



CCG in Kenya

Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) in Energy and Transport Sectors

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GESI KENYA REPORT, 2026

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Glossary

Energy system: A combination of technical (e.g., infrastructure) and economic systems (e.g., electricity markets) designed to supply energy services to end-users

Gender equality and social inclusion (GESI): Improving the terms of participation in society, especially for marginalised and vulnerable groups, through enhancing opportunities, access to resources, voice, and respect for rights.

Intersectionality: An analytical lens which examines how different social stratifiers (such as gender, age, disability, sexual orientation, refugee status, ethnicity, race, and income, etc.) intersect with each other and structural determinants (e.g., politics, globalisation, war, education) to create unique circumstances of power, privilege, and marginalisation.

Marginalised and vulnerable groups: Demographics of individuals who experience discrimination and exclusion (social, political, and economic) because of unequal power relationships across economic, political, social, and cultural dimensions.

Transport system: The vehicles, infrastructure, people, and logistics involved in moving goods or people from one location to another.

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1. Executive summary

The Climate Compatible Growth (CCG) Programme supports low- and middle-income countries to achieve sustainable energy and transport investments through applied research and local capacity building, in partnership with Strathmore University and the Nuvoni Centre for Innovation Research. In Kenya, where inclusive development is guided by the 2010 Constitution and national policies, marginalised and vulnerable populations, including women, youth, people with disabilities (PwDs), Indigenous groups, refugees, and LGBTQIA+ individuals continue to face significant barriers.

This document presents a condensed and revised version of a longer in-country contextual report on Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) in Kenya, assessing existing policies and participatory processes and identifying data gaps and inclusion challenges. It synthesises key findings on how GESI is reflected across Kenya's energy and transport systems, drawing on demographic analysis and qualitative insights from key informant interviews and focus group discussions. The condensed version is intended as an accessible baseline to support internal alignment, partner engagement, and evidence-informed dialogue on how to strengthen inclusive policy and implementation across both sectors.

Key Takeaways

- Affordability is a binding constraint in both sectors, reinforcing exclusion for people living in poverty and informal settlements. With energy, high entry costs and insecure tenure can push households toward informal or hazardous connections and exploitative pricing. With transport, non-motorised forms (e.g., walking), becoming the default.
- Unequal electrification is shaped mainly by urban-rural divides, with the latter communities underserved due to the high cost of last-mile delivery. These gaps are often most pronounced for Indigenous and pastoralist communities in remote arid and semi-arid lands (ASAL).
- Gender norms, safety risks, and lower incomes shape how women and girls use and benefit from energy and transport systems, often increasing time burdens and constraining access to services, jobs, and opportunities, particularly in rural and low-income contexts.
- Kenya hosts a significant refugee population, which faces overlapping energy and mobility constraints. In camp and settlement contexts, limited infrastructure investment and affordability barriers can undermine reliable electricity access, while permitting rules and weak all-weather road connectivity restrict transport.
- Accessibility gaps and stigma systematically exclude PwDs and older adults from energy and transport services and participation. PwDs face both service design barriers and higher costs, while older adults' mobility is constrained by distance and affordability.
- Kenya's policy architecture is increasingly reflective of GESI considerations, but implementation and participation gaps persist. Under-budgeting, insufficient data, limited capacity, weak coordination, and low accountability mean that inclusion commitments are often deprioritised or applied inconsistently.

Sensitivity Note

This report applies a GESI lens across all relevant population groups. However, some topics are socially and/or politically sensitive in Kenya: **LGBTQIA+ inclusion, gender-based violence, Indigenous identity and land, and refugee status**. Researchers should proceed with caution when raising these issues, both to protect affected communities and to avoid inadvertently undermining relationships or access. Sensitive identities and protection risks should be discussed only in appropriate settings and with appropriate counterparts. Engagement with GESI should be demand-led, locally anchored, and guided by a do-no-harm approach. In practice, this means using trusted local intermediaries, applying careful informed consent, building in safeguards such as anonymisation, and avoiding any approaches that could increase risk or visibility for participants.



