

The HFA had a goal to substantially reduce disaster losses by 2015, and had a clear mandate that “a gender perspective should be integrated into all disaster risk management policies, plans and decision-making processes, including those related to risk assessment, early warning, information management, and education and training.”

The Sendai Framework expands its gender discourse when it:

- > Recognizes gender considerations as a priority for enhanced disaster preparedness – “Disaster risk reduction requires an all-of-society engagement and partnership. It also requires empowerment and inclusive, accessible and non-discriminatory participation, paying special attention to people disproportionately affected by disasters, especially the poorest. A gender, age, disability and cultural perspective should be integrated in all policies and practices, and women and youth leadership should be promoted. In this context, special attention should be paid to the improvement of organized voluntary work of citizens.”
- > Recognizes role of women as key stakeholder – “Women and their participation are critical to effectively managing disaster risk and designing, resourcing and implementing gender-sensitive disaster risk reduction policies, plans and programmes; and adequate capacity building measures need to be taken to empower women for preparedness as well as to build their capacity to secure alternate means of livelihood in post-disaster situations.”

The United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNDRR) has been tasked to support the implementation, follow-up and review of the Sendai Framework. Towards this, the UNDRR launched the Sendai Framework Voluntary Commitments (SFVC) online platform in 2018 with an aim to mobilize, monitor and take stock of commitments from a diverse range of stakeholders for the implementation of the framework. In 2019, UNDRR published the first report on SFVC which synthesized and analyzed voluntary commitments published to date. The report highlighted the gaps in implementation of the gender mandate. There are only six voluntary commitments; with gender in only 3 per cent of themes covered in voluntary commitments. As the report states, “Increased focus is needed on Priority for Action 3, Targets D and F, themes such as children & youth, gender, and science & technology along with hazards that are relevant to the context where Voluntary Commitments are being implemented.” (UNDRR 2019a).

National Frameworks for CCDRR and Gender Mainstreaming

Different mechanisms and programmes defined under the UNFCCC have given countries opportunities to identify climate change needs, priorities, strategies and actions in various ways. The most critical among them have been the National Communications, the National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPA), the National Adaptation Plan (NAP) and the Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs). This section provides a brief overview of the two planning-related mechanisms, NAPAs and NAPs.

NATIONAL ADAPTATION PROGRAMMES OF ACTION

The Marrakesh COP 2001 had established the Least Developed Countries (LDCs) work programme, with a purpose of providing support to them for addressing their vulnerabilities. This included the NAPAs, which provide a process for the LDCs to identify priority activities that respond to their urgent and immediate needs on adapting to climate change wherein delays in meeting those need could significantly increase the vulnerability or lead to higher costs at a later stage (UNFCCC n.d. (b)). The key features of NAPAs include:

1. Identification of specific climate-related vulnerabilities, and immediate and urgent adaptation needs of the LDCs;
2. A multidisciplinary approach that build on existing plans and programmes with the aim to mainstreaming NAPAs into development planning;
3. Not research-based, with stress on participatory processes. NAPAs build on existing information with community input as an important source;
4. Contain a list of ranked priority adaptation activities and projects, with short profiles of each to assist in the development of proposals for implementation;
5. Action-oriented, country-driven, flexible and based on national circumstances; and
6. Presented in a simple format, easily understood both by policy-level decision-makers and the public.

Once a NAPA is submitted to the UNFCCC Secretariat, the LDC Party is eligible to access funding under the Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF), which is managed by the Global Environment Facility (GEF), for the implementation of the NAPA. As of December 2017, 51 countries had completed and submitted their NAPAs to the UNFCCC Secretariat (UNFCCC 2017).

NAPAs have been developed for the following countries in Asia:

- > Afghanistan (2009)
- > Bangladesh (2005; updated 2009)
- > Bhutan (2006)
- > Cambodia (2007)
- > Lao PDR (2009)
- > Maldives (2008)
- > Myanmar (2013)
- > Nepal (2010)
- > Timor-Leste (2011)

All of these are available at <https://unfccc.int/topics/resilience/workstreams/national-adaptation-programmes-of-action/napas-received>.

UNFPA and WEDO (2009b) have highlighted why women or gender advocates should care about NAPAs, raising important questions to look at within the existing NAPAs:

- > What are the key vulnerabilities identified?
 - Have women's priorities and concerns at the country level been identified and included?
- > What are the activities prioritized in the country's NAPA and who stands to benefit from these activities?
 - How would the livelihoods of men and women be affected by these options?
 - Are women's time poverty concerns included?
- > How were community inputs gathered in the preparation phase?
 - Who participated in the process?
 - Were women and men at the grassroots level both involved in the consultation processes?

