

# Mainstreaming gender in urban public transport

Lessons from Nairobi, Kampala and Dar es Salaam

---

SEI working paper  
May 2021

Cassilde Muhoza

Anna Wikman

Rocio Diaz Chavez





**Stockholm Environment Institute**

Linnégatan 87D 115 23 Stockholm, Sweden

Tel: +46 8 30 80 44 [www.sei.org](http://www.sei.org)

Author contact: Rocio Diaz-Chavez

[rocio.diaz-chavez@sei.org](mailto:rocio.diaz-chavez@sei.org)

Editor: Molly Killeen

Layout: Richard Clay

Cover photo: Old Taxi Park, Kampala, Uganda © SEI

This publication may be reproduced in whole or in part and in any form for educational or non-profit purposes, without special permission from the copyright holder(s) provided acknowledgement of the source is made. No use of this publication may be made for resale or other commercial purpose, without the written permission of the copyright holder(s).

Copyright © May 2021 by Stockholm Environment Institute

Stockholm Environment Institute is an international non-profit research and policy organization that tackles environment and development challenges. We connect science and decision-making to develop solutions for a sustainable future for all. Our approach is highly collaborative: stakeholder involvement is at the heart of our efforts to build capacity, strengthen institutions, and equip partners for the long term. Our work spans climate, water, air, and land-use issues, and integrates evidence and perspectives on governance, the economy, gender and human health. Across our eight centres in Europe, Asia, Africa and the Americas, we engage with policy processes, development action and business practice throughout the world.

**Acknowledgements**

The research was also conducted to support the activities of The Flone Initiative including co-organizing the first Eastern Africa Women in Transportation Conference “Exploring Women and Transportation at the Nexus of Research, Policy and Practice” held on November 22-23 2018 at the University of Nairobi. The outcomes of the conference informed the study design by highlighting research and policy gaps on gender and urban transport and by providing recommendations for gender mainstreaming in urban public transport in East Africa. This study was also carried out in partnership with Flone Initiative. We acknowledge the collaboration of Susan Goodwillie, Mary Mwangi, Naomi Mwaura and Javan Odenyo Ochido.

We would like to express our gratitude to all interviewees for their valuable contribution providing information and data for this project. Our gratitude as well to Dr Steve Cinderby for reviewing this report and providing insightful comments.

---

## Contents

<b>1. Introduction .....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>2. Methodology .....</b>	<b>6</b>
2.1 Brief of the case studies .....	8
2.2 Limitations of the study.....	8
<b>3. Research trends on gender and transport .....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>4. Gender mainstreaming in public transport in East African cities .....</b>	<b>11</b>
4.1 Gender and public transport in Nairobi, Kampala and Dar es Salaam.....	12
4.1 Gender Mainstreaming in transport policy and legal instruments.....	15
4.3 Institutional arrangement .....	19
<b>5. Addressing gender-related issues in public transport: What to include in social impact assessments .....</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>6. Discussion: Opportunities and future for an inclusive, equitable and sustainable transport system.....</b>	<b>23</b>
<b>7. Conclusions and recommendations for future research .....</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>References .....</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>Annex 1 .....</b>	<b>35</b>
<b>Annex 2 .....</b>	<b>36</b>

## 1. Introduction

Africa, the fastest urbanizing continent, has an annual urban growth rate of 3.6%: double the world average (UNDESA 2015). Its urban population has increased from 19% to 39% in the past 50 years (UNDESA 2014), with the number of urban dwellers projected to reach 770 million by 2030 (UNDESA 2015). However, while rapid urbanization has increased mobility and created a subsequent growth in demand for public transport in cities, this has not been met by the provision of adequate and sustainable infrastructure and services. Even though urbanization has been accompanied by increased private motorization in Africa, this trend is limited to high- and middle-income households. The majority of low-income residents and the urban poor still lack access to adequate transport services and rely on non-motorized and public transport, which is often informal and characterized by poor service delivery. Lack of access to transport services limits access to opportunities that aren't in the proximity of residential areas, such as education, healthcare, and employment. In most of urban Africa, walking is the dominant mode of transport, especially for the poor, and makes up between 50% and 90% of daily trips (Stucki 2015).

The urban public transport sector not only faces the challenge of poor service provision, but also of gender inequality. Research on gendered travel patterns and behaviour around the world shows that, in the existing urban transport systems, there are significant differences in the travel patterns of and modes of transport used by women and men, and that these differences are associated with their roles and responsibilities in society (e.g. reproductive and productive) (Peters 2001). Moreover, the differences in travel patterns are characterized by unequal access to transport facilities and services: "Women have inferior access to both private and public means of transport while at the same time assuming a higher share of their household's travel burden and making more trips associated with reproductive and caretaking responsibilities" (Peters 2013, p.1). In addition, women travel in cities at different times from men and have fewer financial resources for transport (United Nations Chronicle 2015).

Women are generally underrepresented in the sector, in both its operation (service delivery) and decision-making. Women's mobility needs and patterns are rarely integrated into transport infrastructure design and services and female users are often victims of harassment and assault. For example, a survey conducted with 300 matatu workers in Nairobi (including service providers, stage crews and stage workers) revealed that only 22% of respondents were women and 60% were men, indicating that the matatu industry is still male-dominated (Global Labour Institute 2018, p.11). In Kenya, 88% of commuters surveyed have heard of or witnessed violence against women on public transport: in minibuses (matatus), buses and motorcycle taxis (UN-HABITAT 2018).

As cities rapidly expand, meeting the transport needs of their growing populations while paying attention to gender-differentiated mobility patterns is a prerequisite to achieving sustainability, livability and inclusivity. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) address this in SDG 11 (make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable), specifically with target 11.2 which sets out an aim to "provide access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for all, improving road safety, notably by expanding public transport, with special attention to the needs of those in vulnerable situations, women, children, persons with disabilities and older persons" by 2030 (UNSD 2019, p.11). An accessible and sustainable transport system enables easy access to other key services in cities, such as education, healthcare and employment, therefore indirectly linking to SDG 1 (eradicate poverty), SDG 3 (ensure good health and wellbeing) and SDG 4 (ensure inclusive and equitable quality education). Finally, efficient and inclusive transport systems can contribute to achieving SDG 5 (gender equality) and SDG 10 (reduced inequalities) by ensuring that they meet the unique needs of women and reduce gender inequality in transport. The UN's New Urban Agenda (2016) also recognizes the need to address gender to ensure sustainable urban mobility and to commit to promoting age- and gender-responsive planning alongside gender equality and the empowerment of women.

Gender mainstreaming in urban public transport is therefore a critical issue, but one which is under-researched in East Africa. Few studies have a) analyzed gendered travel patterns and mobility needs in cities; b) assessed the extent to which gender issues have been mainstreamed into transport policy, planning and practice; c) evaluated the impact of gender-sensitive transport strategies and measures on women's mobility; and d) explored the issue of women's employment in urban public transport.

This research explores gender issues in public transport in East African cities and, in particular, women's inclusion in both public transport systems and transport policy decision-making processes. The use of "public transport" here refers to "all forms of transport available to the public and charge set fares" (FIA Foundation 2016). Public transport can be formal or informal depending on the context. Formal public transport refers to services in urban areas that are available to the public, charge set fares and run on predetermined specified routes, with stops and timetables. They may be operated by public or private organizations and cover a wide range of modes, including mass transit, which refers to high-capacity public transport systems (normally operated on dedicated infrastructure) such as suburban rail; metros; light rail (tramways and street cars); bus rapid transit (BRT) systems; and waterborne transport (ferries and boats) (UN-HABITAT 2014). In the context of developing countries, particularly in Africa, public transport is characterized by non-motorized transport (NMT) (mainly walking and cycling) and informal (motorized) transport (also referred to as "paratransit"), which "relies on privately owned vehicles whose operators often lack necessary permits or do not meet requirements for vehicle size, insurance coverage or driver standards" (UN-HABITAT 2014, p.15). The operators are generally considered informal because even when some are fully licensed, they do not have formal contracts with their employees (crew, touts) and may deviate from routes or charge unauthorized higher fares, depending on the time of the day and traffic. Informal motorized public transport in African cities comprises small- to medium-capacity vehicles including buses, shared taxis, minibuses, motorbikes taxis and rickshaws/tuk tuks. For the purpose of this research we will use the wider interpretation of public transport which includes NMT, formal public transport (e.g. BRT) and paratransit.

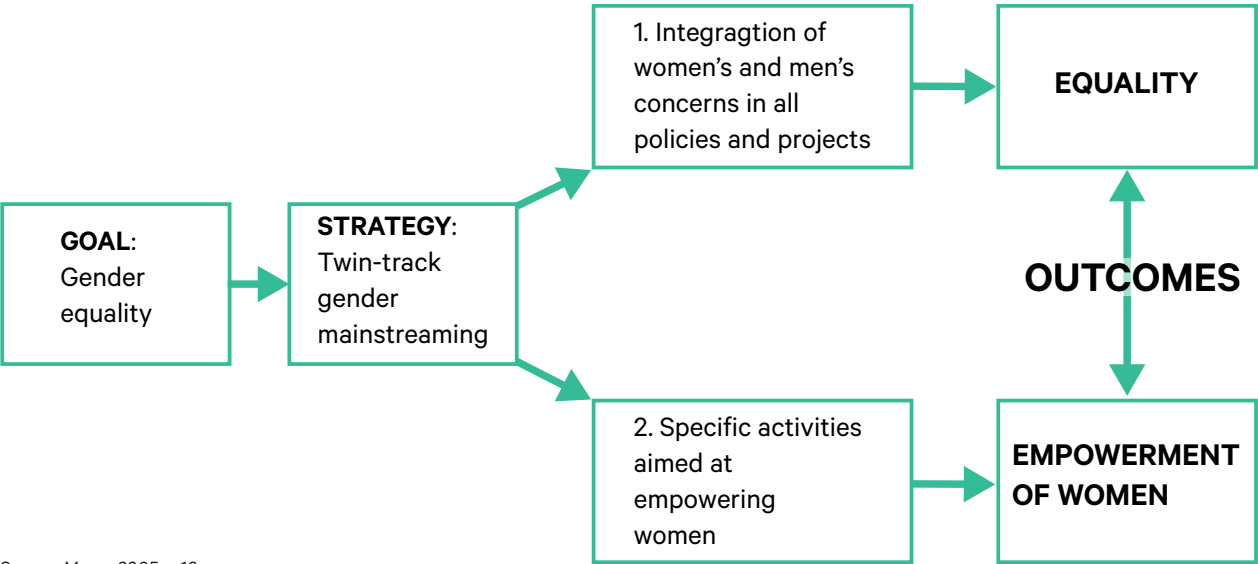
The concept of gender mainstreaming is used in this study to assess the extent to which gender is integrated into urban transport policy, planning and service provision. Most definitions of gender mainstreaming conform to the United Nations Economic and Social Council's (ECOSOC) definition, set out in July 1997 as follows: "Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality" (International Labour Organization 2002). According to the World Bank (2010, p.16), "Gender mainstreaming in the transport sector means identifying and addressing gaps in gender equality that will impact sector policies as well as the design, planning, and provision of its infrastructure and services. Paying greater attention to the needs of all transport users differentiated by gender also means that interventions should be targeted not just to improve the physical infrastructure but also to improve the means of transport, including the non-motorized transport modes as well as the quality of services. To do this, the travel behaviours of both women and men in terms of frequency of trips, travel time and mode choice must be examined to ensure that both men and women can equally afford and safely access and use transport".

Gender mainstreaming comprises two components, defined as a "twin-track strategy" in the DFID gender audit methodology (Figure 1) (Moser 2005):

- Integration of women's and men's concerns (needs and interests) throughout the development process (in all policies and projects)
- Specific activities aimed at empowering women.

Generally, existing gender-responsive transport policy measures and initiatives that seek to address gender inequalities in transport around the world have adopted the two approaches (Peters 2013).

Figure 1: Twin-track strategy of gender mainstreaming.



Source: Moser 2005, p.16

The main goal of this report is to analyze gender mainstreaming in public transport and urban planning, focusing on the inclusion of these issues in policy and regulatory instruments. This analysis will focus on the challenges and opportunities for an inclusive, equitable and sustainable urban public transport system in three main cities in East Africa: Kampala, Dar es Salaam and Nairobi.

## 2. Methodology

The research was conducted applying a mixed methodology based on primary data gathered from interviews with stakeholders and secondary data from a literature review. Three analyses were undertaken: a policy assessment; an analysis of case studies in three cities in East Africa - Nairobi, Kampala and Dar es Salaam; and a review of social impact assessment issues for transport and gender.

A review of academic literature on gender, transport and mobility, gender mainstreaming in transport, and inclusive and sustainable transport in urban and rural areas was also conducted to review and better understand current research trends on gender issues in transport around the world and gender-responsive transport solutions. Grey literature (i.e. study reports, toolkits, research briefs, guidelines etc.) was also analyzed to ensure a comprehensive understanding of these topics.

In each of the three cities, the policy assessment conducted covered policies and regulatory instruments related to development, transport and urban planning policy. These assessments served to: a) map existing policies, plans, strategies, laws, and regulations at the national and city levels guiding transport sectors; b) assess the extent to which gender issues are identified and addressed in transport sector goals and strategies; and c) identify policy gaps. The analysis of national- and city-level transport policy and legal frameworks focused on road transport, but

at the city level, urban planning policy documents were also analyzed. Additionally, national gender policy and legal frameworks were reviewed to develop an understanding of the existing frameworks for guiding gender mainstreaming in all sectors. The mapping of policy and legal documents was conducted through a google search and during key informant interviews.

The literature and policy assessments were complemented by key informant interviews conducted between June and July 2019 in Kampala, Dar es Salaam and Nairobi. 22 interviews were conducted with key stakeholders including individuals from a city authority; a transport ministry; a transport authority; and a transport agency; as well as a road safety expert; urban planners; a transport planner and engineers; a development partner; public transport service operators (matatus, taxis, online hailing taxis); public transport unions; and a local NGO working on gender equality and women's empowerment (Table 1). The interviews were semi-structured and comprised of questions on gender issues in the public transport sector. The topics of these included gender mainstreaming and women's inclusion in policy decision-making and systems; barriers to mainstreaming; and future opportunities for an inclusive, equitable and sustainable transport system.

Table 1: List of interview respondents

City	Interviewee category	Stakeholder type/ activity	Gender	Date
Nairobi	Ministry of Transport	Policymaker, Road Transport Services Unit	M	July 2019
	AfDB	Senior Gender specialist	F	
	Association for Safe International Road Safety Travel Kenya National (ASIRT)	Road safety expert	F	
	University of Nairobi	Urban transport planner	M	
		Urban governance and gender expert	F	
	Matatu INDIMANJE SACCO	Road manager		
	TIMCON ASSOCIATES	Transport engineers	F, M	
	Little Cab	General Manager	M	
Kampala	Airport taxi driver	Air taxi driver	F	
	Amalgamated Transport and General Workers Union (ATWGU)	Roads Organising Secretary	M	
	KORTSA Kampala Operational Tax Stage Association (former Uganda Taxi Operator and Driver Association - UTODA)	General Secretary	M	
	Taxi operator	Taxi operator	F	
	Makerere University	Urban planner	M	
	Makerere University	Transport planner	M	
	Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA)	Transport planner	M	
		Gender, Community Services	F	
	Taxi driver	Taxi driver	F	
Dar es Salaam	AfDB	Economist/transport expert	M	June 2019
	The communication and transport workers union of Tanzania COTWU (T)	General Secretary	F	
	Dar Rapid Transit (DART) Agency	Sociologist	F	
	Tanzania National Roads Agency (TANROADS)	Environmental/social Development Consultant	F	
	WOTE Initiative for Development Empowerment	Executive Director	M	



## 2.1 Brief of the case studies

Nairobi, Kampala and Dar es Salaam were identified as case studies due to the similarity between their public transport and associated mobility challenges. As is the case in many African cities, public motorized transport in Dar es Salaam, Kampala and Nairobi is one of the main modes of transport and is predominately operated by the private sector. It is also characterized by unreliable and poor service provision (low-capacity vehicles — 14-34 passengers — operating without control and transport schedules); overcrowding; poor safety and security standards; poor motorized transport infrastructure; and gender inequality.

