



FARMLAND IN KENYA'S RIFT VALLEY.
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USAID/ KENYA AND EAST AFRICA REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION STRATEGY

Gender Analysis Report

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USAID/KENYA AND EAST AFRICA REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION STRATEGY

Gender Analysis Report

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We would also thank the mission staff members who were able to participate in interviews and the final report out. Their questions and feedback have strengthened this report's recommendations, and, we hope, add value to the team and the implementation of the forthcoming USAID/KEA Regional Development Cooperation Strategy (RDCS).

We hope the report provides useful guidance for the refinement and implementation of the Mission's RDCS and future programs.

ACRONYMS

50MAWS	50 Million African Women Speak
ADS	Automated Directives System
AfCFTA	African Continental Free Trade Area
AGRA	Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa
AU	African Union
AWE	Academy for Women Entrepreneurs
AWEP	African Women’s Entrepreneurship Program
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CDCS	Country Development Cooperation Strategy
COMESA	Common Market for East and Southern Africa
COMSHIP	COMESA Seed Harmonization Implementation Plan
DEC	Development Experience Clearinghouse
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DO	Development Objective
EAA	Evaluations, Assessments, and Analyses
EAC	East African Community
EAEP	East Africa Energy Program
EASSI	Eastern African Sub-Regional Support Initiative for the Advancement of Women
EAWiBP	East African Women in Business Platform
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EPMES	Ethiopia Performance Monitoring and Evaluation Service
EU	European Union
FGC	Female Genital Cutting

FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
iAGRI	Innovative Agricultural Research Initiative
IBAR	Inter-African Bureau for Animal Resources
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IDIQ	Indefinite Delivery, Indefinite Quantity
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
IR	Intermediate Result
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature
KEA	Kenya and East Africa
KII	Key Informant Interview
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NGO	Nongovernmental Organization
RIGO	Regional Intergovernmental Organizations
RDCS	Regional Development Cooperation Strategy
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UN	United Nations
WASH	Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene
WEAI	Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index
WEE	Women’s Economic Empowerment
WLI	Women’s Leadership Index
YALI	Young Africa Leaders Initiative

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Kenya and East Africa (KEA) Regional Mission prepared a Regional Development Cooperation Strategy (RDCS) for 2020–2025 to guide the Mission's transnational and cross-border programming in East Africa. To support that effort, and as required by USAID's guidance in the Automated Directives System (ADS) 205 and the Women's Entrepreneurship and Economic Empowerment Act, USAID/KEA contracted Integra Government Services International LLC (Integra), in partnership with Cultural Practice, LLC to prepare the RDCS Gender Analysis. This report presents the combined findings of the literature review and the key informant interviews (KIIs) to comprise the RDCS Gender Analysis. It builds on these findings to make recommendations for future programming related to gender across the East African region.

The RDCS Gender Analysis seeks to offer a “comprehensive understanding of the macro-level and disparate gender issues, inequalities, constraints, and opportunities across the region, and provide specific recommendations on how USAID/KEA can achieve optimal gender integration, including emphasizing outcomes across different sectors in the facilitation of East Africa's Journey to Self-Reliance.”¹ The recommendations align with the RDCS Development Objectives (DOs) and Intermediate Results (IRs) related to enhancing regional capacity for resilience and advancing the capacity of regional market systems (see Annex 2).

This report follows the structure outlined by ADS 205² to collect and analyze data based on five domains that identify gaps between women and men across different dimensions: 1) legal, policy, and institutional frameworks, 2) cultural norms and beliefs, 3) gender roles, responsibilities, and time use, 4) assets and resources, and 5) power relations and decision-making.

In total, 35 interviews with staff of USAID, Regional Intergovernmental Organizations (RIGOs), other regional organizations, and regional projects were conducted, including 24 women and 11 men³ (see Annex 3). The plurality of women is not surprising, as most gender advisors at USAID, in regional organizations, and on project staff are women. The group represented units of USAID in Washington, D.C., at the East Africa Regional Mission, and six country missions. Other respondents represent an additional 12 institutions from among the non-USAID categories listed above.

The KIIs were designed to gain input from respondents about the most important areas of gender disparities in the region, identify current programs working to reduce those disparities, and identify new possibilities for regional programming. A content analysis of themes was then conducted using Quirkos, a qualitative data analysis software, from which Table I on the following page highlights several findings

¹ USAID/KEA. Request for Task Order Proposal #72061520R00008 – Regional Development Cooperation Strategy Gender Analysis, p. 3 (November 11, 2020).

² USAID. ADS 205. Integrating Gender Equality and Female Empowerment in USAID's Program Cycle (<https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/205.pdf>), Revised 01/22/2021.

³ This includes a partial interview with two members of the East African Community Division of Gender and Social Affairs.

and priority recommendations for each IR. A longer list of recommendations is included in Section 3. Recommendations of this report.

TABLE I: KEY FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
GENERAL FINDINGS	GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS
<p>The adoption of gender equality and women’s empowerment at USAID has increased compliance and technical demands on gender advisors (Annex VI).</p> <p>The recommendation in the previous regional strategy to “Create a Gender Advisor position for each USAID country mission” has not been adopted (Benjamin and Meyers 2016).</p>	<p>To support gender advisors at the country and regional level, USAID should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use regional or USAID/W resources to support a regional Community of Practice among country and regional mission gender advisors and gender points of contact to share evidence-based research, program results, and experience, and to encourage a discussion of this analysis to strengthen involvement with regional program implementation; • Provide additional personnel and technical support to the KEA gender and inclusivity specialist to share the workload of managing country and regional responsibilities; and • Fill vacant gender advisor positions in Burundi, Djibouti, and Uganda.
<p>The literature and the interviews consistently point to the foundational inequalities faced by women in East Africa. Interviewees stated that GBV in all its forms and illiteracy were among the most critical fundamental issues to be addressed as an integral part of regional programming to increase economic growth and women’s empowerment, as well as on other health and social sector statistics.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop new regional programs to amplify successful country efforts to reduce critical barriers to women’s full participation in society including all forms of GBV. These can be designed as part of integrated or inclusive regional programming and as stand-alone activities to maximize coverage and opportunities for success; • Conduct research to test if targeted or stand-alone programs are more effective in reducing GBV; and • Integrate women’s functional and financial literacy interventions into USAID programming across sectors, by improving beneficiaries’ abilities to read about their legal rights, and agricultural, climate-change, and business- or market information that enhances their ability to make informed decisions around livelihood activities and to understand their rights.
<p>New investment through Power Africa and women’s economic empowerment (WEE) programming has resulted real gains in women’s participation in business (especially agribusiness) and the energy sector, supported through many newly formed associations and networks.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure the continued success of energy-related women’s associations and networks by providing business development and financial support for their sustainability (e.g., training on association management, grant getting, outreach and communications);

<p>Stakeholders reported a desire to help women “dream big” and to succeed in new avenues of work.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish learning opportunities between Power Africa activities in East Africa with energy-related programming in other regions in Africa and in Asia, such as the Engendering Utilities Program efforts in India to strengthen gender equity in the sector; and • Build on the accomplishments of these targeted investments in women’s leadership strategies and economic entrepreneurship in the utilities and transport industries to energize similar successes in agribusiness and climate-related businesses.
<p>Gender-related programming at RIGOs has expanded significantly over the past five years, with the launch of regional networks and programs to support women entrepreneurs in agriculture and other sectors.</p>	<p>Organize existing digital platforms and new opportunities for holding regional gender workshops for gender and key technical advisors from the RIGOs and other regional programs, USAID implementing partners, and USAID staff to exchange information about the results of different strategies being used to support women’s empowerment and gender equality and to identify opportunities for mutual attention. It could foster a stronger working relationship between these regional programs and other implementers of the RDCS.</p>
<p>Human trafficking of children and adults for labor and sex work is a significant issue, with traffickers working out of Kenya as a central staging point across the region to recipients in the Middle East (Daghar 2020).</p>	<p>USAID/KEA could take the lead through its country and regional programs to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expand efforts on policy and through training, such as already addressed in TradeMark’s work on reducing sexual harassment at the borders, to educate customs officers about the signs of labor trafficking, and to know the proper enforcement options and reporting channels; • Work with the RIGOs to elevate this issue as one in need of legal and policy reform in the region; and • Commission a study to gain a better understanding of the scope and cost of labor trafficking across the region
<p>Addressing the global pandemic of Covid-19 has required programs to pivot, adopt remote monitoring, and shift funding priorities, often incurring increased costs.</p>	<p>Strengthen program monitoring systems to track changes due to Covid-19 conditions by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing additional funding for M&E; • Ensuring that the detailed guidance that has been developed to assist programs is shared and understood by USAID and partners;⁴ and

⁴ [https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/Full_COVID_and_Gender Tecnical Brief March 2021 Comp liant.pdf](https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/Full_COVID_and_Gender_Tecnical_Brief_March_2021_Comp_liant.pdf)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Permitting the use of custom indicators if needed to understand changes in levels of GBV and food insecurity and shifts in women's and girls' time use, along with other health and income measures.
DO I: REGIONAL CAPACITY FOR RESILIENCE STRENGTHENED	
IRI.1 Capacity of Communities, Institutions, and Systems to Jointly Plan for, Respond to, and Recover from Shocks and Threats Strengthened	
KEY FINDINGS	RECOMMENDATIONS
Stakeholders seek new ways to link Resilience and Market Systems.	Use women's and youth groups to provide extension and advisory services and savings and loan systems to support starting or enhancing businesses in sustainable conservation and climate-oriented enterprises (e.g., equipment rental, manufacturing solar energy devices creating grass banks for forage, creating agro- and eco-tourism programs, organic farming, and recycling).
Several USAID global and regional programs have reported some success promoting women in sectors such as wildlife management, energy, and utilities. Power Africa, Engendering Utilities, and Rwanda Women in Rwandan Energy (WIRE) support women's recruitment and advancement in these industries where men have been more numerous.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengthen women's opportunities to participate in key governance positions addressing transboundary and national level wildlife management, including poaching and trafficking, ensuring that they are members and leaders of community governance bodies such as land allocation and management committees, water user associations, and forest management groups; Use community dialogue and regional programming together, linking with existing businesses, to encourage employment of women and youth in wildlife and conservation management programming by identifying opportunities in positions where they have been previously underrepresented, e.g., as wildlife scouts and rangers, drivers and mechanics, and technical specialists; and Access USAID's women's economic empowerment funding to increase participation in Engendering Utilities and other sectors in which men predominate.
IR 1.2 Regional Food Security Ecosystem Enhanced	
Educational opportunities for youth can expand offerings related to climate change adaptation and mitigation.	Expand the curricula of vocational, business, and technical training programs (such as YALI) to create new tracks on resilience and climate change topics to encourage climate-friendly enterprises.
IR 1.3 Conservation and Management of Transboundary Natural Resources Improved	

<p>Women and youth are underrepresented in the governance of transboundary resources (IUCN 2018)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support increased women’s participation and voice in transboundary resource management (including water resources as part of achieving the goals of Agenda 2030); and • Build women’s and youth’s capacity in transboundary resources management and governance.
<p>DO 2: MARKET SYSTEMS AND REGIONAL TRADE STRENGTHENED</p>	
<p>IR 2.1 Regional Trade Systems Improved</p>	
<p>KEY FINDINGS</p>	<p>RECOMMENDATIONS</p>
<p>RIGOs have made admirable progress in establishing regional programs supporting women’s empowerment through networks but note that lack of funding hinders hiring gender experts in their technical programs.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revisit opportunities to support RIGO ‘s gender-related programming to build capacity in gender and key technical areas, such as trade and entrepreneurship; and • Create a multi-donor funding pool to offer competitive grants on strengthening women’s empowerment through market systems.
<p>Stakeholders raised concerns about the sustainability of new women’s networks in entrepreneurship, energy, and trade.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Link RIGO and other donor programs and networks on women, trade, energy, and entrepreneurship to create synergies among them and enable sustainability; • Inform USAID beneficiaries of the information and services that the platforms offer and to help the platforms and networks to become sustainable through increased membership; and • Identify program opportunities to partner with RIGO gender programs to disseminate information on women’s and youth’s opportunities under AFCTA.
<p>Interviews and reports indicate important successes in the Trademark’s Women and Trade Programme in reducing poverty among traders (Allison et al. 2019)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continue to build and expand programs such as Trademark East Africa Women and Trade Programme; • Continue to work with customs officials to support their awareness of regulations exempting qualified women traders from customs duties and on combating harassment and human trafficking; and • Provide information to informal and formal women traders on these same regulations
<p>New research is documenting the presence of GBV on agribusiness and tourism, but the extent of the impact on women’s involvement</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commission research on the prevalence of GBV in agribusiness in tourism and how it impacts women’s hiring, retention, and promotion in these enterprises;

<p>in agribusiness and tourism is not clear (Henry and Adams 2018).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Design activities to address workplace discrimination and harassment faced by women wage workers; and • Integrate guidance on gender-equitable hiring, promotion, and retention practices in regional activities in tourism, wildlife management, agribusiness, and customs offices.
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CONCLUSION

There have been many areas of significant progress in raising awareness of gender equality over the past five years. New programs, tools, and data collected on gender equality and women’s empowerment in the East Africa Region have increased understanding of the scope and importance of continued attention to overcoming gender disparities in the region. USAID, with other donors and regional organizations, has made enormous progress in demonstrating the benefits of gender equality and women’s empowerment for development. As reported here, USAID programming, in concert with that of other donors and RIGOs in East Africa, has made particularly strong gains in supporting initiatives that can strengthen women’s empowerment, especially reforms in trade policy, establishing platforms to provide information on market and credit opportunities, expanding access to energy, and resilience.

Furthermore, the statements of the interviewees, the massive growth in the development literature on gender in development, the increased number of gender officers in programs, and increased donor and RIGO programming reflect that gender equality has been widely accepted within the development community as benefiting women, their families and communities, and the wider national and regional social, economic, and political contexts in which they live.

There is increased recognition of the needs of diverse groups of women in terms of age, productive strategies (e.g., as farmers, processors, traders, or pastoralists; wage workers or entrepreneurs), and national and cultural contexts, and related programming should be tailored to meet these needs.

Other conclusions drawn from the analysis of KII data include:

- Challenges remain in overcoming what some interviewees identified as “foundational” or basic types of gender inequality, such as the prevalence of GBV (including, for the purpose of this report, early or child marriage, female genital cutting (FGC), and cross-border trade in women and girls for labor and sex trafficking) as well as specific sectoral barriers. Many gender disparities persist, especially in rural areas and among pastoralists, in literacy and numeracy. These practices and inequalities severely limit many women’s participation in and benefit from programming implemented as part of targeted regional programs such as policy reforms, equitable legislation, and enterprise development. These inequalities have been addressed with some success at the local level through household dialogues and community conversations that engage both men and women.
- Tools such as the Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) Cost Calculator and similar methods to assess the economic consequences of child marriage calculate the economic cost of doing nothing or little to address the foundational barriers faced by many women in the region and which inhibit their economic participation. The original Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) and recent project-level adaptations offer methods to measure and compare levels of women’s

empowerment across countries and interventions. Regional programming could do more to take these calculations under consideration when designing actionable strategies to ensure that they can have an important and positive effect on economic growth and women's empowerment, as well as other health and social sector statistics.

While programs have buttressed the entry of women into market-oriented activities, especially through women's associations and as independent entrepreneurs, it is now time to expand beyond these initial steps. Programming can do more to support women to "dream big" in both resilience and market systems programming, e.g., to start businesses in renewable energy and other resource management, rather than to confine themselves to handicrafts or small-scale trade. While entrepreneurship has become a strong focus of the work of the USAID, RIGOs, and other donors, a gap remains in understanding "what works" to move women's businesses from "emerging" to "established" and small to large.

Continuing and new regional programming can further advance the goals of gender equality and women's empowerment by working in partnership with RIGOs to enhance their projects on gender and cross-border trade and customs, agricultural and environment-oriented entrepreneurship, and land management and governance, and conservation.

I. INTRODUCTION

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Kenya and East Africa (KEA) Regional Mission prepared a Regional Development Cooperation Strategy (RDCS) for 2020–2025 to guide the Mission's transnational and cross-border programming in East Africa. To support that effort, and as required by USAID's guidance in Automated Directives System (ADS) 205 and the Women's Entrepreneurship and Economic Empowerment Act, USAID/KEA contracted Integra Government Services International LLC (Integra), in partnership with Cultural Practice, LLC to prepare the RDCS Gender Analysis. This report presents the combined findings of the literature review and the key informant interviews (KIIs). It builds on these findings to make recommendations for future programming.

I.1 PURPOSE AND SCOPE

This RDCS Gender Analysis seeks to offer a “comprehensive understanding of the macro-level and disparate gender issues, inequalities, constraints, and opportunities across the region, and provide specific recommendations on how USAID/KEA can achieve optimal gender integration, including emphasizing outcomes across different sectors in the facilitation of East Africa's Journey to Self-Reliance.”⁵

The East Africa Region, as defined by USAID, encompasses twelve countries (see Box I) that cover a vast portion of the continent. Individually each of these countries also contains a wide diversity of climate zones, economic activities, and ethnic and religious groups, all of which help to shape gender roles and relationships. Following this literature review, the RDCS Gender Analysis will seek to reflect that diversity, while focusing on the opportunities for regional programming, to achieve the goals of the new RDCS: “A Stable, Prosperous, and Self-Reliant East Africa,” as shown in the Results Framework diagram in Annex II. Attaining this vision is supported through the following Development Objectives (DOs) and Intermediate Results (IRs):

Box I. USAID-defined Priority Countries in the East Africa

Higher priority: Burundi, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Somalia South Sudan, Tanzania, and Uganda

Lower priority: the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Sudan, and Zambia

- DOI: Resilience (Regional Capacity for Resilience Enhanced)
 - IR 1.1 Capacity of Communities, Institutions, and Systems to Jointly Plan for, Respond to, and Recover from Shocks and Threats Strengthened
 - IR 1.2 Regional Food Security Ecosystem Enhanced
 - IR 1.3 Conservation and Management of Transboundary Natural Resources Improved
- DO2: Systems (Capacity of Regional Market Systems Advanced)

⁵ USAID/KEA. Request for Task Order Proposal No. 72061520R00008 – Regional Development Cooperation Strategy Gender Analysis, p. 3 (November 11, 2020).

