practice; and develop an approach to disclosure on the financial risks from climate change.

⁸⁰ <https://www.ngeckenya.org/about/15/mandate>

⁸¹ <https://www.centralbank.go.ke/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/Guidance-on-Climate-Related-Risk-Management.pdf>

National Climate Change Action Plan 2018-2022 (NCCAP).⁸² (2018). This plan aims to strengthen the country's path towards sustainable, climate-resilient development while achieving low carbon climate resilient development. It builds on the previous Action Plan spanning the period 2013-2017. The NCCAP consists of three documents, including an Adaptation Technical Analysis Report (volume II), and a Mitigation Technical Analysis Report (volume III). The Plan seeks in particular to: 1) reduce risks to communities and infrastructure resulting from climate-related disasters such as droughts and floods, 2) Increase food and nutrition security through enhanced productivity and resilience of the agricultural sector in as low- carbon manner as possible, 3) Enhance resilience of the Blue Economy and water sector by ensuring access to and efficient use of water for agriculture, manufacturing, domestic, wildlife and other uses, 4) Increase forest cover to 10% of total land area; rehabilitate degraded lands, including rangelands; increase resilience of the wildlife and tourism sector, 5) Mainstream climate change adaptation into the health sector; and increase the resilience of human settlements, including improved solid waste management in urban areas, 6) Improve energy and resource efficiency in the manufacturing sector, and 7) Climate-proof energy and transport infrastructure; encourage electricity supply based on renewable energy; encourage the transition to clean cooking; and develop sustainable transport systems.

Kenya Climate Smart Agriculture Strategy 2017-2026.⁸³ (2017). The broad objective of the Kenya Climate Smart Agriculture Strategy 2017-2026 (KCSAS) is to adapt to climate change, build the resilience of agricultural systems, and minimize emissions for enhanced food and nutritional security and improved livelihoods. The specific objectives of the KCSAS are to (i) enhance the adaptive capacity and resilience of farmers, pastoralists, and fisher-folk to the adverse impacts of climate change; (ii) develop mechanisms that minimize greenhouse gas emissions from agricultural production systems; (iii) create an enabling regulatory and institutional framework; and (iv) address cross-cutting issues that adversely impact climate smart agriculture. Four broad strategic areas have been identified for KCSAS: (i) Adaptation and building resilience by addressing vulnerability to changes in rainfall and temperature, extreme weather events, and unsustainable land/water management and utilization; (ii) Mitigation of greenhouse gas emissions from key and minor sources in the agriculture sector; (iii) Establishment of an enabling policy, legal, and institutional framework for effective implementation of climate smart agriculture; and (iv) Minimizing the effects of underlying cross-cutting issues, such as human resource capacity and finance, which would potentially constrain the realization of climate smart agriculture objectives.

National Policy on Climate Finance.⁸⁴ (2016). This policy accomplishes several goals. First, it describes the current legal and policy framework for climate financing that is relevant for Kenya, focusing on both domestic and international sources. Second, it outlines the role that climate financing could play in each of Kenya's most important economic sectors (agriculture, forestry, energy, transport, trade, tourism, manufacturing, water and sanitation, disaster risk management, and research and innovation). Third, it describes the policy interventions the Kenyan government intends to make with respect to climate financing, including to establish a national Climate Change Fund, identify climate financing sources and create a national system for tracking them, enhancing Kenya's carbon trading system, and exploring the possibility of green bonds.

⁸² Government of Kenya. 2018. National Climate Change Action Plan (Kenya) 2018-2022. Ministry of Environment and Forestry, Nairobi, Kenya.

⁸³ Government of Kenya. 2017. Kenya Climate Smart Agriculture Strategy-2017-2026

⁸⁴ The National Treasury of Kenya. 2016. National Policy on Climate Finance.

National Adaptation Plan 2015-2030.⁸⁵ Passed in 2016. This document identifies Kenya's vulnerabilities to the effect of climate change, adaptation actions and implementation strategies. **National adaptation plan (NAP):** A NAP is the process developed by the UNFCCC to facilitate adaptation planning in LDCs and other developing countries as a means of identifying medium- and long-term adaptation needs. NAPs help countries to develop strategies and programmes to address those needs.⁸⁶

Table 1: Gender integration in climate-related policies in Kenya

Year Passed	Title of Climate Policy	Level of Gender Integration
Passed 2019.	Central Bank of Kenya - Guidance on Climate-Related Risk Management.	Gender-blind [no mention of gender/women].
Passed 2018.	National Climate Change Action Plan 2018-2022 (NCCAP).	Gender-responsive. Gender/women-related issues clearly integrated into the policy.
Passed 2017.	Kenya Climate Smart Agriculture Strategy 2017-2026.	Gender-sensitive. Gender/women-related issues framed as a cross-cutting theme.
Passed 2016.	National Policy on Climate Finance.	Minimally gender-sensitive – 1 mention of women as a vulnerable group to be prioritized.
Passed 2016.	National Adaptation Plan 2015-2030.	Gender-sensitive. Gender/women-related issues framed as a cross-cutting theme.

3.4 Sectoral Policies

3.4.1 Agriculture and Livestock

A recent review⁸⁷ on guidelines to mainstreaming gender and social equality and social inclusion during planning and budgeting processes in the agriculture sector in Kenya outlines the current policy environment for gender and social inclusion in the agriculture sector. The review found that specific gender and social inclusion policies exist that call for mainstreaming GESI into agriculture sectors. The Agricultural Sector Gender Policy (2013) aims to ensure gender equality in agriculture for enhanced and equitable productivity, food security, growth, and national development.' Moreover, the policy calls for gender-responsive programming and institutional transformation in the agricultural sector, strengthening institutional capacity to mainstream gender in the agricultural sector, promoting support and accountability for gender mainstreaming in the agricultural sector, and harnessing and coordinating sector efforts in gender mainstreaming for greater impact (GoK, 2013).⁸⁸ As a recent example of how this policy has materialized into development planning, Kenya's National Agriculture Investment Plan (NAIP) (2019-2024)⁸⁹ has several specific performance indicators tied to enhancing gender equality and women's empowerment, including the proportion of rural women that are empowered by agriculture, the proportion of women and men engaged in agriculture with access to financial services, and the growth rate of minimum dietary diversity of women. NAIP Flagships 1,2,3,4, and 7 commit to promote women as agricultural producers and decision makers, thereby enhancing their food security.

⁸⁵ Kenya National Adaptation Plan: 2015-2030, Government of Kenya, July 2016

https://www4.unfccc.int/sites/NAPC/Documents%20NAP/Kenya_NAP_Final.pdf

⁸⁶ Nelson, S. & Hill, C, 2019. *Gender in adaptation planning for the agriculture sectors: Guide for trainers*. Rome.

⁸⁷ Nyasimi, M., Ndetu, V., and Kidera, S. 2021. Guidelines to mainstreaming gender and social equality and social inclusion during planning and budgeting processes in the agriculture sector in Kenya.

⁸⁸ Nyasimi, M., Ndetu, V., and Kidera S. 2020. Review of the National and County Planning and Budgeting Processes with a Gender Responsiveness and Social Inclusion Lens in Agriculture Sector, Kenya.

⁸⁹ National Agriculture Investment Plan (NAIP). 2019-2024. TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURAL TRANSFORMATION and FOOD SECURITY IN KENYA. <https://faolex.fao.org/docs/pdf/ken189052.pdf>

More recently, The Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries, and Cooperatives (MoALFC) has developed agricultural policies and strategies that address the inclusion of women, youth, and other special interest groups. For example, The Agricultural Sector Transformation and Growth Strategy (ASTGS, 2019-2029) is addressing the ‘unique challenges and opportunities for women and youth in the sector by incorporating tailored opportunities for these groups as an integral part of delivering the ASTGS’. The ASTGS further acknowledges that women and youth are underrepresented in agriculture and therefore, do not receive full benefits of the sector.⁹⁰ Policies and recommendations related to livestock are generally embedded in agricultural policies – however, Kenya is in the process of developing a NAMA for the dairy sector that is considering the role of gender to deliver benefits to women and other marginalized groups at large scale. The Kenyan Dairy NAMA includes “increasing on-farm dairy productivity through private sector investment in gender-inclusive extension services and fodder supply” as one of four components in its finalization.⁹¹

4. Overview of the Status of Women in Kenya

This section provides an overview of the status of women in Kenya. Information on specific sub-groups that are particularly vulnerable (e.g., girls, women-headed households, elderly women, and widows⁹²) are provided where possible.

4.1 Gender Parity

Gender parity in Kenya can be assessed using data from indexes and indicators that demonstrate women’s status in the country. These include the Human Development Index (HDI), Gender Development Index (GDI), Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI), and Gender Inequality Index (GII). Each of these indexes and their related indicators are described below.

Human Development Index (HDI), 0.575 HDI, 152 HDI ranking (2021)⁹³

The HDI is a summary measure for assessing long-term progress in three basic dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, access to knowledge and a decent standard of living. Kenya’s HDI value for 2021 is 0.575— which puts the country in the Medium human development category— positioning it at 152 out of 191 countries and territories. Between 1990 and 2021, Kenya’s HDI value changed from 0.474 to 0.575, a change of 21.3 %. Between 1990 and 2021, Kenya’s life expectancy at birth changed by 2.8 years, mean years of schooling changed by 2.9 years and expected years of schooling changed by 3.1 years. Kenya’s GNI per capita changed by about 29.7 % between 1990 and 2021.

Kenya Human Development Index (HDI)⁹⁴

2021 HDI Value	0.575
HDI change from 2020	-0.003

⁹⁰ [ASTGS]. Agricultural Sector Transformation and Growth Strategy. 2019. <https://kilimo.go.ke/wp-content/uploads/2022/03/ASTGS-Abridged-version.pdf>

⁹¹ CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security. 2017. CCAFS GSI-sponsored gender research informs Kenya Dairy NAMA to increase on-farm dairy productivity through private sector investment in gender-inclusive extension. Reported in Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security Annual Report 2017. Outcome Impact Case Report. <https://hdl.handle.net/10568/121866>

⁹² Birech, J. K. (2019). The Contribution of the Government and other Stakeholders in enhancing the Socioeconomic Status of the Widows in Kenya. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal*, 6(10), 20–38. <https://doi.org/10.14738/assrj.610.7249>

⁹³ <https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/specific-country-data#/countries/KEN>

⁹⁴ <https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/human-development-index#/indicies/HDI>

Life expectancy at birth	61.4 years
Expected years of schooling	10.7 years
Mean years of schooling	6.7 years
Gross national income per capital (2017 PPP\$) ⁹⁵	4,474

Gender Development Index (GDI)

The GDI measures gender gaps in achievements in three basic dimensions of human development: health (measured by female and male life expectancy at birth), knowledge (measured by female and male expected years of schooling for children and mean years of schooling for adults aged 25 years and older) and living standards (measured by female and male estimated GNI per capita). It is a ratio of the female to the male HDI. The 2021 female HDI value for Kenya is 0.557 in contrast with 0.592 for males, resulting in a GDI value of 0.941, placing it into Group 3.⁹⁶

Kenya GDI⁹⁷

2021 GDI Value 0.941

GDI change from 2020 +0.004

	Female	Male	Gender Gap
HDI Value	0.557	0.592	-0.035
Life expectancy at birth	64.1 years	58.9 years	5.2 years
Expected years of schooling	10.3 years	11.1 years	-0.7 years
Mean years of schooling	6.1 years	7.3 years	-1.2 years
Gross national income per capital (2017 PPP\$) ⁹⁸	3,873	5,084	-1,211

Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) ⁹⁹ Report.¹⁰⁰ According to the 2022 edition of the GGGI report, Kenya ranks 57th out of 146 countries, with a score of 0.729 (where imparity=0 and parity=1). The GGGI uses four aggregated index indicators – Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational Attainment, Health and Survival, and Political Empowerment to calculate Kenya’s GGGI score. The table below describes the disaggregated indicators that comprise each aggregated score.

GGGI Indicator	Rank	Score
Economic Participation and Opportunity	6 th	0.811
Labour-force participation rate %	9 th	0.939
Wage equality for similar work 1-7 (best)	56 th	0.685
Estimated earned income int’l \$1,000	10 th	0.826
Legislators, senior officials, and managers	12 th	0.985
Professional and technical workers	101 st	0.677
Educational Attainment	118 th	0.939
Literacy rate %	103 rd	0.920
Enrollment in primary education %	1 st	1.000

⁹⁵ Purchasing Power Parity

⁹⁶ <https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/specific-country-data#/countries/KEN>

⁹⁷ <https://hdr.undp.org/gender-development-index#/indices/GDI>

⁹⁸ Purchasing Power Parity

⁹⁹ The gender gap is defined as the discrepancy between men and women in terms of opportunities, status, attitudes, and other variables. The Gender Gap Index ranges between 0 and 1. Hence, a score of 1 reflects equality between men and women in the variables considered in the index, while a score of 0 shows significant inequality.

¹⁰⁰ <https://www.weforum.org/reports/global-gender-gap-report-2022/in-full/economy-profiles-5b89d90ea5>

Enrollment in tertiary education	122 nd	0.737
Health and survival	57 th	0.975
Sex ratio at birth	1 st	0.944
Healthy life expectancy	63 rd	1.045
Political empowerment	81 st	0.192
Women in parliament %	89 th	0.272

Indicators showing gender inequalities, such as the **Gender Inequality Index (GII)**. The GII measures gender inequalities (the loss in human development due to inequality between female and male achievements) in three key dimensions – reproductive health, empowerment, and labour market. A low GII value indicates low inequality between women and men, and vice-versa. Reproductive health is measured by maternal mortality ratio and adolescent birth rates; empowerment is measured by the shares of parliamentary seats held and population with at least some secondary education by each gender; and labour market participation is measured by the labour force participation rates for women and men. Kenya has a GII value of 0.506, ranking it 128 out of 170 countries in 2021.¹⁰¹

Kenya GII¹⁰²

2021 GII Value 0.506

GII change from 2020 -0.001

Maternal mortality rate 342 deaths/100,000 live births

Adolescent birth rate 64.2 births/100,000 women ages 15-19

	Female	Male	Gender Gap
Share of seats in parliament	23.2%	76.8%	-53.5%
Population with at least some secondary education (age 25 and older)	31.1%	37.7%	-6.6%
Labor force participation rate (age 15 and older)	71%	75.6%	-4.6%

Kenya – Gender Inequality Index by County¹⁰³

The GII scores for the 14 target counties are all higher than the national average, with the lowest county score being 0.62 (Bomet, Bungoma, Kericho, Trans Nzoia) and the highest county score being Migori (0.69).

County	Gender Inequality Index Score
Bomet	0.62
Bungoma	0.62
Busia	0.65
Homa Bay	0.67
Kakamega	0.63
Kericho	0.62
Kisii	0.63
Kisumu	0.63
Migori	0.69
Nandi	0.65
Nyamire	0.65
Siaya	0.65
Trans Nzoia	0.62
Vihiga	0.63

¹⁰¹ <https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/specific-country-data#/countries/KEN>

¹⁰² <https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/thematic-composite-indices/gender-inequality-index#/indicies/GII>

¹⁰³ The Kenya National Inequality Index per county report. 2015.

4.2 Population

As per the last census (2019), the Kenyan population was 23,548,056 males, 24,014,716 females, 1,524 intersex for a total of 47,564,296.¹⁰⁴ A 2021 World Bank population model estimated Kenya has a total female population of 26,726,429 (50.4%) and a total male population of 26,279,184 (50%). The population sex ratio (female/male) is 1.01, with a population growth rate of 2.25%.¹⁰⁵ The gender and youth populations for the 14 counties targeted in the CRLCSA project are listed below.

Gender population and percentage by county¹⁰⁶

National/County	Men		Women		Intersex		Total
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N (100%)
Kenya	23,548,056	49.5	24,014,716	50.5	1,524	0.003	47,564,296
Bomet	434,287	49.59	441,379	50.40	23	0.003	875,689
Bungoma	812,146	48.6	858,389	51.4	35	0.002	1,670,570
Busia	426,252	47.7	467,401	52.3	28	0.003	893,681
Homa Bay	539,560	47.7	592,367	52.3	23	0.002	1,131,950
Kakamega	897,133	48	970,406	52	40	0.002	1,867,579
Kericho	450,741	49.98	451,008	50.01	28	0.003	901,777
Kisii	605,784	47.82	661,038	52.18	38	0.003	1,266,860
Kisumu	560,942	48.54	594,609	51.46	23	0.002	1,155,574
Migori	536,187	48.03	580,214	51.97	35	0.003	1,116,436
Nandi	441,259	48.82	444,430	50.18	22	0.002	885,711
Nyamire	290,907	48.04	314,656	51.96	13	0.002	605,576
Siaya	471,669	47.49	521,496	52.51	18	0.002	993,183
Trans Nzoia	489,107	49.39	501,206	50.61	28	0.003	990,341
Vihiga	283,678	48.08	306,323	51.92	12	0.002	590,013

National Youth Population and Percentage by Gender¹⁰⁷

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth		Female Youth		Intersex Youth		Total Youth
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N (100%)
15-19	2,686,264	50.8	2,599,442	49.17	151	0.002	5,285,857
20-24	2,112,690	47.2	2,334,778	52.5	206	0.004	4,447,674
25-29	1,839,543	47.8	2,014,859	52.27	153	0.004	3,854,555
30-34	1,698,678	47.57	1,871,887	52.42	154	0.004	3,570,719

Bomet County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	1,104	1,347	2,451
20-24	1,835	2,330	4,165

¹⁰⁴ Kenya Census 2019 Population by County and sub-County. <https://dc.sourceafrica.net/documents/119530-Kenya-Census-2019-Population-by-County-and-Sub.html>

¹⁰⁵ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

¹⁰⁶ Kenya Census 2019 Population by County and sub-County. <https://dc.sourceafrica.net/documents/119530-Kenya-Census-2019-Population-by-County-and-Sub.html>

¹⁰⁷ The 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census. Volume III: Distribution of Population by Age and Sex. <https://www.knbs.or.ke/?wpdmpo=2019-kenya-population-and-housing-census-volume-iii-distribution-of-population-by-age-sex-and-administrative-units>

25-29	1,945	2,029	3,974
30-34	1,625	1,465	3,090

Bungoma County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	10,775	11,647	22,422
20-24	8,629	10,619	19,248
25-29	7,919	9,509	17,428
30-34	7,399	8,472	15,871

Busia County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	5,709	6,728	12,437
20-24	5,274	6,762	12,036
25-29	5,177	6,295	11,472
30-34	5,101	5,303	10,404

Homa Bay County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	5,365	6,652	12,017
20-24	5,344	7,745	13,089
25-29	5,425	6,758	12,183
30-34	5,080	5,668	10,748

Kakamega County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	9,872	10,602	20,474
20-24	10,070	11,283	21,353
25-29	8,544	9,295	17,839
30-34	7,547	8,294	15,841

Kericho County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	2,545	2,672	5,217
20-24	1,951	2,570	4,521
25-29	1,957	2,586	4,543
30-34	1,961	2,282	4,243

Kisii County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	7,112	8,249	15,361
20-24	8,220	10,558	18,778
25-29	8,277	9,654	17,931
30-34	7,130	7,645	14,775

Kisumu County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	21,593	25,274	46,867
20-24	23,455	30,061	53,516
25-29	23,382	26,765	50,147
30-34	21,442	21,760	43,202

Migori County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	8,699	10,225	18,924
20-24	7,800	11,047	18,847
25-29	7,602	9,124	16,726
30-34	6,777	7,286	14,163

Nandi County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	52,592	50,073	102,665
20-24	35,899	37,502	73,401
25-29	27,630	30,924	58,554
30-34	27,607	31,543	59,150

Nyamira County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	32,881	32,295	65,176
20-24	17,981	21,804	39,785
25-29	15,605	21,550	37,155
30-34	16,537	24,766	41,303

Siaya County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	4,246	5,262	9,508
20-24	4,246	5,758	10,004
25-29	4,127	5,037	9,164
30-34	3,705	4,105	7,810

Trans Nzoia County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	9,505	10,312	19,817
20-24	8,729	10,427	19,156
25-29	8,392	9,334	17,726
30-34	7,760	8,121	15,881

Vihiga County Youth Population by Gender

Youth Age Bracket	Male Youth	Female Youth	Total Youth
	N	N	N (100%)
15-19	3,193	3,284	6,477
20-24	2,577	2,860	5,437
25-29	2,221	2,579	4,800
30-34	2,027	2,462	4,489

Women-headed households in Kenya make up 31% of all households as per the 2021 reporting of the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS).¹⁰⁸

The counties targeted by CRLCSA all have majority ethnic communities. Bomet, Kericho, and Nandi are predominately Kalenjin, Kisii and Nyamira are predominately Kisii, Bungoma, Busia, Kakamega, Trans-Nzoia, and Vihiga are predominately Luhya, and Homa Bay, Kisumu, Migori, and Siaya are predominately Luo.

Counties where various ethnic communities form the majority¹⁰⁹

Ethnic communities	Counties targeted by CRLCSA
Kalenjin	Bomet, Kericho, Nandi
Kisii	Kisii, Nyamira
Luhya	Bungoma, Busia, Kakamega, Trans-Nzoia, Vihiga
Luo	Homa Bay, Kisumu, Migori, Siaya

4.3 Poverty and Food Insecurity

Wealth inequalities in Kenya are extreme, with 15.2% of all people living below 50% of median income, with a .1 % gender gap between women and men (15.2% and 15.1%, respectively).¹¹⁰ As of 2018, the proportion of men, women, and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions was 53% national average, with 54% of women and 52% of men living in poverty.¹¹¹ In assessing multidimensional poverty, the national average was 38.9%, with higher rural rates of poverty (48.4%) compared to urban rates (20.3%).¹¹² Girls aged 0-17 years and elderly women over the age of 70 experience the highest levels of poverty at national level (41.5% and 39.1%, respectively).

Proportion of female population below the national poverty line %¹¹³

Age	% Below national poverty line
0-17 years	41.5%
18-35 years	29.1%
36-59 years	32.5%
60-69 years	36.2%
70+ years	39.1%

¹⁰⁸ <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.HOU.FEMA.ZS?locations=KE>

¹⁰⁹ Nyabira, B.C. and Ayele, Z.A., 2016. The state of political inclusion of ethnic communities under Kenya's devolved system. Law, Democracy & Development, 20, pp.131-153.