In Nairobi, with an estimated population of more than four million (KNBS 2019), walking and public motorized transport are the main means of transport. Walking accounts for 47% of daily trips and public transport, dominated by privately-owned paratransit buses and minibuses, accounts for about 36%. Private cars only account for 15% of the trips (Nairobi City County Government 2015). Other modes of transport used include the railways operating during peak hours between the Central Business District and the eastern and southern parts of Nairobi, and public motorcycles for which the appropriate infrastructure is not in place, meaning increased road safety risks.

In Kampala, with an estimated population of around 1.6 million (UBOS 2020), more than 80% of commuters use public minibuses, which account for 21% of motorized trips. Public motorcycles (boda-boda) account for over 40% of the trips but carry only 9% of commuters. Private cars account for 36.6% of all motorized trips but are only used by 8.8% of commuters (Kampala Capital City Authority 2015; Ministry of Works and Transport 2009).

In Dar es Salaam, with an estimated population of more than five million (African Development Bank 2015), public motorized transport (operated by minibuses/dala dala) accounts for 42.5% of daily trips; walking for 16.8%; motorcycles and tricycles (Bajaj) for 13.6%; and cycling 8.8%; while private cars account for 18.3% (as of 2015) (United Republic of Tanzania 2016).

In the three cities, commendable efforts are being made to improve the public transport sector, mobility and safety, including plans for the introduction of mass transit systems (such as bus rapid transport systems (BRT), city bus systems, light rail and cable cars systems) and non-motorized transport infrastructure development in Nairobi and Kampala. Dar es Salaam implemented its BRT system in 2016 to enhance mobility and improve urban public transport in order to meet the growing travel demand of residents. The BRT implementation consists of six phases; the first phase has been operational since May 2016, connecting residential areas to the city centre and operating with 150 buses (but expected reach 300); the other phases are under development. Additionally, the introduction and wide adoption of electronic taxi hailing services through smartphone applications in the three cities in past four years has revolutionized and improved public transport services in terms of comfort and efficiency, especially for middle income commuters. Online taxi-hailing companies such as Uber and Little Cab are increasingly providing transport services (buses or taxis) to middle and low income users at a relatively cheaper price compared to traditional taxis. In 2019, Little Cab and SWVL introduced in Nairobi online shuttle-hailing services providing alternative bus services on existing routes that are more convenient, efficient and reliable compared to matatus. The shuttles operate on existing routes following a fixed schedule and charging fixed prices.

## 2.2 Limitations of the study

This study scoped research and therefore the analysis does not explore in-depth gender issues in all the modes of transport. The study focuses on taxis, buses and minibuses in Kampala and Nairobi, and buses, minibuses and the BRT in Dar es Salaam, as these are the modes used by the majority of commuters in these cities.



### 3. Research trends on gender and transport

Since the 1980s, there has been a growing body of academic literature exploring the complex linkages between transportation, mobility and gender in both developed countries (Gordon et al. 1989; Grieco et al. 1989; Jones 1990; Hamilton et al. 1991; Rosenbloom 1993; Little et al. 1988; Hamilton et al. 2005; Hamilton 2005; Tilley and Houston 2016) and developing countries (Turner and Fouracre 1995; Grieco et al. 1996; Fernando 1999; Peters 2001; Hamilton 2002; Quirós et al. 2014; Elias et al. 2015; Shah et al. 2017).

Research on gendered travel around the world shows that there are significant differences in travel patterns and modal splits between women and men. Women have shorter work trips than men in most settings and make many, often more complex and off-peak, trips to access essential socio-economic services such as healthcare, education, markets and childcare. Moreover, the differences in travel patterns are characterized by unequal access to transport facilities and services, which limit women's access to social and economic opportunities. Peters (2001) notes that women's unequal access to transport facilities can be attributed to three interrelated variables: patriarchy, poverty and planning/policy. Regarding the latter, research shows that women's travel needs have not been integrated into traditional transport planning. The planning problems derive from general assumptions such as the existence of equity in society, that all households are traditional families (parents and children), that everybody has equal access to resources and of traditional task divisions between men (breadwinner) and women (reproductive), all of which make the transport needs of men the priority for urban planners (Levy 1990 in Peters 2001).

Research on gendered travel differences in developing countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, has mainly focused on rural areas (e.g. in Nigeria, Kenya, Burkina Faso, Uganda, Tanzania, Zambia, Ethiopia) (Barwell et al. 1993; Bryceson and Howe 1993; Malmberg-Calvo 1994; Fernando 1999; Riverson et al. 2005). Recent studies have explored the differential impacts of rural transport on women's livelihoods (Fernando and Porter 2002; Seedhouse et al. 2016) and assessed the impacts and implications of gender mainstreaming in rural transport planning and policy and practice Uganda, Kenya, Ghana and Tanzania (Tanzarn 2017; HelpAge International 2017; Nyangueso et al. 2019).

In cities, the focus has been on gender-based violence and sexual harassment in public transport, both globally (FIA Foundation 2016) and in different regions such as Europe (Deniz 2016; Gardner et al. 2017; Mellgren et al. 2018; Stark and Meschik 2018), Latin America (Allen et al. 2017) and Asia (Neupane and Chesney-Lind 2014). These studies also include examinations of the effects on women's choice of modes and travel times. These research findings show that perceived and experienced insecurity associated with the use of, and access to, public transport systems significantly constrains and shapes women's transport and travel patterns, thus limiting their mobility and access to opportunities and services within the city. Women prefer to walk in more open public spaces rather than a closed environment, as well as during daylight rather in darkness (Börjesson 2012).

Few recent studies have explored the relationship between gender, mobility and poverty in sub-Saharan African cities. Research on the gendered travel patterns and behaviour of the urban poor in Nairobi, Cape Coast, Cape Town, Kampala and Lagos finds that the burden of reduced mobility due to poverty is borne disproportionately by women, children, the elderly and disabled people living in low income areas and slums (Salon and Gulyani 2010; Sietchiping et al. 2012; INTALInC 2019). Empirical research on the interactions between residential location, gender and travel patterns in low income areas in Durban, South Africa, also reveals that gender differences in the use of various modes of transport, transport expenditures and travel times are greatest in more distant rural localities compared to central localities in the city. Households in peri-urban and peripheral areas suffer the highest travel burdens, with women bearing a large part of this burden (Venter et al. 2007). Finally, limited studies have explored women's employment in urban public

transport in sub-Saharan Africa. Khosa (1997) analyzed the experiences of men and women taxi drivers in South Africa and concluded that there were “unequal power relations between women and men in the taxi industry, discrimination in employment practices, and sexual harassment of women taxi drivers and commuters”.

Studies have reviewed existing gender-sensitive transport policy responses and initiatives around the world, especially in urban transport (Polk 2008; Peters 2013; Thynell 2016). Policy responses vary between measures to reduce inequality in access to transport modes, services and destinations on the one hand, and measures which explicitly recognize women’s specific needs on the other (Peters 2013). To ensure women’s safety and comfort in public transport, several cities (in both developed and developing countries) have instituted measures that segregate women from men by providing women-only taxi-services (Cairo, Damascus, Beirut, Dubai); women-only and family parking spaces (Germany, US); women-only train services (Tokyo, Taipei, Kuala Lumpur); women-only buses (Mexico); and women-only rail services (India, Mexico City, Rio de Janeiro, Minsk, Moscow, Cairo) (Tara 2011; Dunkel-Graglia 2013).

However, gender segregation responses have been criticized for perpetuating gender differences rather than comprehensively addressing the deep-rooted gender biases that characterize the current transport planning and policy-making (Peters 2013). Thynell (2016) notes that “more in-depth knowledge about the conditions for women who commute or make other kinds of journeys in cities is more likely to help bring about desirable long-term change than simply implementing practices of gender separation, such as ‘pink solutions’, which increase women’s safety temporarily. Universal policies for increasing equality should be favoured over exclusionary practices, which may simply lead to future conflict instead”. Alternative policy measures have focused on designing gender-sensitive transport services and infrastructure which consider women’s needs. These include:

- Providing barrier-free, protected sidewalks wide enough to accommodate parents travelling with children
- Providing barrier-free, safe and well-lit public transport stations, stops and vehicles, and designing vehicles with all users in mind (e.g. space for strollers or goods)
- Locating public toilets (with baby changing stations accessible to all sexes) near transit
- Promoting a mix of uses and activities and co-location of transit stops and stations with residences and local services (shopping malls, markets, health services)
- Developing locally appropriate, safe and affordable bikes with carrying devices designed for carrying children and market goods
- Providing safe and secure parking facilities for intermediate means of transport and developing fare policies that minimize cost for multi-stop journeys
- Providing gender-balanced public signage with gendered signs and signals.

Gender-sensitive transport policy measures, such as those in EU countries, have also aimed to promote female employment in transport by increasing and improving working conditions for women working in the transport industry.

Despite the notable efforts to mainstream gender into public transport, especially in developed countries, impact assessments of gender-sensitive policy measures reveal there are “still considerable obstacles to be overcome at a variety of levels, even in advanced developed country settings where significant advances in gender equality have been made” (Peters 2013). A gender audit for transport, in the form of a checklist, has therefore been identified and proposed by experts as a policy tool. This can be used by policymakers, planners and providers in the transport industry to assess how effectively their policies, plans and systems have mainstreamed gender and gender equality, in order to ensure that transport provision meets women’s needs (Hamilton and Jenkins 2000).

## 4. Gender mainstreaming in public transport in East African cities

International and development agencies (such as the World Bank, Asia Development Bank, SIDA, UN, CIDA, DFID, GTZ and KfW), as well as governments, have also extensively researched gender issues, particularly women's access and mobility in urban and rural transport in developed countries since the 1990s (Peters 2013). From this, they have produced an increasing amount of grey and academic literature (i.e. research and policy briefs, manuals, toolkits, guidelines) that can be used by transport planners, policymakers and practitioners to mainstream gender into policy, planning and infrastructure design and service provision (e.g. Bamberger and Lebo 1998; Maramba and Bamberger 2001; SIDA 2017; Tanzarn 2019). Notably, the World Bank has extensively explored gender issues in transport and produced a wide range of publications, including guidelines on gender mainstreaming in urban transport policy and transport projects (Riverson et al. 2006; Uteng 2012). One such publication is the 'Gender and Transport Resource Guide' (SSATP 2006), an online resource providing tools and information (case studies, toolkits, reports) for mainstreaming gender into transport in the areas of policy, design, implementation monitoring and evaluation, capacity building and research. Similarly, the EU has supported research and policy responses on gender, transport and mobility in its member states and has produced policy reports (Maffii et al. 2014) and recommendations for EU transport (TRANSGEN 2007). Table 2 presents examples of existing toolkits for mainstreaming gender into urban public transport.

Table 2: Examples of toolkits for mainstreaming gender into transport

Organization	Title of toolkit/guideline	Year	Characteristics	Scope
<b>Flone Initiative and UN Habitat</b>	Gender Sensitive Minibus Services & Transport Infrastructure for African Cities: A Practical Toolkit; Based on a Mobility of Care Study & Gender Equity Assessment of Nairobi's Minibus Transport Network	2019	The toolkit provides minibus transport organizations, policymakers and civil society actors with practical and concrete tools for creating safer public transport systems for African women and other vulnerable commuters. The tools and recommendations herein are based on a Mobility of Care Study & Gender Equity Assessment of Nairobi's Minibus Transport Network.	Urban public transport in Africa
<b>GIZ, SUTP, Transformative Urban Mobility Initiative</b>	Approaches for Gender Responsive Urban Mobility. Module 7a Sustainable Transport: A Sourcebook for Policy-makers in Developing Cities	2018	The source book discusses how gender issues in transport policy and planning should be dealt with. It not only summarizes current situation women very often face in urban transport worldwide, but also outlines why gender-responsive transport planning is needed, offering best practice examples as well as concrete tools with which to take action.	Urban transport in developing cities
<b>FIA Foundation</b>	Ella se mueve segura (ESMS) – A study on women's personal safety in public transport in three Latin American cities (2018)	2018	The toolkit provides practical methodologies, examples and tools that a city planner, transport expert, or decision-maker can use for addressing gender and urban transport	Urban transport, global
<b>Asian Development Bank</b>	Gender Tool Kit: Transport. Maximizing the Benefits of Improved Mobility for All	2013	The purpose of the toolkit is to assist staff and consultants of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and government partner executing agencies to conceptualize and design gender-responsive projects in the transport sector. The toolkit provides guidance for transport sector specialists and gender specialists by drawing attention to the gender dimensions of transport and how to mainstream gender equality issues into transport project design, implementation, and policy engagement.	Transport
<b>UN Habitat</b>	Women's Safety Audits: What Works and Where?	2008	The women's safety audit tool is used to assess women's sense of safety by identifying the factors that make women feel safe and unsafe in the public domain. Based on these results, recommendations are made for increasing women's sense of safety and use of public space. Results are also intended to influence the development of a set of guidelines for local authorities to refer to when considering the use of the women's safety audit tool.	Public space including transport infrastructure
<b>World Bank</b>	Mainstreaming Gender in Road Transport: Operational Guidance for World Bank Staff	2010	The paper aims to provide guidance for both transport and gender specialists on how to mainstream gender-related considerations into road transport projects to improve development effectiveness, sustainability and reduce gender inequality.	

To date, limited studies in sub-Saharan Africa, and particularly in East Africa, have both assessed the extent to which gender issues have been mainstreamed into current urban transport policy, planning and practice, and evaluated the impact of gender-responsive transport policies and plans on women's mobility. Issues of women's employment, and gender-based violence and harassment-prevention in public transport are under-researched in East African cities.

Based on the literature review of gender mainstreaming in urban transport around the world and in East Africa, along with key informant interviews, five aspects were identified as the key issues affecting women in transportation:

- a. Accessibility and safety of public transport systems
- b. Sexual assault and harassment
- c. Lack of integrated and gender-sensitive urban planning
- d. Underrepresentation of women in the transport sector
- e. Inadequate gender mainstreaming in transport policy and legal framework and poor implementation and enforcement.

These issues are explained below in the context of the case studies.