There have been some good efforts at the country level towards these. Here are samples of good practices on gender mainstreaming in NAPAs:

- > Bangladesh listed gender equality as one of the criteria for selecting activities. Of 15 projects outlined, three included women among the beneficiaries. Indigenous women participated in the NAPA process.
- > Women's groups participated in the development of the NAPA for Eritrea. One of the projects particularly targeted female-headed households.
- > In Malawi, women's NGOs were consulted during the preparation of the NAPA, and gender is one of eight criteria for selecting projects. Proposed interventions included empowering women through access to microfinance, ensuring easier access to water and energy sources, and developing a rural electrification programme. Three of five priority activities will disaggregate beneficiaries by age and sex.

Unfortunately, not all NAPAs directly include women or involve them as stakeholders. Raising awareness in the communities about the gendered division of labour, securing school fees so that girls are not denied an education, working directly with women on sustainable collection techniques or systems, or even setting up microfinance initiatives for women and men to build a fund for purchasing emergency water which could have been included in the NAPA as gender-sensitive activities that would strengthen its efficacy are absent (UNFPA and WEDO 2009b).

In April 2009, the Gender Advisory Team at the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) conducted a review of the 39 plans then available. It concluded that while several of the NAPAs mentioned gender equality and women's empowerment as principles, none demonstrated a clear commitment to these principles by mainstreaming gender throughout the document. Only about half the NAPAs identified gender-differentiated impacts from climate change, and most of these recognized women as a particularly vulnerable group.

In addition, very few NAPAs demonstrate a commitment to gender equality through their projects, despite the fact that several stated that gender equality and/or women's empowerment guided the project. For example, neither the NAPA for Bangladesh nor for Cambodia include women as stakeholders or actors or pay specific attention to the position of women and girls in the context of climate change. Instead, women are identified as the most vulnerable and in need of protection (UN Women 2016).

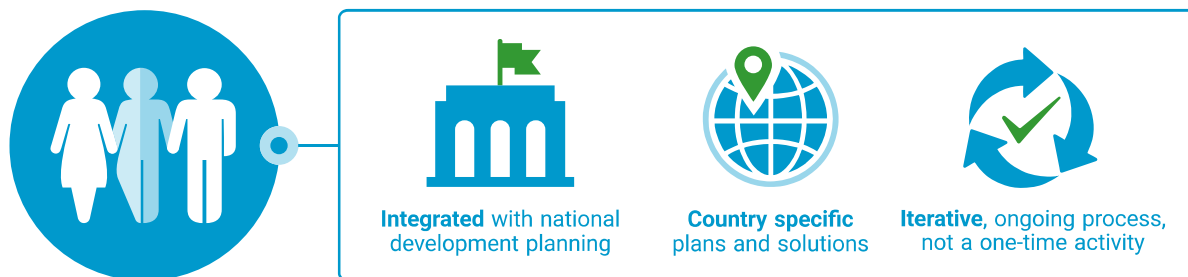
Although most of the NAPAs have already been written, not all projects have been approved for and there is still an opportunity to influence that process, especially at the national level and in the implementing agencies. The fact that women have been regularly included as among the "most vulnerable," and should then be a primary target of NAPA projects, provides an entry point to ensure that their specific needs are taken into account.

NATIONAL ADAPTATION PLAN

The National Adaptation Plan (NAP) process was established in 2011 in Durban (South Africa). In 2012, a UNFCCC experts group developed a detailed set of NAP technical guidelines to assist developing countries, especially the Least Developed Countries (LDCs), with adaptation planning.

The NAP process builds on the principle that adaptation planning is a continuous, evolving and iterative process. Thus, NAP is a flexible process which incorporates local strategies and priorities following international guidelines.

FIGURE 2-1: KEY FEATURES OF THE NAP APPROACH



Source: Adapted from McGray (2014).

It guides countries to conduct comprehensive medium- and long-term climate adaptation planning, building on each country’s existing adaptation activities and helping integrate climate change into national decision-making.