¹¹⁰ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹¹¹ *ibid.*

¹¹² *ibid.*

¹¹³ *ibid.*

Over half of Kenya's population are food insecure, with the 2022 State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World Report (SOFI) categorizing Kenya as a low-income food deficit country¹¹⁴. The Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES), which rates the prevalence of moderate to severe food insecurity in the population, rates 56.5% of the population as experiencing moderate food insecurity and 19.1% of the population with severe food insecurity.¹¹⁵ National census data from 2019 reported that the prevalence of anemia among women of reproductive age (18-49) is 29%.¹¹⁶

4.4 Health

Women have a higher life expectancy compared to men (65 years for women compared to 60 years for men).

Women's life expectancy compared to men.

Women	65 years (2020 most recent year) ¹¹⁷
Men	60 (2020 most recent year) ¹¹⁸

Additional women's health status statistics, including maternal mortality rate, infant mortality rate, malnutrition (stunting and wasting) rate, and obesity rate is listed in the table below.

Women's Health Statistics

Maternal mortality rate	377 per 100,000 live births (2014 most recent year) ¹¹⁹
Infant mortality rate	31 per 1,000 live births (2020 most recent year) ¹²⁰
Malnutrition - stunting rate	Prevalence of stunting among children under the 5 years of age is 26.9% female and 32.8% male. The national average is 29.9%. ¹²¹
Malnutrition-wasting rate	National average is 6.7%, female 6.1% and male 7.2% (2016 most recent year) ¹²²
Obesity rate	National average is 4.9%, 6.5% female and 4.7% male (2016 most recent year) ¹²³
Proportion of births attended by a skilled health personnel	70.2% (2016 most recent year) – an 8.4% increase from 61.8% in 2014. ¹²⁴
Universal health coverage	56% as of 2022. ¹²⁵

¹¹⁴ FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP and WHO. 2022. The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2022. Repurposing food and agricultural policies to make healthy diets more affordable. Rome, FAO. <https://doi.org/10.4060/cc0639en>

¹¹⁵ *ibid.*

¹¹⁶ <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.ANM.ALLW.ZS?end=2019&locations=KE&start=2000&view=chart>

¹¹⁷ <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.LE00.FE.IN?locations=KE>

¹¹⁸ <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.LE00.MA.IN?locations=KE>

¹¹⁹ <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.STA.MMRT.NE?locations=KE>

¹²⁰ <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.IMRT.IN?locations=KE>

¹²¹ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹²² *ibid.*

¹²³ *ibid.*

¹²⁴ *ibid.*

¹²⁵ The African Women's Development and Communication Network. (2022). Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights at a Glance: Fact Sheet for Kenya.

Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population	1.4 total average (1.3 male and 1.5 female) in 2018 – a decrease from an average of 5 (5 male and 5 female) in 2012. ¹²⁶
Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15-49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods	70.7% (2014 most recent year) ¹²⁷
Mean age of women at birth of first child (years)	28.7 years (2022 most recent year) ¹²⁸

A 2021 report by the Commission for Sexual and Reproductive rights¹²⁹ found that 36% of women and girls under 25 years of age had the lowest level of understanding of reproductive rights. The majority of women and girls, irrespective of age, are unaware of the constitutional provisions on sexual reproductive health rights, including abortion. Only 12% of girls aged 12-19 and 38% of women ages 21-30 are knowledgeable about menstruation. Girls aged 15 and below are least knowledgeable on how to prevent unintended pregnancies. Women aged 21–30 are most knowledgeable on how to prevent unintended pregnancies. 80% of these women use contraception, compared with 20% who reported abstaining from sex. Most married women expressed that they experienced a lack of autonomy, choice, or decision-making in negotiating for safe sex or not to have sex. Respondents reported that it is up to women, and not men, to take the necessary precautions to prevent pregnancies and STIs.

4.5 Gender-Based Violence

Twenty-one percent (21%) of girls and women aged 15-49 years have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting. Of these, 11.4% were between 15-19 years of age, 14.7% were between 20-24 years of age, 18% were between 25-29 years of age, 22.9% were between 30-34 years of age, 27.8% were between 35-39 years of age, 32.1% were between 40-44 years of age, and 40.9% were between 45-49 years of age, as per 2014 reporting.¹³⁰ At national level, 4.4% of women aged 20-24 years of age who were married or in a union were married before age 15, while 22.9% were married before age 18, as per 2014 reporting.¹³¹ The proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months is 22.7% national average (2014 reporting year).¹³² GBV is a critical issue in Kenya, across its many forms. For example, 47.1% of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older were subjected to physical, sexual, or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, with 36.9% physical violence, 13.3% sexual violence, 32.4% emotional/psychological violence reported as per 2014.¹³³ According to the 2022 GGI, 39.4% of women will experience GBV in their lifetime.¹³⁴

¹²⁶ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹²⁷ *ibid.*

¹²⁸ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

¹²⁹ <https://reproductiverights.org/new-report-women-and-girls-in-kenya-lack-access-to-comprehensive-information-on-sexual-and-reproductive-health-rights-despite-constitutional-framework/>

¹³⁰ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹³¹ *ibid.*

¹³² *ibid.*

¹³³ *ibid.*

¹³⁴ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

4.6 Literacy and Education

Nationally, Kenya has a 5% gender gap in adult literacy rates, with only 80% of women over 15 years old able to read compared to 85% of men.¹³⁵ Although the gender gap in youth literacy rates and reading comprehension has closed between boys and girls¹³⁶, a 3.1% gender gap remains in mathematics comprehension at the Grade 2/3 level.¹³⁷ Gender gaps also exist in Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET), with only 43.2% (210,795) young women compared to 56.8% (276,906) young men enrolled. Interestingly, these trends are reversed for older adults, with women making up almost 70% (143,585) of those enrolled compared to 31.3% (65,497) of men.¹³⁸

Adult Literacy Rate (% females and males aged 15 years and older)¹³⁹

Women%	80% (2021 most recent year)
Men%	85% (2021 most recent year)

Adult illiteracy Rate (%females and males aged 15 years and older)

Women%	20% (based on 2021 estimate)
Men%	15% (based on 2021 estimate)

Educational Status of Girls and Boys

Youth Literacy Rates (% females and males aged 15-24)

Girls %	89% (2021 most recent year)
Boys %	88% (2021 most recent year) ¹⁴⁰

Quality Education¹⁴¹

Level	National Average	Girls	Boys
Grade 2/3 mathematics	42.1%	43.6%	40.7%
Grade 2/3 reading	53.1%	57.1%	49.4%
Primary reading	44.3%	47.1%	41.6%

Sex disaggregated literacy in target counties¹⁴²

County Name	Women%	Men%	% Difference
<i>Bomet</i>	-	-	-
<i>Bungoma</i>	80	88	-8
<i>Busia</i>	66	85	-19
<i>Homa Bay</i>	74	91	-17
<i>Kakamega</i>	77	87	-10
<i>Kericho</i>	-	-	-
<i>Kisii</i>	79	92	-13
<i>Kisumu</i>	84	94	-10

¹³⁵ UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). UIS Stat Bulk Data Download Service. Accessed November 24, 2022. apiportal.uis.unesco.org/bdd.

¹³⁶ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

¹³⁷ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹³⁸ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹³⁹ UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). UIS.Stat Bulk Data Download Service. Accessed October 24, 2022. apiportal.uis.unesco.org/bdd.

¹⁴⁰ <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.ADT.1524.LT.MA.ZS?locations=KE>

¹⁴¹ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹⁴² Source: PFS document, missing data for Bomet, Kericho, Nandi, and Trans Nzoia.

<i>Nandi</i>	-	-	-
<i>Migori</i>	77	92	-15
<i>Nyamira</i>	83	91	-8
<i>Siaya</i>	69	91	-22
<i>Trans Nzoia</i>	-	-	-
<i>Vihiga</i>	79	90	-11

4.7 Employment and Economic Participation of Women

The proportion of youth (aged 15-24 years) not in education, employment or training was 18.3% national average, with female 21.6% and male 15.1%, as per 2019 most recent year.¹⁴³ The proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex, is 83.4% national average, with 43.5% female and 56.5% male, as per 2019 reporting year.¹⁴⁴ The proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money service provider is 81% national average (2018 reporting year).¹⁴⁵ As per 2016 reporting year, child labor exists in Kenya, with a national average of 13.1% of children aged 5-17 years engaged in child labor.¹⁴⁶ According to the 2022 GGGI index, for unemployed adults (% of labour force aged 15-64), females made up 5.85% and males made up 5.21%, with a national average of 5.53%.¹⁴⁷

Employment Information

Labour force participation rate %	National average for labour force participation rate is 71% for females, 75.6% for males, with a gender gap of -4.6% (2021 most recent year) ¹⁴⁸
Unemployment rate %	National average for unemployment is 7.4%, with 9.6% female and 5.3% male (2016 most recent year) ¹⁴⁹

4.8 Women's Representation and Political Participation

Women received the right to vote in 1963, and as of 2023 there has never been a female head of state, and the seats held in the upper house is currently 30.9%.¹⁵⁰ Women's representation and meaningful participation in the decision-making process trails men at national and county level, despite Kenya's Constitution of 2010 requiring a minimum of one-third representation of either gender in all elected and public posts. While the political participation rate for voting at national level is 47% women, and 52% men,¹⁵¹ the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments are lower. As of 2018, less than one-third of the National Parliament were women (31.8% of National Assembly (MPs) and 31.3% of Senators).¹⁵² For local government at the county assembly level, women's representation

¹⁴³ *ibid.*

¹⁴⁴ *ibid.*

¹⁴⁵ *ibid.*

¹⁴⁶ *ibid.*

¹⁴⁷ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

¹⁴⁸ <https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/thematic-composite-indices/gender-inequality-index#/indicies/GII>

¹⁴⁹ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹⁵⁰ *ibid.*

¹⁵¹ Nasimiyu, M.L. and E. Mariano. (2022). Sociocultural factors influencing women's participation in political leadership in Kakamega County, Kenya. International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science, 5(5) ISSN 2454-6186 <https://www.rsisinternational.org/journals/ijriss/Digital-Library/volume-6-issue-6/650-656.pdf>

¹⁵² <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

rates were significantly lower, with only 6.4% of governors and 14.9% of Deputy Governors.¹⁵³ Only Members of the County Assembly (MCA) representation had slightly over one-third (34.2%) of women MCA representatives.¹⁵⁴

Thus while gender equity quotas are enshrined in Kenyan legislation, patriarchal customs and socio-cultural norms hamper women's ability to meaningfully and equally participate in political culture and top decision-making roles.¹⁵⁵ Women who do enter politics and leadership positions at national level, as well as within local and community-based organizations (including agricultural cooperatives and producer organizations) often face backlash from men, including Gender-Based Violence (GBV) and intimidation, highlighting the continuing challenge in challenging discriminatory attitudes and practices towards women's role outside the home.¹⁵⁶ These dynamics also exist in the private sector, as according to the 2022 GGI Index, 13.2% of firms had female majority ownership, and 18.1% of firms had females as top managers.¹⁵⁷

5. Gender issues in the project implementation sites

This section explores the gender dynamics and differential needs of women, men, youth, and other vulnerable groups in the 14 counties targeted by the CRLCSA project. The gender equality and social inclusion issues presented are focused on agricultural production in the LVEB in the context of a changing climate. The existing norms, societal expectations, and stereotypes that underpin gender roles and relations and influence multi-dimensional vulnerability are discussed in each sub-section related to the constraints that women, youth, PLWD, and other marginalized groups face. The capacities of these groups as sources of resilience to climate change and catalysts for change are also discussed, where possible.

The first sub-section discusses the overall gender dynamics and inequalities in crop and livestock systems, followed by more specific discussion on issues related to women's access and control over resources in the project implementation sites – these include land use and ownership, agricultural finance, access to trainings, technology, and information, and time as a limited resource considering women's domestic, productive, and community roles and caretaking responsibilities. Primary data from the quantitative Climate Risk and Value Chains Consultation Survey collected for the CRLCSA feasibility study is presented in this section to highlight gender equality in access to climate information, gender differentiation in types of climate information needed, and intra-household decision-making in crop, livestock, and poultry production.

The second sub-section details more in-depth discussion on the specific value chains targeted in the CRLCSA project and presents the findings from the qualitative study on gendered participation, performance, and empowerment in the six value chains targeted for the project.

The third sub-section discusses gender and social dynamics in producer organizations and cooperatives. Primary data from the quantitative cooperative survey is presented and discussed in this section. This

¹⁵³ *ibid.*

¹⁵⁴ *ibid.*

¹⁵⁵ Nasimiyu, M.L. and E. Mariano. (2022). Sociocultural factors influencing women's participation in political leadership in Kakamega County, Kenya. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science*, 5(5) ISSN 2454-6186 <https://www.rsisinternational.org/journals/ijriss/Digital-Library/volume-6-issue-6/650-656.pdf>

¹⁵⁶ Mwambi, M., Bijman, J., & Galie, A. (2021, July). The effect of membership in producer organizations on women's empowerment: Evidence from Kenya. In *Women's Studies International Forum* (Vol. 87, p. 102492). Pergamon.

¹⁵⁷ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

includes data on the types of producer organizations and associated value chains women, men, girls, and boys are members of, in each target county.

5.1 Gender and social inequalities in crop and livestock systems in the LREB

5.1.1 Crop production

Crop production in the LREB is generally separated into crops that are produced and consumed at home versus crops that are produced and marketed/sold for profit. While these could potentially be the same species (e.g., vegetables, African leafy vegetables, fruit trees), crops that are sold for profit are generally clustered under high value commodity crops, such as maize, coffee, and tea. These crops require a significant amount of land to cultivate at scale, and given women's lack of land rights in Kenya, they generally do not have ownership or decision-making ability for these crops. However, it is quite common for women to work as laborers across all types of crop production. For some crops, there is a more rigid gender division of labor in production that determines who does what, and when. For example, post-harvesting and marketing activities are usually the purview of men, particularly for higher value commodity crops. Women are generally tasked with the cultivation of 'domestic or food security crops' for household consumption, which are often grown on small plots of land that have been allocated to them by male members of their household. However, because the process of sub-division of land is through patrilineal descent and is a limited resource, arable land is reserved for son's wives; young girls almost never have land allocated to them for crop production for either home-based or market-based plant species.

The gender dimensions of crop production in the LREB have been documented in the context of Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA) practices.¹⁵⁸ A review of key issues found that gendered differences in crop adaptation strategies were closely linked to husbands' and wives' roles and responsibilities, social norms, risk perceptions, and access to resources. Due to a lack of access to climate information, income, land, access to financial resources, access to digital technologies, women are less likely than men to act in response to climate shocks, including adapting CSA practices in crop production. In the context of crop production in a changing climate, the prioritization of gender and agriculture issues should consider the following dimensions of gender inequalities in developing inclusive interventions: (1) participation in decision-making at all levels; (2) work burden; (3) access to and use of productive resources such as agroclimatic information, technology, livelihood incomes, and credit; and (4) collective action to address and mitigate climate impacts.¹⁵⁹

5.1.2 Livestock

In Kenya, livestock is reared under different agricultural systems (i.e., pastoral, and mixed-crop farming). In the LREB, mixed-crop farming is the most common. Investment in livestock value chains, including intensified dairy and poultry production in LREB, is ongoing, with a growing body of research in Kenya showing that empowering women in livestock value chains leads to healthier communities, animals, and

¹⁵⁸ Brisebois, A., Hallstrøm Eriksen, S. E., & Crane, T. A. The politics of governing resilience: Gendered Dimensions of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Kenya. *Frontiers in Climate*, 86. <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fclim.2022.864292/full>

¹⁵⁹ Huyer, S. and Gumucio, T., 2020. Going Back to the Well: Women, Agency, and Climate Adaptation. *World Journal of Agriculture and Soil Science*, 5(3), pp.1-3.

environments.¹⁶⁰ This aligns with global analyses that show investing in gender-equitable livestock production has the potential to build more economically and climate-resilient agricultural systems, increase the availability of nutritionally rich animal-source foods in vulnerable communities, and restore ecosystems globally.¹⁶¹

In the LREB, cows, their related commodities (i.e., bulked milk and value-added products such as yogurt), and the commercialization process in collecting and bulking milk at cooperative societies are all influenced by sociocultural norms that grant ownership and authority to elder men.¹⁶² While women and youth participate in the dairy value chain, it is more common for them to participate in informal nodes outside of structured and formal marketplaces and export markets.¹⁶³ For example, male youth may use motorbikes to transport milk to local markets, and women may sell their milk to neighbors or local intermediaries. While participating in informal markets generally helps women better control the proceeds from their dairy labor, they also face high social culpability and danger from engaging in these types of sales, as there has been a ‘crackdown’ by the Kenyan Dairy Board (KDP) in recent years to outlaw such practices of selling unpasteurized milk in the name of public health and safety.¹⁶⁴

Poultry and small ruminant production tend to be women’s preferred value chains, as these species require less intensive labour and resource inputs, and they face a lower barrier to entry regarding capital and discriminatory socio-cultural norms that discourage women and youth engagement.¹⁶⁵ A recent study found that livestock raising across a range of species (chickens, goats, sheep, rabbits, cows) increased the overall wellbeing and resilience of Kenyan households through increased incomes, food security, social benefits, and time and labor savings. However, these benefits largely promoted long-term household resilience rather than immediate gains. Livestock ownership also had major time and labor costs, such as the general daily care of livestock and provision of water and fodder, which were overwhelmingly borne by women and children. Climate shocks in the LREB, including drought, would further burden women and youth by making them travel further distances for water, and may affect their ability to produce fodder crops, or purchase feed inputs at reasonable costs (assuming crop scarcity would drive the price of feeds, which are already expensive for smallholders to afford). Despite this investment, women had limited livestock ownership rights, decision-making power, control over income, or access to meat.¹⁶⁶

Livestock ownership requires significant investments of household time and labor, which disproportionately burden women. Prevailing gender inequalities may therefore constrain the net benefit of livestock ownership for many women and their households in some contexts. Livestock development programs must assess both program benefits and costs at multiple levels to ensure that women’s participation in livestock production leads to improved individual and household outcomes.¹⁶⁷

¹⁶⁰ Walingo, M.K., 2009. Role of livestock projects in empowering women smallholder farmers for sustainable food security in rural Kenya. *African Journal of Food, Agriculture, Nutrition and Development*, 9(7).

¹⁶¹ FAO. 2013. Understanding and integrating gender issues into livestock projects and programmes: A checklist for practitioners. <https://www.fao.org/3/i3216e/i3216e.pdf>

¹⁶² Tavenner, K., & Crane, T. A. (2018). Gender power in Kenyan dairy: cows, commodities, and commercialization. *Agriculture and Human Values*, 35(3), 701-715.

¹⁶³ Tavenner, K., Crane, T.A. and Saxena, T., 2021. “Breaking Even” under Intensification? Gendered Trade-Offs for Women Milk Marketers in Kenya. *Rural Sociology*, 86(1), pp.110-138.

¹⁶⁴ *ibid.*

¹⁶⁵ Dumas, S. E., Maranga, A., Mbullo, P., Collins, S., Wekesa, P., Onono, M., & Young, S. L. (2018). “Men are in front at eating time, but not when it comes to rearing the chicken”: unpacking the gendered benefits and costs of livestock ownership in Kenya. *Food and Nutrition Bulletin*, 39(1), 3-27. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0379572117737428>

¹⁶⁶ *ibid.*

¹⁶⁷ *ibid.*

5.1.3 Women's work burden and time as a resource

In Kenya, employment and national accounts data do not capture non-market activities (where women predominate) and therefore fail to demonstrate the full contribution of women to the care economy and the extent of the female work burden. Women in Kenya are time-poor because of their dual roles in the care economy and the labour market. On average, women in Kenya work longer hours (12.9 hours) each day than men (8.2 hours), yet they earn less because more of the hours they work are not remunerated. In Kenya girls spend more time on non-remunerated work in the form of household work compared to boys. Women in rural areas of Kenya are burdened with household tasks such as pounding grain, collecting firewood, fetching water, tilling land, planting, weeding, and harvesting, looking after livestock, caring for children, and cooking for the family. Only 30 % of households in Kenya have access to potable water and fetching water alone can account for up to 40 % of a woman's day, taking from 3 to 5.25 hours. Men in Kenya spend 258 minutes per day doing agricultural work compared to 372 minutes for women.¹⁶⁸

Childcare is also an important time burden for women in Kenya. Women's labour time and flexibility are therefore more constrained than men. The disproportionate cost borne by women in terms of child-rearing and family responsibilities also limits the time that they can devote to economic activities, which means they may have less time to develop and grow their businesses. In addition, because women tend to be time-poor (combining family duties with running their businesses) and have limited access to financial resources, they are less likely to register their businesses or insure them and also to access business and trade opportunities. As a result, they are not able to access loans from formal financial institutions or even recover after a fire, theft, or any other setback, which limits the growth of their enterprises and their participation in national and intra-regional markets.¹⁶⁹

5.1.4 Land use and ownership

Land can be used in many ways, including for subsistence farming, cash crop farming, or as collateral for credit to finance other businesses. Access to, control over, and ownership of land is influenced by diverse factors that include gender, age, and marital status. According to the 2022 GGGI index, women have restricted rights for widows and daughters, and uneven rights for access to land assets and access to non-land assets.¹⁷⁰ Land in Kenya is mainly controlled by male household heads on the assumption that the rights are held in trust for all in the household. Women hold only about 1% of registered land titles in Kenya, with around 5 to 6% of registered titles held in joint names, meaning that 99 % of the land is in men's hands.¹⁷¹ Therefore, even though women have access to use the land, most of them do not have freedom to make decisions about its use. These decisions are made by the husband or male relatives, or by the community if the land is communally owned. In most cases, these decisions are made in the absence of women.

Even under the new Constitution, which allows women to inherit land, customary land law still prevails because it is hard to change people's mindsets, and women still must fight for the same land rights as men, especially at the household level. It is even worse for unmarried or divorced women who have returned to their parents' home, since women are expected to be married and inherit land from their

¹⁶⁸ Kiriti-Nganga, T. W. (2015). Gender and trade liberalization in Kenya: The case of women retail traders.

¹⁶⁹ Kiriti-Nganga, T. W. (2015). Gender and trade liberalization in Kenya: The case of women retail traders.