2. Introduction and background

Kenya is a rapidly developing country in East Africa with significant geographic, socio-economic, and cultural diversity. Over the last decade, it has expanded access to basic infrastructure and services, including major gains in electricity access, rising from around 20% in 2013 to nearly 85% by 2019.¹ At the same time, these gains have been uneven. Urban-rural divides, the high costs of last-mile access, and the realities of remote counties continue to shape who can reliably reach services and opportunities, alongside persistent pressures in informal settlements and rapidly growing towns.²

These disparities directly affect whether energy and transport systems translate into real improvements in livelihoods and wellbeing. Marginalised and vulnerable populations encounter significant obstacles in accessing essential services such as energy, transport, education, and economic opportunities, often through binding constraints such as affordability, safety risks, and accessibility barriers.³ Kenya's policy landscape has evolved to address these disparities, but challenges persist in meaningful participatory processes and achieving sustainable, clean energy and decarbonised transport systems that are inclusive to all.^{4,5} Understanding the demographic composition and the specific challenges faced by these groups is crucial to formulating comprehensive policies and interventions. In this report, Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) is used as an analytical lens to assess how energy and transport systems shape – and are shaped by – different needs and constraints, so that sector investments and reforms can deliver more equitable outcomes.

2.1. Objectives

The objectives of this study are to:

1. Analyse the context of marginalised and vulnerable groups in Kenya, including demographic characteristics, unique energy and decarbonised transport needs, and barriers to accessing these infrastructures.
2. Review national policies and legislation related to energy, transport, national development, and GESI.
3. Assess the extent to which policymaking processes in these sectors are participatory.
4. Map key stakeholders working with marginalised and vulnerable groups and identify active taskforces related to GESI considerations.

2.2. Methodology

This report's mixed-methodology combined desk review, policy analysis, Key Informant Interviews (KIIs), and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs). The review examined academic literature, government publications, and international reports to identify the demographics, needs, and barriers faced by marginalised and vulnerable groups in accessing energy and transport. The policy analysis assessed Kenya's GESI legislation alongside sector-specific strategies and regulations related to energy, transport, and climate change.

The report also included comprehensive field data collected from five counties: Turkana, Kwale, Kakamega, Makueni, and Kajiado, each selected for their distinct demographic and cultural profiles. Turkana hosts a significant refugee and migrant population; Kwale includes rural and Indigenous communities; Makueni and Kakamega are largely rural; and Kajiado represents pastoralist and Indigenous contexts. 21 KIIs were conducted with government officials, civil society actors, and community leaders, while FGDs (20 total participants) engaged directly with affected populations to capture lived experiences. A purposive sampling strategy ensured representation of diverse GESI-relevant stakeholders.



3. GESI context in Kenya

Marginalised and vulnerable communities, summarised in **Table 1**, face systematic exclusion from energy, transport, education, and economic opportunity. Kenya's policy landscape increasingly recognises these disparities, but implementation gaps and uneven service delivery continue to constrain progress toward systems that are accessible to all. The groups presented below are not exhaustive, but reflect populations most consistently identified in policy, data, and stakeholder sources as facing intersecting forms of exclusion relevant to GESI.

