Climate Compatible Growth

CCG In Ghana

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

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GESI GHANA REPORT, 2026

CONTENTS

Glossary

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 (eg 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.

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1. Executive summary

The Climate Compatible Growth (CCG) programme works with partners in Ghana to support inclusive, low-carbon energy and transport development through applied research, modelling, and capacity building. Ghana has made significant gains in electrification, but energy poverty remains concentrated in rural areas and the northern regions. Clean cooking access, affordability, reliability, and decision-making power continue to shape who benefits from modern energy services. Transport exclusion follows a similar pattern: rural communities face limited services and long travel burdens, while urban residents rely heavily on informal transport systems that are often unsafe, inaccessible, or unaffordable. The energy transition can reduce these inequalities, but only if Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) considerations are built into infrastructure systems.

This document presents a condensed and revised version of a longer in-country contextual report. It synthesises key findings related to the integration of GESI within Ghana's energy and transport sectors, drawing on demographic analysis and policy review. The condensed version is intended as an accessible overview of the current landscape, highlighting cross-cutting barriers, emerging opportunities, and persistent implementation gaps that shape equitable access and participation.

Key Takeaways

- National electrification has reached about 89%, but energy poverty is high in rural areas and northern regions.
- Women, particularly in rural and poor households, face a disproportionate energy burden (eg health risks from biomass cooking, time poverty from wood fuel collection), yet have limited influence over energy planning at the macro and micro scale.
- Energy poverty has a significant intersection with functional disability, with stronger effects among rural residents, older adults, and female-headed households.
- Although solar energy initiatives offer benefits, they have also led to gendered injustices, including resource dispossession that particularly affects women.
- Ghana's transport systems rely heavily on informal services. Rural communities often depend on walking and informal motorised options, and poor households face transport costs that restrict access to schools, services, healthcare, and work.
- Women and girls face distinct mobility constraints, due to harassment, assault, unsafe routes, and cultural restrictions.
- Formal and informal transport infrastructure lacks accessibility features, creating barriers for persons with disabilities to access education, healthcare, employment, and public life.
- While Ghana's policy architecture creates entry points for inclusion, implementation is weakened by limited budgets, coordination, accountability, and participation of GESI groups.

Sensitivity Note

GESI engagement in Ghana requires careful attention to political, social, and safeguarding risks. LGBTQIA+ inclusion is highly sensitive because same-sex relationships are criminalised, and visibility can increase exposure to discrimination or violence. Gender-based violence, disability-related stigma, ethnic and regional identity, refugee and migrant status, poverty, and land or livelihood impacts linked to infrastructure projects may also require careful handling.

Engagement should be locally anchored, demand-led, and guided by do-no-harm principles. In practice, this means working through trusted intermediaries where appropriate, using informed consent, protecting confidentiality and anonymising sensitive data, providing accessible formats and safe participation spaces, and ensuring referral pathways for participants who disclose violence, discrimination, or protection needs. Sensitive topics should only be raised where safeguards are in place and where participation will not increase risk for affected individuals or communities.

2. Introduction and background

Ghana's 2021 revised Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC) reaffirms its commitment to the Paris Agreement and sets out mitigation and adaptation priorities across multiple sectors [1]. The National Energy Transition (NET) Framework further shifts towards renewable energy, although fossil fuels are expected to continue providing most jobs in the near term [2]. The NDC and NET align with Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 1, 2, 6, 7, and 13, including commitments to community adaptation that strengthen the resilience of women and vulnerable groups [3]. Yet Ghana's low-carbon transition is unfolding amid rapid urbanisation and persistent rural poverty [4].

National electrification has reached about 89%, but access remains uneven: urban coverage is almost universal at 97–100%, while rural access is approximately 74–78% [1]. Such gaps matter because rural livelihoods remain closely tied to sectors such as forestry, agriculture, and fishing, where energy access can shape productivity, income, and safety [1].

Transport systems in Ghana continue to face challenges around safety, accessibility, affordability, and service coverage, particularly for people whose mobility is already constrained by poverty, disability, age, gender, location, or social stigma [5]. Growing cities such as Accra and Kumasi create opportunities for improved mobility, but also risk deepening exclusion if transport planning does not reflect how different groups move, travel, work, and care [6].