- IR 2.1 Regional Trade Systems Improved
- IR 2.2 Investment in Targeted Sectors Increased

Current and planned activities operate within a context of gender relations that shapes how women participate and benefit from interventions. For example, gender-based violence (GBV) can be a factor inhibiting women’s participation in regional trade for programs that will be included in activities under IR 2.1: *Regional Trade Systems Improved*. Similarly, ensuring that women’s voices are heard is a governance issue that is reflected in communities’ responses to and recovery from shocks linked to supporting IR 1.1: *Capacity of Communities, Institutions, and Systems to Jointly Plan for, Respond and Recover from Shocks and Threats Strengthened*.

I.2 METHODOLOGY

This RDCS Gender Analysis calls for a literature review and the analysis of data collected from key stakeholders through KII with USAID staff and partners. The methodology used to produce this report follows the guidance of ADS Chapter 205.3.2⁶ to collect data in each of the five domains (see Section I.4). The scope of this study is guided by the DOs and IRs included in the USAID/KEA RDCS Results Framework (see Annex II). It follows ADS 201, which describes the RDCS as encompassing programming that is either cross-border or multi-country and may also include bilateral programming in non-presence countries.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A wide range of documents and online databases were reviewed to collect data relevant to each of these domains including USAID guidance, project reports, and country and regional gender assessments (see Annex 2). Scholarly literature and materials from other international donors, regional institutions, and national government agencies were also reviewed to inform the findings. The report draws primarily on documents within the timeframe of 2016 to 2025, it examines both the changes that have taken place under the previous regional strategy as well as looks to the future under the new RDCS.

The orientation of this literature review presents data that illuminates opportunities for regional and bilateral programming that will support women’s empowerment or the “expansion of people’s ability to make strategic life choices” (Kabeer 1999). The factors that propel empowerment are not simply individual will and effort, but also enabling social conditions initiated through legislative actions and supported by norms and practices that prohibit discrimination and promote equality.

The research and statistical reporting on gender issues in East Africa are now voluminous, and this report reflects only a fraction of the possible topics and data that may be found. While omissions are inevitable, this draft aims to report the most relevant topics and data for new programming under the new RDCS.

⁶ USAID. ADS 205. Integrating Gender Equality and Female Empowerment in USAID’s Program Cycle (<https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/205.pdf>), Revised 01/22/2021.

KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEWS

This report also includes the findings from the interviews with 35 staff of USAID, Regional Intergovernmental Organizations (RIGOs), non-governmental organizations (NGOs) with regional programs, and Implementing Partners.⁷ Potential interviewees were identified in consultation with USAID. A list of respondents interviewed is shown in Annex 3. There were 24 women and 11 men who participated in the interviews. The plurality of women is expected, as most gender advisors at USAID, in regional organizations, and on project staff who were the focus of the study are women, but there are also a few men who hold positions as gender advisors and women who are other types of technical officers. The group represented three units of USAID, at USAID/Washington, USAID/KEA, and six country missions. Other respondents represent an additional 12 institutions from among the non-USAID categories listed above (see Table 2).

TABLE 2: RESPONDENT CHARACTERISTICS																
TYPE OF ORGANIZATION	GENDER		TYPE OF OFFICER			WORK STATION (COUNTRY)										
	MEN	WOMEN	GENDER	OTHER TECH	EXEC	DJIBOUTI	ETHIOPIA	KENYA	MOZAMBIQUE	RWANDA	SOMALIA	SOUTH SUDAN	TANZANIA	UGANDA	UNITED STATES	ZAMBIA
USAID	5	9	8	6	-	-	1	6	-	2	1	1	1	-	2	
RIGO	2	4	3	2	1	2	-	-	-		-	-	2	-	-	2
IMPLEMENTING PARTNERS	4	8	6	4	2	-	-	8	1	3						
OTHER	-	3	1	-	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-
TOTAL	11	24	18	12	5	2	1	14	1	5	1	1	3	2	2	2

Source: Authors' calculations from interview data

The purpose of these interviews was to gain a deeper understanding from stakeholders in the region of gender-based constraints as well as opportunities for women (youth and adults) both currently and in potential future programming. The interviews also raised suggestions for scaling up successful country mission programming at a regional level. Using approved interview guides (see Annex 4), the discussions were also tailored and adapted to the responsibilities of the individual(s) interviewed. Before conducting

⁷ This includes one partial interview with two members of the East African Community Division of Gender and Social Affairs.

Klls, the prospective respondents were also sent a consent statement asking for their agreement to participate and including the appropriate list of questions associated with their job and organization.

The data from the completed interviews were uploaded into Quirkos, a qualitative software program (www.quirkos.com), which uses an intuitive approach suitable for the data contained in the interviews. The text was coded to uncover themes for the content analysis and to organize the material according to variables such as the sex of the interviewee, job category, and organization.

2.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE DATA COLLECTION AND DATA

CONDUCTING VIRTUAL INTERVIEWS

It was not possible to conduct interviews in person because of the travel restrictions in place to reduce the rate of COVID-19 infections. The assignment focused on the countries deemed high priority in the region (Box 1), a total of nine countries. Identifying interviewees, getting their agreement to be interviewed, and scheduling the interviews across this wide region was more time-consuming than anticipated. This was further complicated by taking place during a timeframe that included many organizations' preparations for International Women's Day, in which most of the interviewees were involved. Establishing stable internet connections cut into the time available for a few of the scheduled calls. However, only a few of the prospective respondents did not respond to repeated efforts to contact them and overall coverage of projects, sectors, and organizations included most major actors.

LIMITED COVERAGE

The team realizes that in a region as large as East Africa, the 35 interviews do not reflect a full range of possible experiences addressing gender equality and women's empowerment. The interview data presented is shaped by the composition of the pool of interviewees. The interview data is however consistent with findings from the literature review and does not appear to exhibit major biases.

DIFFERENT DEFINITIONS OF "REGIONAL PROGRAMMING" AMONG PARTNERS

Interviewees' approach to regional programming appears more frequently oriented towards implementing essentially the same activities in multiple countries. This is in contrast with the work conducted by RIGOs that is focused on developing policies for the region as a whole. USAID's regional program also includes activities that involve cross-border and trans-border efforts.

LACK OF ACCESS TO THE COMPLETED RDCS

All respondents, other than those from USAID who were involved in the formulation of the RDCS, were unfamiliar with the content of the RDCS. The assessment team only had access to the Results

Box 2. Gender-based Constraints

GBCs are restrictions on men or women's access to resources or opportunities based on their gender roles or responsibilities, leading to gender disparities. Identifying GBCs builds on the analysis of sex-disaggregated quantitative and qualitative data. For example, both men and women may lack access to land, but it is a GBC if laws restrict women's rights to inherit land because she is a woman (Rubin and Nordehn 2019).

Framework (Annex II), not the full RDCS document. As a result, the proposed recommendations are broader than may be ultimately desired.

I.4 STRUCTURE OF THIS REPORT

This report is a synthesis of information collected through a literature review and interviews with key informants in the region. It is organized according to the five domains described in Table I above to describe the current experiences of women and men in the region, to identify key gender-based constraints (GBCs) (see Box 2) and, to present opportunities that can help to reduce those inequalities and strengthen gender equality and women’s empowerment. The five topic areas, although presented sequentially, are not mutually exclusive. For example, cultural values influence the access that women and men have to productive resources or the attitudes that people have about whether women should become entrepreneurs. The sections are ordered as they are listed in ADS 205.3. The order does not imply prioritization, as the dimensions are intersecting, overlapping, and all are important.

The first section describes some of the main multiple and overlapping systems of global, regional, and national **legal, policy, and institutional frameworks** that inform the regional political, economic, and political activities.

The second section describes the commonalities in **cultural norms and beliefs** that shape many dimensions of gender relationships. Too often “traditional beliefs” are thought to be unchanging. Many cultural beliefs and norms are changing rapidly across many parts of East Africa and will continue to do so. Development programming can build on them to achieve locally relevant development goals (see Box 3).

The next section describes **gender roles, responsibilities, and time use patterns**. It describes both the everyday activities that people engage in daily, as well as the behaviors that occur only infrequently but can fundamentally change their lives, such as patterns of early marriage or GBV.

The fourth section describes **access to and control over assets and resources**. Understanding the constraints that women face in accessing, controlling, and owning assets and productive resources is central to achieving the RDCS DOs. The section presents data on asset-related themes: land, credit and banking, mobile phones, and digital technologies, and energy.

Finally, the last section describes the increasing body of knowledge about **power relations and decision-making**. Research on this topic has grown rapidly over the past few years, not only at the household and community level but as illustrated in industry and regional leadership. Approaches to both the conceptualization and measurement of women’s empowerment are also introduced.

Box 3. Let's Talk About "Tradition"

“People often justify their continued patterns of gendered behavior by saying it is their “tradition.” While both men and women may be strongly committed to following what they believe are long-standing and unchanging practices, cultural history repeatedly reveals that many “traditions” are more changeable and more recent than people think (Ranger 1983). When these patterns of behavior are discriminatory or inequitable, they should be viewed not as inevitable, but as a choice. It is the job of development practitioners to offer different and more equitable choices, and to design incentive structures to encourage people to adopt them” (Quisumbing et al. 2014).

2. FINDINGS ON CRITICAL GENDER ISSUES IN EAST AFRICA

2.1 LAWS, POLICIES, AND INSTITUTIONS

The East Africa region is diverse, and the different geographies, climates, and physical resources are paralleled by variations in socio-cultural and political structures and practices, including gender relations. An overview of key indicators of gender equality and inequality (see Annex 2) illustrates the gaps not only between women and men in areas of political, economic, and social achievement, but also the gaps in the achievement of gender equality across different countries in the region. UNDP's Human Development Index 2020 reports indicate unfathomable differences in maternal mortality in neighboring countries, with a rate of 295 deaths per 100,000 in Sudan compared to 1,150 deaths per 100,000 in neighboring South Sudan. Gaps also differ by country across sectors. The Global Gender Gap Index 2020 scores Rwanda with an overall figure of 0.791 (1.0 would reflect gender parity), a number that is well above the global average of 0.685. Yet while Rwanda's score in education is an impressive 0.957, the highest among the East African countries in the index, it scores 0.563 in political participation, which, while above average and the highest score in the region illustrates the uneven path of gender equality.

Supportive legislation has a critical role in establishing the basis for women's empowerment. Although laws and policies, whether at the international, regional, or national level cannot on their own ensure gender equality and women's empowerment, they are a foundational step to creating the enabling conditions for empowerment. While Figure 1 focuses on legislation reform related to employment in agriculture, the theory of change illustrated is relevant across sectors.

Figure 1. Legal Reform Improves Women's Economic Opportunity



Source: World Bank 2018

This section looks at some of the legislative instruments that support key dimensions of gender equality, including anti-discrimination and anti-violence conventions, as well as some policies on employment and trade at the international, regional, and national levels.

INTERNATIONAL CONVENTIONS AND AGREEMENTS

All, or nearly all, the countries in the region have signed international conventions and agreements that have full or partial components supporting gender equality. These affirm the rights of young and adult women to equal representation and access across a range of sectoral issues. Among the most important is the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), which established a “bill of rights” for women with comprehensive guidelines now ratified by 189 governments. Only Somalia has not ratified it within the East Africa Region. Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) No. 5 explicitly calls for gender equality and reinforces the anti-discrimination objectives of CEDAW.⁸ A total of 193 member governments of the United Nations have adopted the SDGs. The International Labour Organization (ILO) establishes standards affecting workers (both formal and informal) and employers. The ILO’s Equal Remuneration Convention dates back to 1951 and has been ratified by 173 countries, including seven of the nine priority countries in the region; Somalia and South Sudan are the two exceptions.⁹ The UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women was introduced in 1993 and was the first international agreement to address violence against women. Its guidance offers a framework for national and international action. It was adopted without a vote at the United Nations, indicating its acceptance by all member countries.

Today ten European nations score 100 in the Women, Business, and the Law Index, indicating gender equality in areas such as entrepreneurship, property rights, and labor law. (World Bank 2021). In countries across East Africa, national laws may differ from agreed-upon international principles, permitting discrimination to continue. For example, in Tanzania, there is a gap in constitutional provisions that allow customary laws on inheritance to supersede the statutory laws that support gender equality. In other countries, where the agreements have been enshrined in national law, governments may lack the desire, the financial resources, or the ability to implement the laws they have, permitting the perpetuation of gender disparities.

CONTINENTAL AND EAST AFRICAN REGIONAL LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORKS AND POLICIES

Countries in the USAID-defined East Africa region are not all members of the same set of organizations, creating different overlapping authorities with varying adherence to gender equality. Membership in some key organizations is shown in Table 2. The data presented suggest that, depending on the areas of impact of each organization, support of gender equality at the level of the African Union (AU) programming has the potential to influence all countries in the region, while changes affecting member states of the East African Community would reach a smaller population, even if the impact is proportionately greater because of its targeting. This trade-off should be considered in decisions related to any support to the organizations in the future.

⁸ <http://www.un.org.cn/info/6/620.html>

⁹ https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:11300:0::NO:11300:PI1300_INSTRUMENT_ID:312245

TABLE 3: NATIONAL MEMBERSHIP IN REGIONAL PROGRAMS AND INSTITUTIONS						
COUNTRY	COMESA			EAC	IGAD	AU-IBAR
	Members	Free Trade Area	Seed Harmonization Implementation Plan	Members and Customs Union	Members	Members
BURUNDI	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO (DRC)	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
DJIBOUTI	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
ETHIOPIA	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
KENYA	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
RWANDA	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
SOMALIA	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
SOUTH SUDAN	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
SUDAN	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
TANZANIA	No	No	No	Yes		Yes
UGANDA	Yes		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
ZAMBIA	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes

Note: In defining its work in the East Africa region, USAID has identified higher and lower priority countries. The lower priority countries are shown in the above table in blue. Empty cells denote a lack of participation in the regional programs and institutions.

Sources: <https://www.comesa.int/>; <https://www.eac.int/>; <https://igad.int/>; and <http://www.au-ibar.org/en>

Organizations should be accountable to their members, but regional intergovernmental organizations lack enforcement capability over their gender policies. They are, however, increasingly playing an important role in the region by initiating programming to strengthen women’s opportunities. Currently, many of these programs are directed toward supporting women in agricultural businesses as suppliers, entrepreneurs, and wage laborers, and building financial inclusion. Another important component is building women’s leadership in national and institutional governance. The AU’s Gender Parity Project, for example, aims to achieve gender equality across the AU itself. Its goal is the equal representation of women and men across the AU staff by 2025 (AU n.d.).

TRADE POLICIES

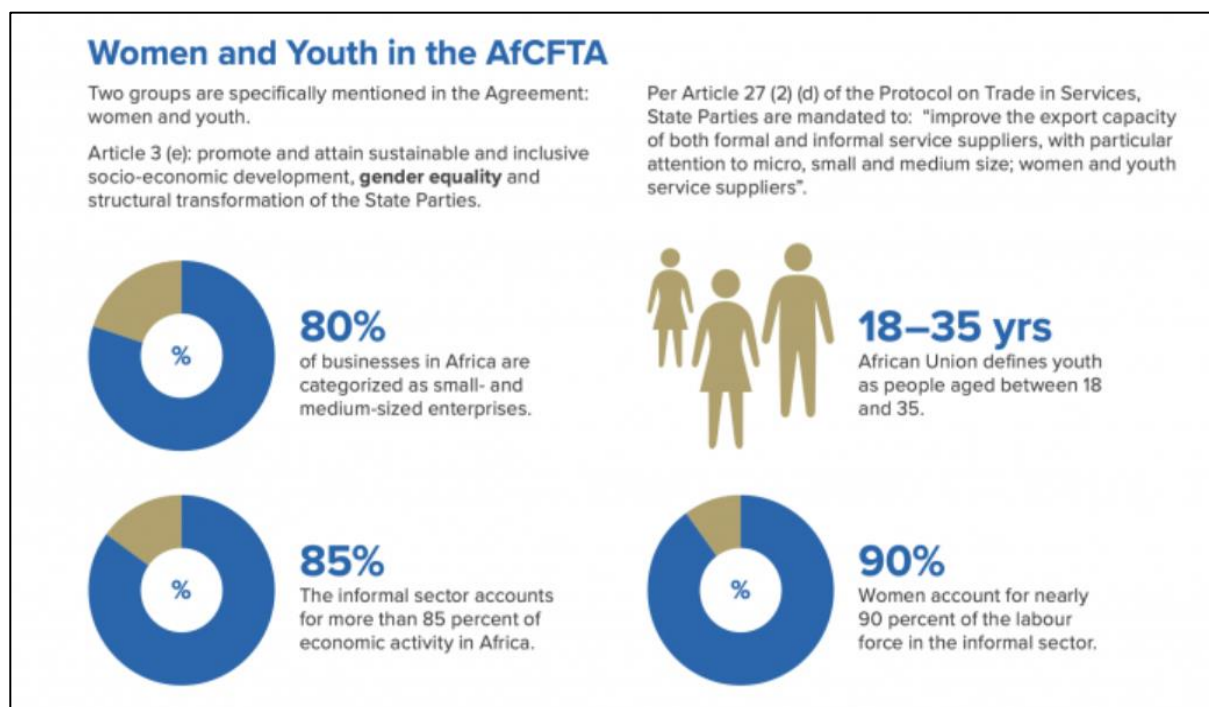
The African Continental Free Trade Area (AfCTA), a set of agreements to establish duty-free trading of goods and services across African borders, was initiated in 2018 and began operations on January 1,

2021. Although 54 of the 55 member nations signed the enabling documents, with Eritrea the one exception, 20 had still not ratified the agreement by February 2021. It is in effect in the 35 countries that have ratified the AfCTA. Questions remain about the way that AfCTA will interact with other regional economic communities, including the East African Community and COMESA operating in East Africa. The AfCTA will likely take precedence, but some regional provisions may remain in effect (IISD 2021).

It is expected that the AfCTA, because of its duty-free trading, will have a significant positive impact on women traders and workers in the informal economy. Article Three of the agreement specifically calls out the promotion and attainment of inclusive development and gender equality (see Figure 2).