#### 4.1 Gender and public transport in Nairobi, Kampala and Dar es Salaam

Historically, the planning and design of transport systems in East African cities, as in many parts of the world, has not considered gender differentiated mobility patterns. As a result, public transport in Nairobi, Kampala and Dar es Salaam is characterized by similar issues of gender inequality both in terms of access and safety and women's inclusion in service provision:

##### a. Accessibility and safety of public transport systems

Current public transport systems in Nairobi, Kampala and Dar es Salaam are not gender-sensitive and have failed to incorporate the mobility needs of not only women, but other vulnerable users such as children, the elderly and people with disabilities. Consequently, women face challenges accessing public transport in terms of the comfort of buses (e.g. lack of dedicated seats for pregnant women) and the availability of transport facilities (e.g. public toilets near transit, gender-sensitive facilities such as provisions for lactating mothers to breastfeed). This is particularly challenging for women traveling with children and carrying goods. As illustrated by an urban governance and gender expert in Nairobi, "the question of gender has to be discussed in the context of inclusion and when we talk about inclusion in public transport, we are talking about women/pregnant women, children, people with walking disabilities and children under five. That cohort has not been well catered for in the public transport in Nairobi, if you compare with western countries (e.g. signs and seats for pregnant women in public transport). Current transport systems are designed for fit and young people, it is a challenge to access and inside they not comfortable. We don't have dedicated spaces for women; you shove in women in the buses".

The safety of women during their travels, especially at night, is a major gender issue in the three cities. Women are often victims of theft at bus stages while waiting for transport, or when they are traveling from the bus stages to their neighbourhoods. Female passengers are occasionally victims of groping in buses and of sexual harassment by matatu stage crews, at bus stages and at night during their travel. In Dar es Salaam, female passengers are occasionally mugged during peak hours while waiting in the long queues for transport services in the BRT stations or dala dala stages. They may also be pushed and herded into crowded buses during peak hours, leading to incidences of groping. A Development Partner in the city emphasized that "it is difficult to board dala dalas and BRT when there are long queues, especially women are carrying children. Women are more susceptible to thefts. There have been cases of thefts in BRT stations". A representative

of the Communication and Transport Workers' Union of Tanzania explained, "In our society, we expect that drivers and conductors to be men. Women who engage in transport is something new to the society. Women are assaulted by the passengers because they don't expect to see it. They fight. Men think that they are taking working opportunities from them."

#### **b. Sexual assault and harassment**

In Nairobi, recurring cases of sexual harassment and assault of women in public spaces were posted on the internet, where they caused national and international outrage, leading to the #MyDressMyChoice campaign, in which the Flone Initiative became a leader in seeking an end to sexual assault and harassment in public transportation spaces. The campaign led to the passage of legislation that makes public stripping a criminal offence punishable by up to 10 years imprisonment (ITDP 2018). The issue of harassment and abuse in Nairobi has been associated with clothing choice, with perpetrators justifying attacking women because of "indecent" dressing. An urban planner commented that, "dressing is a gender issue. You tend to attract attention depending on what you wear. You attract abuse by how you dress in Kenya – it is an issue of perception."

In Kampala, female passengers have occasionally been drugged in taxis. A transport planner in the city noted that "women are insecure in the taxis, especially very early and very late. There have been cases of female university students getting drugged in a taxi. Both during peak hours and off-peak hours, women need to be very careful in choosing a taxi." Female operators are equally harassed by other conductors, passengers and taxi owners. A female operator in Kampala stated that "men take advantage of female operator's since they have the power to hire and fire". A female airport taxi driver in Kampala recalled an incident where she was harassed: "A drunk man tried to take advantage of me, but I managed to throw him out of the car."

#### **c. Lack of integrated and gender-sensitive urban planning**

The gender issues of accessibility in public transport can be attributed to poor urban planning which is not gender-sensitive and is characterized by sprawling and concentric development. The three cities have not been designed to promote mixed-use development and integrated transport systems as means of minimizing travel. In addition, there is poor last-mile connectivity between mass transit hubs and neighbourhoods; the public buses and minibuses operate mainly along radial routes. The lack of last-mile transport services means female conductors and drivers, in particular, are at risk when they work long shifts and, afterwards, must walk significant distances from the bus terminals to their homes at night. Furthermore, the design of urban transport infrastructure does not integrate gender-sensitive components such as street lighting, public toilets and friendly non-motorized infrastructure. The risk of theft is exacerbated by a lack of proper lighting at bus stops or along the streets connecting bus stops and neighbourhoods. A transport engineer in Nairobi underscored this gap and noted that, "In terms of mainstreaming gender in the design of urban transport infrastructure, there is an issue of lack of toilets. Washrooms are greatly needed for the operators and passengers. The ones that are there are not clean and they are very sparsely located; so, for someone to get to one they have to walk. Lighting is also an issue. If I am walking at night, I am looking for a well-lit street. If it is not well lit, I just don't go there for my security."

#### **d. Underrepresentation of women in transport policymaking and planning processes, and public transport service provision**

Historically, the public transport sector in East African cities has been male-dominated and characterized by gender inequality. Women are mostly underrepresented in the sector's operation and service provision due to various barriers such as negative public perception and gender stereotypes, difficult working conditions associated with the paratransit sector, and lack of access to resources. As mentioned previously, the public motorized transport sector is staffed by private drivers. Most bus and minibus owners are men who have the necessary capital and can, much more easily than women, access loans for investment in the transport sector. As a result, few women have invested in the sector.

Furthermore, the informality of the public transport sector disadvantages women by influencing job security (fluctuating income), quality of employment and mode of remuneration. Due to the informal agreement between bus owners and operators (drivers and conductors), employers remunerate their staff daily based on targets. To meet these targets and maximize the number of trips per day, drivers and conductors work numerous and lengthy shifts; this can be strenuous for women, who must balance their work with other domestic and caretaking responsibilities. For example, according to a representative of the Saving and Credit Cooperative Societies (SACCO) interviewed in Nairobi, matatus sometimes operate 12 to 14-hour shifts each day (6am to 8pm). Due to the physical risk, expectant women are forced to stop working early and lose part of their income during maternity leave. A representative from the Kampala Operational Tax Stage Association (KORTSA) noted that “women often lose their jobs after they take maternity leave”.

In addition, women’s employment in the public transport sector has been hindered by discrimination and negative perceptions. The sector has long been perceived to be male-dominated, leading to negative perceptions of the women who join it as drivers and conductors. A road safety expert in Nairobi noted that, “Women try to join the sector and are not well perceived, there is a silent code that this is not your place. What are you doing here? This is a man’s thing; are you married? Will you be married?” The discrimination often results in verbal abuse. According to a representative of the Communication and Transport Workers Union of Tanzania in Dar es Salaam, “Female conductors and drivers face challenges in Dala Dala sector. They are abused by passengers who refuse to pay”. Although their work has been appreciated by both passengers and employers, women conductors and drivers are victims of criticism and social stigma, contributing to their scarcity in the sector.

For instance, the Nairobi matatu SACCO where a number of our interviewees worked, employs only five female drivers out of a total of 220, while the Dar es Salaam BRT has four female and about 300 male drivers. Similarly, the Kampala Operational Tax Stage Association (KORTSA) has only 70 female members out of total 36 000 members. Discrimination towards women is also influenced by the negative public perception of informal public transport as a result of the often reckless and uncouth behaviour of drivers and conductors. This is particularly the case for the matatu industry in Nairobi. A matatu operator in the city explained the challenge faced in employing and retaining women in the sector: “In this matatu sector, we appreciate the work of female conductors because they are professional, honest and friendly, hence they attract more customers. The challenge we have is that many families fall apart as a result of women working in the sector. Many women who join the sector, end up separating with their husbands. We don’t understand why because the job is like any other job and is more lucrative... The matatu work is not well and positively perceived and respected, so when women join, men think the women will start behaving recklessly like male matatu drivers or conductors. When people see a female conductor, they say ‘this one cannot stay with a husband, if she is here, she cannot’. But people forget this is her office, when she finishes her job, she goes home, eat and sleeps and wake up the next morning at 5am, she wakes up and goes back to work.”

In Kampala, a female taxi driver highlighted culture as a major barrier to women’s employment in the sector and added that, “Many women would like to join, but they fear what people will say. Sometimes women in this industry are seen as a prostitute. They say you are prostitute and use the car to find customers. Some married women would never get the approval from their husbands to work in this industry”. Nevertheless, transport planners and service providers interviewed indicated that, over the last 15 years, the acceptance of women in public transport has improved and they are gradually joining the sector as drivers, bus owners, engineers, conductors and stage crew.

#### **e. Inadequate gender mainstreaming in transport policy and legal framework and poor implementation and enforcement.**

On the issue of women’s participation in transport policymaking and decision-making processes, interview respondents indicated that women are represented in central positions in both policymaking and planning processes (e.g. in parliament, ministries and transport agencies) but



in some cases, not in numbers great enough to influence decisions regarding transport systems. For instance, in Kampala, a transport planner noted that, “In parliament there is an Infrastructure committee which is responsible for public transport issues, and it is dominated by men; it is not appealing for women to be part of the committee (it hasn’t attracted [women]). We have quotas (30%); every district must have at least one women representative”. In Nairobi, a policymaker at the Ministry of Transport indicated that women were well represented in policymaking at the Ministry: “Yes women are involved. For example, our Principal Secretary (PS) for transport is a lady. The PS in charge of Maritime and Shipping Affairs is a lady. The Director of Maritime and Shipping Affairs is a lady. The Senior Transport Economist on road transport matters is also a lady. They are actually involved in policymaking.”

However, respondents argued that the participation of women in the transport policy and decision-making processes does not necessarily guarantee that gender issues will be addressed in transport policy and change will occur; this depends on women’s awareness both of the gender issues in policy and of how to advocate for such change. A development partner in Tanzania noted that, “Women are involved to an extent, although there is still a lot of work to be done. For instance, women occupy more than 30% of seats in Tanzania Parliament. Compared to 15 years ago, we see more women participating in public policy making. However, the question remains: do women know what they are supposed to advocate for and what they represent in those positions? You may find men advocating for women issues more than women. Which brings the question of awareness about gender issues. Are women aware about their rights?” A policymaker at the Ministry of Transport in Nairobi also confirmed that women in policymaking do not necessarily raise gender issues and indicated that, “We work with them [women] but I have not heard...clear gender issues on gender and women’s inclusion raised by them”.

Women are more involved, as sociologists, transport engineers and planners, in the design and construction of transport infrastructure, the operations of public transport agencies (e.g. BRT in Dar es Salaam) and in research on transport-related issues. Development partners have also made efforts to mainstream gender into the transport infrastructure projects they fund by encouraging women’s participation in the sector. For instance, the African Development Bank Group in East Africa has mainstreamed gender considerations in its transport projects through the employment of women in roads works and capacity building and through the development of women-friendly entrepreneurial infrastructure (e.g. roadside markets) along transport corridors.

## 4.1 Gender Mainstreaming in transport policy and legal instruments

The transport policy assessments show that gender issues identified in the three selected cities have not been systematically recognized and addressed to any extent in the existing transport policy and legal frameworks. The extent to which policies have tackled gender issues varies between the three case studies. Transport policies reviewed for Tanzania and Uganda appears more gender-sensitive compared to transport policies for Kenya. Annex 2 includes all policies and regulatory frameworks which related to transport in Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. An assessment of those that involve gender mainstreaming is provided below for each country.

### Uganda

Uganda has developed clear policy and legal frameworks for promoting gender mainstreaming in all sectors, including transport. Gender mainstreaming in Uganda is anchored in Chapter VI of the Constitution (1995), “Gender balance and fair representation of marginalised groups”, which stipulates that, “the State shall ensure gender balance and fair representation of marginalised groups on all constitutional and other bodies”. Furthermore, the Constitution prohibits all forms of discrimination against women and provides for the protection and promotion of their rights. Uganda approved its first *National Gender Policy* in 1997, providing a framework for addressing gender inequalities at all levels of government and achieving gender equality and women’s empowerment in Uganda. In relation to road transport, several policies and plans have been developed to guide this sector’s development and are included in Annex 2. However, these



policies and plans focus mainly on providing cost-effective, efficient, safe and environmentally-sensitive transport and generalize all transport users without recognizing explicitly gender-differentiated transport and mobility needs and addressing them clearly through gender-responsive measures.

The *National Gender Policy* was revised in 2007 and aims to guide all stakeholders in planning, resource allocation, implementation and monitoring and the evaluation of programmes, all with a gender perspective. The *Uganda Vision 2040* (i.e. long-term development blueprint) adopted in 2013, recognizes persisting salient gender inequality in the country characterized by “gender disparities in access and control over productive resources like land; limited share of women in wage employment in non-agricultural sectors; sexual and gender-based violence; limited participation in household, community and national decision-making”. The *Vision 2040* seeks to “reduce gender inequalities by 2040 as a prerequisite for accelerating and sustaining socio-economic transformation” and therefore aims to “ensure gender responsive policies, programmes and actions to enable women to equally participate in education and skills development, business, agriculture and industry as well as their equal political representation at all levels among other development aspects.”

Other policy instruments related to transport and gender are explained in Table 3.

Table 3. Policy instruments and gender mainstreaming

Policy	Year	Gender mainstreaming feature
<i>Policy Statement for Mainstreaming Gender into the Road Sub-Sector</i>	2006	To “strengthen the sub-sector’s contribution to poverty eradication through provision of an enabling environment where women and men participate in, and benefit from, developments in the sub-sector in an equitable manner.” The policy “recognises that women and men have different travel and transport needs and that these differences can affect the way in which they can access opportunities in the road sub-sector.”
<i>Draft Non-Motorised Transport Policy</i>	2012	Developed to increase the recognition of walking and cycling in transport, planning, design, and infrastructure provision and improve regulation and enforcement. The Policy integrates gender-differentiated mobility patterns and needs into the design and provision of NMT infrastructure and “recognises that men and women have equal rights to own and use bicycles and that gender discrimination should be actively discouraged.”
<i>Draft National Transport and Logistics Policy and Strategy</i>	2019	Aims to providing reliable, safe, efficient and effective transport infrastructure and services to benefit all people and contribute to the social and economic development of Uganda. The policy acknowledges that social issues related to the transport sector (including gender) have not been adequately addressed, particularly the issue of the accessibility of the transport system for all sectors of society.
<i>Uganda Road Fund Act</i>	2008	Establishes a fund for financing routine and periodic maintenance of public roads in Uganda. The Act provides for women’s inclusion in a Fund Management Board and stipulates that “at least one third of the members of the Board shall be women”.
<i>Uganda National Roads Authority Act</i>	2006	Provides for the establishment and operation of the Uganda National Roads Authority for the purpose of managing the provision and maintenance of the national roads network in a more efficient and effective manner.
<i>KCCA Strategic Plan 2014/15-2018/19</i>	2018	Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) developed a five-year plan to build a vibrant, attractive and sustainable city in alignment with the Vision 2040 of Uganda. The Plan does not identify clearly gender-differentiated mobility needs in transport and proposes measures to improve mobility for all transport users without any reference to gender

## Tanzania

Gender mainstreaming in all sectors including transport is anchored in Tanzania's Constitution and *National Development Vision 2025* which puts an emphasis on gender equality and equity. The 1977 Constitution of Tanzania, revised in 2004, obligates the State and all its agencies to direct their policies and programmes to accord equal opportunities to all citizens, women and men alike. It also provides for affirmative action for women's representation in political leadership (e.g. women members being not less than 30% of all the members in Parliament). The *Tanzania Development Vision 2025* aims "to avail equal opportunity to all citizens to participate in and contribute to the development of the nation, paying particular attention to gender balance". It seeks to ensure "creation and sustenance of productive and decent employment, especially for women, youth and people with disabilities" (African Development Bank Group 2013). To promote gender mainstreaming, the *Women and Gender Development Policy* (2000) was formulated to ensure that the gender perspective is mainstreamed into all policies, programmes and strategies. To consolidate and accelerate effective implementation of the policy, a *National Strategy for Gender Development (NSGD)* (2005) was developed to guide the integration of gender concerns into all sectoral policies, plans, strategies and programmes, including transport.