This study applies a GESI lens to Ghana's energy and transport sectors, focusing on how low-carbon transitions affect marginalised and vulnerable populations. It considers national policies and trends, with attention to regional variation, particularly the Northern regions (Upper East, Upper West, Northern, North-East, and Savanna) where poverty and exclusion are most acute [7]. The analysis covers children and youth; Indigenous and ethnic minorities; LGBTQIA+ individuals; migrants and refugees; older adults; people with disabilities; people living in poverty; rural communities; and women and girls.

2.1. Objectives

The objectives of this study are to:

1. Analyse the context of marginalised and vulnerable groups in Ghana, including demographic characteristics, unique energy and decarbonised transport needs, and barriers to access.
2. Review national policies and legislation related to energy, transport, 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 study is based on a desk review of academic literature, policy documents, and grey literature. The review covered Ghana's key policy frameworks, including the Persons with Disability Act (2006), National Gender Policy (2015), and sector-specific policies, alongside reports from government institutions, international organisations, civil society organisations, and development partners. As this landscape is evolving rapidly, some evidence may not fully reflect current implementation. Evidence was synthesised thematically, with attention to intersectionality and compounding barriers across different vulnerable groups.

The analysis does not include primary research with vulnerable communities in Ghana. Direct voices and lived experiences of GESI groups are therefore mediated through existing studies. Data quality and disaggregation vary; for instance, disability estimates range from 3% to 15% of the population, depending on the measurement approach. Evidence is especially limited for LGBTQIA+ individuals, migrants and refugees, and Indigenous and ethnic minorities.

3. GESI context in Ghana

Ghana's population is young, increasingly urban, and marked by sharp differences in access to infrastructure. The 2021 Census recorded a total population of 30,832,019 and indicated a shift from a child-dominated population towards one increasingly shaped by youth, ages 15–35 [8]. This demographic transition creates a major opportunity for Ghana, but only if investment in education, jobs, infrastructure, and public services reaches those most likely to be excluded.

Table 1 summarises available population data. The groups presented below are not exhaustive, but reflect populations most consistently identified as facing intersecting forms of exclusion.

Groups	Population / key statistics	Critical issues
Children and youth	• Children aged 0–14 declined from 41.3% of the population in 2000 to 35.3% in 2021; youth aged 15–35 increased from 34.6% to about 38.2% over the same period [8]. • Working-age population (15–64) is 60.4% of the population [8].	• Youth face severe labour market constraints and unemployment [9, 10]. • Children with disabilities represent 15.4% of the population of PwDs and face barriers to education and healthcare [11, 12].
Indigenous and ethnic minorities	• Akan ethnic group is ~45–47% of the population [8]. • Mole-Dagbani and Ewe ethnic groups are more regionally concentrated [8].	• Ethnicity intersects with geography (Northern and Savanna regions) and socioeconomic status [13]. • Ethnicity and religion influence educational opportunities and social mobility [14].
LGBTQIA+ individuals	• No national estimates are available. • 2021 Census and other national surveys do not collect data on sexual orientation or gender identity (due to criminalisation).	• Same-sex relationships criminalised; Parliament passed bill (31/5/26) banning all LGBTQ+ activity. • Individuals face stigma, discrimination, and safety risks; LGBTQIA+ claimed as incompatible with Ghanian culture. • Lack of data limits visibility in planning; direct engagement requires careful safeguarding.
Older adults	• The population aged 60+ increased from ~5% in 1960 to ~7% in 2000 and is projected to reach ~14% by 2050 [8]. • Among adults aged 60+, 38.4% have at least one disability [15].	• Older adults face disability risk, chronic disease, income insecurity, and limited access to quality healthcare [10]. • Age-related disability is more common among women and rural residents [15].
Migrants and refugees	• 2021 Census identified 294,341 migrants (1.0% of the population); 92.0% came from Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) countries [8]. • September 2025: 18,236 refugees, 553 asylum seekers, and 12,055 refugees awaiting registration [16].	• Migration is linked to urbanisation: urban population increased from 50.9% in 2010 to 56.7% in 2021, putting pressure on infrastructure and services [8]. • Young women migrate from Northern regions to urban areas as *kayayei* (informal workers who carry goods on their heads in markets and other hubs).
People with disabilities (PwDs)	• ~8% of the population, according to 2021 Census [8]; likely under-reported due to stigma [17]. • Disability prevalence is higher among females (8.8%) than males (6.7%) and higher in rural areas (9.5%) than urban (6.5%) [17].	• Functional domains include mobility, sight, hearing, speech, self-care, and intellectual/cognitive [18]. • PwDs experience stigma and social exclusion [11]. • Households with PwDs incur higher healthcare costs, often paying out-of-pocket [19]. • Women with disabilities face discrimination related to both gender and disability (ie they have higher illiteracy rates than men with disabilities) [20].
People living in poverty	• 24.8% of the population (~8.38 million people) is multidimensionally poor [21]. • 10.6% live in severe multidimensional poverty, while 20.0% are vulnerable to falling into poverty [21].	• Poverty is strongly rural and regional. Northern and Savanna regions experience higher intensities of multidimensional and energy poverty [7]. • Older adults and female-headed households in these zones face particularly high poverty [21].
Rural communities	• Rural residents account for 43.3% of the population; down from ~56% in 2000 [8]. • Average household size remains larger in rural areas than urban areas (4.0 people vs. 3.3 people) [8].	• Rural communities face weaker access to water, sanitation, electricity, healthcare, and transport [7]. • Rural disability prevalence is higher than national average; rural residents less likely to be covered by National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) [15].
Women and girls	• 50.6% of Ghana's population [8]. • Comprise 54% of the labour force, but 92% of working women are employed in the informal sector [9]. • Hold 11.3% of top management positions and 13.9% of parliamentary seats [22].	• Traditional gender norms define men as household heads and decision-makers; women responsible for caregiving and domestic tasks, limiting access to land, education, and economic resources, particularly in rural and northern regions [23, 24]. • Among women aged 15–49, 53.6% report at least one serious barrier to healthcare access [13].