Groups	Population / key statistics	Critical issues
Women and girls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ~51% of population⁶ Global Gender Gap Rank: 75th (of 146 countries)⁷ Female-headed households: ~39% rural, ~35% urban⁷ Earn ~30% less than men in comparable roles⁸ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Burden of unpaid care/domestic work combined with lower income constrains decision-making⁹ Underrepresentation in governance and sector leadership limits influence over infrastructure priorities¹⁰
People with disabilities (PwDs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ~2.2% of population (0.9 million people)¹¹ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Likely undercounting due to stigmatisation¹² More than 80% of PwDs live in rural areas^{13,14} Key disabilities include physical (42%), visual (36.4%), hearing (16.7%), and cognitive impairments (23.2%)¹² 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nearly half (45.7%) live in poverty, with 59% left out of the labour force¹⁵ Educational disparities: 25% of PwDs never attend school and 49% do not complete primary education¹⁶ Limited household decision-making authority and barriers to accessing information, goods, services, and opportunities¹⁷
LGBTQIA+ individuals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Estimate ~2% of population (~1.3 million people) identify as LGBTQIA+¹⁸ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> No official data due to criminalisation of same-sex relationships and widespread social stigma¹⁹ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Legal environment discourages open identification and limits visibility in policy and programming¹⁸ Discrimination and safety risks can deter service uptake, limit mobility, and restrict access to formal employment¹⁹
People living in poverty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 39.8% of population live below the poverty line²⁰ Higher prevalence in rural areas (40.1%) than urban (27.5%)²¹ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Location (remote counties) increases time and monetary costs to reach services²¹ In informal settlements, lack of recognised land ownership can reinforce exclusion²²
Youth and children	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Youth (ages 18–34) are 28.6% of population²³ Youth and children (all people younger than 35) are ~75% of population²⁴ Higher prevalence of unemployment: youth unemployment is ~35% (vs. national average 10%)²⁴ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unemployment and precarious incomes can reduce ability to pay for services²⁵ Weak labour-market access limits pathways into technical and service jobs²⁶ Limited decision-making power in households and under-representation in governance can reduce influence over services that affect them²⁷
Older adults	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Older adults (ages 60+) are 5.7% of population²⁸ Higher prevalence of older women (55%) and in rural areas²⁹ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Immobility, income insecurity, and digital illiteracy constraints heighten vulnerability to exclusion where services require travel, digitalisation, or recurring payments²⁹
Indigenous and ethnic minorities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 42+ Indigenous communities, including Maasai, Samburu, Turkana, Borana, Somali (pastoralists); Ogiek, Sengwer, Yaaku (hunter-gatherers); and Bajuni and Pokomo (coastal minorities)^{30,31} Pastoralists are ~25% of the population³⁰ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Historical marginalisation can translate into weaker political voice, lower infrastructure investment, and limited access to services in remote contexts³¹ Language barriers and consultation processes that do not align with traditional decision-making structures can constrain participation³⁰
Rural communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 68.9% of population (32.73 million people)³² Large rural concentrations in counties such as Kakamega, Bungoma, and Meru²⁸ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distance, dispersed settlements, and weaker market/service presence can increase access costs and reduce service quality³² Limited technical support and awareness of modern options can slow adoption in underserved areas²¹
Refugees and internally displaced people	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ~837,000 refugees and asylum seekers, of which 73% are refugees and 27% asylum-seekers³³ 51% reside in Dadaab and 36% in Kakuma (refugee camps); 13% in urban areas³³ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Internal displacement due to climate disasters, conflicts, and development projects³³ Precarious legal/economic status and camp/settlement conditions can constrain service choices and mobility; displacement increases vulnerability to service disruption³³

Table 1. Key demographic GESI groups and related challenges in Kenya

**Note: Population and statistical estimates are drawn from multiple sources over recent years and are intended to provide indicative trends rather than precise annual figures.*



4. GESI and energy

Clean energy access and use in Kenya are shaped by intersecting constraints – affordability, reliance on biomass for cooking, accessibility, rurality, and exclusion from decision-making and jobs – with disproportionate impacts on women, PwDs, Indigenous communities, and people living in poverty.

4.1 Affordability

Affordability is a significant constraint of both connection to and sustained use of modern energy in Kenya. Energy poverty is closely linked to wider income insecurity and among people living in extreme poverty, approximately 34% (4.9 million individuals) lack meaningful electricity access.³⁴ Counties with high poverty rates, such as Turkana, Mandera, Samburu, Garissa, Tana River, Marsabit, and Wajir, have particularly low electrification rates.³⁵

In urban informal settlements, which are largely comprised of people living in poverty, barriers to formal electricity are shaped by high entry costs, insecure tenure, and lack of recognised land ownership.³⁶ Exorbitant connection fees discourage residents from accessing electricity legally, pushing households toward informal and hazardous alternatives.³⁶ Irregular incomes can make regular utility payments difficult, reinforcing reliance on intermittent supply and exposure to exploitative pricing from informal providers.³⁷

4.2 Clean cooking

66.7% of the population relies on solid biomass for cooking, while 23.9% use Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG).³⁸ Among people living in extreme poverty, 88% (12.7 million people) have no access to clean cooking solutions.³² Firewood accounts for 68.7% of this traditional biomass usage, and charcoal constitutes 13.3%.³⁹ Indoor air pollution from traditional fuels is a leading cause of respiratory illnesses, particularly among women and children, due to gendered domestic responsibilities.^{40,41} Similarly, women and girls carry the time burden for household fuel collection.^{42,43} They devote nearly sixfold more time than men to gathering fuel, facing exposure to gender-based violence (GBV) while doing so.⁹

