GENDER ANALYSIS STUDY
CAPACITY STRENGTHENING INTERVENTIONS IN BARINGO, MARSABIT, SAMBURU & WAJIR COUNTIES
2017
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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

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<tr>
<td>CCP</td>
<td>County Cooperation Programme</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Food and Agricultural Organization</td>
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Context

This study summarizes an analysis conducted from September to November 2016 into gender dynamics in the four arid counties targeted by the World Food Programme (WFP) for capacity strengthening support in Kenya: Baringo and Samburu in the Rift Valley region and, Wajir and Marsabit in the northern region. These counties entered into a partnership with WFP Kenya under their County Cooperation Programmes (CCPs) in 2015. This is a multi-year programme entitled “Enhancing Complementarity and Strengthening Capacity for Sustainable Resilience Building in Kenya’s Arid and Semi-Arid Lands”.

The CCPs aim at enhancing the capacity of county governments as first responders to emergencies. This is done by strengthening county policy frameworks for emergency preparedness and response; improving disaster management units; and designing emergency response and safety net programmes run by counties.

The study set out to:

1. **explore** ways in which WFP can adjust its interventions and activities, including monitoring and evaluation frameworks, in order to promote women’s effective participation in county decision-making with regard to hunger and food insecurity;

2. **determine** interventions that the county governments put in place to fight hunger, bearing in mind that food insecurity and emergency response are sensitive to gender and age-specific needs; and

3. **guide** the development of capacity development initiatives, including training programmes, by ensuring that they are gender-sensitive.

Methodology:

The study used primary data collection and analysis, using participatory, gender-sensitive quantitative and qualitative approaches. A total of 410 household surveys were conducted, 46 percent of them men, and 54 percent women. In addition, 24 focus group discussions were held separately with men and women of different age groups, and 22 key informant interviews were conducted with government officials and WFP partners. The integral human development framework guided the development of the study tools, analysis of the findings, and the recommendations of the study through a gender lens.
Major findings

i. **Gender relations and decision-making at household levels:** Women, relative to men, were found to be dominant in household decision-making with respect to the amount of food prepared, the timing of such preparation, and the number of meals to have in a day. Despite this privileged positioning in household food preparation, in addition to being major contributors to daily household food, the underlying social norms on eating hierarchy tend to disfavour women. They often eat after male household members. The situation exacerbates the risk of hunger among women during lean times, and even more so at the time of shocks. For instance, women end up eating less or going hungry to save food for their more culturally valued male counterparts. Household food production is viewed as feminine and a less privileged occupation. Consequently, women have a dominant presence in the food-for-assets (FFA), cash-for-assets (CFA) and home-grown food production activities of WFP within the four counties, as they feel culturally obligated to fend for the household. Gender-blind interventions on household food security might therefore end up burdening women with additional chores, while the male contribution remain untapped. This is despite the fact that F/CFA activities are aimed at insulating the entire household against hunger and food insecurity. Women’s time spent on labour for household food production is likely to reduce their mobility outside the home or access other income generating activities. Household headship and decision-making rests with men. Women’s ability to make life decisions is diminished and normalized by cultural norms that value men as natural leaders and decision-makers.

ii. **Gender, access to and control over resources:** While there is above average access to resources among the woman studied, their control over resources such as livestock and land remains low. This is of concern, as a number of food security interventions are based on land and livestock, which are under the control of men. To achieve equitable enjoyment of benefits from interventions, schemes that look beyond livestock value addition and agro-production on male controlled land should be introduced. Value-chain creation in such interventions need to introduce women to saving schemes, and link them to micro-credit facilities, as a way of escaping the traditional asset-base and/or capital-trap dominated by men. Furthermore, findings indicate that over 60 percent of women fall within the low-income brackets (KSh 0-2999, and KSh 3000-5999). This group exhibits high income instability, and high vulnerability to food insecurity, as compared to those with average monthly income of KSh 10,000 and above. Low income affects the capacity to produce and procure adequate food resources for household consumption in normal seasons, but even more so during emergencies. Therefore, monetary incentives to households for work have to be shored up to KSh 10,000, or the value-chain in asset creation need to be linked to income-generation activities that stabilise household incomes, to minimise vulnerability to food insecurity.
iii. Gender and participation in community meetings: Across the community structures, men dominate the chiefs’ barazas (meetings); community development planning meetings; and agricultural sensitization meetings, including issues on livestock development. Women are more visible and active in community organisations, like chamas (cooperatives), and other welfare-oriented groups. In joint meetings, the participation and leadership of women remains symbolic. For instance, while they are included as officials of project committees, they look to men for approval of their decisions. This diminishes women’s meaningful leadership and agency. With this in mind, inclusive community-based targeting should be stratified through existing groupings of women, youth, and persons with disability associations, as part of capturing the intra-gender and special-interest group diversities.

iv. Gender, community leadership and ability to influence food security policies: Women largely remain underrepresented in the elective and appointive positions within county government structures. Within top-level decision-making structures, such as the cabinet and chief officers in the county governments, there is a tendency to adopt a minimalist-approach – where the one-third rule is almost synonymous with women, while men enjoy the majority presence. These gender imbalances are replicated in emergency coordination structures, such as the county steering group. Of concern is the fact that female representation in the county steering groups of some counties is largely filled by partnering institutions, rather than being internal to the county government. Consequently, the voices of women in community decisions remain muted. Programmes and policies therefore tend to overlook their different needs and experiences in food production, as well as their situations in emergencies.

v. Emergency response mechanisms at the county levels: While county-level emergency responses are relatively new (the study was conducted exactly three years after the transition to devolution), significant institutional (policy) and structural (organisational) response and preparedness strategies have been put in place. Disaster mapping and disaster policy development are at different stages. For instance, Wajir County already has a disaster policy in place, including an implementation framework, while the other three counties only have draft disaster policies. These policy drafts spell out the institutional framework for coordination of emergencies by:

- creating disaster coordination units;
- defining the emergency response committee and/or structure incorporating local partners within the counties, which helps build coalitions and joint strategies in emergencies with key actors; and
- linking emergency preparedness and response to a number of safety net interventions within the county.

There is strong collaboration with national government agencies, such as the Kenya Food Safety Group, the National Drought Management Authority and meteorological departments. Partners outside the government framework are largely incorporated on the basis of their domain of operation. The foundational basis for emergency preparedness and response is therefore already laid within the four counties. However, effective implementation cannot take place without proper capacity strengthening of the county governments. Capacity building and
support should include training on how to make emergency preparedness and response, needs assessments and programme design (including early warning), work to develop robust nutrition, food security and logistical capacity assessments and timely strategic mapping of partners. Boosting response analysis is also crucial.

vi. Findings and implications for WFP County Cooperation Programmes:

a) Legislation and policy advisory role: The disaster policy drafts fail to explicitly note that emergencies/crises tend to exacerbate gender inequalities, and have different impacts on women, men, girls and boys. It therefore requires a gender lens, to increase the effectiveness of targeting and the efficiency of programme delivery. Similarly, the policy drafts do not focus expressly on collecting sex-disaggregated data, analysis and application. This is the same for response strategies. Institutionally, the draft policies fail to expressly mention gender-sensitive budgeting and gender-sensitive staff capacity building on emergency preparedness and response. The policy drafts therefore miss components that would be transformative of existing gender roles and relations within the governance structures and the disaster coordination units. If operationalised in this way, the policy frameworks would not incorporate WFP’s commitment to gender equality and women’s empowerment, given the gender-blind approach within the institutional frameworks.

County governments should be financially and technically assisted to develop gender mainstreaming strategies to inform gender integration in sectoral plans, including emergency preparedness and response and food security plans. There is also a need to involve UN Women and the National Gender and Equality Commission (NGEC) in training the members of county assembly in gender-sensitive legislation processes.

b) Early warning systems: Efforts to build county efficiency on early warning systems are commendable. They are proof of sustainable partnership building between WFP, county governments and the National Drought Management Authority (NDMA). For instance, WFP support for skill-building on sampling, collecting and analysing data on early warning systems has resulted in county drought information officers and NDMA personnel being trained. In addition, WFP has integrated its quarterly food security and outcome monitoring into the data collected on early warning systems, as part of a broadening of emergency preparedness information. WFP has partnered with NDMA and incorporated county officers in conducting paperless data collection on early warning system. Though early warning system and response analysis is already being deepened within the counties, there remains a need to further simplify the information for community consumption. This will significantly inform community preparation for emergencies. Similarly, there is a need to disaggregate the reports, in terms of their potential impact on the community. Furthermore, dissemination of the early warning findings need to examine the communication channels used. Local FM stations, chiefs’ barazas, the chain of county steering group - including relevant ministries, can marginalize the women, youth and children, negatively affecting the emergency preparedness these groups.

c) Nutrition and food security assessment: WFP is already assisting county governments to improve their own capacity in data collection, analysis and reporting of the food security
status of different populations. Selected officers have been trained on data collection methods relating to food security using the relevant pre-rains assessment questionnaires, as well as on data analysis and dissemination through report writing. To obtain buy-in from county government decision-makers, WFP organizes sensitization workshops for the executive members. Some challenges remain. For example, there is concern among county government officials that the training duration is too short to effectively induct first-timers into technology-based data collection and analysis. Another worrying trend is the underrepresentation of female officers during training, from the line ministries of agriculture, health, livestock and education. For education department, the highest concentration of female is at ECD levels, who unfortunately do not influence policy decisions at the county level. Deliberate targeting of women and youth across the four counties, for training, must be undertaken to reverse the current trends of male dominance. It would also address skill-retention, which would otherwise be lost through natural attrition of the retirement of the middle-aged personnel heading strategic line ministries.

d) Support to safety net activities and emergency preparedness and response: The four county governments studied are already being supported by WFP on asset creation, on the basis of capacity and gaps assessment reports conducted in 2015. Most significantly, asset creation is seen as a mechanism for improving household food security and minimising dependence on relief food, while at the same time building the resilience of communities. For this purpose, safety net programmes are given significant attention within the disaster reduction plans, including disaster management policies. There are ongoing discussions with county governments to institutionalise several activities within line ministries. Beyond linking the productive safety nets programmes to emergency preparedness and response, there is a need to clearly develop a value-chain that will link the activities to the markets, and create an avenue for income generation in the CFA activities. The aim is two-way. First, the income can be put into saving schemes, which open up life investment choices for members of the groups, and increase their social decision-making power within the households. Secondly, the income can cushion the economically unstable households from starvation during emergencies, by allowing these groups access to market-based food. Linking FFA activities to skill-building and market linkage may make it attractive to middle-aged men and the youth, of both sexes. The support of the Food and Agriculture Organizations (FAO) would be necessary in pursuing this gender-relations transformative food production and income generation pathway.

