TRAINING MANUAL ON GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE RESILIENCE
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UN Women would like to acknowledge the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida) for their financial support for the preparation and production of this training manual which is part of the UN Women’s project Strengthening Human Rights and Gender Equality Through Climate Change Action and Disaster Risk Reduction (EmPower).

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Attrition – Please cite the work as: Chauhan, Dharmistha. 2021. Training Manual on Gender and Climate Change Resilience. Kuala Lumpur and Bangkok: The Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women (ARROW) and UN Women Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific.

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Cover Photo: A farmer working on a field in Tamil Nadu, India. V.S. Anandakrishna/Shutterstock Module 1: A farmer who has improved her income by growing higher-yielding cassava. Dang Nai Vietnam. OAT/Georgia Smith/Flicker Module 2: A farmer demonstrating the tractor bought with funds from selling cassava. Champassak Laos Ford. OAT/Georgia Smith/Flicker Module 3: A worker in Tangail, Bangladesh processing and sun drying fibers from pineapple leaves. Jahangir Alam GuhaChota/Shutterstock Module 4: Woman from Vanuatu, holding exotic colorful flowers. Cavan Images/Shutterstock Module 5: A farmer from an ethnic minority group in Dak Lak, Vietnam. OAT/Georgia Smith/Flicker; and Concluding Module: A health worker preparing injection of COV 19 vaccine at a hospital in Dhaka, Bangladesh. Mamunur Rashid/Shutterstock

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In 25 years since the adoption of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, significant positive changes were made in many dimensions of gender equality and women’s empowerment. However, the challenges still exist in a wide range of areas, particularly in gender mainstreaming in climate change policy spaces.

Mainstreaming gender equality in climate change is especially relevant for the Asia-Pacific, which is one of the most vulnerable regions to climate change impacts and disasters in the world. Women and girls in the region have suffered from existing unbalanced structural systems and institutionalized gender inequalities. These intertwined factors consequently increase their vulnerability to climate change impacts. When disasters hit, women and girls often suffer from human rights violation, gender-based violence, conflict and tension over access to resources, early and forced marriages, climate-induced forced migration and human trafficking. A large proportion of women in Asia and the Pacific derive their livelihoods from climate-sensitive agriculture and natural resources, which makes them more sensitive to impacts of climate change. Women’s capacities, skills and knowledge for effectively addressing climate change and reducing disaster risks are often untapped, due to discriminatory stereotypes and social norms that devalue their knowledge and lead to their exclusion from decision-making. Their ability to adapt to climate change is compromised by their subordinate position.

UN Women Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific has been working with a vast number of stakeholders to implement the Beijing+25 agenda, while also taking an extensive effort to mainstream gender in climate action, policies and plans as well as supporting communities’ collective action. We know the pressures faced by those who are most vulnerable to climate change and how their struggles were exacerbated by the global pandemic. We have been working closely with women in communities on the COVID-19 recovery, recognizing the importance of green and inclusive recovery, preventing sliding back to unsustainable and damaging practices, and securing better security and preparedness to disasters and other risks, including global threats to public health.

We believe that when everyone in every corner of our society acts on climate change, we could build more resilient and sustainable world together. When women and girls come together to form collectives and build their own agency, their voice is empowered and heard, and their action is amplified. We strongly believe that climate action can be effective when all of us are taking our best efforts, including women and men, girls and boys, and all humankind irrespective of sexual orientations, age, (dis)ability and race. Without women’s integration in all facets of decision-making processes, solutions to reduce the impacts of climate change would always be insufficient.

This manual on gender mainstreaming in climate change and disaster risk reduction for civil society organizations is an important step to prepare everyone, especially women and girls, on the ground to be the changemakers at the frontier of climate action.
This training manual is a comprehensive knowledge product developed within the Empower project. It is a result of a detailed needs assessment done in the three pilot countries – Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam – where we reached out to several CSOs to identify their capacity gaps and needs. This manual is designed for use by CSOs in the Asia-Pacific region working with communities on gender, climate change resilience, human rights, and disaster risk reduction. It covers the key concepts, issues, policy frameworks, and practices in these domains and takes a practice-oriented approach to learning that can be replicated in real life situations to enhance decision-making, strengthen community-based women's resilience, advocate for gender mainstreaming, and design gender-responsive projects. The coverage of examples and case studies included in the manual is beyond the pilot countries, making it relevant for use in wider Asia-Pacific context.

