Gender Analysis
for USAID/Rwanda
Youth Workforce Development Project
January 2015

EXTERNAL VERSION

Introduction

The Youth Workforce Development Project aims to improve employability skills and increase stable self-employment for vulnerable youth. For the purposes of this project, vulnerable youth is defined as working-age women and men ages 16-30 with educational attainment of greater than six years of basic education but less than nine years of basic education, i.e. those who are unable to enter into the formal TVET system, have few alternative pathways for education-to-employment, and are thus less likely to secure stable forms of employment and income. Vulnerable is also defined through the lens of those living below the poverty threshold, i.e. those earning less than $1.25 a day. This definition may also include LGBT and youth with disabilities.

This Gender Analysis for the Youth WFD Project was conducted by a team of USAID staff in August 2014 and is intended to inform the design of the Youth WFD and subsequent activities/implementing mechanisms. The gender analysis report comprises contextual information and main findings by each domain of the gender analysis framework. In addition, Appendix C provides a matrix of identified gender constraints relevant to each project sub-purpose, and recommendations to strengthen how project interventions reach youth in ways that promote gender equality. These recommendations should be considered when designing activities under the project.

Key findings of the Gender Analysis include the following:

- There are gender gaps in attainment of higher levels of formal education, participation in training, and resources for networking.
- The ability of women to successfully complete trainings is affected by household obligations, gender-based violence, pregnancy and early marriage, restricted mobility, and household poverty.
- Training is limited because of societal perceptions, stereotypes, and mindsets that technical and vocational options are better-suited for out-of-school male youth.
- Young men living in poverty are burdened with financial obligations.
- Young people lack of awareness of many gender issues including gender equality rights, and employment possibilities.
- Many trades in the technical and vocational sector are traditionally male-dominated.
- Young people typically do not have landholdings, have very few assets, weak networks, and limited skills and information; as a result, targeting young people requires approaches that meet them where they are and provide a range of holistic services that enable them to navigate labor markets. Among the key requirements, youth need life skills, including leadership, financial literacy and money management; they also need more access to capital.
The range of recommendations for the YWD project include:

- Provide flexible scheduling for workforce training classes and facilities across the country, e.g. during evenings and sometime weekends, to allow women with domestic responsibilities—and working men—greater access to those opportunities. Day care options may need to be explored for young women.
- Incorporate cost-effective measures to prevent early and unwanted pregnancy, such as life skills and sexual and reproductive health education and/or referrals.
- Promote the possibility for women to enter male-dominated fields. Include motivational or information sessions with positive role models, including men and women in non-traditional careers. Provide male and female mentors and role models. Involve parents by raising awareness of opportunities for women and work and generating buy-in.
- Offer career counseling services to allow young people to see the range of market opportunities for self-employment and for upgrading along value chains. Provide a parallel communications campaign for employers hiring skilled young graduates.
- Provide incentives to employers to create more gender-friendly work places, i.e. through physical improvements, gender sensitivity training, and other hiring incentives.
- Address GBV and gender barriers within education and training institutions through training and technical assistance to staff.
- Adolescent male and female youth need to be armed with the right tools, support, and information to increase their ability to successfully navigate the various social & economic challenges, become informed decision-makers, and fulfill their full potential to support their families, community, and the country. Consider offering cross-sectoral youth development approaches that build life skills and leadership opportunities in and outside the workplace.
- It must be safe for women to attend trainings, and trainings should be designed to facilitate the full engagement of women. This supportive environment will reduce barriers for female participation in these sectors. Changing cultural norms and shifting gender roles takes time, but it can be done by exposing youth to alternatives and appropriate skills.
- Consider the special needs of young single mothers, as economic burdens may be particularly hard and may lead them into sex work.
- Consider young women’s accessibility to transportation when designing the project, so they are not limited by lack of mobility or training taking place later in the evening, when they may not feel as safe to attend and be out in public.
I. Background

This Gender Analysis for the Youth WFD Project was conducted by a team of USAID staff in August 2014 and is intended to inform the design of the Youth WFD and subsequent activities/implementing mechanisms. The gender analysis report comprises contextual information and main findings by each domain of the gender analysis framework. In addition, Appendix C provides a matrix of identified gender constraints relevant to each project sub-purpose, and recommendations to strengthen how project interventions reach youth in ways that promote gender equality. This analysis has been informed by a desk review of the literature, as well as stakeholder consultations and discussions with the USAID/Rwanda gender team. A gender analysis is a requirement for USAID project design and its recommendations should be integrated throughout project design and implementation. Strategic intervention informed by gender analysis can maximize opportunity to promote gender equality.

Context

A third of the population in Rwanda is between the ages of 15 and 30, and many of these young men and women do not carry the necessary skills to compete in a growing economy, due to poor education attainment in lower secondary education, which excludes them from entering the formal Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) system. Much of Rwanda’s youth finds itself unemployed, inactive, or underemployed, and living below the poverty line. Poverty, instability, obligations, and gender-based violence (GBV) are key barriers to acquisition of the education, skills, and tools necessary to compete in the labor market.

Gender gaps appear in access to education, training, professional development, and resources for self-employment for men and women; these are all linked to the barriers mentioned above. To begin, there are disproportionately more female-headed households living below the poverty line than male-headed households; children in these homes are more prone to low educational attainment. Poverty, instability, and obligations impose financial burdens and household demands. Also, although young men may be pushed to find employment; young women may be expected to stay home and care after younger siblings, or children of their own. Such obligations compete with school time and leads to repetition and dropout.

In the labor sector, males have a more diverse occupational structure than females; in all categories of labor other than agricultural and clerical support work, the proportion of males was higher than the proportion of females. Among male youth, there is a shift away from non-wage family employment and towards other occupational categories as they grow older. Female youth move from non-wage family work and occasional work into self-employment as they enter early adulthood; unlike their male counterparts, however, the presence of female youth in formal waged employment does not increase with age.

Socio-cultural norms shape young men’s and women’s definitions of masculinity and femininity, influencing behaviors and self-perceptions in ways that ultimately contribute to alienation in the labor market. For example, women tend to seek employment in the hairdressing or hotel operations business, while men seek work in construction.
While the rate of employment among urban females, aged 16-35 was much higher than men of the same demographic (12.7% female, 5.6% male), the large majority of young men and women, particularly those with less educational attainment and living in rural areas, face severe underemployment, working multiple jobs to remain at subsistence level. This phenomenon points to the differences in the structure of the rural and urban labor markets. While the percentage of the employed population whose highest level of education was beyond primary school was 37% in urban areas, it was only 8% in rural areas.

