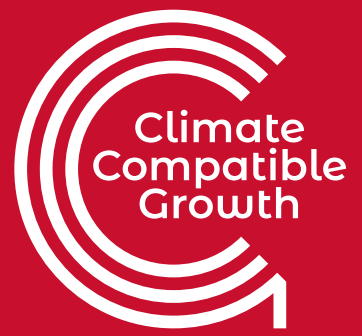




CCG in India

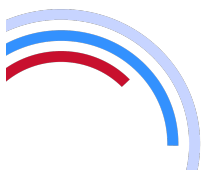
Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) In Energy and Transport Sectors

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GESI INDIA REPORT, 2026

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Glossary

Caste system: Every individual is assigned a place in a complex and graded hierarchy at birth, which shapes their access to educational opportunities, economic resources, and social and cultural capital.

Divyang: 'Divine body/limb', referring to persons with disabilities (PwDs)

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.

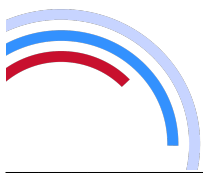
Other Backward Castes (OBCs): A large group of lower caste communities who are placed above Scheduled Castes but are nevertheless socially and educationally excluded in most parts of the country.

Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups (PVTGs):

Scheduled Castes (SCs): Bottom of the caste ladder; facing untouchability, a particularly pernicious form of discrimination which causes further psychological, economic, and social degradation.

Scheduled Tribes (STs): Historically marginalised Indigenous and ethnic groups; distinct from SCs.

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1. Executive summary

The **Climate Compatible Growth (CCG)** programme works with partners in India to support low-carbon transitions through applied research, modelling, and capacity building. India's massive population, fast growing economy, rising energy demand, and increasing emissions footprint combine with its entrenched socio-economic inequalities to present unique challenges for net zero and inclusive development. **Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI)** in India is shaped by constitutional commitments to social justice, a federal structure that divides responsibilities between national and state governments, and a political economy in which welfare schemes often target major constituencies, such as women and rural households. This creates both opportunity and disparity. While India has delivered large-scale energy and transport interventions, inclusion is often strongest at the level of scheme design and weaker in sustained use and intersectional reach.

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 India's energy and transport sectors, capturing regional disparity. 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.

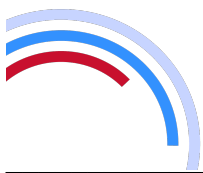
Key Takeaways

- Caste, tribal status, gender, disability, poverty, and rurality intersect to deepen exclusion.
- Electrification is near-universal according to official statistics, but key informant interviews suggest that household-level gaps and supply issues remain. Rural households report dissatisfaction with reliability, and electricity access in Scheduled Tribe (ST)-dominated remote regions is below the national average.
- Clean cooking interventions are hard to sustain. LPG refill costs, distributor access, fuel stacking, and import dependence restrict continued use, especially among people living in poverty and rural, ST, and Scheduled Caste (SC) households.
- Women remain underrepresented in energy and transport workforces and concentrated in non-technical or administrative roles. Emerging initiatives for women in solar and e-mobility are promising, but fragmented and pilot-based rather than mainstreamed.
- Gendered transport access is shaped by affordability, safety, and state-level policy design. Free or subsidised bus travel schemes in Delhi, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, and other states have improved mobility for women and, in some cases, transgender persons. However, harassment, crowding, and weak service quality persist.
- The *Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act* and *Accessible India Campaign* provide a clear legal and policy basis for accessible transport, but implementation is uneven.
- India's GESI-relevant policies have strong ambitions and large-scale rollout, but face gaps in affordability, sustainability, and accountability. GESI integration is also sometimes donor- or project-driven, rather than embedded across national and state systems.

