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# Country Profile- Kenya

## Gender, Climate Change, and Nutrition Linkages

**Harriet Mawia, Nathaniel Ferguson, Elizabeth Bryan, and Timothy S. Thomas**

## Introduction

Agriculture is vital to Kenya's economy, accounting for 20% of the country's GDP in 2020. Yet the growth of the sector has slowed in recent years due to unfavorable weather conditions, leading to a reduction in crop and livestock performance (Central Bank of Kenya, 2023). While employment in agriculture has been steadily declining (to 32% in 2023), the sector still employs a large share of the rural population and is the main source of informal employment, rural income, and livelihoods (D'Alessandro et al., 2015; ILO 2025).

A majority of Kenyan farmers operate on a small scale and are solely dependent on rainfall (D'Alessandro et al., 2015). However, since the 1970s, the country has experienced significant changes in rainfall patterns--average rainfall during the long season has decreased while rainfall during other times of the year has increased and the country has experienced more frequent climate extreme events (Kogo et al. 2021). Increased climate variability has negative effects on agriculture and may exacerbate inequalities within the sector. Due to gender inequalities and gender-differentiated roles in agrifood systems, men and women do not experience climate change and variability in the same ways (Balikoowa et al., 2019; Lecoutere et al. 2023). According to the World Economic Forum, women are more vulnerable than men to climate change due to lower education and exclusion from the political and domestic decision-making processes that affect their lives (Gunawardena, 2020).

Women still play a pivotal role in agrifood systems, making up between 42% and 65% of agricultural labor in Kenya (Kipkorir et al., 2023). Despite their key role, women's contributions to agriculture often go unnoticed, or are undervalued or marginalized (FAO, 2023). Furthermore, women tend to lack access to the resources, services, finance, and other enabling conditions needed to respond effectively to the negative impacts of climate change (Rao et al., 2019; FAO, 2023; Bryan et al., 2024). Consequently, climate change, and gender-blind climate interventions, may exacerbate existing gender disparities in the food system (Bryan et al., 2024).

The nutrition situation in Kenya is marked by the complex and gendered nature of the growing prevalence of both undernutrition and non-communicable diseases (NCDs), such as obesity (Rousham et al., 2020;

Global Nutrition Report, 2021). Gender disparities are evident in the manifestation and consequences of health and nutritional outcomes. Women, particularly in rural areas, are disproportionately affected by undernutrition, including high rates of anemia, micronutrient deficiencies (such as iron and vitamin A), and maternal malnutrition (Ministry of Health Kenya, 2011). These conditions contribute to adverse pregnancy outcomes, poor child health, and perpetuate cycles of poverty and malnutrition across generations. Conversely, in Kenya's urban settings, the rising prevalence of overweight and obesity is increasingly observed among women, especially in higher socioeconomic strata, due to shifts towards energy-dense, high-fat diets (Mkuu et al., 2021). Men, although less affected by obesity, also face rising rates of NCDs, including cardiovascular diseases, linked to similar dietary and lifestyle changes, such as high intake of salt and sugar and low intake of fruits and vegetables (Mwenda et al., 2018).

Climate change has serious implications for nutrition through effects on all stages of agrifood value chains (Fanzo et al., 2018) and has particular impacts on maternal and child nutrition through several pathways, such as decreased nutritional content of crops and increased incidence of infectious and food-borne diseases (Blakstad and Smith 2020). Rising temperatures and altered rainfall patterns create favorable conditions for the proliferation of vector-borne diseases like malaria and dengue fever in previously unaffected regions (IPCC, 2022). Furthermore, limited access to clean water increases the prevalence of water-borne diarrheal diseases, which are among the main public health issues in Kenya and one of the main causes of mortality and morbidity in low-income countries (Manetu & Karanja, 2021). Kenya has been badly affected by flooding, with 285 flood-related deaths reported in 2020 (WMO, 2020). At the same time, from 2020-2023, Kenya, Ethiopia, and Somalia experienced their worst drought in 70 years, which caused more than 23.5 million people to become food insecure across those countries (Schrieks et al., 2025).