¹⁷⁰ https://widgets.weforum.org/GGGR/edition-22-ranking/pdf/2022/gggr_index_2022_072_KEN.pdf

¹⁷¹ Kenya Land Alliance and FIDA, 2006.

husbands. In such cases, the brothers or male relatives may disinherit them. Although some women try to fight for their rights, they find it difficult because legal procedures are costly and in most instances the disputes lead to family feuds that most women want to avoid. According to customary land law, women in Kenya have usufruct rights to land only when their husbands are alive, but after that, male relatives have the right to take the land from them.¹⁷²

5.1.5 Agricultural finance

According to a 2019 financial access (FinAccess) household survey supported by The Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis (KIPPRA), access to agricultural finance is generally low for both women and men in Kenya.¹⁷³ Across the country only 14.66% of the agricultural population had access to agricultural finance (both formal and informal sources). Of these, 9.61% accesses agricultural finance through formal prudential sources, and 5.3% access finance from “excluded sources”, comprising social networks and individual arrangements, while a whopping 84.81% of the agricultural population does not use any form of agricultural finance. Women mainly source finance for agricultural operations from non-prudential sources and informal sources such as family and friends. This could be explained by lack of control over assets that could be used as collateral in accessing credit from formal sources. In assessing who has access to agricultural finance by gender and age cohorts, the study found that young women (16-34 years of age) had the lowest levels of access, while men 65 years and older had the highest rate of access. Women in rural areas were also more likely to access loans from informal sources compared to women in urban areas. Compared to men, women had lower levels of financial literacy and access to agricultural finance information, with women aged 16-34 years of age having the lowest levels of financial literacy and access to agricultural finance information. Female youth are often denied access to agricultural finance due to low savings, existing debts, lack of collateral, and bad credit history.

5.1.6 Access to agricultural training, climate information, and technologies

Degree of access to agricultural training, climate adaptation information, and technologies are a function of multiple intersecting factors.¹⁷⁴ Evidence from across crop and livestock sectors suggests that there are gender differences in access to agricultural training and extension services, with women and youth less likely to receive visits from extension staff or attend trainings. There are several explanations for this trend: For one, a male bias often appears to exist in extension service provision based on the belief that men are decision makers and female farmers only marginal producers. Larger farms, which tend to be operated by men, are more likely to be targeted by extension agents due to economies of scale and higher efficiency in service provision. Furthermore, time constraints related to the double burden of household tasks and farm work, as well as social norms affecting their mobility, may negatively affect women’s ability to participate in farmer training.¹⁷⁵

Climate change is a significant threat to agriculture-related livelihoods, and its impacts amplify prevailing gender inequalities. Climate information services (CIS) are crucial enablers in adapting to climate change

¹⁷² Kiriti-Nganga, T. W. (2015). Gender and trade liberalization in Kenya: The case of women retail traders.

¹⁷³ KIPPRA. 2021. Women’s Access to Agricultural Finance in Kenya. Policy Brief No.03/2020-2021.

¹⁷⁴ <https://data.unwomen.org/country/kenya>

¹⁷⁵ International Coffee Organization. 2018. Gender Equality in the Coffee Sector: An Insight Report from the International Coffee Organization. 45pp. <https://www.ico.org/documents/cv2017-18/icc-122-11e-gender-equality.pdf>

and managing climate-related risks for smallholder farmers.¹⁷⁶ However, initiatives aimed at improving access to climate information services appear not to recognize women as an information market that requires different outreach strategies. For example, a study in Bungoma County in Western Kenya similarly shows that critical sectoral environmental policies do not effectively address women's climate change adaptation needs, potentially due to the disengagement of governmental services.¹⁷⁷ Moreover, given that there are distinct gendered preferences for how to receive CIS information (see table below), it is crucial that interventions design dissemination pathways informed by gender analysis – preferably at county level.

Gender differences in preferences for CIS dissemination pathways¹⁷⁸

Dissemination pathway	Overall (% yes)	Husbands (% yes)	Wives (% yes)	Difference in % point
Radio	75.00	68.59	81.41	– 12.82**
Extension officers	31.41	42.31	20.51	21.79***
Television	19.73	22.15	17.31	4.84*
Social groups	16.03	12.18	19.87	– 7.69**
Other farmers	6.73	7.05	6.41	0.64
Local leaders	3.21	5.13	1.28	3.85**
Printed media—news paper	2.89	5.13	0.64	4.49*
Field days	1.28	1.92	0.64	1.28
NGOs	0.32	0.64	0.00	0.64
Number of sources of CIS (mean)	1.88	1.91	1.85	0.06
Trust score on sources of CIS (mean)	0.68	0.65	0.70	– 0.05**
N	312	156	156	

*p < 0.1, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01, following a z-test for equality of proportions and t-test for difference in means

5.1.7 Enabling Environment for Gender Mainstreaming in Building the Climate Resilient Value Chain

176 Ngigi, M.W., Muange, E.N. Access to climate information services and climate-smart agriculture in Kenya: a gender-based analysis. *Climatic Change* 174, 21 (2022). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-022-03445-5>

177 Lupao, C. W. 2016. The efficacy of Kenya's critical sectoral environmental policies in meeting women's climate change mitigation and adaptation needs: Bungoma County, Kenya (Doctoral dissertation), University of Nairobi, Nairobi, Kenya.

178 Ngigi, M.W., Muange, E.N. Access to climate information services and climate-smart agriculture in Kenya: a gender-based analysis. *Climatic Change* 174, 21 (2022). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-022-03445-5>

While efforts are being made to create an enabling environment for gender mainstreaming in building climate resilient value chains, many challenges remain. There's a lack of data that specifically examines the gendered impacts of climate change on agriculture. This makes it difficult to understand the unique challenges women farmers face and tailor interventions accordingly.

A significant challenge is the absence of comprehensive gender-disaggregated data in agricultural policies and planning. Without this data, it is difficult to track the specific needs and contributions of women in agriculture, which often leads to their exclusion from program benefits. While gender-disaggregated data is more readily available at national level, counties have not yet fully implemented disaggregation in their decentralized programs and data collection protocols. Beyond the collection of basic gender-disaggregated data on social indicators, full gender mainstreaming in agricultural extension and climate information services would require the monitoring of a larger suite of indicators¹⁷⁹. The Kenya Climate Smart Agriculture Strategy also notes that there continues to be “Misrepresentation and misunderstanding of gender issues” among civil society and other actors in the agriculture space, which could be in part fueled by this lack of data. This is also recognized in the CSA implementation plan (2023-2027) which advocates for the establishment of “gender sensitive CSA knowledge at the community, county and national levels”.¹⁸⁰

Additionally, there is limited representation from women within the agriculture services themselves, hindering county level administrations’ ability to define and provide gender-tailored services. The Climate Smart Agriculture Strategy notes that while there is an objective to establish “Social Protection and Safety net programmes to cushion women, youth and vulnerable groups from the impacts of climate change”, these are prevented by a lack of participation by these same vulnerable groups in the definition of services that are destined for them.

Although many counties in the Lake Region Economic Bloc (LREB) have developed climate change policies and action plans, these policies often focus primarily on environmental and climate resilience without explicitly addressing the gender-specific needs of women. The policies tend to prioritize broader climate resilience goals but lack detailed strategies for incorporating women into decision-making processes or addressing how climate impacts women differently than men. For example, while counties like **Bomet** and **Busia** have comprehensive climate change policies and governance structures, they have yet to integrate specific gender-focused actions that would address women's vulnerabilities in agriculture and resource management¹⁸¹. The documents indicate that county officials and climate change committees have been trained on general climate resilience, but there is little evidence of gender-specific training or sensitization. As further illustration, only 7 of the existing 13 climate change action plans (Kericho, Nyamira, Kakamega, Siaya, Baringo, Kisii, Kisumu) include gender-sensitive actions explicitly tailored for women, particularly focusing on agriculture, energy, and capacity-building. The other counties either mention vulnerable groups broadly or do not provide explicit gender-sensitive strategies for women¹⁸².

Extension services and agricultural training programs in Kenya still often fail to reach women due to social norms, time constraints, or lack of targeted outreach. The International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) highlights that “women farmers are often not reached by extension services, either because they are not targeted or because the timing and content of the services are not suitable for them”. Additionally,

¹⁷⁹ FAO, State of Agriculture : Women and Agriculture, 2011.

¹⁸⁰ Government of Kenya, CSA Implementation Strategy 2023-2027.

¹⁸¹ Based on an analysis of county development policies, 2023.

¹⁸² Based on an analysis of 13 county climate change action plans.

women farmers may face language barriers and gender discrimination from male extension workers, which further discourages their participation¹⁸³. Many counties have an overall shortage of staff, particularly in sectors critical for delivering agricultural extension and climate services. Women often face additional barriers as extension workers, due to low female representation in technical staff. This creates gaps in gender-sensitive service delivery, as male-dominated staff may lack the training and awareness to address women's unique needs¹⁸⁴.

Structural barriers in agriculture and agribusiness severely limit women's ability to achieve equity, equality, and representation. One of the most significant issues is limited access to land and financial resources. Women often lack land ownership rights, which hinders their ability to use land as collateral for loans, preventing them from expanding their agricultural operations or investing in technology. Furthermore, financial institutions tend to view women as higher-risk borrowers due to the smaller size of their enterprises and their limited access to capital, perpetuating the financial exclusion of women in agribusiness.

In addition, gender bias in leadership and decision-making roles within agricultural cooperatives and businesses further entrenches inequality. Women are underrepresented in leadership positions and key decision-making processes, often excluded by societal norms that prioritize men in these roles. This imbalance in representation prevents women from influencing policies and initiatives that affect agricultural value chains, further marginalizing their role in the sector. Cultural expectations often relegate women to informal or subsistence farming activities, limiting their participation in more profitable markets¹⁸⁵.

Lastly, access to markets, finance and agricultural extension services is another structural issue. Women frequently lack the networks and market access necessary to sell their products on a larger, more profitable scale. There is also a definite bias (both cultural and structural) against women within financial institutions, which feeds the perception that women are "less solvable" than men, for all the reasons cited above.

5.1.8 LREB Case 1: Gender Analysis of Climate Risk and Value Chains Consultation Survey

The following gender analysis draws on the Climate Risk and Value Chains Consultation Survey (completed as part of the formulation process of the project), which queried 115 stakeholders (85 males and 28 females) on several gender-specific questions across three domains: gender equality in access to climate information, gender differentiation in types of climate information needed, and gendered intra-household decision-making in crop, livestock, and poultry production. Given the sample size of the survey participants is not large enough to yield inferential statistics, descriptive statistics are reported by gender of the respondent.

Value chain representation among male and female respondents (n=115) are shown in the table below. Most female respondents were from the dairy value chain (12), followed by African leafy vegetables (6), fruit trees (5), poultry (4), and coffee (1). Male respondents were involved in all 6 value chains, with the majority in African leafy vegetables (31), followed by dairy (18), poultry (17), fruit trees (12), coffee (3), and tea (2).

¹⁸³ https://www.afaas-africa.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/05/GENDER-POLICY-BRIEF_BamanyakiP_November-2022.pdf

¹⁸⁴ County Capacity Assessment, 2022.

¹⁸⁵ <https://gender.cgiar.org/news/status-women-agriculture-and-food-systems-persistent-gaps-and-promising-solutions>

		Which food commodity do you mainly work with/have expertise in?							
		African Leafy Vegetables	Coffee	Dairy	Fruit trees	Poultry	Tea	Other Vegetables	Total
Gender	Female	6	1	12	5	4	0	0	28
	Male	31	3	18	12	17	2	3	86
Total		37	4	30	17	21	2	3	114

Equal access to climate information. For the first question, “*Do you think women have equal access to climate information as compared to men during input supply, food production and harvesting?*”, respondents were able to choose yes, no, or unsure. Cross tab analysis by gender revealed that most male (39.5%) and female (42.9%) respondents reported that women do not have equal access to climate information (34/86 males, and 12/28 females). Nearly one-third of male respondents (27/86) and 25% of female respondents (7/28) reported that women do have equal access to climate information. Males and females reported they were unsure whether women had equal access to climate information too, with 16.5% of males (14/86) and 14.3% (4/28) of females reporting uncertainty.

		Do you think women have equal access to climate information as compared to men during input supply, food production and harvesting?				
		Did not answer	No	Unsure	Yes	Total
Gender	Female	5	12	4	7	28
	Male	11	34	14	27	86
Total		16	46	18	34	114

Survey respondents who answered “yes” also had the opportunity to fill-in what they thought were the key different needs in accessing climate information between women and men. These responses are disaggregated by sex and listed in the table below.

Female Responses	Male Responses
Access to mobile phones, affiliation with groups.	Further trainings on how to interpret the information received
Interest and attitude.	Higher workload for women reduces time available to access climate information,
	Men dominate,
	Men have a wider social network compared to women,
Most women in my area have interest in farming than men.	Most of them [women] are not farmers,
Smart phone and register with service providers.	Most women are the producers, yet information is majorly given via smartphones which they lack.
	Most women rely on men to make decisions.
	Social media and community speakers.

	The type of crops to be planted, for example men are interested in crops that earn them money, while women will just be engaged in enterprises that thrive in their region.
	The women will know when to start preparing seeds, have stocks wood fuel, store water for future use.
	Timing and mode of dissemination.

Gender differences in types of climate information needed. For the second question, “Do you think women need different types of climate information as compared to men?”, respondents were able to choose yes, no, or unsure. Cross tab analysis by gender revealed that most male and female participants answered “no.” These results indicate that over 60% of women respondents (17/28) and almost 55% of male respondents (47/86) did not think women need different types of climate information as compared to men. Interestingly, only 4 women (14.3%) responded that women need different information, while almost 30% of men (24/86) responded that women need different information.

		Do you think women need different types of climate information as compared to men?				
		No response	No	Unsure	Yes	Total
Gender	Female	5	17	2	4	28
	Male	11	47	4	24	86
Total		16	64	6	28	114

Respondents who answered “yes” also had the opportunity to fill-in what they thought were the key different needs and capacities in assessing and using climate information between men and women.

Female Responses	Male Responses
Best to use SMS, WhatsApp group because of the excess workload on woman. And indicate the benefits of doing this both to the family and economic benefits.	Accurate and efficient weather and climate information.
Diseases are likely to occur and it's the women who stay with children and as well plan what vegetables to grow in case of any climate uncertainties (pests and diseases).	Changes in crop production.
Educated men and women have equal abilities in accessing the information. Growing of annual crops requires more immediate climate forecasting, while perennial crops are more forgiving, but soil moisture data would help.	Community speakers.
The mobility is constraint so the access to radio and phone will assist in delivering the information to women.	Education, expand more sources of information.
Women are always busy doing their productive work.	How to manage farm activities.
	Information Boards in market centers near the grain flour millers and fliers at the dispensary.
	Most women in rural areas are not as endowed as men in terms of technology access and use, with most being illiterate and often overworked with domestic

	chores. Therefore, they need climate information that's simplified, gender focused and availed in a format easily accessible to them.
	Need information affecting household livelihood.
	Organize women seminars on climate risks, deliberate target dissemination of information to women.
	The information should relate more directly to activities undertaken by women and emphasis placed on how helpful the information is to them and their activities.
	Their greatest focus usually is harvest.
	Women are at home (indoors) most of the time and radio, telephone SMS alerts are good for them. Men may need displays on billboards, etc.

Gendered intra-household decision-making in crop, dairy, and poultry production. For the third question, respondents were asked, *"In your experience, **who in the households** targeted by your organization **makes decisions** on agricultural changes using climate information?"* This question was asked for crop, livestock, and poultry production activities.

Results for the application of climate information for decision-making in crop production indicate that over 50% of both men and women participants responded, "together as a family." This is perhaps unsurprising given that the question did not further disaggregate the specific plant species cultivated (e.g., crops for home consumption versus crops for sale/commercial production). These findings could also be explained by socio-cultural norms that view intrahousehold decision-making as cooperative rather than conflictual, and/or that the question itself did not consider differences in respondents' perceptions between the process of 'consultation' between spouses in households compared to who in the household has the power to make the final decision regarding crop production.

		In your experience, who in the households targeted by your organization makes decisions on agricultural changes using climate information? [Application of climate information for decision-making in crop production]				
		No response	Men only	Together as a Family	Women only	Total
Gender	Female	5	7	16	0	28
	Male	15	18	50	3	86
Total		20	25	66	3	114

Results for the application of climate information for decision-making in dairy production were similar to those for crop production, in that the majority of respondents answered dairy production decisions are made together as a family. For both of these categories (crops and dairy), it is interesting that no women responded that decisions on agricultural changes using climate information are made by 'women only.' This could indicate that women view themselves as having less autonomy/agency in the decision-making process, or potentially have different understandings regarding the 'consultation' process between spouses, as explained in brief above. These initial results indicate that future quantitative studies must further disaggregate the types of crops, as well as follow up with more qualitative questioning related to

how producers make decisions together as a family – does this mean one family member has access to climate information and ‘informs’ the other members (e.g., tells them what to do based on their knowledge?) Or is the decision-making process more iterative, or take into consideration the decisions of other men and women farmers in their communities?

		In your experience, who in the households targeted by your organization makes decisions on agricultural changes using climate information? [Application of climate information for decision-making in dairy production]				
		No response	Men only	Together as a Family	Women only	Total
Gender	Female	6	10	12	0	28
	Male	20	20	43	3	86
Total		26	30	55	3	114

Results for the application of climate information for decision-making in poultry production show that most of both male and female respondents answered decisions were made “together as a family.” This was followed by women only, and by men only. These results echo the findings for both dairy and crop production decisions, although both women and men reported higher levels of ‘women only’ than for the other two types of production. For future lines of questioning related to gender and decision making on agricultural changes using climate information, it would be helpful to assess the level of commercialization in the household (e.g., size of production, income over the last 12 months) to see if there is a ‘ceiling for success’ related to women’s involvement in poultry production, and whether they can maintain decision-making power only if their production and sales are ‘supplementary’ to other sources of male-derived income in the home. Additionally, future studies could also clarify what types of decisions, over which nodes of the value chain are made, disaggregated by sex- and age.

		In your experience, who in the households targeted by your organization makes decisions on agricultural changes using climate information? [Application of climate information for decision-making in poultry production]				
		No response	Men only	Together as a Family	Women only	Total
Gender	Female	7	2	13	6	28
	Male	21	7	45	13	86
Total		28	9	58	19	114

5.2 Gendered participation, performance, and empowerment in the six CRLCSA priority value chains

This section’s analysis integrates data and studies from the desk review, as well as data collected as part of a qualitative study during the CRLCSA project proposal development in 2022. The selected value chains

(coffee, tea, fruit trees, indigenous leafy vegetables, poultry, and dairy) have distinct gender dynamics, with women and men having different roles and responsibilities across the value chain. Across these value chains, there are differences in the level of gender market integration across three domains: acceptability of women's participation in the value chain, their position in the value chain, and in their access to resources to support benefit from engaging in agricultural value chains.¹⁸⁶ These differences have important implications for CRLCSA's practices for gender and social inclusion.

Studies in East Africa, including Kenya have found that gender issues permeate every node of the value chain, and that existing gender and social inequalities have real consequences regarding who are the 'winners' and 'losers' in value chains, including instances where women are 'weak winners'¹⁸⁷ or are settled with win-lose dynamics via their participation in value chains.¹⁸⁸ These gendered trade-offs work to encourage or discourage women from engaging in certain aspects of value chains, including informal versus formal marketing venues, whether to pursue increasing marketization and commercialization of products, or whether to pursue entrepreneurship and small businesses.¹⁸⁹

Most pertinent to the study sites are gender issues in the commercialization of agricultural and livestock products. A recent study in East Africa found that as smallholder farmers increasingly marketed and commercialized their production (and as profits increased) women were more likely to lose out on proceeds and decision-making they had previously had access to.¹⁹⁰

Despite specificities across sectors, similar gender barriers limit the benefits women receive from agricultural and livestock production. These constraints, which occur at multiple levels, include: the invisibility and undervaluation of rural women's labor and their disproportionately heavy labor burdens, limited and precarious control over resources, discriminatory social and gender norms that hinder women's voice and influence in decision-making and governance, and exclusionary institutions such as resource-user groups and extension and data systems. Thus, to achieve transformative change in food systems, changes in each sector are required in women's agency, access to and control over resources, gender norms, and policies and governance.¹⁹¹ Such changes can improve dietary outcomes, gender equality and women's empowerment, economic and livelihood outcomes, resilience and environmental

¹⁸⁶ Rubin, D., Boonabaana, B., & Manfre, C. (2019). Building an inclusive agriculture: Strengthening gender equality in agricultural value chains. Annual Trends and Outlook Report: Gender Equality in Rural Africa: From Commitments to Outcomes, 83-96. <https://rtbfoods.cirad.fr/content/download/4186/31890/version/1/file/Building+an+inclusive+agriculture+-+Strengthening+gender+equality+in+agricultural+value+chains.pdf>

¹⁸⁷ Bain, C., Ransom, E., & Halimatusa'diyah, I. (2018). 'Weak winners' of Women's empowerment: The gendered effects of dairy livestock assets on time poverty in Uganda. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 61, 100-109.

¹⁸⁸ Ihalainen, M., Shaikh, S., Mujawamariya, G., Mayanja, S., Adetonah, S., Tavenner, K., & Elias, M. (2021). Promise and contradiction: value chain participation and women's empowerment. Advancing gender equality through agricultural and environmental research: past, present and future, 147-188.

¹⁸⁹ Tavenner, K., Crane, T. A., & Saxena, T. (2021). "Breaking Even" under Intensification? Gendered Trade-Offs for Women Milk Marketers in Kenya. *Rural Sociology*, 86(1), 110-138.

¹⁹⁰ Tavenner, K., Van Wijk, M., Fraval, S., Hammond, J., Baltenweck, I., Teufel, N., ... & Manda, L. (2019). Intensifying inequality? Gendered trends in commercializing and diversifying smallholder farming systems in East Africa. *Frontiers in Sustainable Food Systems*, 3, 10.