Sensitivity Note

GESI engagement in India requires careful attention to terminology, identity, hierarchy, and consent. **Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs), Other Backward Classes (OBCs), and Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups (PVTGs)** carry legal, social, and political significance. Government actors may use the term *Divyang* ('divine body/limb') to refer to persons with disabilities (PwDs), as 'disabled' is considered stigmatising, though terminology can be contested and should be used carefully. **Caste, religion, gender-based violence (GBV), transgender inclusion, migration status, and land or livelihood impacts** linked to infrastructure projects can be sensitive.

Engagement should be locally anchored and guided by do-no-harm principles, including informed consent, confidentiality, anonymisation, accessible formats, trusted intermediaries, and careful data protection. Where government or expert interviews involve politically sensitive topics, anonymity and



oral consent may be appropriate. Direct engagement with marginalised groups should only take place where safeguards, referral pathways, and clear benefits to participants are in place.

2. Introduction and background

India's low-carbon transition is unfolding at exceptional scale. It is the world's most populous country, with 1.47 billion people, and the fastest-growing major economy, with projected growth of 7.4% in FY 2025–26 [1, 2]. Although per capita income is low, India is already the world's third-largest greenhouse gas (GHG) emitter (accounting for 8% of global emissions) and the country's emissions rose by 210% between 2000 and 2023 [3–5].

Energy and transport sit at the centre of this transition – with key implications for GESI groups [6–9]. India is the world's third-largest energy consumer and undertaking a major infrastructure buildout across roads, railways, metro systems, airports, and waterways, with passenger use and private vehicle ownership rising rapidly [7]. The projected rise in India's urban population, from 37% in 2023 to 51% in 2047, will also have major implications for mobility, energy intensity, and access to services [10]. India's *Panchamrit (Nectar of the Gods) Plan* commits the country to net zero by 2070, supported by targets to reach 500 GW of non-fossil fuel capacity (meeting 50% of the country's energy requirements) by 2030 [6].

These climate commitments sit alongside the *Viksit Bharat* vision of a developed India by 2047 [11, 12]. The agenda aims to raise GDP to USD 30 trillion, eliminate poverty, expand quality education and affordable healthcare, create meaningful employment, involve 70% of women in economic activity, and accelerate sustainable development [10]. Its stated pillars are closely aligned with several GESI constituencies: *Yuva* (youth), *Garib* (poor), *Mahilayen* (women), and *Annadata* (farmers) [13].

However, India's federal structure makes implementation especially complex [14]. Energy and transport systems and policies are shared across national and state governments, with states holding authority over mandates, standards, distribution, and subsidy programmes [15–18]. This enables state-level innovation, but it also creates coordination challenges across schemes such as LPG access, rural electrification, solar pumps, and off-grid solar electrification [19–23].

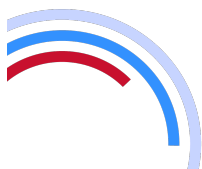
2.1. Objectives

The objectives of this study are to:

1. Analyse the context of marginalised and vulnerable groups in India, including demographic characteristics, unique energy and decarbonised transport needs, and barriers to accessing these infrastructures.
2. Consolidate and summarise key GESI-related national policies in India and analyse a few well-designed policies at the state level.
3. Map key stakeholders working with marginalised and vulnerable groups.

2.2. Methodology

This study combines secondary literature review with primary interviews. The review examined key legislation, policies and schemes, official press releases, academic papers, and reports from think tanks and Indian and international organisations. Primary data collection included 12 semi-structured key information interviews in March 2026: four central government officials, five think tank experts working on energy and transport, and three independent researchers or consultants. The study did not collect primary data directly from community stakeholders because of time and logistical constraints. Interviewees were asked about the effects of policies and programmes on vulnerable groups, but community voices were mediated through existing evidence and expert interviews.



The analysis is not a systematic review of all of India's GESI-related policies at national and state levels. It is a focused review of selected major policies and schemes with energy and transport relevance. Data limitations are also significant: India's most recent Census is from 2011 (the next Census was delayed due to COVID-19), and many government agencies continue to rely on it. Therefore, the study utilises other national datasets for more current and accurate evidence.