This gender analysis considers the relevant gaps in the status of males and females, including by age, ethnicity, disability, location, etc., that could hinder the project outcomes and which could be reduced through project design. This gender analysis will address the following questions:

1. What is the status of women and men and their differential access to/control over assets, resources, opportunities and services relevant to the project?
2. What are male and female roles, responsibilities and time use that could prevent or facilitate participation in the project?
3. Are there laws, policies, and institutional practices that may contain implicit or explicit gender biases and that may need to be addressed by the project? Which are they?
4. What gender norms exist that may affect female’s ability to assume leadership roles and decision-making in the project as well as to participate in the labor market?
5. What are the potential impacts of the project purpose on men and women, including unintended or negative consequences such as increasing the risk of gender-based violence or increasing women’s unpaid work?

II. Methodology

a. Literature review - The literature review draws heavily upon several existing gender and youth reports that have been conducted recently of economic, education, and labor sectors in Rwanda.

b. Stakeholder consultations - In addition to a literature review, consultations were conducted in-country with public institutions, international and civil society organizations, development partners, and some of the Mission’s Implementing Partners over the period of August 25 through September 5, 2014. A complete list of persons consulted is included in Appendix A.
III. Primary Gender Issues Relevant to Target Sector

Access to and Control over Assets and Resources

Access to Education

Rwanda has a large youth population under the age of 30 who lack the education to compete in the economic sector and secure formal sector employment. It is worthy to note that girls are more likely than boys to complete primary school at the correct age, and secondary enrollment for girls in on the rise; in fact, enrollment rate for girls increased slightly from 96.8% in 2007 to 97.5% in 2011, while boys’ enrollment rates dropped slightly from 94.7% in 2008 to 94.3% in 2011\(^1\). However dropout affects both boys and girls and is a growing concern in the education sector.

There are a variety of issues that impact access to education and completion rates for male and female youth. Some of the key issues involve poverty, instability, and weak networking connections; however, gender-based violence and sexual harassment, household demands, and pregnancy are added contributors to why female youth drop out of school at a slightly higher rate than males.

Primary level education, statistics from 2007-2011\(^2\)

- The Net Enrolment Rate (NER) was 95.8% in 2007 and 95.9% in 2011 respectively. The enrollment rate for girls was 96.8% in 2007 and 97.5% in 2011; this is higher than NER for boys, 94.7% in 2007 and 94.3% in 2011.
- The Overall Repetition rate has decreased from 17.7% (2007) to 13.0% (2010). Repetition rate for boys was 17.7% (2007) and 13.5% (2010) while for girls repetition was 17.8% (2007) and 12.5% (2010).
- The Overall Dropout rate, which had been declining in previous years, increased from 10.9% in 2012 to 11.1% in 2013. The 2013 sex-disaggregated statistics have not yet been published, but in 2012, the dropout rate 11.2% for boys and 10.7% for girls.\(^3\)

Secondary level education, statistics from 2007 to 2011\(^4\)

- The Net Enrollment Rate (NER) was 13.1% in 2007 and 25.7% in 2011. The enrollment rate for girls was 13.9% in 2008 and 27.2% in 2011, which is higher than NER for boys, 13.8% in 2008 and 24.2 % in 2011.
- The Overall Repetition rate has decreased from 8.4% (2007) to 3.8% (2010). The repetition rate for boys was 5.6 % in 2008 and 4.0 % in 2010 respectively, while for girls it was 6.3% in 2008 and 3.8 % in 2010.
- The Overall dropout rate has decreased from 9.6% in 2007 to7.4% (2010). The dropout rate for girls has decreased from 13.3% in 2008 to 7.5% in 2010 while on the contrary the dropout rate for boys has increased from 5.7% to 7.4% in 2010 respectively.

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\(^1\) Rwanda Education Board (REB). *Study on Dropout and Repetition in Primary and Secondary Schools*, 2013.

\(^2\) Ibid, 2013.

\(^3\) MINEDUC. *2012 Education Statistical Yearbook*, 2013.

TVET Enrollment

- TVET enrollment increased by 15% from 2012 to 2013, from 13,557 to 15,592 students. Of all TVET students, only 35.5% are female.

Primary drivers of Gender Disparities in Access to Education and Training

Some of the primary drivers of the gender gaps in access to education and completion of secondary education, which in turn do not accurately prepare youth to enter formal Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET), are a combination of poverty, instability, obligations, gender-based violence (GBV), sexual harassment, and pregnancy.

Poverty

The prohibitive costs of secondary education can be a huge barrier to youth living under the poverty line. While Rwanda has a program of 12-year fee-free education, expenses such as uniforms, school materials, transportation, contributions to Parent-Teacher Committees, opportunity cost, etc. add up. In fact, lack of secondary education attainment is linked strongly to the poverty status of households. For girls unable to afford school supplies and fees, the pattern of school attendance is often highly irregular, with one term spent working to earn enough money to pay for the next, or with one year off, and so on. Eventually, this pattern leads to dropout. While it is not work per se that affects girls’ performance at school (as work is also highly irregular, and usually not full-time), it is household poverty, which necessitates work in order to attend school at all. Additionally, expectations of marriage and childbearing for girls make them a less worthy ‘investment’ for secondary education than boys, who are perceived to be more likely to contribute to the household’s financial needs.

Instability

Migration is often the alternative when households cannot earn enough income, which in return causes youth to move from rural to urban areas. About half of the young people interviewed in a 2009 assessment of out-of-school youth had moved to Kigali from rural areas. Youth reported being forced to move frequently due to evictions or the need to save as much money as possible; while orphaned siblings were separated and relocated to live with different relatives. For young men especially, there is an added pressure to provide financial stability to their families. In either case, male and female youth’s education attainment and completion are impacted by instability.

Obligations

Male and female youth find themselves equally burdened by family obligations beyond their ability to manage, both financially and psychologically. For young men, the financial expectation to provide economic support to families is an added obstacle in their completion of secondary education. Young women, who are seen as caretakers, are more likely to stay home to look after younger siblings, thus impacting their ability to access secondary education or complete it. In addition, young women who become pregnant have the added obligation of looking after their children. Based on our discussion with representatives from the Rwandan Adolescent Girls Initiative (AGI), a large number of female participants aged 15-24 years had the first pregnancy when they were 13-15 years old. Twenty-one years old remains the legal minimum age of marriage for girls in Rwanda, and this is considered as the average age of first pregnancy.

suggesting a high chance that project target females in the age bracket of 16-25 years may experience unwanted and early pregnancy; this is especially true if not enough efficient measures are taken as part of the project interventions, such as life skills and sexual and reproductive health education and/or referrals.