¹⁹¹ Njuki, J., Eissler, S., Malapit, H., Meinzen-Dick, R., Bryan, E., & Quisumbing, A. (2022). A review of evidence on gender equality, women's empowerment, and food systems. *Global Food Security*, 33, 100622. https://bonndoc.ulb.uni-bonn.de/xmlui/bitstream/handle/20.500.11811/9132/fss_briefs_review_evidence_gender_equality.pdf?sequence=3&isAllowed=y

outcomes. Closing gender gaps across sectors requires multipronged strategies that simultaneously engage these four change pathways to lift structural barriers to inequality.¹⁹²

5.2.1 Coffee

Coffee is responsible for an estimated 15% of employment in the agricultural sector, having declined from 21% in the mid-1990s. The national production landscape comprises of both smallholder and large-scale estates at 60% and 40%, respectively. Current estimates suggest that there are more than 700,000 smallholder farmers. These smallholder farmers have an average farm size of only 0.25 ha and per hectare yield at well below 400kgs of clean coffee. At the beginning of the chain are producers, comprising both estates and smallholders. Smallholders are usually organized into cooperatives. The co-operatives are functionally mobilization units for primary processing and marketing.¹⁹³ Gender equity within coffee cooperatives suggests that there are significant gaps between women's participation and concrete benefit from coffee production.¹⁹⁴ While women perform more than two-thirds of the work in coffee farming in Kenya, accounting for up to 70% of labor in production, starting from the farm level, cooperatives, and processing level – yet they represent less than 5% of leadership roles in coffee cooperatives in the country.¹⁹⁵

Acceptability of women's participation in the coffee value chain. While coffee is traditionally considered to be a 'man's cash crop', recent efforts have been put towards mainstreaming gender and youth in smallholder sustainable coffee in Kenya. However, women and youth participation has largely concentrated on their labor contribution to coffee production, as over 95% of coffee farms are owned by men. Thus, the groups who produce Kenya's coffee have little or no access to the income from the commodity. These dynamics have worked to create apathy among women and youth in respect to active and voluntary engagement in coffee production.¹⁹⁶

Gender Roles in Kenya's Coffee Sector¹⁹⁷

Gender Roles	Participation in the roles (% ratio)			
	Men	Women	Boys	Girls
Cultivating	5.4	74	9.3	11.3
Picking	7.1	54.4	18.5	20
Sorting at home	3.6	60	7	29.4
Sorting at the factory	9.3	45	14.3	31.4
Taking to the factor for processing	4.1	44	22.2	26.7

¹⁹² Elias, Marlène; Zaremba, Haley; Tavenner, Katie; Ragasa, Catherine; Paez Valencia, Ana Maria; Choudhary, Afrina; Haan, Nicoline C. de. 2022. Beyond crops: Towards gender equality in forestry, fisheries, aquaculture, and livestock development. Presented at the CGIAR GENDER Science Exchange, Nairobi, 12-14 October 2022. Rome: Alliance of Bioversity International and CIAT. <https://hdl.handle.net/10568/125598>

¹⁹³ Morris, A., Douglas, B., & Charles, A. (2015). Mainstreaming gender and youth in smallholder sustainable coffee supply chain in Kenya. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, 6(18), 76-86.

¹⁹⁴ Dijkdrenth, E. (2015). Chapter 7: Gender equity within Utz certified coffee cooperatives in Eastern Province, Kenya. In *Coffee certification in East Africa: impact on farms, families and cooperatives* (pp. 489-502). Wageningen Academic Publishers.

¹⁹⁵ Onyalo, P. O. (2019). Women and agriculture in rural Kenya: role in agricultural production. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 4(4), 1-10.

¹⁹⁶ *ibid*.

¹⁹⁷ Liaison Consulting. 2011. Cited in Morris, A., Douglas, B., & Charles, A. (2015). Mainstreaming gender and youth in smallholder sustainable coffee supply chain in Kenya. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, 6(18), 76-86.

Taking to the market	32.7	54.3	5	8
Collecting money from bean sales	87.4	12.6	0	0
Owning coffee farms	95.2	4.8	0	0

However, there has been progress in Western Kenya towards closing these gender gaps. For example, in Nandi County, in the 'Coffee by Women' program, women are offered training in leadership, confidence building and self-development. Women, men, and youth are trained together, as the program aims to "include as many farmers as possible on the journey towards the coffee of the future."¹⁹⁸ These types of practices can be potentially gender transformative, if the content of the trainings actively challenges social norms that reinforce gender-and age-based discriminatory practices. A transformative change in gender relations requires changes in women's attitudes and capacities in the relationship between men and women, but also progress at the institutional and structural levels.¹⁹⁹

Gendered positions in the coffee value chain. In Kisii County, age and gender norms shape gendered positions in cooperative societies. For example, the average age for coffee cooperative society members was 57 years old, and that norms around elder men's dominance hampered young women from ascending to leadership positions in the coffee cooperative.²⁰⁰ Fairtrade certification has impacted women and men farmers in Kenyan cooperatives differently due to gender roles and highly separated divisions of labor.²⁰¹ A recent study suggests that while Fairtrade positively impacted the incomes of women, there was only marginal alteration of current inequitable gender roles, nor did Fairtrade challenge women's subordination to a significant degree – thus Fairtrade interventions only partially empower women and address gender inequalities.²⁰² Women, including female-headed households, young women, and women with disabilities are disadvantaged in terms of coffee production, as these subgroups often lack the land, capital, resources, networks, and technical skills necessary to farm, and that the institutional context for coffee production is highly masculinized, with elder men predominating in terms of land rights and derivative income from the sale of coffee.

Gendered Access to resources in the coffee value chain. Institutional arrangements within coffee cooperatives in Kenya have also mediated the role of gendered market orientation. A recent case study from Kericho county found that women do not have the same market opportunities, have limited access to resources, and have less say over coffee production's planning and supply segment. Women continually face significant barriers to their equal participation, such as limited access to land, capital, and technical information.²⁰³ These barriers are caused by intersecting challenges of socio-cultural practices, land tenure system that privileges men, and discriminatory bylaws that hinder women and youth participation in cooperative membership.

Findings from CRLCSA fieldwork: "Coffee production is dominated by adult males. In Nandi County there is a growing involvement of the youth and women courtesy of an on-going program, called "Women in

198 Lauri, J., & Bäckström, H. (2019). Coffee by women: the 'duty of ethical enjoyment'. *Cultural Studies*, 33(5), 866-887.

199 Bilfield, A., Seal, D., & Rose, D. (2020). Brewing a more balanced cup: supply chain perspectives on gender transformative change within the coffee value chain. *International Journal on Food System Dynamics*, 11(1), 26-38.

200 Ngeywo, J., Basweti, E., & Shitandi, A. (2015). Influence of gender, age, marital status and farm size on coffee production: a case of Kisii County, Kenya. *Asian Journal of Agricultural Extension, Economics & Sociology*, 5(3), 117-125.

201 Rölander, F. (2016). We are Women in Coffee!: An explanatory case study of Fairtrade's gendered impact on female and male farmers of a Fairtrade certified Kenyan coffee cooperative.

202 *ibid.*

203 <https://weeffect.org/stories/empowering-women-in-the-coffee-value-chain/#:~:text=For%20a%20long%20time%2C%20coffee,level%2Ccooperatives%20and%20processing%20level.>

Coffee". Value chain activities include production, picking coffee cherries and delivering to pulping stations/factories. Primary processing is carried out by farmers' coop societies. Inputs are purchased from agro-dealers, sometimes the cooperatives buy in bulk and supply to farmers/ democratic farmer societies. Marketing contracts are made with actors registered with the Coffee Board of Kenya. Climate effects such as prolonged drought have affected productivity over time. Technologies to address this include irrigation and agro-forestry."

5.2.2 Tea

In Kenya, smallholder farmers grow tea in contract with the Kenya Tea Development Authority (KTDA). KTDA is an independent and private tea enterprise owned by smallholder tea farmers and offers management and professional services to individual factories and companies. The Tea Board of Kenya (TBK) also works together with the farmers by offering management, professional services, leadership on production and quality. However, even though women play a dominant role in tea production, there is no mention of gender issues in either the KTDA or TBK strategic plans.²⁰⁴ Despite the significant role women play in smallholder tea production, there are extreme gender inequalities in access to and control over the benefits accrued from tea. A recent study showed that women within male-headed households were discriminated against in access to and control over income derived from tea, however women-headed households had access to and control over tea-derived income.²⁰⁵ The Kenya Tea Development Authority (KTDA) listed culture, widowhood, level of education, were identified as barriers to gender equality. The study established that women from male-headed households had more roles in tea production than their husbands. The women were assigned the roles that were tedious and took many hours like tea plucking and transportation, while the men undertook seasonal roles like tea planting and pruning.

Gender roles in tea production²⁰⁶

Activity	Men	Women
Land preparation	X	X
Tea planting	X	X
Weeding		X
Pruning	X	
Picking		X
Tea transportation		X

Factors such as KTDA Policy of registering men as tea owners, community norms, lack of title deeds by women, gender-biased culture, and illiteracy made it difficult for women to materially benefit from tea production. WHH were able to access and control tea benefits because they had acquired the tea owners' rights after the demise of their husbands and/or inheritance from their fathers.²⁰⁷

Gendered Positions in the tea value chain. A recent survey in Nyamira county of 110 Tea SACCO members across five tea factories ranked barriers to women's participation as: lack of shares in the tea factory; lack

204 Njeri Kibere, E., Kimani, E. N., & Lodiaga, J. M. (2018). Gender Dynamics in the Access and Control of Benefits Accrued from Tea Farming in Kisanji Division, Gatundu District. Applied Science Reports, Forthcoming.

205 *ibid.*

206 *ibid.*

207 *ibid.*

of land ownership rights; fear to run against men in elections; low levels of education; gender roles; and lack of experience in politics.²⁰⁸ Women, including female-headed households, young women, and women with disabilities are disadvantaged in terms of tea production, as these subgroups often lack the land, capital, resources, networks, and technical skills necessary to farm, and that the institutional context for coffee production is highly masculinized, with elder men predominating in terms of land rights and derivative income from the sale of coffee.

Gendered Access to resources in the tea value chain. Land registration and contestations over land ownership between women and men have been documented for tea production in Kenya.²⁰⁹ Gender dynamics influence access and control of benefits accrued from tea farming.²¹⁰ A recent study found that intra-household gender inequalities can bring discontent to women farmers, which leads them to neglect the proper care of the tea crop. For example, manure or fertilizer which is intended for the tea cash crop is diverted by women without the knowledge of men to food crops which they feel they have control over. This affects the quality and quantity of the tea grown.²¹¹

Findings from CRLCSA fieldwork: “Tea is grown in mainly large estates and smallholder farms. Value chain actors include smallholder farmers (majorly older males) farming an average of 2 acres. Farmers source inputs from large factories on credit advanced via financial providers such as SACCOs. Climate smart technologies in practice include retention ditches to harvest water especially on sloppy land – to prevent runoff and increase infiltration. Terraces are also in place to curb erosion.”

5.2.3 Fruit Trees

Acceptability of women’s participation in the fruit tree value chain. Fruit tree, African leafy vegetables, and poultry are value chains that are traditionally viewed as appropriate for women – women customarily have had greater autonomy and decision-making power in these activities and are more able to retain income derived from marketing these products. However, this acceptability is under the assumption that the profits from these activities will remain small, and not compromise the position of the male head of household as the primary ‘breadwinner’. Thus, the social acceptability of women’s participation in these value chains is largely perceived based on the scale of production and marketization. For example, in the banana-value chain, women’s ability to participate in income sharing involved complex intra-household dynamics and relationships around decision-making.²¹² There are specific high-value fruit species that are framed as being more appropriate for men, such as exotic avocados which have a major export market in Kenya.²¹³ However, new initiatives such as the African Continental Free Trade Area (AfCFTA) could

208 Onyancha, R. M., & Wambu, C. K. (2021). Socio-Economic Factors Affecting Young Women Participation in Tea SACCOs Politics in Nyamira South Sub-County, Nyamira County, Kenya. *African Journal of Co-operative Development and Technology*, 6(2), 36-48

209 Davison, J. (2019). Who Owns What? Land Registration and Tensions in Gender Relations of Production in Kenya. In *Agriculture, Women, and Land* (pp. 157-176). Routledge.

210 Njeri Kibere, E., Kimani, E. N., & Lodiaga, J. M. (2018). Gender Dynamics in the Access and Control of Benefits Accrued from Tea Farming in Kiganjo Division, Gatundu District. *Applied Science Reports*, Forthcoming.

211 Mwangi, M. J. (2015). Role of Gender Equality in the Enhancement of Tea Quality and Quantity in Kenya: A Survey of Farmers Served by Gathuthi Tea Factory of Nyeri County. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 5(7), 373-380.

212 Nyabaro, V., Mburu, J., & Hutchinson, M. (2019). Factors enabling the participation of women in income sharing among banana (*Musa spp.*) producing households in South Imenti, Meru County, Kenya. *Gender, technology and development*, 23(3), 277-292

213 Muriithi, B., & Kabubo-Mariara, J. (2022). The Dynamics and Role of Gender in High-Value Avocado Farming in Kenya. *The European Journal of Development Research*, 34(5), 2272-2304.

provide gender-and youth-responsive solutions to export market barriers through targeted investments.²¹⁴

Gendered Position in the fruit tree value chain. The results of a recent study in Kenya's avocado value chain suggest that in the more commercialized and well-developed export chains, upgrading strategies vary for the different typologies of women (women-headed households versus women in male-headed households). While women in women-headed households may require limited efforts such as tailoring financial products to their needs or providing interlinked services coupled with prompt payment for their produce to allow them to produce quality fruits and access lucrative markets, women in male headed households need institutionalization of gender-sensitive policies in the governance of producer groups to enable them to upgrade as chain integrators and chain owners. In the less commercialized domestic avocado value chain, limited efforts may be required to upgrade women along the chain, but the need to change from the less marketable local variety to exotic variety is likely to alter women's position, thereby calling for the need to institutionalize gender-sensitive policies in the governance of existing organized groups and use the groups as a platform to introduce the new variety.²¹⁵

Gendered Access to resources in the fruit tree value chain. While fruit trees grown as subsistence crops have traditionally been female dominated and controlled, the commercialization of fruit trees has led to a dynamic shift in production with more men taking up active roles in the value chain (for example, bananas, avocados). This has led to the displacement of women from the high value chain with men taking up dominant roles. A study on these displacement dynamics in the banana value chain showed that the participation of women in income sharing was partially determined by the presence of off-farm income, so that women in male-headed households had a higher probability in taking part in household decision-making.²¹⁶

5.2.4 African Leafy Vegetables

Acceptability of women's participation in the African leafy vegetables value chain. Traditional food crop marketing, including African Leafy vegetables, tends to follow distinct gender roles, with women having greater social acceptability in cultivating and retaining the sales from these plants than other value chains.²¹⁷ However, recent evidence suggests that although African leafy vegetables have traditionally been considered a woman's crop, women vendors in emerging markets are not necessarily empowered to earn equal income as men.

Gendered Positions in value chain. Compared to crops that have historically been commercialized, there is less documentation on gendered positions and dynamics in the African leafy vegetables value chain. However, findings from the CRLCSA fieldwork suggest that the value chain is dominated by women over the age of 35. It is unclear how gendered production of African leafy vegetables changes with different

²¹⁴ Africa Renewal. (2023). AfCFTA: Reaping the benefits of the world's most youth and women-friendly trade agreement <https://www.un.org/africarenewal/magazine/february-2023/afcfta-reaping-benefits-world%E2%80%99s-most-youth-and-women-friendly-trade-agreement#:~:text=The%20AfCFTA%20will%20address%20the,undermining%20the%20continent's%20overall%20development>

²¹⁵ Oduol, J. B. A., Mithöfer, D., Place, F., Nang'ole, E., Olwande, J., Kirimi, L., & Mathenge, M. (2017). Women's participation in high value agricultural commodity chains in Kenya: Strategies for closing the gender gap. *Journal of rural studies*, 50, 228-239.

²¹⁶ Nyabaro, V., Mburu, J., & Hutchinson, M. (2019). Factors enabling the participation of women in income sharing among banana (*Musa spp.*) producing households in South Imenti, Meru County, Kenya. *Gender, technology and development*, 23(3), 277-292

²¹⁷ Handschuch, C., & Wollni, M. (2016). Traditional food crop marketing in sub-Saharan Africa: does gender matter?. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 52(3), 343-359.

scales of production (i.e., whether women are still primarily responsible for cultivation, harvesting, and post-harvesting activities, or whether some or all of these activities would be outsourced to hired labor).

Gendered Access to resources in the African leafy vegetables value chain. The resources required to engage in African Indigenous Vegetable (AIV) seed systems have been documented in Western Kenya.²¹⁸ Seed access was a constraint, even though most seeds used by farmers are self-produced. Income from selling AIV seed differed significantly depending on gender, with *men earning more than twice as much as women*. This study²¹⁹ demonstrates that the constraints farmers face in accessing high-quality AIV seed can vary significantly between species and over short distances. This study speaks to the importance of using localized information to develop programs for improving informal seed systems and continuing to employ gender-sensitive and transformative activities.

Findings from CRLCSA fieldwork: *“In Nyakach, vegetables such as cowpeas, spider plant, osuga (black nightshade). Cow peas are dominant followed by Osuga. Vegetables occupy at least one acre of the average 1-acre family farm. The value chain is dominated by adults above 35 years with majority being women. Production is hampered by unpredictable seasons that are dependent on rainfed production. This makes markets erratic and affects demand. Lack of cold storage facilities forces farmers to sell immediately after production (when prices are low) to avoid food loss. Climate smart technologies in place include sun drying, use of organic manure, use of certified seed and on-farm practices such as spacing.”*

5.2.5 Poultry

Acceptability of women’s participation in the poultry value chain. Women’s participation in poultry production in the tropics is significant.²²⁰ In Western Kenya, virtually every household keeps small flocks of between 5-30 chickens.²²¹ Poultry production, of both indigenous chickens and commercial varieties is crucial to the wellbeing of rural households, as production (and egg production) are important sources of inexpensive animal-based protein and cash income for resource-poor households. These species are highly adaptable and are less capital and labor-intensive than other livestock species, such as large ruminants. Customarily a feminized livestock value chain, women’s participation in poultry is highly accepted and expected of rural women. While women are increasingly taking on enterprise ownership in indigenous poultry production,²²² there are emerging challenges regarding their participation as entrepreneurs.²²³ Indeed, in line with gender dynamics in crop value chains, as poultry production becomes more commercially successful, there is a growing risk that women will lose out on previously controlled incomes and decision-making power.²²⁴

²¹⁸ Pincus, L., Croft, M., Roothaert, R., & Dubois, T. (2018). African indigenous vegetable seed systems in western Kenya. *Economic Botany*, 72(4), 380-395.

²¹⁹ *ibid*.

²²⁰ Alemayehu, T., Bruno, J. E., Getachew, F., & Dessie, T. (2018). Socio-economic, marketing and gender aspects of village chicken production in the tropics: A review of literature. *ILRI Project Report*.

²²¹ Okitoi, L. O., Ondwasy, H. O., Obali, M. P., & Murekefu, F. (2006). Gender issues in poultry production in rural households of Western Kenya. *KARI-Kakamega, Ministry of Livestock and fisheries, Kakamega*.

²²² Karanja-Lumumba, T. Gender Dynamics in Indigenous Poultry Enterprise Ownership and Newcastle Disease Control in South Eastern Kenya. *Animal Production Society of Kenya*.

²²³ Biwott, K. D., Musalia, O. J., Martha, P. C., & Awori, H. N. (2015) Role of poultry production in promoting peri-urban small-scale farm welfare and the gender effects of a shift from traditional extensive to intensive commercial system.

<https://www.internationalscholarsjournals.com/articles/role-of-poultry-production-in-promoting-periurban-smallscale-farm-welfare-and-the-gender-effects-of-a-shift-from-traditi.pdf>

²²⁴ Ngeno, V., Langat, B. K., Wendi, R., & Kipsat, M. J. (2011). Gender aspect in adoption of commercial poultry production among peri-urban farmers in Kericho Municipality, Kenya. *Journal of Development and Agricultural Economics*, 3(7), 286-301.

Gendered Positions in the poultry value chain. Women are generally responsible for the feeding and care of birds, and do not face socio-cultural or economic barriers regarding poultry ownership.²²⁵ Women's preferences thus shape the demand for poultry feed in Kenya²²⁶ and traditional gendered knowledge and attitudes shape poultry feeding practices.²²⁷

Gendered Access to resources in the poultry value chain. While women have easy access to poultry animals, they face challenges in access to production information, access to markets, extension services, and agro-vet services, including vaccines.²²⁸

Findings from CRLCSA fieldwork: *"The poultry value chain is attractive because of several factors such as its ability to involve many households and as a source of protein, hence a ready market. The improved kienyeji is the main breed that is being focused by many producers due to the shorter time it takes to mature and the ready market. Producers face the challenge of getting chicks, as well as high costs for feeds. To increase competitiveness producers such as the Victoria Kuku Cooperative are focusing on interventions such as value addition to fried chicken, boiled eggs. Training in disease control is also necessary, as well as improvement in production practices. Climate smart technologies include manure management through poultry units, water harvesting, use of incubators for hatching and making home rations."*

5.2.6 Dairy

Acceptability of women's participation in the dairy value chain. Recent reviews indicate that gender roles and dynamics greatly influence dairy production practices in Kenya. Women tend to be responsible for most management tasks around dairy animal husbandry, including fodder and water provisioning, veterinary health, knowing when a cow is in heat and requires mating or artificial insemination (AI), manure removal, and milking the cow. Yet, despite their contributions to dairy labour, women are often marginalized in the control of the resource (e.g., cow ownership), access and inclusion in veterinary services and training, decision-making associated with the animals (buying/selling), and do not receive commensurate income from the sale of milk.²²⁹ It makes sense, then, that because the burden of dairy work falls predominantly on the woman/women of the household, any mitigation intervention must consider the impacts that a new technology may have on women. Furthermore, consideration must be given to the gender roles and relationships that exist at household and community level to achieve mitigation project outcomes. This means actively engaging both women and men in the intervention

²²⁵ Ngeywo, J., Biwott, T., & Lagat, R. (2021). Gendered Participation in Chicken Feeding in North Rift Region, Kenya. *South Asian Research Journal of Biology and Applied Biosciences*, 3(1).

²²⁶ Macharia, J. N., Diiro, G. M., Busienei, J. R., Munei, K., Affognon, H. D., Ekesi, S., ... & Fiaboe, K. K. (2020). Gendered analysis of the demand for poultry feed in Kenya. *Agrekon*, 59(4), 426-439.

²²⁷ Waithanji, E., Affognon, D. H., King'ori, S., Diiro, G., Nakimbugwe, D., & Fiaboe, K. K. (2020). Insects as feed: Gendered knowledge attitudes and practices among poultry and Pond Fish farmers in Kenya. *NJAS-Wageningen Journal of Life Sciences*, 92, 100312.

²²⁸ Biwott, K. D., Musalia, O. J., Martha, P. C., & Awori, H. N. (2015) Role of poultry production in promoting peri-urban small-scale farm welfare and the gender effects of a shift from traditional extensive to intensive commercial system.