Against this backdrop, this brief provides an overview of challenges related to gender equality, climate change, and nutrition in the Kenyan context, discusses the importance of addressing these issues in parallel, and reviews the extent to which current policies address these challenges in an integrated manner. It highlights existing gaps and offers actionable recommendations to strengthen policy interventions. The intended audience includes policymakers, development practitioners, researchers, and stakeholders working at the intersection of gender, climate change, and nutrition. The purpose of the brief is to support decision-making, foster dialogue, and guide the development of gender-responsive approaches that enhance climate resilience, and improve health and nutrition outcomes for both women and men.

## Effects of Climate Change

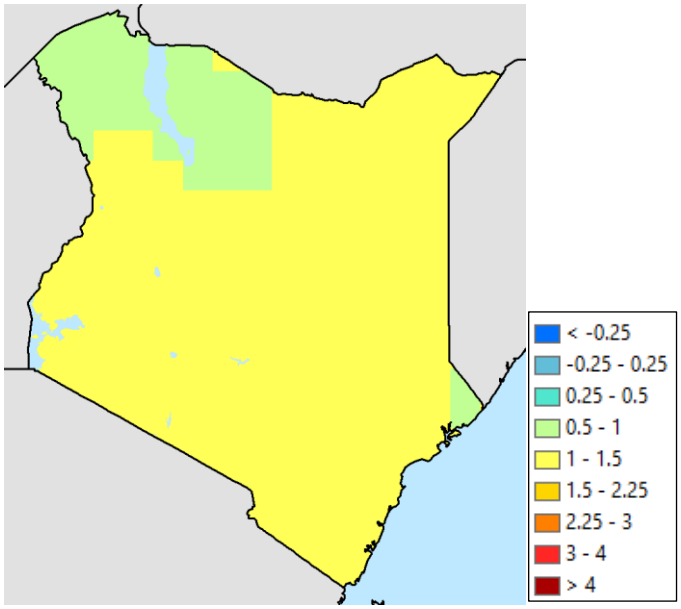
Climatic change increasingly poses a challenge to food security and nutrition in Kenya. Extreme weather events have become more frequent and climate zones have shifted in Kenya due to climate change (Kogo et al. 2021; Lawrence et al. 2023). Since the early 1990s, Kenya has been affected by extreme climate events, including numerous droughts and the *El-Niño* rains that resulted in the floods of 1997–1998 (Orindi and Ochieng, 2005). The country experienced heavy rains in several regions of Kenya beginning in October 2023, which led to riverine floods, flash floods, and landslides, and caused the death of 1,781 people (Human Rights Watch, 2024). Temperatures are expected to further rise across the country by around 1° C by 2050, which poses further challenges for agriculture (Lange 2021, see Figure 1).

Climate change impacts both staple foods, such as maize, and nutrient-dense foods like eggs, poultry, dairy, and aquaculture. It also affects other nutrient-dense foods, such as vegetables and fruits, which are vital components of the horticulture sector. The horticultural sector is the second-largest foreign exchange earner in Kenya's agriculture industry, after tea, contributing 36% to agriculture's share of GDP

(Matui et al., 2016), and continues to show growth. However, climate change poses a significant threat to the sector's sustainable development, particularly in areas that are experiencing water scarcity (Matui et al., 2016). Additionally, climate change poses a significant threat to Kenya's poultry industry, which provides a source of high-quality protein and micronutrients. Nyaiyo (2014) found the death of chickens from Newcastle disease in Kenya to be significantly correlated to both temperature and relative humidity. These diseases can lead to substantial losses in poultry populations, both in terms of mortality and reduced productivity, thereby affecting the supply of eggs and poultry meat.

Similarly, climate change has adverse effects on aquaculture. Extreme heat can make aquaculture species more susceptible to disease and infection and cause toxic algal bloom. Additionally, 90% of workers in the aquaculture sector in Sub-Saharan Africa, which has the highest incidence of poverty among all food production sectors in the region, are engaged in small-scale operations (Muthoka et al, 2024). Such operations are less resilient to climate change than larger-scale farms due to inferior management practices and resource access (Muthoka et al, 2024). As a result of the negative effects of climate change on aquaculture, which has immense potential for combatting poverty and malnutrition, the Kenyan government has prioritized climate-smart aquaculture, which can include selective breeding, fish management practices, and fish seed standards (Obiero et al, 2024).