**Gender-Based Violence (GBV)**

GBV can be a key barrier to education completion, for both male and female youth. GBV committed against children occurs in homes, in schools, in the streets and within the community. The various forms of GBV that can impact access to education for female youth include being coerced into sexual relations with boys, male teachers and other groups of men in communities in return for money to pay school fees, get passing grades, or buy food and sanitary towels. Poverty can also lead girls to consider their bodies as an economic asset in their relationships with boys and older men. It is important to address the special needs of young single mothers in particular, as economic burdens may force them into sex work. Young women have limited control over the use of condoms, which leads to unplanned pregnancies. Young men also experience violence both physical and sexual, although at a lesser rate than females. However for young men, physical abuse is accepted as a masculine thing to have to endure in order to be considered a man. There have been cases in which parents of girls who became pregnant following sexual abuse encourage their daughters to marry early. Early marriage limits access to education, and also causes other forms of physical and psychological damage and trauma. Sexual harassment in the school environment by school authority, staff teachers, peers and parents all contribute to poor completion rates in primary and secondary school. There is also over-exploitation of girls employed as child labor, bearing the burden of housework; which evidence shows impacts girls’ performance and attendance in schools resulting in physical and mental fatigue, absenteeism and poor performance.7

**Access to Training, Professional Development, and Employment Services**

It is widely known that Rwanda’s employment promotion initiatives and the education and training systems including TVET institutions have been inadequate with respect to improving the employability of workers, particularly youth including graduates, school-leavers and drop-outs. While select private workforce training institutions have been able to reach relatively equal numbers of males and females,8 the experiences of the public TVET system suggest difficulties in reaching females, particularly within the Vocational Training Centers (VTCs) (35% female enrolment in 2013) and especially the Integrated Polytechnic Regional Centres (IPRCs) (19%) which often require higher levels of education. One reason for this disparity may be poor access to information and advocacy strategies by public institutions. Public institutions often lack adequate information and their outreach activities are often limited due to financial constraints. The public TVET system relies primarily on National Youth Council representatives at district, sector, and cell levels for outreach and community mobilization. This volunteer base may lack incentives or support to reach rural girls.9

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7 Action Aid International Rwanda. *Gender Based Violence in and around Schools in Rwanda*, 2007.
8 For instance, graduates of the USAID Akazi Kanoze project are 55% male and 45% female, and vocational training participants under the USAID Higa Ubeho program are 54% male and 46% female.
9 Stakeholder consultation with the National Youth Council
Similarly, among non-formal service providers there are reported differences in male and female youth’s ability to participate in non-formal life skills development opportunities. Many of the reasons behind these disparities have been mentioned above, such as, poverty, instability, and household obligations. Anecdotal evidence suggests that select non-formal institutions have had success in achieving gender parity; for instance, the Akazi Kanoze program has achieved roughly 51% female enrollment, while 47% of participants employed by the project have been women. Similarly, among the participants of the USAID-funded Higa Ubeho project, which provides scholarships for participation in TVET institutions, 46% have been women. These examples illustrate the practical ways institutions are able to reach young women and men alike.

Whether it be formal or non-formal service provision, workforce development institutions must make efforts to ensure equitable access of training and employment services by male and female participants. For female youth, in particular, classes and facilities should be made available during morning, afternoon, and evenings and sometimes even weekends, in order to allow them access, as household obligations and/or a number of factors (transportation or security and cultural norms) can distance them from attending trainings. The same would apply for young men, as they are burdened with searching for work on a daily basis, which pushes them away from having constant schedules. In addition, location influences ability to attend training, as well selection of trade, as there are cost and safety implications for transport.

**Resources for Job Attainment**

When we look at the data concerning the employed population, the data reveals a relationship between employment status, unequal access to resources (i.e., financial, relationships and networks), and sex. The percentage of the male employed population was more than twice as high as the percentage for the employed female population. The greatest disparities among males and females were observed at the upper secondary and university levels. The differences in these education categories were 7 and 6 percentage points, respectively.

In contrast, females are twice as likely than males to be contributing family workers. Similar differences were observed for those self-employed in non-agricultural occupations, where the

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10 Tumba College of Technology. The Role of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Human Resources Development: The case of Tumba College of Technology (TCT) - Rwanda.
11 EDC. Akazi Kanoze project data as of March 2014.
12 Global Communities. Management Information System (MIS): USAID/Higa Ubeho Program, powerpoint presentation dated 06/02/2014.
14 Stakeholder consultation, Global Communities
percentages among the male and female employed populations were respectively 12% and 6%. Across all levels of education, women have less success in accessing jobs than men; which can be correlated to lack of connection to networks and associations.

**Resources for Self-Employment**

Although both male and female youth lack networking skills and connections to job opportunities or trainings for skills development, each is impacted or reacts in different ways. For example, young women’s ability to perform well in self-employment depends on household demands and whether they are mothers; this is mainly due to lack of time to seek self-employment opportunities. Conversely, young men survive largely on day labor they can find, such as in construction sites or hauling heavy sacks of food from delivery trucks. Young men usually know of these jobs by situating themselves in certain central market districts where these employment opportunities are available. Lastly, opportunities for self-employment and salaried work outside the agricultural sector far exceeds the number of job seekers. Many youth are ill-equipped to seize the opportunities that do arise, due to a lack of relevant education or training that limits youths’ competitiveness on the job market.

Financial literacy and money management skills were identified by multiple stakeholders as essential. Savings/lending groups within TVET schools themselves were suggested as a valuable resource for youth to garner initial capital for entrepreneurial pursuits. Technical skills like business planning, soft skills like decision-making, goal-setting, and acting independently in the workplace, awareness of options and support of mentors, and adequate language skills are all essential for youth, both male and female.

**Knowledge, Belief, and Perceptions (Cultural Norms and Beliefs)**

**Employment Preferences**

Employment occupations for males and females are dominated by agriculture, representing 82% of employed females compared to 63% of employed males. This pattern is observed in urban as well as in rural areas. Females are largely restricted to agriculture and services and sales work, a kind of possible occupational segregation. However, according to the occupational segregation index (a proxy indicator for equality of opportunity in employment and occupation), the evolution of agricultural and non-agricultural occupations, show that there has been a shift from agricultural occupations to non-agricultural occupations over the past 30 years. Youth aged 15 and above who were involved in non-agricultural work in 1978 represented 8% of the employed population. In 2002, that percentage was 12% among the employed population aged 16 and above; it has continued to grow in 2012 to 27%.

The sector of employment varies with age, but again the patterns in this regard differ between male and female youth. As men move from their teens to early adulthood, agriculture work diminishes in importance, and work in manufacturing and services gain in importance,. For females the opposite pattern prevails: their involvement in domestic services declines with age.

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It is important to highlight that many of the jobs that young men and women in the age bracket of 16-35 aren’t necessarily jobs they want to pursue; however, given their limited skills and education, they end up working in these areas.

Overall during the research, it was discovered that the percentage of young males engaged outside of agriculture was higher than the percentage of females across the period. Moreover, the shifting from agricultural to non-agricultural occupations was faster among males compared to females. The occupation, employment status, and sex of employee, shows the interdependence of these variables. Therefore, while it was most common for male employees to be craft and related trades workers (22%), for female employees the most highly represented category were services and sales work and agricultural work. The percentage of female employees involved in craft and related trades was only 3.2%. In addition, it worthy to mention that in the Akazi Kanoze Youth Livelihoods mid-term report, male graduates had greater success than females in finding economic opportunities after being trained in construction, automobile repair sectors and entrepreneurship/savings. Female graduates had greater success than males in finding economic opportunities after being trained in hospitality and agri-business.