4.3 Accessibility

For PwDs, energy is shaped by the accessibility of service models and information.⁴⁴ Further, PwDs have unique needs for reliable electricity to power assistive technologies, such as hearing aids and communication devices, which leads to higher energy costs.⁴⁵ Yet there is a 5% gap in electricity access between people with and without disabilities, partly due to higher disability rates in less-electrified rural areas.¹⁶ Similarly, clean fuel usage was significantly lower among PwDs (14%) compared to those without functional difficulties (23%).¹⁶ Approximately 0.8 million PwDs who live in extreme poverty lack electricity, while an estimated 1.9 million do not have access to clean cooking.⁴⁶

Digital exclusion can further restrict access to modern energy services, particularly where payments, applications, or after-sales support depend on mobile connectivity. PwDs have lower mobile phone ownership rates due to cost barriers and disability-related challenges.⁴⁷ Over 70% of disabled mobile phone owners use basic-feature phones, restricting their access to digital payment systems.⁴⁷

4.4 Rurality and geographic isolation

Settlement patterns strongly shape who is reached by grid and off-grid energy solutions, and at what cost. Rural dispersion increases per-connection costs, constraining commercially viable grid extension; over 60% of rural households are not connected to the national grid.^{48,49}

Further, Indigenous communities face layered constraints where geographic isolation intersects with social and governance barriers. Limited grid connectivity in remote areas, mobility patterns in pastoralist contexts, language barriers, and consultation processes that do not align with traditional decision-making structures can restrict access to energy information and participation in planning.⁵⁰

Additionally, displacement and refugee contexts face intersecting structural constraints. Temporary refugee camp status can discourage long-term infrastructure investment, including reliable electricity



systems, reinforcing reliance on basic or short-term provisions.⁵¹ Also, legal restrictions preventing employment can limit household income generation and the ability to afford essential services.⁵²

4.5 Workforce participation and skills pipeline

Women remain underrepresented in the energy workforce, with limited access to technical jobs and decision-making roles that shape who is positioned to influence service delivery models.⁵³ For instance, only 22 out of 375 licensed solar technicians in Kenya are women.⁵⁴ This likely begins with the severe gender imbalance of engineering education, with a 1:10 ratio of women to men, a dynamic reflective of the broader Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) divergence, with tertiary school graduates in such disciplines being only 31% female.^{55,56} Similarly, women's participation in energy governance remains particularly low: 35% of the total staff and only 15% of leadership positions in the Ministry of Energy's headquarters are filled by women.^{57,58}

5. GESI and transport

Transport exclusion in Kenya is driven by reinforcing mechanisms: affordability, safety, accessibility, and rurality, which intersect with gender, age, disability, poverty, sexuality, and displacement status.

5.1 Affordability

In urban contexts, transport affordability is shaped by income inequality: for people living in poverty, transport costs can create a 'mobility trap', in which inadequate transportation both results from and contributes to economic disadvantage.⁵⁹ Low-income households spend a significant portion of income on transport, as much as 30%, threatening other essential needs.^{60,61} Where affordable public transport options are limited, walking becomes a default mode. However, informal settlements can be between 12-18 km from employment nodes like central business districts and workers in densely populated low-income neighbourhoods often walk up to 20 km daily.^{62,63}

Public transport systems are also designed for the direct commuting patterns of men, while women make more multi-stop and multi-mode trips due to care responsibilities, leading to higher fare costs.⁶⁴ As such, women carry a higher transport burden and allocate more of their income to public transport.⁶⁵ Further, when travelling with children or older adults, or carrying additional baggage, it is often necessary to use more costly modes of private transport, such as rickshaws or taxis.⁶⁶

Youth experience affordability constraints as limiting opportunities, with 72% of young people citing the cost of transport as restricting access to education and work.⁶⁷ Digital transport services can expand options for some, but access is uneven across urban-rural divides: 68% of urban youths frequently utilise digital transport services such as ride-hailing apps, compared to 23% for rural youths.⁶⁸ Older adults also face pronounced affordability barriers, as the average pension only covers 23% of monthly transport expenses.⁶⁹