A theme among the interviewees working in the area of trade and trade policy, for example, staff among the Regional Economic Commissions and projects such as Trademark East Africa spoke about the importance of addressing women’s lack of knowledge about trade policies, such as the EAC policy changes and the launch this year of AfCFTA, as well as about access to services.

Figure 2. Women and Youth in the AfCTA



Source: AfCFTA Secretariat (2020).

REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS’ GENDER-RELATED POLICIES AND PROGRAMMING

In the past five years, most regional intergovernmental organizations and other programs have established, updated, and expanded their policies and institutional infrastructure promoting the integration of gender issues into their work and areas of focus. Additionally, many have created staff positions to manage gender and social inclusion (see Table 4).

TABLE 4: GENDER POLICIES OF REGIONAL PROGRAMS AND INSTITUTIONS

ORGANIZATION AND STRATEGIES/POLICIES	SELECTED GENDER-FOCUSED PROGRAMS
<p>AGRA</p> <p>AGRA Gender Strategy (2019)</p> <p>Policy Program Gender Mainstreaming Strategy (2011)</p>	<p>Value4HER Connect: Africa’s first digital marketplace for women agri-entrepreneurs</p> <p>Partnership for Inclusive Agriculture in Africa (PIATA) is working in 11 countries including Ethiopia, Uganda, Kenya, Rwanda, and Tanzania¹⁰ to bring innovative approaches to regional food systems and private sector engagement</p> <p>Annual “Deal Room” offering match-making opportunities for women’s businesses and investors</p> <p>Monthly “Talk Corner” for women’s businesses</p>
<p>AFRICAN UNION²</p> <p>Agenda 2063, Aspiration 6</p> <p>AU Strategy for Gender Equality & Women’s Empowerment (2018-2028)</p> <p>African Union Gender Policy (2009)</p> <p>Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA) in July 2004</p> <p>Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)</p>	<p>The AU Strategy for Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment has six pillars:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women’s Economic Empowerment and Sustainable Development • Social justice, Protection, and Women’s Rights • Leadership and Governance • Gender Management Systems • Women, Peace, and Security • Media and ICTs <p>The AU fund the “Fund for African Women,” which provides grants to member countries that in turn support NGOs, communities, and programming to benefit women.</p> <p>Financial inclusion is now a focus of the AU approach to building gender equality, especially around the creation of big businesses owned by women, moving away from microenterprises.</p>
<p>Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA)³</p> <p>Framework for the Comprehensive Support for Women and Youth Cross Border Traders in the COMESA Region (2018)</p>	<p>COMESA’s support of gender equality seeks to facilitate intra-regional trade, especially for women. In November 2019 it launched the 50 Million African Women Speak Platform (50MAWS), a digital “one-stop-shop for the information needs of African women in business” via WomenConnect (http://www.womenconnect.org) using social media accessible on mobile apps. It now operates in 38 African countries, including most of the East African Region – launching most recently in</p>

¹⁰ PIATA is jointly funded by the Rockefeller Foundation, the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, USAID, and the UK Foreign, Commonwealth & Development Office (<https://agra.org/piata/>).

<p>COMESA Gender Policy (2016)</p> <p>Regional Strategy for Mainstreaming Gender in Agriculture and Climate Change – Strategic Framework (2011 – 2015)</p> <p>COMESA Gender Mainstreaming Strategy (2008-2012)</p> <p>Gender Policy (2002)</p>	<p>Ethiopia in March 2021. The program is jointly implemented by COMESA, the EAC, and the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and is funded by the African Development Bank.</p> <p>FEMCOM was renamed in 2020 to “Federation of National Associations of Women in Business” (COMFWB).</p> <p>COMESA’s Gender and Social Affairs unit also supports:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Youth Engagement in Democratic Governance and Socio-economic Development • A Social Charter that provides for the “promotion of human development, social justice and the well-being of all COMESA citizens” • A Health Framework
<p>East African Community⁴</p> <p>Regional Strategy for Promoting Women in Business for Socio-Economic Development, 2015 – 2025</p> <p>EAC Gender Policy 2018</p> <p>EAC Gender Strategic Plan (2011-2015)</p>	<p>The EAC’s attention to gender is a component of its Gender, Community Development & Civil Society. Its Gender Policy takes a rights-based approach to equity in resources and to work against discrimination and negative discrimination against women. As a regional leader, the EAC is focusing on building opportunities for women in leadership at all levels.</p> <p>It also hosts the East African Women in Business Platform, a forum that brings together business and professional women through connecting apex organizations of businesswomen (including associations of women formal and informal cross-border traders. It currently represents over 20,000 business and professional women in the region.</p>
<p>IGAD⁵</p> <p>Regional Strategy and Action Plan for Mainstreaming Gender in Disaster Risk Management and Climate Change Adaptation (2020-2030)</p> <p>Gender Policy and Strategy [updated] (2012-2020)</p> <p>Gender Policy and Strategy (2004)</p>	<p>In addition to updating its Gender Policy and Strategy, IGAD has strengthened its internal approaches to gender integration with the development of tools and guidance for staff to ensure attention to gender in all its activities. These include a Gender Management System Handbook and other Gender Mainstreaming Customized Tools and Guidelines. Trainings have been held for both IGAD staff and representatives of IGAD member states.</p> <p>IGAD also implements a Land Rights and Governance Program that was originally housed in the AU but was transferred to IGAD in 2018. It works with member countries to institutionalize land rights for women in government policies. There is also attention to land issues among pastoral communities.</p>

Sources: 1. <https://agra.org/>; 2. <https://au.int/en/>; 3. <https://www.comesa.int/>; <https://www.comesa.int/femcom-adopts-new-name-appoints-new-board/>; and www.wommenconnect.org; 4. <https://www.eac.int/>; 5. <https://igad.int/>

CREATING AN ENABLING ENVIRONMENT FOR WOMEN’S EMPOWERMENT

One legislative area that is not explicitly on the agenda of the regional organizations is establishing and protecting the legal identity of girls and women. Proof of personal identification through

documentation, whether paper-based or digital, allows women to officially “exist” in local or national legal systems. An identity document, such as a national identity card or a passport, offers access to health services, education, political participation, financial services—including the option to open a bank account or apply for a loan, or other social protection programs (Hanmer and Elefante 2019). However, it can be difficult for women and girls to obtain “fixed” and “economic” identity documents and these legal documents, starting with a birth certificate, are a critical entry point for social inclusion. SDG 16 aims to provide every person with a legal identity, including birth registration, by 2030. Table 5 shows current levels of coverage in East Africa.

Mobile phones can help to build digital identities. Critical economic services—market information, banking, and product payments—are increasingly delivered by phone and rely on a trusted digital identity. Furthermore, even when access to a fixed identity is achieved, digital or not, small farmers, processors, and traders find they also need to have an “economic” identity that can document a credit history, business transactions, or farm size and location. Yet women are doubly disadvantaged by their lower access to phones than men (GSMA 2017).

TABLE 5: NATIONAL ID COVERAGE IN AFRICAN COUNTRIES (%)			
COUNTRY	SHARE OF POPULATION (AGE 15+) WITH A NATIONAL ID	SHARE OF WOMEN (15+) WITH A NATIONAL ID	GENDER DIFFERENCE IN NATIONAL ID OWNERSHIP
BOTSWANA	96.6	96.23	-0.52
MALAWI	95	>90	N/A
NIGERIA	47	42	10.64
RWANDA	90.63	89.37	2.68
UGANDA	81.38	80.53	1.76
ZAMBIA	86.57	85.09	2.91

Source: GSMA (2019)

Another gap in regional laws and policies relates to human labor trafficking and the sex trafficking of young women. The region’s center for trafficking is Kenya, through which women travel from neighboring countries to the Middle East. Unlike other countries such as the Philippines and Bangladesh which also send labor to countries in the Middle East, many countries in East Africa do not have supporting legislation that allows them to negotiate with Middle Eastern countries on trafficking issues. Since 2014, when Kenya banned labor exportation to Middle Eastern nations because of trafficking by criminal networks, no policy has been established to address foreign employment that is exploitative. Research supported by the European Union (EU) concluded last year that “many gaps [in laws] still enable criminals to continue operating in a lucrative, quasi-regulated market.” A recent investigative report found that unlicensed agents used Instagram accounts to post photos of young women who were then marketed to employers in the Middle East where they were frequently mistreated (McQue 2021). Unfortunately, trafficking is typically treated as a human rights issue rather than a criminal one. The number of people recruited and sent to the Middle East countries by unlicensed employment agencies is not well documented. Between 2017 and 2019, 12 such entities were found to have sent 2,000 Kenyans

overseas (Daghar 2020). The economic costs are not calculated or understood as a foundational barrier to the region's economic prosperity.

As a regional, cross-border trade issue, there are clear entry points for USAID/KEA's regional programming to address labor trafficking:

- Expand efforts on policy and through training, such as already addressed in TradeMark's work on reducing sexual harassment at the borders, to educate customs officers about the signs of labor trafficking, and to know the proper enforcement options and reporting channels;
- Work with the RIGOs to elevate this issue as one in need of legal and policy reform in the region; and
- Commission a study, building on that of the EU mentioned above, to gain a better understanding of the scope and cost of labor trafficking across the region.

FGC, also known as Female Genital Mutilation (FGM), also has implications for cross-border trade. There is a high prevalence of FGC among women 15 to 49 in pastoral communities, reaching 98 percent in Somalia, with Ethiopia at 65 percent, Kenya at 21 percent, falling to 10 percent in Tanzania, and only 0.3 percent in Uganda. There may be a growing trend for many of the pastoral groups to take girls and women across these borders to have the surgery performed (Hyun, Okolo, and Munene 2020).

There is a problematic lack of harmonization between international agreements on gender equality and national policies on land rights, inheritance of property, GBV, and early marriage. and enforcement of existing. An important theme in the literature, these issues were also emphasized by regional stakeholders. For both, strengthening enforcement is critical, since the physical, social, and economic costs of GBV, when aggregated cross-nationally, seriously impede the progress of USAID's regional DOs.

Box 4. Types of Human Trafficking Found in Kenya

- Exploitation has both international and domestic aspects, as foreigners who come to Kenya from neighboring countries are made to work in Kenya, while both Kenyans and foreigners are trafficked abroad with promises of better jobs.
- Children and young adults are forced to work as domestic servants, or in agriculture (khat cultivation in Western Kenya), gold mining, fishing, cattle herding, street vending, and begging.
- Teenaged boys from pastoral communities are forced into cattle rustling, while both boys and girls from all types of communities are exploited as commercial sex workers, including sex tourism in larger cities and on the coast.

Source: Daghar (2020); US Department of State (2020)

2.2 CULTURAL NORMS AND BELIEFS

Cultural norms and beliefs can be either positive or negative and change over time, and while these changes may take time, the shifts toward gender equality are noticeable and ongoing (see Box 4).

Positive cultural norms and beliefs that are widely shared across East Africa include respect for community and family elders and a high value on social relationships and family loyalty. However, men and women were not always considered to be of equal status. Thus, much research on gender across East Africa has focused on identifying the discriminatory norms and beliefs that can prevent women from achieving a full and productive life. These are often framed as ingrained beliefs about women’s subordinate status in relation to men’s more powerful positions. As noted earlier in Box 3, it is important to recognize that cultural beliefs and norms change, and while these changes may take time, the shifts toward gender equality are noticeable and ongoing.

Shifts in norms and beliefs around polygyny, the practice of several wives sharing one husband, are a good example of cultural change. Though already less frequent in East Africa than West Africa, rates of polygyny in the region are continuing to decline, being observed more by older women than younger ones. Despite the shifts, polygyny remains a valid form of marriage in the region (see Table6). Most researchers have found polygyny to be associated with poorer infant and child health (Smith-Greeaway and Trinitapoli 2014), higher levels of sexually transmitted diseases, as well as greater levels of IPV (Ahinkorah 2021) than in monogamous unions. Some, however, have argued that polygyny can be “positively associated with food security and child health within communities” and suggest that aggregated analyses miss ways that local contexts can make polygyny more a positive choice for women (Lawson et al. 2015).

TABLE 6: NATIONAL PREVALENCE OF POLYGyny (DHS DATA)		
COUNTRY	PERCENT OF MARRIED WOMEN (15-49 YEARS) WITH CO-WIVES	PERCENT OF MARRIED MEN (15-49 YEARS) WITH MORE THAN ONE WIFE
BURUNDI	7	2
ETHIOPIA	11	5
KENYA	11	6
TANZANIA	18	9
UGANDA	25	13

Sources: various¹¹

This section discusses three cultural norms that have negative behavioral consequences: GBV and two specific expressions of it— early marriage, and Female Genital Cutting (FGC).

USAID defines GBV as:

¹¹ Burundi (<https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR335/FR335.pdf>); Ethiopia (<https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR328/FR328.pdf>); Kenya (<https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR308/FR308.pdf>); Tanzania (<https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR321/FR321.pdf>); Uganda (<https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR333/FR333.pdf>)

Violence directed at an individual based on his or her biological sex, gender identity, or perceived adherence to socially defined norms of masculinity and femininity. It includes physical, sexual, and psychological abuse; threats; coercion; arbitrary deprivation of liberty; and economic deprivation, whether occurring in public or private life. GBV takes on many forms and can occur throughout the life cycle. Types of gender-based violence can include female infanticide; child sexual abuse; sex trafficking and forced labor; sexual coercion and abuse; neglect; domestic violence; elder abuse; and harmful traditional practices such as early and forced marriage, “honor” killings, and female genital mutilation/cutting (USAID 2014:3).

GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE (GBV)

GBV has long been recognized by NGOs as a fundamental problem inhibiting the full participation of women in East African society. It is increasingly being addressed through legislation and enforcement, although legislation across the region varies in the types of violence addressed, and enforcement in the region remains a problem even where strong laws are in force. GBV “is often considered a ‘tip of the iceberg or silent epidemic’ as [survivors] are hesitant to reveal their experience of violence” (Muluneh et al 2020).

Figure 3 depicts the six most common forms of GBV experienced with intimate partners (IPV) and family members, as well as in public (USAID n.d.). The World Health Organization (2013) that 30 percent of women worldwide experience IPV in their lifetimes. Since then, there has been a measurable decline in the acceptance of IPV in 75 percent of countries that have trend data. Muluneh et al. (2020) conducted a meta-review on GBV in Sub-Saharan Africa. The IPV prevalence rate overall was found to be 44 percent and non-IPV was 14 percent, with emotional (referred to as psychological in Figure 3) violence comprised the largest component, followed by physical and sexual.

Figure 3. Forms of GBV



Source: <https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/GBV-Infographic.pdf>

A comprehensive review prepared for USAID (Meija et al. 2014) on the linkage of GBV and Women’s Economic Empowerment (WEE) pointed out that sensitivities on both topics often makes it difficult to collect accurate data about its prevalence, and many studies, including the well-regarded studies conducted as part of the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) report on attitudes and knowledge. Looking at the intersection of these topics, the report found that:

Some studies indicate that economic empowerment improves women’s status and reduces vulnerability to GBV, other studies have shown that improved access to income and livelihood assets among women is associated with higher reporting of increased conflict and GBV (Meija et al. 2014: vii).

The report also notes that the findings are often both context and project specific, since project implementation can influence GBV impacts. Household methodologies, which engage both spouses and sometimes grandparents in discussions around both a project’s technical content and gender-awareness training, appear to be an encouraging model for reducing the acceptance of GBV in the household (see Box 5).

Box 5. Reducing GBV through Household Dialogue

A number of IFAD projects have promoted the adoption of household methodologies to encourage members of smallholder farming families to agree on common livelihood strategies that use and benefit all household members in Uganda, Zambia, and elsewhere. These methods “are powerful tools for improving productivity, efficiently allocating household resources, strengthening food security, and reducing violence.” The projects found that violence was reduced as a result of growing respect and collaboration among members (USAID 2014: 27).

FEMALE GENITAL CUTTING (FGC)

FGC, or female genital mutilation, takes several forms, none of which have any health benefits and all of which have the potential for causing health problems and emotional trauma. It is a form of GBV. Figure 4 shows that the prevalence of FGC across the African continent varies, with rates of between ten percent and 80 percent in the East African Region. The costs of FGC can be high, causing life-long burdens on women and on the health systems that serve them, and in severe cases, reducing their engagement in productive economic activities and resulting in social isolation. The World Health Organization, in partnership with the Human Reproductive Program of the United Nations Development Program, created an “FGM Cost Calculator,” which can illustrate the comparative values of the costs of “business as usual” with those of putting preventative strategies into operation. Figure 5 illustrates the output for Kenya, a country with a relatively low (under 25 percent) overall rate of FGC, showing that at current prevalence rates with a growing population the costs to the economy could be over US\$31 million.