Training of asset creation groups on how to develop saving schemes would open up investment choices and create resilience in times of emergency. Other relevant information includes, requirement of procurement procedures and referral to information sources. There is need to use youth, women and other minority group networks at the point of community-based targeting to realise inclusive mobilisation of gender and special interest groups. Furthermore, it should include defeminising the messaging around the incentive given to households for work carried out under CFA, this would promote the involvement of men and youth in CFA activities.
Overall recommendations:

1. WFP should work with the county governments in auditing the disaster management policies and integrate gender in policy objectives, statements and financing mechanisms as part of institutionalising gender-sensitive organisational culture in county government operations.

2. WFP should partner with UN Women and the National Gender and Equality Commission to develop a gender mainstreaming strategy that would integrate gender in county government sectoral planning, including in areas of emergency preparedness and response and food security response plans.

3. WFP should incorporate special interest groups in community-based targeting for CFAs. This should involve further sex disaggregation into sub-groups (youth, persons with disability, and minors1 within the counties heading households, the minority and marginalized groups within the counties) during the community-based targeting procedures.

4. WFP should train field monitors and county officers on gender write-shop techniques. This should help engage the project beneficiaries in documenting the most significant changes (cause-effect relations) on transformative gender relations occasioned by WFP-CCPs interventions in the four counties.

5. WFP should defeminise the household incentive for work. This can be done by creating value-chain activities, where off-shoots of the interventions adequately generate income and build skills for various gender groups. The aim is to attract more men to engage and work on CFAs programmes. Partnering with FAO in value addition in agro-production is necessary to realise this goal.

6. WFP should promote access to and use of a single registry by supporting the county governments to interface county data with national data, so as to inform effective emergency preparedness and response.

7. WFP should support the strengthening of complaint and feedback mechanism structures at the county government and project committee level. Specific areas to focus on include data capture and management, escalation procedures and linkage of complainants to specific lines. Further, there is need to strengthen the gender and age-appropriate information loop at the county government level.

8. WFP should support the development of a gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation framework. This should include quantitative measures to give statistical indicators on the progress so far achieved under CCP activities. It should also look at the degree to which the gender and age-segregated groups are participating in the activities of CCP-safety net programmes. In addition, indicators capturing sub-groups, such as people with disabilities,

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1 The emphasis on minors in targeting is because this group has a unique experience with emergencies. First, they might not be represented in the FFA activities, because of the risk of engaging child labour and the strict selection criteria targeting only people who have reached official adulthood (18 years and above). Secondly, they do not fall within the bracket of active income earners, yet they have dependants to take care of. Thirdly, the minors are less likely to voice their concerns in the public meetings. Consequently, child-headed households are more likely to be grossly neglected in the linkage of FFA activities to emergency preparedness and response.
female headed households, child headed households and marginalized groups, need to be integrated as part of dissecting the inclusiveness of community-based targeting in WFP activities. Qualitative monitoring can be done through tools such as interviews, observation, and focus groups. This is important in documenting the most significant change prompted by the CCPs to the county government and the community. For instance, qualitative monitoring will capture change of attitude that moves beyond gender aware indicators.

9. WFP should broaden communication of early warning information by supporting the establishment of drought-cycle flags in public primary schools. These provide early warning signs to prepare the children on emergency phases. There is also a need to support the delivery of early warning messages to youth and women’s networks, and persons with disability associations, beyond the use of local FM stations and the CSG structures.
In its current strategic plan (2014-2017), WFP sets out a goal focused on strengthening the capacity of governments and regional organizations to prepare for, assess and respond to shocks. In Kenya, WFP is increasingly investing in capacity development aimed at enabling the Government to identify and address food insecurity in the country. In the context of devolution, which endows county governments with the responsibility to act as first responders to emergencies and hunger in their constituencies, it is increasingly important for WFP to support the development of institutional capacity (strengthening the technical skills of the staff members, capacity building of the institutions and creating an enabling environment for Emergency Preparedness and Response) at the decentralized level.

In 2015, WFP Kenya and four county governments, Baringo, Marsabit, Samburu and Wajir, formulated CCPs as part of a multi-year programme entitled “Enhancing Complementarity and Strengthening Capacity for Sustainable Resilience Building in Kenya’s Arid and Semi-Arid Lands”. WFP’s support currently includes technical assistance to support the development of the county policy frameworks for emergency preparedness and response, support to disaster management units and advice on the design of emergency response and safety net programmes run by counties, among other things. While these are noble aspirations, their implementation and outcomes need to be examined through gender lens. For this purpose, the Kenya National Policy on Gender and Development (2000), its Action Plan (2008-2012) and the WFP Gender Policy 2015 informed this study as follows:

First, Kenya’s national policy framework for gender mainstreaming is contained in the National Policy on Gender and Development (January 2000) and Sessional Paper No. 2 of 2006 on Gender Equality and Development. Its objective is to promote women’s empowerment and to mainstream the needs of women, men, girls and boys in all sectors of development in the country. While the policy and action plan are outdated, there is an appreciation that lessons learnt from their implementation can offer insights on the integration of gender issues in programming and capacity strengthening at the county level.

In the context of Kenyan devolution and county decision-making, women’s participation and voice remains limited. The Constitution of Kenya espouses equality rights of women and men, and includes a principle that not more than two thirds of the members of elective public bodies, including county assemblies, should be of the same gender (Art. 81(b)). Affirmative action and policies to promote the rights and participation of women are provisioned for in Article 27. While the Constitution is thus progressive in this regard, adherence
and execution of the provisions remains a challenge. In practice, women are underrepresented both at the national, and the county levels despite the national two-third gender rule. Many cultural and socio-economic barriers continue to marginalize women, which potentially undermines efforts for both sexes to contribute equally to the food value chain. Nevertheless, women’s voices are key to fighting food insecurity as women and children often suffer the most from hunger.

Secondly, WFP’s Gender Policy (2015-2020) notes that gender equality is key for achieving zero hunger. The policy has four priority areas. Firstly, WFP considers that food assistance needs to be adapted to different needs of gender and age groups. Secondly, that women and men participate equally in food security and nutrition programmes and policies. Thirdly, that women and girls’ power in decision-making is enhanced, and fourthly, that food assistance does no harm to any beneficiary group and is provided in a way that respects human rights. WFP works to integrate gender equality and women’s empowerment in all the work it does, including capacity development activities.

1.1 Scope of the study

1.1.1 Overall objective

1. The main aim of the study was to establish the gender dynamics that prevail in the four arid counties (Baringo, Marsabit, Samburu and Wajir) targeted by WFP for capacity strengthening support. In particular, the study undertook to:

2. Determine ways in which WFP can adjust its interventions and activities in the targeted counties, including monitoring and evaluation frameworks, in order to promote women’s effective participation in county decision-making as regards hunger and food insecurity;

3. Recommend interventions that the county governments can put in place to fight hunger, food insecurity and emergency response are sensitive to gender and age-specific needs;

4. Guide the development of capacity strengthening initiatives including training programmes by ensuring that they are gender-sensitive.

1.1.2 Specific objectives

1. To establish relationships between men, women, boys and girls in these counties, and the inequalities in these relationships that creates the risk of, or exacerbates, food insecurity.

2. To assess ways in which gender inequality is reproduced, including the influence of gender relations, roles, status, inequalities and discrimination in access to and control of resources.

3. To establish gender-specific patterns in participation and influence in the county governments as regards policy-making (county executive committee, county assembly), and the legal frameworks that support these.

4. To assess gender-specific patterns of participation and influence among the civil servants at county level (technical staff, NDMA staff) engaged in food security and emergency preparedness and response.

5. To determine gender-specific dynamics of participation in
food security and emergency preparedness and response-related coordination structures at county level, and their ability to engage in coalitions and advocacy in these forums.

6. To determine how gender dynamics affect the achievement of WFP’s project objectives, and the overall goal of empowering arid counties, to effectively analyse, prepare for and respond to food insecurity.

7. To determine how WFP’s current capacity development initiatives realistically promote gender equality and support the county governments’ ability to positively influence gender-sensitive programming in food security and emergency preparedness and response.

8. Recommend the types of adjustments to WFP’s project activities that would be required to minimize negative impact on women and maximize positive benefits.

1.1.3 Research questions

1. What are the gender dynamics of WFP interventions and activities (policy frameworks and institutional strengthening)?

2. In what ways do these interventions promote women’s participation in county decision-making, as regards hunger and food insecurity?

3. In which ways are these interventions aimed at fighting hunger, food insecurity and emergency response, sensitive to gender and age-specific needs at the county level?

4. What are the existing relationships between men, women, boys and girls in these counties, and the inequalities in these relationships that create the risk of, or exacerbate, food insecurity?

5. What are the gender-specific dynamics of participation in food security and emergency preparedness and response-related coordination structures at county level, and their ability to engage in coalitions and advocacy in these forums?

6. How can the study outcomes be used to enhance the gender-sensitivity of the capacity strengthening interventions, including those on training?

1.2 Research methodology

The study employed a mixed method approach to allow for collection of qualitative and quantitative data at multiple aggregations (i.e. household, community, county government). The approach was deemed important to ensuring that data unique to each level was collected. Furthermore, the approach allowed for data collected from multiple sources to be cross-checked, verified, and triangulated. Survey, focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews were therefore used to collect data. Staggering data collection also helped improve the contents of data collection tools for subsequent method and interviews. In this case, information arising from household surveys was used to shape the nature of inquiries held with key informants and focus group discussion participants. The sub-sections below begin by discussing the integral human development framework,
used in the study to guide tool development and analysis. It then proceeds to show the sample size determination for the study, and the data collection methods and procedures. The section concludes with a discussion on data analysis and presentation of the findings.

1.2.1 Analytical framework: Integral human development

1. To contextualize the analysis, an integral human development framework guided the study through a gender lens. The framework assesses the positions of individuals, households and communities relative to “equality in access and assets”. Gender inequalities can thus be assessed, according to differences and relationships between women and men in terms of access, control and ownership of assets and resources at individual, household, community and broader institutional levels.

2. The core of the integral human development framework is that the ability of women, men, boys and girls to realize their rights is driven by a combination of factors relating to the human, social, natural, physical, political and productive assets available to them, their households and communities. At the same time, systems and structures enable or constrain how they use those assets, and any number of cycles, trends or shocks in the environment can have an impact on how they manage and benefit from their assets.

3. In the study, analysis examined gendered differences across two closely related dimensions of change, understood in relation to the integral human development framework. The analysis looked at each domain separately, and in terms of how they mutually reinforce one another, to review the interconnections between gender equality and household livelihoods. It explored the level of women and girls’ sense of capability to make life choices. This was important in determining women’s agency to influence decision-making power on issues that affect their lives. This dimension covered women’s social and political assets, and the strategies they create and work with to satisfy practical needs and strategic interests. The analysis also explored access, control and benefit of household and public resources, assets and services and household and community decision-making. This dimension examined the power that women and men hold within the household and community. This lens helped capture who had access to and control of various resources and assets, natural assets, human capital assets, financial assets and social assets. Significantly, the study explored how interactions between and among men and women at the household and community levels affect who has access to, and benefits from, program interventions and resources.