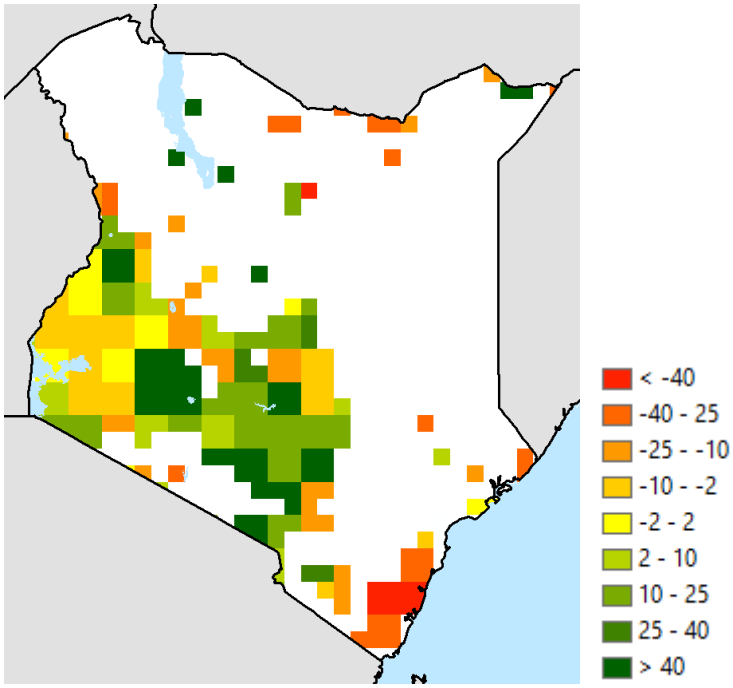
**Figure 1. Changes in mean daily maximum temperature, 2020 to 2050, median values across climate models ($^0$C).**




**Source:** Authors, based on Lange (2021).

Despite losses from climate extreme events in recent years, analysis using DSSAT crop modeling software (Hoogenboom et al. 2021; Hoogenboom et al. 2019; Jones et al. 2003) with input data from 5 climate models from ISIMIP3b (Lange 2021) under the high-emissions scenario (RCP8.5), suggests that Kenya will see a 9.4% boost in maize yields from climate change between 2005 and 2050 (Thomas and Robertson, 2024). Median climate impact is shown at half-degree (approximately 50-kilometer) resolution in Figure 2. Increases in yields are largely driven by maize that is grown at higher elevations where the temperature is currently below the optimal level for yields.

**Figure 2:** Median yield change in rainfed maize, percent, 2005 to 2050




**Source:** Thomas and Richardson (2024).

While national impact in an average year appears to be positive, Figure 2 clearly shows that climate impact is not positive in every location, even in an average year. Coastal areas, areas in northern Kenya, areas east of Mount Kenya, and the area around Lake Victoria all show declining yields. These areas, particularly the ones with larger projected reductions in yield, can be considered as "hotspots" that warrant special focus for intervention.

Furthermore, uncertainty—Thomas and Robertson (2024) report that one of the five climate models projects an 11.9 percent yield decline for maize—and potentially rising rainfall variability, increasing rainfall intensity, and higher serial correlation (i.e., multi-year droughts), all suggest that the frequency and intensity of droughts and floods could increase. These latter changes were not fully incorporated in the crop modeling work and, therefore, suggest that the positive median change from climate change could be overly optimistic, and that policy measures that increase resilience to climate shocks would be beneficial, especially at mitigating some of the large, negative impacts of climate extreme events.

## Gender Profile

Despite women's roles in different nodes of agricultural value chains, much of their work is unpaid, unrecognized, and treated as an extension of domestic duties (Ndanga et al., 2013). The Gender Inequality Index (GII) reflects gender-based disadvantages in three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment, and the labor market. It ranges from 0, where women and men fare equally, to 1, where one gender fares as poorly as possible in all dimensions. The GII for Kenya has showed slight improvement in recent years from 0.545 in 2018 to 0.526 in 2023 (UNDP), however, the country still fares worse than the world average of 0.465 (2019-2021).

The Gender Development Index (GDI) measures gender inequalities in three dimensions of development: health, education, and command over economic resources. Kenya's GDI was 0.941 in 2021 and 0.944

in 2023, lower than the world's average score of 0.955 in 2023 (UNDP, 2024). One of the key economic resources for agricultural livelihoods is land; and while about 80% of smallholder farmers in Kenya are women, less than 1% of women are landowners (Muli, 2023).