Figure 4. Prevalence of FGC in Africa

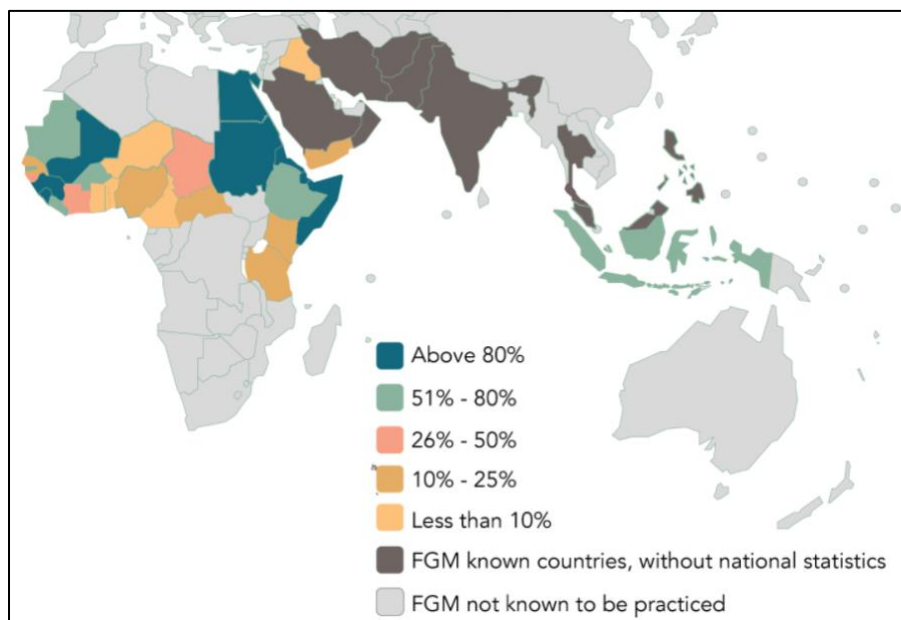
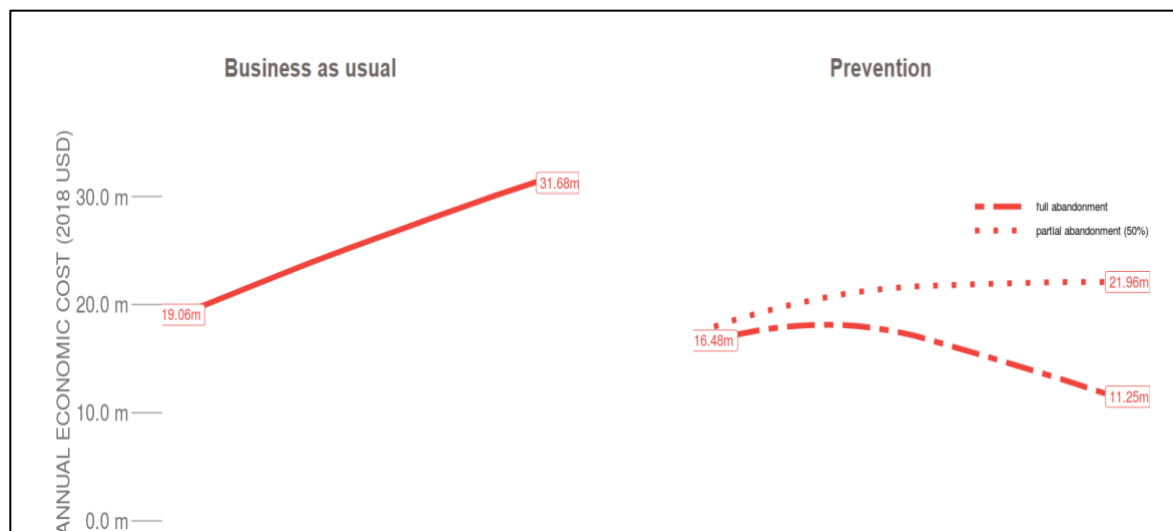


Figure 5. Comparative Healthcare Costs Related to FGC



Source: <https://srhr.org/fgmcost/cost-calculator/>

EARLY MARRIAGE

Eliminating early marriage (i.e., a marriage taking place with a participant under 18 years of age) is covered under the Sustainable Development Goals and considered a form of GBV. It remains a serious issue in the East African Region, even among countries that have signed anti-discrimination conventions such as CEDAW, or the African Youth Charter (2006). Article 8 of the charter specifies, “Young men and women of full age who enter into marriage shall do so based on their free consent and shall enjoy equal rights and responsibilities.” Some countries legally allow girls to marry at younger than 18; Tanzania, for example, allows marriage with the consent of the parents at age 15 for girls and 18 for boys. This contravenes provisions in international agreements that Tanzania has agreed to, such as CEDAW, both by allowing marriage below the accepted age of 18, as well as by allowing different practices according to gender.

Early marriage can be a coping strategy for a family with daughters to reduce the costs of their care and/or to receive wealth from the groom’s family as part of the marriage negotiations.¹² The practice has proven to be a loss to the girls themselves, often by cutting off their education or creating physical injury, such as fistula, as a result of intercourse and pregnancy at a young age. Furthermore, it places barriers to empowerment as girls who marry early earn, or control,

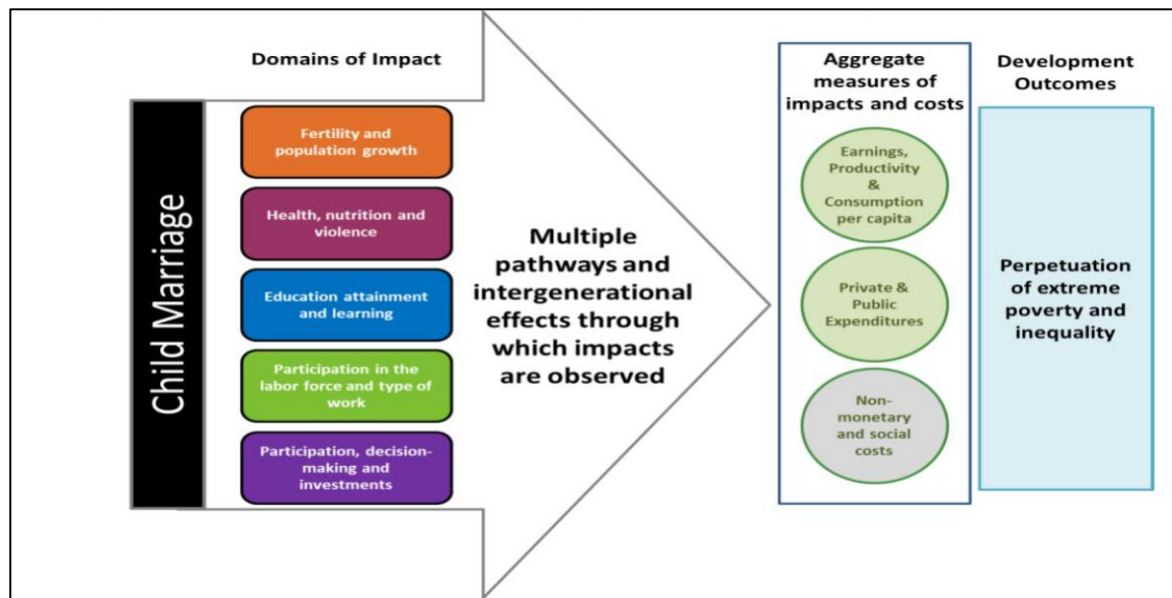
Box 6. The Convention on the Rights of the Child

This agreement emphasizes the need for full and informed consent for marriage, and notes that children do not have the capability to provide such full and informed consent. This is one of the reasons why the age of 18 is recommended as the minimum age for marriage. However, while many countries have adopted legislation on the minimum age at marriage, often adopting 18 years as the age threshold, enforcement of the legislation often remains weak (Wodon et al. 2017: 24).

¹² This is not a dowry, although it is often mislabeled as such. A dowry involves a pre-inheritance transfer of wealth within the bride’s family, from the parents to their daughter.

less income, often limiting their say over household decisions and their ability to invest in their children’s education, health, and nutrition.

Figure 6. Framework for Assessing the Economic Impacts of Child Marriage



Source: Wodon et al. 2017

There is also a cost to future generations and the economy as a whole to the current rates of child marriage and benefits to reducing them (see Figure 6). Estimates are that “by 2030, gains in annual welfare from lower population growth could reach more than \$500 billion annually. In Uganda, the benefit from reduced fertility would be equivalent to \$2.4 billion” (Wodon et al 2017).

The interviews confirmed that an important shift over the past five years has been an increased awareness of GBV in sectoral programming. Interviewees also raised the pros and cons of gender integration, particularly for GBV-related activities, into other sectoral programming compared to stand-alone projects. While there was wide support for integrating attention to GBV across all projects at all levels, with one respondent stating, “Integration is powerful and should be promoted,” the same person said on the question of GBV, that targeted efforts seemed to have stronger results—“We don’t always see much in the way of results from integrated programs—sometimes it is good to have one standalone project for focus.”

The Regional Learning Center curriculum of the Young African Leaders Initiative (YALI) project includes a module that addresses gender issues generally and GBV specifically as it occurs domestically and sexual harassment in the workplace. The problem of normalizing violence through the media is also covered.

One example provided was of a program that encouraged connections between local civil society organizations and national governments that educated community members about the criminal status as well as the health consequences of GBV. It fostered more participation than other efforts that were integrated into health or agricultural activities.

The interviewees also mentioned that women frequently encountered discriminatory attitudes. This was reported as occurring in many environments: within households and communities, in public spaces such as markets and border crossings, and professional spaces.

Discrimination was both explicit and implicit. In households and communities, it can take the form of restricting girls from attending school or negotiating for them to be married at a young age. Several respondents spoke specifically to the continuation of social norms held by men that restricted women's control over and ownership of land. Two different technical officers noted that these beliefs could interfere with attendance at trainings or support around building entrepreneurship, "As men feel they are in charge of family land, and it can be difficult to convince men to allow women to [use the land differently] and go into business." Another interviewee noted that even agreements around the use of community land for women-led activities could be rescinded. In one situation a project expected to shift title management of 60 hectares of land to a women's group, but the community leaders ultimately blocked the transfer.

The work of PowerAfrica has explicitly aimed to address social norms around professional women working in energy-related fields. The East Africa Energy Program works at multiple levels—policy, energy supply, and networking—and noted that despite their successes, they continue to see bias against women in the sector, particularly against women holding high-level leadership positions. Respondents working on regional trade-related activities from COMESA, the Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa (AGRA), TradeMark East Africa, the East African Women in Business Platform (EAWiBP), and others also reported on the continued limitations experienced by women in business. Each of these activities has a somewhat different focus but fighting against negative social norms and attitudes about women in business is a strong justification for developing these platforms to spread information about new trade agreements and policies, market and investment opportunities, and credit facilities.

Social norms that maintain gender inequality continue to be strong in some pastoral communities. Work in the Afar Region of Ethiopia documents how these beliefs limit not only women's management of resources, but also their ability to engage in reliance strategies (Balehey, Tesfay, and Balehegn 2018).

Several interviewees spoke to how projects can often achieve real change in social norms when they introduce women to activities they have not previously done or when they encourage men and women to work together. The African Wildlife Federation, for example, has an activity that trains women as wildlife scouts and reports that the women have been accepted even in areas such as Masai Mara, where gender roles can be fairly rigid. With community outreach to encourage broader sensitization among young women and their families and attention to ensure workplace security, this activity has the potential to be replicated and scaled in the region. The Coastal Resilience Climate Change Project funded by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) project in Mozambique, for example, offered gender-sensitization training to staff and encouraged both men and women to participate in conservation and livelihood activities. Project staff reported that they were able to increase the involvement of women in district level advisory groups and on water committees.

2.3 GENDER ROLES, RESPONSIBILITIES, AND TIME USE

Many men and women across the region continue to follow gender-differentiated roles. These patterns appear in education and employment, as well as in intrahousehold labor patterns. In some cases, this

differentiation is upheld by legislation while in others it reflects the socio-cultural expectations of families and communities.

EDUCATION

In the region, South Sudan is the only country in which fewer than 80 girls are enrolled for every 100 boys. Gender parity has been achieved in primary school enrolment, but disparities increase at higher education levels. Generally, “[W]omen are under-represented at senior levels within the international organizations that shape much of the global dialogue on education” (UNESCO Global Education Monitoring Report Team 2018: 21).

Although in some countries more women graduating from university than men, they are less represented in science and technology fields. In general, women are less than half of agricultural researchers employed in government, academia, and non-profit organizations, although the proportions vary across countries. According to the most recent figures in 2015, across 39 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, 27 percent of researchers were women, and their proportion declines in higher-level positions (UNESCO Global Education Monitoring Report Team 2018). Still, women researcher totals increased “in both absolute and relative terms between 2008 and 2014—and in 2014, an average of 24 percent of full-time equivalent researchers in a sample of 40 African countries” were women (ASTI 2017) as shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7: PERCENT OF WOMEN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCHERS RELATIVE TO MEN				
COUNTRY	IN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH POSITIONS	WITH B.SC. DEGREES	WITH M.SC. DEGREES	WITH PH.D. DEGREES
BURUNDI	15.2	17.8	17.27	1.3
ETHIOPIA	10.5	10.19	11.5	7.8
KENYA	29.8	34.9	34.0	23.2
RWANDA	23.7	18.2	26.9	15.3
TANZANIA	29.4	30.7	32.9	21.9
UGANDA	29.9	37.8	33.8	20.7

Note: No information was available for Djibouti, Somalia, or South Sudan.

Source: <https://asti.cgiar.org/uganda/gender/scoreboard>

EMPLOYMENT

The difference in both levels of education and the subjects of women’s degrees, in concert with some remaining legal barriers and social attitudes, shapes sex-segmentation in the labor force. For example, women continue to be highly overrepresented in lower-skilled jobs in health, e.g., among community health workers, nurses, and other health aides, while underrepresented among higher-skilled positions as physicians and surgeons (UNESCO Global Education Monitoring Report Team 2018).

Generally, lifting restrictions on women’s mobility or work outside the household as well as obtaining rights to sign contracts and open bank accounts are all associated with increasing women’s formal labor force participation, increasing their incomes, and leading to strengthened economic empowerment as illustrated in Figure 1 on page ten. Reductions in these areas of gender inequality are also linked to higher economic growth nationally (Hyland, Djankov, and Goldberg 2019). This relationship is depicted in Table 8.

TABLE 8: WOMEN'S LEGAL EQUALITY AND FORMAL LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION										
ECONOMY	MOBILITY	WORKPLACE	PAY	MARRIAGE	PARENTHOOD	ENTREPRENEURSHIP	ASSETS	PENSION	WOMEN'S LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION	WBL PENSION SCORE
BURUNDI	100	100	75	60	40	75	60	75	73.1	81
DJIBOUTI	100	100	50	20	60	100	40	75	68.1	51
ETHIOPIA	100	100	25	80	20	75	100	75	71.9	73
KENYA	100	100	100	100	40	50	80	75	80.6	72
RWANDA	100	100	75	80	20	75	100	75	78.1	84
SOMALIA	75	50	50	20	40	75	40	25	46.9	22
SOUTH SUDAN	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	71
TANZANIA	100	100	100	80	60	75	60	100	84.4	80
UGANDA	75	100	100	80	40	75	40	75	73.1	67

Source: World Bank 2020: <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.FE.ZS>

Note: Labor Force Participation Rate, Female (Percent of Female Population Age 15+) (Modeled ILO Estimate)

The juxtaposition of the scores on legal reform related to the workplace with labor force participation figures on the right of the table illustrates that legal reforms are necessary but not sufficient conditions for ensuring equitable levels of formal employment for women. Somalia, for example, meets nearly half of the suggested reforms, but only 22 percent of women are employed. Further, the 22 percent figure reflects only the quantity of women employed and not the quality, level, or satisfaction of their employment.

Unfortunately, some reports on legal issues and employment figures (e.g., Hyland, Djankov, and Goldberg 2019), do not address the impact of legislation on agricultural work because so much of agricultural employment is informal and not directly affected by legal reforms.

TIME ALLOCATION

Women across the region experience time poverty—where individuals do not have enough time for rest and leisure—as a result of the expected and actual distribution of their productive, domestic, and community tasks. Time allocation studies repeatedly show that women spend more hours working per day than do men. This time burden can limit women’s abilities to engage in new development opportunities or require trade-offs between increasing time spent on productive activities and nutrition. When girls are asked to participate in adult women’s care responsibilities, it can reduce the time they have available to go to school or to do their schoolwork. Finally, the burden of work without time to rest can create physical and mental health issues (Giurge and Whillans 2020).

Despite the real hardship of time poverty, in some situations, women also report their willingness to spend time on activities that will have positive outcomes for their families. In Mozambique, women involved in a Land O’Lakes dairy project reported having to spend additional time on feeding their cows but found it worthwhile because they were able to sell some milk to earn income and to give milk to their children (Johnson et al. 2013).

As the previous example shows, time allocation and labor burden are intertwined and can be partly addressed through technology (Box 6). In facing climate variability, solutions that strengthen resilience need to be attentive to women’s existing labor burdens at home and in the field, offering affordable, labor-reducing technologies. Similarly, new programming can create digital platforms and support mobile technologies to link women and youth producers with processors and other buyers to circumvent mobility and insecurity constraints.

There is agreement among stakeholders that regional programming has an important opportunity to shape new definitions of gender roles through regional and national legislation as well as institutional policies. Changing customs regulations that ease the time spent at the border by both formal and informal traders (women as well as men) can influence gender roles, responsibilities, and time use.

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Time poverty was identified as a significant constraint to women’s pathway to empowerment. It was mentioned as it relates to women’s health and the health of their families, as well as restricting women’s opportunities to take up other productive activities, including participating in and benefitting from USAID and other government, or NGO-sponsored program activities. Many respondents note that lack

Box 7. Benefits of Reducing Women's Time Burdens

World Bank research indicates that reducing time burdens on women in Tanzania could increase cash incomes for smallholder coffee and banana growers by 10 percent (World Bank 2014:18).

Another study using nationally representative 2006 Time Use Survey (TUS) for Tanzania calculated that investments in infrastructure (transport and water systems) could save women (and children) millions of hours of work for benefit to women, their households, and the wider economy (Fontana and Naftali 2008).

of time limits women's engagement as community leaders, their participation in women's associations, and simply to relax. One respondent stated that "Women in rural areas are prisoners to the household and can't even participate in our [USAID] activities like trainings and Village Savings and Loans programs."

Related to being overworked is the condition of being underpaid. Most women receive no pay for the work that they contribute to household care, including agricultural production and processing. The ability to maintain control over income earned from micro- or small enterprises remains low and can be a source of disharmony and even violence within the household.

Time allocation and women's labor burden are intertwined and can be partly addressed through technology. In facing climate variability, solutions that strengthen resilience need to be attentive to women's existing labor burdens at home and in the field, offering affordable, labor-reducing technologies. Other than emphasizing the importance of building both on- and off-grid options for electricity as a contribution to decreasing women's time burden, respondents did not mention specific technologies, e.g., in agriculture, processing, or environmental activities that they would recommend scaling up. This oversight is likely because interviews were usually only an hour in length, and a follow-up survey might elicit additional information on this point.