**Masculinity & Femininity & Career Paths**

It is evident that social and cultural norms have great influence on what is determined masculine and feminine work in career paths; there are specific sectors and jobs that are taken on by young men and women, particularly those who have not completed secondary education. For example, women tend to go into customer service, domestic work, hair care, and agricultural work, whereas men tend to go into more physical labor, like construction work. Often, youth choose a trade based on what they see other doing in their community and family influence; many are not fully informed about career possibilities. Career counseling and motivational/information sessions with positive role models, including men and women in non-traditional careers, a parallel communications campaign for those hiring skilled young graduates have been recommended by stakeholders.

Socio-cultural norms shape young men’s and women’s definitions of masculinity and femininity. Women who enter a male-dominated profession may be particularly likely to face sexual harassment in the workplace. There are also interrelated factors that affect update of non-gender-traditional trades. For example, work with a construction company requires mobility to follow the location of work, and security to rent accommodation for that time as a single woman.

The ability and motivation to start a business or livelihood varies between men and women, as well as between older married women and younger unmarried women. These differences can have implications for what support or coaching is most needed. For example, young women starting a business are likely to have less education than men, and they are less likely to seek any formal financing for their business, relying more on personal savings or family funds.

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22 Education Quality Improvement Program 3 (EQUIP 3). *Gender in Youth Livelihoods and Workforce Development Programs*, 2012.
These socio-cultural dynamics directly influence the targeted age demographic of youth workforce development, as the median age of marriage for women in Rwanda is 21.4.  

**Adolescent Gender Norms**

While a variety of Rwandan programs are effectively engaging male and female youth, it is not clear the degree to which these programs are challenging gender norms, i.e. by encouraging males/females to participate in non-traditional sectors, and/or by providing the skills to work in new sectors to both male and female youth. For instance, under the USAID Akazi Kanoze project, special attention has been given to ensuring that roughly equal numbers of women and men are participating in the project. Female youth represent 45% of the graduates who accessed economic opportunities, while 55% were accessed by males. The implementer, EDC, deliberately attempted to link women with sectors where there were greater economic opportunities for them, such as the hospitality industry or the painting specialization within the construction industry, but also ensured women were not excluded from non-traditional positions like mechanics or welders. Similarly, data from the Higo Ubeho program suggests some women were placed in jobs in non-traditional trades like welding (12%), auto-mechanics (12%), carpentry (23%), and auto-driving (28%), with fewer men entering trades such as catering (17%), hairdressing (5%), knitting (4%), and tailoring (9%).

Based on the information obtained during stakeholder consultations, adolescent girls are faced with a litany of challenges: a changing body; threats of violence; early or unwanted pregnancy; low self-esteem; increased chore burden; and school dropout to name a few. On the other hand, adolescent boys encounter several constraints slightly similar to those of girls, and they end up adopting risky behaviors such as drug abuse, taking excessive alcohol, and engaging in transactional sex with the risk of acquiring HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases. Adolescent male and female youth need to be armed with the right tools, support, and information to increase their ability to successfully navigate these challenges, become informed decision-makers, and fulfill their full potential to support their families, community, and the country.

**Practices and Participation (Gender Roles, Responsibilities and Time Use)**

**Employment Data**

When developing training to enhance the skills of Rwandan youth so they can be active in the TVET system, it is critical to acknowledge how both males and females use their time, and how this impacts their involvement in the labor sector. For example, among 16-19 year olds, 47% of young men work outside the home while only 31% of young women do. Eight-eight percent of young women age 16–19 reported that they would prefer a paid job outside of the home, which is comparable to the percentage of young men who reported this (87%). Interestingly, 95% of most young women (16-19 years old) surveyed in a country study on Adolescent Girls in Rwanda, reported working. This does not suggest that boys do not do any housework; however, the

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23 Demographic Health Survey. USAID: 2014
26 Information shared by the Girl Hub Rwanda at the stakeholder consultations – September 5, 2014
amount of work girls do at home is much higher than boys, particularly for the in-school cohorts.\textsuperscript{27}

The following paragraphs summarize various gender roles and behaviors that impact male and female youth in their participation in the labor market/economy, both formal and informal; in addition to geographical differences in rural versus urban in employment data.

\textit{A profound problem in Rwanda is under-employment and the quality of employment – namely, the regularity and security of work, the wage level, and working conditions. Youth are more likely than adults to be in informal employment and work for low wages within the agricultural sector, namely on family farms.} Nationally, 58\% of females aged 15-20 work in this capacity, 63\% and 58\% of working 16–19 year old females and males (respectively) work more than once a week, and only 23\% of working young females and 28\% of working young males in this age cohort do so less than once a week.\textsuperscript{28}

Employed male youth are much more likely to be in part-time jobs than their female counterparts, and younger employed youth are more likely to be working part-time than their older counterparts. Female youth therefore face greater difficulties in securing a job, but the eventual job is more likely to be a full-time one.\textsuperscript{29}

\textit{As expected, the labor force participation (LFPR) and employment to population ratio were higher among the population without disability compared to the population with disability.} The disparity between women and men was much higher among persons with disabilities. In fact, for persons without disabilities the LFPR was 77\% for males and 73\% for females, while it was 60\% and 52\% respectively for males and females with disabilities.\textsuperscript{30}

The agriculture sector absorbs most of the labor force in Rwanda, including those members of the labor force in the 15–24 years age group. Eight out of every 10 employed youth is engaged in agriculture, while about 15\% are in services and less than two percent in manufacturing. The sector of employment varies with age, but again the patterns in this regard differ between male and female youth. \textit{For male youth, agriculture work diminishes in importance, and work in manufacturing and services gains importance, as they move from their teens to early adulthood.} \textit{For female youth the opposite pattern prevails; their involvement in domestic services in particular declines with age.}\textsuperscript{31} Global research suggests that while youth are relatively disinterested in agricultural production, they are attracted to engaging in off-farm agricultural activities (such as processing, distribution, transport, input providers), as well as production of high value niche agricultural products with shorter production cycles such as mushrooms or beekeeping.