Girls face specific challenges in the Kenyan context. For example, Kahurani (2020) reported the number of teenage pregnancies as 175,488 in 2019 and 151,433 in 2020. Earlier surveys carried out in Kenya showed that 14.8% of 15-19-year-olds were either pregnant or married with one or two children (KNBS & ICF 2023), an age group that should be in secondary school. A 2010 study by the Kenya Human Rights Commission/Reproductive Health and Rights Alliance revealed that unwanted pregnancies and abortions were common among school-going youth, indicating that teenage pregnancy is a factor contributing to gender disparity in school completion rates (KHRC & RHRA, 2010).

Despite persistent gender disparities in the country, women's empowerment is associated with a range of positive outcomes. Diiro et al. (2018) calculated the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) in Kenya, which measures empowerment and gender parity using six indicators: production decisions, asset ownership, income decisions, credit decisions, group membership, and workload. Other than workload, all indicators of women's empowerment were positively and significantly associated with maize yields. Gardie (2019) found that women's empowerment in decision-making on production and asset ownership in Kenya significantly decreased household food insecurity. Kassie et al. (2020) found that women's empowerment had a significant positive effect on women's and households' dietary diversity. Additionally, the impact of the adoption of push-pull technology (a form of intercropping to control pests) on diet diversity was significantly higher for empowered women than disempowered women. This implies that individual and household welfare can be enhanced by combining women's empowerment interventions with climate-smart technology adoption, rather than treating them as separate development issues.

In the dairy value chain in Kenya, Katothya (2017) indicated that women's participation is highest at the production node, while at the milk traders' node, women operate at a smaller scale and experience more severe challenges related to access to capital, improved technology, information, and mobility than their male counterparts. In addition, the milk transportation service is almost exclusively reserved for male youth, while employment at Milk Collection Centres (MCCs) is also male-dominated, especially in management and field-related operations. Women made up less than one-third membership in the MCC boards and very few women owned dairy support services businesses, such as agrovet stores.

Gender disparities in Kenya's livestock sector remain prevalent, with women primarily responsible for managing small ruminants and poultry, while larger livestock, such as cattle and camels, are predominantly controlled by men. This limited ownership significantly reduces women's decision-making power over livestock assets and diminishes their economic benefits (Njuki & Sanginga, 2013; Kristjanson et al., 2014). Additionally, women are more vulnerable to the impacts of climate change on livestock, primarily due to limited access to resources needed for adaptation, such as drought-resistant breeds and supplementary feed (Ngigi et al., 2017). To address these challenges, there is a need for targeted training programs to empower women in adopting climate-smart livestock practices (Ngigi et al., 2017). Furthermore, introducing joint ownership policies and legal reforms to enhance women's rights to livestock is crucial to reducing gender disparities (Njuki & Sanginga, 2013; FAO, 2023). Community-level advocacy to promote women's participation in livestock governance is also recommended to foster greater inclusion (Kristjanson et al., 2014).

## Nutrition Profile

Overall, nutritional outcomes for children are improving across the country. The prevalence of stunting among children under 5 was 17.6% in 2022, an improvement from 29.7% in 2016. The prevalence of wasting (among children under 5) was 4.9% in 2022, down from 7% in 2016 (World Bank, 2024). The prevalence of low birthweight in Kenya, defined as a birth weight less than 2.5 kg, was estimated at 11.5% of live births in 2015 (UNICEF & WHO, 2015) and 9% between 2020-2021 (KNBS and ICF, 2023). In 2020-2021, 98% of infants were breastfed at least once and 60% were exclusively breastfed for the first six months (KNBS & ICF. 2023).

While nutritional outcomes for children are improving, malnutrition among adults is increasing. Kenya is undergoing rapid economic development and urbanization and experiencing increases in obesity prevalence (Rousham et al., 2020). Urbanization is associated with increased consumption of processed foods high in sugar, salt, and fats, leading to obesity and NCDs (Global Nutrition Report, 2021). Overnutrition is more likely to affect people living in urban areas and women living in both urban and rural areas (KNBS & ICF. 2023). Nationally, around one-third of women aged 15-49 are overweight or obese (Korir et al, 2024) and the prevalence of overweight and obesity among young women (aged 20–29) has increased dramatically over time, from 15% in 1993 to 45% in 2022 (KNBS & ICF. 2023).