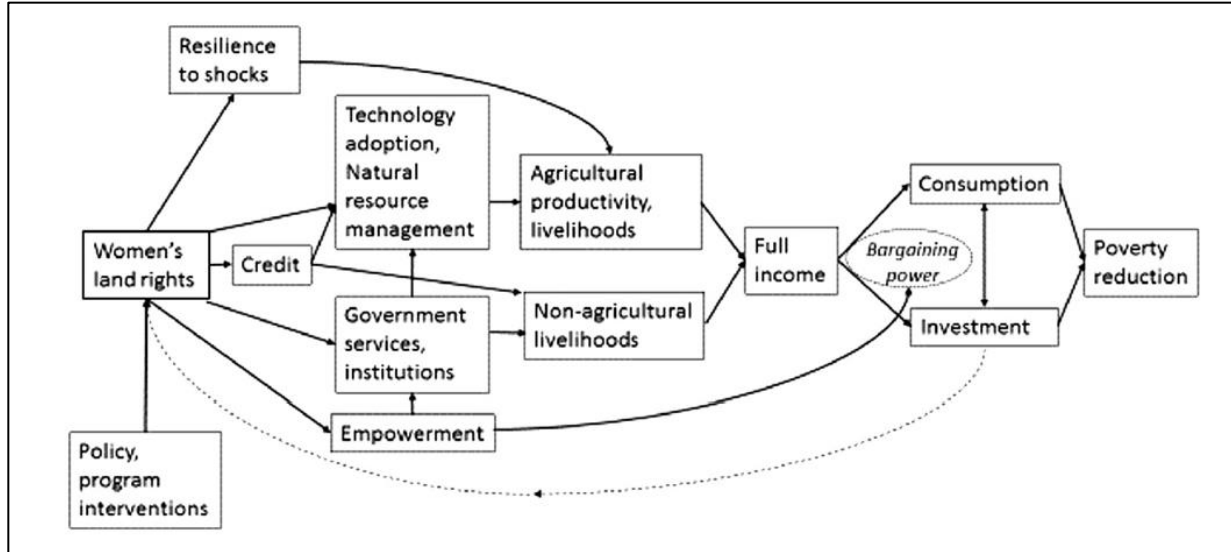
Similarly, new programming can create or support existing digital platforms and support mobile technologies to link women and youth producers with processors and other buyers to circumvent mobility and insecurity constraints. This is reflected in the work of COMESA's 50 Million African Women Speak (50MAWS) digital business platform, AGRA's Value4Her, and the East African Women in Business Platform (EAWiBP), among others, to provide not only information but also to create a Community of Practice that builds confidence as well as a strong market presence. USAID's Digital Strategy offers "guiding practices" developed in previous gender and ICT programs, such as the WomenConnect Challenge,¹³ to address digital inequalities and mitigate potential risks or harms for women and girls entering the online space.

2.4 ACCESS TO AND CONTROL OVER ASSETS AND RESOURCES

Women's ownership of assets, like legal reform, is only one of a complex set of conditions that can support empowerment or poverty reduction (Figure 7 on the following page). In reviewing the relationship between asset access, control, and ownership, it is important to acknowledge differences among the three categories, and the expansion of opportunity that comes from the movement from access to ownership. This is illustrated in the example of land, highlighted in Figure 7.

¹³ <https://www.womenconnectchallenge.org/>. Since 2018, the program has offered grants to organizations in four countries in East and Southern Africa: Kenya, Tanzania, Rwanda, and Mozambique.

Figure 7. Pathways from Women's Land Rights to Poverty Reduction



Source: Meinzen-Dick et al. (2019)

LAND

Researchers on gender and land topics distinguish different rights related to land use: access to, control over, and ownership of the property (Meinzen-Dick et al. 2019) but agree that women struggle to maintain **secure land rights**, those that are clearly defined, long-term, enforceable, appropriately transferable, and legal and socially legitimate. Women's exercise of those rights should not require consultation or approval beyond that required of men.

Different types of rights include:

- **Access** to land is still in many places obtained through men, usually a spouse, or from village leaders for use in an association or cooperative. Women farm this land or use it for grazing small livestock to provide food for themselves and their families, contributing to household food security. It may also provide a surplus for sale;
- **Control** over land lets a woman make decisions over its use and management, choosing which crops and varieties to grow. With control over income from land outputs, a woman can purchase inputs to increase yields and sell her surplus, earning enough to meet her own and her family's needs for other food and household items, health care, education. If she adopts stress-tolerant varieties, intercroops, or plants trees, she is taking climate-smart actions and building her and her family's resilience; and
- **Ownership** of land gives a woman the right to share, sell, rent, or otherwise dispose of her land, providing an income and/or building social capital. She can prevent others from using it. Owning land opens doors to credit and helps to cope with shocks. Security of title is also associated with productivity increases.

Access alone does not ensure a women's control over her labor or the output of that labor. For example, she may have access to household land to grow vegetables for family use, but not to sell them. Further, if a woman's relationship to the man or community from whom she has been granted access ends, perhaps through disagreement, divorce, death, or migration, then her access can be lost. In short, when land belongs to others, a woman's access can easily be taken away. This may occur when ambiguities in national laws create the potential for continued or increased gender discrimination, such as when customary law informs decisions by community members that disfavor women.

Dancer (2017) addresses the continuing resistance and omission in African states' willingness to address women's land rights. She notes in several East African countries there are inconsistencies between customary and statutory law that continue to exist about land tenure and inheritance, even where, as in Tanzania, other aspects of the laws on marriage and land have been quite progressive. Similarly, in Burundi, the 2005 Constitution let stand the 1986 Land Code, which has no prohibition of discriminatory inheritance practices.

Historically, some women supported the continuation of customary law out of a fear that individual titling would strip them of their rights to household property. Today, "best practice" for gender equality is considered enacting legal reforms that will guarantee women's equal rights to land as independent persons, regardless of their marital status, to make mandatory spousal consent for any transaction involving joint land rights, and to ensure that spouses are legally allowed to hold joint user rights or ownership of property (Kenney and De la o Campos 2016). Dancer further proposes that any legal change should be carried out alongside inclusive "consultation, education, and social dialogue."

Access, control, and ownership of land were mentioned by many respondents as one of the top three constraints facing women in rural areas. It was noted that women often only have access to land through men, creating insecurity because rights are mediated by other family members who can threaten or deny that access to change or punish women's behavior. Several respondents noted the important role that women play in managing the land, but without a voice in land use planning.

Women who have secure tenure and control over their land have been shown to make more productive use of it, for example by using inputs to improve crop productivity and soil quality and increasing food security at the time and for the future. An International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) study found that increasing the security of women's land rights in Ethiopia decreased household food insecurity by 36 percent (Sanjak 2016). The broader consequence is that limitations on women's ability to participate in decision-making over land, either independently or jointly, have implications for food security, income generation, and other aspects of well-being more widely, not only at the household level but aggregated at a national or regional level.

One respondent, however, cautioned against advocating for women's land ownership for use as collateral for a loan. A woman (or man) runs the risk that if unable to pay back the loan, she or he may lose both the land and their means of livelihood. Support for more secure land titling for women, as joint or independent owners, can be paired with the careful design and implementation of credit programs that fully inform borrowers of the risks they face.

The Intergovernmental Authority on Development's (IGAD) Land and Governance Program has put in place some innovative activities to support women's land rights. The land and governance program was initiated in 2015. The gender component of the program has the mandate to support member states to

deliver on international and regional commitments on gender and land rights. As stated in the most recent IGAD Gender Strategy (2016–2020), land is an important focus for women because:

The lack of land ownership or use rights has consequences in terms of women’s involvement and contribution to agricultural productivity as well as the benefits that accrue from the sector. With ownership or guaranteed land use rights, consequences like increased decision-making power increased conservation efforts, and eventually better returns that can improve livelihood come about. However, the restrictions on ownership and use rights have resulted in limited opportunity and benefit for women (2016: 17).

The Gender and Land Advisor oversaw the development of several important tools for the program, including preparing:

- A prototype document showing how national land policies can include attention to gender;
- A land and gender manual targeted to technical staff such as surveyors and planners that was validated in a workshop in Ethiopia in mid-March and is being finalized; and
- A manual for training on gender and land administration issues.

They have also conducted studies, including a gender assessment on land in the region that is soon to be published, and a review of best practices on land governance and dispute resolution. A documentary on challenges facing women in land ownership and land use is also underway.

The Land and Governance program is also working with several of its member states to support a women’s land rights agenda, encouraging governments to invest in addressing women’s land rights. In addition to working directly with government ministries responsible for land matters and the gender focal points embedded in them, the program held a conference (December 2020) and is planning another (May 2021), to ensure that its programs are benefitting its members. It established a Community of Practice to connect land ministries, civil society organizations, and academics to share experiences.

CREDIT AND BANKING

Women continue to experience greater constraints than men, particularly in establishing, operating, and growing their businesses. Multiple studies (reviewed in Buvinic and O’Donnell 2016) have found that women benefit from an enabling environment of legal protections and policy reform and private sector initiatives. The more successful program interventions were those that provide not only discrete support but also “bundled services” including access to finance; capacity building, networking, and mentorship; and access to technologies (including mobile phones).

Improving access to credit, a key constraint for many women entrepreneurs is not enough by itself to create or maintain a successful enterprise. Similarly, standalone microcredit programs for poor women can be helpful but not transformative. Integrated programs that jointly provide credit, training, technical assistance, and that link entrepreneurs to market opportunities appear to have better economic outcomes (Buvinic and O’Donnell 2016:10-11). For example, a program among Maasai women in Northern Tanzania provides business development trainings and banking services by creating

partnerships among several NGOs. The activity, implemented by Trias, a Belgian NGO, and evaluated using the project-level WEAI, has reported increased savings and market activity among women members, compared to women who are not participating in the groups (TRIAS 2018; James et al. 2018).

Yet access to a bank account, often a requirement for securing credit for expanding a micro to a small business, continues to be difficult to attain for many women. Mobile phone and digital technologies are critical not only for communication between people or to bring market information to small and large farmers, but also to bring financial services to the unbanked. Although globally, the mobile phone gender gap is narrowing, down from 27 percent to 20 percent in 2019, most of the progress is in Asia rather than Sub-Saharan Africa where the gender gap is 37 percent. Affordability, illiteracy, and a lack of digital skills, all of which are more problematic for women, are the key barriers to mobile phone use and ownership (GSMA 2020).

Access to credit remains a constraint for women working in agribusiness and other entrepreneurial activities, including conservation-oriented enterprises. Stakeholders' responses focused much more on strengthening women's access to information about available services rather than on the supply of those services. USAID-supported risk insurance programs have helped women, especially those in pastoral communities, to manage weather-related risks to production and marketing (Kristjanson et al 2010).

A host of new programs have emerged to address the problem of lack of trade information, and some are poised to have a significant impact, especially under continued pandemic and limited mobility conditions. COMESA's Women's Business Platform (50MAWS) is an excellent example of designing a program to meet this need. COMESA first conducted a study on the challenges that women face in trade and entrepreneurship in Africa, such as access to funding to expand and grow their businesses. While some member states recommended the establishment of a women's empowerment fund at the state level, there was also recognition that women did not have the information they need even about existing funding opportunities. The COMESA team met with representatives of the African Development Bank, which has also done a study on challenges to women's entrepreneurship. The result was to establish a digital platform to provide information from any location. The platform launched (virtually) last year and has not been adopted by 37 countries, and they plan to expand.

Another program in the region is Value4Her, taken on by AGRA after being started with EU funding at CTA in the Netherlands. Value4Her is a digital platform to bring information about resources (market, investment, banking, and trade information) to women entrepreneurs that in early 2021 was hosting 750 active women-owned agribusinesses. In response to the difficulties faced by women entrepreneurs under Covid-19, AGRA has partnered with RENEW, LLC, with USAID support, to initiate a new activity, the African Resilience Investment Series for Women Executives. This will provide management skills to a target of 2,000 women entrepreneurs to strengthen their ability to respond to the pandemic (Dido 2021).

USAID supports women's access to finance through women's economic empowerment funding. INVEST, for example, is USAID's flagship blended finance initiative and recently completed a rapid assessment of Gender Lens Investing opportunities in five countries in sub-Saharan Africa. It offers a suite of recommendations on providing catalytic capital for gender-lens investing funds. It is planning to "partner with fund managers, financial providers, and others to increase the adoption of gender-smart

strategies among new actors[to] shift and scale mainstream adoption of gender-smart strategies particularly in commercial capital” (Ragan and Khosrowshahi. 2021).

ENERGY

“Renewable, clean energy and gender equality are preconditions for sustainable development and for tackling climate change.” (UN Women 2017).

Among the most impressive changes in the region in the past five years lies in 1) improvements in access to energy, and 2) the growth of women professionals’ presence in the energy subsector. The regional assessments in East Africa in 2010 and 2016 both noted the need for increasing access to energy for women, highlighting multiple benefits in reducing women’s time burdens, improving health from lower pollution levels, income from new job opportunities, and increased security, as well as broader benefits in climate change mitigation from reduced deforestation.

Promote clean energy use and management with a gender focus. Energy is a key sector that will increasingly have cross-border management implications. It relates to climate change in two ways—energy production will be impacted by climate change, and energy production if not clean can be a major greenhouse gas (GHG) source. The climate change impacts have strong poverty and gender implications, but mitigation of climate change by using clean energy technologies has the potential to create new private-sector opportunities and to reduce labor demands on women (Olson et al. 2010).

Access to energy varies across the region. In Ethiopia, for example, only eight percent of rural used electricity as compared to 90 percent of urban households. In Kenya, less than one percent of households in rural areas use electricity for cooking because of its high cost, even if they use it elsewhere in the home (Makungu and Kooijman 2020).

Innovative efforts are integrating multiple dimensions into energy sector projects. In East Africa, CARE’s wPOWER program is training members of village savings and loan associations works to support women to establish energy-related micro-enterprises based on clean energy use. The program now reaches over one million members (Dutta, Kooijman, and Cecelski 2017).

In recent years, “[T]he narrative in the gender, energy, and poverty discourse has shifted... from focusing on gender (in) equality (which positions women as victims of energy poverty) to gender equality and, most recently, to women being part of the solution” (Dutta, Kooijman, and Cecelski 2017). This means recognizing the ways that women and men use and access energy, enabling access to both on and off-grid energy technologies, and also ensuring that women are part of the decision-making related to energy supply and operations, from the farm and forest to the board room.

The work of Power Africa, with associated projects like Women in African Power implemented by TetraTech, and the East Africa Energy Project (EAEP) implemented by RTI, have made significant progress in moving along the path described above in on- and off-grid programming, and has gone further in building networking among professional women in energy to help boost their visibility and bring more women into the subsector. Although women working in energy still comprise only about a quarter of the total number of employees, they have made good progress in raising the visibility of

women and promoting them in leadership positions. The question of sustainability of these networks, however, is a critical one, and avenues for independent support need to be identified.

Power Africa is well respected among public institutions and in the private sector, and this reputation can help support increased attention to women by governments in implementing existing policies, such as quotas for women in this space, and for increasing financial support to women in the sector, including support for the new professional networks.

ACCESS TO INFORMATION

Information is a critical intangible asset. Repeatedly mentioned as critical to women's empowerment were strengthening functional literacy and numeracy, including digital literacy, access to market information, and more specialized, technical knowledge.

Lack of literacy and numeracy is a critical barrier to women's participation in society. A gender analysis conducted for the Feed the Future Livelihoods for Resilience Activity in Ethiopia presents this as their most important finding:

Women's lack of formal education is one of the main limitations to their economic advancement, as it limits their employment opportunities; their ability to acquire technical and business skills; their ability to participate and to take leadership positions in economic groups such as cooperatives; their ability to manage, monitor and control their businesses; and their lives in general, making them dependent on their husbands (Shumba and Demmelash 2018: 3).

Literacy rates (which include numeracy) in the region range from a low of 3.89 percent for women over 15 in Somalia, to a high of 78.19 percent in Kenya, against a regional average of 58.63 percent. Rates are improving among young women (15–24), with 10.46 percent in Somalia and Uganda having the highest rate of 89.96 percent. It is notable, in light of the quote from Ethiopia above, that it is not one of the lowest ranking countries for women's literacy but ranks somewhat below the regional average for women over 15 and is sixth out of nine in the region for women from 15 to 24, well above the lowest levels as reported for Somalia or South Sudan ([USAID Dashboard](#)).

Respondents noted that the inability or low ability to read, write, and calculate severely impedes women's participation in income-generating activities and community leadership. It inhibits their use of mobile technologies for communication, banking, and accessing messaging on health or the environment. In one project, rural women group leaders were unable to take minutes of meetings or to keep financial records and had to rely on younger women who had attended school.

Lack of access to information was stated as being particularly constrained among women in pastoral communities, including those participating in conservation-oriented activities. Several respondents noted that information asymmetry is a product of both income inequality that limits women's ability to purchase phones and airtime and poor network connectivity. It can raise issues of insecurity as well, if women feel unsafe traveling to markets alone, resulting in less access to updates about many subjects including prices, buyers, credit mechanisms, and extension advice. Pastoral women have more less interaction with agricultural extension officers, both public and private. Without information, women are less able to make informed choices about important services needed for strengthening livelihood strategies and well-being.

An EU-funded project, CTA CLI-MART is showing success in reaching pastoral women with a business hub model, setting up at livestock markets in Kenya and Ethiopia, to help pastoralists manage climate-related shocks such as drought. The project uses the hubs to provide both and men women pastoralists with a cluster of services including blended weather information, animal health, and veterinary services, fodder supply, transport, financial services, market information, livestock insurance, and market development facilitation (Mwaura 2019). More widely, women’s groups have shown success in strengthening women’s knowledge of both production and marketing practices (Brody et al. 2016).

The ability to succeed professionally, in business or other technical fields, also requires youth to acquire knowledge and practical training to be qualified applicants that are attractive to employers as well as to promote entrepreneurship. A focus on both vocational and entrepreneurship training has gained strength over the past ten years, reflected in global programs such as the Innovation for Agricultural Education and Training (InnovATE) Project implement through 2018 by Virginia Tech, or country program in Tanzania, Innovative Agricultural Research Initiative (iAGRI), both of which focus on skills for working in agriculture. Other programs, such as the Academy for Women Entrepreneurs (AWE) sponsored by the US Department of State launched in 2019 are currently operating in East Africa.¹⁴ It offers women an opportunity to work with mentors in the private sector in their home countries to design a program focusing on the skills, resources, and network connections that can help women start and scale up successful businesses. The African Women’s Entrepreneurship Program (AWE) is another State Department-sponsored program to assist women entrepreneurs across sub-Saharan Africa. It was launched in 2010 as part of the African Growth and Opportunity Act. Participants are chosen by Embassy staff and invited to visit the United States to attend professional meetings and network with industry actors. Some partnerships between the United States and African firms have been created.