\textsuperscript{29} Republic of Rwanda. \textit{Design of Five-Year National Employment Program (NEP) for Rwanda}, 2014.
Table 2. Distribution (numbers and percentages) of the currently employed population aged 16 and above by main occupation and sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main occupation</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Sexes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>10,589</td>
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<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.4</td>
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<td>Professionals</td>
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<td>2.1</td>
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<td>Technicians and</td>
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<td>associate</td>
<td>21,431</td>
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<td>Clerical support</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service and</td>
<td>202,993</td>
<td>159,694</td>
<td>362,687</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sales workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Skilled</td>
<td>1,248,004</td>
<td>1,772,323</td>
<td>3,020,327</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>82.3</td>
<td>72.7</td>
</tr>
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<td>agricultural,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>forestry and</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>fishery workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Craft and related</td>
<td>200,511</td>
<td>41,121</td>
<td>241,632</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trades workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Plant and</td>
<td>68,650</td>
<td>2,117</td>
<td>70,767</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>machine operators,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>and assemblers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>136,918</td>
<td>70,709</td>
<td>207,627</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>occupations</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other/occupation</td>
<td>42,042</td>
<td>36,380</td>
<td>78,422</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
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<td>not stated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total: Rwanda</td>
<td>1,998,012</td>
<td>2,154,670</td>
<td>4,152,682</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>100</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Data shows that most unemployed were females regardless of the highest level of education (and this disparity clearly exceeds the generally higher number of females than males in the population). The greatest disparities were found among the population with a low level of education.

The gap in employment has widened, with men capturing more of the opportunities to move into non-farm work than women. From 2011-2012, 38.7% of male workers were in non-farm jobs compared with 18.1% of female workers, an increase of 9.9 percentage points for men compared with 4.4 percentage points for women.

At the national level, the unemployment rate was higher in urban areas compared to rural areas in all provinces. Labor participation by sex and location reveal that the labor force participation rate (LFPR) and employment to population ratio were the highest in the Northern Province. The lowest levels of both indicators were observed in Kigali City. The difference between Kigali City and other provinces in the unemployment rate is notable. Although the unemployment rate in

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Kigali City was 9%, in other provinces it fluctuated between 2% in the Northern Province and 3% in the Southern Province. The levels of both the LFPR and employment to population ratio were higher among males compared to females across all provinces; these gender disparities were more marked in urban areas compared to rural areas. The unemployment figures are somewhat misleading, however, in that Rwanda is experiencing high rates (77%) of underemployment or “vulnerable employment” in which people scrape by to earn income, working multiple subsistence activities for fewer hours per week in less than stable conditions. Women, in particular, are more likely to be working in the informal sector.

A high proportion (79%) of the inactive population was, unsurprisingly, found in rural areas as most Rwandans live in rural areas. The inactive population is composed of the following categories: students, those looking after their family/home, retired people, elderly people and other inactive people who are not classified. Specifically, students constitute the highest proportion among the inactive population at the national level as well as in both urban and rural areas (around 50%). The inactivity status is highly related to sex: while 6 out 10 of inactive males are students, the proportion of students among females is 30%. Moreover, the proportion of those looking after the family/home is twice as high among females when compared with males. Those differences are observed in both areas of residence; however they are more predominant in urban areas.\(^{34}\)

Non-agricultural occupations in urban areas were mainly services and sales workers and craft and related trades workers. Except for agricultural and clerical support workers, men predominated in all other occupations. Concerning employment status, the results showed that the majority of the employed population in Rwanda were self-employed in the agriculture sector (60%), followed by employees (18%) while self-employed out of agriculture represented 8% of the total employed population.

The proportion of males who were employees was twice as high as the corresponding figure for females, while the proportion of women contributing to family work was more than double that of men. The results show that 94% of the employed population was employed by the private sector and the public sector employed 4%. Non-profit organizations employed only 0.5%. In the public sector, six out of 10 employed persons were male.\(^{35}\)

**Leadership & Management**

Research found that while 51% of females employed by the public sector were professionals, that percentage was only 38% amongst males. On the other hand, the proportion of males engaged as service and sale works in the public sector (15%) was higher than females engaged in the same occupation (5%). In addition the proportion of males employed in craft and related workers in private sector were 11% whereas that proportion was 2% amongst females. Most of females employed by NGOs were skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers (40%) while the highest proportion of males in NGOs were professionals (28%).\(^{36}\)


\(^{36}\) Ibid, 2014.
**Observed Changes**

Research indicates that although there have been some significant changes in where young men and women participate in the labor sector, certain sectors and job functions continue to be dominated by cultural norms that impact gender roles and employers’ expectations. Data collected by the TVET 2013 statistics for the Higa Ubeho the scholarship program show that these gender perceptions of roles reflect where young men and women choose to be placed in the labor force. As indicated below, traditionally male-dominated jobs, like auto driving, mechanics, carpentry, construction, electrician, and wielding are being pursued by more men more than women.

Graph 1. Percentage of Female and Male placed students per trade in the *Higa Ubeho* project scholarships activity (Global Communities TVET Statistics)

**Competing Domestic Duties**

Both young men and women are faced with various household stresses that range from financial to domestic demands. *It is evident that young women are more burdened with household and childcare responsibilities than young men, so the time that young women have available to participate in education and training may be significantly limited.* It is also worth underscoring that girls are often disproportionately represented in less visible forms of child labor such as domestic service in a third party household which can be dismissed in household surveys. The share of girls performing chores is greater than that of boys at most ages, but responsibility for chores is by no means limited to girls in Rwanda. Indeed, boys are more likely to work exclusively and less likely to attend school only. *38* Lastly, it should be noted that the youngest group (between 16 and 29) was more strongly represented among inactive males than inactive females, while the opposite is true for the older groups aged 30 and above. This may be caused by the domestic responsibilities of females after being married. The same situation is observed in both urban and rural areas; however, the changes in rural areas occur earlier than in urban areas, for the females in rural areas tend to marry earlier than those in urban areas. *39*

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*37* Global Communities and USAID. *Analysis of Scholarship Applicants for the 2014 Campaigns under the Higa Ubeho program*, 2014.


Physical Separation
There is not necessarily an issue of separation between men and women in both educational
opportunities as well as the workplace, as much as there needs to be a safe space for women,
where they feel free and safe to express themselves, and attend trainings within a flexible
schedule. That being said, more conservative communities may dictate the formation of separate
male/female training classes and an appropriate balance of male and female trainers, to ensure
that females and males are comfortable and are participating actively. Partnering with local
religious and community leaders and NGOs in more conservative contexts helps to achieve
longer-term outcomes and greater progress toward gender equality within the YWD project.

Mobility
Security issues are of concern to young women; in particular because they are more likely to not
have readily available access to transportation than young men. As a result, young women may
avoid traveling during the evening/night to avoid harm. Overall, young women’s mobility is
more constrained than young men’s; however, another factor to consider is the socio-cultural
norms that deem it inappropriate for women to travel alone or frequent public places at
night.40

Workplace Environment
The need for separate latrines at both the work place and schools has been well established.
Sexual harassment, physical violence, teasing, and other forms of GBV can be reason for young
women to avoid attending or participating in various activities, regardless of how important they
may deem them for their economic benefit. Safety is an important factor to determine and
provide at all time for young women in this and any project.