3. GESI context in India

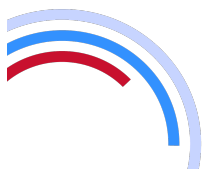
GESI in India is shaped by the country's scale, diversity, federal structure, and deeply embedded inequalities across caste, gender, religion, disability, age, and geography. The country has made substantial progress on poverty reduction, welfare access, and infrastructure expansion, but rural India continues to fare worse than urban India [24–26]. Historically poor states such as Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Odisha, Rajasthan, and Madhya Pradesh shape the geography of deprivation [27, 28].

Caste remains one of the deepest structures of exclusion [29]. SCs and STs face discrimination, violence, and concentration in low-paid, strenuous, unsafe, or degrading work [30, 31]. Stigma also limits access to housing, credit, and education [32–34]. Location compounds this exclusion: SC communities in rural areas have even more limited access to education and employment, while many STs live in remote regions with poor health, education, transport, and energy systems [35, 36].

Gender cuts across caste, religion, and rurality. Women's education and labour force participation have improved, but women remain constrained by unpaid care responsibilities, social norms, safety risks, and limited access to skilled non-agricultural work. Further, while transgender persons were legally recognised in 2014, the recent Transgender Persons (Protection of Rights) Amendment Bill, passed in March 2026, reverses many of these progressive moves by excluding people who self-identify as transmen, transwomen, and gender non-binary people [37].

Table 1 summarises the main demographic groups relevant to GESI analysis in India. The groups presented below are not exhaustive.

Groups	Population / key statistics	Critical issues
Children and youth	371.4 million youth aged 15–24 [38]. 436.6 million children under 18 [39].	- Intersects across caste, gender, income, and location. - Girls in SCs face additional constraints linked to mobility, household labour, early marriage, and safety.
Persons with disabilities (PwDs)	26.8 million (15 million men + 11.8 million women) in 2011 [40, 41]. - Likely higher because the <i>Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act 2016</i> recognises 21 disabilities vs. 7 under the earlier 1995 Act utilised for Census 2011 [42].	- Barriers to education, healthcare, employment, welfare, public spaces, and transport [43]. - Higher prevalence in rural areas than urban [44]. - Adults with disabilities (aged 18–49) are ~3x more likely to be in the poorest economic quartile [45].
LGBTQIA+ individuals	487,000 transgender persons (Census 2011) [46]. - No census data on lesbian, gay, or bisexual people. - Estimates place LGBTQIA+ population at anywhere between 45.4–135 million [47, 48].	- Transgender persons legally recognised as a 'third gender' through Supreme Court NALSA judgment [49]. - Only ~32,000 transgender persons have identity cards enabling access to government benefits; many face stigma, poverty, and exposure to abuse [50, 51].
Older adults ('elderly persons')	103.8 million older adults (aged 60+) in Census 2011 [52]. - Estimated at 153 million in 2023 [53]. - Projected to rise to 230 million by 2036 and 319 million by 2050 [54].	71% live in rural areas [55]. - Public spaces and transport are not elderly-friendly (eg no ramps or handrails) [54]. - Older women are especially vulnerable [55].
Migrants and refugees	- Internal migrants exceed 600 million, or ~42% of the population [56]. 209,028 refugees as of March 2023 [57].	- Barriers to housing, work, documentation, and welfare [58]. - Internal migrants, especially informal workers, may face exclusion from state-linked benefits [59]. - Significant refugee populations: Afghan, Burmese, Tibetan, and Sri Lankan [57].
People living in poverty	~75.2 million people lived in poverty in 2022–23 (below USD 3.00/day) [60]. ~23.9% of the population falls below the World Bank's lower-middle-income poverty line (USD 4.20/day) [61].	- Extreme poverty fell from ~27% in 2011–12 to 5.3% in 2022–23 [62]. - Rural poverty higher than urban poverty (19.28% vs 5.27%) [27, 28].
Religious minorities	- Muslims: 14.2% of the population (172.2 million) [63]. - Christians: 2.35% (27.8 million) [63]. - Sikhs: 1.72% (20.8 million) [63].	- Religion intersects with gender, class, and location. - Muslim women face disadvantages in income, nutrition, and mobility; cultural norms limit access to education, employment, and public life [64–66].
Rural communities	65% of the population (937.61 million) [67].	Rural India has higher multidimensional poverty, weaker infrastructure, lower clean cooking usage, and higher dissatisfaction with electricity reliability [68–70].



Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs), OBCs, and PVTGs	• SC population: 201.38 million in Census 2011 [74]. • ST population: 104.3 million in Census 2011 [75].	• Women and girls in rural areas carry a higher 'burden of drudgery', collecting water and fuel [71–73] • Caste and tribal identity are major axes of exclusion [29, 30, 76]. • SCs and STs face lower educational attainment, concentration in low-paid and hazardous work, discrimination, violence, and weaker access to infrastructure [31, 35, 36, 77]. • ~83% multidimensionally poor people belong to SCs, STs, or OBCs; more than 50% of STs, 33% of SCs, and 27% of OBCs [78, 79]. • SC women often experience severe GBV, including rape and sexual assault [80–84].
Women and girls	• 587.6 million (2011 census) [85]. • 702.61 million in 2024 [86].	• Traditional gender norms define men as household heads and decision-makers, while women are expected to carry domestic responsibilities, limiting access to land, education, and economic resources, particularly in rural and northern regions [19, 87]. • Marked improvements in enrolment of girls in schools, literacy, age at marriage, ownership of mobile phones and bank accounts, participation in workforce, etc. [88–92].

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

**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

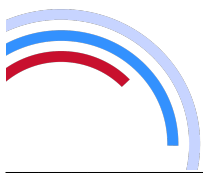
India's energy transition is a fast-growing mission, spanning multiple national ministries and state-level institutions [93–95]. This is, in part, a response to current import dependence shaping affordability and energy security: over 85% of oil is imported, exposing households and industry to global price and supply shocks [96–99]. India's installed power capacity increased from 305 GW in 2015–16 to 475 GW in 2024–25, and electricity generation rose from 1,168 billion units to 1,824 billion units over the same period [100]. Coal remains central, accounting for 74% of power generation in 2025 [101–103]. However, renewables are rising: solar and wind accounted for 8.99% and 6.20%, respectively, of total electricity production in 2025 [102]. India has set a target of 500 GW of non-fossil fuel capacity by 2030, of which 256.09 GW had been installed as of October 2025, though the country is unlikely to meet this target on schedule [104, 105].

4.1 Electrification and reliability

India has achieved near-universal electrification on paper: 99% of urban and 95% of rural households [106]. Two major schemes drove access: **DDUGJY** (*Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Gram Jyoti Yojana*), launched in 2014 to strengthen rural distribution infrastructure, and **SAUBHAGYA** (*Pradhan Mantri Sahaj Bijli Har Ghar Yojana*), launched in 2017 to provide connections to rural and poor urban households [107]. Together, these electrified 28.6 million households by 2022 [108].

However, electrification does not always result in meaningful or reliable access. Key informant interviews highlighted gaps between official electrification definitions and actual connection, and a senior government official noted that hours of supply remain a challenge in rural areas, where around 40% of households report dissatisfaction with electricity services, including reliability [68]. Further, energy access in ST-dominated remote regions remains 11% below that of the general population [69]. Such gaps extend beyond the household-level, impacting schools, health facilities, and small enterprises – with downstream consequences for GESI populations.

Intra-household energy use is also unequal: electricity access does not equally benefit men and women [109]. In general, women are less aware of services and use less electricity [110]. For instance, lights and fans are often not located or utilised where women need them most, such as in kitchens [109].