Another U.S. State Department program that is managed through USAID is the YALI project, implemented by Deloitte Kenya. Its Regional Learning Center in Nairobi, Kenya draws its students from across the region. Currently, it offers three difficult curricula on 1) business, 2) civic engagement, and 3) public management, all of which share a core “common leadership curriculum.” Several respondents suggested that the YALI program offerings be expanded to include a theme that focuses on the environment, natural resources, and climate-related themes, especially linking entrepreneurship and business. Several interviewees strongly supported the need for conservation-oriented enterprises that would be able to expand women’s businesses from small efforts, such as in handicrafts, to larger activities. One woman noted that while beadwork can provide an important income-earning opportunity to women that can help their immediate families, she would like to see an expansion of projects like the “grass bank,” where a women’s group manages 60 acres of land to grow and sell grass for fodder, helping to gain income through two streams—the sale of grass, and for many, the sale of milk—while also contributing to conservation efforts in the community and overall resilience. With support from USAID and others, she would like to encourage investment by the private sector in such activities to help women, their communities, and the environment.

2.5 PATTERNS OF POWER AND DECISION-MAKING

¹⁴ Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Uganda have started programs.

With the recent rise to the Presidency of Samia Saluhu Hassan in Tanzania in March 2021, women’s political participation and leadership are at the forefront of continental political news. Afrobarometer research shows that 66 percent of African citizens approve of women in positions of political leadership.¹⁵ There remains a large gap, however, between willingness to consider a woman in a position of political leadership and other dimensions of political participation, including the proportion of women in legislative bodies at local, regional, or national levels, as well as voting behavior. In 2016, the International Republican Institute created a Women’s Leadership Index to look into not only the raw data on participation but also to consider how different levels of representation have different levels of impact on lawmaking and policy formulation. In its 2016 (and only) index of 29 countries, four of the seven East African nations included were in the 10 top countries on the continent to demonstrate the lowest levels of gender imbalance (see Table 9).

TABLE 9: THE WOMEN’S LEADERSHIP INDEX SCORES FOR EAST AFRICA				
COUNTRY	RANK OUT OF 29	WOMEN’S LEGISLATIVE REPRESENTATION AND INFLUENCE	WOMEN’S MINISTERIAL REPRESENTATION AND INFLUENCE	INDEX SCORE
RWANDA	2	-3.8	48.95	45.2
UGANDA	4	23.63	46.36	70
BURUNDI	5	57.02	16.43	73.5
TANZANIA	9	25.1	69.81	94.9
KENYA	11	66.06	36.49	102.5
SOUTH SUDAN	18	51.27	76.26	127.5

Note: Lower numbers reflect greater equality.

Source: IRI (2016)

Many interviewees pointed to their work as supporting women’s empowerment generally and supporting women’s economic empowerment more specifically. Most of the respondents, when speaking to women’s empowerment, simply identified it as one of several goals of their programs. Many, depending on the work that they were responsible for, indicated that increasing women’s income was one route to empowerment, and some offered that women’s groups were a way to encourage women’s participation in the market. Supporting women’s groups and income generation remains an important component of many development activities today and was endorsed repeatedly in the interviews. A synthetic, mixed-method review research found that:

There is no evidence of adverse effects of women's self-help groups (SHGs) on the likelihood of domestic violence. Women's perspectives in the qualitative research indicate that even if domestic violence occurs in the short term, in the long term the

¹⁵ <https://afrobarometer.org/data>

benefits from SHG membership may mitigate [those] initial adverse consequences of SHGs on domestic violence. (Brody et al. 2016).

Research conducted using the WEAI also indicates that a lack of group membership is associated with lower empowerment scores. Interviewees often observed that women's empowerment needs to be supported from above, through laws and policies, as well as from the bottom, by encouraging change in social norms and practices, engaging men and other family members.

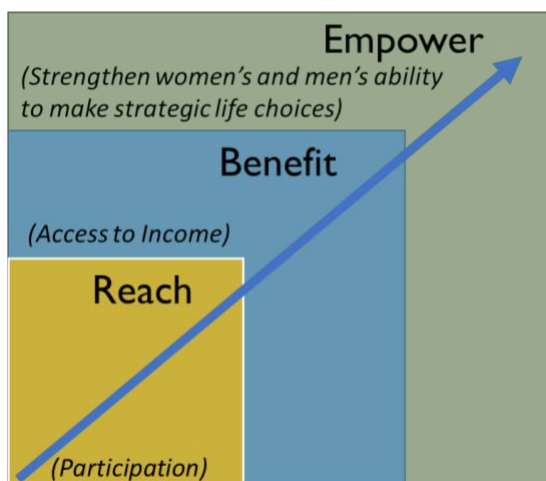
3. RECOMMENDATIONS

In considering the design of new programming or revisions or extension of current activities, it may be helpful to consider a new framework of “Reach, Benefit, and Empower” (RBE) Formulated by the Gender, Agriculture, and Assets Project implemented by IFPRI over the past ten years, this simple framework clarifies how project strategies are linked to specific gender-related outcomes, specifically the goal of supporting women’s empowerment (Figure 8). A project that reaches women increases their participation in project activities. When projects benefit women, they intentionally strengthen the returns that women gain from their participation and their control over those returns, whether income or other assets. Projects that empower women strengthen women’s ability to make strategic decisions about their lives and to effectively act on them. The three categories can be applied to describe different strategies, tactics, and indicators used by projects to engage women.

The framework makes clear that reach (e.g., projects that increase women’s participation) or benefit (e.g., projects that strengthen positive outcomes such as increased income or access to assets such as land), while important and positive results, they are not by themselves sufficient to strengthen women’s empowerment, which Naila Kabeer (1999) defines as, “as expanding people’s ability to make strategic life choices, particularly in contexts in which this ability had been denied to them.” In Kabeer’s definition, the ability to exercise choice encompasses three dimensions: resources (defined to include not only access but also future claims to material, human, and social resources), agency (including processes of decision making, negotiation, and even deception and manipulation), and achievements (well-being outcomes).

Accordingly, the recommendations drawn from the literature and the interview data seek to find ways to increase women’s opportunities to participate and to gain tangible benefit from their labor, but also to strengthen the ways that projects can support women’s ability to make decisions over their own lives and the lives of their families. Table 10 on the following page presents the entirety of the findings and recommendations, including general and those aligned with the Dos and IRs. It is expanded upon from Table I included in the Executive Summary of this analysis.

Figure 8: Reach, Benefit, and Empower



Source: Adapted from Johnson et al. 2017; Rubin 2016; Rubin and Nordehn 2020

TABLE 10: FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

GENERAL FINDINGS	GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS
<p>The adoption of gender equality and women’s empowerment at USAID has increased compliance and technical demands on gender advisors (Annex VI).</p> <p>The recommendation in the previous regional strategy to “Create a Gender Advisor position for each USAID country mission” has not been adopted (Benjamin and Meyers 2016).</p>	<p>To support gender advisors at the country and regional level, USAID should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use regional or USAID/W resources to support a regional Community of Practice among country and regional mission gender advisors and gender points of contact to share evidence-based research, program results, and experience, and to encourage discussion of the findings and recommendations contained in this report to strengthen involvement with regional program implementation; • Provide additional personnel and technical support to the KEA gender and inclusivity specialist to share the workload of managing country and regional responsibilities; and • Fill vacant gender advisor positions in Burundi, Djibouti, and Uganda.
<p>The literature and the interviews consistently point to foundational inequalities that are faced by women in East Africa. Interviewees stated that GBV in all its forms and illiteracy were among the most critical fundamental issues to be addressed as an integral part of regional programming to achieve an important and positive effect on economic growth and women’s empowerment, as well as on other health and social sector statistics.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop new regional programs to amplify successful country efforts to reduce critical barriers to women’s full participation in society including all forms of GBV. These can be designed as part of integrated or inclusive regional programming and as stand-alone activities to maximize coverage and opportunities for success; • Conduct research to test if targeted or stand-alone programs are more effective in reducing GBV; and • Integrate women’s functional and financial literacy interventions into USAID programming across sectors, by improving beneficiaries’ abilities to read about their legal rights, and agricultural, climate change, and business or market information that enhances their ability to make informed decisions around livelihood activities and to understand their rights.
<p>Programming in energy and entrepreneurship show the largest shifts from five to ten years ago. New investment through Power Africa and women’s economic empowerment (WEE) programming has resulted in what appears to be real gains in women’s participation in business (especially</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure the continued success of energy-related women’s associations and networks by i) providing business development and financial support for their sustainability (e.g., training on association

<p>agribusiness) and the energy sector, supported through many newly formed associations and networks.</p> <p>Stakeholders reported a desire to help women “dream big” and to succeed in new avenues of work.</p>	<p>management, grant getting, outreach, and communications); and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Build on the accomplishments of these targeted investments in women’s leadership strategies and economic entrepreneurship in the utilities and transport industries to energize similar successes in agribusiness and climate-related businesses.
<p>National policies and international or regional legislation on gender equality is not yet harmonized.</p>	<p>Use regional programs to provide opportunities to support gender equality, e.g., in access to land, credit, and services, at the national level when these are out of sync with more progressive regional or international policies and conventions and are a barrier to achieving program goals.</p>
<p>Women, men, and youth are often unfamiliar with changes in legislation that promote gender equality and women’s empowerment.</p>	<p>Develop regional dissemination programs about regional changes in legislation and policies through social media and integrate them into educational activities, as well as in democracy and governance and humanitarian programming.</p>
<p>Gender-related programming at RIGOs has expanded significantly over the past five years, with the launch of regional networks and programs to support women entrepreneurs in agriculture and other sectors.</p>	<p>Organize existing digital platforms and new opportunities for holding regional gender workshops for gender and key technical advisors from the RIGOs and other regional programs, USAID implementing partners, and USAID staff to exchange information about the results of different strategies being used to support women’s empowerment and gender equality and to identify opportunities for mutual attention. It could foster a stronger working relationship between these regional programs and other implementers of the RDCS.</p>
<p>Research such as that conducted using the WEAI (Malapit et al. 2019) and on self-help groups (Brody et al 2016) has demonstrated that groups of various types can be a source of empowerment, by giving women both confidence (building self-efficacy) and access to resources and benefits. The WEAI research specifically found that a lack of group membership is associated with lower empowerment scores. Work on women entrepreneurs found that providing “bundled” or “integrated services” by combining access to finance alongside offering trainings to build both business management and technical skills (Buvinic and</p>	<p>Create and sustain groups and networks among women, as well as mixed groups of women and men, can be made an intentional strategy of both resilience and market systems activities. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide agribusiness- and climate-focused business development services that offer both financing and skills training for women to help them scale up their businesses; and • Allow projects to fund the costs of operating professional networking associations and offer them management skills training to encourage effective expansion of membership and regular meetings.

<p>O'Donnell 2016) was more successful than offering either credit or training separately.</p>	
<p>Stakeholders are increasingly aware of the complexity of achieving gender equality and women's empowerment but are not always able to articulate how their program activities contribute to these larger goals, in addition to specific activity targets of increasing income or crop yields, improving health, and courses completed.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prepare guidance to illustrate how program activities contribute to the broad goals of empowerment and equality, mapping actors, and activities to these outcomes; • Share USAID/KEA Theory of Change for gender equality with partners; • Review and revise as appropriate fact sheets for addressing gender and youth in specific sectoral areas; and • Provide USAID curated guidance from other donors, IPs, and regional organizations to USAID gender advisors and technical staff.
<p>Projects have generally improved the collection of sex-disaggregated data in their monitoring systems and have used their analysis of the data to make midcourse corrections in implementation, even among some projects lacking dedicated gender officers.</p>	<p>Continue to require the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data in activity monitoring and evaluation systems and encourage its analysis and use to adjust implementation to achieve stronger gender equality results.</p>
<p>Increasing women's participation and benefits are important project outcomes but do not automatically support a process of women's empowerment (Johnson et al. 2017).</p>	<p>Use the Reach Benefit Empower framework (Johnson et al. 2017) during project co-creation processes to design more intentional empowerment strategies in new projects.</p>
<p>Human trafficking of children and adults for labor and for sex work is a significant issue, with traffickers working out of Kenya as a central staging point across the region to recipients in the Middle East (Daghar 2020).</p>	<p>USAID/KEA could take the lead through its country and regional program to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expand efforts on policy and through training, such as already addressed in TradeMark's work on reducing sexual harassment at the borders, to educate customs officers about the signs of labor trafficking, and to know the proper enforcement options and reporting channels; • Work with the RIGOs to elevate this issue as one in need of legal and policy reform in the region; and • Commission a study to gain a better understanding of the scope and cost of labor trafficking across the region

<p>Although data is not available for all countries in the region (see Table 4), it appears that 20 percent or more of all women do not have access to national identity documents.</p>	<p>Encourage each project to assist women to gain access to identity documents, either in hard copy or in digital form.</p>
<p>Addressing the global pandemic of Covid-19 has required programs to pivot, adopt remote monitoring, and shift funding priorities, often incurring increased costs.</p>	<p>Strengthen program monitoring systems to track changes due to Covid-19 conditions by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing additional funding for M&E; • Ensuring that the detailed guidance that has been developed to assist programs is shared and understood by USAID and partners;¹⁶ and • Permitting the use of custom indicators if needed to understand changes in levels of GBV and food insecurity and shifts in women's and girls' time use, along with other health and income measures.
<p>Developing recommendations for regional programming is a special challenge, and the five dimensions in the ADS are not necessarily the best categories for analysis.</p>	<p>Conduct a meta-analysis of gender analyses completed in the region comparing and contrasting their methods, quality, and content, and investigate further how these reports were used and what gaps, if any, were identified by the users, as input into improving the value of these types of reports for future programming. Additional guidance for staff on how to apply gender-related findings to USAID regional programs could be helpful.</p>
<p>DO 1: REGIONAL CAPACITY FOR RESILIENCE STRENGTHENED</p>	
<p>IRI.1 Capacity of Communities, Institutions, and Systems to Jointly Plan for, Respond to, and Recover from Shocks and Threats Strengthened</p>	
<p>KEY FINDINGS</p>	<p>RECOMMENDATIONS</p>
<p>Stakeholders seek new ways to link Resilience and Market Systems.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use women's and youth groups to offer extension and advisory services that will help members start or enhance businesses in sustainable conservation and climate-oriented enterprises (e.g., equipment rental, manufacturing solar energy devices creating grass banks for forage, creating agro- and eco-tourism programs, organic farming, and recycling).

¹⁶ https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/Full_COVID_and_Gender_Tecnical_Brief_March_2021_Comp_liant.pdf

<p>Although there has been significant improvement in women’s access to energy in the last decade, expanding on and off-grid sources and decreasing consumer energy costs remains a priority.</p> <p>Overcoming continued discrimination towards women in the energy, utilities, and transport industries in the workplace and in leadership needs continued, sustained attention and support.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish learning opportunities between Power Africa activities in East Africa with energy-related programming in other regions in Africa and in Asia such as the Engendering Utilities Program efforts in India to strengthen gender equity in the sector.
<p>Several USAID global and regional programs have reported some success promoting women in sectors such as wildlife management, energy, and utilities. Power Africa, Engendering Utilities, and Rwanda WIRE support women’s recruitment and advancement in these industries where men have been more numerous.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthen women’s opportunities to participate in key governance positions addressing transboundary and national level wildlife management, including poaching and trafficking, ensuring that they are members and leaders of community governance bodies such as land allocation and management committees, water user associations, and forest management groups; • Use community dialogue and regional programming together, linking with existing businesses, to encourage employment of women and youth in wildlife and conservation management programming by identifying opportunities in positions where they have been previously underrepresented, e.g., as wildlife scouts and rangers, drivers and mechanics, and technical specialists; and • Access USAID’s women’s economic empowerment funding to increase participation in Engendering Utilities and other sectors in which men predominate.
<p>IR 1.2 Regional Food Security Ecosystem Enhances</p>	
<p>Women continue to experience severe time poverty in their productive work.</p>	<p>Work with women’s groups and agribusinesses to strengthen knowledge of and access to labor-saving and digital technologies to address time poverty and increase productivity.</p>
<p>Educational opportunities for youth can expand offering related to climate change adaptation and mitigation.</p>	<p>Expand the curricula of vocational, business, and technical training programs (such as YALI) to create new tracks on resilience and climate change topics to encourage climate-friendly enterprises.</p>

Women often face restricted access to key productive resources that are managed by their local communities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In the absence of equitable national or regional legislation, requirement regional programs to put in place equal access to women and men for community-managed land, forest, and water resources. • Ensure adequate representation of women in community governance committees.
IR 1.3 Conservation and Management of Transboundary Natural Resources Improved	
Women and youth are underrepresented in the governance of transboundary resources (IUCN 2018)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support increased women’s participation and voice in transboundary resource management, including water resources as part of achieving the goals of Agenda 2030; • Build women’s and youth’s capacity in transboundary resources management and governance
DO 2: MARKET SYSTEMS AND REGIONAL TRADE STRENGTHENED	
IR 2.1 Regional Trade Systems Improved	
KEY FINDINGS	RECOMMENDATIONS
RIGOs have made good progress in establishing regional programs supporting women’s empowerment through networks but note that lack of funding hinders hiring gender experts in their technical programs.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revisit opportunities to support RIGO ‘s gender-related programming to build capacity in gender and key technical areas, such as trade and entrepreneurship. • Create a multi-donor funding pool to offer competitive grants on strengthening women’s empowerment through market systems.
Stakeholders raised concerns about the sustainability of new women’s networks in entrepreneurship, energy, and trade.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Link RIGO and other donor programs and networks on women, trade, energy, and entrepreneurship to create synergies among them and enable sustainability. • Inform USAID beneficiaries to the information and services that the platforms offer and to help the platforms and networks to become sustainable through increased membership.
Increasingly, programs support emerging entrepreneurs (largely informal) and established ones (formal enterprises), but there remains a gap in programming to assist women to grow from micro to medium-sized businesses.	Expand targeted support for women entrepreneurs to grow their small or medium businesses through training, networking, and financial services.