NCDs account for over 40% of total morbidity in Kenya and are now recognized as a pressing public health concern evidenced by interventions to promote healthy diets (Ministry of Health Kenya, 2015; Rousham et al., 2020). Mwenda et al., (2018) note that NCD dietary risk factors are prevalent in Kenya, and are differentiated by age, sex, and occupation. The study found approximately one fifth of the respondents reported high dietary intake of salt and noted a lack of awareness of the health risks posed by dietary sugar and salt.

According to the World Health Organization (WHO) a healthy diet includes sufficient intake of fruits, vegetables, whole grains, and protein, while minimizing sugar and saturated fat. However, food affordability remains a key barrier as prices have risen dramatically in recent years, due to inflation and external shocks like the COVID-19 pandemic and drought. Additionally, as of 2015, over 35.6% of Kenyans live below the poverty line, earning less than $1.90 a day (Awiti, et al. 2018), making a healthy diet financially out of reach for a substantial portion of the population. Rising food costs often lead to a shift toward cheaper, calorie-dense, and nutrient-poor diets. Households prioritize staple foods, such as maize and rice, over nutrient-rich options like fruits, vegetables, and animal-based proteins. Several reports indicate that approximately 45% of Kenyans do not meet the dietary recommendation for consumption of fruits and vegetables, due to their unaffordability compared to staples (Shukri et al., 2021). A study by FAO revealed that about 42.8 million Kenyans were unable to afford a healthy diet in 2022, a significant increase from 35.1 million in 2017 (FAO et al., 2024).

Inadequate diets lead to micronutrient deficiencies, which tend to afflict the most vulnerable in Kenya, including women and children. A recent assessment found that many children in the complementary feeding period are unlikely to consume adequate quantities of iron, vitamin A, calcium, zinc, folate, and vitamin $B_{12}$, putting them at increased risk of micronutrient deficiencies and stunting (Ryckman et al., 2024). Reliance on staple foods like maize and rice limits dietary diversity, contributing to micronutrient deficiencies (Ruel & Brouwer, 2021).

Additionally, a large share of food in Kenya is sold in informal markets, where food safety practices are not always followed. Many vendors lack proper storage and handling facilities, leading to increased risk of food contamination and food-borne illnesses (Blackmore et al, 2022). Food-borne illnesses, such as

norovirus, remain a significant issue in Kenya as both consumers and food handlers lack proper education on hygiene and food safety practices (Wainaina, 2020). Furthermore, the use of pesticides in agriculture is widespread in Kenya. While they are important for protecting crops, improper or excessive use can lead to chemical contamination in food, which poses a significant health risk to consumers (FAO, 2019).

Addressing food safety and affordability challenges and promoting healthy diets in Kenya requires addressing systemic issues and empowering vulnerable populations. Increasing total factor productivity for animal-sourced foods, such as chicken, beef, eggs, and fish, as well as maize, which is used in animal feed, has been shown to be vital to increasing access to nutrients and removing barriers to diverse diets. Additionally, strengthening regulation of food markets to mitigate the effects of inflation and prevent exploitation by intermediaries, who hold a high degree of market power in Kenya, will also increase the affordability of healthy diets (Traoré, et al., 2024). Other actions should include training and promotion of urban farming initiatives and kitchen gardens to increase local availability of fresh and affordable produce. Reducing food-borne illnesses and ensuring safer food requires governments to strengthen food safety legislation and control systems, invest in training for food producers and handlers, and implement risk-based measures across the entire food supply chain (Committee on World Food Security, 2021).

## Integration of Gender, Climate, and Nutrition

Climate change affects men and women differently due to their gender-differentiated roles and ability to respond to climate hazards. For example, women and girls are responsible for the majority of unpaid household care duties, such as the collection of water and fuelwood, that are highly affected by climate change (Galwab, 2024). A major contributor towards women's vulnerability to the impacts of climate change in Kenya is the lack of secure access to productive capital, including land, credit, and agricultural inputs, which hinders their ability to obtain sufficient and nutritious food (Etale & Simatele, 2021). This affects the overall food security of households and their ability to provide a balanced diet.