Table 1. Key demographic GESI groups and related challenges in Ghana
**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

Ghana's energy sector is changing as the country pursues the NET Framework, which is expected to expand renewable energy, particularly nuclear. However, fossil fuels continue to provide most energy-sector jobs [2]. This creates both an access challenge and a justice challenge: energy systems need to expand and decarbonise without reinforcing the regional, gendered, and income-based inequalities currently visible across Ghana's energy landscape.

4.1 Energy poverty, affordability, and regional inequality

Energy poverty in Ghana reflects both lack of access to modern energy services and inability to afford enough energy for basic needs [25]. For instance, even where services exist, households living in poverty are more likely to rely on cheaper but harmful biomass fuels, such as wood and charcoal [26]. Grid connection alone does not guarantee equitable energy access if electricity is unaffordable, unreliable, or poorly matched to household and livelihood needs.

National energy poverty is estimated at around 38–41%, with the burden concentrated in rural areas [27]. Rural households are ~5.7 times more likely to be energy poor than urban households, in part because they have lower and less stable incomes, higher relative energy costs, and supply constraints for modern fuels such as LPG [28–30]. There is also a pronounced north–south divide, with lower energy access in the Northern Region, mirroring longstanding income disparities relative to southern Ghana [31]. As such, government social interventions to reduce household poverty, such as the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme, have downstream impacts on energy access [27].

Reliability also shapes meaningful access. Poor urban neighbourhoods and rural communities face unreliable electricity, while affluent areas can have a more constant supply [25]. Rolling blackouts deepen existing inequality by disrupting daily tasks, livelihoods, education, and health services.

4.2 Gendered energy use, health, and decision-making

Women, particularly in rural areas and living in poverty, are disproportionately affected by energy poverty [30]. Gendered roles mean women often carry the health, time, and labour burdens of inadequate energy access, including exposure to indoor air pollution from biomass cooking and the drudgery of collecting wood fuel [32]. These burdens reduce time for education, income-generating activities, and participation in community decision-making.

Women with limited household power face barriers to adopting LPG, despite its benefits, keeping many reliant on solid fuels [33]. Female-headed households show more complex patterns: some evidence suggests they may be less likely to be energy poor, potentially reflecting greater autonomy in decisions, while other studies highlight economic constraints and lower adoption of advanced commercial energy [34, 35].