Improving road transport infrastructure to drive socio-economic growth and provide safe and efficient services for all is a priority for the Government of Tanzania, as outlined in the *Tanzania Development Vision 2025*. Policy and regulatory instruments on transport are indicated in Annex 1 and several of them have incorporated gender considerations.

The *National Transport Policy* aims to provide "efficient and cost-effective domestic and international transport services to all segments of the population and sectors of the national economy with maximum safety and minimum environmental degradations" (AfDB 2013). In relation to gender, the policy aims to "attain gender and cross-cutting benefits in accordance with national expectations" (AfDB 2013). According to HelpAge International (2017), the Transport Policy identifies gendered mobility patterns in rural transport and indicates that 75% of women's time is spent walking long distances affecting their productivity. The 10-year Transport Sector Investment Programme (TSIP) was adopted in 2008 to implement the National Transport Policy; it emphasizes the impacts from transport that vulnerable groups (including women in rural areas) experience in the country (United Republic of Tanzania 2008). The TSIP thus seeks to "ensure gender mainstreaming in all issues related to the transport development". Finally, the TSIP highlights that proposed transport development projects (including the Dar es Salaam BRT for urban transport) were selected based on their consideration of cross cutting issues such as environment, HIV/AIDS and gender issues.

At the city level, the *Dar es Salaam Transport Policy and System Development Master Plan* was developed in 2008 to improve mobility and reduce congestion in the city. It also looked at promoting the inclusion of vulnerable groups, including women, in public transport.

## Kenya

The Constitution of Kenya (2010) provides for gender equality and women's empowerment, stipulating that "Women and men have the right to equal treatment, including the right to equal opportunities in political, economic, cultural and social spheres". The *Kenya Vision 2030*, adopted in 2008, also aims to attain gender equity in power, distribution of resources and wealth creation opportunities. The *Vision* seeks particularly to "[increase] the participation of women in all economic, social and political decision-making processes (e.g. starting with higher representation of women in Parliament)". Both Kenya's *National Policy on Gender and Development* of 2000 and the *Sessional Paper No. 2 of 2006 on Gender Equality and Development* were adopted to guide the mainstreaming of gender equality in all policies, plans and programmes; this was intended to facilitate the integration of the needs and concerns of women and men in all areas of the development process. The *National Policy* was reviewed in 2019 and aims at "achieving equality of opportunity and outcomes with respect to access

to and control of national and county resources and services; and equality of treatment that meets the specific and distinct needs of different categories of women and men". It mainly focuses on the empowerment of women, who are currently the marginalized gender.

Compared to the policy and legal framework in Tanzania and Uganda, the transport policies in Kenya are less explicit in addressing gender issues. *Kenya Vision 2030* and its first Medium Term Plan (MTP) (2008-2012), second MTP (2013-2017) and third MTP (2018-2022) recognized transport as a foundation needed to drive socio-economic development. Each has also stated an aim of developing and maintaining an integrated, safe and efficient transport network (including the development of the Nairobi Metropolitan Region Bus Rapid Transit System and a light rail for Nairobi) to improve mobility. In alignment with the *Vision 2030*, Kenya's *Integrated National Transport Policy* was formulated in 2012 to guide the transport sector and aims to "develop, operate and maintain an efficient, cost effective, reliable, safe, secure and integrated transport system". The *National Transport Policy* identifies gender as an emerging issue and considers gender to some extent. It recognizes gender-differentiated travel patterns and emphasizes the need to enhance gender balance by reducing women's time spent traveling while performing socio-economic activities, especially in rural and informal urban settlements. The Policy therefore proposes the development and use of Non-Motorized and Intermediate Means of Transport (NMIMT) as a way to "enhance gender balance in the performance of social and economic household tasks and to increase women's time spent on economic and commercial activities". The Policy also seeks to "[enhance] gender balance in the access to and use of NMIMTs".

While there are a number of policy instruments governing the transport sector in Kenya included in Annex 2, most of them do not include any explicit focus on the issue of gender. Nevertheless, there are regulations that have integrated gender considerations to an extent. For instance, the *National Transport and Safety Authority Act* (2012) provides for the powers and functions of the National Transport and Safety Authority (NTSA), and for connected purposes. The Act promotes gender equity in the management of the NTSA and stipulates that, "In appointing persons as members of the Board, the Cabinet Secretary shall have regard to the principle of gender equity and regional balance." The *Traffic (Amendment) Rules* (2003), known as "Michuki Rules", provide for the enforcement of road safety measures and the regulation of Public Service Vehicles (PSVs). The Rules do not openly address gender, but make provisions for improving transport services and safety for public transport operators and users, such as the requirement for PSVs to be equipped with speed limits, safety belts and signs displaying routes. The *National Transport and Safety Authority (Operation of Public Service Vehicles) Regulations* (2014) govern all PSVs operating on public roads in Kenya. Although they do not provide any specific regulation regarding gender, they compel the public transport sector to organize its operations in a formal manner that creates a conducive and safe working environment for women operators, therefore addressing gender issues implicitly. For example, for a PSV to be licensed, it must be a "member of a body corporate...[which] owns a minimum of thirty serviceable vehicles registered as public service vehicles". The PSV operator must "comply with labour laws and regulations".

At the city level, neither the *Nairobi City County Government Non-Motorised Policy* (2012), nor the *Nairobi Urban Development Master Plan* (2014) identify gender issues in transport. However, the Master Plan promotes a Transit Oriented Development (TOD) of the city to integrate urban and transport development. Likewise, the second five-year *Nairobi County Integrated Development Plan* (CIDP) 2018-2022 aims to improve transport mobility, but does not explicitly acknowledge gender-differentiated mobility needs. The CIDP does, however, recognize "increased sexual harassment in [the] public transport system" as an issue affecting women in general and therefore aims to "create awareness and advocacy against sexual harassment in [the] road transport system".

### 4.3 Institutional arrangement

There are several institutions involved at different levels in the three cities' public road transport sectors, including in transport policy formulation, planning, design, service provision and traffic law enforcement. The institutions include transport ministries; transport road authorities; national transport and safety authorities; city authorities; national police; transport service providers; and transport service providers unions. Table 4 provides an overview of key institutions involved in road transport and their mandates. Transport experts interviewed emphasized that the fragmentation of the transport institutional framework, poor coordination between institutions and limited capacity in terms of social and gender expertise all hinder proper coordination of gender mainstreaming in public transport.

Table 4: Institutional arrangement for the public transport sector in Nairobi, Dar es Salaam and Kampala

Stakeholder category	Country -Specific representative	Responsibility
NATIONAL LEVEL		
Ministry of Transport	Ministry of Transports and Works (Uganda); Ministry of Works; Transport and Communications (Tanzania); Ministry of Transport, Infrastructure, Housing and Urban Development (Kenya)	Responsible for regulating the transport sector and for transport sector policy formulation, coordination, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.
Ministry of Finance and Planning	Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED) (Uganda), Ministry of Finance and Planning (Tanzania), the National Treasury (Kenya)	Responsible for budget allocations for transport sector investment plans.
Ministry of Local Government	Ministry of Local Government (MoLG) (Uganda) Prime Minister's Office – Regional Administration and Local Government (PMO-RALG) (Tanzania)	Responsible for development and maintenance of local roads, including district and urban roads.
Ministry of Lands	Ministry of Lands (Uganda)	Responsible for land administration and supporting the Local Authorities.
Revenue Authority	Uganda Revenue Authority	Receives the revenues from the taxi industry.
	Kenya National Highways Authority (KeNHA); Uganda National Roads Authority (UNRA)	Responsible for management, development and maintenance of national, regional roads.
	Kenya Urban Roads Authority (KURA)	Responsible for the management, development, rehabilitation and maintenance of national urban trunk roads.
	Tanzania National Roads Agency (TANROADS)	Responsible for the maintenance and development of the classified trunk and regional road networks, including BRT infrastructure.
	Roads Fund Board (RFB) (Uganda)	Responsible for financing routine and periodic maintenance of public roads in Uganda.

Table 4 (continued)

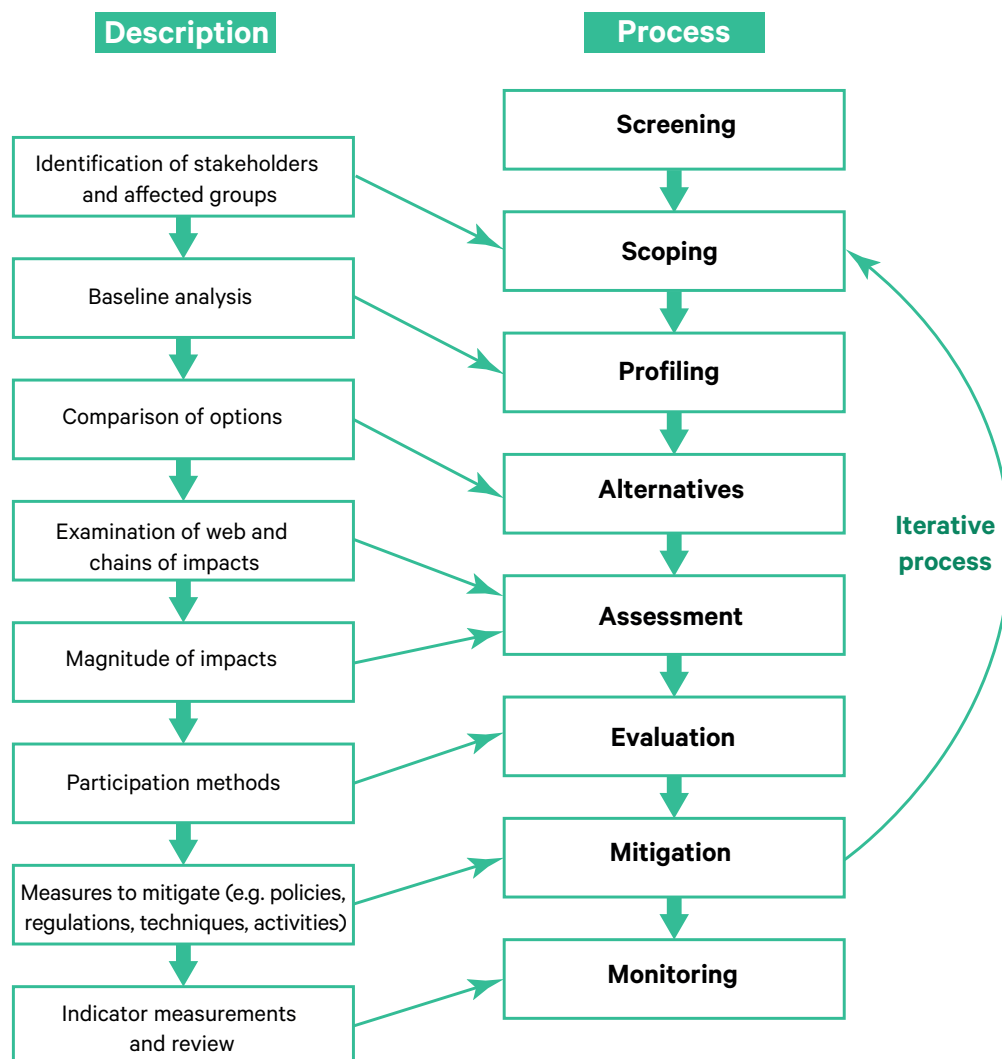
Stakeholder category	Country -Specific representative	Responsibility
Transport Regulatory Authority	Land Transport Regulatory Authority (LATRA) (Tanzania)	Responsible for regulating the land transport sectors particularly, transportation of goods and passengers (commuter buses, inter city buses, goods carrying vehicles, taxi, motorcycles and tricycles), railways and cable transport.
	National Transport and Safety Authority (NTSA) (Kenya)	Responsible for the development and implementation of policies relating to road transport and safety; planning, management and regulation of road transport sector; for ensuring the provision of safe, reliable and efficient road transport services through registration and licensing of motor vehicles, conducting of motor vehicle inspections and certification, regulation of public service vehicles.
	Transport Licensing Board (Uganda)	Responsible for licensing of public service vehicles, private omnibuses and goods vehicles.
	National Road Safety Council (Uganda)	Responsible for road safety enforcement.
National Police	Uganda Police Force – Directorate of Traffic and Road Safety (Uganda), Kenya Traffic Police	Responsible for the enforcement of road traffic and safety laws and regulations.
CITY LEVEL		
Urban transport Authorities/service providers	Nairobi Metropolitan Area Transport Authority (NAMATA)	Responsible for the planning, development, maintenance and operations of an integrated and sustainable Mass Rapid Transit System within the Nairobi Metropolitan Area and in Dar es Salaam.
	Dar Rapid Transit (DART) Agency	
Transport Associations and Unions	The Communication and Transport Workers Union of Tanzania COTWU (T) (Tanzania)	Responsible for the promotion and protection of the interest and rights of all workers in communication and transport industries (including formal and informal public transport workers) and their capacity-building.
	Amalgamated Transport and General Workers' Union (ATGWU - Uganda)	Responsible for organizing and representing its members in the transport, oils, chemical and private security industries.
	Kampala Operational Taxi Stage Association (KORTSA)	An established operator association that represents the majority of taxi owners, drivers and conductors in Kampala. KORTSA coordinated taxi stages within 8 taxi parks in Kampala.
Private sector-transport Service Providers	Matatu Owners Association	Represent matatu owners/SACCOs and promotes an enabling business environment the public transport investor. The association is responsible for provision of public transport services and determination of fare charges.
Railway Authority Corporation	Kenya Railways Corporation (KRC), Uganda Railway Corporation	Development and oversight of railways.
Urban city authorities	Nairobi City County Government (NCCG)	Responsible for overall integrated urban planning and design. In terms of urban transport, it is responsible for the construction, rehabilitation and maintenance of district, urban and community access roads in their areas, street lighting, bus terminals and stages.
	Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA)	
	Dar es Salaam City Council	

## 5. Addressing gender-related issues in public transport: What to include in social impact assessments

This section provides a general overview of how Environmental and Social Impact Assessments are considered in the context of transport and urban developments. Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA) and Social Impact Assessments (SIA) are well established management tools. The intention in this section is not to provide an analysis of the tools but rather to demonstrate how they have been used in some examples in transport projects, and to explore whether they consider gender.