<https://www.internationaljournalofbiology.com/articles/role-of-poultry-production-in-promoting-periurban-smallscale-farm-welfare-and-the-gender-effects-of-a-shift-from-traditi.pdf>

²²⁹ Tavenner, K. and Crane, T.A. 2016. Best practice guide to socially and gender-inclusive development in the Kenyan intensive dairy sector. ILRI project report. Nairobi, Kenya: ILRI.

process.²³⁰ The dairy value chain in Kenya has been a large source of potential investment in recent years, with win-win dynamics promoted for environmental sustainability, climate adaptation and mitigation and improved livelihoods for smallholder farmers, with benefits from climate-smart agricultural practices, low-emissions dairy development to mitigate climate change, and increasing incomes from the commercialization of dairy practices. Gender dynamics have also been documented in dairy production in Kenya.²³¹

Gendered positions in the dairy value chain. Women are also customarily responsible for decisions regarding whether milk is to be consumed at home or sold locally.²³² Women have become increasingly involved in the cultivation of improved forages and feeds for cows as required for low emissions dairy development.²³³ A recent study found that young women and men often have different aspirations for engaging in dairy production and intensification, but that their opportunities for leadership are curtailed by age-related discrimination.²³⁴ Women tend to benefit more directly from their involvement in informal dairy sales, which has implications for low emissions dairy development.²³⁵

Gendered access to resources in dairy value chain. Women have been able to gain access to agricultural inputs, include improved feeds, vaccines, and other supplies through producer organizations.²³⁶ However, evidence that direct payments incentivize women's participation and empowerment in dairy development interventions is more complex.²³⁷ Furthermore, household surveys that have sought to gather information regarding women's access to resources, ownership over dairy cows, and decision-making related to cattle have highlighted the contested nature of intra-household relations, and whether there can be agreement within a household regarding 'who does what'.²³⁸

Findings from CRLCSA fieldwork: *"Many farmers are practicing dairy and there is huge potential to increase productivity. Production is challenged by poor breeds kept by farmers and low knowledge of breeding (e.g., heat detection, lack of fodder preservation). One of the successful dairy cooperatives in Nandi is Lelchego that was started by East African Dairy Development (EADD) in 2009. The cooperative uses the hub model to mobilize members, bulk milk and provide services such as AI, drugs etc to members for a fee. The cooperative promotes a range of climate smart technologies in dairy production and husbandry. These include zero grazing, fodder production, conversion of manure to biogas and silage making. Other interventions have been the change of breed to Ayrshire from the Friesian which is a heavy feeder."*

230 Tavenner, K. and Crane, T.A. 2016. Best practice guide to socially and gender-inclusive development in the Kenyan intensive dairy sector. ILRI project report. Nairobi, Kenya: ILRI.

231 Gallina, A. (2016). Gender dynamics in dairy production in Kenya: A literature review. *CCAFS Working Paper*.

232 Galiè, A., Farnworth, C. R., Njiru, N., & Alonso, S. (2021). Intra-household handling and consumption dynamics of Milk in Peri-Urban Informal Markets in Tanzania and Kenya: a gender lens. *Sustainability*, 13(6), 3449.

233 Njuguna-Mungai, E., Omondi, I., Galiè, A., Jumba, H., Derseh, M., Paul, B. K., ... & Duncan, A. (2022). Gender dynamics around introduction of improved forages in Kenya and Ethiopia. *Agronomy Journal*, 114(1), 277-295.

234 Bullock, R., & Crane, T. (2021). Young Women's and Men's Opportunity Spaces in Dairy Intensification in Kenya. *Rural Sociology*, 86(4), 777-808.

235 Tavenner, K., Saxena, T., & Crane, T. A. (2018). Gendered participation in informal milk markets in Kenya: Implications for low emissions dairy development.

236 Mwambi, M., Bijman, J., & Galie, A. (2021, July). The effect of membership in producer organizations on women's empowerment: Evidence from Kenya. In *Women's Studies International Forum* (Vol. 87, p. 102492). Pergamon.

237 Tavenner, K., & Crane, T. A. (2018). Do direct payments to women incentivize participation in low emissions dairy development interventions? Evidence from Kenya. ILRI Policy Brief, 26, 1-4.

238 Tavenner, K., Fraval, S., Omondi, I., & Crane, T. A. (2018). Gendered reporting of household dynamics in the Kenyan dairy sector: trends and implications for low emissions dairy development. *Gender, Technology and Development*, 22(1), 1-19.

5.2.7 LREB Case 2: Qualitative Gender Assessment: Gendered Participation, Performance, and Empowerment in Agricultural Value Chains in Target Sites

Qualitative data collected from leaders of cooperatives in different value chains in the targeted counties yielded important information that triangulates with the research findings from existing studies. Leaders representing two dairy cooperatives, 1 coffee cooperative, 1 African leafy vegetable cooperative, and 1 poultry cooperative were interviewed. A summary of their responses is provided below.

What are the barriers to entry and/or requirements for men's and women's active engagement at any node of the value chain?

Socio-cultural norms play an important role in determining the nature of involvement of men and women in the value chains. In general, men control the productive assets and income while women participate more in the production/management, while the youth dominate transport. In the coffee value chain, the youth were found to be largely involved in activities such as weeding, harvesting and transport to factory. For dairy, women and youth were found to participate more in taking care of the animals, milking, and transport while men largely make decisions on how the income is used.

Non-ownership of productive assets especially land by women and youth limit their participation in production and subsequently engagement at different nodes of the VC. In most cultures within LREB, productive assets such as land and cattle belong to men. Tea and coffee are capital crops practiced on land owned by men. The land itself is rarely subdivided hence the youth are unlikely to have a say on how it is used. Livestock except for chicken are also owned by men although women and youth spend significant amount of time taking care of all livestock.

Limited capital to start a business and buy inputs required at the various points of the value chain. For example, animal feed and supplements remain unaffordable to many households thereby affecting production. Poor prices paid on the farmers produce has not helped matters either.

Long-distances to the cooperatives or collection points especially for the dairy value chain is a problem that places unnecessary burden on women. This was reported in both Nandi and Trans Nzoia as a major challenge, more so in the afternoon and evening.

In terms of opportunities to serve in the management of cooperatives, it was felt that both men and women have opportunities to participate, but women are not able to fully seize the opportunities due to competing demands on their time, with the majority expected to prioritize taking care of household chores as opposed to serving in the cooperatives.

What are the disparities in men's and women's ability to maintain or improve their position in the value chain?

Most of the cooperatives visited provide several benefits to members. Included are collection and value addition; agrovet services (feed supplements, drugs, fertilizers, seeds etc.); transport; loans; access to markets; extension services including capacity building on climate smart technologies.

Due to the low income and limited access to inputs, women end up not using the recommended inputs such as fertilizers, certified seeds, feed rations, etc. This limits their ability to improve their position in the value chain as production and income generally stagnate.

What are the differences in men's and women's ability to access and control income, assets, or other facets of well-being derived from value chain participation?

While women manage the assets including land, livestock etc., men generally own and control the assets and income realized from the same. Examples given include payments from dairy, tea and coffee cooperatives which are channeled to men, yet it is the women and youth who take care of crops and livestock.

Social beliefs and practices tend to favour women as far as poultry and African leafy vegetables are concerned. The two value chains are not held in high esteem by men hence allowing women more room to make decisions on how income from such sources is used.

What steps/changes are needed so that women can control the benefits of their participation in agricultural value chains to make and carry out strategic decisions about their own lives?

Sensitization and mobilization to enable women and youth to participate more in the value chain remains critical. Awareness creation and sensitization are important in highlighting the benefits associated with being a member of a cooperative and issues that need to be addressed to overcome some of the cultural barriers to participation including leadership within the coops. In the case of Lelchego Dairy in Nandi County, sensitization and mobilization efforts saw the number of women increase from less than 10% in 2009 to more than 52% of the current membership that stands at over 8000 members. Four women currently sit on the board which consists of 11 members.

In a bid to enhance access and control of the proceeds by women in agricultural value chains, some cooperatives like Meebot are taking pro-active steps like making payments in the evenings when both men and women are at home to ensure they are aware and can participate in making decisions on how the money is used. Provision of transport especially for collecting milk from far off and difficult terrains using motor bikes is helping women, as it significantly reduces the time they would otherwise spend delivering. The male youth also benefit particularly on this part of the VC through gainful employment. The dairy cooperatives give youths loans to buy motorbikes for use in collection and delivery of milk. Capacity building is also needed to equip members with the necessary skills and best practices to enhance their production and efficiency. This may entail training on available climate smart technologies that may be adopted within their respective value chains. Flexibility in payments: Women prefer weekly payments to enable them deal with household/subsistence needs. Their participation in decision making has seen Lelchego Dairy Cooperative adopt weekly payments to members to meet this need.

Participation

Sample quotes used to inform analysis	Value Chain Interview Details
<i>"Yes, the growing and selling of vegetables is largely women's affair, while men prepare the land. Keeping chickens is also considered a women's domain, but men are largely in the marketing – buying and selling at profit."</i>	<i>African Leafy Vegetables</i> Margaret Opiyo, Lower Nyakach Women Traders Sacco, Kisumu. 16 Dec 2022.

<i>"Fewer women participate in dairy because of culture. The Nandi [culture], just like the larger Kalenjin community treats women as children. Cattle owned by men, but women spending a lot of time tending to the animals."</i>	<i>Dairy</i> Ruth Kosgey, Lelchego Dairy Co-op, Nandi. 14 Dec 2022.
<i>"There's been a lot of sensitizations on women's participation and leadership. Currently 4 of the 11 board members are women. In 2009, women were less than 10% of members, not there are 8,000 women members (52%)."</i>	<i>Dairy</i> Ruth Kosgey, Lelchego Dairy Co-op, Nandi. 14 Dec 2022.
<i>"We have a youth and gender committee that helps mobilization and sensitization; women are interested in introducing weekly payments as they have commitments in women's groups/savings; training on best dairy practices; Male youth are active in transport – given motorbikes and can get fuel from select providers using the check-off system."</i>	<i>Dairy</i> Ruth Kosgey, Lelchego Dairy Co-op, Nandi. 14 Dec 2022.
<i>"Women take care of the animals [cows] but do not get to keep the income in most cases."</i>	<i>Dairy</i> Christine Tiisa, Meebot Dairy Cooperative, Trans Nzoia. 13 Dec 2022.
<i>"Women have difficulty is getting fertilizers – men don't give them money to buy fertilizers, so their outputs [yields] remain low. So, women have no capital to start coffee business."</i>	<i>Coffee</i> Truphena Muhembi Kisikwa, Siboti Coffee Factory, Trans Nzoia. 13 Dec 2022.
<i>"At the co-op management level, women don't really have opportunities to be leaders. Because they [management] look at those who can lead, and women tend to be less visible as they are busy with other chores."</i>	<i>Coffee</i> Truphena Muhembi Kisikwa, Siboti Coffee Factory, Trans Nzoia. 13 Dec 2022.

Performance

Sample quotes used to inform analysis	Value Chain Interview Details
<i>"Women don't own land or cows, so it's largely cultural barriers" [that stop women from maintaining or improving their position in the value chain]</i>	<i>Dairy</i> Ruth Kosgey, Lelchego Dairy Co-op, Nandi. 14 Dec 2022.
<i>"Women can access feeds, supplements, and drugs for cattle using the check off system at the hub. The hub also provides extension services and loans/income advances, and artificial insemination (AI) services."</i>	<i>Dairy</i> Ruth Kosgey, Lelchego Dairy Co-op, Nandi. 14 Dec 2022.
<i>"Men take the pay on behalf of the households. Some go and drink the money without sharing/paying them back."</i>	<i>Coffee</i> Truphena Muhembi Kisikwa, Siboti Coffee Factory, Trans Nzoia. 13 Dec 2022.

Empowerment

Sample quotes used to inform analysis	Value Chain Interview Details
What types of services could the co-op offer that would contribute to women's empowerment? <i>"Capacity building on improved farming methods to improve production, value addition (i.e., drying of vegetables), and loans to buy water harvesting/storage facilities to irrigate farms during the dry season."</i>	<i>African leafy vegetables</i> -Margaret Opiyo, Lower Nyakach Women Traders Sacco, Kisumu. 16 Dec 2022.

<i>“Capacity building on new approaches and technologies in dairy farming for women to play their role without fear”</i> <i>“Access to extension services including on fodder growing and animal nutrition”</i> <i>“Exchange visits to see other co-ops with women leaders (chairwomen)”</i>	Dairy Ruth Kosgey, Lelchego Dairy Co-op, Nandi. 14 Dec 2022.
<i>“Lelchego Dairy has plans to celebrate women members during International Women’s Day in March 2023. We want to celebrate women who have come out to supply milk and serve in the cooperative; how small savings have been useful to families. Need support to also celebrate women living with disability who work very hard to supply the milk so that they feel they are a part of the cooperative.”</i>	Dairy Ruth Kosgey, Lelchego Dairy Co-op, Nandi. 14 Dec 2022.
<i>“Support to care for coffee trees, fertilizers, capital for starting business, training for women’s groups.”</i>	– Truphena Muhembi Kisikwa, Siboti Coffee Factory, Trans Nzoia. 13 Dec 2022.

5.3 Gender dynamics of cooperative membership, leadership, and capacity in the LREB by county and value chain

5.3.1 Cooperatives and producer organizations

Shifts in global agriculture have led more women into formal roles in agricultural and livestock industry as small-holder producers and cooperative members. Inclusion of women in these institutions, however, does not guarantee a change in historical power relations, or the benefits that might flow from this. A transformative change in gender relations not only requires changes in women and men’s attitudes and capacities and in the relationships between men and women, but also progress at the household, community, institutional and structural levels.²³⁹ For example, a recent study of the coffee value chain in Guatemala found that empowering women as productive cooperative members requires not only technical assistance and support, but also creation of an inclusive social and political environment that supports expanded choices for women and men.²⁴⁰

Access to information and collateral challenges are some of the other barriers women face in agricultural financing, but increasingly women are coming together in groups to try to bridge this gender gap. Women groups are common and accessible in the farming communities. Many women are organized into existing women groups, which are stable and outlive most projects and initiatives, but are largely unsupported. Directly involving women in production initiatives has the potential to increase such production.

For example, in Bomet and Nandi counties in Western Kenya, there is a strong male dominance in dairy cooperatives because cows culturally ‘belong’ to men. Even though many women are highly involved in dairy production, experts suggested that women’s representation at cooperatives is still low. Women are often less confident in their leadership abilities than men and may be hesitant to be elected as leaders of co-ops. At producer organization level, experts stated that men are often not willing to nominate women

²³⁹ For a recent compendium of promising approaches and tools in GTA, see: FAO, IFAD, and WFP. 2020. Gender transformative approaches for food security, improved nutrition, and sustainable agriculture – A compendium of fifteen good practices. Rome. <https://doi.org/10.4060/cb1331en>

²⁴⁰ Bilfield, A., Seal, D., & Rose, D. (2020). Brewing a more balanced cup: supply chain perspectives on gender transformative change within the coffee value chain. *International Journal on Food System Dynamics*, 11(1), 26-38.

for leadership positions. This leads to co-ops having training that excludes women. ²⁴¹

5.3.2 LREB Case 3: Quantitative Analysis of Cooperatives

This analysis looks at intra-gender comparisons between men, women, male youth, and female youth members among the cooperatives surveyed. 'Youth' members were defined as those between the ages of 18-34.

Analysis 1: Gendered membership rates

In assessing gendered membership rates by county (Tables 1-2), the cooperative survey found that Kisii, Bungoma, and Nyamira have the highest numbers of female members, Kisumu, Busia, and Transzoia have the lowest numbers of female members. For female youth members, Nandi, Kericho, and Bungoma were the highest and for total youth membership, Kericho, Bungoma, and Kisii have the most members. For youth membership, Kericho, Bungoma, and Kisii have the highest numbers of youth, while Homabay, Busia, and Transzoia have the lowest numbers (for both total youth and female youth).

Table 1. Gendered membership rates by county

	Frequency and % of cooperatives surveyed (n=321)	Male Members* (sum)	Female Members (sum)	Youth Members** (sum)	Female Youth Members (sum)	Total Members (sum)	Active Members (sum)
Bomet	37 (11.5%)	19,782	17,013	6,351	2,478	36,795	20,697
Bungoma	47 (14.6%)	54,822	27,532	13,982	3,808	82,354	55,970
Busia	6 (1.9%)	2,670	1,804	506	223	4,474	1,883
Homabay	17 (5.3%)	4,606	2,044	808	448	6,650	2,790
Kakamega	19 (5.9%)	3,663	2,689	1,367	450	6,352	2,471
Kericho	39 (12.1%)	104,753	20,540	14,484	4,803	125,293	67,284
Kisii	24 (7.5%)	112,432	28,946	13,341	3,554	141,378	60,255
Kisumu	8 (2.5%)	1,557	1,898	1,112	620	3,455	1,299
Migori	24 (7.5%)	13,430	7,788	3,065	1,513	21,218	7,720
Nandi	34 (10.6%)	22,603	16,762	6,311	5,016	39,365	17,818
Nyamira	18 (5.6%)	38,546	24,680	8,663	3,059	63,226	39,190
Siaya	12 (3.7%)	3,631	3,376	1,261	516	7,007	1,819
Transzoia	18 (5.6%)	2,729	1,385	447	200	4,114	2,739
Vihiga	18 (5.6%)	5,040	4,466	1,193	762	9,506	4,645
TOTAL	321 (100%)	390,264	160,923	72,891	27,450	551,187	286,580

*Male members calculated by subtracting female members from the total members column

**Unclear if "youth" is the combined total of male and female youth or just total male youth

Table 2. County rankings for highest female, youth, and female youth membership

Rankings Female Membership * County		Rankings Youth Membership * County		Rankings Female Youth Membership * County	
Rank	County No. Female Members	Rank	County No. Youth Members	Rank	County No. Female Youth Members

241 Tavenner, K. and Crane, T.A. 2016. Best practice guide to socially and gender-inclusive development in the Kenyan intensive dairy sector. ILRI project report. Nairobi, Kenya: ILRI.

1	Kisii - 28,946	1	Kericho - 14,484	1	Nandi - 5,016
2	Bungoma - 27,532	2	Bungoma - 13,982	2	Kericho - 4,803
3	Nyamira - 24,680	3	Kisii - 13,341	3	Bungoma - 3,808
4	Kericho - 20,540	4	Nyamira - 8,663	4	Kisii - 3,554
5	Bomet - 17,013	5	Bomet - 6,351	5	Nyamira - 3,059
6	Nandi - 16,762	6	Nandi - 6,311	6	Bomet - 2,478
7	Migori - 7,788	7	Migori - 3,065	7	Migori - 1,513
8	Vihiga - 4,466	8	Kakamega - 1,367	8	Vihiga - 762
9	Siaya - 3,376	9	Siaya - 1,261	9	Kisumu - 620
10	Kakamega - 2,689	10	Vihiga 1,193	10	Siaya - 516
11	Homabay - 2,044	11	Kisumu - 1,112	11	Kakamega - 450
12	Kisumu - 1,898	12	Homabay - 808	12	Homabay - 448
13	Busia - 1,804	13	Busia - 506	13	Busia - 223
14	Transzoia - 1,385	14	Transzoia - 447	14	Transzoia - 200

In assessing gendered membership rates by value chain (Tables 3-4), the cooperative survey found that coffee, dairy, and tea had that highest numbers of female and total youth membership. For female youth members, the top value chains were dairy, coffee, and poultry. For female, total youth, and female youth members, fruit trees and indigenous vegetables were in the bottom three value chains. While female and youth members' lowest membership rates were in poultry, female youth members had tea in their bottom three.

Of the six value chains analyzed, men are the overwhelming majority of members in tea (91.2%) and coffee (73.6%), and a slight majority in dairy (53.6%) and fruit trees (56.3%). Female membership is the majority in both poultry (54%) and indigenous vegetables (59.6%). Female youth membership was the lowest across all six value chains, with less than 1% of tea members being female youth.

Table 3: Gendered Membership Rates by Value Chain

Value Chains	Frequency and % of Cooperatives (n=321)	Male Members	Female Members	Youth	Female Youth	Total Members	Active Members
Coffee	141 (43.9%)	229,284 (73.6%)	82,052 (26.4%)	40,179 (12.9%)	11,891(3.8%)	311,336 (100%)	175,385
Dairy	117 (36.4%)	69,114 (53.6%)	59,815 (46.4%)	25,446 (19.7%)	12,213(9.5%)	128,929 (100%)	53,275
Fruit trees	23 (7.2%)	5,496 (56.3%)	4,274 (43.7%)	1,775 (18.2%)	901 (9.2%)	9,770 (100%)	5,851
Poultry	18 (5.6%)	2,707 (46%)	3,175 (54%)	1,336 (22.7%)	838 (14.2%)	5,882 (100%)	3,061
Tea	13 (4%)	81,105 (91.2%)	7,846 (8.8%)	2,567 (2.9%)	631 (0.7%)	88,951 (100%)	46,107
Indigenous Vegetables	9 (2.8%)	2,558 (40.5%)	3,761 (59.5%)	1,588 (25.1%)	976 (15.4%)	6,319 (100%)	2,901

Table 4: Rankings for female, youth, and female youth membership by value chain

Rankings Female Membership * Value Chain		Rankings Youth Membership * Value Chain		Rankings Female Youth Membership * Value Chain	
Rank	Value Chain No. Female Members	Rank	Value Chain No. Youth Members	Rank	Value Chain No. Female Youth Members
1	Coffee – 82, 052	1	Coffee – 40,179	1	Dairy – 12,213
2	Dairy – 59,815	2	Dairy – 25,446	2	Coffee – 11,891
3	Tea – 7,846	3	Tea – 2,567	3	Poultry – 976
4	Fruit tree – 4,274	4	Fruit tree – 1,775	4	Tea – 901
5	Indigenous veg – 3,761	5	Indigenous veg – 1,588	5	Fruit trees – 838
6	Poultry – 3,175	6	Poultry – 1,336	6	Indigenous veg – 631

Analysis 2: Gender Governance Rates

In assessing gender governance rates by county (Table 5), female board members were highest in Bomet (n=123), Bungoma (n=96), and Nandi (n=88), and lowest in Busia (n=25), Nyamira (n=37), and Kisumu (n=35). Total youth board membership was highest in Nandi (n=56), Bomet (n=46), and Kakamega (n=39), and lowest in Nyamira (n=16), Siaya (n=17), and Transzoia (n=17). Female youth board members were highest in Kakamega (n=32), Bomet (n=17), and Migori (n=17), and lowest in Transzoia (n=3), Busia (n=4), and Nyamira (n=5).