4. The integral human development framework helps determine and analyse existing power structures in the household, and how they are embedded in community beliefs - and by extension county government institutions - to be able to define the patterns of gender-
participation in decision-making, including decisions on policy-making. As such, the reproduction of gender inequalities and their contribution to the risk of food insecurity were examined through the integral human development lenses. The framework also helps explore the extent to which men, women, boys and girls are socio-politically active in their communities, including the level of organizational structure which should be considered in capacity strengthening strategies.

5. In the study, cross-analysis using the framework revealed that changes in the social, economic and environmental assets affect male and female members of the household differently, and efforts must be made for insecure groups to be resilient to shocks. Broader systems (county government disaster coordination units, county government steering committees, sub-county disaster coordination units and committees at the village level) and structures (county government disaster policies, legislations, policies on hunger safety nets and institutional practices) must be responsive to the different needs and interests of women, girls, boys and men to enable them to improve their food sufficiency and security. A transformation in the systems and structures can create an enabling environment that provides greater access to assets, and a wider array of livelihood strategies that increase community resilience.

1.2.2 Sample and sampling procedures for the study

In the sample size determination, two assumptions underscored the approach. First, this was a formative study and as such had no known number of beneficiaries of the WFP projects across the communities spread in the four study sites. Secondly, the study assumed that the potential number of beneficiaries across the studies would be more than 10,000, and that the number of women to men who stand a chance to benefit from the WFP interventions is equal (i.e. enjoy a maximum variability by way of statistics). As such, it was important to collect quantitative information at the household levels to compute the patterns of gender relations, participation in the division of labour, access and control over resources, the gendered participation in decision-making and how these relationships shape vulnerability to food insecurity or the risk of the same. The following formula was used to compute the sample size:

\[ n = \frac{z^2pq}{e^2} \]

Where:
- \( n \) = required sample size
- \( p \) = 1-q (variance expected in the responses assumed to be 50:50 proportion rate).
- \( Z \) = Z score value at 95 percent confidence level (standard value of 1.96)
- \( q \) = Estimated responses.
- \( e \) = Level of precision or margin of error at +/−5 percent (standard value of 0.05).

The formula for calculating sample size is

\[ n = (1.96)^2 \times (0.5)(0.5) \]

\[ = 384 \]

This is rounded to 400

Thus, \( n=400 \) respondents
The study employed multi-stage sampling. The first stage consisted of constructing the clusters on the basis of selected counties forming the four clusters. In the second stage, livelihood zones within each county were mapped out. In the third stage, a deliberate effort was undertaken to target different ethnic groups. Once a location was agreed on by the research team, the respondents for household surveys were then randomly selected. However, caution was taken to ensure a gender balance in the selection process.

In Baringo, the study covered Mogotio, Baringo North, Baringo South, Loboi, and Kisanana as shown in figure 2 below:
In **Samburu**, the study covered Samburu East and Samburu Central as shown in figure 3 below:

**Figure 3: Study sites in Samburu County**

In **Marsabit**, the study covered Laisamis (Loiyangalani), Laisamis (Elmolo Bay), Moyale (Qalaliwe), Manyatta Jilo, Moyale (Tesso) and North Horr (Maikona) as shown in figure 4.

**Figure 4: Study sites in Marsabit County**

### 1.2.3 Data collection

#### The survey questionnaires

In the study, 410 questionnaires were administered at the household level. The aim was to capture the existing gender gaps, and the varying degrees of vulnerabilities of women and men in the counties sampled. The questionnaire collected data on the socio-demographic profiles of the respondents, the access and control over household assets, and the gender-specific patterns in participation and influence in the county governments as regards policy-making including leadership at the local level. Gender specific patterns of participation and influence were examined among civil servants at county level (technical staff, NDMA staff) engaged in food security as well as emergency preparedness and response. In each questionnaire, sex, age and relationship to the household head of the main respondent was sought so as to assist with the identification of different perceptions of men and women...
of different age groups during analysis. The type of household (male/female single headed, widow/widower headed, child-headed, polygamous) was captured by the questionnaire, to allow for analyses comparing the variable outcomes among each of these household types, versus their vulnerability to food security.

**Literature review**

In developing the context for this study, the CCPs for Wajir, Marsabit, Samburu and Baringo were reviewed to understand the nature of WFP and county government partnerships including the coordinating mechanisms put in place. In addition, capacity gaps and needs assessment reports across the selected four counties were analysed, to illuminate capacity strengthening issues raised on security safety nets and emergency response. The review also included the WFP Gender Policy 2015-2020 (2015), the WFP Kenya Country Brief (2016), the WFP Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping for Kenya (2015), the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (2011), the National Disaster Management Policy (2006), the draft County Government Disaster Management Bill (2014), and county government disaster preparedness and management policy documents for Baringo and Wajir.

**Focus group discussions**

Focus group discussions play a key part in capturing normative data and information among community members. Preformatted guides were used to collect data across the following areas: knowledge of WFP activities, gender relations and their impact on food security, gender access and control over resources, perceptions of gender and community leadership (decision-making), and current interventions and their potential impact on gender-sensitive programming. The qualitative data generated have provided key insights for understanding the gender dynamics of WFP interventions and activities. It showed ways in which these interventions promote women’s participation as well as the sensitivity of emergency response initiatives and interventions aimed at fighting hunger and food insecurity. It also highlighted the relationships between men, women, boys and girls in these counties, and the inequalities in these relationships that create or exacerbate the risk of food insecurity, including participation in food security and emergency preparedness. During the study, participants in the focus group discussions ranged between 6 and 12 people, with separate discussions held for women and men. The aim was to take care of the gender disparities, gendered experiences, customary prohibitions against mixed discussions between men and women, and to capture the silent conversations which would not otherwise surface in mixed-group discussions. A total of 24 focus group discussions were carried out. To be effective, discussions were segmented across the following age-groups:

- youth (men and women) between 18-35 years;
- middle-aged persons 36-49 years; and
- elderly persons above 50 years.

**Key informant interviews**

To complement the information collected from literature reviews and focus group discussion, key informant interviews were conducted with purposively selected individuals on the basis of their know-how, profession, and/or being part of CCP initiatives between WFP and county governments. Beyond offering clarity on data, from desk reviews and focus group discussions, the key informant interviews were able to bring out issues relevant to:
gender-specific dynamics of participation in food security, emergency preparedness and response-related coordination structures at county level. Interviews also explored the ability of key informants to engage in coalitions, and the potential effect of current capacity building initiatives to promote gender equality and support gender-sensitive programming in food security and emergency preparedness. During the study, directors of livestock, agriculture, health, gender and social affairs, and disaster coordination units were interviewed, along with NDMA coordinators and chief officers in each of the four counties and representatives of WFP implementing partners.

1.2.4 Recruitment and training of enumerators

Enumerators were recruited from the respective counties. Priority was given to candidates who not only possessed specific skills and experience relevant to this study, but had shown a positive attitude and commitment towards the advancement of gender equality. Enumerators comprised men and women so as to improve data quality due to the gender-related topics and gender-disaggregated groups for the focus group discussions. Having facilitators of the same sex as the discussants was deemed important in contributing to a relaxed and open discussion atmosphere. For the household questionnaires, balancing male and female enumerators minimized bias introduced due to culturally defined unequal gender relations.

To understand the context and contents of the study, the principal investigator (the consultant) trained the research assistants and enumerators on the study protocols, including listing and data collection. During training, the importance and rationale behind collecting sex-disaggregated data was emphasised. The consultant also demonstrated how to phrase questions in a way that generates appropriate responses for the study.

1.2.5 Recruitment of study participants and consenting procedure

The trained enumerators and research assistants helped with the identification of study participants. The purpose of the study was then explained to the participants as part of gaining consent. To receive the approval of local authorities, the consultant visited either the offices of the chief or the county commissioner to explain the purpose of the study. A focal point from WFP was present at these meetings. As part of obtaining informed consent from study participants, the research team provided information about the purpose and duration of the study along with its possible risks and benefits. They also outlined each participant’s right to confidentiality and withdraw from the study. As a rule of the thumb, only participants who voluntarily offered to participate in the study were recruited.

1.2.6 Fieldwork

Quantitative data collection: Household interviews

During fieldwork, the enumerators assisted in the identification of the clusters to be visited. They were aided by community leaders and the village elder in charge of the village. The village elders also acted as the point of authority and security in the villages visited. Household data collection targeted the household heads or any other person responsible or knowledgeable. The member of the household had to be aged 18 years or above.
Qualitative data collection: Focus group and key informant interviews

Participants for the qualitative approach were recruited at the location level. A local mobilizer, who had participated in WFP activities, helped with the identification and mobilization of the focus group discussion participants. Participants for key informant interviews were recruited from the county government, WFP local partners and representatives from the national government (NDMA coordinators).

1.2.7 Quality assurance procedures

The consultant and WFP focal persons in the field played a significant role in checking the quality of the data collected. They accompanied the research assistants to the households and focus group discussion sites to observe the recruitment process. At the end of every field day, completed questionnaires and discussion notes were cross-checked for consistency and depth of probe.