The adoption of climate-smart agriculture practices increases productivity and resilience to climate hazards, while advancing food security and other development objectives (Zhao et al. 2023). Kabubo-Mariara et al. (2017) find that farm-level adaptation increases the production of calories available for home consumption. By adopting climate-smart practices, women may have access to more nutritious, diverse, and locally-grown food, leading to improved dietary diversity and better health outcomes (FAO, 2017). This, in turn, can reduce the incidence of malnutrition, stunting, and other diet-related health issues in both women and children.

However, women farmers face constraints in adopting climate-smart agriculture practices, such as high input costs, lack of credit, limited income, and high labor requirements (Chibowa et al., 2020). Women also have more a limited voice and fewer leadership opportunities in rural agricultural organizations and in other spaces where climate decisions are made. A case study from Kenya shows that men and women participate in different types of groups, and that men tend to have a wider social network, leading to greater participation in community decision-making and influence over adaptation decisions (Ngigi et al., 2017).

Moreover, previous studies indicate that few climate-smart interventions address underlying gender inequalities, as there is meagre incorporation of gender-responsive approaches in climate change and resilience programs (Bryan et al., 2017). In addition, Tavenner and Crane (2018) found that interventions aimed at commercializing the dairy sector in Kenya have overlooked how gender power imbalances limit

women's ability to engage in and benefit from dairy commercialization. Formal market participation in Kenya is shaped by gender norms, which reinforce men's privilege over agriculture, dairy, and livestock profits (ibid). There is a need for the creation and support of gender-inclusive platforms for community engagement, where women can voice their concerns, participate in decision-making, and contribute to climate adaptation strategies (UNFCC, 2017). The integration of gender-disaggregated indicators and nutrition outcomes into climate change adaptation frameworks and monitoring systems can help ensure that climate projects evaluate their impact on both women and men and lead to nutrition improvements.

## Policy Analysis

The 2010 Kenya Constitution and Kenya Vision 2030 actively support women's empowerment and gender equality. Section 27 (3) under Part 2 of the constitution emphasizes the right to equal treatment for women and men in various spheres, while Vision 2030's section 5.6 envisions equity in power and resource distribution, improved livelihoods for vulnerable groups, and globally competitive and prosperous youth. As a result of the country's strong commitment to gender equality, climate change and nutrition policies have successfully mainstreamed gender objectives. However, little progress has been made to integrate nutrition into climate policies and action plans.

### *Climate change and gender policy*

The National Climate Change Response Strategy 2010, the National Adaptation Plan 2015–2030, the National Climate Change Action Plan 2013–2017, and Kenya's Second Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC), 2031-2035 can be considered gender-responsive, due to their commitment to addressing gender inequality issues within the climate change sector and recognition of the specific gender-related needs and constraints, particularly in rural contexts.

Both the National Climate Change Response Strategy 2010 document and the National Adaptation Plan 2015–2030 support the strengthening of institutional capacities to implement gender-responsive programs, along with advocating for gender-responsive budgeting and monitoring and evaluation. The National Climate Change Action Plan 2013–2017 accounted for gender considerations in various themes, such as land/water/forests, stressors and conflicts, economic activities and markets, ecosystem services provisions, collective management, and community adaptation, however, it overlooked gender considerations in climate financing, research, and technology. This document includes budgeting and monitoring for climate stressors and conflicts only. Nonetheless, it expresses a commitment to address gender inequalities within the environment sector and recognizes the specific needs and constraints associated with gender. Kenya's Second Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC), 2031-2035, released in 2025, has a strong focus on gender equity and was informed by a comprehensive gender analysis (Republic of Kenya, 2025). It further emphasizes gender-differentiated vulnerabilities to climate change and proposes that climate actions be implemented in a gender-responsive manner.

### *Nutrition and gender policy*

The National Food and Nutrition Security Policy 2011, The National Food and Nutrition Security Policy Implementation Framework 2017-2022, and the Kenya National Nutrition Action Plan 2018-2022, each demonstrate a clear recognition of gender considerations. These documents signify the county's commitment to addressing gender inequalities in nutrition, acknowledge the specific nutritional needs and constraints of various vulnerable demographics, including rural women and children, and outline measures tailored to tackle these concerns. The Kenya Health Policy 2014-2030 and the Kenya Health

Sector Strategic and Investment Plan (2018-2023) outline a comprehensive approach to addressing the fundamental causes of gender disparities. They deliberately incorporate strategies to challenge gender norms and unequal gendered power dynamics. The Kenya Health Sector Strategic and Investment Plan (2018-2023) focuses on addressing gender-based violence, ensuring equity in the distribution of health services and interventions, and addressing gender disparities as an enabling condition for improving health outcomes.