<p>Stakeholders in the region are not always aware of similar programs or opportunities for support</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fill information gaps by preparing a consolidated regularly updated web-based guide, that maps gender and entrepreneurship, conservation, climate, energy programs, and networks across the region to assist actors throughout the market system to collaborate and utilize these people and services. • Identify program opportunities to disseminate information on women’s and youth’s opportunities under AFCTA.
<p>Interviews and reports indicate some important successes in the Trademark’s Women and Trade Programme in reducing poverty among traders (Allison et al. 2019)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continue to build and expand programs such as Trademark East Africa Women and Trade Programme and AGRA’s Value4Her; • Support the recent platforms on women’s entrepreneurship such as 50 Million African Women Speak and other EAC, EU, COMESA, and IGAD gender programming by funding a competitive funding opportunity to support technical gender advisory units; • Continue to work with customs officials to support their awareness of regulations exempting qualified women traders from customs duties and on combating harassment and human trafficking; and • Provide information to informal and formal women traders on these same regulations, e.g., using the many new RIGO and implementing partner platforms and networks supporting entrepreneurship.
<p>New research documents the presence of GBV on agribusiness and tourism, but the extent of the impact on women’s involvement in agribusiness and tourism is not clear (Henry and Adams 2018).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commission research on the prevalence of GBV in agribusiness in tourism and how it impacts women’s hiring, retention, and promotion in these enterprises; • Design activities to address workplace discrimination and harassment faced by women wage workers; and • Integrate guidance on gender-equitable hiring, promotion, and retention practices in regional activities in tourism, wildlife management, and agribusiness activities, and customs offices.

4. CONCLUSIONS

There have been many areas of significant progress in raising awareness of gender equality over the past five years. New programs, new tools, and new data collected on gender equality and women's empowerment in the East Africa Region have increased understanding of the scope and importance of continued attention to overcoming gender disparities in the region. USAID, with other donors and regional organizations, has made enormous progress in demonstrating the benefits of gender equality and women's empowerment for development. As reported here, USAID programming, in concert with that of other donors and RIGOs in East Africa, has made particularly strong gains in supporting initiatives that can strengthen women's empowerment, especially reforms in trade policy, establishing platforms to provide information on market and credit opportunities, expanding access to energy, and resilience.

Furthermore, the statements of the interviewees, the massive growth in the development literature on gender in development, and the increased number of gender officers in programs as well as the many new programs, developed by donors and the RIGOs, reflects that gender equality has been widely accepted within the development community as benefiting women, their families, and communities, and the wider national and regional social, economic, and political contexts in which they live.

There has been increasing recognition in the programming of the needs of diverse groups of women, in terms of age, productive strategies (e.g., as farmers, processors, traders, or pastoralists; wage workers or entrepreneurs) and national and cultural contexts, and that programming should be tailored to meet these different needs. Programming in energy and entrepreneurship show the biggest shifts from five to ten years ago. New investment through Power Africa and Women's Economic Empowerment programming has resulted in what appear to be real gains in women's participation in business (especially agribusiness) and the energy sector. Similarly, targeted investment in other resilience activities could promote parallel accomplishment.

Challenges remain in overcoming what some interviewees identified as "foundational" or basic types of gender inequality, such as the prevalence of gender-based violence (including early marriage, FGC, and cross-border trade in women and girls for labor and sex trafficking) as well as specific sectoral barriers. Many gender disparities persist, especially in rural areas and among pastoralists, in literacy and numeracy. These practices and inequalities severely limit many women's participation in and benefit from other programming implemented as part of other targeted regional programs such as policy reforms, equitable legislation, and enterprise development.

Tools such as the FGM Cost Calculator and similar methods to assess the economic consequences of child marriage¹⁷ calculate the economic cost of doing nothing or little to address the foundational barriers faced by many women in the region and which inhibit their economic participation. The original WEAI and recent project-level adaptations offer methods to measure and compare levels of women's empowerment across countries and interventions.

¹⁷<https://www.icrw.org/publications/economic-impacts-child-marriage/>

Similarly, while programs have buttressed the entry of women into market-oriented activities, especially through women's associations and as independent entrepreneurs, it is now time to expand beyond these initial steps. Programming can do more to support women to "dream big" in both resilience and market systems programming, e.g., to start businesses in sustainable energy and other resource management, rather than to confine themselves to handicrafts or petty trade. While entrepreneurship has become a strong focus of the work of the USAID, RIGOs, and other donors, there remains a gap in understanding of "what works" to move women's businesses from "emerging" to "established" and small to large.

Continuing and new regional programming can further advance the goals of gender equality and women's empowerment by working in partnership with RIGOs to enhance their projects on gender and cross-border trade and customs, agricultural and environment-oriented entrepreneurship, land management and governance, and conservation.

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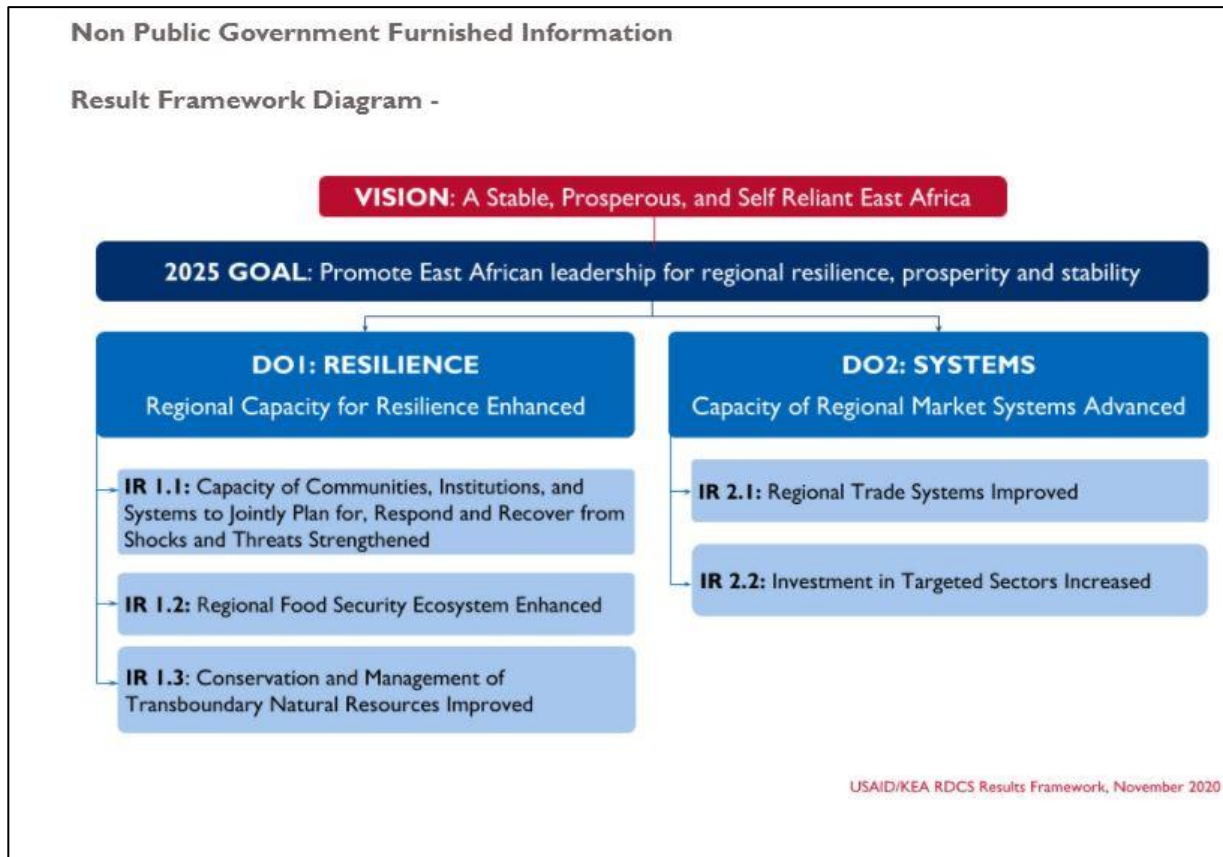
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ANNEX II: RDCS RESULTS FRAMEWORK



Source: USAID/KEA

ANNEX III: LIST OF INTERVIEWEES

ORGANIZATION	NAME	POSITION
African Conservation Centre	Lucy Waruingi	Executive Director
African Wildlife Foundation	Per Karlsson	Senior Program Design Manager
	Enos Omondi	Senior Manager, Knowledge Management
	Simongele Msweli	Senior Youth Program Manager
Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa	Sabdiyo Dido Bashuna	Head, Gender, and Inclusiveness
COMESA	Beatrice Hamusonde	Director, Gender and Social Affairs;
	Mekia Redi	Senior Gender Mainstreaming Officer
East Africa Energy Project	Julie Ndigwa	Senior Gender Advisor
	Arlette Lyakarenya	Gender Advisor
	Alex Twahiruu	Gender Advisor
East African Community*	Generose Minani	Principal Gender and Community Development Officer
	Morris Tayebwa	Coordinator - Children and Youth
EASSI	Sheila Kawamara	Executive Director
	Lina Asimwe	Economic Justice and Policy Project Officer
IGAD	Joselyn Bigirwa	Gender/Land Rights Manager
	Mubarak Mabuya	Gender Advisor
IUCN	Carla Manjate Rombe	Regional Gender Advisor
Trademark East Africa	Wanjiku Kimamo	Director, Gender and Inclusivity
	Jennifer Collier Wilson	Chief Impact Officer
UN Women	Zebib Kavuma	Regional Director, East, and Southern Africa
USAID/Ethiopia	Meseret Kassa	Gender Advisor
USAID/KEA	Richard Mugo	Trade/Investment-Project Management Specialist;
	Yasin Salah	Regional Resilience Specialist

	Jennifer Maurer	Resilience Coordinator for Kenya and Regional Program
	Betty Mugo	Gender and Inclusivity Specialist for both Kenya and Regional Programs
USAID/Kenya	David Charles	Feed the Future Coordinator/Economic Growth
	Mildred Irungu	Nutrition Program Management Specialist
USAID/Rwanda	Triphine Munganyinka	Development Program Specialist/Gender Coordinator
	Patrice Hakizimana	Program Manager - Agriculture and Rural Development
USAID/Somalia	Eunice Kidero	Program Office
USAID/South Sudan	Munira Issa	Program Management Specialist
USAID/Tanzania	Shamsa Suleiman	Project Design Specialist/Gender & Youth
USAID/Washington	Matthew Emry	Senior Gender Specialist
	Sylvia Cabus	Senior Gender Specialist
Young African Leadership Initiative	Achim Chiaji	YALI East Africa Regional Coordinator

*The interviews with the East African Community were only partially completed.

ANNEX IV: INTERVIEW GUIDES

USAID MISSION GENDER ADVISORS

A. Background

1. Please provide your current title. How long you have been in that position at USAID?
2. Please provide an overview of your responsibilities related to gender issues.
3. Are you also responsible for other topics?
4. Is there a specific proportion of your time that is dedicated to gender issues in your job description?

B. Country-level Successes

4. Which are the priority areas of focus in terms of systemic barriers to gender equality and economic empowerment in your specific country?
5. Based on your experience and expertise, what are the three most successful areas of USAID programming (national) that have supported women's economic empowerment and gender equality in [country] over the past five years?
6. Are there projects that you think could successfully be scaled up as regional activities?
7. What do you think are the most successful areas of USAID regional programming for these same goals?

C. Continuing Areas of Need

8. Which are the priority areas of focus related to systemic barriers to gender equality and economic empowerment in [country]?
9. Among these, which do you think is the most important?
10. Why did you select this one?
11. What has been the most important consequence of Covid-19 on women in [country]?
12. How has your project/program pivoted to address these consequences?

D. Can you recommend particular projects or other people that we should include in our review?

USAID TECHNICAL SPECIALISTS AND PROGRAM STAFF

A. Background (if needed)

1. Please provide your current title. How long you have been in that position at USAID?
2. Please provide an overview of your area of responsibility (e.g., which projects)?

B. Gender integration in your sector/project.

3. What do you find to be the most critical gender-based constraints in your area of focus?
4. Among these, which do you think is the most important?
5. Why did you select this one?
6. What has been the most important consequence of Covid-19 in your sector?
7. How has your project/program pivoted to address these consequences?

C. Country-level successes

8. Which are the priority areas of focus in terms of systemic barriers to gender equality and economic empowerment in your specific country?
9. Based on your experience and expertise, what are the three most successful areas of USAID regional programming that have supported women's economic empowerment and gender equality in [country] over the past five years?
10. What are the weaknesses that you have seen in these or other regional programs?
11. Are there projects you are aware of at the national level that you think could successfully be scaled up as regional activities?

D. Can you recommend particular projects or people that we should include in our review?

REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND IMPLEMENTING PARTNERS

1. Please tell us briefly about the organization/project with which you work and your responsibilities.
2. How have you approached gender integration in your organization/program/project? Please explain any specific gender-related objectives or organizational guidance that you follow.
3. Describe the program/project's successes and achievements related to gender (both women and men).
4. How do you monitor or measure the project's ability to reach, benefit, and/or empower women? [Note: Reach involves participation; benefit involves increases in e.g., income or well-being, and empowering women refers to enhancing their ability to make strategic decisions]
5. Are there specific barriers that women or men face in participating or benefiting from regional programs?
6. How are your efforts addressing these barriers or constraints?
7. Which types of partners can contribute to the success of this (or these) activities?
8. Do you have the support you need (funding or technical expertise) to identify gender issues or respond to any problems?
9. Does your project include interventions to prevent and/or mitigate gender-based violence? (This might include training or guidance for participants)
10. Based on your experience and expertise, what are the most important priorities related to the topic of your work for strengthening opportunities for gender equality and women's empowerment in the East Africa Region?
11. If you were to redesign this program/project, what would you want to change to strengthen how women benefit and to encourage greater opportunities for them?
12. How have your activities been impacted by Covid 19?
13. Can you recommend or share any reports from your programs/organizations on gender equality in the region?

ANNEX V: GENDER ANALYSIS RESOURCES

REGIONAL ANALYSES

Benjamin, J. and L. Meyers. 2016. USAID/Kenya and East Africa Gender Analysis for Regional Development Cooperation Strategy 2016-2020, Gender Analysis Report Prepared by Banyan Global, Washington, DC. <https://banyanglobal.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/usaaid-kenya.pdf>

Olson, J. et al. 2010. Gender, Agriculture, and Climate Change: An Analysis for USAID/East Africa. Rosslyn, VA: DevTech Systems for USAID. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADT677.pdf

Rapic, D., J. Schulte and O. Miruk 2018. Gender Equality and Inclusion Action Plan Study. USAID/Kenya And East Africa. Management Systems International.

Rubin, D. 2012. USAID/East Africa Gender Assessment for Agriculture and Climate Change. Rosslyn, VA: DevTech Systems for USAID. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PBAAA236.pdf

COUNTRY ANALYSES

Ethiopia

Brhane, M., I. de Latour, N. Getachew, and B. Semunegus. 2017. Gender Analysis Report. Prepared for the Ethiopia Performance Monitoring and Evaluation Service (EPMES) by Social Impact, Inc. for USAID/Ethiopia. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00MXXJ.pdf

Kenya

Hyun, M, W. Okolo, A. Munene. 2020. USAID/Kenya Gender Analysis Report. Prepared by Banyan Global. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00WKC7.pdf

Uganda

Among, Irene. 2017. Gender and Social Inclusion Analysis: Uganda. Washington, D.C.: USAID. https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1860/Gender_Social_Inclusion_Final_Report_08.23.17.pdf

PROJECT ANALYSES¹⁸

AVSI Foundation and Trickle Up. 2019. Gender Analysis: Gender Dynamics and their Influence on Food Security, Nutrition and Livelihoods in Rwamwanja Refugee Settlement and the Surrounding Host Community of Kamwenge District: Graduating to Resilience. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00TXW7.pdf

¹⁸ Not all project-level gender analyses become public. This list represents those found in a web on Google for public documents along with an advanced search of USAID's Development Experience Clearinghouse.

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Encompass, LLC. 2019. Gender-Based Violence Landscape Analysis. Prepared for the USAID/ETHIOPIA TRANSFORM: Primary Health Care Project.

Kebede, T. 2020. Feed the Future Ethiopia Resilience in Pastoral Areas (RiPA North): Rapid Gender Analysis for Afar Flood.

USAID/Tanzania Public Sector Systems Strengthening Activity (PS3). 2018. Gender Assessment of Phase I LGAs Final Report. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00WVZM.pdf

Social Impact, Inc. 2019. Gender Analysis Final Report. Prepared for the Ethiopia Performance Monitoring And Evaluation Service (EPMES) by Social Impact for USAID/Ethiopia. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00WPCD.pdf

Social Impact, Inc. 2019. Gender Analysis Final Report: Strengthening Disaster Risk Management Systems and Institutions Project. Prepared for the Ethiopia Performance Monitoring and Evaluation Service (EPMES) by Social Impact for USAID/Ethiopia. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00WPC9.pdf

Social Impact, Inc. 2019. Project Gender Analysis Final Report: Citizen-Responsive Governance. Prepared for the Ethiopia Performance Monitoring and Evaluation Service (EPMES) by Social Impact for USAID/Ethiopia. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00WPCC.pdf

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Shumba, C. and F. Demmelash. 2018. Livelihoods for Resilience Activity: Gender Analysis & Outcome Mapping. Report prepared for the Care Consortium for the Feed the Future Ethiopia Livelihoods for Resilience Activity Project. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00TCZB.pdf

SECTORAL STUDIES

Energy

Gihana, D., and A. Kooijman, A. 2020. Gender and Energy Country Briefs – Rwanda. ENERGIA. <https://www.afdb.org/en/documents/gender-and-energy-country-brief-rwanda>.