1.2.8 Data management and analysis

a) Quantitative data analysis

The questionnaire items were coded, and then the data entered into IBM SPSS Statistics 20. Raw data was scrutinised for erroneous and missing values that could have been entered, by looking back at questionnaires. Data was explored to identify any outliers and extreme values, and also to test for normality, to determine the appropriate statistical techniques. Reliability tests were performed by visual check, percentiles, outliers and normality plots with accompanying statistical tests. Analysis of the data was carried out using a combination of designs, including descriptive statistics, which included means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages and inferential analysis in the form of Pearson's tests of association. Graphical illustrations were used to illustrate the findings. The frequency distribution and percentages were used to record the number of times a score occurs, and the extent of occurrence of a particular observation respectively.

b) Qualitative data analysis

The qualitative data from focus group discussions and key informant interviews, recorded during collection, were transcribed. The transcripts were then assessed for their thematic relevance, and illustrative quotes included in the quantitative findings.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>METHOD</th>
<th>TARGET RESPONDENTS AND/OR INFORMANTS</th>
<th>OBJECTIVES ADDRESSED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The survey questionnaires</strong>&lt;br/&gt;Household level</td>
<td>Household respondents</td>
<td>To establish relationships between men, women, boys and girls in each county, and the inequalities in these relationships that creates the risk of or exacerbates food insecurity.&lt;br/&gt;To assess ways in which gender inequality is reproduced, including the influence of gender relations, roles, status, inequalities and discrimination in access to and control of resources.&lt;br/&gt;To establish gender-specific patterns in participation and influence in the county governments, as regards policy-making (county executive committee, county assembly) and the legal frameworks that support these.&lt;br/&gt;To assess gender-specific patterns of participation and influence among civil servants at county level (technical staff, NDMA staff) who are engaged in food security and emergency preparedness and response.&lt;br/&gt;To determine gender-specific dynamics of participation in food security and emergency preparedness and response-related coordination structures at county level, and their ability to engage in coalitions and advocacy in these forums.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focus group discussions</strong>&lt;br/&gt;Community level</td>
<td>6 focus group discussions conducted as per the following criteria below:&lt;br/&gt;Youth (men and women) between 18-35 years&lt;br/&gt;Middle-aged persons 36-49 years&lt;br/&gt;Elderly persons above 50 years&lt;br/&gt;The focus group discussions were conducted in each of the study sites covered by household surveys</td>
<td>The focus group discussions offered clarity across the above listed objectives by giving more in-depth and normative qualitative data to the observed trends. Furthermore, they offered sites for debating groups’ unique experiences with WFP activities and what they thought would work better.&lt;br/&gt;The focus group discussions shed light on:&lt;br/&gt;knowledge of WFP activities among the local communities, and the participation of men and women including perceived economic production empowerment among the beneficiaries;&lt;br/&gt;gender and participation in local governance institutions and structures including those of emergency coordination, as well as the perceived inclusion of diverse groups in the institutions especially women, youth and people with disability;&lt;br&gt;cultural norms prevalent within the counties and how these affect access and control over resources, as well as practices around food production and eating habits, including the contribution to household food security by men and women; and&lt;br&gt;early warning information access, and the sensitivity of channels use to reach different gender-and age-segregated groups within the counties.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key informant interviews</strong>&lt;br/&gt;Institutional level</td>
<td><strong>Samburu:</strong>&lt;br/&gt;NDMA County Drought Coordinator, Director of Livestock, Director of Agriculture, Director of Education, Ramati Development Initiative Programme Coordinator, Director Gender and Social Affairs, WFP Head of County Satellite Office&lt;br/&gt;<strong>Marsabit:</strong>&lt;br/&gt;NDMA County Drought Coordinator, Director of Agriculture, Director of Livestock, World Vision Officer, Director of Gender Affairs, Cohesion Coordinator&lt;br/&gt;<strong>Wajir:</strong>&lt;br/&gt;Director of Agriculture, Director of Livestock, NDMA County Coordinator, Chief Officer Public Service, Director of Gender Affairs&lt;br/&gt;<strong>Baringo:</strong>&lt;br/&gt;NDMA County Coordinator, Director of Gender and Social Services, Director of Agriculture, Director of Livestock, Head of World Vision Baringo Office, Disaster Coordinator</td>
<td><strong>Samburu:</strong>&lt;br/&gt;NDMA County Drought Coordinator, Director of Livestock, Director of Agriculture, Director of Education, Ramati Development Initiative Programme Coordinator, Director Gender and Social Affairs, WFP Head of County Satellite Office&lt;br/&gt;<strong>Marsabit:</strong>&lt;br/&gt;NDMA County Drought Coordinator, Director of Agriculture, Director of Livestock, World Vision Officer, Director of Gender Affairs, Cohesion Coordinator&lt;br/&gt;<strong>Wajir:</strong>&lt;br/&gt;Director of Agriculture, Director of Livestock, NDMA County Coordinator, Chief Officer Public Service, Director of Gender Affairs&lt;br/&gt;<strong>Baringo:</strong>&lt;br/&gt;NDMA County Coordinator, Director of Gender and Social Services, Director of Agriculture, Director of Livestock, Head of World Vision Baringo Office, Disaster Coordinator</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Gender and Access to Food: Questioning The Relationship

Globally, evidence abounds to the extent that gender-inequality and food insecurity\(^2\) are almost inseparable. Therefore, questioning the relationship between gender and food access\(^3\) should be viewed as a human rights goal on its own. Evidence from FAO (2009) shows a strong correlation between gender inequality, and food and nutrition insecurity. The FAO 2009 report states that the food security and nutrition needs of women and girls are neglected at the household, local, national and international level due to inequitable food systems, and discriminatory social and cultural norms. While access to food is a human right for all, gender dynamics play a big role in the food and nutrition security of individuals. This is evident within the households where some members may be malnourished, while others have sufficient food.

In some societies, women and children are the victims of food discrimination.

In many households and communities, women are often economically and socially disadvantaged, less educated, earn less than men for equal work, and have less voice and agency. Decisions are made by men, frequently to the detriment of women. Not only are women and girls affected directly, but members of their households and communities are also affected inter- and intra-generationally. More women are affected by hunger than men, even in humanitarian situations following natural and man-made disasters.

Access to food can be achieved in a number of ways including:

- own production, for those who have access to land and can exploit it;
- employment and self-employment, generating income and thus allowing purchase of food;
- social transfers, including food-for-work or cash-for-work programmes, and cash transfers or other forms of solidarity within households or communities;\(^4\) and
- relief humanitarian efforts in form of food rations, food and cash vouchers.

In many developing countries, women have the primary responsibility of household food provisioning, and they make up 20 - 50 percent of farmers and farm workers.

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\(^2\) FAO (1996) defines food security as a situation where all people at all times have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food needed to maintain a healthy and active life. Food security incorporates food availability, food accessibility, food utilization and stability of food supply.

\(^3\) Food access refers to physical and economic access to food; it is the ability to obtain an appropriate and nutritious diet and is in particular linked to resources at the household level. Besides physical and economic access, food has to be culturally acceptable.

depending on the region. Women and girls are heavily involved in all aspects of agricultural production, processing and distribution. They are largely responsible for production that benefits local consumption, including subsistence crops such as vegetables. Men tend to be more involved in producing cash crops. Besides accessing food through one’s own agriculture production, food can also be accessed through income generation and waged labour. In the context of Africa, for example, female labour force participation rates are high, and may reach 85–90 percent in countries such as Burundi, Tanzania and Rwanda. In many other countries, participation rates for men and women are equal, or nearly so. While this may be so, labour markets are heavily gender-segregated, with women working primarily in low-paying occupations. Many are likely to be self-employed in the informal sector, as within the formal sector, women hold 4 of every 10 jobs and earn on average two-thirds the salary of their male colleagues as a majority of African countries do not have laws against gender discrimination in hiring.

Women’s ability to maximize their incomes from farming, and other activities, is crucial to food security and nutrition. Evidence has shown that when women, rather than men, control income more is spent on food and education, and less on alcohol, cigarettes and other non-food items. The nutrition and health improvements for children that a USD 10 increase in women’s income generates would require a USD 110 increase in male income. Evidence has shown that a child’s chances of survival increase by 20 percent when the mother controls the household budget. Women, therefore, play a decisive role in food security, dietary diversity and children’s health. Women also tend to save more of generated income, and thus improve the household’s food security in times of natural disasters, such as drought.

The ability to access food depends on power. To produce, to purchase and to access food in intra-household allocation mechanisms. As women have less power and status than men, this translates directly into weaker access to food. Even in a humanitarian context, where there are general food distribution interventions, entitlements are often issued in women’s names. But women do not always retain control over the food after leaving the distribution site. Men and women have different roles in society, and face different opportunities and constraints. Good agricultural policy must consider gender differences, as policies and institutions often have different impacts on men and women, even when no explicit discrimination is intended. During crisis, families adopt coping mechanisms. In some instances, they may be negative coping mechanisms such as reducing the number of meals consumed per day or substituting market sourced goods and services with family sourced goods and services (e.g. child care and elementary healthcare). This consequently increases the unpaid work time of women and girls. Evidence reveals that girls, particularly adolescent girls, are the first to be removed from school in times of crisis.

Food discrimination and taboos also play a role. For example, in many societies women and girls eat the food remaining after the
male family members have eaten. Women, girls, the sick and disabled are the main victims of food discrimination, which results in chronic under nutrition and ill-health. In many regions of South Asia, women tend to eat the least, or to eat leftovers after other family members have eaten. Even when women produce food, the intra-household allocation of food may well disfavour them, due to beliefs about the value of women as compared to men. This affects the nutrition security of individuals, even in instances where food is available.

When gender inequalities exist in relation to the control of productive assets, women farmers tend to have restricted access to essential inputs such as land, credit, fertilizers, new technologies and extension services. As a result, their yields tend to be significantly lower than men’s. A survey by the African Development Bank showed that, in Ethiopia, female farmers produce 26 percent less than male farmers, and, in Ghana, they produce 17 percent less. In sub-Saharan Africa, customary land tenure systems widely exclude women from ownership or control of land, and women represent just 15 percent of landholders. Across many regions of the world, women’s landholdings tend to be smaller and of poorer quality than those held by men. Under many customary legal systems, women’s rights to inherit land also are restricted, and they are vulnerable to dispossession on divorce or widowhood. Insecure land rights lead to underinvestment. Women farmers’ opportunities to build their capacity are also limited. Only 5 percent of women farmers, spanning 97 countries, have access to agricultural and other training activities, and only 15 per cent of agricultural extension agents are women (FAO 2013).

Credit markets are not gender-neutral, and women may be hindered from accessing financial services by cultural assumptions, formal legal barriers to entering into contracts in their own name, or by a lack of financial literacy. They often lack the assets that financial institutions demand as collateral. While many microcredit institutions and informal savings associations lend to women, microfinance does not address the needs of women who wish to expand beyond the microenterprise level. Women say lack of finance is the biggest constraint on business expansion. In Uganda, women own 38 percent of all registered enterprises, but access only 9 percent of formal finance. In Kenya, despite owning 48 percent of micro and small enterprises, women access only 7 percent of credit. Yet we know that women invest more in family food, nutrition, education and health when they have direct access to financial services.

Gender equality, and the empowerment of women and girls, cannot be achieved without taking into account the socio-cultural context. It will often be necessary to increase the knowledge of male and female decision-makers at all levels regarding the links between gender equality, nutrition and food security. Targeted activities for men and boys that increase their understanding of women’s essential role in food security and nutrition, and the importance of girls’ education, for example, are fundamental to bringing about sustainable and transformative social change. This also applies in situations where men and boys have specific vulnerabilities, or face rigid definitions of masculinity that prevent them from engaging in roles such as carer,
Considering the multi-dimensional nature of food security governance, the international community and civil society should work together to eliminate discrimination under the law, to promote equal access to resources and opportunities, to ensure that agricultural policies and programmes are gender-aware, and to make women’s voices heard as equal partners for sustainable development. Achieving gender equality and empowering women in agriculture is crucial for agricultural development and food security.

2.2 Kenya’s National Food and Nutrition Security Policy: Gender-aware or neutral

The goal of the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy of Kenya (2011) is that: “All Kenyans, throughout their life-cycle enjoy at all times safe food in sufficient quantity and quality to satisfy their nutritional needs for optimal health”.