EIAs are tools used to assess the environmental (and social) impacts of a project, across its different stages, from conception to design and implementation, as well as to consider its social, financial and technical aspects (Wathern, 1992; Glasson et al. 2012). EIAs are conducted to ensure that important environmental, social and economic issues are recognized and addressed early in the planning and decision-making process. EIAs help developers and decision-makers to examine the likely impacts of development proposals on the environment and thereby recommend mitigative actions for before decisions are made to approve projects or actions; these impacts and mitigation measures are presented in EIA reports during the construction, implementation and closure phases. The general activities and process are presented in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: Process and activities of a general EIA (after Diaz-Chavez 2014)



Although several policies in the three case studies do not address gender issues, the three countries each have legislation to conduct EIAs for specific projects, including the SIA frequently known as ESIA (Environmental and Social Impact Assessment), meaning that, in practice, gender issues may be considered at the project level. These assessments are included within the National Legislation and are applicable to different types of projects (Table 5). The process in each country is illustrated in Annex 3.

Table 5: EIA regulations and application in the three countries

	Uganda	Kenya	Tanzania
Regulation	Environmental Impact Assessment Regulations, 1998 (No. 13 of 1998). Under the National Environment Act, 2019	Environmental Management and Co-Ordination Act, 1999 ("EMCA")	The Environmental Management Act, 2004. Assessment and Audit Regulations, 2005
Required for projects on urbanization	Yes	Yes	Yes
Required for transport projects	Yes, but only for road projects	Yes, but only for road projects	Yes
Guidelines for transport assessment	Yes	Yes	Yes

Some specific guidelines for transport have been developed in each country's EIA process. Nevertheless, they centre on activities and infrastructure rather than on the management and inclusion of gender. Some EIAs include gender mainstreaming but in a simplistic form and without a proper analysis. For instance, the only instruction offered in Kenya's Environmental and Social Impact Assessment (ESIA) for the Construction of the Off-Station Access Road to Kitengela Railway Station in Kajiado (World Bank 2018) was, "Consider both men and women for the works".

In Tanzania, the ESIA for the Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) system included a short section on gender: "The Project will support the establishment of a web-based system for monitoring gender-based violence in the public transport system. A database based on mobile phone technology will be developed for collecting data related to gender-based violence especially for women (and girls) in the public transport system" (Tanroads 2018). In Uganda, the Greater Kampala Roads Improvement Project's (GKRIP) ESIA (UNRS 2014) reviewed all legislation relevant to transport, including some policies related to gender (e.g. The Ministry of Works & Transport Policy Statements (Gender, HIV/AIDS, OHS) 2008). The ESIA analyzed the anticipated impacts of the project. During construction, both positive and negative impacts were anticipated, with most of these being social, as the project was to be implemented in an urban area with high population density; some of the positive impacts identified included job creation and related benefits, improved skills for local communities, as well as tree planting and enhanced landscape management. The study also identified negative impacts, with proposed mitigation measures. Nevertheless, gender issues were only considered during the construction phase, when it was indicated that sanitation facilities would be separated by gender. There were no more indicators or considerations in terms of gender. However, as it considered all policies and regulations, it is expected that some other issues were considered during the management.

Walmsley and Ofosu-Koranteng (2017) also assessed several EIAs in Sub-Saharan Africa and concluded that some of the challenges lie in the lack of understanding of the relationship between social, vulnerability and gender impacts, and the fact that there is little guidance on



gender and impact assessment, whether in terms of mitigation measures or monitoring. They also indicated a need for more in-country guidance on how to effectively address gender in large capital projects.

As an additional way of assessing the environmental impacts of policies, plans and programmes, the use of other tools, such as Strategic Environmental Assessments (SEA), should be encouraged. Many countries, however, have not made this a legal requirement (Kajangirwe 2012).

The World Bank (2010) has used some indicators for gender mainstreaming in transportation projects based on different focuses of intervention such as policy, planning, infrastructure, economic opportunities and resettlement, among others. The indicators also vary from quantitative project management (e.g. number of women participating in meetings) and related issues to transport management (e.g. increased use of public transport services by women in terms of number of trips made, percentage of roads in maintainable condition that receive regular maintenance and are used by women). The guidelines present several other indicators and they should be considered in the ESIA and SEA of any transportation project. Furthermore, they advise that these indicators should be geared towards the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals.

## 6. Discussion: Opportunities and future for an inclusive, equitable and sustainable transport system

There has been progress, to an extent, in terms of mainstreaming gender in public transport in growing East African cities. However, further efforts are required to create an enabling environment for effective gender mainstreaming in urban transport and to provide inclusive, equitable and sustainable transport systems. According to the experts interviewed, gender mainstreaming in public transport in East African cities entails addressing women's issues in terms of employment opportunities, travel needs and clear enforcement to stop harassment. Gender mainstreaming thus requires a multi-level and multi-sectoral approach to integrate gender considerations into the different areas of urban transport policymaking, planning, design and service provision. Several opportunities were highlighted for overcoming barriers to gender mainstreaming and transforming the current public transport into an inclusive, gender-sensitive and sustainable system, including:

### a. Development and enforcement of gender-sensitive transport policy and legal framework

The findings show there are enabling national policy and legal frameworks (e.g. constitutions, national gender policies) for mainstreaming gender in all sectors in the three cities. However, overall, the transport policy and legal frameworks in the three cities do not appear to be explicitly gender-sensitive and have not fully integrated gender issues. Many transport policies do not identify or address explicitly gender-differentiated transport and mobility patterns and needs, but rather generalize all road users and therefore aim mainly to improve transport infrastructure and services to meet the needs of all users, without any reference to gender. This generalization of transport users was highlighted as a gap in policy by a transport engineer: "There is a policy issue: there is generalization of road users in terms of passengers. They are not classified as gender. Even the PSV operators, there is that bunching whether you are male or female, you are put in one group. Due to that there is little or no consideration of gender differences. Secondly, there is the cross-sector issue, let's say security in public transport, the transport policy will view that as an enforcement issue by the police, rather than seeing it as a transport issue. It is then overlooked since it should be dealt by the police enforcement."

A development partner noted that the focus of transport policies and plans in the three cities has been to meet the growing demand for transport services, without much attention given to differentiated gender mobility. He explained that, "Currently in Dar, there are major gaps

in transport, the sector isn't meeting the demand. So, gender issues are only important after mobility and transport needs have been addressed. There are times, the situation in place pushes aside certain concerns. When a woman all she needs is to travel, what she thinks about is to travel, I don't care how; whether she is touched or not, that will come later. At the moment, the transport sector faces critical gaps where you don't have enough buses and they are not good enough. People have to fight for them because at peak hours, they are just too few and someone just wants to go home. In other words, gender issues are only important after you solve people's basic mobility needs."

Although some policies have integrated gender to an extent, especially in Uganda and Tanzania, experiences of public transport show that the attempt to mainstream gender in policies has been hampered by poor implementation and enforcement. For instance, in Uganda, while some road transport policies have explicitly integrated gender, they have not been implemented effectively enough to induce change in transport infrastructure and service provision; this is illustrated by the current transport system, which is not gender-sensitive. A policymaker at the Ministry of Transport in Nairobi attributed the city's poor policy implementation to inadequate resources.

The major gaps in gender mainstreaming are predominantly in the existing transport laws and regulations in all the three cities. Some laws do, however, provide for women's inclusion in transport decision-making processes by promoting gender balance in leadership positions at transport agencies. For instance, a road safety expert in Nairobi underscored the gaps in policies in Kenya and indicated that "gender is passively addressed in Kenya. There are not definitely government policies that address gender issues in transport. However, the conversation has begun, and the ministry of transport is exploring gender issues. The organization of transport has been left to the players and lack of coordination and policies that guide transport present a gap. NTSA [National Transport and Safety Authority] has not addressed gender issues". An urban transport planner in Nairobi underscored this gap and added, "Gender is an emerging issue in transport. Gender issues need to be integrated in the legislation for enforcement".

A policymaker in Nairobi recognized the gap in addressing gender issues in Kenya's current *National Integrated Transport Policy* and indicated that one of the barriers has been lack of gender disaggregated data. He noted, "How heavy are gender issues? That's the question we are asking... We know gender is an issue, we need to address it, but what are the specific needs women require in transport for us to be able to incorporate them in our policy? Bring it up and we shall consider it and discuss it, share with other women and subject it to public participation. Do research, bring issues to us to inform policy." The Ministry of Transport indicated that the *National Integrated Transport Policy* is currently under review, but that it has not sufficiently addressed gender issues due to a lack of gender disaggregated data.

These gaps in current policies were highlighted during the Women and Transportation Conference Policy Session 2019, organized by the Stockholm Environment Institute (SEI). Session panellists emphasized a "lack of response systems for harassment complaints, the privatisation of [the] transport industry, which makes it hard to implement policies, lack of gender-sensitive urban planning, lack of proper gender-sensitive facilities such as provisions for lactating mothers to breastfeed their children in transport terminus" (Flone Initiative 2018). To address these gaps requires formulation of clear, gender-sensitive policies and regulations. An urban governance and gender expert in Nairobi commented that "an opportunity for an inclusive and equitable transport system is to develop a policy that integrate gender issues, now that there is some data on gender issues. There has to be a policy that guides how the sector operates for it to be inclusive. Inclusive public transport is a system where everybody can access (physical access, affordability), use and feel safe." Women's experience in public transport is gaining attention (e.g. stories of harassment in the media) and this can be used as basis for influencing policy. However, as a panellist at the Women and Transport Conference Policy Session in 2018 argued, having policies does not necessarily bring change on the ground. To create inclusive transport systems, "there is [a] need for gender audits, gender monitoring and evaluation in all transport spaces" (Flone Initiative 2018).

Furthermore, there is a need for clear enforcement and enactment of gender-sensitive transport regulations to address gender issues, improve service delivery and enhance inclusion. This requires amending current road traffic and safety legislation to include offences such as sexual abuse and harassment of women in public transport, and for the provision of gender-sensitive infrastructure. Additionally, effective implementation of existing policies that have addressed gender to an extent can improve the public transport sector. Interview respondents noted that the privatization and informality of the transport sector in the three cities has made it difficult to implement policies and mainstream gender considerations. Public transport has been left to a private sector more focused on maximising profit than improving the travel experiences of users. In Nairobi, clear enforcement of the *National Transport and Safety Authority (Operation of Public Service Vehicles) Regulations (2014)* (see section 4.2) could address some of the issues that hinder women's employment in the sector. A Nairobi urban governance and gender expert explained that "SACCOS were established to help in day to day operation and enforcement of matatus but they failed. They are mainly used for registering matatus. SACCOS have no control over matatus. If the SACCOS could fulfil what the 2003 Legislation [The Traffic (Amendment) Rules, 2003] provided for, they could be used today as the main mode of transport to create an enabling environment for gender by design. Gender mainstreaming has to come from a higher policy stipulating no PSV (public service vehicle) without provision for gender will be registered."

A Kampala transport planner commented, "The problem in Uganda is that transport is looked at as a revenue, even from the point of the government, they are always looking for revenue, even the operators, the workers. Nobody is looking at it like a service [...] we need a system that cares for the customer, cares for the passenger." A public-private partnership in transport service provision could improve the sector, as illustrated by the BRT in Dar es Salaam. There, the national government, through the Ministry of Transport and transport agencies, has put in place the necessary infrastructure, and sub-contracted private enterprise as needed, to operate and maintain the BRT fleet.

#### **b. Development of bus rapid transit (BRT) systems and gender-sensitive transport infrastructure, and promotion of integration of urban planning and mobility**

The current systems in the three cities face critical gaps in meeting growing transport and mobility needs. To address these mobility challenges and provide an alternative to minibuses and private cars, the Nairobi and Kampala city authorities, together with their respective national governments, plan to introduce mass transit systems (i.e. BRT and commuter rail). For the transport planners interviewed, BRT is an opportunity to integrate gender-differentiated mobility needs into public transport and provide gender-sensitive infrastructure and services. In Dar es Salaam, the BRT was introduced in 2016 to improve mobility and reduce congestion. According to the Dar Rapid Transit Agency (DART), the BRT is more gender-sensitive than the Dala Dalas, since the buses provide seats for expectant women, and the BRT's working environment is more conducive (fewer working hours) for female drivers. DART is exploring the possibility of introducing buses dedicated only for women to tackle issues of harassment (e.g. groping of women) and improve the safety of women in buses during peak hours.

To attract more women in the transport sector, the Kampala Operational Tax Stage Association (KORTSA) has plans to buy vehicles to be managed specifically by women, to allow flexibility in terms of maternity leave and working hours. In Nairobi, a transport planner argued that "the introduction of the BRT will still disadvantage women because the drivers and conductors in the matatus will transfer to BRT. The BRT will target private investors, i.e. matatu SACCOS to join and own some buses." However, a transport engineer indicated that BRT could be an opportunity to promote women's employment and inclusivity in public transport: "If BRT is coming, from an activism angle, if we could actually push the government to make sure from the operator perspective, at minimum 30% are from one gender. It will change perception and it will become easier to see females as operators; secondly even when we are talking about mass rapid transport, there are certain tenets that we want to install in our buses like dedicated

seats, universal boarding,... If we actually implement it as we imagine it, it becomes a pilot project that people can see. BRT can be used to push for inclusivity in transport.”

The development of BRT systems should occur alongside urban planning; in particular, they should be coupled with the integration of mobility considerations into urban development projects. Designing compact cities can reduce travel time and cater for women, who typically take more, and shorter, trips. To achieve an inclusive city and ensure spatial and social equity, the *Nairobi City Integrated Urban Development Master Plan (2014-2030)* proposes a compact city with multiple core centres and a revitalized Central Business District, integrating an efficient, effective, and inclusive transport system (BRT and NMT (non-motorized transport)).

Urban transport experts indicated that, when designing urban transport infrastructure, gendered mobility patterns and needs can be incorporated by providing inclusive non-motorized infrastructure for women and families and installing gendered traffic signs, signals and good lighting. Furthermore, to be more inclusive and efficient, the public transport systems should be integrated with other modes of transport. An environmental and social expert at TANROADS underscored the need for an intermodal transport system in Dar es Salaam and noted that: “An inclusive transport system means having all modes of transport well inter-connected. If we need an inclusive transport system, it means that we need to plan for all those services, modes and different mobility needs inclusively. And the roads that we are prioritizing should have all the means of transport. This is missing. We are building nice roads, but the connections are poor and not enough. To some extent, the BRT has achieved inclusivity but there are still gaps in terms of connections to other modes of transport. If you come out of the BRT system, there is no organised transport.”

### **c. Emergence of online taxi and bus-hailing services as alternative reliable form of public transport**

In all three cities, the past five years have seen the introduction and wide adoption of online taxi and bus hailing services using mobile applications (i.e. Uber, Little Cab, SWVL); those interviewed consider this development to be an opportunity to reinvent public transport in East Africa and provide alternative, reliable, safe and more inclusive transport services. These online transport services offer job opportunities for women, improve their safety and comfort during travels, especially at night, and also provide last-mile connectivity. For instance, a Little Cab representative explained that “[the] shuttles are supposed to function as matatus and match prices of matatus. Our routing will be different from matatus’, which is linear and all leads into the CBD (Central Business District). Our shuttles are supposed to creatively reroute our supply based on demand”. The services are also more gender-sensitive: “A woman doesn’t have to queue somewhere or jostle to enter the shuttle and you are fighting against men with a child to get in during rush hour, and there is no women first policy. With our solution you can book your vehicle. If you have a child or [are] pregnant, everything is conducive. It’s like using a cab, it is just shared with other 20 people going the same direction. The environment is extremely conducive, the driver drives at an easy pace, there is a female conductor who are able to assist you. The shuttles have SOS buttons for safety.”