Table 5. Female, Youth, and Female Youth Board Members by County

	Frequency and % of cooperatives surveyed (n=321)	Female Board Members	Youth Board Members	Female Youth Board Members
Bomet	37 (11.5%)	123	46	17
Bungoma	47 (14.6%)	96	31	7
Busia	6 (1.9%)	25	11	4
Homabay	17 (5.3%)	67	35	12
Kakamega	19 (5.9%)	57	39	32
Kericho	39 (12.1%)	63	35	12
Kisii	24 (7.5%)	57	18	6
Kisumu	8 (2.5%)	35	22	9
Migori	24 (7.5%)	81	38	17
Nandi	34 (10.6%)	88	56	15
Nyamira	18 (5.6%)	37	16	5
Siaya	12 (3.7%)	45	17	6
Transzoia	18 (5.6%)	64	17	3
Vihiga	18 (5.6%)	73	25	10
TOTAL	321 (100%)	911	406	155

** There was no 'total board members' or 'male board members' data collected, so these comparisons were not possible.

In assessing gender governance rates by value chain (Table 6), highest female board membership was in dairy (n=374), coffee (n=283), and fruit trees (n=102). Highest youth board membership was in dairy (n=148), coffee (n=131), and poultry (n=53). Highest female board membership was in dairy (n=69), coffee (n=34), and poultry (n=28). Tea board membership was lowest across all social categories – female (n=33), youth (n=14), and female youth (n=4).

Table 6. Female, Youth, and Female Youth Board Members by Value Chain

Value Chains	Frequency and % of Cooperatives (n=321)	Female Board Members	Youth Board Members	Female Youth Board Members
1Coffee	141 (43.9%)	283	131	34
2Dairy	117 (36.4%)	374	148	69
3 Fruit trees	23 (7.2%)	102	35	12
4Indigenous Vegetables	9 (2.8%)	33	25	8
5Poultry	18 (5.6%)	86	53	28
6 Tea	13 (4%)	33	14	4
Total	321 (100%)	911	406	155

Analysis 3: Gender Staff Rates**Table 7: Female, Youth, and Female Youth Staff by County**

	Frequency and % of cooperatives surveyed (n=321)	Female Staff	Youth Staff	Female Youth Staff	Total Staff
Bomet	37 (11.5%)	30	51	26	89
Bungoma	47 (14.6%)	52	82	24	225
Busia	6 (1.9%)	9	28	7	16
Homabay	17 (5.3%)	25	22	13	42
Kakamega	19 (5.9%)	27	33	14	78
Kericho	39 (12.1%)	214	312	133	560
Kisii	24 (7.5%)	44	57	17	292
Kisumu	8 (2.5%)	2	2	1	3
Migori	24 (7.5%)	16	23	11	60
Nandi	34 (10.6%)	56	81	26	136
Nyamira	18 (5.6%)	35	45	19	156
Siaya	12 (3.7%)	15	10	9	23
Transzoia	18 (5.6%)	8	26	8	39
Vihiga	18 (5.6%)	14	15	11	23
TOTAL	321 (100%)	547	787	319	1742

Table 8: Female, Youth, and Female Youth Staff by Value Chain

Value Chains	Frequency and % of Cooperatives (n=321)	Female Staff	Youth Staff	Female Youth Staff	Total Staff
1Coffee	141 (43.9%)	179	306	94	892
2Dairy	117 (36.4%)	170	279	112	427
3 Fruit trees	23 (7.2%)	12	9	5	16
4 Indigenous Vegetables	9 (2.8%)	9	16	11	17
5Poultry	18 (5.6%)	3	2	1	7
6 Tea	13 (4%)	174	175	96	383
Total	321 (100%)	547	787	319	1742

Analysis 4: Gender Capacity Rates using presence of a gender representative as proxy

In assessing the gender capacity rates (using the presence of a gender representative as proxy) of cooperative at county level (Table 9), most counties (n=10) had a gender representative present, while most cooperatives in Vihiga, Siaya, Kakamega, and Kisii did not have a gender representative present.

Table 9: Gender representative present by County

County	Frequency and % of cooperatives surveyed (n=321)	Gender Rep Present	Not Present
Bomet	37 (11.5%)	18 (49%)	19 (51%)
Bungoma	47 (14.6%)	27 (57%)	20 (43%)
Busia	6 (1.9%)	4 (67%)	2 (33%)
Homabay	17 (5.3%)	15 (88%)	2(12%)
Kakamega	19 (5.9%)	7 (37%)	12 (63%)
Kericho	39 (12.1%)	24 (62%)	15 (38%)
Kisii	24 (7.5%)	9 (38%)	15 (62%)
Kisumu	8 (2.5%)	7 (88%)	1 (12%)
Migori	24 (7.5%)	16 (67%)	8 (33%)
Nandi	34 (10.6%)	26 (76%)	8 (23%)
Nyamira	18 (5.6%)	14 (78%)	4 (22%)
Siaya	12 (3.7%)	4 (33%)	8 (66%)
Transzoia	18 (5.6%)	13 (72%)	5 (28%)
Vihiga	18 (5.6%)	6 (33%)	12 (66%)
TOTAL	321 (100%)	190 (59%)	129 (41%)

Across value chains (Table 10), the majority (n=6) had a gender representative present.

Table 10: Gender representative present by Value Chain

Value Chain	Frequency and % of Cooperatives (n=321)	Gender Rep Present	Not Present
Coffee	141 (43.9%)	80 (57%)	61 (43%)
Dairy	117 (36.4%)	71 (61%)	46 (39%)
Fruit trees	23 (7.2%)	14 (61%)	9 (39%)
Indigenous Vegetables	9 (2.8%)	6 (67%)	3 (33%)
Poultry	18 (5.6%)	9 (50%)	9 (50%)
Tea	13 (4%)	10 (77%)	3 (33%)
Total	321 (100%)	190 (59%)	129 (41%)

Summary analysis of cooperative survey findings. Gender data from the Cooperative census reveals the existing inequalities between women's and men's participation as cooperative members. Across the 14 target counties in LREB surveyed, men constituted 70.8% of members and women only 29.2%. This gender gap is also present among youth, with 13.2% of cooperative members being young men compared to only 5% of members being young women. In evaluating gendered membership rates by value chain, only poultry and indigenous vegetables had higher levels of female membership than male membership. In formal, high-value commodity chains, men made up 73.6% of coffee members, and 91.2% of tea members. Dairy value chains had a closer gender parity with 46.4% women members. Among the less commercialized value chains of (fruit trees, poultry, and indigenous vegetables), there were greater levels of female and male youth participation. However, gender gaps still existed between youth as young women were the least represented in membership across all six value chains.

Table 11: Summary analysis of the main challenges and gender-based constraints by value chain.

Value chain	Summary of Gender-based constraints
All value chains	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Women, especially female-headed households (FHH), women living with disabilities, widowers, and young women, have limited access to land and technologies, inhibiting their capacity to adopt climate resilient value chain practices. - Women, especially FHH, women living with disabilities, widowers, and young women, have limited access to climate, agricultural, and market information, advisory and networks – including information disseminated via traditional agricultural extension agents and new digital technologies. - Women have disproportionate labour responsibilities, and are often clustered in the most time-intensive and menial tasks across the value chain from production, post-harvest, and value-addition activities - Women and youth have lower capital/incomes, locking them out of expensive farming technologies (e.g., irrigation), and limited financial resources to access climate resilient technologies - Gender norms and socio-cultural practices limit women, including married women, in income generating activities that would contest/compete with the income of men/husbands.
Commercial value chains/traditionally male-centric	
Dairy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dairy is a masculinized commodity, and women are discouraged from entering the most productive nodes of the value chain. - Dairy labour is predominately borne by women, even in intensified productions. - Women have limited access to fodder crops and grazing land and lack of access to veterinary services, including vaccines, supplements, and feeds. - Limited infrastructure for feed storage and transportation, and transport for milk cooling, packaging, and storage - Informal nodes of the value chain unrecognized/illegal and dangerous for women to sell milk at night. - Institutional constraints via the Kenyan Dairy Board
Tea	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sexual harassment and gender-based violence on tea plantations (especially amongst male managers and female workers) - The women were assigned the roles that were tedious and took many hours like tea plucking and transportation, while the men undertook seasonal roles like tea planting and pruning. - Despite the significant role women play in smallholder tea production, there are extreme gender inequalities in access to and control over the benefits accrued from tea – this is especially the case for women within male-headed households. FHH were able to access and control tea benefits because they had acquired the tea owners' rights after the demise of their husbands and/or inheritance from their fathers. - Institutional constraints via the Kenya Tea Development Authority (KTDA) (e.g., Factors such as KTDA Policy of registering men as tea owners, community norms, lack of title deeds by women, gender-biased culture, and illiteracy made it difficult for women to materially benefit from tea production).
Coffee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Land ownership as being both a prerequisite for membership, and a critical barrier for women due to structural laws reinforced by socio-cultural norms.

	<p>Even in situations where women are widowed, structural and legal barriers may constrict their ability to assume ownership of their family land.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Women, including female-headed households, young women, and women with disabilities are disadvantaged in terms of coffee production, as these subgroups often lack the land, capital, resources, networks, and technical skills necessary to farm, and that the institutional context for coffee production is highly masculinized, with elder men predominating in terms of land rights and derivative income from the sale of coffee. - Gender equity within coffee cooperatives suggests that there are significant gaps between women's participation and concrete benefit from coffee production. While women perform more than two-thirds of the work in coffee farming in Kenya, accounting for up to 70% of labor in production, starting from the farm level, cooperatives, and processing level – yet they represent less than 5% of leadership roles in coffee cooperatives in the country. - Over 95% of coffee farms are owned by men. Thus, the groups who produce Kenya's coffee have little or no access to the income from the commodity. These dynamics have worked to create apathy among women and youth in respect to active and voluntary engagement in coffee production. - Women do not have the same market opportunities, have limited access to resources, and have less say over coffee production's planning and supply segment. - Women continually face significant barriers to their equal participation, such as limited access to land, capital, and technical information. These barriers are caused by intersecting challenges of socio-cultural practices, land tenure system that privileges men, and discriminatory bylaws that hinder women and youth participation in cooperative membership. - Institutional constraints via the Coffee Board of Kenya
Less commercialized/Food security value chains/traditionally female-centric	
African Leafy Vegetables	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Traditional food crop marketing, including African Leafy vegetables, tends to follow distinct gender roles, with women having greater social acceptability in cultivating and retaining the sales from these plants than other value chains. - However, recent evidence suggests that although African leafy vegetables have traditionally been considered a woman's crop, women vendors in emerging markets are not necessarily empowered to earn equal income as men. - It is unclear how gendered production of African leafy vegetables changes with different scales of production (i.e., whether women are still primarily responsible for cultivation, harvesting, and post-harvesting activities, or whether some or all these activities would be outsourced to hired labor). However, one study found that income from selling AIV seed differed significantly depending on gender, with men earning more than twice as much as women - Fragmented and untracked value chain, lacking a proper product classification and evaluation; informal markets due to several challenges to enter formal markets because of the poor value-addition capacities of vegetable products, the lack of research and forecasts on demand and supply trends; - Women lack information on marketing, CSA practices and technologies, access to extension officers/services, and invisibility of investments and credits.
Poultry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poultry is a feminized commodity, with lower input costs relative to cattle and other livestock production, the barriers to initial entry are lower. - However, the process of commercialization and increasing marketization is masculinized, making it difficult for married women and young women (living at home) to maintain income received from poultry.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Limited access to adequate feed and water resources, high costs of production and prices of inputs (e.g., drugs, vaccines) - Limited support by farmers' cooperatives for marketing and bargaining, and low farmers' participation in cooperatives and limited access to credit services. - While women have easy access to poultry animals, they face challenges in access to production information, access to markets, extension services, and agro-vet services, including vaccines
Fruit trees	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - While fruit trees grown as subsistence crops have traditionally been female dominated and controlled, the commercialization of fruit trees has led to a dynamic shift in production with more men taking up active roles in the value chain (for example, bananas, avocados). - The participation of women in income sharing in the banana value chain was partially determined by the presence of off-farm income, so that women in male-headed households had a higher probability in taking part in household decision-making. - Low access among women, youth, and poor farmers to financial resources and credit to invest in climate-proofed technologies (e.g., greenhouses and irrigation, post-harvest facilities, cold chain technologies). - Upgrading strategies vary for the different typologies of women (female-headed households versus women in male-headed households). While women in female-headed households may require limited efforts such as tailoring financial products to their needs, women in male-headed households need institutionalization of gender-sensitive policies in the governance of producer groups to enable them to upgrade as chain integrators and chain owners.

6. Strategies to integrate gender in CRLCSA

In acknowledging the challenges and necessity of addressing existing gender and social inequalities in Kenya, all project outcomes and activities have corresponding gender outcomes and activities, presented in the GAP. To achieve the project's impact, outcomes, and co-benefits, GAP proposes activities that are gender-responsive within a broad gender-transformative approach (GTA). **Gender-responsive** activities are those which include specific actions to recognize, respond, and reduce gender and social inequalities (e.g., strategies, technologies, practices that reduce gender gaps in agriculture related to decision-making, labour burden, and access to agricultural information, finance, inputs). In the context of CRLCSA, adopting a **broader gender-transformative approach** means that those gender-responsive activities are designed around the fundamental aim of addressing the root causes of these gender gaps and social inequalities to ensure long-term project and social sustainability.

The Gender Action Plan (GAP) for the proposed project tackles gender inequalities across several priority areas in agri-climate adaptation and mitigation²⁴². These include closing gender gaps and existing inequalities in participation (at intra-household level and within producer organizations/cooperatives), workloads (prioritizing agricultural technologies and practices for adaptation and mitigation that reduce workloads and negative impacts on women), access and use of productive resources (such as agri-climate

²⁴² Adaptation requires adopting specific practices to lessen climate change impacts, while mitigation deals with addressing the root causes of climate change (i.e., Greenhouse Gas Emissions).

information, technologies, livelihood incomes, credit), and collective action (working with women's groups as platforms for enhancing access, agency, and voice in climate-smart agriculture). In closing these gender gaps, the project will use Gender Transformative Approaches (GTA),²⁴³ and more specifically, **Gender Action Learning Systems (GALS)** to address the underlying discriminatory socio-cultural and gender norms that perpetuate gender inequality and constrain women's capabilities. This requires a culturally sensitive, multi-level approach that includes women and men in all their diversity.

The proposal, which addresses gender dimensions within the project design and implementation, identifies and integrates interventions to provide gender-responsive and transformative results through the GALS approach combined with farmer field schools and other activities, particularly in the LREB where traditional social norms make it more difficult for women to participate in project and community activities. The gender-responsive approach recognizes and considers the particular needs, priorities, and realities of diverse groups of women and men, including the specific constraints they may face, and adequately addresses these in the design and implementation of the activities, resulting in equitable sharing of benefits.

The project will also ensure that gender and social inclusion issues are integrated and/or strengthened within extension programs and within any support provided to cooperatives using a gender transformative approach. A gender transformative approach (GTA) is required to address the underlying discriminatory socio-cultural and gender norms that currently perpetuate inequality and constrain women's capabilities within the six value chains targeted. A GTA approach requires a culturally sensitive, multi-level approach that includes women and men at across the project - at farm, cooperative, private sector and governmental partners, and project management levels. A GTA approach was chosen as a social safeguard 'backstop' to ensure that women can concretely benefit from the project and existing inequalities are not exacerbated so that no one is left behind from efforts to address climate change.

Specific activities will draw upon tested GTA methodologies, for example, GALS to engage in capacity building and training exercises among beneficiaries and project facilitators to discuss the issues underpinning gender inequalities at intrahousehold, core and extended value chain, and enabling environment levels, and how these can be addressed within the project. This will include designing and delivering specific modules within and in addition to agronomic training, which will include guidance on service provision to marginalized groups and the adaptation of services to persons living with disabilities.

The project explicitly seeks to redefine and transform gender norms and relationships to redress existing inequalities. For example, the project pursues to challenge and change gender roles and responsibilities and cultural/social norms and uneven access to resources to strengthen women's ability to participate and adopt climate resilient technologies. The logic for using a GTA approach is in alignment with the latest FAO Policy on Gender Equality 2020-2030²⁴⁴, which states that, *"...across regions rural women still face major gender-based constraints that limit their potential as economic agents and their capacity to reap the full benefits of their work. The root cause of these discriminations lies in social norms, attitudes, and beliefs, which shape how women and men are expected to behave, the opportunities that are offered to them and the aspirations they can pursue. Discriminatory sociocultural norms affect how policies and legal frameworks are formulated and implemented; who participates in decision-making processes and governance mechanisms; how rural institutions are managed; how service providers target their clients*

²⁴³ For a full list of publications by the FAO Joint Programme on Gender Transformative Approaches for Food Security and Nutrition see: <https://www.fao.org/joint-programme-gender-transformative-approaches/resources/publications/en>

²⁴⁴ FAO. 2020. FAO Policy on Gender Equality 2020–2030. Rome

and prioritize their needs; and, ultimately, how resources are allocated, and decisions are taken within households and communities.”

Gender transformative approaches address not only gender roles and power dynamics, but also institutional and legal exclusion as key barriers to equality, justice, and the achievement of global development outcomes. A main goal of gender transformative approaches involves the creation of an enabling social environment and more equitable inclusion in formal and informal institutions that support expanded choices for women and men. Key characteristics that distinguish gender transformative approaches from other efforts to integrate gender into agricultural development include: (1) Development of an understanding of people in their context, particularly the way social inequalities affect choices and outcomes; (2) Engagement with both women and men, as both have a role and stake in gender transformative change; (3) Commitment to addressing unequal power relations and to challenging oppressive norms, behaviors, and structures and (4) Engagement with different actors across levels in response to how the power relations and norms underlying gender and social inequality are distributed.²⁴⁵

GALS is a transformative methodology that goes beyond the symptoms of gender inequality to tackle the underlying causes of inequalities (norms, attitudes, behaviors) and generates positive change in areas of awareness, consciousness, and confidence; values, norms, and practices; and in policies, laws, and institutions.²⁴⁶ GALS was chosen as it is designed to be used at project level and has been used in projects working on value chains, agribusiness, and enterprise development, agriculture and rural finance, and in the context of nutrition, youth engagement, and climate change.²⁴⁷ For example, Oxfam and Hivos have used GALS methodology to improve the livelihoods and change gender relations among more than 200,000 women and men, mainly in Africa and Asia.

Gender transformative approaches in agriculture can be framed as seeking to foster change at multiple levels. Based on this nested framework, gender transformative approaches focus simultaneously on the level of the individual with individual capacities, attitudes, agency and actions; at the relational level with the expectations that shape relationships between people in the home, in groups and in organizations; and at the structural level with institutional rules and practices. Theoretically, shifts at each level can lead to a greater number of enhanced options for resource-poor women and men, for equitable norms and institutions, and finally for an expansion in women’s and men’s potential to contribute to and benefit from development.

Figure 1 provides a visual perspective of the potential target changes in smallholder agriculture about where efforts and resources may need to focus for the design and implementation of interventions that seek to contribute to gender transformative change processes. These are the entry points for GTA that the CRLCSA project aims to tap into:

- Exploring opportunities to engage with financial service providers, input dealers, and leaders governing formal or informal land tenure may be necessary to transform structure and dynamics rooted in institutions and the value chain.

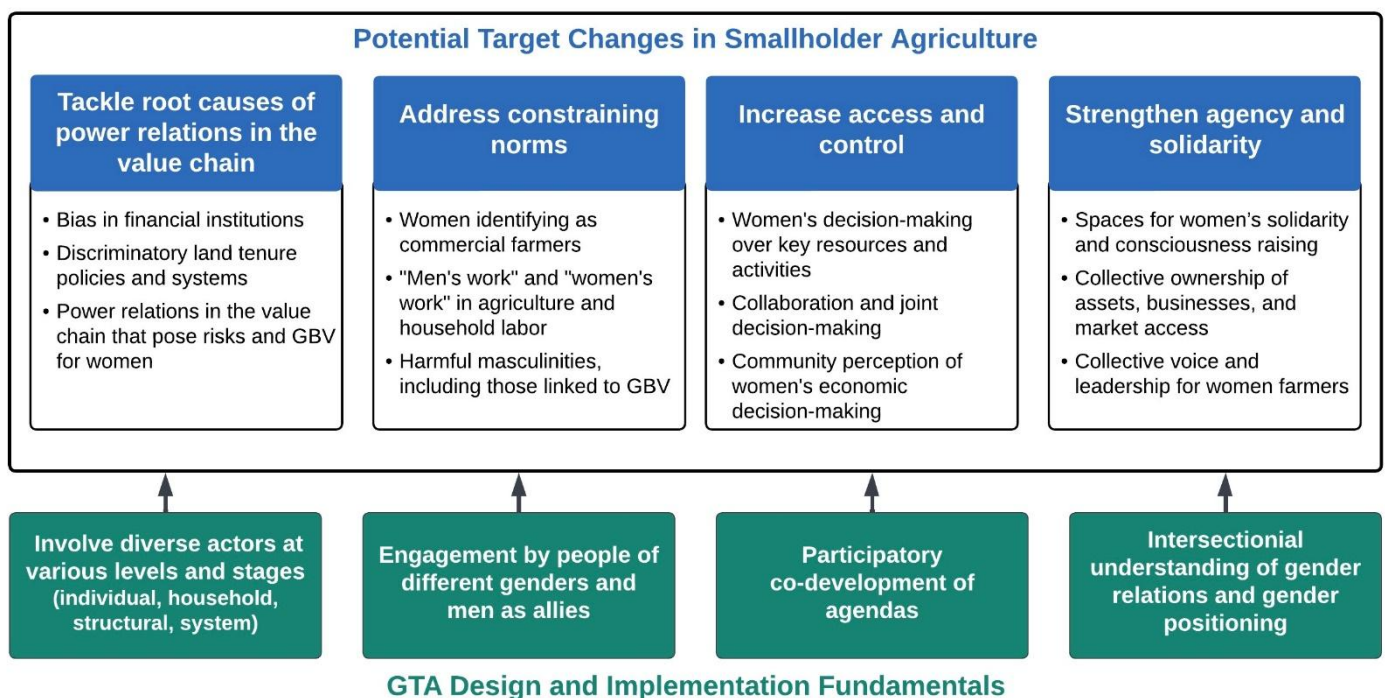
²⁴⁵ Cole, S. M., Kaminski, A. M., McDougall, C., Kefi, A. S., Marinda, P. A., Maliko, M., & Mtonga, J. (2020). Gender accommodative versus transformative approaches: a comparative assessment within a post-harvest fish loss reduction intervention. *Gender, Technology and Development*, 24(1), 48-65.