Energy policy and planning often fail to reflect women's productive energy needs. In rural non-farm economies, reliable and affordable energy can support women's livelihoods; for example, women's groups have used LPG for fish preservation, improving product quality, helping meet export standards, and increasing income [30]. However, limited female participation in energy policy formulation and implementation remains a barrier to gender-responsive energy systems [36].

4.3 Disability, ageing, and inclusive energy services

Energy poverty has direct implications for disability, health, and ageing. Research in Ghana shows a significant positive relationship between energy poverty and functional disability, with notable intersections across geography, gender, and age [37, 38]. Multidimensional energy poverty is higher

among PwD rural residents, older adults, and female-headed households – groups that already face heightened vulnerability to disability and poor health outcomes [27]. The District Common Fund is a financial intervention to empower PwDs, in part by combating energy poverty, though it is fraught with challenges such as meagre pay-outs and irregular disbursement [10].

Persons with disabilities may also have specific energy needs and tend to use more energy. Reliable electricity is essential for charging or operating assistive technologies, such as hearing aids and wheelchairs, as well as health equipment, such as oxygen concentrators or nebulisers. Adequate lighting, safe cooking equipment, temperature regulation, and physically accessible appliances are also critical for people with visual impairments, mobility limitations, or health conditions [39].

4.4 Renewable energy transitions, livelihoods, and participation

Ghana's energy transition presents opportunities for inclusion, particularly through decentralised solutions such as solar PV systems, household biogas, and rural micro-grids. These can improve health, education, and income-generating opportunities; for example, solar micro-grids in rural Ghanaian islands have shown benefits for gender equity and social transformation [40].

However, renewable energy projects can also create new forms of exclusion and trigger conflict if land, livelihoods, and local participation are not handled carefully [41]. The Kaleo Lawra solar plant in northern Ghana illustrates the risks: land acquisition and limited local employment opportunities disproportionately affected surrounding communities, particularly women who relied on the land for farming and livelihoods, contributing to gendered energy and resource dispossession [42].

Workforce participation is another important part of the transition. Women's participation in Ghana's energy workforce and value chain remains limited, though growing renewable capacity may create new opportunities [2]. Initiatives such as the Lady Volta Green Tech Academy, which trains young women in renewable energy technologies, solar installation, maintenance, and entrepreneurship, show how skills development can support women's participation in renewable energy [43].

5. GESI and transport

Ghana's transport system is marked by heavy reliance on informal services, limited public transport, and persistent barriers around safety, affordability, coverage, and accessibility. In cities, such as Accra and Kumasi, everyday mobility depends heavily on tro-tros (informal minibuses), shared taxis, and moto-taxis, while formal bus services remain limited. Rural transport is shaped by weak road infrastructure, limited motorised services, and high dependence on walking, bicycles, motorcycles, informal transport, and head-loading. Across both urban and rural contexts, the evidence base on GESI in Ghana's transport sector remains thin.

5.1 Service coverage, affordability, and rural mobility

Transport exclusion in Ghana is strongly shaped by where people live. Urban areas have more transport options, including informal public transport, taxis, and private vehicles, but congestion, weak service coverage, and poor accessibility remain major constraints [44]. In Accra and Kumasi, non-car users, who are more likely to be people living in poverty and women, cannot reach key destinations within a 30-minute walk in newly urbanised areas [45, 46].

Affordability reinforces these gaps and rural areas face sharper constraints, often facing higher transport costs relative to income, longer travel times, and fewer service choices [47]. Many communities have poor road infrastructure, limited or declining transport services, and few alternatives to walking long distances [7, 48]. Rural areas can function as 'walking worlds', where access to schools, health facilities, markets, and services depends on time, physical effort, and household labour.

5.2 Gendered mobility, safety, and time burdens

Transport burdens in Ghana are deeply gendered. Women spend significantly more time and effort on transport than men, with studies showing that rural men spend only 35% of the time rural women spend on transport [49]. Women's needs are often tied to both productive and reproductive responsibilities: reaching markets, carrying goods, accompanying children, and managing household tasks [50]. They may face additional charges or refusal of service when travelling with heavy loads or children [46].