The online transport services have also attracted more women as workers in the sector. In Kenya, many female drivers have joined Uber and Little Cab; this can be attributed to the flexible working hours allowing them to balance employment with their domestic responsibilities and the comfort and safety of their work compared to matatus. Uber has recruited 500 drivers in East Africa (Flone Initiative 2018) and, according to a representative from the company, Little Cab has employed, as of 2019, more than 800 female drivers out of a total of more than 30 000 drivers. In response to high demand from both female and male customers who prefer transport services provided by women, Little Cab introduced a “LadyBUG” service: a women-only taxi service operated by and mainly targeting women. An environment and social consultant at TANROADS stated that, “with the introduction of Uber in Dar, women are becoming interested in becoming taxi drivers because it is safe, reliable, you don’t get harassed. I have seen an increasing number

of women, especially young women, getting into the business. To me, is an opportunity for women to get their income increased or be safe in the public. Because if I am driven by a woman, I am much safer and relaxed because it is safer, and I am increasing the income of the female driver”.

#### **d. Raising of awareness and building of capacity for gender mainstreaming in public transport**

Inadequate capacity to address gender issues in transport planning and design is a major barrier to gender mainstreaming. A transport engineer in Nairobi noted that transport infrastructure is often designed without involving social or gender experts, resulting in little consideration for human interactions with road infrastructure and mobility patterns: “On the side of Road Transport Authorities, we have a lot of engineers but not so much of soft skills. So, at the time of the design, there is a lot of focus on the engineering, not on how the users will interact with the road. Most of the decisions are made with the sense, ‘Let’s do mobility. Let’s get people home, even the aesthetic is not a big consideration.’ When decisions are made about roads, there is lack of an understanding of how people move and why they move that way, which has to be very cognizant when making the decisions.” Gender mainstreaming in transport is therefore needed at all levels, through building the capacity of social experts, transport planners, policymakers and engineers involved in transport policymaking, planning and design, and transport services.

Increasing the number of women in transport leadership positions who have received training aimed at increasing their sensitivity to these issues, and increasing the participation of women in all phases of road transport projects, can both contribute to capacity-building. A sociologist at DART in Tanzania emphasized that “there is [a] need to ensure women participate actively in policy formulation”. The training of transport operators in gender-sensitive service delivery in the informal sector was particularly emphasized as a way of improving provision and safety. An urban transport planner in Nairobi stressed that “driving schools should train all drivers and matatu drivers and crew on special needs of all users.” The sociologist at DART also emphasized, “It is high time women join the sector and participate fully. There is need for training of women wanting to join the BRT or Dala Dala. Gender mainstreaming entails creating a more conducive environment for women in the Dala Dala, for instance reducing working hours for female workers. The salaries should also be increased.”

Local NGOs and transport associations have established training initiatives in the industry. For instance, in Kampala, KORTSA offers trainings to its members and women interested in joining the industry. Flone Initiative has undertaken trainings through their Women in Transportation Program (WIT), which seeks to attract, retain and promote women in the transport industry by providing them with the skills and support necessary to achieve a safe, sustainable and lucrative working environment, free from violence.

Finally, cultural norms and public perception pertaining to the roles of men and women in the society are major barriers to gender mainstreaming, particularly women’s employment in the sector. Traditionally, women’s roles and responsibilities have been confined to the private domain (homes, schools, offices), largely separate from the public. As a result, the transport sector around the world has been perceived as a male-dominated sphere, where women do not fit. A taxi driver in Kampala commented that “transport is a male industry; to mainstream gender there is need for sensitization of men on women in transport and respect for them and their job. Educating the public to stop discriminating women in transport; it is a job like any other.”

## 7. Conclusions and recommendations for future research

Gender mainstreaming in transportation remains an area that is under-researched and under-accomplished, particularly in the global South. More robust quantitative and qualitative research on the relationships between transport, mobility and gender in the three cities is required to further understand gendered differences in travel patterns and mobility needs. Furthermore, the assessment of women's inclusion in all modes of public transport and in decision-making is far from complete.

Policymakers need gender-disaggregated data to provide better policies, regulation and enforcement. This requires capacity-building and a better understanding, in practice, of providing spaces of equality where women can feel secure, attend to their transportation needs and be fully integrated in the mobility services.

Furthermore, to fill current knowledge gaps and assess the effectiveness of existing efforts, an evaluation and social impact assessment of transport policies, plans and regulations that have addressed gender issues and gender interventions is crucial. To date, this has not happened and even internationally-supported projects have not been able to provide a complete assessment of gender impacts. There are few examples of *ex-ante* assessment that are meaningful and provide clear recommendations (e.g., the Greater Kampala Roads Improvement Project). When projects have already been implemented, the cases do not suggest other meaningful changes in culture or in practice (see the cases of dedicated women transport services). Evaluating the *ex-post* impact of projects, such as the BRT in Dar es Salaam, on gender equality (access to services, employment and safety) could generate insights which are useful for informing practice. A gap also exists when it comes to linking proposed infrastructure projects (terminals, roads, systems) to the operational service needs ensure gender mainstreaming.

Some general conclusions are:

- Policymakers are not fully aware of gender mainstreaming in the transport sector and therefore it remains an under-accomplished activity.
- Research on women's needs for mobility is still limited, particularly in developing countries.
- Policies and regulations include some sections on gender equality, but either their enforcement fails or they are not considered when moving to the projects and services proposals.
- Some of the recommendations of policies, strategies and impact assessment reports are too simplistic and do not solve the problems of women's mobility.
- Out of the three country case studies, Uganda and Tanzania had most references to gender in their policies and regulatory instruments.
- Stakeholders reported the need for gender issues to be integrated into the transport sector.
- On the basis of this research, the following recommendations are proposed in three areas: policy and services, proposed projects, and future research:

**Policy and Services:**

- When integrating transport systems, city governments should consider the needs of all users, but attend specifically to vulnerable groups, including women.
- Regulations and policies should be properly enforced.
- Strategic Environmental Assessments (SEAs) should be used for policies, plans and strategies. They should include public participation, to ensure that women's needs become more evident.
- New urban plans should be linked to required transport services and consider gender mainstreaming.
- Capacity-building on gender issues should be mandatory in all levels of government and service providers.

**Proposed Projects:**

- All proposed infrastructure projects which are related to the transport sector should have considerations for, and enforce, gender mainstreaming.
- All projects should have an Environmental and Social Impact Assessment (ESIA) that covers issues of gender; this should also be enforced for the provision of services.

**Future research:**

- There is a need for more disaggregated data on service providers, government and users, to inform gender mainstreaming. Only then can robust quantitative and qualitative analysis be undertaken to inform policymakers.
- Comparisons across cities, rural areas and countries, particularly in the global South, are necessary to reveal spatial equity dimensions of transport sector and gender issues.



## References

- African Development Bank (2015). *Tanzania Dar es Salaam Bus Rapid Transit System Project –Phase 2 Appraisal Report*. Transport & ICT Department (OITC), African Development Bank, Abidjan. [https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Boards-Documents/Tanzania\\_-\\_AR-Dar\\_es\\_Salaam\\_Bus\\_Rapid\\_Transit\\_System\\_Project-Phase\\_2.pdf](https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Boards-Documents/Tanzania_-_AR-Dar_es_Salaam_Bus_Rapid_Transit_System_Project-Phase_2.pdf)
- African Development Bank Group (2013). *Tanzania Transport Sector Review*. Transport & ICT Department (OITC), African Development Bank, Abidjan. [https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Project-and-Operations/Tanzania\\_-\\_Transport\\_Sector\\_Review.pdf](https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Project-and-Operations/Tanzania_-_Transport_Sector_Review.pdf)
- Allen, H., Pereyra, L., Sagaris, L. and Cárdenas, G. (2018). *Ella Se Mueve Segura-She Moves Safely. A Study on Women's Personal Security and Public Transport in three Latin American Cities*. FIA Foundation Research Series, Paper 10. <https://www.fiafoundation.org/media/461162/ella-se-mueve-segura-she-moves-safely.pdf>
- Allen, H. (2018). Approaches for Gender Responsive Urban Mobility. Module 7a Sustainable Transport: A Sourcebook for Policy-makers in Developing Cities. GIZ- SUTP, Transformative Urban Mobility Initiative. [https://docs.euromedwomen.foundation/files/ermwf-documents/8186\\_4.240.approachesforgenderresponsiveurbantransport.pdf](https://docs.euromedwomen.foundation/files/ermwf-documents/8186_4.240.approachesforgenderresponsiveurbantransport.pdf)
- Asian Development Bank (2013). *Gender Tool Kit: Transport. Maximizing the Benefits of Improved Mobility for All*. Asian Development Bank, Manila. <https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/33901/files/gender-tool-kit-transport.pdf>
- Bamberger, M., Lebo, J., Gwilliam, K. and Gannon, C. (1999). *Gender and transport: A rationale for action (English)*. PREM Notes, No.14. World Bank Group, Washington D.C. <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/989381468339673753/Gender-and-transport-a-rationale-for-action>
- Barwell, I., Airey, T. and Strandberg, T. (1993). *Local-level Rural Transport in Sub-Saharan Africa: Final Report on Rural Household Travel and Transport Patterns*. World Bank Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Policy Programme, International Labour Organization, IT Transport Ltd., Geneva.
- Bryceson, D. F. and Howe, J. (1993). Rural household transport in Africa: Reducing the burden on women? *World Development*, 21 (11), 1715-1728. DOI: 10.1016/0305-750X(93)90079-O
- Deniz, D. (2016). Effects of Perceived Safety on Women Mobility Habits for Sustainable Public Transportation. *American International Journal of Social Science*, 5(4), 85-93.
- Diaz-Chavez, R. (2014). Indicators for socio-economic sustainability assessment. In *Socio-Economic Impacts of Bioenergy Production*. Janssen, R. and Rutz, D. (eds). Springer, Dordrecht, Netherlands
- Dunckel-Graglia, A. (2013). 'Pink transportation' in Mexico City: Reclaiming urban space through collective action against gender-based violence. *Gender & Development*, 21(2), 265-276. DOI: 10.1080/13552074.2013.802131
- Elias, W., Benjamin, J. and Shiftan, Y. (2015). Gender differences in activity and travel behaviour in the Arab world. *Transport Policy*, 44, 19-27. DOI: 10.1016/j.tranpol.2015.07.001
- Escaat, J. (2004). A Review of The Application of Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) In Uganda. A Report Prepared For The United Nations Economic Commission For Africa. Environmental Monitoring And Compliance Department, National Environment Management Authority (NEMA), Kampala. <https://www.nape.or.ug/publications/reports/35-report-eia-uganda/file>
- Fernando, P. (1999). Balancing the load: gender issues in rural transport. In: *International Forum for Rural Transport and Development (IFRTD)*, London, UK. 7p.
- Fernando, P. and Porter, G. (2002). *Balancing the load: women, gender and transport*. Zed Books, London.
- FIA Foundation (2016). *Safe and Sound – International research on women's personal safety on public transport*. FIA Foundation Research Series, Paper 6. FIA Foundation, London. <https://www.fiafoundation.org/media/224027/safe-and-sound-report.pdf>
- Flone Initiative (2018). *East Africa Women in Transportation Conference Report*. Flone Initiative, Nairobi, Kenya. <https://womenandtransportafrica.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/eawitconferencereport2018.pdf>
- Flone Initiative (2019). *Gender Sensitive Mini-bus Services & Transport Infrastructure for African Cities: A Practical Toolkit; Based on a Mobility of Care Study & Gender Equity Assessment of Nairobi's Minibus Transport Network*. Flone Initiative, Nairobi. <https://unhabitat.org/sites/default/files/download-manager-files/Gender%20Toolkit.pdf>
- Gardner, N., Cui, J. and Coiacetto, E. (2017). Harassment on public transport and its impacts on women's travel behaviour. *Australian Planner*, 54(1), 8-15. DOI: 10.1080/07293682.2017.1299189
- Glasson, J., Therivel, R. and Chadwick, A. (2012). *Introduction to Environmental Impact Assessment (Natural and Built Environment Series)*. Fourth Edition. Routledge, London.

- Global Labour Institute (2018). Nairobi Bus Rapid Transit: Labour Impact Assessment. Global Labour Institute, Manchester. <https://www.itfglobal.org/media/1877958/nairobi-brt-labour-impact-assessment-revised.pdf>
- Gordon, P., Kumar, A. and Richardson, H. W. (1989). Gender differences in metropolitan travel behaviour. *Regional Studies*, 23(6), 499-510. DOI: 10.1080/00343408912331345672
- Grieco, M., Apt, N. and Turner, J. (1996). *At Christmas and on Rainy Days: Transport, Travel and the Female Traders of Accra*. Avebury, Aldershot.
- Grieco, M., Pickup, L. and Whipp, R. (eds.). (1989). *Gender, Transport, and Employment: The Impact of Travel Constraints*. Gower Publishing Company.
- Hamilton, K. (2002). Gender and transport in developed countries. In: *Paper commissioned by UNED as input for the Expert Workshop "Gender Perspectives for Earth Summit"*.
- Hamilton, K. and Jenkins, L. (2000). A gender audit for public transport: A new policy tool in the tackling of social exclusion. *Urban Studies*, 37(10), 1793-1800. DOI: 10.1080/00420980020080411
- Hamilton, K., Jenkins, L. and Gregory, A. (1991). *Women and Transport: Bus Deregulation in West Yorkshire*. University of Bradford, Bradford.
- Hamilton, K., Jenkins, L., Hodgson, F. and Turner, J. (2005). *Promoting gender equality in transport*. Working Paper Series, No.34. Equal Opportunities Commission, Manchester. <https://www.ssatp.org/sites/ssatp/files/publications/HTML/Gender-RG/Source%20%20documents/Technical%20Reports/Gender%20and%20Transport/TEGT2%20Promoting%20gender%20equality%20in%20transport%20UK%202005.pdf>
- HelpAge International (2017). Impacts and implications of gender mainstreaming in rural transport in Tanzania – Final Report. ReCAP for DFID, London.
- INTALInC (2019). Transport and Social Exclusion in Five African Cities. INTALInC, University of Leeds. <http://www.vref.se/download/18.45182a5f16a84e95fac8b2b5/1561370471910/Transport%20and%20Social%20Exclusion%20in%20five%20African%20Cities%20-%20June%202019.pdf>
- International Labor Organisation (2002). Gender Equality Tool. <https://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/gender/newsite2002/about/defin.htm>
- ITDP (2018). #MyDressMyChoice: How Women Fought Harassment in Kenya. May 2018. Transport Matters blog. Institute for Transport & Development Policy, New York, USA. <https://www.itdp.org/2018/05/02/st-mag-mydressmychoice/>
- Kahangirwe, P. (2012). Linking environmental assessment and rapid urbanization in Kampala City, *Impact Assessment and Project Appraisal*, 30:2, 111-115, DOI: 10.1080/14615517.2012.660353
- Kampala Capital City Authority (2015). Strategic Plan 2014/2015 -2018/2019. Kampala Capital City Authority, Kampala, Uganda
- Khosa, M. M. (1997). Sisters on slippery wheels: women taxi drivers in South Africa. *Transformation*, (33).
- KNBS (2019). 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census Volume I: Population by County and Sub-County.
- Levy, C. (1990). Gender and Third World Development--Module 5: Towards Gender-Aware Provision of Urban Transport. Institute of Development Studies, Brighton. In *Gender and transport in less developed countries: A background paper in preparation for CSD-9*. Peters, D. (2001). In *London, Paper Commissioned by UNED Forum* (p. 720).
- Little, J., Peake, L. and Richardson, P., eds. (1988). *Women in cities: Gender and the urban environment*. Macmillan International Higher Education, Basingstoke.
- Maffii, S., Malgieri, P. and Di Bartolo, C. (2014). Gender Equality and Mobility: Mind the Gap! CIVITAS WIKI policy analysis. [https://civitas.eu/sites/default/files/civ\\_pol-an2\\_m\\_web.pdf](https://civitas.eu/sites/default/files/civ_pol-an2_m_web.pdf)
- Malmberg-Calvo, C. (1994). Case Study on the Role of Women in Rural Transport: Access of Women to Domestic Facilities. SSATP (Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Policy Program, The World Bank and Economic Commission for Africa) Working Paper, (11).
- Maramba, P. and Bamberger, M. (2001). A gender responsive monitoring and evaluation system for rural travel and transport programs in Africa. SSATP (*Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Policy Program, The World Bank and Economic Commission for Africa*) Working Paper, (55).
- Mellgren, C., Andersson, M. and Ivert, A. K. (2018). "It happens all the time": Women's experiences and normalization of sexual harassment in public space. *Women & Criminal Justice*, 28(4), 262-281. DOI: 10.1080/08974454.2017.1372328