²⁴⁶ Cited from FAO, IFAD, and WFP. 2020. Gender transformative approaches for food security, improved nutrition, and sustainable agriculture – A compendium of fifteen good practices. Rome: <https://doi.org/10.4060/cb1331en>

²⁴⁷ *ibid*

- Sustaining and supporting cooperatives and group spaces where women can collectively build agency and access agricultural opportunities, services, and resources may help catalyze transformative change and especially influence gender relations across the community.
- Leverage points should be identified across the community, households, and with individuals to engage at a deep level and shift embedded norms and perceptions, such as whether women are valued as commercial farmers and economic decision-makers, the crops and livestock ascribed to certain genders, or harmful masculinities underlying possible backlash from shifts in farming and household activities.

Figure 1. Towards a gender transformative change perspective for smallholder farming commercialization. Adopted from Silvert, C. (2023). Preliminary Report for Expert Panel, IITA.



Within the project, GTA will be mainstreamed across activities to support improvements in social inclusion and women's meaningful participation in CRLCSA value chains. This activity is designed to ensure that project activities, technology transfer and support to cooperatives also contribute to the achievement of improvements in social inclusion and in the participation of women, youth and PLWD in the 6 value chains. As noted in the Gender Assessment and GAP, ensuring equitable participation and inclusion requires a more subtle approach that goes beyond fixing "quotas" and considers barriers to participation at various stages. The activity therefore aims to influence change in the way in which women, youth and PLWD participate in agriculture (beyond the primary production stage), benefit from their work (ensuring they receive appropriate remuneration and socio-economic benefits), and influence decision-making in households, farmer organizations, cooperatives and community or county policies, where gender relations and women's positions are improved, and women's entrepreneurship is boosted, contributing to SDG 5.

The project will ensure that Gender and Social Inclusion (GESI) principles are mainstreamed and integrated into all activities, trainings, materials, consultations, and processes. Gender focal points will be identified in counties, and in each EE, as well as within farmer organizations. At the start of the project, staff in the executing entities, project coordination unit, counties and financial institutions will receive mandatory training in the prevention and management of Sexual Exploitation, Abuse and harassment (SEAH), Gender-Based Violence (GBV) and in the application of the FAO Grievance and Redress Mechanism (GRM) to handle such incidents and ensure safe working conditions for women, PLWD, and vulnerable groups (sub-activity 3.1.4.1). The GRM will be survivor-centered and gender-responsive and will have specific procedures for SEAH, including confidential reporting and safe and ethical documenting. To ensure the GRM is accessible, several ways to access the GRM (such as hotline, a collection box for written and anonymous feedback, etc.) will be established and inclusive, and survivor-centered, clear information on how to access the GRM will be widely disseminated among stakeholders. The GRM will be designed to be easily accessible to all project stakeholders. This involves training of project and county officials on gender issues and increasing awareness of women, PLWD, and vulnerable groups on their rights.

The project supports the design of tailored climate information services and technologies (activity 1.1.2, 1.1.4 and 1.1.5) for women to address the unique challenges which hinder women's access to information and knowledge, and decision making power within their own household and farmers' organization over climate actions. When providing training and support to farmer organizations, the project will also ensure (under activity 3.1.1 and 3.1.2) that cooperatives and other business units have gender equality and social inclusion strategies in place to reach women, PLWD, and youth. Under these activities, the project support the formation and strengthening of women farmer group to provide a platform for collective action, advocacy and knowledge sharing. In addition, the project will deliver targeted trainings for FFS and cooperatives, following the tested Agriterro and FAO approaches to develop leadership, participation and meaningful inclusion of women, youth and persons living with disabilities (sub activity 3.1.4.2). These activities will increase women's participations in areas where they were discouraged by the gender norms, including trading and selling agriculture commodities, decision makings in adoption of new technologies and practices to address climate impacts. The approaches are the Women's Leadership-Youth leadership trainings developed by Agriterro as well as the Gender Action Learning System (GALS). These trainings will focus on all aspects of the value chain, accelerating the inclusion of vulnerable groups in production, processing and value addition, and trade. The project will support the process of building female leadership in agricultural cooperatives. If during an assessment a clear need to improve inclusivity arises, to address pervasive gender norms and increase the women's participation in leadership positions, an institutional training can be given to the cooperative.

During the Women's Leadership Workshops the role of women as members, entrepreneurs and leaders are discussed and together with male and female farmers an action plan is developed to improve the participation of women in the cooperative. Previous Agriterro Women leadership workshops have led to the following solutions:

- Reduced legal barriers to women's participation in the cooperative and changed gender biased by-laws.
- Changed the minimum amount a potential leader has to deliver to the cooperative before he/she can be elected from 1000 KGs to 500 KGs. Women often own fewer coffee trees or have smaller plots than males, therefore the threshold of 1000 kgs is a larger barrier for them to get elected than for their male counterparts.
- Reduced barriers to transfer ownership and benefits of coffee trees to women within a family
- Plan workshops at more suitable times for women/mothers

- Enable extension officers to give advice equally to men and women.
- Reduced registration prices for women in the Primary Cooperative
- Discussed cultural and social norms
- Build the capacity of current and potential women leaders of cooperatives, equipping them with leadership and management knowledge skills.
- Create a women's council to improve the position of women and source talent for leadership positions.
- Hired more women for cooperative jobs, for instance as extension officers, nursery staff and bio-composting and bio-fertilizer staff

At the end of the project, the expected result of these efforts should be that at least 10,725 women, youth and PLWD accede to roles of meaningful participation in the targeted value chains. This activity will be executed by FAO with GCF funding, in close collaboration with Agriterro and the Government of Kenya.

The project will use eight core strategies to achieve its gender and social inclusion (GESI) objectives. These are: (1) Supporting and strengthening Kenya's existing gender-sensitive legal and institutional frameworks related to gender equality, climate change, and agriculture at national and community level (including within producer organizations, county agencies, and private sector); (2) Supporting gender-responsive and socially inclusive agri-climate information and services for vulnerable smallholders in adopting climate-resilient and low-carbon production and processing practices, technologies, assets, and risk reduction mechanisms; (3) Strengthening women, PLWD, and youth representation and participation in decision-making in cooperative societies and value chains; (4) Supporting agricultural extension to disseminate and demonstrate CRLCSA knowledge, technologies and practices in ways that are gender-responsive and socially-inclusive; (5) Requiring sex-disaggregated data and relevant gender, agriculture, and climate indicators be collected, analyzed, and fed back into project activities iteratively and in a participatory manner; (6) Support GESI agri-climate finance for vulnerable smallholders and their organizations by increasing access to gender-responsive and socially inclusive financial products that support climate-resilient and low-carbon growth/Supporting gender-responsive and socially inclusive financial services, climate finance, and bundled services for enhancing women, PLWD, and youth actions towards climate adaptation and mitigation; (7) identifying and promoting gender-responsive and socially inclusive adaptation and mitigation technologies, markets, and labour practices; and (8) Promote and monitor gender and social safeguards to reduce climate risks for the most vulnerable.

The project includes strategies for addressing gender-related barriers in each output, which are highlighted under Annex 2, Feasibility Study, Chapter 5.

The process of integrating gender. The information gathered from the gender analysis/assessment should be considered in all stages of the project cycle: design, formulation, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. In each of these stages, CRLCSA staff will be trained on gender and keep a 'gender lens' in mind throughout the project cycle and MR&E, looking at ways the project/program can address gender inequalities that emerge from the project; ensure the differential needs, interests and opportunities 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 and leadership roles. At all stages of the project cycle, CRLCSA staff will be sensitized to the importance of addressing gender issues to achieve the gender-related project objectives via dedicated training sessions led by the Gender Specialist(s). The perspectives of women/ women's organizations will be continuously monitored (led by National Gender Specialist) and considered to ensure gender mainstreaming throughout the project implementation.

In Monitoring and Reporting, CRLCSA project staff will collect sex- and age-disaggregated baseline data at county-level that will be monitored throughout implementation (mid-line) and evaluation (end-line) surveys. Qualitative assessments will also be periodically conducted on the gender-specific benefits that can be directly associated to the project. This will be incorporated in the annual Project Implementation Report, Mid-Term Report, and Terminal Evaluation.

Quantitative indicators for the achievement of project objectives in relation to gender equality will include among others:

- Percentage of gender-responsive training materials and curricula designed and developed by a gender specialist
- Number of extension methods incorporating gender equality and social inclusion/GTA/GALS
- Percentage of county-level extension officers trained on gender-responsive and socially inclusive extension methods, disaggregated by age and sex
- Number of county governments that have policies promoting women's digital literacy in agriculture
- Number of women, youth, and PLWD that have access to extension agents trained in GALS
- Number of women, youth, and PLWD that have been consulted on types of climate services and information needed during scoping
- Number of women, youth, and PLWD that have direct access to finance for cell phones/digital services
- Number of women, youth, and PLWD trained in decentralized carbon accounting and related topics
- Percentage of databases upgraded with gender, sex- and age-disaggregated data
- Number of local administrators trained on collecting and managing sex-and gender-disaggregated data and how to integrate these data into project M&E, disaggregated by sex and age
- Number of women's and youth groups involved in generating climate solutions and county-level advocacy
- Number of women, PLWD, and youth consulted on the accessibility of knowledge platforms
- Percentage of landscape management plans with iterative gender-responsive monitoring and feedback mechanisms to address gender equality and social inclusion in implementation
- Number of women and youth-led cooperatives benefitting from project support
- Number of trainers/facilitators on GTA/GALS for FFS, disaggregated by sex and gender
- Number of women, youth, PLWD that are involved in peer-to-peer networks and exchanges
- Percentage of cooperatives and other business units that have gender equality and social inclusion strategies in place to reach women, youth, and PLWD.
- Percentage of project personnel trained on GTA, SEAH, GBV, and project GRM, disaggregated by sex and age
- Number of female leaders trained in the AgriTerra Female Leadership Programme and Masterclass, disaggregated by age
- Number of male and female youth leaders trained in the AgriTerra Youth Leadership Programme and Masterclass
- Number of business plans co-developed with women smallholders and women-led cooperatives and Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs)
- Percentage of gender-responsive carbon and biodiversity schemes that have been designed and developed by a gender specialist

Qualitative Indicators for the achievement of project objectives in relation to gender equality will include among others:

- Stories of gender dynamics change from participants, household members, members of the community and private sector companies, backed by photographic records demonstrating key aspects of change.
- Monitor changes in norms and attitudes among women and men (working at different nodes of the value chain).
- Narratives of how women, men, and youth are engaging in GALS and changing behavior in different areas, for example:
 - Division of labour among household members
 - Income generation and control over income by women and men
 - Property/assets ownership by women and men
 - Reduction in domestic violence
 - Participation of women in decision making in the home, producer groups, community, and value chain platforms
 - Participation of women in accessing project and other services

Recommended Quantitative Indicators for Tracking Gender Equality and Social Inclusion in Cooperatives
(All indicators are recommended to be disaggregated by county and value chain).

- Cooperative Society Membership Data
- # Of female members and % compared to male members (#/% comparisons) disaggregated by age
- # Of male / female youth (#/% comparisons) disaggregated by age
- Governance Data
- # Female board members (#/% comparisons) disaggregated by age
- # Of male / female youth (#/% comparisons) disaggregated by age
- # Of men/women members (#/% comparisons) disaggregated by age
- # Of youth men/women members (#/% comparisons) disaggregated by age
- # Of women, youth, & PLWD chairpersons disaggregated by sex and age
- Services offered to members
- #Extension workers (women, men, girls, boys)
- #Mobile money accounts linked to coop disaggregated by sex and age of the mobile money account owner
- Capacity for women's empowerment
- #Gender representatives/champions in cooperatives disaggregated by sex and age
- #Youth representatives/champions in cooperatives disaggregated by sex and age
- # of people/stakeholders trained on GESI/women's empowerment disaggregated by sex and age

Qualitative Indicators for Tracking Gender Equality and Social Inclusion in Cooperatives

- Cooperative Society Membership Data
- Socio-cultural and gender norms and other barriers that mediate gender equitable and socially inclusive participation (which can be achieved with GTA)
- Governance Data
- Women's, PLWD, and Youth experience in leadership
- Services offered to members
- Quality of support mechanisms to build leadership and increase board membership of women, youth, and PLWD

- Types and qualities of services offered to women, PLWD, and youth
- Experiences related to barriers, bottlenecks in access to services
- Capacity for women's empowerment
- Women report feeling empowered economically, socially, and politically in agricultural value chains.
(e.g., women can make decisions on the marketization of agricultural/livestock commodities, on how income derived from value chain activities is allocated)
- Men report feelings towards women's empowerment/their relative level of empowerment
- Stakeholders at different levels (household, community, institutions) report changes in their views and beliefs on gender roles

The GAP should be further developed with the participation of women, men, girls, boys, youth, PLWD, and other vulnerable people who are most affected by the climate crisis within the agricultural sector to ensure they are gendered and meet the rights, needs, and experiences of women, men girls, boys, youth, PLWD, and other vulnerable people.

Annex 1: Details of consultation missions and meetings

Gender Assessment Field Interviews with Cooperative Leadership

County Visited	Value Chain	Date	Interviewee Details
Trans Nzoia	Dairy	13 DEC 2022	Women Representative, Meebot Dairy Cooperative
Trans Nzoia	Coffee	13 DEC 2022	Supervisory Committee Member; Siboti Coffee
Nandi	Dairy	14 DEC 2022	Treasurer and Director – Extension, Lelchego Dairy
Kisumu	African leafy vegetables	16 DEC 2022	Lower Nyakach Women Traders Sacco
Kisumu	Poultry	16 DEC 2022	Victoria Kukus
virtual	Indigenous peoples	Nov 2023	Women representative of Indigenous Peoples organizations

Various tools and venues were used to gather the concerns of women during feasibility. This included:

- Field visits and farm visits, including women farmers in all counties
- A Climate Change and Value Chain Survey with specific gender related and women-specific questions (28 women respondents out of 114)
- A cooperative census that included in-depth interviews and assessments of cooperative functioning, including gender representativity in the various roles. Among the 130 cooperative representatives, 51 women were interviewed.
- Gender-related questions in the consultations with county governments and interviews with women government staff in each county (14 counties)

A field-based gender assessment (December 2022) which was conducted as complementary to the value chain market analyses, the findings of which are included in this report.

Annex 2: Data Collection for Gender Assessment

Instrument I - Questionnaire Guide for Co-op Members

Target population: Cooperative members** prioritize the following value chains: Fruit trees, African leafy vegetables

Sample size: 2 women from each value chain targeted

Location: Kenya (counties targeted by project)

Purpose: To better understand the gender-based barriers and opportunities for women's engagement in the agricultural value chain, that influence their participation, performance, benefits, and empowerment.

Table 1: Circumstances of Interview [fill out for each interviewee]

Code number (gender, location, date – e.g., female, Bomet county, 17 Nov 2022)	
Date (dd/mm/yyyy)	
Name of Cooperative	
Rural/Urban	
Name of Interviewee	
Age	
Marital Status	
Preferred Title for Ethnic Community/Identity	
Religious Affiliation	
Type of Agricultural Value Chains involved in (e.g., dairy, fruit trees, coffee, tea)	
Telephone Number (for following up with the results of the analysis)	

A: Participation Questions

Big question: What are the barriers to entry and/or requirements for men's and women's active engagement at any node of the value chain?

A1: What type of work do women and men in the co-op typically do? Are there certain types of jobs that are never done by men or women? What about differences between older and younger women?

A2: Are some types of value chains/value chain activities considered more socially acceptable/"appropriate" for women or men? Why?

A3: If in a mixed co-op group (men and women), can women actively participate? Why? Has this changed in the past? List reason(s) for change

B: Performance Questions

Big question: What are the disparities in men's and women's ability to maintain or improve their position in the value chain?

B1: Do women access informal markets (outside the co-op) to sell or buy VC products (e.g., selling milk to neighbors, working as 'hawkers' or street vendors, selling outside of formal cooperatives)?

B2: Is there a "ceiling for success" for women in the value chain? For example, if a woman starts with a small business and it becomes more successful, will a spouse/male relative step in to assist in running the business?

C: Benefits Questions

Big question: What are the differences in men's and women's ability to access and control income, assets, or other facets of well-being derived from value chain participation?

C1: Regarding the income you make, what generally happens to the money you make? Who keeps it, decides about how to spend, or save it? Have these dynamics changed over time?

C2: Are there benefits beyond additional income that you derive from being a member of the co-op?

D: Empowerment Questions

Big question: What steps/changes are needed so that women can control the benefits of their participation in agricultural value chains to make and carry out strategic decisions about their own lives?

D1: What types of services could the co-op offer that would contribute to women's empowerment?

D2: Are you aware of any policies (national or county-level) that contribute to gender equality?

Data Collection for Gender Assessment

Instrument II - Questionnaire Guide for Co-op Leadership

Target population: Cooperative leaders

Sample size: At least 1 woman in a co-op leadership position from each value chain

Location: Kenya (counties targeted by project)

Purpose: To identify the key gender issues and inequalities within specific agricultural cooperatives, and discuss solutions towards improving women's participation, performance, benefits, and empowerment.

Table 1: Circumstances of Interview [fill out for each interviewee]

KII Code number (gender, location, date – e.g., female, Bomet county, 17 Nov 2022)	
Date (dd/mm/yyyy)	
Name of Cooperative	
Rural/Urban	
Name of Interviewee	
Age	
Marital Status	
Preferred Title for Ethnic Community/Identity	
Religious Affiliation	
Type of Agricultural Value Chains of Co-op (e.g., dairy, fruit trees, coffee, tea)	
Telephone Number (for following up with the results of the analysis)	

A: Participation Questions

Big question: What are the barriers to entry and/or requirements for men's and women's active engagement at any node of the value chain?

A1: What are the specific challenges women face in participating in the VC/co-op?

A2: Has the co-op adopted any strategies to foster the equitable participation of men, women, and youth across the value chain? If yes, what have been the challenges and gains associated with these strategies? If not, why not?

A3: At co-op management level, do women have opportunities to serve as leaders? If yes, what types of opportunities are available/are the most common?

A4: Has the co-op ever had women's leadership at 'chairman' level (i.e., head of governance)?

B: Performance Questions

Big question: What are the disparities in men's and women's ability to maintain or improve their position in the value chain?

B1: What are the types of services the co-op provides to members? Are there any services women have difficulty accessing compared to men?

B2: Do women typically own the means of production in the VC? (i.e., cows, chickens, land)

B3: Do women commonly rely on both informal and formal markets in the VC?

C: Benefits Questions

Big question: What are the differences in men's and women's ability to access and control income, assets, or other facets of well-being derived from value chain participation?

C1: Are there any gender norms that influence women's ability to benefit from being a co-op member?

C2: Does the co-op provide equitable benefit-sharing mechanisms (e.g., bank accounts, credit services) to ensure that women benefit financially and can control those benefits?

D: Empowerment Questions

Big question: What steps/changes are needed so that women can control the benefits of their participation in agricultural value chains to make and carry out strategic decisions about their own lives?

D1: What types of services could the co-op offer that would contribute to women's empowerment?

D2: Is the co-op aligned with any policies (national or county-level) that contribute to gender equality?

D3: Has the co-operative ever received gender equality/women's empowerment training? If yes, fill in contact details for organization

PART II: GENDER ACTION PLAN

1. Introduction

1 The Gender Assessment above describes the current state of women in Kenya compared to men, and to a lesser extent based on limited data, how gender intersects with age, socioeconomic status, household headship status, and disability status to influence participation and benefit from engaging in agricultural value chains in the context of a changing climate.²⁴⁸ Thus, and in alignment with current gender and development practice, it is not enough to target “women” as a homogenous group in terms of project beneficiaries²⁴⁹. From the Gender Assessment, female youth²⁵⁰, female-headed households (including widows), and females living with disabilities, are the most under-represented and vulnerable groups in CSA value chains, based on how their gender interacts with other axes of social differentiation and inequality. Thus, the project’s gender mainstreaming strategy makes a concerted effort to consider intersectional factors in its targeting metrics, to ensure that female youth, female-headed households, and females living with disabilities are equitably represented in all project activities. Given this approach, gender data is expected to be collected beyond sex-disaggregation (i.e., number and % of female farmers disaggregated by age, household headship status, and disability status vs. number and % of male farmers disaggregated by age, household headship status, and disability status).

2 The Gender Action Plan (GAP) for the proposed project tackles gender inequalities across several priority areas in agri-climate adaptation and mitigation²⁵¹. These include closing gender gaps and existing inequalities in participation (at intra-household level and within producer organizations/cooperatives), workloads (prioritizing agricultural technologies and practices for adaptation and mitigation that reduce workloads and negative impacts on women), access and use of productive resources (such as agri-climate information, technologies, livelihood incomes, credit), and collective action (working with women’s groups as platforms for enhancing access, agency, and voice in climate-smart agriculture). In closing these gender gaps, the project will use Gender Transformative Approaches (GTA),²⁵² and more specifically, **Gender Action Learning Systems (GALS)** to address the underlying discriminatory socio-cultural and gender norms that perpetuate gender inequality and constrain women’s capabilities. This requires a culturally sensitive, multi-level approach that includes women and men in all their diversity.

3 The Gender Action Plan details how the goal of gender equality will be mainstreamed in two ways: participation in activities and the content of activities. Intersecting factors will be taken into account when targeting rightsholders and when designing and implementing activities. Women, female youth, female-

²⁴⁸ While the project considers intersectional socio-economic factors, it does not take a formal intersectionality approach as outlined in: FAO. 2022. Practical guide for the incorporation of the intersectionality approach in sustainable rural development programmes and projects. Santiago. <https://doi.org/10.4060/cc2823en>

²⁴⁹ Mazurana, D., Marshak, A., and K. Spears. (2023). Sex, age (and more) still matter: Data collection, analysis, and use in humanitarian practice. CARE report. https://www.care.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/03/Sex-age-and-more-still-matter_Final-report.pdf?mc_cid=88ea8613e0&mc_eid=1f4483a062

²⁵⁰ According to the Kenyan Constitution of 2010, youth are defined as people aged between 18-34; a revision from the 2007 National Youth Policy which had previously categorized youth as those aged 15-30. However, the United Nations definition of youth is 15-24 years, and the East African Community (EAC) defines youth as those between 15 and 35 years. The proportion of the youth aged 18-34 in Kenya, constitutes 25%, and those below 15 years make up 43% of the total population.

²⁵¹ Adaptation requires adopting specific practices to lessen climate change impacts, while mitigation deals with addressing the root causes of climate change (i.e., Greenhouse Gas Emissions).