Safety and harassment further constrain mobility. Women experience harassment and assault on public transport, and crowded vehicles can feel threatening [51]. These risks affect whether women and girls travel, when they travel, and which opportunities they can realistically access. Mobility constraints are particularly acute at night and for those travelling from residential areas [52].

Girls' mobility is also shaped by household labour and social norms. Housework before school can delay travel and lead to late arrival, while cultural inhibitions and limited access to bicycles reduce girls' independent mobility and travel experience [53]. Head-loading, common among women and girls, is physically demanding and can affect health, education, and income opportunities [51].

5.3 Disability and physical accessibility

PwDs face some of the most severe transport barriers, experiencing discrimination, unequal mobility, and reduced access to schools, hospitals, work, and other essential services [54, 55]. Public transport stations and vehicles often lack basic accessibility features, including ramps, tactile paving, accessible toilets, and support systems – failing to meet the conditions of Ghana's Disability Act [56, 57]. The built environment in cities such as Kumasi and Accra further creates structural obstacles for people with mobility impairments, through poor road conditions and missing sidewalks [6, 55].

These barriers are reinforced by limited awareness and stigma. A survey of 24 public transport operators in Accra found that none knew the transport provisions of Ghana's Disability Act [56]. Support for PwDs is often shaped by 'common sense' rather than legal requirements, and operators have resisted calls for accessible vehicles, in part due to the negative public attitude towards this population [58].

Women with disabilities face compounded exclusion. Gendered safety risks, disability discrimination, inaccessible vehicles, and limited household resources can restrict travel options and increase dependence on others [59].

5.4 Informal transport and low-carbon transition risks

Informal transport is central to mobility in Ghana, but it also creates a difficult policy challenge. Tro-tros, shared taxis, moto-taxis, and three-wheelers help fill gaps left by limited formal public transport, especially in underserved urban, peri-urban, and rural areas. However, these services are often unregulated, with variable quality, safety concerns, unreliable service, and limited accessibility for PwDs.

Low-carbon transport planning will need to work with this reality rather than assume a rapid shift to formal, regulated, or private-vehicle-based systems. Restrictions on three-wheelers and moto-taxis, for example, could worsen accessibility gaps if affordable and reliable alternatives are not available, particularly for women, poor households, rural communities, and people travelling with goods or children [5, 46].

Improved roads and transport access can generate social and economic benefits, but the impacts are not automatically inclusive. Road penetration can change market structures in ways that reduce women's economic independence, and rural road investments need to account for how transport needs differ between men and women [60].

6. GESI policies and barriers

Ghana has a substantial policy and legal architecture for GESI, with women and youth as the most consistently recognised groups. However, a central challenge is superficial mainstreaming, wherein GESI language appears in policy documents, but without the tools needed to make it operational [30]. Resource allocation is one of the clearest tests of commitment – programmes generally lack dedicated GESI budget lines, and implementation may depend on donor funding. Institutional fragmentation further weakens implementation: mandates are often unclear and accountability mechanisms weak, while coordination is rare and technical capacity for GESI mainstreaming limited, particularly at sub-national levels [61]. As a result, national commitments are not consistently enforced or translated into district plans. Data and monitoring gaps reinforce this failure. Monitoring systems rarely disaggregate outcomes by relevant characteristics, which makes it difficult to know whether policies are reaching marginalised groups, whether benefits are equitably distributed, or whether harms are being identified and addressed [62].

Further, policy processes in Ghana remain top-down. National frameworks may include consultation language, but marginalised communities are not always meaningfully involved [63]. For instance, women may be technically present in consultation processes, but unable able to truly participate as care responsibilities, travel costs, safety concerns, technical language, and social norms can limit attendance and voice [30]. Representation can also be narrow: urban, educated, or elite women may be consulted, while women with disabilities, informal workers, and rural, poor, and older women remain excluded. Similarly, PwDs face inaccessible venues, lack of sign language interpretation or accessible materials, and discriminatory assumptions about their ability to contribute.

Table 2 summarises the main policy strengths and gaps across Ghana's GESI, climate and development, energy, and transport frameworks. This table is not exhaustive; the full report includes additional policies and details.