The process has four main “elements,” each of which consists of four to five “steps.” The four NAP Elements include:

1. Laying the groundwork, which includes stocktaking of needs, opportunities, entry points and key resources for adaptation. It also includes establishing a national institutional framework for CCDRR within the country along with a legal or administrative mandate to legitimize the process.
2. Preparatory elements consisting of analytical activities to fill the information gaps identified above. This may include risk and vulnerability assessments, review of appropriate adaptation options, synthesis and integration of existing adaptation plans from line ministries or sub-national governments, among others.
3. Implementation strategies which build on information and criteria from Element B to set priorities and decide on the sequence of activities. These may focus on how to pay for adaptation, build needed capacities, and establish roles and responsibilities for coordinated implementation.
4. Reporting, Monitoring and Review mechanisms.

The NAP process has a clear gender equality mandate which asserts that countries, “follow a country-driven, gender-sensitive, participatory and fully transparent approach, taking into consideration vulnerable groups, communities and ecosystems.”

The NAPs development process is thus a crucial opportunity to advance gender equality in climate planning and preparedness. The UNFCCC and various gender organizations have already developed approaches and tools to enable these (described in detail in the next session).

NAP not the same thing as a NAPA

The NAPAs use a less flexible, eight-step process that results in a list of discrete projects, not a holistic plan. It focuses on the most urgent and immediate adaptation needs of the LDCs, and is linked for funding under the GEF’s LDC fund.

The NAP, on the other hand, is more of an iterative process focused on mainstreaming CCDRR within the current national development planning frameworks. It looks at medium- and long-term adaptation needs. NAPs are not linked directly to any funding sources. Other than LDCs, developing countries are also encouraged to come up with their NAP.

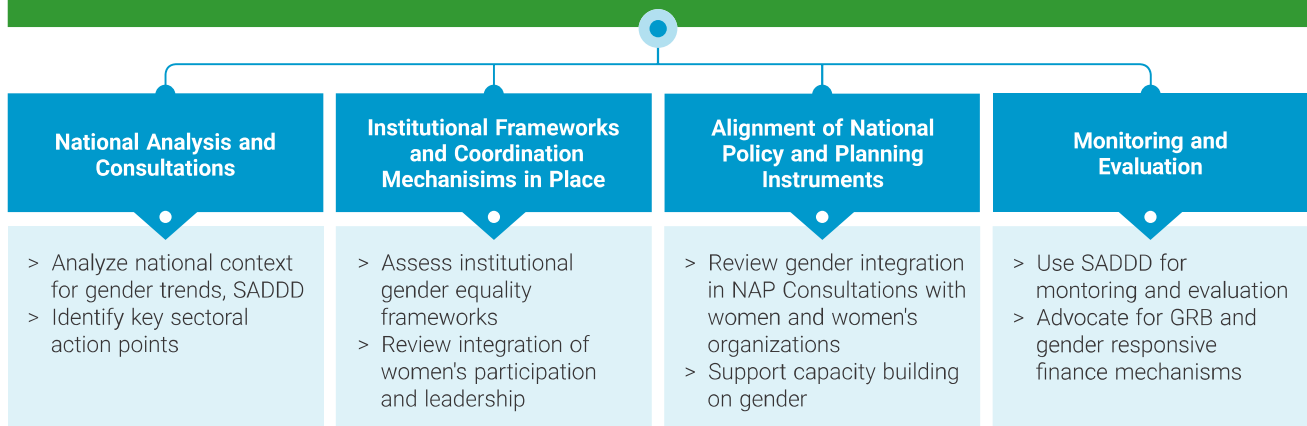
Source: McGray (2014)

NATIONALLY DETERMINED CONTRIBUTIONS

Prior to the Paris Agreement in 2015, each signatory country was invited to outline the domestic climate actions they intend to take under the new agreement. These outlines are known as Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (INDCs). The INDCs reflect a country’s ambition by indicating the steps that the government will take to address climate change, and foster transparency, accountability, environmental integrity and capability. The principal purpose of INDCs is to encourage ambitious commitments in relation to climate change mitigation or the reduction of GHG emissions. Parties were also invited to include an adaptation component and additional information that “facilitates the clarity, transparency and understanding” of the INDC.

WEDO (2016) undertook a gender analysis of the 190 INDCs submitted to UNFCCC. Of the 64 INDCs that included a reference to women or gender, 27 mentioned it in context of adaptation, 12 in context of mitigation and

FIGURE 2-2: BUILDING BLOCKS FOR GENDER RESPONSIVE NDCs



Source: Adapted from Huyer (2016).

only 22 as a cross-cutting issue. Further, 34 countries mentioned women as a vulnerable category, around 15 referred to their role as decision makers and only six referred to women as agents of change.