4.2 Clean cooking and caste-class gaps

Clean cooking is one of India's most significant gendered and poverty-linked energy interventions: roughly 90% of urban households use clean cooking fuel, whereas less than half of rural households do so [111]. Biomass fuels, such as firewood and coal, create indoor air pollution that causes a variety of health hazards for women (eg lung cancer, and cardiovascular and pulmonary diseases) and children (eg anaemia, stunted growth, and high mortality) [112]. In response, India launched **PMUY** (*Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala Yojana*) to provide Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG), a clean cooking alternative, to rural and poor households [113]. The scheme met its original target of 80 million LPG connections by 2019 and reached 103.5 million by 2024. Evidence links the scheme to positive effects on women's health, as well as employment, education, mobility, decision-making, and financial autonomy [114].

However, continued LPG use remains challenging, and inactive LPG connections rose from 35.8 to 43.2 million between 2017–2019 [115]. Studies indicate that travel distance, refill costs, import/supply fluctuations (60% of LPG is imported), and fuel stacking limit sustained adoption [98, 116, 117]. Caste and class also shape access: while over 48% of rural households now use LPG as their primary fuel, this falls among STs and SCs to 14% and 7%, respectively, for any LPG usage [118].

4.3 Renewable energy and just transition risks

Installed renewable energy rose from 76.37 GW in 2014 to 209.44 GW in 2024, placing India fourth globally in total renewable capacity [119]. The Ministry of New and Renewable Energy (MNRE) aims to support access, equity, and affordability; several of its schemes have direct GESI implications [120]. For instance, **PM-KUSUM** (*Pradhan Mantri Kisan Urja Suraksha evam Utthan Mahabhiyan*) is a USD 3.78 billion initiative to support farmers through solar pumps and solar plants on barren agricultural land, with a target of 34.8 GW of capacity [121]. **PM-SG** (*Pradhan Mantri Surya Ghar Muft Bijli Yojana*) started in 2024 to equip 10 million households with rooftop solar, achieving 700,000 installations in less than one year [119]. **The New Solar Scheme of PM-JANMAN** (*Pradhan Mantri Janjati Adivasi Nyaya Maha Abhiyan*) aims to electrify 100,000 households, provide lighting to 1,500 multi-purpose centres, and solarise 2,000 public institutions in tribal and PVTG communities [119].

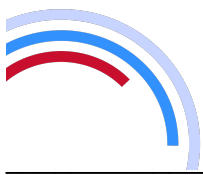
However, the energy transition also carries spatial risks, with coal-, mining-, and metals-led states such as Odisha, Chhattisgarh, Assam, and Tripura disproportionately vulnerable to job losses [122–125]. Men may be more exposed to formal job loss, but women will be severely affected through informal livelihoods such as coal collection, agriculture, textiles, and construction, often without access to the compensation or retraining offered to formal workers [122, 123].

4.4 Workforce participation

Women's participation in India's renewable energy workforce remains limited, constituting an estimated 11% of rooftop solar workers [126]. While solar and wind employment of women grew between 2022 and 2024, technical and engineering roles remain heavily male-dominated and women are concentrated in non-technical, administrative, sales, and clerical roles [127–130].

Recent policy attention has grown through the **Women in Solar Energy** job portal and public statements on placing women at the centre of India's energy transition [131]. **Project Surya**, led by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA), trains PVTG *Agariya*¹ women as solar panel and pump technicians, with the goal of training 1,000 women and scaling to women in other low-income traditional livelihoods [132, 133]. However, such initiatives remain fragmented, rather than part of a systematic national framework [134].

¹ *Agariyas* are the traditional salt farmers working in the Little Rann of Kutch of the western state of Gujarat.



5. GESI and transport

India's transport sector is expanding rapidly. As of March 2025, there were 391.07 million registered vehicles, of which 91.1% were personal and 8.9% commercial [135]. National highways increased from 91,287km to 146,572km between 2014–2025, while the railway network reached 69,439km [136–139]. This infrastructure expansion, alongside EV adoption, has significant GESI implications because transport shapes education, work, healthcare, safety, care responsibilities, and participation in public life [140].