Key Policies	GESI Elements Present	GESI Gaps or Weaknesses
GESI		
Persons with Disability Act (2006)	Framework on non-discrimination, dignity, accessibility, transport (vehicles, pedestrian facilities, reserved seating), tax exemptions, institutional responsibilities, and sanctions.	Weak enforcement; no strong intersectional approach linking disability with poverty, gender, age, or location; limited budgeting, timelines, implementation, or guidance.
National Gender Policy (2015)	Gender equality mandate; recognises structural inequality, rural poverty, women's empowerment, gender mainstreaming, and gender officers across Ministries, Departments, and Agencies (MDAs) and Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies (MMDAs).	Weak sector-specific guidance for energy and transport; limited intersectional analysis of rural women, PwDs, and migrants; weak enforcement, accountability, or resourcing.
National Social Protection Policy (2015)	Targets women, children, PwDs, and the extreme poor through schemes such as LEAP, School Feeding, and NHIS exemptions.	Broad vulnerability masks intersecting needs; limited participation of marginalised groups in governance; weak tracking of benefits; access remains under-addressed.
Affirmative Action (Gender Equity) Act (2024)	Establishes gender equality objectives across political, social, economic, educational, and cultural spheres; introduces 30–50% representation targets by 2030; mandates gender-responsive budgeting and mainstreaming.	Focuses largely on female/male representation; limited attention to broader social inclusion, intersectionality, institutional capacity, GESI training, or enforceable financing thresholds.
Climate		
National Climate Change Policy (2013)	Recognises disproportionate climate risk among women and vulnerable groups; promotes gender analysis, participation, technology, finance, and gender-sensitive M&E.	GESI commitments lack clear implementation guidance, measurable targets, institutional responsibilities, dedicated budgets, or accountability; limited disaggregated data.
Updated Nationally Determined Contribution (2021)	Commits to socially inclusive climate action, with emphasis on women and youth; includes 47 adaptation and mitigation measures; gender-responsive actions aligned with SDG 5.	Limited attention to PwDs, older adults, migrants/refugees, and rural communities; benefits not disaggregated; lacks clear GESI baselines, indicators, and monitoring.
Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies (2021–2025)	Embeds gender equality and women's empowerment in national development planning; supports access to productive resources, job reservation measures, youth skills, disability, ageing, child welfare, and social protections.	Strong focus on women and youth, but inconsistent integration of other groups; lacks sector-specific inclusion frameworks, defined timelines, measurable targets, and disaggregated indicators.

Energy		
National Energy Policy (2010; Updated 2021)	Promotes inclusion of women and PwDs in decision-making; refers to socio-cultural barriers, economic participation, gender-disaggregated M&E, mainstreaming.	Inclusion is recognised but weakly operationalised; lacks enforceable targets, economic empowerment measures, institutional capacity, and robust monitoring systems.
Renewable Energy Act (2011; 2020)	Supports renewable energy development and provides an important legal basis for Ghana's clean energy transition.	No provisions on social inclusion.
National Action Plan on Policy for Gender Mainstreaming in Energy Access (2020)	Energy-specific gender framework; prioritises women's participation, leadership, economic empowerment, gender focal persons, capacity building, awareness, and gender-disaggregated M&E.	Limited inclusion of other vulnerable groups; weak enforcement, sector coordination, financing, institutional capacity, and accountability.
National Energy Transition Framework (2022–2070)	References impacts for women and children, including reduced biomass-gathering burdens; includes selected social impact indicators and rural LPG access targets.	No explicit objectives; lacks participation mechanisms; no dedicated institutional capacity.
Energy Transition & Investment Plan (2023)	References inclusive and equitable transition outcomes, employment, livelihoods, energy access, and stakeholder engagement.	Lacks explicit objectives, structured participation, targeted financing, M&E, dedicated capacity, and budget allocations.
Transport		
National Transport Policy (2008; Amended 2020)	Recognises women, children, older adults, PwDs, and rural communities; emphasises affordability, accessibility, safety, rural–urban connectivity, consultation, and safeguards.	Lacks measurable GESI targets, timelines, disaggregated data, dedicated budgets, and institutional mandates.
National Non-Motorised Transport Strategy (2019–2028)	Strongest GESI framing in transport; includes gender-sensitive design, women as beneficiaries, PwDs, low-income groups, and accessibility considerations.	No quantifiable targets, clear implementation mechanisms, budget allocation, explicit attention to harassment, or evidence of consultation with women's groups.
National Electric Mobility Policy Framework and Market Readiness Framework for Ghana (2022)	Mentions inclusive e-mobility; references SDG 5; includes a gender expert in development and survey questions on women, poor people, older adults, and PwDs.	No explicit GESI objectives or targets; limited attention to affordability, women's employment, charging infrastructure location, consultation with women's groups, or budgeting.
National Road Safety Strategy IV, (2021–2030)	Partially recognises vulnerable road users, including pedestrians, cyclists, and motorcyclists; includes equity concerns and regional/district crash data.	No explicit GESI equality objectives; no gender-responsive interventions, women's consultation, or accountability mechanisms.
Ministry of Transport Programme-Based Budget (2025)	Allocates funding to road safety, public transport accessibility targets, vehicle registration/testing, and maritime, rail, and aviation development.	No explicit GESI objectives or targets.