5.2 Safety

Safety concerns shape how, and whether, many marginalised and vulnerable groups move through urban spaces.⁷⁰ In Nairobi, 27.9% of women have experienced sexual harassment while using public transport; many women refrain from reporting these crimes, suggesting the figure is higher.⁷¹ Perceived risk is also time-dependent: 45.7% of women commuters feel most unsafe while using public transport at night.⁷² Young women and girls, ages 16 to 24, undergo the most harassment on their daily journeys, with 67% experiencing harassment at least once a month.⁷³ These risks can produce costly coping strategies, such as longer routes, traveling in groups, or avoiding night travel that restrict access to work and services and function as a 'mobility tax'.^{74,75}

LGBTQIA+ individuals also report elevated insecurity and harassment in transport settings, ranging from verbal abuse to physical assaults.⁷⁶ 73% feel unsafe while using public transport, while 58% have encountered verbal harassment from transport operators or fellow passengers.⁷⁶ Documentation and identity verification can create additional exposure to exclusion: gender non-conforming individuals face difficulties with IDs during formal transport interactions.⁷⁷



5.3 Accessibility

Most public transport infrastructure in Nairobi lacks essential physical accessibility features such as ramps, tactile paving, and audible signals.⁷⁸ These gaps can restrict mobility for wheelchair users, people with visual or hearing impairments, and others who require accessible infrastructure to travel safely and independently.⁷⁹

Service experiences can further discourage use, creating double exclusion through both inadequate infrastructure and social stigmatisation. PwDs report discriminatory attitudes by transport operators and other commuters, including denial of service or unwillingness to provide necessary assistance.⁸⁰ Moreover, transport costs for PwDs can be substantially higher than for non-disabled commuters: people with physical disabilities can pay up to nearly three times the regular fare, to cater for their aides and wheelchair accommodation.⁷³

Additionally, spatial gaps in service design can make transport inaccessible. Older adults walk an average of 2.3 km to access public transport, despite limited mobility and having unique transport needs, such as frequent trips to health centres, which contributes to 45% having missed at least one medical appointment due to transportation barriers.⁸² Further, informal settlements have particularly limited transport connectivity; only 28% have direct public transport connections to city centres.⁸¹ This can create time poverty, with low-income commuters spending an average of 4.5 hours daily on transport, time unavailable for income generation, education, or family care.⁸¹

5.4 Rurality and regulated mobility

Geography strongly shapes access to transport, particularly for rural, arid and semi-arid lands (ASAL), and displaced populations. Rural counties have low road density and limited all-weather connectivity, with scarce public transport options, restricting access to essential services.⁸³ For instance, fewer than 20% of the population in Turkana, Marsabit, Samburu, Mandera, Wajir, Tana River, and Lamu live within 2 km of a motorable road.⁸⁴ Many of the existing roads in these regions are from the colonial era and now impassable; such infrastructure deficit perpetuates historical patterns of political and economic exclusion.⁸⁵ In addition, systems that assume sedentary populations do not align with seasonal mobility needs of Indigenous and pastoralist communities.⁸⁶

Refugees and internally displaced people, who often live in geographically isolated camps, face additional structural restrictions, combined with the burden of inaffordability.⁸⁷ Refugees' movement is regulated through permitting and encampment policies: 86% of refugees in Kenyan camps require permits from the government to travel outside designated areas, so-called 'mobility containment'.⁸⁸ Infrastructural constraints amplify these restrictions, as only 35% of refugee settlements in Kenya have all-weather road access.⁸⁹

6. GESI policies and barriers

Kenya has developed a progressive policy and legal agenda, with increasingly explicit reference to the needs of marginalised and vulnerable groups. However, a persistent gap remains between policy and implementation, especially in rural communities. Resource deficits (e.g., chronic under-budgeting and limited capacity) mean that GESI measures are frequently scaled back, and coordination weakness across levels of government creates fragmented delivery. Combined with poor accountability mechanisms, such as minimal monitoring and limited accountability for noncompliance, inclusive policy often remains aspirational. Even where good-faith GESI efforts exist, persistent data gaps reduce visibility of exclusion and constrain targeted responses.

Kenya's transport, energy, and climate sectors formally recognise public participation as core to policymaking, grounded in the Constitution and operationalised through mechanisms such as forums, written submissions, petitions, and (increasingly) online consultations. In practice, however, these processes often fall short of meaningful participation for marginalised and vulnerable groups: engagement is frequently urban-centred, technical, costly to access, and is sometimes undertaken late in the policy cycle in ways that limit influence over key decisions. As a result, participatory processes can become procedural box-ticking exercises, particularly for low-income communities, rural populations, PwDs, and groups facing language barriers.