### *Climate change and nutrition policies*

The integration of nutrition in national climate policies is weaker. The National Climate Change Response Strategy 2010 mentions that malnutrition resulting from droughts can affect those dependent on subsistence agriculture and advocates for strengthening biotechnological research in crop and livestock varieties with improved nutritional value and addressing childhood malnutrition through feeding programs and vitamins supplements. The National Adaptation Plan 2015–2030 mentions that climate-driven reductions in food accessibility are likely to increase malnutrition with often irreversible consequences for young children but does not identify approaches to address malnutrition through climate action. The Second NDC mentions increasing sustainable access to nutritious foods as a priority program area in the agriculture sector, but does details any specific actions. The National Climate Change Action Plan 2013–2017 does not mention nutrition.

Similarly, nutrition policies only acknowledge the risk posed by climate change. The National Food and Nutrition Security Policy Implementation Framework 2017-2022 mentions that climate change is a threat to food production and highlights a few strategic interventions for integrating climate change adaptation in agricultural development programs and policies but without indicating any budget allocation. The Kenya Health Policy 2014-2030 merely mentions climate change as a challenge.

## Conclusions and Recommendations

While there is evidence that climate change exacerbates food insecurity, malnutrition, and gender inequalities in Kenya, research at the intersection of these issues remains limited. At the national level, notable progress has been made to integrate gender into climate change and nutrition policies. However, the implementation of gender-responsive interventions is lagging due to insufficient budgeting and inadequate monitoring mechanisms for the gender components of these policies. Additionally, many environmental and climate policies fail to recognize the critical intersection of nutrition and climate change, while nutrition policies lack strategies to address climate-related challenges.

To address these gaps, a holistic approach is needed—one that includes gender-responsive policies, empowerment programs for women, and targeted interventions that enhance resilience to climate impacts, while improving food security and nutrition. Greater institutional coordination and capacity development are essential to fully integrate gender, climate change, and nutrition considerations into policies and to translate plans into actionable outcomes.

Such policies can focus on several actions to increase climate resilience, facilitate women's empowerment in agrifood systems, and improve nutrition, including:

- Boosting women's access to key agricultural inputs, such as land, fertilizers, and pesticides to reduce gender productivity gaps.

- Providing equal access to climate-smart agriculture practices, training, and technologies, such as drought-resistant seeds, water conservation systems, and early-warning mechanisms, to help both men and women adapt to climate stressors and shocks, like droughts and floods.
- Enhancing women's access to financial resources, including credit, microfinance, and insurance, to enable them to invest in climate-resilient agriculture and secure household nutrition.
- Promote community-based nutrition education programs, targeting both men and women, to increase awareness of balanced diets and the importance of diverse and nutrient-rich foods.
- Develop policies and interventions that increase the availability and affordability of nutritious foods, particularly for vulnerable populations, to combat malnutrition.
- Support women in diversifying agricultural production, including the cultivation of nutrient-rich crops such as vegetables, fruits, and legumes, which are essential for household nutrition.
- Train women farmers, food vendors, and handlers on proper food safety practices, including hygiene, safe pesticide use, and post-harvest handling techniques to minimize contamination risks.

## ABOUT THE AUTHORS

**Harriet Mawia** is a Research Officer in the Development Strategies and Governance Unit of IFPRI

**Nathaniel Ferguson** is a Research Analyst in the Natural Resources and Resilience Unit of IFPRI

**Elizabeth Bryan** is a Research Fellow in the Natural Resources and Resilience Unit of IFPRI

**Timothy S. Thomas** is a Senior Research Fellow in the Foresight and Policy Modeling Unit of IFPRI

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1201 Eye Street, NW, Washington, DC 20005 USA | T. +1-202-862-5600 | F. +1-202-862-5606 | Email: ifpri@cgiar.org | www.ifpri.org | www.ifpri.info