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Gender Analysis Tools and Manuals

FAO. 2018. Developing gender-sensitive value chains – Guidelines for practitioners. Rome: FAO. <http://www.fao.org/3/i9212en/I9212EN.pdf>

Rubin, D., C. Manfre, and K. Nichols Barrett. 2009. “Promoting Gender Equitable Opportunities in Agricultural Value Chains: A Handbook.” Washington, D.C.: USAID. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnaeb644.pdf

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Tabaj, K. and Spangler, T. (2017). Integrating Gender into Resilience Analysis: A Conceptual Overview. Produced by Save the Children as part of the Resilience Evaluation, Analysis and Learning (REAL) Associate Award. https://www.resiliencelinks.org/system/files/download-count/documents/2019-08/pa00tnkj_0.pdf

TetraTech and Landesa. 2019. Gender Equality and Women’s Land Rights Trainer’s Manual. Liberia Land Governance Support Activity (LGSA). Burlington, VT: TetraTech for USAID. https://www.land-links.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/07/LGSA-Gender-Equality-and-Womens-Land-Rights-Trainers-Manual_April-2020-1.pdf

UNCTAD. Teaching Material on Trade and Gender. Volume I: Unfolding the Links. Module 4: Trade and Gender Linkages, An Analysis of COMESA. UN. https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/ditc2016d1_en.pdf

Winrock International. 2016. Gender and Social Inclusion Handbook for Participants [Education]. Created with the support of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) for use by the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology of the Republic of South Sudan. https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00MM2F.pdf

ANNEX VI: OBSERVATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ON SUPPORTING GENDER ADVISORY STAFF

With the passage of the Women’s Entrepreneurship and Economic Empowerment Act of 2018 and its requirement for conducting robust gender analyses at every program level, the number of country and project level gender analyses has increased dramatically. USAID needs an adequate pool of qualified gender advisors with sufficient capacity to guide technical staff and implementing partners and apply their knowledge of gender analysis in all phases of their work, including procurement, reporting, and technical assistance to meet this requirement. To understand more clearly how the new emphasis on gender analyses has affected workloads, the interview questions for USAID staff asked about their responsibilities (Annex 4).

Country and regional advisors guide other mission technical officers and mission procedures. Half of the eight advisors interviewed reported that they also had other responsibilities for youth or disability issues (gender and social inclusion). Burundi, Djibouti, and Uganda do not currently have advisors in place, although Uganda is currently going through a recruitment process. At USAID/KEA, the Gender Advisor fulfills the job of both a country and a regional mission advisor. In contrast, the West Africa regional mission and the Ghana country mission are supported by two different Gender Advisors. With awareness of social inclusion increasing in the Agency, these responsibilities are growing, but it is not clear if staff members are expanding proportionately.

Some of the RIGOs have expanded their gender and inclusion staff over the past few years in parallel with an expansion in institutional gender programming. A good example is IGAD, which has a dedicated person leading the gender and land management program and another who has responsibility for managing the institutional programs, dealing with strategy, policy, and monitoring and evaluation. This could be a model on which USAID can build.

There does not appear to be a standard Agency formula either for assigning job titles and responsibilities or for allocating staff positions by anticipated workload, for example, allocating appropriate FTE by country or sector or level of investment. In considering future staffing, it is worth keeping in mind the words of one interviewee (not a USAID staff member), who said, “Relying on only one single person fails programs.”

USAID-funded grants or contracts increasingly include staff with part- or full-time responsibilities related to gender equality and women’s empowerment. Most projects reviewed in this exercise have at least one staff member addressing gender, sometimes in addition to youth, and social inclusion.

Both USAID and project staff expressed a desire for capacity-building on gender and social inclusion for themselves and their colleagues. One respondent explained that her colleagues in the field continue to lack awareness of the importance of working with women as well as men, saying “we [referring to the gender officer] need to insist” that field staff accept that women are also capable of carrying out the project activities and work with them, providing trainings and sharing information with them, as well as with the men. Another project has invested in training (conducting virtually during the pandemic) and developing manuals for its technical staff to inform them about the importance of gender integration to their work. One of the few regional projects without a gender advisor on staff commented that they

would benefit greatly from in-house capacity to become better informed about the implications of the diversity of gender relationships across the region for their activities.

For themselves, USAID country mission gender advisors requested support through regular regional knowledge sharing. Some recall attending global learning exchanges at USAID/Washington, including the conference in November 2019, but expressed a desire to share experiences of promising approaches and within the region more frequently. Several respondents explained that their support work on compliance and procurement allows them little time to stay informed about emerging evidence and tools on women's empowerment, so they could play more of an advisory role to mission colleagues in gender integration, especially in the design of new programs, as well as in monitoring and evaluation of results. That they would also welcome a regularly scheduled opportunity to interact with their colleagues in the region.

USAID mission gender advisors also wanted more engagement with regional programs and regional planning. They were pleased to be contributing to the regional gender analysis and noted that their knowledge of the country was an underutilized asset.

According to one USAID staff member, not all the gender-related reports associated with the Country Development Cooperation Strategies (CDCS) are made public; nonetheless, many gender analyses were found on the DEC or elsewhere online and reviewed for this assignment (see Annex 5). Some missions were able to call on global projects to prepare the analyses, while others were conducted through the country M&E platforms, as in the case of USAID/Ethiopia's use of the Ethiopia Performance Monitoring and Evaluation Service (EPMES) implemented by Social Impact, Inc. EPMES conducted a national gender analysis in 2017, followed by at least eight additional project or topic gender analysis reports published in 2019 on effective emergency response, youth empowerment, lowlands resilience, highlands resilience, private enterprise, and water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH). In addition, other USAID projects working in Ethiopia contributed a GBV Landscape analysis on health for the TRANSFORM project, conducted by EnCompass, LLC in 2019; a gender and youth action plan for the Feed the Future Ethiopia Value Chain Activity in 2018 prepared by Banyan Global; a gender analysis for the Feed the Future Livelihoods for Resilience Activity implemented by CARE and its partners in 2018; and a rapid analysis for the Resilience in Pastoral Areas activity on the implications of the Afar Flood (Sept 2020).

As part of the follow-up from the work on the RDCS, communicating a clear Theory of Change on women's empowerment would be very helpful to gender advisors and other technical mission staff as well as to implementing partners and regional stakeholders. In a review for the former Department for International Development of the United Kingdom, Vogel (2012: 4) explains that Theory of Change development is done especially well in a group and serves to make assumptions explicit. This is particularly critical in working on women's empowerment, where even experts who may agree on the dimensions of empowerment (broadly agency, resources, and achievements) nonetheless disagree on the most effective pathways to achieving it.

Ideally, this Theory of Change could begin with laying out a regional development hypothesis for women's empowerment. The recent gender analysis for USAID/Kenya (2020) provides one example:

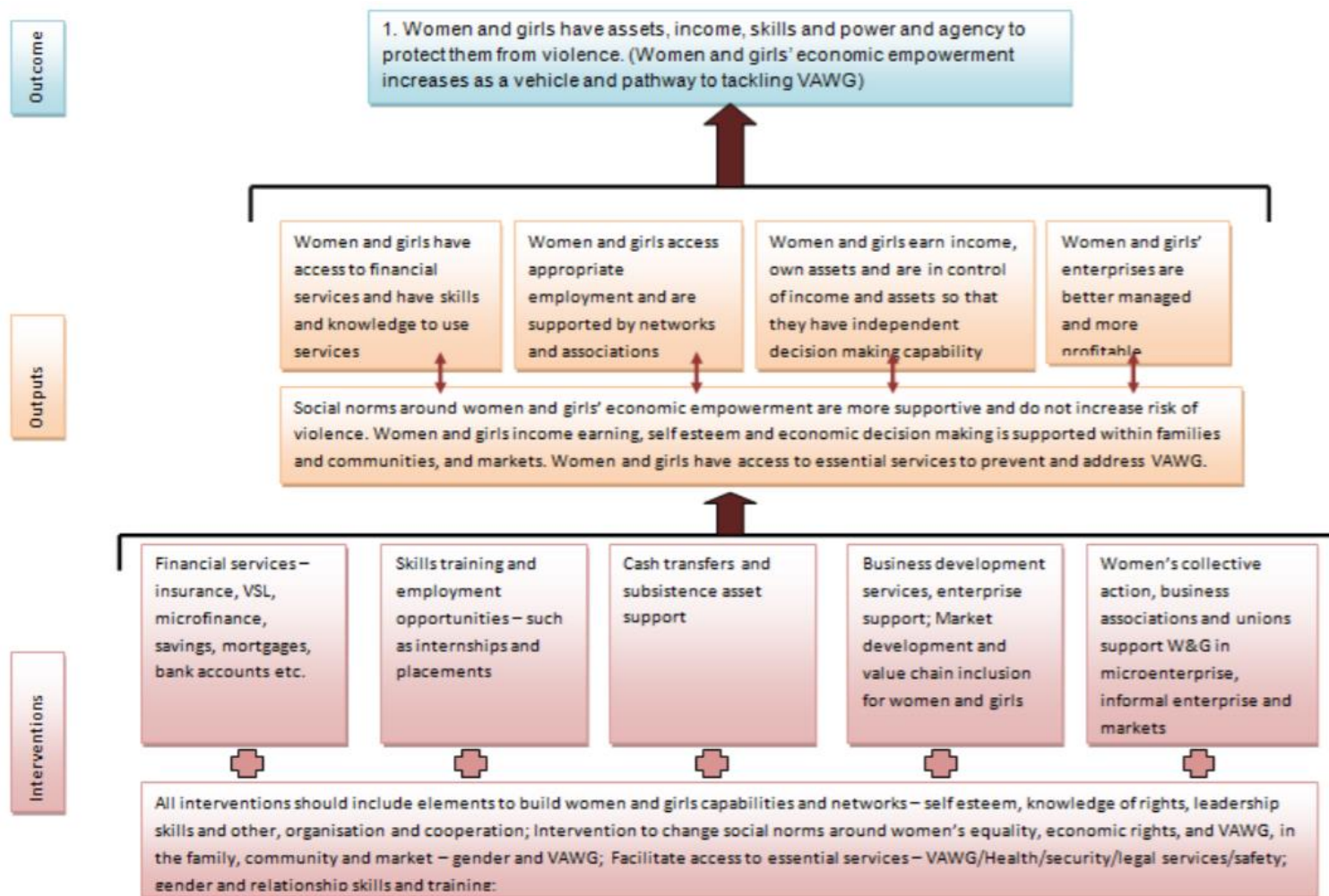
IF Kenyans create and facilitate strong public, private, and community networks to demand and incentivize elites' commitment to better systems, more-resilient households and communities, economic transformation for youth, and stronger regional partnerships,

AND apply a transformative-lens approach that addresses the structural, institutional, and cultural factors perpetuating young girls and women’s disempowerment and patterns of harmful masculinity that result in power imbalance and gender inequality,

THEN Kenya will better own, lead, and manage inclusive growth and sustainable well-being for its eventual self-reliance and lay the foundation for gender equality.

Several additional steps are needed however, to specify how specific development actors at each step would help to achieve these development goals and to link them with the development hypotheses embodied in other USAID strategies, such as the Global Food Security Strategy East Africa Regional Plan 2019-2024 (USAID 2019). Those who work extension with Theory of Change formulations suggest using a graphic representation, noting the “diagrams should combine ‘simplicity with validity—an acknowledgement of complexity, but recognition that things are more complex than can be described (James 2011:28-29 in Vogel 2012: 37). Figure 8 on the following page shows what this looks when the goal is reducing gender-based violence.

Figure 8. Developing a Theory of Change to Protect Women and Girls from Violence



Source: Taylor et al. 2015

Recommendations to strengthen gender support in the Kenya East Africa region include:

- Use regional or USAID/Washington resources to support a regional Community of Practice within USAID among country and regional mission gender advisors and gender points of contact to share evidence-based research, program results, and experience;
- Share with program implementers the USAID Theory of Change for gender equality and women's empowerment as it is embedded within the RDCS. Encourage program M&E systems to use custom indicators to track participation, benefits, and empowerment that maps to the actors, activities, and outcomes; and
- Conduct a meta-analysis of gender analyses completed in the region comparing and contrasting their methods, quality, and content, and investigate further how these reports were used and what gaps, if any, were identified by the users, as input into improving the value of these types of reports for future programming. Developing recommendations for regional programming is a special challenge, and the five dimensions in the ADS are not necessarily the best axes for analysis. Additional guidance for staff on how to apply gender-related findings to USAID regional programs could be helpful.

ANNEX VII: OVERVIEW OF GENDER EQUALITY AND INEQUALITY IN THE EAST AFRICAN REGION BY NUMBERS

TABLE II: GENDER INEQUALITY INDEX OF THE UNDP HUMAN DEVELOPMENT REPORT (2020)									
COUNTRY (OUT OF 194 TOTAL)	GENDER INEQUALITY INDEX	RANK	MATERNAL MORTALITY DEATH/ 100000	ADOLESCENT BIRTH RATE AGE 15-19 1000	SHARE OF SEATS IN PARLIAMENT	POPULATION LEAST SECONDARY EDUCATION		LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION	
						F	M	F	M
Somalia	0	0	829	100.1	24	0	0	21.8	73.6
S. Sudan	0	0	1150	62	26.6	0	0	71.0	73.8
Djibouti	0	0	248	188	26.2	0	0	50.7	68.8
Rwanda	0.402	121	248	39.1	55.7	10.9	15.8	83.9	83.4
Burundi	0.504	124	548	55.6	38.8	7.5	11.4	80.4	77.8
Ethiopia	0.517	125	401	66.7	37.3	11.5	22.6	73.4	85.8
Kenya	0.518	126	342	75.1	23.3	29.8	37.3	72.1	77.3
Uganda	0.535	131	375	118.8	34.9	27.5	35.1	67.0	73.9
Zambia	0.539	137	213	120.1	18.0	38.5	54.1	70.4	79.1
Sudan	0.545	138	295	64.0	27.5	15.4	19.5	29.1	68.2
Tanzania	0.556	140	524	118	36.9	12.0	16.9	79.6	87.3
DRC	0.617	150	473	124.2	12.0	36.7	65.8	60.7	66.3

Source: UNDP Human Development Report Gender Inequality Index (<http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/GII>)

Note: The GII is an inequality index. It measures gender inequalities in three important aspects of human development—reproductive health, measured by maternal mortality ratio and adolescent birth rates; empowerment, measured by the proportion of parliamentary seats occupied by females and proportion of adult females and males aged 25 years and older with at least some secondary education; and economic status, expressed as labor market participation and measured by labor force participation rate of female and male populations aged 15 years and older. The GII exposes differences in the distribution of achievements between women and men. It measures the human development costs of

gender inequality. The higher the GII value the greater the disparities between women and men and the greater loss to human development.

TABLE 12: EAST AFRICA REGION - GLOBAL GENDER GAP INDEX (GGGI)					
COUNTRY (OUT OF 153 TOTAL)	GGGI INDEX	INDICATORS			
		ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION	EDUCATION ATTAINMENT	HEALTH AND SURVIVAL	POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT
Burundi	0.745	0.837	0.896	0.978	0.269
Djibouti	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
DRC	0.578	0.589	0.658	0.976	0.080
Ethiopia	0.705	0.568	0.850	0.976	0.427
Global Average	0.685	0.582	0.957	0.958	0.241
Kenya	0.671	0.598	0.938	0.980	0.169
Rwanda	0.791	0.672	0.957	0.973	0.563
S. Sudan	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Somalia	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Sub Saharan Africa	0.680	0.666	0.872	0.972	0.211
Sudan	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Tanzania	0.713	0.698	0.921	0.978	0.251
Zambia	0.730	0.831	0.938	0.980	0.309

Source: World Economic Forum Report 2020 [SIGI://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2020.pdf](https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2020.pdf)

Note: Introduced by World Economic Forum in 2006, the GGGI is a framework for capturing the magnitude of gender-based disparities based on data from International Organizations and Survey of Executives – Index benchmarks national gender gaps on economic participation and opportunities. The index expresses the extent to which gender parity has been attained/reached so far by country.

TABLE 13: AFRICA GENDER INDEX				
COUNTRY	AFRICA GENDER INDEX	ECONOMIC DIMENSION	SOCIAL DIMENSION	EMPOWERMENT AND REPRESENTATION
Sudan	0.316	0.389	1.054	0.077
DRC	0.372	0.613	0.963	0.088
Somalia	0.387	0.472	0.980	0.125
Regional Average	0.486	0.617	0.966	0.213
Ethiopia	0.487	0.542	0.863	0.247
Kenya	0.522	0.703	1.001	0.203
Burundi	0.538	0.523	1.071	0.278
Uganda	0.613	0.663	0.916	0.379
Tanzania	0.618	0.507	0.965	0.482
Zambia	0.676	0.693	0.986	0.452
Rwanda	0.761	0.662	1.064	0.626

Source: African Development Bank and United Nations Economic Commission for Africa Report 2020
(<https://www.afdb.org/en/documents/africa-gender-index-report-2019-analytical-report>)

Note: A score of 1 represents parity between women and men. A score between 0 and 1 means there is gender inequality in favor of males, while a score above 1 means that women are doing well compared to men. The economic dimension assesses whether women and men have equal economic opportunities. It measures gender inequalities in labor market participation, wages and incomes, business ownership, and access to productive resources.

The social dimension measures gaps in access to education and health services. It assesses whether girls and boys have equal access to education and health services, and whether they attain the levels of education and health needed to be full participants in economic and social life. The representation and empowerment dimension measures the extent to which women and men participate in their country's decision-making processes and organs, and whether women and men are represented equally in political institutions.

TABLE 14: WOMEN BUSINESS IN LAW INDEX (2020)									
COUNTRY (OUT OF 190)	WB INDEX	INDICATORS							
		MOBILITY	WORKPLACE	PAY	MARRIAGE	PARENTHOOD	ENTREPRENEURSHIP	ASSET	PENSION
Sudan	29.4	0	0	0	0	20	75	40	100
Somalia	46.9	75	50	50	20	40	75	40	75
DRC	68.1	100	100	50	20	60	100	40	75
	69.9	Sub-Saharan Africa Average							
S. Sudan	70.0	100	100	100	80	40	75	40	25
Ethiopia	71.9	100	100	25	80	20	75	100	75
Burundi	73.1	100	100	75	60	40	75	60	75
Uganda	73.1	75	100	100	80	40	75	40	75
	75.23	Global Average							
Rwanda	78.1	100	100	75	80	20	75	100	75
Djibouti	78.8	100	100	50	40	80	100	60	75
Kenya	80.6	100	100	100	100	40	50	80	75
Zambia	81.3	75	100	100	80	40	100	80	75
Tanzania	84.4	100	100	100	80	60	75	40	100

Source: Women Business in Law Report 2020

<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/32639/9781464815324.pdf>

Note: The Women Business in Law index measures how laws and regulations affect women's economic opportunities relative to men concerning formalized employment and as entrepreneurs. One hundred percent is the highest possible score indicating no legal inequalities between men and women in areas covered. The index measures formal laws only, Informal institutions norms and values beliefs and practices are not captured.