The broad objectives of the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (FNSP) are:

- to achieve good nutrition for optimum health of all Kenyans;
- to increase the quantity and quality of food available, accessible and affordable to all Kenyans at all times; and
- to protect vulnerable populations using innovative and cost-effective safety nets linked to long-term development.

The FNSP seeks to provide an overarching framework covering the multiple dimensions of food security and nutrition by adding value and creating synergy to existing sectoral and other initiatives of government and partners. It recognizes the need for public and private sector involvement, and that hunger eradication and nutrition improvement is a shared responsibility for all Kenyans. The policy and associated actions is envisaged to be dynamic in addressing contextual challenges and changing conditions over time and it is framed in the context of basic human rights, child rights and women’s rights, including the universal ‘Right to Food’.

In the Kenya FNSP, the strategic approach for policy implementation, monitoring and evaluation indicates that it will be “a strong logical and realistic strategic framework with associated programmes and action plans”. The actions will be purposefully linked and coordinated with one another, and with sectoral initiatives of government and partners at national and sub-national levels. Advocacy and working with the media is part of the...
While access to food is a human right for all, gender dynamics play a big role in the food and nutrition security of individuals. Gender equality contribution to a country’s economic growth is the single most important determinant of food security FAO & ADB 2013:1. Security, by doing so, it fails to recognize the gender roles imposed on women, men, boys and girls and how this affects their food and nutrition security, and therefore the FNSP can be classified as Gender Blind policy.

Implementation policy. The strategy is envisioned to be dynamic, and will employ a phased approach, implemented in a way that acknowledges changes in people’s food security and nutritional status and conditions over time. To measure progress, the policy will include an effective monitoring and evaluation system to help identify particularly successful and effective initiatives, and guide the strategic re-phasing of the programme over time. Existing institutional coordinating mechanisms at national and sub-national levels will be strengthened and broadened to support the FNSP and related strategies and programmes. The FNSP also addresses the need for an institutional and legal framework and financing through the enactment of relevant legislation and mobilization of sufficient resources in order to achieve key objectives.  

On food accessibility, the policy outlines measures for increasing and improving both on-farm and off-farm opportunities, improving food accessibility for the urban and peri-urban poor and addressing the cultural, social and political practices and systems that affect food security. Specific measures outlined include improving infrastructure (e.g. roads, market information services), improving security and access to land, reviewing minimum wages, increasing access to technology and value addition and simplifying and facilitating business processes. While women in Kenya, as in many parts of Africa, face various obstacles that continue to limit their access and control of productive resources as well as decent off-farm employment, the policy only recognizes ‘land use’ of women, children etc., and not their control or lack of it.

The FNSP acknowledges that gender disparities, culture and political variables affect food access. To this end, the Government’s obligation under the Constitution is to eliminate gender inequality (see adjacent box). However, there are no specific measure listed to address gender issues. The policy misses the opportunity to reshape well known existing gender discrimination to ensure that women, as well as men, can improve their productivity and maximize their income-generating potential. The policy further fails to draw

the links between access to employment and capacities to generate income with education, health and employment policies.

As regards the utilization dimension, one broad objective of the policy is: “To achieve good nutrition for optimum health of all Kenyans.”13 The proposed strategies for nutrition improvement include providing special nutrition interventions for specific vulnerable groups (e.g. maternal, newborn), addressing non-communicable diet-related diseases as well as infectious diseases that impact on or are impacted by insufficient nutrition like TB and HIV/AIDS. The strategies outlined deal with provision of micro nutrient supplementation, using the life cycle approach based on biological needs, and they include school nutrition and nutrition awareness, therapeutic and supplementary feeding, water and sanitation programmes among others. However, the policy fails to outline measures to deal with the gendered norms and practices that affect decision-making and eating habits on who eats what, when and why. While food may be available and accessible, there may be intra-household dynamics that affect the nutrition of different household members. It also fails to address school nutrition in a socially transformative manner to empower the disadvantaged to address strategic gender concerns.

2.3 Legal and institutional frameworks on disaster management in Kenya

At the national level, the Kenya National Policy on Disaster Management (2006) seeks to institutionalize mechanisms for addressing disasters. It emphasizes preparedness on the part of the Government, communities and other stakeholders in disaster risk reduction (DRR) activities. Based on lessons learned, it aims to establish and strengthen disaster management institutions, partnerships, networking and to mainstream DRR in the development process, so as to strengthen the resilience of vulnerable groups to cope with potential disasters.14 At the county level, the Senate’s County Governments Disaster Management Bill 2014 provides guidelines for effective management of disaster by the county governments. The Bill seeks to provide a uniform legislation to regulate the exercise of this function of disaster management by the county governments. The Bill establishes a County Disaster Management Authority (CDMA) for each county, which has power to implement disaster management measures.

2.3.1 Emergency profile in Kenya

According to the National Disaster Management Policy (2006), Kenya’s disaster profile is dominated by droughts, fire, floods, terrorism, technological accidents, diseases and epidemics that disrupt people’s livelihoods, destroy infrastructure, divert planned use of resources, interrupt economic activities and

Both the National Policy on Disaster management of 2006 and the Senate County Bill (2014) do not articulate Gender Equality as a guiding principle, nor make reference to how the different policy areas will incorporate gender. The Senate County Bill makes no mention of the linkages with previous existing district and divisional disaster management organs which operated under the national government architecture.


retard development. The FNSP outlines the causes of emergencies in Kenya as chronic poverty-based food insecurity, periodic droughts, floods, diseases and civil strife. Floods are a regular event, and are generally more localized than droughts. Heavy rainfall and floods have also increased the burden of human and livestock disease, which has required special emergency initiatives owing to the serious threats to human health, while also affecting trade.

Both policies concur that communities in Kenya are predisposed to disasters by a combination of factors such as poverty, aridity, settlement in areas prone to perennial flooding or areas with poor infrastructure and services, such as the informal urban settlements or even living in poorly constructed buildings. These factors, coupled with naturally occurring hazards such as droughts, floods, landslides and epidemic outbreaks are currently exacerbated by climatic phenomena and pose extremely high and increasing disaster risks to the Kenyan society. In addition, there are a wide range of emerging disasters.

2.3.2 Conceptualizing disasters from a gender lens

Emergency situations are times of strife, sometimes accompanied by a breakdown of social systems. They are periods where insecurity is of concern. The WFP Gender Policy (2015) recognizes that “humanitarian crises, whether human made or natural hazards, almost always aggravate food insecurity and under nutrition, exacerbate gender inequalities, and have different impacts on women, men, girls and boys, with the potential to reverse hard-won development gains”. It advocates for the application of a gender lens in crisis, so as to increases the effectiveness of targeting and the efficiency of programme delivery to the people whose lives are most at risk. Gender and protection are incorporated as cross cutting issues, so that food assistance is provided in a way that does no harm to the safety, dignity and integrity of those receiving it, and is provided in ways that respect their rights. The policy recognizes that that gender-based violence and sexual exploitation and abuse are real possibilities. It seeks to ensure that it adheres to the minimum standards advocated in the Inter-Agency Standing Committee's gender and gender-based violence guidelines.

In the Kenyan context, the FNSP's twin track approach seeks to meet the needs of the chronically vulnerable and to respond to emergencies. These efforts are linked with broader development initiatives to address chronic poverty, the key underlying cause of food insecurity. Specifically in relation to emergencies, the FNSP states: “The Government will protect vulnerable populations and address food insecurity concerns in developing capacity, for purposes of early warning and emergency management, using innovative and cost-effective safety nets and emergency relief programmes linked to long-term development.”

The policy does not clearly articulate the gender and protection concerns, which are linked to the levels and types of risk to which people of different sexes and ages are exposed to. There is no mention of the gendered impact of disasters or crises, nor on the commensurate negative or positive gendered responses. Therefore,
in such an information vacuum, the policy strategies may “do harm”. It is also not clear how strategies may contribute to gender inequality or discrimination, and pose the danger of perpetuating existing forms of oppression, and limiting their autonomy. In humanitarian crises, whether man-made or naturally caused, sexual violence is of concern. Not factoring gender in analysis and response is a protection issue. Inappropriate or inadequately planned initiatives may increase forms of gender oppression such as gender-based violence and sexual exploitation and abuse.

2.3.4 Early warning and emergency preparedness

In Kenya, both the Government (national and county government) and development partners operate early warning systems. They collect information and data for integrated food and nutrition security analysis, in addition to rapid screening at community level. This helps in early detection of child malnutrition and timely response. Within the FSNP, national information systems are wanting. Agro-meteorological data is insufficient, partly due to insufficient technology use, and because it is not timely, and does not cover critical areas such as the arid and semi-arid lands. Agricultural statistics are aggregated and do not show clearly the sub-national picture, which is useful for contextual analysis. The low response rate, reliability and timeliness of market information is also a gap area. The picture is further compounded by poorly managed health and nutrition data. While the Government has outlined strategies for integrated data, information systems and analysis, it is not clear what strategies will be employed for the collection, analysis and use of sex and age-disaggregated data.

Conclusion

While a focus on gender equality issues has assumed steadily growing importance within the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Kenya’s policies on food security do not maximize the synergy between gender equality and food security. Considering that the policy was formulated in 2011, and in view of the new Constitution, several considerations need to be made in regard to the incorporation of international, regional and local legal obligations on treaties and conventions ratified. While the FSNP is a technically good document on the issues addressed, the process of attaining the outcome is equally of great significance. The policy needs to address gender as a social construct, and in line with the human rights framework and seek to empower the disadvantaged to enjoy their rights in equality. The government policy does not make reference to gender mainstreaming or targeted action as an approach to close remaining gender gaps and achieve better gender equality outcomes in food security. It will need to refer to existing gender documents and mechanism to make its approach gender sensitive.

3.0 FINDINGS

3.1 Introduction

The analysis has brought out significant revelations on gender dimensions of food security, especially when examined through the prism of emergency preparedness and response. Dimensions highlighted and discussed cut across the demographic characteristics of the respondents and their implications for household food security, the questions with respect to gender dynamics in access to and control over household assets, gender and decision-making power within the communities studied. The analysis looks beyond the household, to the community and county government levels. This approach allows for contextualisation of gender issues at the broader institutional level.

3.2 Demographic characteristics of respondents

3.2.1 Gender of the respondents

Gender was deemed an important variable in the study, given its relationship with food security within the household. Furthermore, given the study’s interests in exploring gendered relationships across the household, community and institutional (local governance structures and county government) levels, it was important to capture the opinions of men and women. In the study, 410 interviews were conducted at household levels in four counties (Marsabit (100), Samburu (100), Baringo (110) and Wajir (100). As per figure 5, men comprised 45.5 percent, while women comprised 54.5 percent.