²⁵² For a full list of publications by the FAO Joint Programme on Gender Transformative Approaches for Food Security and Nutrition see: <https://www.fao.org/joint-programme-gender-transformative-approaches/resources/publications/en>

headed households, and females living with disabilities all have specific quotas that are required for each activity. Mainstreaming in terms of participation will be ensured by setting the target proportion of participants from each of these intersections to be roughly equal to the relative population sizes at the national level: 50% women, (of which 33% are FHH-16.5% of total project population), 1% for women LWD, and 25% (12.5% of total project population) are female youth (aged 18-35 years)²⁵³. The male youth participation quota is 25% (25% of total project population) and 1% for men LWD (.5% of total project population). Mainstreaming in terms of content will be ensured by integrating gender transformative approaches, more particularly Gender Action Learning Systems (GALS)²⁵⁴ into project activities and training materials. These training materials include the “gender- and youth- specific” trainings, such as the Specialized Agriterra Training Programmes in Women’s Leadership and Youth Leadership, as well as more “general” training materials on agricultural production, markets, finance, etc.

4 For gender-responsive and transformative project activities to be successfully implemented and have impact, capacity-building, awareness, and sensitization among leadership and governance, at county level and within cooperative societies and producer organizations is required. Gaining the support from local political systems is crucial in engendering project activities that have the power to transform gender inequalities and social exclusions in agriculture. Thus, capacity building will be mandated for all county and in-country partners on the importance of tackling gender and social inequalities in agriculture in the context of a changing climate, and data collection and MEL teams will receive specialized training in the collection of gender, sex-and age-disaggregated data. Given that more than half of the targeted population will be female (50%) and males with intersectional vulnerability (20% youth status and 1% disability), the successful implementation of the Gender Action Plan requires half of the total project budget. The relationships among the project objectives, actions, indicators, targets, and baselines are as shown in the table below.

5 The day-to-day implementation of the GAP for the project will be led by the National Gender and Social Inclusion Specialists, who will be recruited by the project. Given the implementation of GALS and GTAs more broadly, knowledge and experience in GTA is a requirement in the TORs for these positions.

²⁵³ Based on 2020 estimates that 24.3% of female youth are not involved in education, training, or employment, compared to 15% of male youth.

²⁵⁴ FAO, IFAD and WFP. 2020. Gender transformative approaches for food security, improved nutrition and sustainable agriculture – A compendium of fifteen good practices. Rome. <https://doi.org/10.4060/cb1331en>

2. Gender Action Plan

Gender Action Plan of the project " Transforming Livelihoods through Climate Resilient, Low Carbon, Sustainable Agricultural Value Chains in the Lake Region Economic Bloc, Kenya"				
Project Expected Results	Indicators and Targets	Timeline	Responsibility	Budget
GCF Outcome level: Reduced emissions and increased resilience IRMF Core Indicators 1, 2, 4				
Core Indicator 1: GHG emissions reduced, avoided, or removed / sequestered	GHG emissions reduced, avoided or removed/sequestered Baseline: 0 Target: tCO2eq over 30 years	In 30 years	FAO (as Executing Entity), particularly National M&E Specialist	-
Core Indicator 2: Direct and indirect beneficiaries who took part in trainings	Number of direct and indirect beneficiaries, disaggregated by sex and age. Direct: Baseline: 0 Target: 572,000 farmers (50% women, 16.5% FHH, 2% PLWD and 25% youths) Among women, 1% women LWD, and 25% female youth (aged 18-34 years). The male youth (aged 18-34) participation quota is 25% and 1% for men LWD. Indirect: Baseline: 0 Target: 2,098,140 (1,049,070 women, 41,962 PLWD and 524,535 youths)	By end of Project Year 6	FAO and Agriterro (as Executing Entity), particularly National M&E Specialist	65% of total project budget
Core Indicator 4: Hectares of natural resources brought under improved low-emission and/or climate-resilient management practice	Hectares of natural resources brought under improved low-emission and/or climate-resilient management practice. Baseline: 0 Target: 2,800	By end of Project Year 6	FAO (as Executing Entity), particularly National M&E Specialist	Included in project budget

<u>Supplementary Indicator 2.5</u> <u>Beneficiaries (female/male)</u> <u>adopting innovations that</u> <u>strengthen climate change</u> <u>resilience</u>		% of the participant beneficiaries adopted at least one of the innovations that strengthen climate change resilience. Baseline: 0 Target: 60%			By end of Project Year 6						FAO and Agritererra (as Executing Entity)		Included in project budget	
GAP Expected Outcomes, Activities and Targets												Cost		
Project activity	GAP activity	Indicator	Baseline	Target	Y 1	Y 2	Y 3	Y 4	Y 5	Y 6	Responsibility	Exclusively dedicated for GAP	Included in Project Activity	
Component 1 – Enabling local government support for adaptation and mitigation														
Expected gender outcome: Component 1 addresses capacity gaps in public agro-climate service providers to support women, men, and youth farmers in proactive adaptation and mitigation actions. The expected gender outcome of component 1 is Women, PLWD, and youth farmers can access and benefit from gender-responsive and socially inclusive public agro-climate services for CRLCSA. This means building capacity on both the local administration side (e.g., county governments and agricultural institutions, extension workers, cooperative leadership), and on the side of women, men, and youth farmers/cooperative members themselves to achieve gender equality by considering intersecting social factors. These activities will ensure women, PLWD, and youth have strengthened capacities on climate-resilient agriculture and mitigation actions, facilitate leadership and entrepreneurship, and leverage gender equality advancements in Kenya while addressing specific gender issues in the LREB.														
GAP Output 1.1: Women, PLWD, and youth’s participation, leadership, and decision-making in cooperative societies and value chains is strengthened via enhanced gender-responsive and socially inclusive local administrations.														
Cross-cutting	Mainstream GESI and integrate gender-sensitization into all training materials and trainings	Percentage of gender-responsive training materials and curricula designed and developed by a gender specialist	0	100%							International/ National Gender Specialists	12,000		
1.1.1 ²⁵⁵	Build institutional capacity within local administrations and cooperative leadership to develop gender equality and social inclusion action strategies extension methods to address gender and social inequalities to ensure equity in accessing knowledge.	Number of extension methods incorporating gender equality and social inclusion	0	14 (1 per county)							National Gender Specialists, FAO, and local administration		Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget	

²⁵⁵ 1.1.1 Develop and deploy innovative and efficient extension methods for disseminating and demonstrating CRLCSA knowledge, technologies, and practices in gender-responsive and socially inclusive ways.

1.1.3 ²⁵⁷	Ensure equitable representation of women, youth, and PLWD in the development and testing of methodologies.	Number of women, youth, and PLWD represented in the development and testing of methodologies (per county)	0	50% women, 20% youth, 2% PLWD of participants in the development and testing of the methodologies							National Gender Specialists, FAO		26,000
1.1.4 ²⁵⁸	Update databases with sex-and gender-disaggregated data to ensure that marginalized and invisible groups (i.e., women living in male-headed households, widows, PLWD) are included in updating datasets.	Percentage of databases upgraded with gender, sex-and age-disaggregated data	0	100%							National Gender Specialists, FAO, local administration		Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget
1.1.5 ²⁵⁹	Engage women, youth, and PLWD in participating in the selection, development, and testing of methodologies	Number of women, youth, and PLWD participating in the selection, development, and testing of methodologies (per county)	0	At least 50% women, 20% youth, 1% PLWD participants in each climate solution workshop							National Gender Specialists, local administration		Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget
1.1.5	Mobilize women's and youth groups in generating climate solutions and county-level advocacy. (1.1.5)	Number of women's and youth groups involved in generating climate solutions (per county)	0	At least 2 women's groups and 2 youth groups per county (28 groups total)							National Gender Specialists, local administration		Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget
1.1.6 ²⁶⁰	Ensure knowledge and lessons learned are accessible to women, youth, and PLWD (1.1.6)	Number of knowledge sharing events targeting all types of groups	0	15 knowledge sharing events. And at least 50% of the participants are women, 20% youth and 2% PLWD							National Gender Specialists, local administration		Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget

²⁵⁷ 1.1.3 Develop and test methodologies for decentralized carbon accounting

²⁵⁸ 1.1.4 Upgrade and update agricultural databases, crop and productivity datasets, cooperative census

²⁵⁹ 1.1.5 Assess local climate change impacts and eligible climate solutions for the agriculture sector

²⁶⁰ 1.1.6 Share knowledge and lessons learned through existing platforms

Component 2: Sustainable resilient agricultural landscapes												
<p>Expected gender outcome: Component 2 aims to reduce GHG emissions from the AFOLU sector and enhance resilience of ecosystems through the development, implementation, and successful monitoring of climate resilient and low-carbon management plans. <u>The expected gender outcome of component 2</u> is to mainstream gender equality and consider intersecting social factors into planning content and process of co-developing, implementing, and monitoring gender-responsive and socially inclusive agricultural landscape management plans. This will be achieved through consultations and inclusion of women, PLWD, and youth in the development of the landscape management strategy and implementation plan and building capacity among county-level, regional, and national officials on the importance of mainstreaming GESI content and creating monitoring mechanisms to support the successful implementation of GESI goals in landscape management.</p>												
<p>GAP Output 2.1: Agricultural landscape management strategies have robust gender equality and social inclusivity content and commitments, and are co-developed, implemented and monitored in ways that are gender-responsive and socially inclusive.</p>												
Cross-cutting	Build capacity among county-level officials on the importance of creating monitoring mechanisms to support GESI goals.	Number of county officials trained on creating monitoring mechanisms to support GESI goals disaggregated by age and sex	0	At least 4 officials per county (56 total), including 30% women							National Gender Specialists, FAO, local administration	Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget
2.1.1 ²⁶¹	Ensure women, youth, and PLWD are consulted in the development of the landscape management strategy and implementation plan, to ensure their specific needs are addressed. (2.1.1)	Number of women, youth, and PLWD consulted	0	50% women, 16.5% are participants from FHH, 20% youth, 2% PLWD of the participants in the consultation							National Gender Specialists, FAO, local administration	Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget
2.1.1	GESI concerns mainstreamed in LMS by the county-level Gender and Youth leads in cooperation with county-level leadership (2.1.1).	Percentage of gender-responsive training materials and curricula designed and developed by a Gender specialist	0	100%							National Gender Specialists, FAO, local administration	Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget

²⁶¹ 2.1.1 Develop a country climate-resilience and low-carbon agricultural landscape management strategy and implementation plan, including improved watershed management, land use planning, reforestation, and natural regeneration

2.1.2 ²⁶²	Ensure women, youth and PLWD will be consulted and involved in implementation of landscape management (2.1.2)	Number of women, youth, and PLWD engaged and involved	0	50% women, 16.5% participants are FHH, 20% youth, 2% PLWD of participants							County governments		Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget
2.1.2	Create monitoring/feedback mechanisms so if landscape management plans are not enhancing gender equality and social inclusion in their implementation, these inequalities can be prioritized and addressed (2.1.2).	Percentage of landscape management plans with iterative gender-responsive monitoring/feedback mechanisms to address gender equality and social inclusion in implementation	0	100%							National Gender Specialists, FAO, local administration		
Component 3: Resilient livelihoods Expected gender outcome: Component 3 aims to increase smallholders' (including women, PLWD, and youth) climate resilience and production of commodities using climate-resilient, low carbon technologies. Across the 6 value chains targeted in the LREB, the key barriers and constraints facing women, PLWD, and youth in using climate-resilient, low carbon technologies, include: cultural dynamics that undermine women, PLWD, and youth's business aspirations, low levels of formal education and limited technical skills, limited access to productive assets and resources, limited access to finance, and limited access to networks and information. <u>The expected gender outcome of component 3</u> is for women, PLWD, and youth's adoption of CRLCSA production and processing practices to be enhanced by closing gender gaps and social inequities in productive resources and assets, networks and information, technologies and technical skills, and risk reduction mechanisms. The following activities will contribute towards this gender outcome: Ensuring gender equitable and socially inclusive CRLCSA production/processing assets and training among smallholder farmers, farmer organizations, and associations; Increasing access to productive resources and assets, particularly among women, youth, and PLWD using GESI strategies (e.g., Increase bundled services that provide women with insurance, credit, inputs, and technical advice, Awareness creation of agro-dealers/cooperatives on gender and inclusivity to improve access of their services and products to women, Targeting manufacturers of mechanization to tailor to women's needs and design gender friendly tools and equipment); and Prioritizing women and youth-led cooperative development. Targeted leadership programs for women and youth (e.g., AgriTerra Female Leadership and Youth Leadership Masterclass) will capacitate and empower farmers to contribute to and benefit from enhanced public agro-climate services.													
GAP Output 3.1: Women, PLWD, and youth's adoption of CRLCSA production and processing practices is enhanced by closing gender gaps and social inequities in productive resources and assets, networks and information, technologies and technical skills, and risk reduction mechanisms.													
Cross-cutting	Assign gender focal points in project coordination and implementation mechanisms	Percentage of project coordination mechanisms with an assigned gender focal point and Disaggregate the number of gender focal	0	100%							Co-led by National Gender Specialists, FAO, with input from local administration		Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring

²⁶² 2.1.2 Implement and monitor climate-resilience and low-carbon landscape management plans

		points by sex and age															significant specific budget
Cross-cutting	Collect qualitative information on progress of gender activities	Stories of gender dynamics change from beneficiaries, monitor changes in norms and attitudes among women and men (working at different nodes of the value chain), narratives of how women, men, and youth are engaging in GALS and changing behavior in different areas	N/A	N/A													
3.1.1 ²⁶³	Ensure women, PLWD, and youth have access to CRLCSA assets (including inputs, materials, and equipment) and training through the FFS Approach (3.1.1)	Number of women, PLWD, and youth that have access to CRLCSA assets and training including number of female-headed households	0	50% women, 16.5% beneficiaries are from FHH, 20% youth, 2% PLWD of beneficiaries													1,000,000
3.1.1, 3.1.2	Ensure that CRLCSA FFS training materials and dissemination channels are gender responsive or gender transformative (3.1.1, 3.1.2)	Percentage of gender-responsive FFS training materials and dissemination channels designed and developed by a gender specialist	0	100%													Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget
3.1.1	Ensure that the TOR, design, and development of questionnaire for baseline, mid and end-line surveys integrate inclusion, gender considerations	Percentage of gender-responsive tools, surveys, and questionnaires designed and developed by a gender specialist	0	100%													Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant

²⁶³ 3.1.1 Deploy CRLCSA production/processing assets and training to smallholder farmers, farmer organizations, and associations.

3.1.1	Ensure gender considerations in the review/update of selection criteria of farming HH beneficiaries	Percentage of sets of gender-responsive selection criteria with due consideration of gender and social issues	0	100%							National Gender Specialists with support from FAO		specific budget
3.1.1	Training of trainers/facilitators on GESI for FFS	Number of staff trained on GESI to facilitate gender interventions in FFS disaggregated by sex and gender	0	100%							Led by National Gender Specialists, FAO, and local administration		
3.1.2 ²⁶⁴	Ensure each cooperative has a trained gender and youth focal point to document ongoing challenges in reaching, benefitting, and empowering women, youth, and PLWD, and that there are appropriate mechanisms (including adoption of GESI strategies ²⁶⁵) within the cooperative to prioritize addressing these challenges.	Percentage of cooperatives with a trained gender and youth focal point	0	100%							National Gender Specialists, Agriterria, FAO, and local administration		Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget
3.1.2	Ensure peer-to-peer networks and exchanges include women, PLWD, and youth. (3.1.2)	Number of women, PLWD and youth that are involved in peer-to-peer networks and exchanges	0	50% women, 20% youth, 2% PLWD of direct beneficiaries participated in the peer-to-peer network							National Gender Specialists, Agriterria, FAO, country governments		

²⁶⁴ 3.1.2 Disseminate CRLCSA technology, knowledge, and assets to cooperative members through peer-to-peer networks and exchanges

²⁶⁵ By GESI strategies, we refer to approaches that address the root causes of gender and social inequalities, as well as the impacts of these inequalities.

3.1.2	Ensure women, PLWD, and youth have access to CRLCSA technology, knowledge, and assets (3.1.2)	Number of women, PLWD, and youth that have access to CRLCSA technology, knowledge, and assets including inputs, materials, equipment, supplies, and/or cooperative infrastructure.	0	50% women, 16.5% beneficiaries are from FHH, 20% youth, 2% PLWD of direct beneficiaries							National Gender Specialists, Agritererra, FAO, local administration		
3.1.3 ²⁶⁶	Ensure cooperatives and other business units have gender equality and social inclusion strategies in place to reach women, PLWD, and youth. (3.1.3)	Percentage of cooperatives and other business units that have gender equality and social inclusion strategies in place to reach women, PLWD, and youth	0	100%							National Gender Specialists, Agritererra, FAO, local administration		Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget
3.1.3	Ensure women, PLWD and youth will be invited to join existing cooperatives.	Percentage of women, PLWD, and youth among farmers that have joined existing cooperatives.	0	50% women, 20% youth, 2% PLWD of the newly joined cooperative members							National Gender Specialists, Agritererra, FAO, local administration		
3.1.4 ²⁶⁷ 3.1.4.1	Training of project personnel on GTA, SEAH (Sexual Exploitation, Abuse and harassment) & GBV (Gender Based Violence) and the FAO Grievance and Redress Mechanism (GRM) to handle such incidents and ensure safe working conditions for women, PLWD, and vulnerable groups. (This involves training of project	Percentage of project personnel trained on GTA, SEAH, GBC, and project GRM disaggregated by sex and age	0	100%							FAO, supported by National Gender Specialists	29,658	

²⁶⁶ 3.1.3 Support smallholder farmer aggregation into cooperative and other business units as climate risk reduction and sharing mechanisms.

²⁶⁷ 3.1.4 Support improvements in social inclusion and women's meaningful participation in CRLC value chains

	and county officials on gender issues AND increasing awareness of women, PLWD, and vulnerable groups on their rights).																	
3.1.4 3.1.4.2	Deliver Women's and Youth Leadership trainings and GALS awareness raising to Smallholders	Number of female leaders trained disaggregated by age	0	84 (6 cooperatives per county)										FAO, supported by National Gender Specialists				
3.1.4 3.1.4.2	Deliver Women's and Youth Leadership trainings and GALS awareness raising to Smallholders	Number of women trained disaggregated by age	0	50% women, 20% youth, 2% PLWD of direct beneficiaries										FAO, supported by National Gender Specialists	160,000			
3.1.4 3.1.4.3	Monitor gender objectives through surveys and studies (WEAI)	Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index Indicators		100%										FAO, supported by National Gender Specialists	135,099			

Project Component 4: Scaling through CRLCSA market and finance

Expected gender outcome: Outcome 4 aims to increase access to finance as a means of upscaling business and CRLCSA practices. The expected gender outcome of Component 4 is two-fold: 1) for Women, PLWD, and youth to have increased access to markets and profitability of climate smart, low carbon sustainable agricultural products; and 2) Women, PLWD, and youth and their organizations are economically empowered through increased access to gender-responsive and socially inclusive financial products that support climate-resilient and low-carbon growth. The following activities towards this gender outcomes include increasing information and capacity for women, PLWD, and youth to access markets and trade opportunities; increasing access to credit and financial services for women, PLWD, and youth, and engaging with private finance lenders on how to strengthen their targeting of women and socially marginalized groups.

GAP Output 4.1: Women, PLWD, and youth have increased access to markets and profitability of climate smart, low carbon sustainable agricultural products.

4.1.1 ²⁶⁸	Ensure women, PLWD, and youth can work with buyers and aggregators to increase demand and market opportunities. (4.1.1)	Number of women/PLWD and youth-led organizations who have new partnerships/agreements with buyers	0	30% women, 15% youth, 0.5% PLWD of the beneficiaries who established new partnership/agreements							National Gender Specialists, FAO, local administration		
4.1.1	Ensure women, PLWD, and youth have equal opportunities to organize and participate in trade fairs, marketing events, awareness campaigns, and monitor markets. (4.1.1)	Number of women, PLWD, and youth attending these fairs and events	0	Out of the totally number of participants joined trade fairs, marketing events, and awareness campaigns, 50% women, 16.5% FHH, 20% youth, 2% PLWD							National Gender Specialists, FAO, local administration		450,000
4.1.2 ²⁶⁹	Ensure women, PLWD, and youth have equal access to certification and labelling schemes. (4.1.2) (also includes the simplification and increasing the information flow of CRLCSA for more women, PLWD, and youth to understand and tap into this opportunity.)	Number of women, PLWD, and youth have access to certification and labelling schemes (e.g., organic certification, fairtrade certification, TBD certification)	0	50% women, 16.5% of FHH members, 20% youth, 2% PLWD of the total number of beneficiaries who have access to certifications							National Gender Specialists, Agriterro, FAO, local administration		Already included in the project budget, GAP activity not requiring significant specific budget
GAP Output 4.2: Women, PLWD, and youth and their organizations are economically empowered through increased access to gender-responsive and socially inclusive financial products that support climate-resilient and low-carbon growth.													
4.2.1 ²⁷⁰	Make improved and/or new financial products gender responsive to the needs of women and women's groups (4.2.1)	Percentage of improved and/or new financial products that are gender responsive	0	100%							Financial institutions supported by National Gender Specialists, FAO, local administration		80,000

²⁶⁸ 4.1.1 Work with buyers and aggregators to increase demand and market opportunities for CRLCSA commodities

²⁶⁹ 4.1.2 Increase access to various certification and labelling schemes such as FairTrade or GlobalGap

²⁷⁰ 4.2.1 Develop gender-responsive and socially inclusive private finance tools, procedures, and products to promote the upscale of CRLCSA value chains.

4.2.1	Prioritize technical assistance via trainings to financial institutions on gender and inclusiveness, particularly prioritizing the use of sex and age disaggregated data and evidence in key decisions while designing and delivering financial services.	Number of technical assistance trainings	0	At least 2 trainings per each financial institution							National Gender Specialists, FAO, local administration		
4.2.2 ²⁷¹	Engage with women smallholders and women-led cooperatives on developing business plans (4.2.2)	Number of business plans co-developed with women smallholders and women-led cooperatives and Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs)	0	3 business plan per county (14), minimum of 42 business plans							National Gender Specialists, Agritererra, FAO, local administration, financial institutions		900,000
4.2.2	Ensure business plans include strategies for social inclusion and gender-based access (4.2.2)	Percentage of business plans with strategies for social inclusion and gender-based access	0	100%							National Gender Specialists, Agritererra, FAO, local administration, financial institutions		
4.2.3 ²⁷²	Ensure women will be trained on carbon-based mechanisms and conservation finance	Percentage of women participation in the training	0	50%							National Gender Specialists, Agritererra, FAO, local administration		200,000

²⁷¹ 4.2.2 Support smallholders and their business units in the development of bankable business plans, with particular focus on social inclusion and gender-based access.

²⁷² 4.2.3 Facilitate smallholders access to financial incentives schemes for agroforestry