**Table 2** summarises the key GESI-relevant policies and highlights where the most consistent gaps occur. This table is not exhaustive; the full report includes additional policies and details.

Key Policies	GESI Elements Present	GESI Gaps or Weaknesses
GESI		
Constitution of Kenya (2010)	Establishes equality and non-discrimination; two-thirds gender rule in elective bodies; guarantees PwDs the right to access places, public transport, and information	Implementation remains uneven, including non-application of the two-thirds gender rule in Parliament; persistent patriarchal norms (especially in rural areas)
National Gender and Equality Commission (NGEC) Act (2011)	Establishes NGEC to monitor and advise on equality principles, conduct audits of vulnerable groups, investigate violations, and maintain equality/discrimination databases	NGEC is under-resourced with limited enforcement powers; minimal county staffing; political interference risks; low public awareness; weak sanctions for non-compliance
Refugee Response Framework (2017)	Promotes self-reliance, community resilience, and integration	Underfinanced; security concerns; coordination challenges
National Policy on Older Persons and Ageing (2018)	Provides a social protection framework for older adults, including healthcare access provisions, economic empowerment initiatives, and protection from abuse/neglect	Limited financing; weak inter-agency coordination; low awareness (especially rural); underdeveloped existing geriatric services; ageist attitudes
National Gender and Development Policy (2019)	Provides a cross-sector framework for gender mainstreaming, including gender-responsive budgeting, disaggregated data systems, and mechanisms to address GBV	Weak financing; incomplete adoption of gender-responsive budgeting; poor national-county coordination and county-level capacity; limited accountability and influence
Refugees Act (2021)	Establishes rights to work and education, freedom of movement provisions, and protection from refoulement	Slow status determination; encampment practices and restrictions persist; resourcing and coordination constraints
Persons with Disabilities Act (2025)	Establishes accessibility requirements in buildings and transport, 5% public sector employment quota, tax incentives, and the National Council for Persons with Disabilities	Accessibility standards and quotas are weakly enforced; penalties are minimal; Council is under-resourced; ongoing stigma, particularly in rural areas
Climate		
Climate Change Act (2016)	Requires gender mainstreaming and representation in climate governance; recognises 'special needs' of vulnerable groups	Monitoring is limited; implementation skews urban/peri-urban; disability/youth inclusion is weak or absent
National Policy on Climate Finance (2016)	Establishes equity principles, gender-responsive climate finance, community finance, and equitable benefit-sharing for marginalised groups	Funds and access remain inequitable due to complex procedures; limited gender-budgeting capacity; persistent urban/elite bias
National Climate Change Action Plan (2018–2022)	Operationalises community-based adaptation, vulnerability assessments, and monitoring; recognises women, Indigenous communities, and rural populations as vulnerable	Underfunded local adaptation; limited county capacity; weak application of Indigenous knowledge; uneven sector uptake
Energy and transport		
Kenya Roads Act (2007)	Establishes road authorities and mandates, largely framed as a technical infrastructure instrument.	Contains minimal/no GESI provisions; youth employment and age-specific safety integration are weak in practice
Last Mile Connectivity Policy Framework (2017)	Promotes expanded electricity connections and affordability measures (e.g., subsidised fees and staggered payments) to accelerate universal energy access	Social targeting is limited (especially for PwDs); meter/payment design and co-financing requirements create usability and exclusion risks
Energy Act (2019)	References equitable access and includes women-focused provisions and gender-balance requirements in select bodies	Weak on intersectionality; budgets are minimal; women's representation lags; Indigenous land benefit-sharing issues
Gender Policy in Energy (2019)	Sets targets and mechanisms for gender mainstreaming in energy (e.g., 30% women's participation, gender analysis in projects, and priority attention to female-headed households)	Impact is limited by weak gender mainstreaming in counties, lack of dedicated budget, low implementer awareness, and lack of sex-disaggregated energy data
National Road Safety Action Plan (2021–2030)	Recognises vulnerable road users; prioritises pedestrian and school safety; references gender-sensitive approaches	Weak disability consultation; insufficient attention to women's public-transport safety and last-mile realities
Integrated National Transport Policy (INTP) (2022)	Frames 'socially inclusive' transport; includes accessibility language; recognises importance of non-motorised transport	Women's participation and gender-disaggregated data/indicators are limited; youth needs are not explicitly addressed; implementation remains infrastructure-biased
National Energy Policy (2025–2034)	Commits to developing a GESI Strategy and Action Plan; explicitly references women, rural/low-income households, PwDs, youth, Indigenous communities, and older adults	GESI commitments not matched with clear implementation mechanisms, resourcing, measurable targets, or robust disaggregated-data systems; disability inclusion is limited