Figure 5: Gender of respondents

3.2.2 Marital status of the respondents

The marital status of respondents was measured in five different categories (never married, married (monogamy), married (polygamy), divorced and widowed). It was considered useful to measure the marital status of the respondents because individuals in different matrimonial arrangements have different experiences as far as household food security is concerned. For instance, polygamous households are characterized with a big family size, which means more dependants to feed. This might put a lot of strain on food sources in emergencies such as famine or drought compared to monogamous arrangements. The status and decision-making power of wives in polygamous families is also likely to vary according factors such as how many other
women are present in the family, the age-difference between her and the husband and where she stands in the hierarchy of wives.

Similarly, female headed households are often considered to be more vulnerable than male headed households. This vulnerability depends on the reasons why they are considered single-headed, hence, the categories single, divorced, widowed. The findings indicate that most of the respondents, 61.5 percent, were in a monogamous marriage. Another 18.3 percent were in a polygamous marriage, while those who reported being widowed comprised 8 percent of the respondents. Those never married or single comprised 8.5 percent of the study, while 3.6 percent were divorced. The findings are summarized in figure 6 below.

3.2.3 Relationship of the respondent to the head of the household

To understand intra-household power dynamics, respondents were asked to state their relationships to the head of their households. This is because the head of the household is usually the main income earner and/or decision-maker in the household. Four options given were given (head of the household, spouse, child and other relatives). The findings indicate that the majority of the 407 respondents were the heads of the households (59.5 percent) comprising 40 percent male, and 19.5 percent female. A total of 141 respondents were spouses (34.9 percent), 19 were children (4.6 percent) and 4 were other relatives (1 percent). The findings are summarized in table 2 below. Table 3 shows household heads segregated by gender.

Table 2: Relationship to head of household

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship to head of household</th>
<th>Gender frequencies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head of household</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other relative (cousins, nephew, nieces, etc)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Head of household by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head of household Frequency</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>163</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head of household Percentage (N= 407)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
<td>59.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2.4 Education level of the respondents

Determining education level by gender is significant in determining proxies for school attendance, as well the gender gaps in education levels. Higher education equips individuals with skills that translate to professional employment, appropriate food production as well as the ability create employment for themselves. This enables them to have the capacities to produce or purchase food for their households. Information regarding education level can also inform the type of informal training and extension service package appropriate for various gender and age groups during capacity building programmes aimed at promoting gender equality and women’s empowerment. Education level is also important in determining skills that would facilitate active participation in income generating activities. Five levels of education achievements were investigated, from those who never attended school, to those who reached university. The findings of this study revealed that majority of the respondents never attended school (49.8 percent). Segregated by sex this is 58.1 percent of women and 38.9 percent of men. The study found a low level of specialized education (college and university) and women were the most under-represented in this case. This leaves them economically and socially disadvantaged and more vulnerable during the emergency periods. The findings are summarized in figure 7.

Figure 7: Education level of the respondents

3.2.5 Occupation of the respondents

Occupation is a major determinant of access to food within the household. Beyond one’s own production, food can be accessed by using income generated through employment or social transfers, including food-for-work or cash-for-work programmes, and cash transfers or other forms of solidarity within households. In the study, occupation was measured in five categories. The findings indicate that a majority of the respondents were self-employed (52.9 percent) while a meagre 4.6 percent reported to be formally employed. The findings are summarized in table 4.
Table 4: Occupation of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal employment</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employment/Business/Farming</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>52.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not employed</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>410</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.6 Income level of respondents

To determine economic status, the study looked at the average monthly income of the households for the past six months. The findings indicate that 29 percent of respondents had an average monthly income of between KSh 0 and KSh 2,999, another 28.3 percent earned between KSh 3,000 and KSh 5,999, with 27.1 percent reporting an income of between KSh 6,000 to KSh 9,999. Those above KSh 10,000 comprised 15.6 percent. This is summarized in figure 8.

Furthermore, the study compared the income categories by gender. A total of 36.5 percent of women earned below KSh 3,000, compared to 18.9 percent of men in the same category. In the range of KSh 3,000 to KSh 5,999, women comprised 30 percent, while men comprised 26.5 percent. Most of the men (34 percent) reported having an income of between KSh 6,000 and KSh 9,999 compared to 21.6 percent of women in the same category. This dominance of men in this income level was also evident among those earning above KSh 10,000, with men comprising 20.5 percent, compared to 11.7 percent for women.

Overall, the study indicates women are concentrated in the low-income brackets, even though they spend much of their income in sourcing household food. The findings are summarized in figure 9 below.

![Figure 9: Estimate of average monthly income by gender](image_url)

Respondents were asked who contributed to the above-mentioned income in their particular households. An assessment of whether, and where, women contribute income, is significant in sex-segregated societies. Women’s contribution of income could be an indicator of their mobility outside their homes. Similarly, it could be an indication of the vulnerability of the household when...
women are forced to work outside their homes, where cultural constraints exist. The respondents reported that both men and women contribute to the income of the household at 32.7 percent. However, when women and men were scored separately, the findings revealed that men contributed more than women to their household’s income at 43.9 percent, whereas women recorded 22.0 percent. The findings are summarised in figure 10 below.

Figure 10: Overall contributors of household income

The households were asked to state their main sources of income over the past six months. The results revealed that most sold animals to earn their income (21.5 percent), engaged in rural temporary work (19.8 percent), engaged in business (21.5 percent) or sold agricultural products (16.6 percent). These results are summarised in figure 11 below.

Figure 11: Main source of income for household over the past 6 months

Households were also asked to rate the stability of their income over the past six months (very stable, stable, moderately stable, unstable and very unstable). The findings indicate that 40.7 percent of the households rated their income as being unstable, whereas 42.0 percent reported being moderately stable. Only 0.7 percent of the households reported being very stable.
The findings are summarized in figure 12 below.

![Stability of household income over the past 6 months]

3.3 Gender dynamics and livelihood sources

The study analysed gender and the perceived ability to influence choices within the household and the community. It also examined the gender dimensions of access, control over and ownership of resources and assets within the household and community in the prevalent cultural context of each study site. As the household survey did not explicitly refer to the prevalent norms, customs and values that influence male and female relations in decision-making, these dimensions were assessed through focus group discussions.

Culture was determined to occupy a significant place in understanding the gender and food security situation within the households.

3.3.1 Gender and ability to make life choices

In the four counties, prevailing rigid gendered cultural norms, values and practices influence how girls and boys are socialized, and how they come to understand themselves as adults. Women and girls reported an inability to voice or articulate their interests and influence decisions in the households and community decision-making processes.

There is a tendency to confine women’s role to the private domain. However, there are household decisions that are still left to men, especially those that touch on disposal of household assets and ownership of land. Women were described as lacking the capacity to make ‘serious’ decisions in society, and as people who lack the socially sanctioned authority to make decisions without consulting men. Women are deemed significant as good housekeepers, to be better caregivers to husbands and children, but of being secondary to the authority of men.

Men were seen as heads of the household, community leaders and as persons socially acceptable to be heads in the home and community. Traditional attitudes toward women are changing due increasing female literacy levels, and women’s economic positioning relative to men, amid a more supportive environment for gender equality.

“Women do not participate in public activities at all. Their voice is not beyond the household.”

“Traditionally, men are considered the overall head of the households... Leadership in the community is also entrusted to men. This is depicted in the fact that from the village to the county level, men dominate the leadership.”

– FGD statements

“The only decision we make concerns about food relations that is when to cook, what to cook and how much.”
These recent changes are motivated by the promulgation of the Constitution 2010, resulting in a greater emphasis on gender equality. Women’s empowerment activities seem to change the attitudes held by women and young girls in the community. Furthermore, the increased involvement by women in food-for-work and asset creation programmes is changing the attitudes of men, particularly about the significant roles played by women in ensuring household food security. In this context, there are important opportunities to help women and girls further improve their self-confidence, and their ability to negotiate their needs and interests at household and community levels.

There is evidence that Baringo County has had external support for gender equality and women’s empowerment. Community-based activity levels reported equitable gender relations. They point to a move in women’s empowerment that it is about household welfare, and the “power-with men” rather than “the power-over men”. Though these externally supported structures that promote gender equality and women’s empowerment, women and men reported more equitable gender relations, especially in livelihood activities supported by WFP and partners. Such cases present opportunities to build the capacities of women to make life choices within the households, while at the same time increase their chances to influence community decision-making processes.

Across the board, men’s understanding of being male and female roles reflect dominant stereotypes. Men do not generally view women as leaders, but see themselves as the public decision-makers. While there is an appreciation of women’s contribution to the household well-being, this is viewed by men as something that cannot be translated into public decision-making. There is a fear that women’s quest for involvement in the public space threatens the stability of households, and men’s social power in society. This is reflected in men’s reluctance to support women’s interest in pursuing leadership roles.

3.3.2 Differences among women

The study shows that female heads of households (19.7 percent of the total respondent) have certain advantages over married women. They have greater knowledge and power in household and community decision-making, and greater access to social, political and economic information, especially among the employed and those who reported to be earning above 10,000.

However, poor agro-pastoral female headed households might be dependent on their male relatives to help with the initial ploughing of land for agricultural activities, and at times suffer land deficits where culture dictate strict land ownership through a male lineage, and frown upon single women and widows. For these reasons, female heads of household are much more vulnerable to chronic food insecurity than male heads of households.

“Women are the centre that holds family together.”

“In our community, we are not allowed to take part in leadership roles in organizations.”

Men, women and youth actively participate in community meetings (political, county development planning), chief’s barazas (meetings) and community organizations, and are entitled to equal opportunity to express their views and opinions.

“Women are the centre that holds family together.”
3.3.3 Gender and participation in WFP supported project activities

The study found that women are more active in community self-help groups than men. This is evident in the composition of the FFA programme, and home-grown food programmes supported by WFP in Baringo and Samburu Counties. Beyond acting as community saving groups and a pool of labour, the groups are the focus for undertaking income generating activities.

Membership in self-help groups has important social benefits for women that are often more valuable than the economic benefits. Women reported that these groups built their self-confidence, and provided a safe space to practice leadership skills and learn about their rights. It gave them a sense of social solidarity. This means active and empowered women’s groups are able to build confidence, and have bargaining power in marital and wider social relationships.

Key issues for consideration by WFP and partners to improve gender and self-efficacy in life choices:

Engage men and boys separately to discuss gender norms and promote equality, before bringing them together with girls and women. This should be done at the community level, at the point of seeking community buy-in for asset creation programmes.

Adapt methodologies for community conversations to be more gender transformative, and pilot other participatory empowerment methodologies for social change. For example, WFP could test positive deviance approaches and gender analytical forums, to enable women, men, boys and girls to discuss gender issues for creating more equitable respectful relationships.

3.4 Access and control over resources and decision-making

A study by the World Bank, FAO and the International Fund for Agricultural Development notes that there exists a strong relationship between a woman’s ownership and control of assets, and improved household well-being. However, given the deeply held gender norms, men have a more privileged position to access and take advantage of assets relative to women.