During stakeholder consultations, sexual abuse and harassment was often highlighted as one of
the major issues that women and girls experience both in the public and private arenas. Women
and girls succumb to sexual advances and exploitation in exchange for economic favors; this
kind of behavior also is linked to power imbalances between men and women in the society.41
Based on the Germany International Agency (GIZ)’s experience working in the technical and
vocational training program in Rwanda, the reality is that for women, acquiring technical skills
and pursuing traditionally male-dominated trades often lead to better-paying jobs in the labor
market.42 During their follow up activities to assess the performance of their graduates in the
workplace, they both engage with employees and employers. It has been reported that young
female workers in automobile or construction industry are generally underestimated by their
male peers. In addition, at the beginning, employers seem reluctant to give technical jobs to
female graduates with the perceptions that they will not be able to perform at the level of male
peers.

Some experiences show that once female graduates have acquired necessary technical skills and
confidence and are given an opportunity in the workplace, they quickly adjust with the new work
environment and perform better than boy peers. One testimony from GIZ was that many private

40 Education Quality Improvement Program 3 (EQUIP 3). Gender in Youth Livelihoods and Workforce Development Programs,
2012.
41 Information drawn from the stakeholder consultations with Care International – September 9, 2014
42 Information drawn from the stakeholder consultations with GIZ/Rwanda – August 27, 2014
enterprises have really appreciated the work done by female graduates in technical jobs, such as mechanics and the quality of work done by female workers is even better that men’s and the women’s integrity is far beyond that of men workers. However, some public and private infrastructures and equipment are not adequate for women, mostly within sectors that have been historically occupied by men.

**Laws, Legal Rights, Policies, and Institutions**

Rwanda’s National Employment Policy (NEP) was drafted in 2007 to provide guidance for all stakeholder interventions and initiatives aimed at creating and promoting employment in Rwanda. The NEP was followed by the drafting of the youth and women action plans which were short term plans stating the specific actions and activities to be implemented in order to achieve the broader medium term objectives of NEP. At the present time it is difficult to determine the effectiveness of these work plans in creating equitable employment opportunities for young men and women. Some of the challenges identified in a report by the Rwandan Institute of Policy Analysis and Research include the following:43

- Limited coordination, limited monitoring and ownership of the NEP and inadequate alignment of NEP action plans between different government ministries.
- Access to finance and the law is very stringent; people know it is difficult to obtain credit; in addition the entrepreneurship spirit in Rwanda is very low.
- The private sector is inadequately organized: it doesn’t have targets for employment creation. In addition its monitoring and evaluation system has limitations.
- There are duplication programs and initiatives: entrepreneurship and employment creation go hand in hand, yet one is in MINICOM another in MIFOTRA; and incubation is part of entrepreneurship.

**Property Ownership and Access to Credit**

According to the World Bank’s “Women, Business, and the Law 2014,” report, both men and women hold the benefit of being legally protected against discrimination on the basis of sex or marital status in regards to a vast majority of indicators under the “Access to Institutions” heading. Although married women cannot be legally considered a “head of household,” they share in the burden of legally maintaining their family’s expenses.44 In examining this familial responsibility within the context of this legal framework, we may be able to glean insights into gender dynamics that influence attitudes derived from perceptions. Moreover, property ownership and asset control extends a great level of influence on shaping gender identity construction and inter-relational dynamics, and it impacts perceptions and actions that lead to defining gender roles and norms.

To gain insight into the perceptions held by the women impacted by these laws and their resultant effects on interpersonal and societal dynamics, we can refer to a USAID Feed the Future study, where these property rights laws have had a demonstrable impact in perceptions amongst women in regards to their abilities to acquire and control ownership assets.45 Within the

study’s zone of influence, which consisted of the entire country except for Kigali City, 2.8% of respondents indicated that they were “not yet empowered and experience inadequacy in ownership assets,” which demonstrates an overall (97.8%) sense of empowerment and is reflective of the promulgated national policy.\textsuperscript{46}

However, the logical extension of what one can achieve with asset control derived through ownership does not necessarily reach the same level of satisfaction as it pertains to a woman’s interaction with financial institutions. In the context of financial capital control, within the “Access to and Decisions on Credit,” category, where a person has access to channels of credit and can undertake financial decision-making within the household, 23.9% of women indicated they experienced a “not yet empowered state.” This disparity in perception brings into question the equality in the opportunity to acquire equity pertaining to financial decision-making, especially considering that this sentiment is experienced within the same sample population that responded with a relative sense of empowerment in their ownership and control of assets. The actual attainment of empowerment by women in perceptions regarding access to credit point to a deficit in relative decision-making ability when it comes to familial and household asset control, which is again, reflected in what is codified into law. Further delving into the contextual dynamics involved in the disparity between ownership and credit is worthy of further research.

Because female youth in the labor force are more likely to be unemployed or underemployed than their male counterparts, they do not experience laws that incentivize workforce participation such as tax credits or other financial motivators to seek child care to decrease household obligations assigned to certain female gender roles.\textsuperscript{47}

**Labor Laws and GBV**

The Rwanda Labor Law, No. 13, states that: “It is prohibited to employ a child in any company, even as apprentice, before the age of sixteen (16). A child aged between sixteen (16) and eighteen (18) may be employed under condition that the rest between two working periods be of a minimum duration of twelve (12) consecutive hours and that the performed job be proportionate to his/her capacity and not be of the nature that can damage his/her health, education and morality.”\textsuperscript{48}

The consequences of child labor and the laws protecting children are poorly understood at a community level. There continues to be acceptance of work that prevents children from attending school, especially for work involving girls. This underscores need for expanded strategic communication efforts on the negative effects of child labor and the benefits of schooling as part of an overall strategy against child labor.\textsuperscript{49} *Exploitative labor ostensibly affects young males in greater proportion, in part, because there is a lack of awareness between what constitutes abusive labor practices in a given community.* Conversely, within the household, the burden of household chores and tasks is greatly emphasized in the role that young women and girls encumber, and effectively stymies educational development through encircling the educational

\textsuperscript{46} Feed the Future Rwanda: Zone of Influence Baseline Report. USAID: 2014.
\textsuperscript{49} Feed the Future Rwanda: Zone of Influence Baseline Report. USAID: 2014.
dynamic in a restrictive loop of time-deficiency that places limits on their respective investments in education, and consequently hinders human capital and workforce development.

These child protection laws serve as an example in the difference between promulgating policy that advocates for the rights of youth to be disabused of malicious labor practices and having the required institutional presence and social relationship to enforce these laws. Awareness is cited as being a component to why young men would be exposed to these practices, but lack of institutional enforcement also contributes to the problem. This effectively adds to the social burden of educational institutions, especially in areas of education past primary levels, when youth are expected to work.