Through this manual, we also bring sexual and reproductive health and rights to the forefront, a critical issue that is often missed out of the development equation. Having bodily autonomy and access to sexual and reproductive health services are integral to gender equality and health rights, and therefore fundamental to building climate-resilient societies. The long-term objective is to have extensive application of this manual in promoting gender-responsive climate action on the ground and empowering women as change-makers in societies. We hope CSOs will find this manual useful for advancing their work in gender-responsive climate-resilient action.

Our work and research with CSOs in South and South-East Asia show that CSOs are aware of the gender gaps and gender inequalities in climate change, and disaster risk reduction policies and programmes. However, they experience many capacity barriers in gender mainstreaming, either in their project level activities or in advocating for it at local and sub-/national levels. Fulfilling these capacity gaps from the end of CSOs can strengthen the linkages between mainstreaming at different levels, and also present a more effective grassroots picture of local problems during policy formulation at all levels.
ABOUT THE MANUAL

This Training Manual on Gender and Climate Change Resilience is designed for use by Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) in Asia working with communities on gender, climate change resilience and disaster risk reduction. The manual aims to strengthen the capacities of CSOs to mainstream gender in their practices and to actively advocate for gender mainstreaming in policies, programmes, projects and legislation. The long-term objective is to promote climate resilience action on the ground with a gender equality perspective in the forefront.

ABREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>°C</td>
<td>Degree Celsius</td>
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<tr>
<td>3FV</td>
<td>Forest-Fruit-Fish and Vegetable</td>
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<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>Agents of Change</td>
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<td>ACCRN</td>
<td>Asian Cities Climate Change Resilience Network</td>
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<td>ACIIFF</td>
<td>Asia-Pacific Climate Change Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>ACTIVE</td>
<td>Actions Changing the Incidence of Vector-Borne Endemic Diseases</td>
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<td>ADB</td>
<td>Asian Development Bank</td>
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<td>AE</td>
<td>Accredited Entity</td>
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<td>AF</td>
<td>Adaptation Fund</td>
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<td>AfDB</td>
<td>African Development Bank</td>
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<td>AMF</td>
<td>Aabash Memorial Foundation</td>
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<td>AOG</td>
<td>Action Orientation Group</td>
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<td>APF</td>
<td>Adaptation Policy Framework</td>
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<td>APRCEM</td>
<td>Asia Pacific Regional CSO Engagement Mechanism</td>
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<td>APWLD</td>
<td>Asia Pacific Forum on Women, Law and Development</td>
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<td>AR</td>
<td>Assessment Report</td>
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<td>ARC</td>
<td>Australian Red Cross</td>
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<td>ARROW</td>
<td>Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women</td>
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<td>ASAP</td>
<td>Adaptation for Smallholder Agriculture Programme</td>
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<td>ASHA</td>
<td>Accredited Social Health Activist</td>
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<td>BCAS</td>
<td>Bangladesh Centre for Advance Studies</td>
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<td>BCCRF</td>
<td>Bangladesh Climate Change Resilience Fund</td>
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<td>BCCSAP</td>
<td>Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan</td>
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<td>Bangladesh Climate Change Trust</td>
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<td>BCCTF</td>
<td>Bangladesh Climate Change Trust Fund</td>
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<td>BCFA</td>
<td>Bangladesh Climate Change Trust Authority</td>
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<td>BNPS</td>
<td>Bangladesh Nari Progati Sangha</td>
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<td>BPFA</td>
<td>Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action</td>
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<td>BRC</td>
<td>British Red Cross</td>
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<td>CAG</td>
<td>Community Action Group</td>
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<td>CBA</td>
<td>Community-Based Adaptation</td>
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<td>CBD</td>
<td>Convention on Biodiversity</td>
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<td>CBO</td>
<td>Community-Based Organization</td>
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<td>CBVAT</td>
<td>Community-Based Vulnerability Assessment Toolkit</td>
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<td>CC</td>
<td>Climate Change</td>
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<td>Climate Change Adaptation</td>
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<td>CCAFS</td>
<td>Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security</td>
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<td>Cambodia Climate Change Alliance</td>
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<td>CCCO</td>
<td>Climate Change Coordination Office (Da Nang City, Vietnam)</td>
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<td>CCCSP</td>
<td>Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan</td>
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<td>CDDRR</td>
<td>Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
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<td>CCF</td>
<td>Climate Change Fund</td>
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<td>CCGAP</td>
<td>Climate Change and Gender Action Plan</td>
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<td>CCS</td>
<td>Causes, Consequences and Solutions (Framework)</td>
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<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<td>CDM</td>
<td>Clean Development Mechanism</td>
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<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women</td>
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<td>CERF</td>
<td>United Nations Central Emergency Response Fund</td>
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<td>CETF</td>
<td>Climate Expenditure Tracking Framework</td>
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<td>CFF</td>
<td>Climate Fiscal Framework</td>
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<td>CFU</td>
<td>Climate Funds Update</td>
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<td>CFW</td>
<td>Cash for Work</td>
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<td>CGIAR</td>
<td>Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research</td>
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<td>CIDA</td>
<td>Canadian International Development Agency</td>
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<td>CIF</td>
<td>Climate Investment Funds</td>
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<td>CIPER</td>
<td>Climate Investment and Public Expenditure Review</td>
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<td>CLDP</td>
<td>Community Livestock Development Project</td>
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<td>COP</td>
<td>Conference of Parties</td>
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<td>CPEIR</td>
<td>Climate Public Expenditure and Institutional Review</td>
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<td>CPI</td>
<td>Climate Policy Initiative</td>
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<td>CRF</td>
<td>City Resilience Framework</td>
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<td>CRFM</td>
<td>Coastal Resource and Fisheries Management Plans</td>
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<td>Climate resiliency Field Schools</td>
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<td>DAE</td>
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<td>DALY</td>
<td>Disability-Adjusted Life Year</td>
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<td>Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (Australia)</td>
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<td>Department for International Development</td>
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<td>DFIs</td>
<td>Development Finance Institutions</td>
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<td>DGM</td>
<td>Dedicated Grant Mechanism for Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities</td>
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<td>Dengue Haemorrhagic Fever</td>
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<td>Developing Member Countries</td>
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<td>Eba</td>
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<td>European Bank for Reconstruction and Development</td>
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<td>EPSC</td>
<td>Earthquake Preparedness for Safer Communities</td>
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<td>ESS</td>
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<td>EU</td>
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<td>Early Warning System</td>
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<td>Fisheries Association</td>
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<td>Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations</td>
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<td>FARM</td>
<td>Forecast Application for Risk Management</td>
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<td>FRPG</td>
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<td>GAD</td>
<td>Gender and Development</td>
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<td>Gender Analysis Matrix</td>
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<td>Green Climate Fund</td>
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<td>GCVCA</td>
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<td>Gender Development Association</td>
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<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>Gender Equality and Social Inclusion</td>
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<td>GHG</td>
<td>Green House Gas</td>
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<td>GMMX</td>
<td>Gender Monitoring Matrix</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<td>GNA</td>
<td>Gender Needs Assessment</td>
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<td>Government of Bangladesh</td>
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<td>Government of India/Government of Indonesia</td>
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<td>Government of Nepal</td>
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<td>HBS</td>
<td>Heinrich-Böll-Stiftung</td>
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<td>HFA</td>
<td>Hyogo Framework for Action</td>
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<td>Household</td>
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<td>Health Information Early Warning System</td>
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<td>High Mountains Adaptation Partnership</td>
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<td>Health Information System</td>
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<td>Human Rights-Based Approach</td>
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<td>International Access Entity</td>
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<td>IASC</td>
<td>Inter-Agency Standing Committee</td>
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<td>Integrated Community-Based Adaptation in the Mekong Delta</td>
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<td>Indonesia Climate Change Trust Fund</td>
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<td>World Agroforestry Centre</td>
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<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
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<td>IEC</td>
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<td>Unique Selling Point</td>
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<td>Vulnerability and Capacity Assessment</td>
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<td>Village Disaster Management Committee</td>
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<td>Water, Sanitation and Hygiene</td>
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<td>Women In Leadership</td>
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<td>Women’s Major Group</td>
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<td>World Resources Institute</td>
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<td>WU</td>
<td>Women Union (Vietnam)</td>
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<td>YEU</td>
<td>YAKKUM Emergency Unit</td>
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INTRODUCTION

Climate Change has been acknowledged as a global threat (IPCC-AR5 2014a). Most countries in Asia are vulnerable to climate risks and disasters, and many countries in the region are located at the top of the most vulnerable countries in the world according to the global risk report assessments (IPCC-AR5 2014b). Globally and nationally, policy makers, scientists, researchers and civil society advocates are working towards developing climate change mitigation and adaptation action plans. Unfortunately, until the last few years, women have largely been missing as key actors in the climate negotiations, and gender considerations in decision-making is still not a priority for some governments.