3.4.1 Ownership of livestock and land

The households were asked if they owned livestock and land. They were also asked if they owned bee-hives. As outlined in table 5, goats are the most owned livestock at 61.4 percent.

“Men dominate land, livestock, bee-hives and the sale of their products, while women are left to control the poultry and food.”

Respondents chose from three responses (men only, women only, and men and women). The majority of the respondents, 57.2 percent, reported that in their community women were allowed to access land. However, 66.7 percent of men reported control of land across the four counties. This is summarized in figure 13 below, rounded to whole number. The high access to land reported among women in the study demonstrates that, while they can use the family parcels, they have less decision-making power over land as a resource. Thus, a women’s ability to vary land use practices is limited, which by extension limits the diversification of livelihood sources that require an investment in land. Generally, men are de facto land owners, even in cases of community land, therefore men should have buy-in in all activities.

Table 5: Ownership of assets within households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cattle</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>49.5%</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheep</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>51.1%</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goats</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>61.4%</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camels</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>14.9%</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poultry</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>49.4%</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beehives</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land in acres</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>53.5%</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“We champion community organizations together with our youth.”

3.4.2 Access and control of livestock and land by gender

Livestock and land play very fundamental roles in food security within pastoral and agro-pastoral communities. Land is a useful asset in the production of food and livestock products are either sold to finance food, or consumed directly within households. Therefore, gendered differential access and control of these assets are very important issues in determining the food security of households and were a key focus of the study.

Two questions were asked:

- Who can access x?
- Who has control over x?

“We although the women have access to assets, they are controlled by men. Women don’t own any assets, apart from their dowry. Women who share in decision-making have improvements in their living standards and access to food.”

Figure 13: Access and Control by gender

3.4.3 Gender and household decision-making

Households were also asked to select who made decisions concerning food and decision on members of the family from a list of three options (men only, women only and men and women). This was important in two different ways. First, it helps to gain a better understanding of intra-household decision-making processes and resource
allocation. Secondly, gender inequality in decision-making, especially in matters related to nutrition and where women are underrepresented, can pose a danger to the food security of households. This is because in most cultures, women tend to be assigned with the primary responsibility of providing food for their households. They should therefore be considered key stakeholders in making decisions related to food production, access, and control in their households.

“The only asset women have access and control over is food. What meal to cook, when and how much; these are the decisions women have on issues pertaining to the household only.”

Overall, women were found to dominate decisions regarding food preparation and meals at 88 percent, compared to men at 4.6 percent, and men and women combined at 7.3 percent (summarised in figure 14). However, even where women dominate such decisions on preparation, the cultural norms around eating patterns (that makes them the last members of the household to eat), still puts them at risk of food insecurity in emergency periods. There is preference to serve men in the households before women and children can eat.

Other dimensions used in assessing intra-household power and decision-making were school attendance and number of children to have in the family. Overall, men and women were found to make these sorts of decisions jointly.

3.5 Gender and participation: Community and county institutional levels

This was important in determining the extent to which women and men are politically and socially active in their communities, including their organizational capacities. It determined the level to which men and women are able to influence the decisions at the community and county government institutional levels. The study explored the extent of participation by men and women in political meetings, county development planning meetings, chief’s barazas (meetings), and agricultural meetings as well as community meetings. The findings
showed men dominated: they participated in community meetings at a rate of 44 percent compared to women at 10 percent, county development planning meetings at 43 percent to women’s 13 percent, chief’s barazas at 36 percent to women’s 10 percent, and in agricultural meetings at 31 percent to women’s 11 percent. This is summarized in table 6.

Table 6: Gender and participation in community leadership activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of participation</th>
<th>Men only Percentage</th>
<th>Women only Percentage</th>
<th>Men &amp; Women Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community political meeting</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>46.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County development planning meetings</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief’s barazas</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>54.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural meetings</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>57.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community meetings (chama, groups)</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To assess the gendered influence in community leadership, the study examined the nature of in community participation by women and men at four different levels (village, ward, sub-county and county level). The findings indicate that men dominate all levels of leadership. The findings are summarized in table 7.

Table 7: Gender and representation in community leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Representation in the:</th>
<th>Men only Percentage</th>
<th>Women only Percentage</th>
<th>Men &amp; Women Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-county</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In focus group discussions, both male and female respondents mentioned that men are more likely to participate and assume leadership in community meetings because they have more experience. Men felt that women do not have the knowledge and skills to contribute to community decision-making, and are resistant to their wives attending the same meetings. As a result, women who attend are less vocal. Opportunities are lost to represent women’s interests in community-based decision-making structures.

“Few women attend political meetings. Women will be informed of what was decided by the men and they will follow.”

“Women do not attend the county development planning unless the planners of the meeting insist on the representation of women.”

“It is men who mostly attend meetings. Women may not be invited but even those few who attend their voice are not heard.”

County governments have made significant advancements to support women’s needs and interests, and to increase women’s active participation in WFP-supported food security decision-making structures. Nevertheless, men are still more likely to dominate at broader institutional levels. Dominant and informal gender misconceptions have led many county government services and to overlook women’s needs and interests, including programmes like emergency preparedness and response.
3.6 Household food sources

The research sought to find out how households access food. Sources of food can have both positive and negative implications to the same households, as far as food security is concerned.

Households mostly relied on sale of livestock (57.5 percent), their own production (49.9 percent), trade/small businesses (38.6 percent) and help from relatives (38.5 percent) as their main source of accessing food. This is summarized in table 8.

The respondents were also asked about food security over the past three months to find out how vulnerable they had been. Their responses were outlined in table 9.

Table 8: Household food sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Own production</td>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sale of livestock</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade/small businesses</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular monthly salary</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily (agriculture &amp; non-agriculture labour)</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remittance</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relief</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help from relatives</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Perceived stability of household food security

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did you ever worry that your household would not have enough food?</th>
<th>Agreed</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>86.3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Were you or any member of your household not able to eat the kinds of foods they preferred to eat because of lack of resources?</td>
<td>86.8</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>67.1</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did the lack of enough resources make you or any member of your household eat a limited variety of food?</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household, eat food that you preferred not to eat because of a lack of resources to obtain other types of food?</td>
<td>83.9</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household eat smaller meals in a day because there were not enough resources to obtain enough food?</td>
<td>86.1</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>68.6</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household eat fewer meals in a day because there not enough food?</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>63.8</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was there ever no food at all in your household because there were not enough resources to obtain food?</td>
<td>73.4</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household sleep hungry because there was no food?</td>
<td>62.4</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>60.6</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household go a whole day without eating because there was not enough food?</td>
<td>62.7</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There was a big variation in the vulnerability of households with different incomes on the issue of food security. This is because of differences in their ability to finance and access food. The analysis compared how vulnerable households, with different income categories, fared as far as food security is concerned. Households with an average monthly income below KSh 3,000 recorded the highest percentages of vulnerability to food insecurity. Consequently, these households are more likely to be food insecure and more vulnerable during emergencies, relative to those with income levels above KSh 6,000. The findings are summarised in table 10.

### Table 10: Vulnerability to food insecurity defined by household income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income levels versus Vulnerability (frequency &amp; percentages)</th>
<th>0 to 2999</th>
<th>3000 to 5999</th>
<th>6000 to 9999</th>
<th>Above 10000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did the lack of resources make you or any member of your household eat a limited variety of food?</td>
<td>109 (30.7%)</td>
<td>98 (27.6%)</td>
<td>98 (27.6%)</td>
<td>50 (14.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you ever worry that your household would not have enough food?</td>
<td>114 (32.2%)</td>
<td>97 (27.4%)</td>
<td>97 (27.4%)</td>
<td>46 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household eat food that you did not prefer to eat because of lack of resources to obtain other types of food?</td>
<td>105 (30.5%)</td>
<td>94 (27.3%)</td>
<td>96 (27.9%)</td>
<td>49 (14.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household eat smaller meals because there were not enough resources to obtain enough food?</td>
<td>105 (29.8%)</td>
<td>97 (27.6%)</td>
<td>99 (28.1%)</td>
<td>51 (14.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household eat fewer meals in a day because there not enough food?</td>
<td>108 (30.9%)</td>
<td>94 (26.9%)</td>
<td>98 (28.1%)</td>
<td>49 (14.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was there ever no food at all in your household because there were not enough resources to obtain food?</td>
<td>100 (33.2%)</td>
<td>83 (27.6%)</td>
<td>84 (27.9%)</td>
<td>34 (11.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household sleep hungry because there was no food?</td>
<td>97 (37.9%)</td>
<td>74 (28.9%)</td>
<td>64 (25%)</td>
<td>21 (8.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household go a whole day without eating because there was not enough food?</td>
<td>96 (37.4%)</td>
<td>74 (28.8%)</td>
<td>63 (24.5%)</td>
<td>24 (9.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study also examined vulnerability to food insecurity by gender. This is because gender defines differential access to, and control over, resources by different groups in the society. Where cultural practices and norms favour one gender in accessing and controlling food, the disadvantaged gender will be more vulnerable to food insecurity in the emergency periods.

“Assets like land and livestock are predominantly owned by men. This affects most of our households in terms of food provision since crop plantation is decided by men.”
Women recorded higher frequencies, 55 percent and greater, across all the categories, when asked about vulnerability to food insecurity. The findings are represented in table 11.

**Table 11: Vulnerability to food insecurity defined by gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender Defined Vulnerability</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did the lack of enough resources make you or any member of your household eat limited variety of food?</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44.2%</td>
<td>55.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you ever worry that your household would not have enough food?</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43.8%</td>
<td>56.2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household eat food that you did not prefer to eat because of lack of resources to obtain other types of food?</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43.6%</td>
<td>56.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household eat smaller meals in a day because there were not enough resources to obtain enough food?</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44.6%</td>
<td>55.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household eat fewer meals in a day because there not enough food?</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44.3%</td>
<td>55.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was there ever no food at all in your household because there were no enough resources to obtain food?</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41.9%</td>
<td>58.1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household sleep hungry because there was no food?</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41.9%</td>
<td>58.1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you or any member of your household go a whole day without eating because there was not enough food?</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>42.5%</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The research also examined the vulnerability of men, women and children during an emergency period. Children, both boys and girls, were the most affected during this period at 75.1 percent. This is summarised in figure 15, rounded off to the nearest whole number.
Gender equality and women empowerment is influenced by various factors at the level of individuals, households, communities and institutions. Table 12 outlines findings in the surveyed counties. The factors that enhance equality are referred to as enabling and the those that limit equality are disabling.