Much like energy, transport governance is institutionally complex. Multiple central ministries shape roads, railways, public transport, EV charging, and vehicle manufacturing, which are also managed by state governments. This enables local GESI innovation, such as free or subsidised bus travel for women and transgender persons, but also produces disparate progress across states and modes.

5.1 Physical accessibility

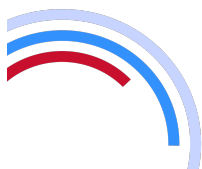
India has a strong legal basis for physically accessible transport. **The Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act 2016** obligates governments to ensure transport accessibility and the **Accessible India Campaign** (*Sugamya Bharat Abhiyan*) focuses on improving accessibility across transport systems [141, 142]. The Department of Empowerment of Persons with Disabilities (DEPwD) oversees the response from train, bus, and metro systems, which have introduced new accessibility measures, though coverage is irregular [143, 144]. For example, **PM-eBus Sewa** intends to deploy 10,000 e-buses and includes GESI commitments such as priority seats for passengers with reduced mobility, handrails, safety restraints, and 25% of buses with wheelchair lifts [145].

Older adults and other reduced-mobility GESI passengers are also becoming increasingly recognised. The Delhi Metro prioritises security checks for pregnant people, women with infants, senior citizens, and injured persons, in addition to PwDs [146]. Such measures show progress, but are infrastructure-focused and do not address affordability, service reliability, last-mile access, or the everyday discrimination PwDs and older adults may face.

5.2 Gendered mobility and safety

Women's mobility in India is shaped by affordability, safety, family restrictions, and access, constraining public transport use [147, 148]. In response, several states have introduced free or highly subsidised bus travel for women and transgender persons, to enhance educated women's labour force participation rate [149]. Delhi was the first state to do so, and women's share of daily ridership rose by 20% between 2019 and 2023, with women and transgender persons using the free buses for employment, education, healthcare, and leisure [150]. The scheme provided tangible financial benefits for women from SC, ST, and Muslim communities, as well as poor urban women, who saved roughly INR 500 per month (around 8% of monthly household income) [151, 152]. Similar schemes have been launched in Andhra Pradesh, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, and Telangana; Karnataka's **Shakti Yojane** also generated savings for women, a significant share of whom were from OBCs (39.4%) and SCs (24.8%) [153]. However, Delhi's system has been altered to limit eligibility to persons residing in Delhi, which excludes temporary residents, short-term visitors, and migrants lacking documentation [154].

Further, free transport does not eliminate harassment or poor service quality: women still report hostile behaviour from male crew and passengers, overcrowding, and non-compliance with reserved seats [150]. Yet transport safety policy is evolving; for example, improved metro measures include women's coach signage, reserved seats, CCTV patrols, and female officers for security-frisking [155]. Similarly, private cab aggregators, such as Ola and Uber, have been mandated to offer passengers the option of selecting a driver of the same gender [156].



5.3 E-transport employment

Transport decarbonisation is opening new economic space, but women remain virtually absent from the workforce, at just 0.03% [157]. A multi-city study found that women constitute 15% of conductors and only 0.16% of drivers in public transport operations [158]. Recent EV and e-bus policies show early attempts to consider women's employment, but they remain limited [145]. **Rejuvenation of Auto-Rickshaws in Amritsar through Holistic Intervention** (RAAHI) is one such scheme, which supports shifting from diesel to electric three-wheelers; it also offers skill development and enhanced subsidies to female drivers of 'pink e-autos' [159].

However, evidence from the programme shows that female drivers need improved streetlighting, women-only wait stands, and safe charging stations, washrooms, and parking for sustained success [159]. This points to a broader lesson for GESI in low-carbon transport: subsidies and technology shifts are not enough. Women entering the transport workforce face safety risks, harassment, restricted routes, shorter working hours, lack of toilets, and exclusion from male-dominated stands.