It is important to incorporate gender considerations and gender-responsive approaches in planning and implementation of climate change resilience and disaster risk reduction (DRR). This would include assessing climate risks from a gender perspective; institutionalizing mechanisms for hearing men’s and women’s perspectives; recognizing equal rights of women and men as stakeholders in the planning and decision-making process; equitable sharing of the benefits of climate finance and action priorities; and gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation. Civil society organizations (CSOs) have a major role to play in enabling this at all levels of climate resilience decision-making (UN Women 2016).

This manual is designed to strengthen the role of CSOs, especially those working on gender and women’s rights, in understanding the importance of mainstreaming gender into climate policies, programmes and budgets at the regional, national and local level.

OBJECTIVE

The key objective of the manual is to enhance the understanding of gender and climate change linkages, skills and capacities of the CSOs for strengthening community-based women’s resilience and climate change adaptation. The practical benefit of this will be promotion of climate action on the ground with a gender equality perspective in the forefront. With this view, the manual uses country examples/case studies from within the region, where applicable. The manual builds on the existing materials/trainings and is developed as a comprehensive package of training manual to cover both beginners and advanced participants. Although focused on gender, the manual also encompasses other gender intersectionalities, including age, sexual orientation (all LGBTIQ), (dis)ability, social status, and others.

TARGET AUDIENCE

The manual targets to train CSOs working at community level on gender and climate change resilience/DRR. The focus is on Asia region, with specific but not exclusive focus on South and South-East Asian countries of Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam.

SCOPE

The manual covers the following issues:
- Gender and human rights considerations;
- Climatic situation and Vulnerability/Disaster profiling (including differentiated vulnerability of women and girls);
- Policy Frameworks and Action Plans on climate resilience/DRR at regional and national levels;
- Selected climate finance instruments and investment opportunities at the global and national levels;
- Approaches to Community-Based Adaptation and Resilience Planning/Action; and
- Data collection and monitoring mechanisms for Climate Action.
INTRODUCTION

The manual is modular and designed for two types of courses – basic and advanced. The trainer can choose topics and exercises according to the target group and the length of the training. The annex includes a sample training schedule for a four-day basic training course. A checklist is also included to guide the selection of topics based on type of audience. Recommendations and tips are provided in each of the session plans to further assist the trainers.

Each module contains an overview, objectives, session plan and key messages. Each session is further explained in terms of content, material required, session outline with time references and guidance notes. There is a technical note (for facilitators) for each session, which should be used for developing PowerPoints/Lectures for the trainings. Detailed content covering concepts, theory and practice is included to enhance the knowledge of the trainer. The trainer should customize the training by picking information that is relevant to the daily operational context of the participants, whether locally, nationally or regionally. The technical content also includes discussion points and facilitator clues for a more engaging training programme.

The session plans also include a number of exercises and group tasks that are designed to internalize the concepts and have a hands-on experience of application of the tools and theories. Explanation for the exercises, including detailed process steps that the trainer may want to use in a module, is provided after the technical notes for all the sessions. These process steps are merely suggestions that the trainer will need to adapt to suit his/her context and purpose. The materials to be used in the exercises (infographics, chits, quiz questions, case studies, and others) are provided as handouts.

Handouts can be found at the end of each module and can be copied/distributed as required. The bibliography provided at the end of the manual also serves as a detailed list of further readings.