**Table 12: Broader enabling and disabling factors to gender equality and women’s empowerment in WFP-targeted counties based on gender analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Enabling</th>
<th>Disabling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>★ Women and youth only organisations for sensitization on gender issues in food production.</td>
<td>Strong valuing of traditions among women and men, which keeps women at the bottom of the hierarchy in community leadership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>★ Women self-organizing into development groups for capacity building targeting.</td>
<td>Low level of literacy among women and girls. Young girls are viewed as transient and likely to be withdrawn from school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>★ Presence of women in county assembly and county government structures.</td>
<td>Time and labour poverty tend to affect more women and girls disproportionately.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household</td>
<td>★ Men and women sharing more in household and productive tasks in food-for-asset projects and access to market projects.</td>
<td>Limited control of land by women, which is a key factor of production in a number of intervention projects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>★ Gradual appreciation of women’s contribution to household food security.</td>
<td>Female headed households.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>★ Construction of multiple water-pans to reduce the workload in terms of distance covered by young girls and women to fetch water.</td>
<td>Male-dominated and biased community and institutional decision-making structures, especially administrative structures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>★ Food or cash transfers reduce anxiety among household members, while at the same time increase quantity and quality of food in emergency periods.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>★ Introduction of gender-sensitive cash-for-asset activities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional</td>
<td>★ Complimentary gender equality and women’s empowerment awareness strategies by non-state actors supporting county government initiatives.</td>
<td>Lack of gender sensitivity and support structures among county government and food security decision-makers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of gender-sensitive food security indicators during assessment and monitoring and evaluation of intervention programmes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.7 Degree of gender responsiveness in county cooperation programmes

3.7.1 Rationale for gender analysis of county cooperation programmes

WFP’s county cooperation programmes seek to strengthen county government capacities across seven key areas:

- early warning and vulnerability assessment;
- emergency preparedness and response;
- response analysis;
- social protection programmes;
- preparation of programmes;
- implementation of programmes, including monitoring and reporting; and
- coordination and leadership for safety nets and disaster management.

It is envisaged that full and timely realization of activities under these broad programme areas would make county governments effective first responders to emergencies.

Implementation of CCPs is at different stages across the four partnering counties. Their potential to succeed depends on specific cultural contexts of implementation, political goodwill in terms of buy-in and financing and technical know-how within county governments. Support from WFP is also a factor. The projects under CCPs have the potential to influence practical and strategic gender needs within the counties. With this in mind, if programmes are implemented in a gender-sensitive way, they can address broader uneven gender power relations at the household, community and institutional levels.

Firstly, through social protection programmes, CCPs have transformative potential to ensure that women and men benefit equally from community asset building, food security, nutrition and increased income-generating activities. Secondly, gender-sensitive leadership within county government disaster coordination structures (including county government steering committees) could act as a place for voicing the concerns of women, girls, boys and men in emergency preparedness and response. Thirdly, CCPs could help ensure that gender and age-appropriate emergency preparedness and response strategies are deployed by the county governments, by disaggregating the needs of these groups during data analysis and response design.

Given the potential contribution of CCPs to the overall agenda of gender equality and women’s empowerment within WFP activities, this study examined the level and quality of gender mainstreaming in county cooperation activities implemented to date, and what can be learned to inform necessary adjustments to CCPs. The section that follows gives a gender critique of CCP activities across disaster management policies, safety net programmes and food and nutrition assessment.

3.7.2 Gender blindness in disaster management policies

There are draft disaster management policies in the four counties (Baringo, Marsabit, Samburu and Wajir). While these policy drafts base their conceptual underpinnings on the human rights of men, women and children, there are no outlined measures for community participation involving women in particular, or for incorporating appropriate participation of men and women in any of the processes, including accountability and
monitoring activities. These drafts therefore fail to explicitly take note of the fact that emergencies tend to exacerbate gender inequalities, and have different impacts on women, men, girls and boys. A gender lens is required to effectively target and implement emergency preparedness and response activities, and deliver to the people whose lives are most at risk.

There is no mention of the gendered-impact of disasters/crises, or on the commensurate negative or positive gendered responses. Similarly, the policy drafts do not specifically refer to the collection and use of sex-disaggregated data. In this context, and with such an information vacuum, these strategies may ‘do harm’ as it is not clear how strategies would impact gender on inequality or discrimination. This poses a danger of perpetuating existing forms of oppression.

Institutionally, the draft policies do not expressly mention gender-sensitive budgeting or gender-sensitive staff capacity building on emergency preparedness and response. They also fail to incorporate components that would overcome existing gender roles and relations within governance structures and disaster coordination units.

### 3.7.3 Gender and the safety net programmes

As part of transitioning recipients of general food distribution to asset creation activities, WFP is working with county governments to create water pans to harvest run-off water for human and livestock use, and pasture production to feed livestock. Most of these activities are operated under FFA and CFA programmes.

Within Marsabit and Baringo Counties, women tend to dominate the asset creation programmes. This could be because of the perception that household food production is largely a ‘feminine’ role. Young men and women tend to shy away from FFA projects on two grounds. Firstly, projects are portrayed as being primarily about securing food for household consumption, and this does not appeal to those without families. Secondly, the agro-based activities do not seem to emphasize skill building among young people, instead employing traditional mechanisms of production.

Asset creation programmes are yet to be implemented in Wajir and Samburu. This provides an opportunity to ask a number of important questions including:

- To what extent are mechanisms for integrating gender in the coordination and institutional structure for asset creation project implementation and management present?
- How is differential control over land as a resource between men and women likely to affect their participation in the projects?
- What are the plans to integrate gender and age-sensitive community mobilization strategies in these two counties?
- How will gender be integrated in the formation of project committees?
- Is gender a major consideration of recruitment of frontline extension officers, and project committees?

If action plans take into account these gender dimensions, they could play an important role in transforming gender relations.
3.7.4 Gender, food and nutrition assessment at the county levels

As part of building the capacity of the four county governments, WFP has organized capacity building for various officers drawn from the ministries of agriculture, livestock, health and education. These officers have been trained on data collection methods relating to food security in the county using the relevant pre-rains assessment questionnaires, as well as on data analysis and dissemination through report writing. However, key informant interviews revealed that the participating line ministries are predominantly headed and run by men. There are few women in the livestock and agricultural ministries at the senior technical level for capacity to be built. This raises the question of gender-sensitivity in food and nutrition assessment teams. What is more, a one-week training might not be sufficient to equip county government staff with relevant skills to independently undertake the next assessments, without WFP and the Kenya food steering group seconding technical persons.
4.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

These recommendations aim to guide the design and implementation of gender-responsive programmes that take a twin-track gender transformative approach to advance gender equality and women’s empowerment in WFP-supported programmes within the four counties.

4.1 Institutional level

WFP should support county governments to develop a gender-mainstreaming strategy that promotes gender-sensitive county programming as well monitoring and evaluation. This should be backed by an action plan that combines gender-specific empowerment activities with a full integration of gender across all project activities and internal operations. This will involve training for programme implementers on gender integration in the project cycle to ensure consistent and effective gender mainstreaming.

With respect to monitoring safety net project activities supported by WFP, there is need to use writeshop techniques to empower WFP field monitors to capture stories of change on gender equality and women’s empowerment. In addition, most significant change techniques should be used with beneficiaries to identify the most important factors contributing to change. WFP should support the broader county government institutional environment to be gender responsive. This can be realised through an initial gender-audit of the institutional structures of the four county governments in terms of the political will, organizational culture, accountability and technical capacity to implement programmes that address unequal gendered power relations meaningfully. The audit should be extended to the asset creation projects (across the project cycle), including gender-sensitive indicators at work. WFP should use a shared learning process on institutional change for gender equality with its partners (the county governments) on innovative gender-specific initiatives.

4.2 Programme Level

WFP should ensure that asset creation activities and decision-making structures address the needs of both women and men. This could be done by training county government partners at sub-county and ward levels in participatory approaches, to engage community members to identify the most important activities for improving household livelihoods, with special attention to women’s uneven and specific vulnerabilities and constraints. However, to reduce the workload on women and young girls, these activities should be rolled out in a way that encourages men to engage actively in these projects.
4.3 Overall recommendations

1. WFP should work with the county governments in auditing the disaster management policies and integrate gender in policy objectives, statements and financing mechanisms as part of institutionalising gender-sensitive organisational culture in county government operations.

2. WFP should partner with UN Women and the National Gender and Equality Commission to develop a gender mainstreaming strategy that would integrate gender in county government sectoral planning, including in areas of emergency preparedness and response and food security response plans.

3. WFP should incorporate special interest groups in community-based targeting for CFAs. This should involve further sex disaggregation into sub-groups (youth, persons with disability, and minors\(^\text{19}\)) within the counties heading households, the minority and marginalized.

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\(^\text{19}\) The emphasis on minors in targeting is because this group has a unique experience with emergencies. First, they might not be represented in the FFA activities, because of the risk of engaging child labour and the strict selection criteria targeting only people who have reached official adulthood (18 years and above). Secondly, they do not fall within the bracket of active income earners, yet they have dependants to take care of. Thirdly, the minors are less likely to voice their concerns in the public meetings. Consequently, child-headed households are more likely to be grossly neglected in the linkage of FFA activities to emergency preparedness and response.
groups within the counties) during the community-based targeting procedures.

4. WFP should train field monitors and county officers on gender write-shop techniques. This should help engage the project beneficiaries in documenting the most significant changes (cause-effect relations) on transformative gender relations occasioned by WFP-CCPs interventions in the four counties.

5. WFP should defeminise the household incentive for work. This can be done by creating value-chain activities, where off-shoots of the interventions adequately generate income and build skills for various gender groups. The aim is to attract more men to engage and work on CFAs programmes. Partnering with FAO in value addition in agro-production is necessary to realise this goal.

6. WFP should promote access to and use of a single registry by supporting the county governments to interface county data with national data to inform effective emergency preparedness and response.

7. WFP should support the strengthening of complaint and feedback mechanism structures at the county government and project committee level. Specific areas to focus on include data capture and management, escalation procedures and linkage of complainants to specific lines. Further, there is need to strengthen the gender and age-appropriate information loop at the county government level.

8. WFP should support the development of a gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation framework. This should include quantitative measures to give statistical indicators on the progress so far achieved under CCP activities. It should also look at the degree to which the gender and age-segregated groups are participating in the activities of CCP-safety net programmes. In addition, indicators capturing sub-groups, such as people with disabilities, female headed households, child headed households and marginalized groups, need to be integrated as part of dissecting the inclusiveness of community-based targeting in WFP activities. Qualitative monitoring can be done through tools such as interviews, observation, and focus groups. This is important in documenting the most significant change prompted by the CCPs to the county government and the community. For instance, qualitative monitoring will capture change of attitude that moves beyond gender aware indicators and monitor.

9. WFP should broaden communication of early warning information by supporting the establishment of drought-cycle flags in public primary schools. These provide early warning signs to prepare the children on emergency phases. There is also a need to support the delivery of early warning messages to youth and women’s networks, and association of persons with disability, beyond the use of local FM stations and the CSG structures.
If you would like more information, please contact:
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