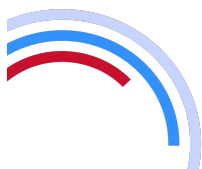
6. GESI policies and barriers

The Indian Constitution provides a strong formal basis for GESI, committing the State to social, economic, and political justice; equality of status and opportunities; non-discrimination; measures for women and children; and special care for the interests of 'weaker sections', particularly SCs and STs [8, 9, 11, 12]. Yet GESI is often operationalised at the state-level and informed by political populism [160–162]. Women, at 48.4% of the population, and rural residents, at 65%, are major voting constituencies [67, 87]. As a result of their electoral significance, women and rural households receive consistent policy attention and resourcing, while other GESI groups receive significantly less [163].

Further, there is a recurring implementation pattern in which strong headline commitments and rapid rollout are followed by gaps in sustained use, service quality, and enforcement [164–170]. For instance, Sugamya Bharat and the Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act mandate clear accessibility obligations, but audits show underutilisation of funds and non-compliance with standards [171, 172]. Similarly, rural electrification schemes were declared successful, but the Comptroller and Auditor General (CAG) of India and reporting point to target reductions (from 30 million to 24.84 million households), state-level distribution constraints, financial issues, and continuing quality-of-supply concerns [19, 173–175].

Table 2 summarises the main policy strengths and gaps across India. 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 India	Provides overarching basis for GESI.	Strong constitutional commitments do not automatically translate into implementation.
Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act (2016)	Recognises 21 categories of disability; obligates governments to ensure accessibility, non-discrimination, and full participation for PwDs.	Implementation is uneven; gaps in accessible infrastructure, enforcement, and compliance across public offices and transport facilities.
Climate		
National Action Plan on Climate Change (2008)	Includes protection of 'the poor and vulnerable' through inclusive and sustainable development; acknowledges severe impacts of climate change on women.	Does not specify mitigation/adaptation mechanisms for marginalised communities; weak emissions targets; underfunding; limited rural focus.
Energy		
DDUGJY (2014)	Targeted rural areas through electrification of villages and strengthening of rural distribution infrastructure.	Access and reliability challenges persist; official rural electrification claims have been questioned.
PMUY (2016)	Provides LPG connections to women below the poverty line, targeting rural households.	Refill affordability and subsidy inconsistency affect sustained LPG use; low consumption, potential cylinder diversion, and delays in LPG refill delivery.



SAUBHAGYA (2017)	Aimed to achieve universal household electrification by providing electricity connections to rural households and poor urban households.	Electrification target downgraded before 100% achievement declared; underperformance due to state distribution constraints and underfunding.
National Electricity Policy (Draft, 2026)	Mentions affordable electricity provision in rural areas.	Weak GESI framing compared with <i>Integrated Energy Policy of 2006</i> which made multiple (20) mentions of the gendered challenges in ensuring energy security; eg biomass/indoor air pollution, girls' education, and women's empowerment [94].
Transport		
Sugamya Bharat Abhiyan / Accessible India	Focuses on accessibility in built infrastructure, transport systems, and ICT, including tools such as the Sugamya Bharat App for accessibility mapping and reporting.	Implementation remains uneven; gaps such as lack of accessible toilets or appropriate signage in government offices and transport-related facilities.
PM E-Bus Sewa, 2023	Commits to deploying 10,000 e-buses, with accessibility measures including priority seats, handrails, and wheelchair lifts or ramps in 25% of vehicles.	Accessibility commitments are partial, without monitoring; broader GESI issues (eg affordability, route coverage, safety, workforce inclusion) are not addressed.
Nirbhaya Fund transport safety measures	Supports women's safety through emergency response systems, video surveillance, facial recognition systems, and vehicle-tracking platforms.	Fund utilisation remains weak in some states; safety investments do not address deeper issues.
Free bus travel schemes	Delhi, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, and other states have used free or subsidised bus travel to improve mobility, savings, and access to public space for women and, in some cases, transgender persons.	Benefits depend on eligibility design, service quality, crowding, and safety; residence-based access may exclude migrants or temporary residents; harassment and non-compliance persist.