The sectorial decomposition of children’s employment indicates that working children are concentrated overwhelmingly in the agriculture sector. Eighty four percent of total employed children aged 7-15, work in this sector, primarily within the family unit in low-productivity, subsistence farming. The overall preponderance of agriculture is primarily a reflection of children’s employment in the mainly rural provinces outside Kigali; the composition of children’s work is more varied in Kigali City. Domestic service plays a particularly important role in Kigali, accounting for over half of all children in employment. Children, and especially girls, who live as domestic servants behind closed doors of private houses are particularly vulnerable to abuse, and constitute a particular policy priority in Kigali. Children’s employment in Rwanda appears incompatible with schooling, underscoring the importance of child labor as a barrier to achieving “Education for All”.

Awareness about rights, resources to escape domestic violence, human trafficking, etc. are all lacking, though the issue is both one of awareness and of the confidence to speak out.

IV. Recommendations and Opportunities for Mission Consideration

The design and implementation Youth WFD project must take steps to address gender gaps in access to education and training, the lack of resources in networking, and workplace conditions. Particular attention will need to be paid to young women’s obligations in the household and the demands that young mothers may experience when trying to seek education and employment. Gender-Based Violence (GBV) is carried out through both sexual abuse and early marriage for young women who become pregnant and are forced to marry their perpetrators. For men, considerations of the gender roles and the expectations of their financial burdens at home will need to be considered when designing the project.

Appendix C provides a detailed analysis of findings and recommendations. The range of recommendations for the project include:

- Provide flexible scheduling for workforce training classes and facilities across the country, e.g. during evenings and sometime weekends, to allow women with domestic responsibilities—and working men—greater access to those opportunities. Day care options may need to be explored for young women.

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Incorporate cost-effective measures to prevent early and unwanted pregnancy, such as life skills and sexual and reproductive health education and/or referrals.

Promote the possibility for women to enter male-dominated fields. Include motivational or information sessions with positive role models, including men and women in non-traditional careers. Involve parents by raising awareness of the implications of gender bias.

Offer career counseling services to allow young people to see the range of market opportunities for self-employment and upgrading. Provide a parallel communications campaign for employers hiring skilled young graduates.

Work with employers to create more gender-friendly work places, i.e. through physical improvements, gender sensitivity training, and other hiring incentives.

Address GBV and gender barriers within education and training institutions through training and technical assistance to staff.

Adolescent male and female youth need to be armed with the right tools, support, and information to increase their ability to successfully navigate the various social & economic challenges, become informed decision-makers, and fulfill their full potential to support their families, community, and the country. Consider offering cross-sectoral youth development approaches that build life skills and leadership opportunities in and outside the workplace.

It must be safe for women to attend trainings, and trainings should be designed to facilitate the full engagement of women. This supportive environment will reduce barriers for female participation in these sectors. Changing cultural norms and shifting gender roles takes time, but it can be done by exposing youth to alternatives and appropriate skills.

Consider the special needs of young single mothers, as economic burdens may be particularly hard and may lead them into sex work.

Consider young women’s accessibility to transportation when designing the project, so they are not limited by lack of mobility or training taking place later in the evening, when they may not feel as safe to attend and be out in public.
Appendix A. References

2. Demographic Health Survey. USAID: 2014
5. Education Quality Improvement Program 3 (EQUIP 3). *Gender in Youth Livelihoods and Workforce Development Programs*, 2012.
7. Global Communities and USAID. *Analysis of Scholarship Applicants for the 2014 Campaigns under the Higa Ubeho program*, 2014.
13. Tumba College of Technology. The Role of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Human Resources Development: The case of Tumba College of Technology (TCT) - Rwanda.
## Appendix B. Stakeholders Consulted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisations</th>
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<tr>
<td>USAID/Higa Ubaho project</td>
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<tr>
<td>Young Women’s Christian Association of Rwanda</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adolescent Girls Initiative</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rwanda Men Resource Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>Care International</td>
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<tr>
<td>Girl Hub Rwanda</td>
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<tr>
<td>Never Again Rwanda/USAID supported activity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lesbian, Gay, Transgender, Bisexual associations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Health Development Initiative</td>
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<td>Workforce Development Authority</td>
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<tr>
<td>Akazi Kanoze/Youth Livelihoods Project</td>
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<td>GIZ Rwanda</td>
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<tr>
<td>Handicap International</td>
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<td>National Youth Council</td>
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<td>USAID/Rwanda</td>
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</table>
VI. Analysis of Issues and Recommendations by Sub-Purpose and Output

Project Goal: Increased opportunities for Rwandan children and youth to succeed in schooling and the modern workplace

Project Purpose: Increased stable employment for vulnerable youth

Project Theory of Change: The Youth WFD Project hypothesizes that stable employment opportunities for vulnerable Rwandan youth will be increased over the long term when youth have opportunity to increase their work readiness skills and engage in self-employment, and when Rwandan workforce development actors—i.e. government agencies, public and private training providers, and employers—provide higher quality, more coordinated services that equip job seekers with the needed skills and resources to be linked to stable employment opportunities.

Potential Gender Issues

Sub-purpose 1: Improved employability skills for vulnerable youth

- Outreach efforts to vulnerable youth, especially in the rural areas, have not been sufficient, and rural young girls are disproportionately disadvantaged than boys due to lower educational attainment, lack of skills, restricted mobility, household poverty, and domestic responsibilities.

- The family and community involvement and support to youth, especially young girls has been limited due to societal perceptions, stereotypes, and mindsets that only technical and vocational options are reserved for out-of-school youth and generally male youth only. Additionally, many trades in the technical and vocational sector are traditionally male-dominated.

- There is need for a systematic labor market needs assessment to ensure that technical and vocational skills acquired by both male and female youth are matched with available employment and self-employment opportunities.

- Female and male heads of households and single young mothers are more disadvantaged to access work readiness and employment services due to huge household and child care responsibilities and limited mobility in terms of accessing the information and attending training courses at any given location or certain time.

- Youth with disability are among the most vulnerable and

Recommendations

- Conduct a gender analysis to find out what male and females need in various communities where the project plans to work; and ensure that gender roles, responsibilities, and cultural norms are taken into consideration when designing the project, so to increase participation by both sexes.

- Training activities should take place at different times to accommodate various working schedules, and household demands—this is particularly true for young women, who have a higher demand for household availability to care of younger siblings and perform house chores. The same applies for young mothers, youth heads of households, and young men, who may have financial demands that keep them from attending trainings at certain times.

- Short-term technical and practical courses in addition to career guidance efforts, an extended time for apprenticeships, and mentoring activities should be initiated to enhance skills and build confidence in vulnerable youth, especially girls in order to access employment services.

- Ensuring there is parental involvement will be important in order to have household buy-in; this will provide awareness of gender bias and constraints to parents about their sons and daughters, while also clarifying the benefits and expectations of their child’s involvement in the project.