- Ministry of Infrastructure Development, United Republic of Tanzania (2008). *10 year Transport Sector Investment Programme (TSIP) - PHASE I 2007/08 – 2011/12Y*. Ministry of Infrastructure Development, Dar es Salaam. [http://www.tzdpd.or.tz/fileadmin/documents/dpg\\_internal/dpg\\_working\\_groups\\_clusters/cluster\\_1/infrastructure/transport/Transport\\_Sector\\_Investment\\_Programme\\_April\\_2008.pdf](http://www.tzdpd.or.tz/fileadmin/documents/dpg_internal/dpg_working_groups_clusters/cluster_1/infrastructure/transport/Transport_Sector_Investment_Programme_April_2008.pdf)
- Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development, United Republic of Tanzania (2016). *Habitat III National Report Tanzania Final Report*. Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development, Dar es Salaam.
- Ministry of Works and Transport. (2009). Plan for the Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area (NTMP/GKMA). Abridged Version. Ministry of Works and Transport, Kampala. <https://works.go.ug/wp-content/uploads/2015/08/National-Transport-Master-Plan-2008-2023.pdf>
- Moser, C. (2005). An introduction to gender audit methodology: Its design and implementation in DFID Malawi. Overseas Development Institute, London.
- Nairobi City County Government (2015). Nairobi Non-Motorised Transport Policy. Nairobi City County Government, Nairobi.
- NEMA (2002a). Environmental Management and Coordination Act (No 8 Of 1999). National Environmental Management Authority, Nairobi. [https://www.nema.go.ke/images/Docs/Guidelines/EIA%20GUIDELINES%202002\\_latest.pdf](https://www.nema.go.ke/images/Docs/Guidelines/EIA%20GUIDELINES%202002_latest.pdf)
- NEMA (2002b). Environment Impact Assessment Guidelines and Administrative Procedures. National Environmental Management Authority, Nairobi.
- Neupane, G. and Chesney-Lind, M. (2014). Violence against women on public transport in Nepal: Sexual harassment and the spatial expression of male privilege. *International Journal of Comparative and Applied Criminal Justice*, 38(1), 23-38. DOI: 10.1080/01924036.2013.794556
- Nyangueso, S. O., Orwa, S. O., Ombai, M. and Sheba, S. (2019). Effects of gender mainstreaming efforts on rural transport institutions in Kenya. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers-Transport* (pp. 1-11). Thomas Telford Ltd., London. DOI: 10.1680/jtran.18.00146
- Peters, D. (2001). Gender and transport in less developed countries: A background paper in preparation for CSD-9. In *London, Paper Commissioned by UNED Forum* (p. 720).
- Peters, D. (2013). *Gender and sustainable urban mobility*. UN-Habitat, Nairobi.
- Polk, M. (2008). Gender mainstreaming in Swedish transport policy. i T. Cresswell och TP Uteng (Red.). *Gendered Mobilities*, 229-242.
- Riverson, J., Kunieda, M., Roberts, P., Lewi, N. and Walker, W. M. (2006). Gender dimensions of transport in developing countries: lessons from World Bank Projects. *Transportation research record*, 1956(1), 149-156.
- Riverson, J., Kunieda, M., Roberts, P., Lewi, N. and Walker, W. M. (2005). *An overview of women's transport issues in developing countries the challenges in addressing gender dimensions of transport in developing countries: lessons from World Bank's projects*. Retrieved on March, 23(2010), 462613-1152683444211.
- Rosenbloom, S. (1993). Women's Travel Pattern at Various Stages of Their Lives. In *Full Circles: Geographies of Women Over the Life Course*. Katz, C. and Monk, J. (eds). Routledge, London and New York. pp. 208-242. DOI: 10.4324/9781315832258
- Salon, D. and Gulyani, S. (2010). Mobility, poverty, and gender: travel 'choices' of slum residents in Nairobi, Kenya. *Transport Reviews*, 30(5), 641-657. DOI: 10.1080/01441640903298998
- Seedhouse, A., Johnson, R. and Newbery, R. (2016). Potholes and pitfalls: The impact of rural transport on female entrepreneurs in Nigeria. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 54, 140-147. DOI: 10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2016.04.013
- Shah, S., Viswanath, K., Vyas, S. and Gadepalli, S. (2017). Women and Transport in Indian Cities. *ITDP and Safetipin*, New Delhi, 10-11.
- SIDA (2017). Handbook on the Integration of a Gender Perspective in the Rural Transportation Sector. Swedish International Development Agency (Transport Division, INEC, SIDA), Stockholm.
- Sietchiping, R., Permezel, M. J. and Ngomsi, C. (2012). Transport and mobility in sub-Saharan African cities: An overview of practices, lessons and options for improvements. *Cities*, 29(3), 183-189. DOI: 10.1016/j.cities.2011.11.005
- SSATP (2006). Gender and Transport Resource Guide, Online Tool developed by the Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Program (SSATP). <https://www.ssatp.org/sites/ssatp/files/publications/HTML/Gender-RG/index.html>
- Stark, J. and Meschik, M. (2018). Women's everyday mobility: Frightening situations and their impacts on travel behaviour. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, 54, 311-323. DOI: 10.1016/j.trf.2018.02.017

- Stucki, M. (2015). *Policies for Sustainable Accessibility and Mobility in Urban Areas of Africa*. Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Policy Program (SSATP), No. 106. World Bank, Washington, DC. <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/24089/Policies0for0s0rban0areas0of0Africa.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- TANROADS (2017). *Environmental and Social Management Framework for Dar es Salaam Urban Transport Improvement Project Tanzania National Roads Agency*. United Republic of Tanzania Ministry of Works, Transport and Communication, Dar es Salaam. <http://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/fr/822301484722638339/pdf/SFG2870-EA-P150937-Box402873B-PUBLIC-disclosed-1-16-17.pdf>
- Tanzarn, N. (2019). *Guidelines for Mainstreaming Gender in Rural Transport*, GEN2157A. ReCAP for DFID, London. [https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/5e18b4eee5274a06b8fa0ad0/Tanzarn-2019-GuidelinesforMainstreamingGenderinRural\\_Transport-ReCAP-GEN2157A-190618.pdf](https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/5e18b4eee5274a06b8fa0ad0/Tanzarn-2019-GuidelinesforMainstreamingGenderinRural_Transport-ReCAP-GEN2157A-190618.pdf)
- Tanzarn, N. (2017). *Scaling Up Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport: Policies, Practices, Impacts and Monitoring Processes*. Africa Community Access Partnership (AFCAP), <https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/5ac4b86bed915d0b7ffac8de/Tanzarn-IFRTD-2017-ScalingUpGMAAnalysisPoliciesPracticesImpactsMonitoringProcesses-SynthesisReport-AfCAP-RAF2044J-171203.pdf>
- Tara, S. (2011) Private Space in Public Transport: Locating Gender in the Delhi Metro. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 46(51). 71-74. [www.jstor.org/stable/23065551](http://www.jstor.org/stable/23065551)
- Thynell M (2016). The Quest for Gender-Sensitive and Inclusive Transport Policies in Growing Asian Cities. *Social inclusion*. 4. 72-82. 10.17645/si.v4i3.479.
- Tilley, S and Houston, D. (2016). The gender turnaround: Young women now travelling more than young men. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 54. 349-358. DOI: [10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2016.06.022](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2016.06.022)
- TRANSGEN (2007). *Gender Mainstreaming European Transport Research and Policies, Building the Knowledge Base and Mapping Good Practices*. The Coordination for Gender Studies. University of Copenhagen, pp. 13-14. <https://www.osti.gov/etdweb/servlets/purl/928105>
- Turner, J. and Fouracre, P. (1995). Women and transport in developing countries. *Transport Reviews*, 15(1), 77-96. DOI: [10.1080/01441649508716902](https://doi.org/10.1080/01441649508716902)
- UBOS. (2020) 'World Population Day celebrations'. Uganda Bureau of Statistics ([https://www.ubos.org/wp-content/uploads/publications/07\\_2020WORLD-POPULATION-DAY-BROCHURE-2020.pdf](https://www.ubos.org/wp-content/uploads/publications/07_2020WORLD-POPULATION-DAY-BROCHURE-2020.pdf)).
- United Nations Chronicle. (2015). Goal 11—Cities will play an important role in achieving the SDGs. *UN-Chronicle*. Retrieved from <http://unchronicle.un.org/article/goal-11-cities-will-play-important-role-achieving-sdgs>
- United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2015). *World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision: Key findings & advance tables*. United Nations, New York. [https://population.un.org/wpp/Publications/Files/Key\\_Findings\\_WPP\\_2015.pdf](https://population.un.org/wpp/Publications/Files/Key_Findings_WPP_2015.pdf)
- United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2014). *World Urbanization Prospects: The 2014 Revision, Highlights*. United Nations, Department of Social and Economic Affairs, New York. <https://population.un.org/wup/Publications/Files/WUP2014-Highlights.pdf>
- UN-HABITAT (2014). *Planning and Design for Sustainable Urban Mobility: Global Report on Human Settlements 2013*. UN Habitat, Nairobi. <https://unhabitat.org/sites/default/files/download-manager-files/Planning%20and%20Design%20for%20Sustainable%20Urban%20Mobility.pdf>
- UN-HABITAT (2018). Report On Gender Equity Assessment Of Nairobi's Public Minibus Transport Services. UN-Habitat, Nairobi. <http://demo3.macrotech-portal.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/GEA-Report.pdf>
- UN Statistics Division (2019). *Global indicator framework for the Sustainable Development Goals and targets of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. United Nations Statistics Division, New York. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/indicators-list/>
- Uteng, T. P. (2012). *Gender and Mobility in the Developing World*. World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development, Background Paper. World Bank, Washington DC. <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/9111/WDR2012-0010.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Venter, C., Vokolkova, V. and Michalek, J. (2007). Gender, residential location, and household travel: Empirical findings from low income urban settlements in Durban, South Africa. *Transport Reviews*, 27(6), 653-677. DOI: [10.1080/01441640701450627](https://doi.org/10.1080/01441640701450627)
- Walmsley, B. and Ofosu-Koranteng, B. (2017). Gender in ESIA: new approaches to an age-old problem. Presentation at IAIA17 (International Association for Impact Assessment Conference 2017). Montréal, Canada, 4-7 April 2017. <https://conferences.iaia.org/2017/uploads/presentations/Gender%20in%20ESIA.pdf> Accessed October 2019
- Wathern, P. (1998). *Environmental Impact Assessment: Theory and Practice 1st Edition*. Routledge, London.

World Bank (2018). *Environmental & Social Impact Assessment Project Report for The Proposed Construction of Off-Station Access Road to Kitengela Railway Station in Kajiado County of Nairobi Metropolitan Region*. Nairobi Metropolitan Services Improvement Project (NaMSIP). World Bank, Washington DC. <http://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/898151536205045753/text/AFR-ESIA-Report-for-Kitengela-Access-Road-to-Railway-Station-20180822-P107314.txt>

World Bank (2010). *Mainstreaming Gender in Road Transport: Operational Guidance for World Bank Staff*. Transport paper series; no. TP-28. World Bank, Washington, DC. <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/17455/569540NWPOTran10Box353751B01PUBLIC1.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>



## Annex 1

Table 6. Gender mainstreaming in transport policy and legal frameworks in Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya

Type of document	Country	Name	Reference to gender
National level	Constitution	Uganda	The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda (1995)
		Kenya	The Constitution of Kenya (2010)
		Tanzania	The Constitution of Tanzania (2004)
	Vision/ Growth& Development Plan	Uganda	Uganda Vision 2040, Second National Development Plan (NDPII) (2015/16–2019/20)
		Kenya	Vision 2030 (2008), first MTP (2008-2012), second MTP (2013-2017) and third MTP (2018-2022)
		Tanzania	Tanzania Development Vision (2025), second National Five Year Development Plan (FYDP II), 2016/17 – 2020/21
			National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty I (2005)
	Gender Policy	Uganda	National Gender Policy (2007)
		Kenya	National Policy on Gender and Development (2000, 2019)
			Sessional Paper No. 2 of 2006 on Gender Equality and Development (2006)
		Tanzania	Women and Gender Development Policy (2000)
	Transport Policy	Uganda	National Strategy for Gender Development (NSGD)
			Transport Sector Draft Policy and Strategy Paper (2003)
			Draft Non-Motorised Transport Policy (2012)
			Policy Statement for Mainstreaming Gender into the Road Sub-Sector (2006)
		Kenya	Draft National Transport and Logistics Policy and Strategy (2019)
			National Transport Policy (2012)
		Tanzania	National Transport Policy (2003), Implementation Strategy of the Transport Policy of 2011- 2025
			The National Road Safety Policy (2009)
	Transport Master Plan/programs	Uganda	Transport Sector Draft Policy and Strategy Paper (2003)
			Draft Non-Motorised Transport Policy (2012)
		Kenya	Policy Statement for Mainstreaming Gender into the Road Sub-Sector (2006)
			Draft National Transport and Logistics Policy and Strategy (2019)
	Transport laws and regulations	Uganda	National Transport Policy (2003), Implementation Strategy of the Transport Policy of 2011- 2025
			The National Road Safety Policy (2009)
			Transport Sector Draft Policy and Strategy Paper (2003)
			Draft Non-Motorised Transport Policy (2012)
			Policy Statement for Mainstreaming Gender into the Road Sub-Sector (2006)
			Draft National Transport and Logistics Policy and Strategy (2019)
			National Transport Policy (2012)
			National Transport Policy (2003), Implementation Strategy of the Transport Policy of 2011- 2025
		Kenya	The National Road Safety Policy (2009)
			Transport Sector Draft Policy and Strategy Paper (2003)
			Draft Non-Motorised Transport Policy (2012)
			Policy Statement for Mainstreaming Gender into the Road Sub-Sector (2006)
			Draft National Transport and Logistics Policy and Strategy (2019)
			National Transport Policy (2012)
			National Transport Policy (2003), Implementation Strategy of the Transport Policy of 2011- 2025
			The National Road Safety Policy (2009)
		Tanzania	Transport Sector Draft Policy and Strategy Paper (2003)
			Draft Non-Motorised Transport Policy (2012)
			Policy Statement for Mainstreaming Gender into the Road Sub-Sector (2006)
			Draft National Transport and Logistics Policy and Strategy (2019)
			National Transport Policy (2012)
			National Transport Policy (2003), Implementation Strategy of the Transport Policy of 2011- 2025
			The National Road Safety Policy (2009)
			Transport Sector Draft Policy and Strategy Paper (2003)
City level	Urban Integrated Development Plan	Kampala	Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) Strategy Plan 2014/15-2018/19
		Dar es Salaam	-
		Nairobi	Nairobi Urban Development Master Plan (2014-2030)
			Nairobi County Integrated Development Plan (CIDP) 2018-2022
		Dar es Salaam	Dar es Salaam Transport Policy and System Development Master Plan
	Transport policy/ master plan	Nairobi	Non-Motorised Policy in 2012
		Kampala	-

Source: Authors' own.