CONTENT

The Manual is divided into five modules, with multiple sessions as below:

**MODULE 1: Gender and Climate Resilience – Basic Concepts**
- **Session A:** Human Rights, Leave No One Behind (LNOB) and Gender Equality
- **Session B:** Climate Change and Associated Risks, Resilience and Disaster Risk Reduction
- **Session C:** Linkage between Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction (CCDRR)

**MODULE 2: Engendering CCDRR Policies and National Plans**
- **Session A:** Understanding the Climate Change Adaptation and DRR Policy Landscape
- **Session B:** Gender Mainstreaming in National Policies and Plans

**MODULE 3: Tools for Gender Mainstreaming**
- **Session A:** Gender Mainstreaming Frameworks and Tools for Civil Society Organizations (Analysis, Assessment and Planning)
- **Session B:** Gender Mainstreaming Frameworks and Tools for Civil Society Organizations (Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation)

**MODULE 4: Gender in Adaptation Approaches and Sectoral Action**
- **Session A:** Adaptation Models and Gender
- **Session B:** Sectoral Adaptation Approaches and Gender

**MODULE 5: Climate Finance for Gender-Responsive Climate Action**
- **Session A:** Understanding the Global Climate Finance Architecture and its Gender Elements
- **Session B:** Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB) for Climate Finance

**CONCLUDING SESSION: Designing a Gender-Responsive CCDRR Project**

USER NOTES

The manual is modular and designed for two types of courses – basic and advanced. The trainer can choose topics and exercises according to the target group and the length of the training. The annex includes a sample training schedule for a four-day basic training course. A checklist is also included to guide the selection of topics based on type of audience. Recommendations and tips are provided in each of the session plans to further assist the trainers.

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ANNEXES

- Suggestive checklist for designing different types of training programmes
- Sample Schedule for 4-Day Basic Course
- Sample Schedule for 5-Day Advanced Course
- Training Evaluation Tools
Training Manual on Gender and Climate Change Resilience

MODULE 1
GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE
This module focuses on orientation of the basic concepts related to human rights, gender, climate resilience and disaster risk reduction (DRR). It begins with reinforcing the three universal values of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) framework - the Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA), Leave No One Behind (LNOB), and Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment. It then moves to outlining the varied impacts of climate change in the Asia region and how it will impact people differently based on the existing societal dynamics and unequal structures. With gender inequalities being the most pervading and persisting around the world, women, in particular, are more likely to be impacted differently by climate change. However, women are not a homogenous group; thus, while gender equality needs to be a cross-cutting theme across all climate change and DRR actions, it is also important to map the influence of various intersectionalities - age, residence, class, race and ability - while examining the linkages between gender and climate change. It is equally important to look upon women not only as victims but as equal partners, actors and contributors in climate resilience action; and appreciate the value that this perspective and approach can add in addressing the climate problem. Therefore, there is a need for strengthening women’s participation, leadership and capacities for being the flagbearers of change.

OBJECTIVES OF THE MODULE:
> Understand the importance of adopting a human rights-based approach of leaving no one behind with focus on gender equality for enabling sustainable development;
> Recognize the risks and vulnerabilities due to climate change in the Asia region;
> Acknowledge gender-based vulnerabilities of emerging climate risks and differentiated impacts of climate change on women; and
> Identify the gaps, challenges and needs for a gender-responsive climate action, especially for enabling women as “Agents of Change.”

KEY MESSAGES:
> Human Rights are universal entitlements inherent for everyone, irrespective of their nationality, place of residence, sex, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, language, or any other status.
> Climate change directly and indirectly impacts the realization of human rights of people, especially those who have least caused it resulting in climate injustice.
> A Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA) to sustainable development considers all dimensions of inequalities in programming and can be truly transformative if implemented.
> Climate risks may lead to pushing back on the development progress made to date, and forcing many into poverty as they also hamper the progress made in achieving the SDGs.
> Women and girls are among the most vulnerable groups due to the gender differentiated roles, responsibilities and power structures that exist in most societies.
> Gender inequalities lead to women and girls facing both time and income poverty, as well as loss of lives, livelihoods and assets. Human rights of women, girls and other genders often fail to be realized when climate change and disaster risk reduction policies do not integrate gender dimensions from a human rights-based approach.
> Gender equality is important in its own right; but it is also an important ingredient to the success of adaptation and risk mitigation. Women need to be involved as equal partners and actors in inclusive resilience building processes.
**MODULE 1_SESSION PLAN A**

**HUMAN RIGHTS, LEAVE NO ONE BEHIND (LNOB) AND GENDER EQUALITY**

**OVERVIEW**
At the end of this session, participants should be able to understand and explain the concepts of a Human Rights Based Approach (HRBA) and Leave No One Behind (LNOB) within the sustainable development framework. The participants should also be able to comprehend the significance of gender equality and intersectionalities in the HRBA and LNOB context.

**CONTENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Universal Declaration of Human Rights</th>
<th>C. Leave No One Behind (LNOB)</th>
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<tr>
<td>- Climate Change and Human Rights</td>
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<tr>
<td>B. The Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA)</td>
<td>D. Gender Equality and Intersectionalities</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Inequalities and the Human Rights-Based Approach</td>
<td>- Operationalizing HRBA and LNOB with a Gender Lens</td>
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</table>

**MATERIALS**

- PowerPoint presentations
- Apparatus for film viewing on YouTube
- Open space or chess board game
- Gender concept chits
- Whiteboard and marker pen
- Chart papers and pens
- Copy of Handouts

**OUTLINE**

- **5 mins.** Sharing of overview and session content.
- **40 mins.** "Human Rights’ web development (See Exercise 1)."
- **15 mins.** PowerPoint presentation or lecture on "Human Rights and Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA)."
- **45 mins.** "Power Walk' game (See Exercise 2)."
- **15 mins.** PowerPoint presentation on "Leave No One Behind (LNOB)."
- **30 mins.** "Gender Concepts” chits (see Exercise 3 and Handout 1).
- **30 mins.** PowerPoint presentation on “Gender Equality and Intersectionality” (see Handout 2).

**GUIDANCE NOTES**

Begin the session with sharing the module’s objectives and content overview. Tell them you will begin with an exercise that will help them know each other and the basics of the training better. Begin with the "Human Rights Web Exercise" (see Exercise 1). Conclude the exercise with the PowerPoint presentations using technical content on "Universal Declaration of Human Rights," "Climate Change and Human Rights" and "Human Rights-Based Approach." Depending on the trainer, the same activity can also be done in lecture mode, as it will help set a more informal tone to the training session and guide the participants to be in a listening mode. Use the discussion points to further engage in participants in the process.

If there is time and space, take the participants outside for the "Power Walk Exercise" or use the chess board tip (see Exercise 2). Then follow it up with a presentation using the technical content on "Leave No One Behind (LNOB)." Engage the participants while showing the LNOB index and the country results. If there are participants from one or two countries only, then highlight the results of those countries in a separate slide and ask the participants what they think is the actual status of their country with regards to these results.

A critical aspect for gender mainstreaming within HRBA and LNOB is a nuanced understanding of sex and gender-related terminology. Handout 1 brings together some key concepts related to gender, which would be useful in the application of gender mainstreaming processes for gender equality. While it is expected that most trainees will be aware of these concepts, it might help to reiterate these in certain circumstances. To do this, use the "Gender Chits" (see Exercise 3 and Handout 1). Clarify that this discussion is not a replacement for gender sensitization and orientation training, which must ideally be conducted as a mandatory exercise within all programmes and projects. Follow it with a PowerPoint using technical content from "Gender Equality for Human Rights and Development" and "Operationalizing HRBA and LNOB with a Gender Lens. Use the infographics provided in Handout 2 for this presentation. End the session with a discussion on examples of gender mainstreaming and gender-transformative projects.
Human Rights and Human Rights-Based Approach

UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

Human rights are those fundamental/natural/basic rights which are inherent to all human beings, irrespective of their nationality, place of residence, sex, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, language, or any other status. Human rights are universal entitlements guaranteed by international law and treaties endorsed by national governments. All Governments have ratified at least one, and 80 per cent of the States have ratified four or more, of the core human rights treaties. This reflects their consent, which creates legal obligations for them to ensure that these rights are granted and gives a concrete expression to universality. The international law lays down obligations of governments to act in certain ways or to refrain from certain acts, in order to promote and protect human rights of all individuals. First emphasized in the Universal Declaration on Human Rights in 1948, these have been reiterated in numerous international human rights conventions, declarations, and resolutions, predominantly the 1993 Vienna World Conference on Human Rights.

These include, inter alia, various civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights like:

1. Rights to life, liberty, security and dignity;
2. Rights to equality before law, fair, independent and public hearing and effective remedy;
3. Rights to freedom of thought, conscience, religion, opinion and expression;
4. Rights to nationality, freedom of residence, movement and seeking asylum; and
5. Right to education, well-being (food, health, water, sanitation, housing), employment and social security.

These human rights are not only universal and inalienable but also interrelated, interdependent and indivisible. An example is when the civil right to life includes the economic right to social security and the right to development. In fact, the deprivation of one right adversely affects others, while the advancement of one facilitates the improvement of others.