The INDCs turn into Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) once a country formally joins the Paris Agreement. UNDP and GGCA (2016) identified four core building blocks in the NDC process, which can be used as entry points for engendering the NDCs (Huyer 2016). These have been brought together in Figure 2-2.

There is also a provision for a five-year review and update of the NDCs. As of January 2021, 190 Parties had submitted their first NDC and eight Parties their second NDCs (UNFCCC n.d. (c)). With the five-year review cycle of the NDCs being in process, it is an opportune time for integrating gender equality into national climate change planning and action, along with the harmonization of gender and climate change planning and policies across different ministries and sectors of a country (Huyer 2016).

DOMESTIC CCDRR POLICIES AND PLANS

The potential impact of climate change and disasters on economic growth and sustainable development has been well documented. Realizing this, many developing countries in Asia, especially the LDCs, have developed climate change and disaster-related policies, including national climate change policies, strategies and plans. Many LDCs have also committed to mainstream climate change into development planning and processes. Bhutan, for instance, included climate resilience and a carbon neutrality goal as key result areas at the national and sectoral levels in the 11th Five Year Development Plan (2013-2018) (Yangka, et al. 2018).

While a few countries have made some progress, the integration of gender into these national level CCDRR policies and plans still remains a challenge. A review by UN Women of the key CCDRR policies and plans indicates that countries in South and South-East Asia show progress in integrating gender equality at the policy level; although many strategies and policies depict women as vulnerable victims and in need of saving rather than able and equal citizens with equal rights to men (UN Women 2016). Table 2-1 brings together some of the key CCDRR and national policies and plans in select Asian countries along with gender mainstreaming components within the same.

Disaster risk reduction policies tend to be more advanced on gender than climate change policy. The UN International Strategy for Disaster Reduction “has taken specific steps to include gender” in the national Disaster Risk Reduction Plans of Action that countries formulate under the Hyogo Framework for Action (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015).

TABLE 2-1: GENDER MAINSTREAMING REVIEW OF CCDRR PLANS IN SELECT ASIAN COUNTRIES

| COUNTRY | KEY CCDRR AND NATIONAL POLICIES/PLANS | GENDER MAINSTREAMING COMPONENT |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| AFGHANISTAN | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > NAPA (2009) > National Development Strategy (2008 - 2013) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Addressed very briefly with a statement that climate change affects women differently, but no specificities |
| BANGLADESH* | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > NAPA (2005, updated 2009) > Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan (2008) > National Strategy for Accelerated Poverty Reduction (2009 - 2011) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Integrated into the policy and project design. > Extensively discussed within the document with specific vulnerabilities or capacities identified. |
| BHUTAN | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > NAPA (2006) > 10th Year Plan (2008 - 2013) > 11th Five Year Development Plan (2013 - 2018) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Limited recognition of gender-specific vulnerabilities and capacities. > Most projects are aimed at infrastructure and reducing exposure, thus, there is limited attention to human dimension. |
| CAMBODIA* | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > NAPA (2006) > Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan (2014 - 18) > Gender and Climate Change Strategic Plan (2013 - 2023) > Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan (2014 - 2023) | <p>Identified gender equality as one of the guiding principles for reducing vulnerability and identified gender and climate change strategic objectives.</p> <p>Three of the eight objectives of the CCCSP considered gender issues or identified women as beneficiaries. Gender issues were also integrated in the monitoring and evaluation section.</p> |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > National Action Plan for Disaster Risk Reduction (2014 - 2018) > Climate Change Strategic Plan for Disaster Management Sector, 2013 > Law on Disaster Management (2015) | <p>The 2013 plan had only one mention of promoting women's participation but the 2014 plan recognized disproportionate impact on women and also had a strategic component for gender disaggregated post disaster assessment.</p> <p>Article 18 of the law also mentioned the need to "pay high attention to the needs of women, children, elderly, handicapped, and disabled persons" in the event of a disaster.</p> |
| INDIA | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > National Action Plan on Climate Change (NAPCC) (2008) > 11th Five-Year Plan (2007 - 2012) | <p>Differentiated impact of climate change on women recognized but not discussed within the NAPCC main document.</p> |
| NEPAL | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > NAPA (2010) > Three-Year Interim Plan (2007 - 2010) | <p>Addressed gender-specific vulnerabilities and capacities as a cross cutting issue throughout the policy.</p> <p>Gender-specific vulnerability study conducted as part of policy processes.</p> |
| VIETNAM | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > National Strategy on Climate Change 2011 | <p>Specific target to include women's priority concerns of food, water, health and most importantly gender equality in the context of climate change.</p> |

Source: Adapted from UN Women (2016); and Reggers and Lim (2019)

* Bangladesh and Cambodia have also developed Climate Change and Gender Action Plan (CCGAP) which is discussed in the next session.