### Legend:

**E:** Policy document explicitly identifies gender differentiated mobility patterns and needs, addresses gender through gender responsive strategies or prescriptions

**I:** Policy document does not explicitly take into consideration gender but partly address gender through measures that could have an implication on gender equality in transport

**NM:** Policy document does not mention or address gender explicitly or implicitly.

Annex 2

Figure 3. Example of the EIA process in Uganda (Escaat 2004)

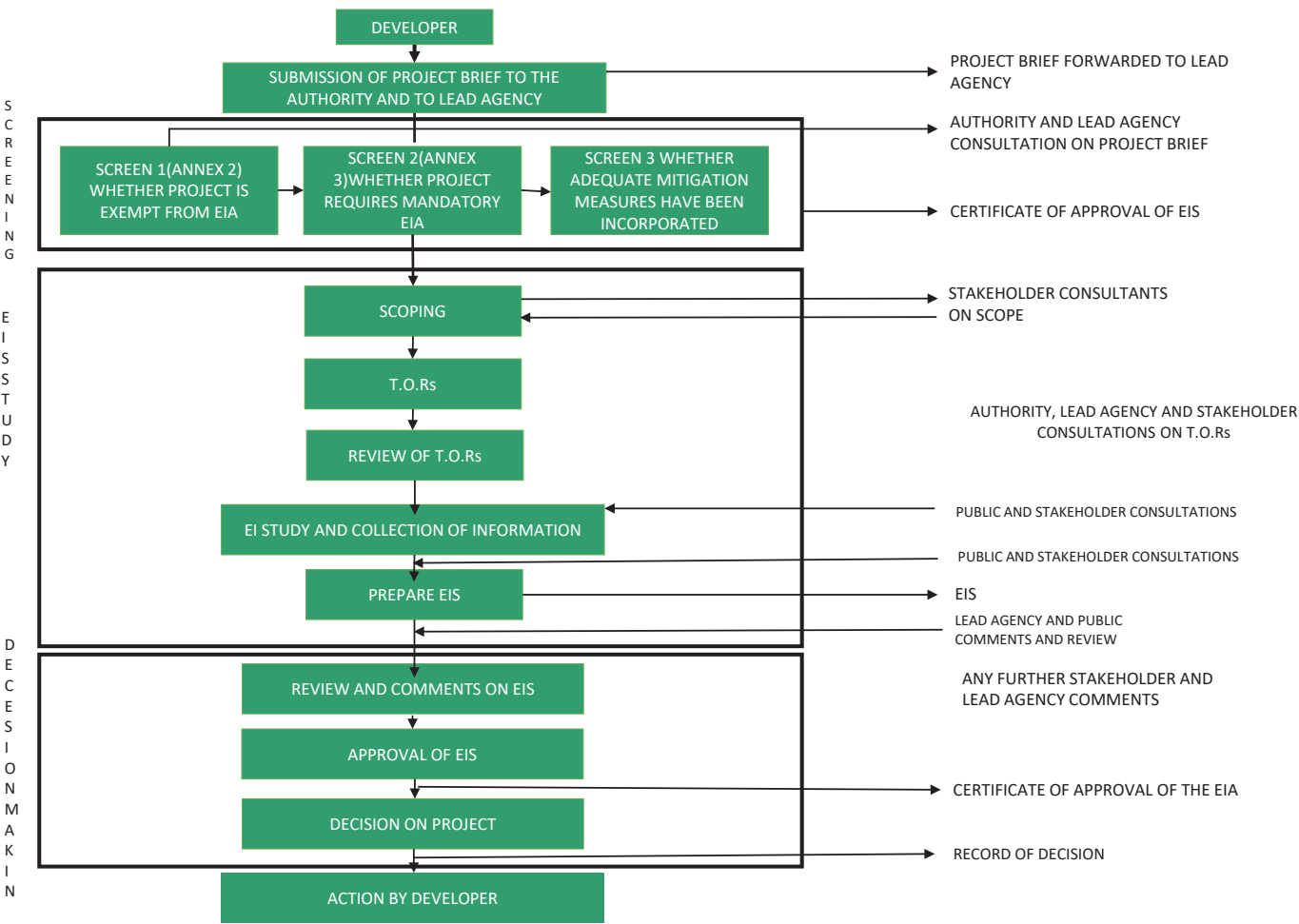


Figure 4. Kenya EIA process (NEMA 2002b).

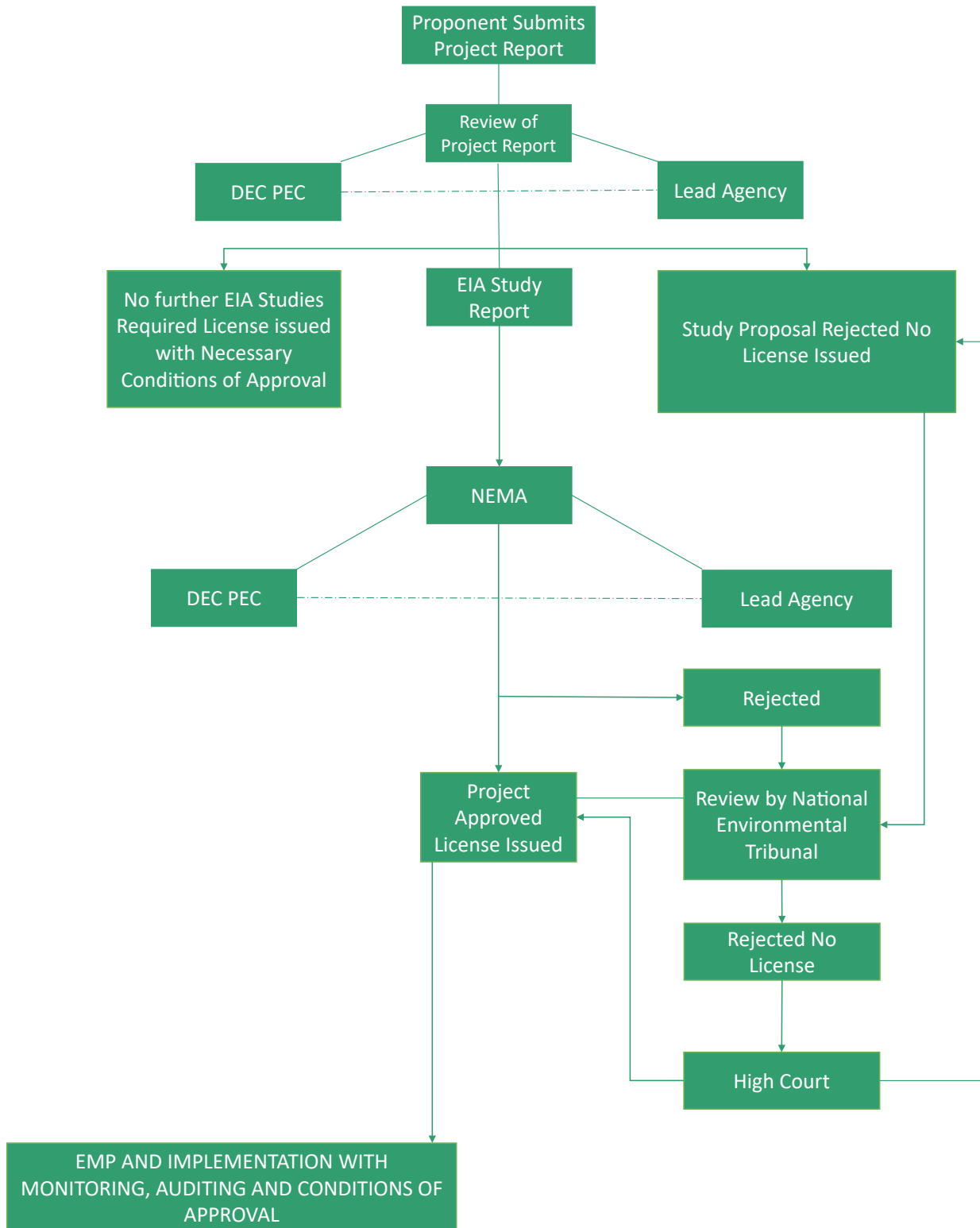
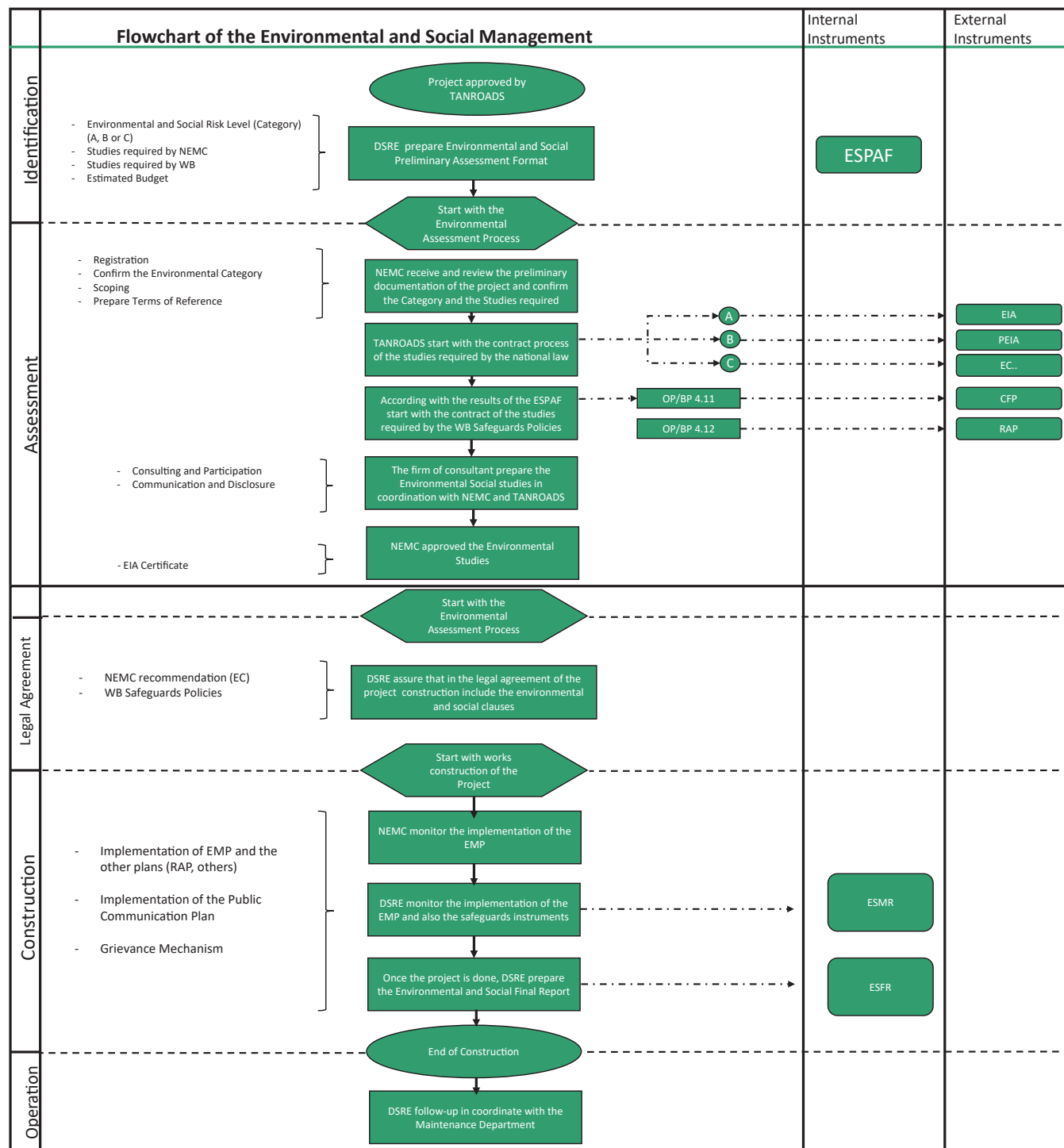




Figure 5. Environmental and social impact assessment process in Tanzania (World Bank 2017).





---

## Visit us

---

### SEI Headquarters

Linnégatan 87D Box 24218  
104 51 Stockholm Sweden  
Tel: +46 8 30 80 44  
info@sei.org

---

**Måns Nilsson**

Executive Director

---

### SEI Africa

World Agroforestry Centre  
United Nations Avenue  
Gigiri P.O. Box 30677  
Nairobi 00100 Kenya  
Tel: +254 20 722 4886  
info-Africa@sei.org

---

**Philip Osano**

Centre Director

---

### SEI Asia

10th Floor, Kasem Uttayanin Building,  
254 Chulalongkorn University,  
Henri Dunant Road, Pathumwan, Bangkok,  
10330 Thailand  
Tel: +66 2 251 4415  
info-Asia@sei.org

---

**Niall O'Connor**

Centre Director

---

### SEI Tallinn

Arsenal Centre  
Erika 14, 10416  
Tallinn, Estonia  
Tel: +372 6276 100  
info-Tallinn@sei.org

---

**Lauri Tammiste**

Centre Director

---

### SEI Oxford

Oxford Eco Centre, Roger House,  
Osney Mead, Oxford,  
OX2 0ES, UK  
Tel: +44 1865 42 6316  
info-Oxford@sei.org

---

**Ruth Butterfield**

Centre Director

---

### SEI US

#### Main Office

11 Curtis Avenue  
Somerville MA 02144-1224 USA  
Tel: +1 617 627 3786  
info-US@sei.org

---

**Michael Lazarus**

Centre Director

---

### SEI US

#### Davis Office

400 F Street  
Davis CA 95616 USA  
Tel: +1 530 753 3035

---

### SEI US

#### Seattle Office

1402 Third Avenue Suite 900  
Seattle WA 98101 USA  
Tel: +1 206 547 4000

---

### SEI York

University of York  
Heslington York  
YO10 5DD UK  
Tel: +44 1904 32 2897  
info-York@sei.org

---

**Sarah West**

Centre Director

---

### SEI Latin America

Calle 71 # 11-10  
Oficina 801  
Bogota Colombia  
Tel: +57 1 6355319  
info-LatinAmerica@sei.org

---

**David Purkey**

Centre Director