Climate Change and Human Rights

Climate change directly or indirectly has negative impacts on the full realization of human rights. It has a profound impact especially on the right to life and dignity and those related to development, employment, food, health, water and sanitation and housing. It is imperative for the governments as duty bearers to prevent and redress climate impacts and ensure that the rights of all human beings are safeguarded, especially those who have contributed least to cause climate change but are likely to be most affected. The notion of climate justice links human rights and development for a people-centric approach to climate change. A Rights-based approach to climate change which focuses on all people achieving at least the minimum conditions for living with dignity, through the realisation of their human rights, is what should be promoted at national and local levels. The key considerations guiding this approach have been well compiled in the submission from OHCHR (2015) to COP 21. These include:

> To mitigate climate change and to prevent its negative human rights impacts
> To ensure that all persons have the necessary capacity to adapt to climate change
> To ensure accountability and effective remedy for human rights harms caused by climate change
> To mobilize maximum available resources for sustainable, human rights-based development
> To elicit international cooperation and global response, underpinned by international solidarity
> To ensure equity in climate action
> To guarantee that everyone enjoys the benefits of science and its applications
> To protect human rights from business harms
> To guarantee equality and non-discrimination
> To ensure meaningful and informed participation

This session covers basic concepts and is important for orientation programmes among members of communities, grassroots mobilizers, and others. For advanced course, the trainer can consider skipping the presentation and replacing the session with a quick ice-breaking discussion using the video on “Integrating human rights, leave no one behind, and gender equality into UN Cooperation Frameworks” from https://unsdg.un.org/2030-agenda/universal-values, and discussing on the following questions:

a. What is the link between HRBA, LNOB and Sustainable Development/Climate Change?

b. What are the most prevalent forms of inequalities that need to be addressed within a HRBA and LNOB approach?

c. What is the role of ‘duty bearers’ in enabling this?
The strategy for implementing human rights is called the Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA). It is one of the key guiding principles of the United Nations Sustainable Development Cooperation Framework. HRBA is a conceptual framework for “the process of human development that is normatively based on international human rights standards and operationally directed to promoting and protecting human rights. It seeks to analyse inequalities that lie at the heart of development problems and redress discriminatory practices and unjust distributions of power that impede development progress and often result in groups of people being left behind.” (UNSDG n.d. (a)).

There are two main rationales for a human rights-based approach: i) the intrinsic rationale, acknowledging that a human rights-based approach is the right thing to do, morally or legally, and ii) the instrumental rationale, recognizing that a human rights-based approach leads to better and more sustainable human development outcomes. In practice, the reason for pursuing a human rights-based approach is usually a blend of these two (OHCHR 2006).

HRBA requires that:
1. Any and all programmes should aim for the realization and advancement of the human rights of the concerned target group;
2. The planning and implementation phases of all programmes should be guided by human rights principles of universality, indivisibility, equality and non-discrimination, participation, and accountability; and
3. All programmes should have a focus on developing the capacities of both ‘duty-bearers’ to meet their obligations, and ‘rights-holders’ to claim their rights.

Translated to practical action, this would mean recognizing the inequalities existing in the society through disaggregated data collection; enhancing the empowerment and participation of the groups which face discrimination in the planning and decision-making process; allocating resources specifically for addressing the concerns of these groups and removing structural barriers to inequalities.

Inequalities and the Human Rights-Based Approach

The key focus of the HRBA is recognizing that rising inequalities are a major concern for the society. These do not only impact poverty reduction and economic development initiatives but also undermine the enjoyment of human rights, social cohesion, peace and sustainable development.

These inequalities come in multiple forms:
1. Inequalities of wealth and income;
2. Inequalities in opportunities and outcomes related to education, health, food security, employment, housing and health services; and
3. Inequalities due to race, ethnicity, religion, age, disability, sexual orientation and gender identity.

Entrenched in barriers across all economic, social, political, cultural urban and environmental domains, these inequalities often lead to: i) systematic disadvantages; ii) generational perpetuation of discrimination; and iii) unequal distributions of power, resources and opportunities. These inequalities threaten the right to development, and addressing them is critical for realizing the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. This entails overcoming the structural barriers and challenging discriminatory laws, policies, social norms and stereotypes, which can be achieved by putting the human rights agenda in the forefront of all development programming.
Module 1: Gender and Climate Change

Understanding Leave No One Behind

Leave No One Behind (LNOB) is the central, transformative promise of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). LNOB entails “not only reaching the poorest of poor but also ending discriminations and inequalities that exempt people from realizing their full potential.” (UNSDG n.d. (b)). LNOB is important as leaving anyone behind in poverty without access to water, housing, education, social protection, and others is a gross violation of human rights. However, it is also a development concern, as growing inequalities not only leads to slower economic growth but can also generate social tensions and political instability, thereby further slowing down the progress made towards attaining the SDGs (UNSDG 2019).