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

7. Key stakeholders

GESI integration in Ghana's energy and transport sectors depends on a wide range of actors. Central government and development partners shape policy, budgets, and investment priorities; local authorities and service providers influence implementation; civil society and community-based organisations bring lived experience, trust, and accountability. The main challenge is coordination. Energy, transport, and GESI institutions often work through separate mandates and planning processes, while local authorities are expected to implement national commitments with uneven resources and technical capacity. Civil society organisations and community groups often have the closest relationships with marginalised populations, but limited access to formal decision-making. Private sector actors, including energy companies and transport operators, shape everyday access through service delivery, pricing, and employment, but their commitment to GESI varies widely.

Table 3 maps the key stakeholder groups relevant to GESI in Ghana's energy and transport sectors. The list is indicative rather than exhaustive.

Stakeholder Category	Key Stakeholders	Roles in GESI Integration	Level of Power/Influence	Interest in GESI
Central government agencies	Ministry of Energy; Energy Commission; Electricity Company of Ghana (ECG); Ghana Grid Company (GRIDCo) Ministry of Roads and Highways; Ministry of Transport; Driver and Vehicle Licensing Authority (DVLA)	Policy formulation and implementation for energy and transport; infrastructure planning and investment; regulation and enforcement; service delivery	High	Variable; some commitment to GESI in policies but weak implementation
GESI institutions and government agencies	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection; National Council on Persons with Disability; Department of Social Welfare; Ghana Statistical Service; District Assemblies Common Fund	GESI policy coordination; disability rights advocacy and coordination; social protection implementation; data collection on vulnerable groups	Moderate (depends on political prioritisation)	High (but limited resources and capacity)
Local government authorities	Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies (MMDAs); management committees	Local implementation of GESI policies; local energy and transport planning; community engagement	Moderate	Variable (district-dependent)
Development partners and multilateral organisations	World Bank; African Development Bank; UN agencies; DFID/FCDO; GIZ; USAID; Bilateral donors; Mastercard Foundation	Funding for energy and transport infrastructure; technical assistance; policy dialogue; support for GESI mainstreaming	High (donor priorities shape governance)	High
Civil society organisations and advocacy groups	Ghana Federation of Disability Organisations (GFD); disability rights organisations; women's rights organisations; environmental NGOs; transport advocacy groups	Advocacy for rights of marginalised groups; community mobilisation; monitoring and accountability; capacity building	Moderate	High
Community working groups	Women's groups; youth groups; disability groups; community development committees	Community-level advocacy and mobilisation; implementation of community-based projects; feedback on services	Low formal power; high legitimacy and community trust	High
Private sector	Energy utilities; renewable energy companies; transport operators (tro-tro unions, taxi associations) Microfinance institutions; technology companies	Service delivery; employment Investment in infrastructure; innovation in energy and transport solutions	High	Variable: some committed to GESI; others resistant
Research and academic institutions	Universities (eg University of Ghana, KNUST); research institutes; think tanks	Research on GESI, energy, transport, and policy; dissemination of findings on GESI in development projects	Limited to moderate	High
Media and communications	Radio stations; television; print media; digital media	Information dissemination; public awareness; advocacy; accountability (eg investigative journalism)	Moderate (shapes public discourse)	Variable: some champion GESI; others perpetuate stereotypes

Table 3. Key stakeholders advancing GESI in Ghana

8. References

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