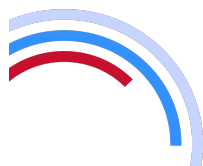
Table 2. Key GESI-related policies in India and gaps affecting implementation

7. Key stakeholders

India's energy and transport landscape is shaped by scale and execution capacity. While power and influence are concentrated in central ministries and state governments, implementation often depends on public agencies, utilities, and city-level authorities. Research institutions and development partners play an increasingly growing role in shaping emerging GESI practice, especially where national policy is less explicit. This also points to a weakness: GESI integration can remain donor- or project-driven rather than embedded in national and state policy systems.

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

Stakeholder Category	Key Stakeholders	Roles in GESI Integration	Power/Influence	Interest in GESI
Central policy and planning institutions	NITI Aayog	Apex government think tank; key node for policy ideation, economic development strategy, net zero scenarios, and occasional social inclusion analysis.	High influence over policy discourse; limited direct power.	Medium.
Central energy ministries and agencies	Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas; Ministry of Power; MNRE; Ministry of Coal; Bureau of Energy Efficiency; public oil marketing companies including BPCL, IOCL, and HPCL; REC	PMUY design and implementation; rural electrification; renewable energy expansion; women's skills and solar workforce initiatives; coal-sector employment and transition issues.	High for petroleum and power; medium-high for MNRE and coal.	Variable; focus on women and rural households, not all GESI.
Central transport and social inclusion ministries	Ministry of Road Transport and Highways; Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs; Ministry of Women and Child Development; Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment; Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation	Women's transport safety measures; Nirbhaya Fund monitoring; barrier-free environments for PwDs; transport workforce data and analysis.	Medium-high.	Variable; social justice and women/child ministries have strong inclusion mandates; transport ministries remain more infrastructure-focused.
State governments	Delhi, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and other state governments	Design and implementation of free or subsidised bus travel schemes; coordination with transport corporations.	High.	High.
Local governments and urban authorities	Urban municipalities including Amritsar and Erode	Piloting GESI-linked e-mobility schemes.	High.	Variable: high where cities are open to GESI transport pilots.

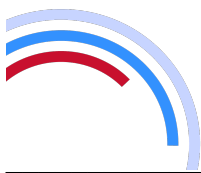


Development partners and multilaterals	ADB; GIZ; UK-PACT; other international funders	Financing, technical assistance, and policy requirements that have influenced gender integration.	High.	High; often require GESI integration as part of funding.
Private sector and social enterprises	SELCO; energy service companies; EV and transport operators; Mahila Housing Trust	Solar energy services, decentralised energy interventions, technology deployment, and employment pathways.	Medium.	Variable; some social enterprises have strong inclusion focus.
Research and Policy Institutions	CSEP; ITDP India; CEEW; WRI India; National Institute for Urban Affairs (NIUA)	Evidence generation, policy analysis, GESI studies, state-level technical support, and advisory work on transport, energy, e-mobility, and women's workforce participation.	Medium.	Medium to high; especially CEEW and ITDP.
Media and communications	The Times of India; Indian Express; The Hindu; Citizen Matters; The News Minute; Scroll; other media	Public reporting, scrutiny of government claims, and coverage of GESI-related issues.	Medium.	Medium; coverage is issue-dependent.

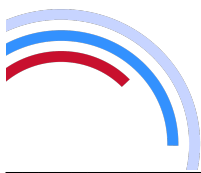
Table 3. Key stakeholders advancing GESI in India, [176–183]

8. References

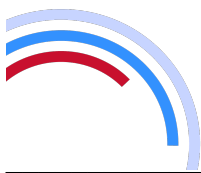
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