- A time use study may be important to understand how young people spend their time, the expectations placed on them by family, and factors that impact their availability to participate in training (including trainings that last more
disadvantaged groups and they have difficulties accessing vocational and technical training programs due to lack of poor outreach mechanisms, poor infrastructures and facilities in addition to inadequate learning and teaching methodology. for single young mothers, it will be important to provide day child care interventions if possible. project interventions may need to cater for youth with special needs to encourage broad participation.

- The combination of pressure to acquire life and workforce readiness skills, engage in sexual activity, and difficulty in accessing advice on and services for reproductive health and family planning creates an unsafe environment for adolescent youth.
- Poverty and desire to satisfy basic socio-economic needs increases adolescent’s vulnerability for HIV transmission, transactional sex, rural migration, drug abuse, and human trafficking.
- Workforce development curriculum and training materials are slightly gender-sensitive; but training environment, including teachers, infrastructure, facilities, and equipment does not necessary cater for girl students.
- Overall, outreach activities in the country have not been efficiently gender-sensitive and well channeled to target adolescent vulnerable youth, except several focused programs by some stakeholders, such as Girl Hub, Adolescent Girl Initiative, and Care International.

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**Sub-purpose 2: Vulnerable youth better equipped to engage in stable self-employment**

- Due to limited access to information and poor communication channels and structures, especially for rural youth, it is difficult for youth to know their rights, including gender equality rights, and employment possibilities.
- Many issues faced by youth related to entrepreneurship and

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**Notes:**

51 Testimony from the National Youth Council – September 4, 2014

52 Testimony from the stakeholder consultations with the National Youth Council – September 4, 2014
market facilitation include lack of life skills; leadership and self-confidence capacities; lack of financial literacy, money management, and marketing skills; lack of collateral to access capital to start up business and/or expand their businesses.

- Youth associations in agriculture lack adequate skills and facilities to expand their businesses in off-farm activities, such as diversifying their products through processing, transformation, and packaging to serve the market with innovative and improved products.
- Most vulnerable youth, including youth with disability and Lesbian, Gays, Bisexual, and Transgender youth face social stigma and discrimination. This affects their involvement in entrepreneurship and market facilitation services.
- There is limitation of access to finance for women and youth due to the barriers in the business environment conditions, women and youth’s limited management capacity, lack of collaterals, perception of lending institutions towards women and youth, and limited incentives to reach out to more women and young people.
- Vulnerable youth, especially those living in rural areas need to get business guidance and support, for example advisory services and peer to peer mentoring programs. This will help to build confidence for youth, especially rural female youth in managing their businesses and adopt the culture of saving, starting from their small savings and lending groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-purpose 3: More effective &amp; expanded workforce development service delivery system</th>
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<tr>
<td>Many service providers work from a typically male-dominated environment and still need to understand gender equality perspectives, for example their lack ability to identify gender gaps, obstacles, and opportunities to equally engage young men and women in their programs. The implementation of the gender equality and female empowerment policy has been problematic in Rwanda, due to</td>
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<tr>
<td>Build capacity of training providers to ensure outreach strategies, infrastructures, and facilities are adequately tailored to vulnerable men and women, respectively, and ensure that all these efforts respond to special needs of youth with disability to the extent possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage workforce development institutions to consider gender balance in their recruitment process, so that female youth students can get role models</td>
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Technical courses should include learning materials for off-farm occupations to equip female youth with needed skills, including marketing strategies to become creative and meet the market needs.

- Promote inclusive and active participation of people with disability and LGBT community in the project activities through creating an enabling and conducive learning environment for these marginalized groups.

- Create and strengthen collaboration and networking approaches between project beneficiaries and financing institutions. This will help build mutual confidence in access to finance for business start-up or business growth.

- Outreach to youth, especially women-owned businesses can provide insight as to experiences for young women and men who are interested in pursuing self-employment.

- Entrepreneurship/Self-employment should be addressed as an option that allows young women and men to have flexible working conditions. Assessment of the potential barriers or challenges that young women and men may face in starting a business should be done as part of the design of entrepreneurship training programs and complementary services: such as securing credit. As part of the entrepreneurship program, youth should also be encouraged to continue joining saving and lending clubs, which will enable them to create income generating activities.

53 This information is drawn from the stakeholder discussions with Global Communities (USAID partner) and Care International, on August 25 and Sept 9, respectively.
lack of skills in both public and private sector. There is willingness to support gender integration, but the know-how and understanding of the benefits is still limited. More technical support is needed.

- Workforce development institutions, both public and private still face the issues of not having market-driven competencies and services, limited business skills to better diversify services offered to female and male youth. All these weaknesses prevent them from providing sustained, market-relevant employment, and gender-responsive services for vulnerable youth.
- The quality of learning needs to be improved to meet the learners’ needs and the labor market demand so that skills acquired by female and male vulnerable youth are not out to date.

Workforce development institutions, both public and private still face the issues of not having market-driven competencies and services, limited business skills to better diversify services offered to female and male youth. All these weaknesses prevent them from providing sustained, market-relevant employment, and gender-responsive services for vulnerable youth.
- The quality of learning needs to be improved to meet the learners’ needs and the labor market demand so that skills acquired by female and male vulnerable youth are not out to date.

Rwandan stakeholders need to make an effort to promote learning across sectors in and outside the country in order to further develop vocational and technical skills, which are more attractive and innovative for male and female youth. This will help to explore more service and off-farm employment opportunities for Rwanda youth.
- Increased investments also still requires stakeholders to strongly support the gender equality policy through engaging more women in skills development industry as leaders, decision-makers, and staff members overall, who will then become role models for young women students.
- More investments are also needed to cater for youth with special needs – those with disability so that their needs (access and participation) in technical and vocational skills can be addressed.

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Public and private workforce development actors need to strengthen their collaboration and coordination in promoting technical and vocational skills development while also supporting the implementation of the national gender policy, which emphasizes equal access to education at all levels and
- Provide gender-sensitive training to educate skills development institutions, stakeholders, and private workforce actors, to assist in ensuring that gender issues are taken into consideration when designing and outreaching to vulnerable youth.
- Encourage stakeholders to work together to commission needed key gender

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54 Information obtained from the stakeholder consultations with the Workforce Development Authority (WDA) – September 5, 2014
| economic assets/resources, including financial services and employment opportunities | studies and assessments; share reports and best practices; promote information dissemination; strengthen advocacy efforts. These networks will contribute to improved planning, implementation, and reporting of gender-sensitive activities. |
| - More focused research activities are still needed to help understand the situation of gender issues across sectors and their impact on different groups of people, especially vulnerable groups. This creates an opportunity for expanded networks and information sharing to bridge gender and socio-economic gaps faced by some groups. How can workforce development actors work together to improve the policy conditions related to gender and employment, particularly those related to ownership of assets and access to financial services? | - Promote stakeholders’ networks and provide technical support if needed so that they can work together to develop well-informed youth friendly skills development programs and/or girl-centered and positive discrimination initiatives taking into account evidence-based information. |