Table 2. Key GESI-related policies in Kenya and gaps affecting implementation



7. Key stakeholders

Effective GESI integration in Kenya's energy and transport sectors requires the collaboration of diverse stakeholders, including government agencies, development partners, civil society organisations, private sector actors, and research institutions. **Table 3** highlights key stakeholders, grouped by category, and outlines their role in promoting inclusive infrastructure development.

Stakeholder Category	Key Stakeholders	Roles in GESI Integration
Government Agencies and Regulatory Bodies	Ministry of Energy (MoE); Ministry of Energy and Petroleum (MoEP); Energy and Petroleum Regulatory Authority (EPRA) Ministry of Transport, Infrastructure, Housing, Urban Development and Public Works; National Transport and Safety Authority (NTSA) National Gender and Equality Commission (NGEC); State Department for Gender; National Council for Persons with Disabilities; State Department for Social Protection and Senior Citizen Affairs, Kenya National Commission on Human Rights	Develop and implement policies on energy access and clean energy transitions; regulate pricing and safety Develop transport policies, including electric mobility and non-motorised transport; regulate road safety and transport accessibility Ensure policies align with GESI principles; facilitate disability mainstreaming in public and private sectors; coordinate community empowerment and promote the rights and welfare of marginalised and vulnerable people
Development Partners and Multilateral Organisations	World Bank; International Finance Corporation (IFC); African Development Bank (AfDB) United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); UN Environment Programme (UNEP); UN Women Deutsche Gesellschaft Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ)	Support and fund clean energy transitions; invest in private-sector projects Advocate for gender mainstreaming in climate action; support sustainable and inclusive development Facilitate clean energy adoption and e-mobility solutions
Civil Society Organisations and Advocacy Groups	Clean Cooking Alliance Kenya (CCAK) Kenya Climate Innovation Center; Flone Initiative; Institute for Transportation and Development Policy (ITDP); Sustainable Energy for All (SEforALL); Practical Action, SNV Slum Dwellers International (SDI-Kenya) Kenya Network for Women with Disabilities (KNWD) GALCK+; National Gay & Lesbian Human Rights Commission Help Age International Centre for Minority Rights Development; Kenya Human Rights Commission	Promote clean cooking adoption Support women-led renewable energy enterprises; advocate for inclusive transport for women and PWDs; accelerate clean energy access; support inclusive policies Work on energy/transport access in informal settlements Advocate for accessible transport and energy policies Amplify queer voices; advocate for policy change Support older adults through income security, health outreach, and advocacy for policies and programmes Support ethnic minorities and Indigenous communities to secure rights; enhance human rights-centred governance
Private Sector and Energy Enterprises	BasiGo; Opibus; Roam Electric Mobility for Africa M-KOPA Solar KenGen; Lake Turkana Wind Power; PowerGen Renewable Energy Burn Manufacturing	Develop electric buses and vehicles, including e-motorcycles for informal transport operators Support gender-inclusive e-mobility Expand pay-as-you-go solar for low-income households Invest in large-scale renewable energy; develop wind energy projects; provide mini-grid solutions in rural areas Produce clean cookstoves
Research and Academic Institutions	University of Nairobi (Institute of Anthropology and Gender Studies); Kenyatta University (Women's Economic Empowerment Hub); Partnership for African Social and Governance Research (PASGR); Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis (KIPPRA); African Population and Health Research Centre (APHRC)	Conduct research on gender, social issues, and economic participation; provide policy-relevant research; analyse energy and transport policies; study and disseminate findings on marginalisation in development projects

Table 3. Key stakeholders advancing GESI in Kenya



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