CASE STUDY: NATIONAL CCDRR FRAMEWORK IN BANGLADESH

Bangladesh has been involved all through the international climate agenda evolution processes especially in terms of adaptation planning. The government adopted many steps to strengthen its approach to climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction, and to mainstreaming of gender and women's concerns in it.

A. Policy Mechanisms

The Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan (BCCSAP) came into force in 2009 as an extension of the NAPA. The plan focuses on medium- and long-term strategies in six thematic areas: i) Food security, social protection and health; ii) Comprehensive disaster management; iii) Infrastructure; iv) Research and knowledge management; v) Mitigation and low carbon development production; and vi) Capacity building and institutional strengthening for climate funding.

The BCCSAP originally focused on women only as a vulnerable category, stating: "The needs of the poor and vulnerable, including women and children, will be prioritized in all activities under the Action Plan." In 2013, the Bangladesh Climate Change and Gender Action Plan (CCGAP) was developed by the Ministry of Environment and Forests (MoEF). The CCGAP outlined clear objectives and activities with verifiable indicators within the ambit of the four pillars of BCCSAP 2009, and highlighted specific contributions that women can make. This CCGAP, was designed with the support of the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), and provided a robust means of mainstreaming gender into existing policy frameworks. There are two specific areas of BCCSAP in which gender plays a main role: i) Livelihood protection of vulnerable socioeconomic groups; and ii) Mainstreaming gender in climate change management. Of the 44 programmes under the BCCSAP, 22 highlighted 'gender' as an important aspect.

B. Funding Mechanisms

The BCCSAP is implemented through two funding mechanisms: i) multi-donor Bangladesh Climate Change Resilience Fund (BCCRF); and ii) the Bangladesh Climate Change Trust Fund (BCCTF). The BCCRF is supported through the Global Climate Change Alliance Plus Initiative (GCCA+); 80 per cent of the funding to sectoral ministries/ departments is for implementing climate-related projects. The BCCTF is provided annual funding by the finance ministry and it funds initiatives of the government, NGOs and research bodies in climate change and disaster

management. However, the GAP implementation is partial due to lack of specific linkages with budget allocations for a large number of ministries

C. Tracking Mechanisms

A Climate Public Expenditure and Institutional Review (CPEIR) was conducted in the fiscal year 2012. Based on the CPEIR recommendations, the government formulated the Climate Fiscal Framework (CFF) in 2014 to ensure the effective use of domestic and international climate finance within the national budget process. The CFF designs the Climate Expenditure Tracking Framework (CETF) which enabled tracking and monitoring of climate-related expenditures in a systematic and transparent manner. In 2012, the CPEIR also identified as many as 37 divisions and ministries. Each line ministry was asked to explain separately "how each of its strategic objectives and associated activities related to the objective would contribute towards the government's goals of poverty alleviation and women's development." This was a significant move in understanding how funds contribute to women's development.

D. Institutional Mechanisms

The MoEF is responsible for climate change related policy formulation, coordination and implementation, in collaboration with related national and international actors. The Bangladesh Climate Change Trust Authority (BCFA) within the Ministry is coordinates climate change projects in the country. The Governing Council is the decision-making entity For the Resilience Fund. It comprises six ministers, including the minister of environment and forests, two representatives each from contributing development partners and CSOs, and the Country Director of the World Bank as an observer. Palli Karma-Sahayak Foundation (PKSF), a state-owned 'not-for-profit' organization funds micro-credit programmes. It coordinates the 10 per cent of funds flowing through the Resilience Fund to NGOs, CSOs and private implementing partners.

A major critique of the policy landscape is the failure to create a legal mandate and institutional mechanisms to ensure gender mainstreaming in the approval of projects and allocation of budgets. There is also no institutional mechanism to coordinate and harmonize cross-sectoral interventions in climate change programs by the related ministries. In addition, the translation of the gender equality rhetoric from national policy into local action remains a challenge which makes gender mainstreaming at the local level challenging.

Source: Adapted from Khan, Haque and Rouf (2013); UN Women (2016); and scoping study done under the EmPower project.