The key principle of LNOB is to move beyond aggregates and averages while measuring progress on development indicators and ensuring that all population groups benefit from the progress. This requires disaggregated data for planning to identify those excluded or discriminated against, understanding the structural barriers to resources and opportunities, and addressing the root cause of the exclusion (UNSDG 2019). In short, LNOB compels us to focus on discrimination and inequalities (often multiple and intersecting) that undermine the agency of people as holders of rights (UNSDG n.d. (b)).

Operationalizing LNOB requires an integrated approach to identify who is being left behind and why; targeting of programmes; identifying effective measures to address root causes; monitoring and measuring progress; and ensuring accountability for LNOB (UNSDG 2019). These are summarized into three levels:

1. **Examine** why people are left behind – collect and use more and better disaggregated data and people-driven information.
2. **Empower** those who are left behind – ensure their meaningful participation in decision-making and establish safe and inclusive mechanisms for their civic engagement.
3. **Enact** policies, laws, reforms, interventions – curb inequalities and uphold minimum standards of well-being.

The most critical element to this, however, is enabling the disadvantaged and marginalized individuals and groups to actively participate in decision-making processes at all levels of programming. The success of targeted policies and programmes as well as those addressing structural inequalities will depend largely on the level of effective participation and meaningful consultation of the actual target audience.

**Discussion Point**

Ask the participants, what they think is the most prevalent form of inequality which needs to be addressed within the human rights-based approach?

Facilitator Clues

- The most prevalent form of inequality is gender-based discrimination which is rampant across all regions and has been prominently highlighted in the CEDAW. (Tell the participants you will be discussing CEDAW more through an exercise in Session C.)
- Deep-rooted in culture, societal practices and sometimes even law, harmful gender stereotypes, prejudices and practices prevent the full realization of women's human rights.
- Particularly prominent among these are restrictions on access to and control over resources, information and education, limited opportunities to decent work and proper wages; and under-representation in decision-making bodies and processes.
- A human rights-based approach to development thus complements and reinforces gender mainstreaming – or the integration of a gender perspective in development activities.
- HRBA needs to have a specific component of including women's human rights and prohibiting sex discrimination.
Ask the participants, who are those who are "left behind."

Facilitator Clues

> People who are left behind in development are often economically, socially, spatially and/or politically excluded (for example, due to ethnicity, race, gender, age, disability), leading to multiple discriminations.
>
> They often have no voice (for example, children, indigenous communities) and are disconnected from societal institutions, lack information to access those institutions, networks, and economic and social support systems to improve their situation, and are not consulted by those in power.
>
> They are not counted separately (for example, women, elderly, disabled) or at all (for example, illegal immigrants and refugees) in official data – they are invisible in the development of policies and programmes.
LEAVE NO ONE BEHIND INDEX

ODI in 2019 reviewed the readiness of 159 countries to ‘leave no one behind.’ Since 2018, the index also has an additional policy indicator on resilience (Chattopadhyay and Manea 2019). It includes a new ‘leave no one behind’ outcome score for each country that captures the extent to which real-world outcomes on leaving no one behind are improving. The index shows that 81 countries are ‘ready’ to meet their ‘leave no one behind’ commitment, 54 are ‘partially ready,’ 12 are currently ‘not ready’ and 12 have ‘insufficient data.’ The status of select countries from Asia (Table 1-1) shows that most countries are still in the Ready or Partially Ready category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>DATA (Household Surveys)</th>
<th>POLICY (Equal Access to Employment, Land and Health)</th>
<th>FINANCE (Education, Health and Social Protection)</th>
<th>OVERALL LEAVE NO ONE BEHIND READINESS SCORE</th>
<th>OUTCOME SCORE (Under-Five Mortality Rate, Undernourishment, Access to Finance and Electricity)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BANGLADESH</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Not Ready</td>
<td>Not Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partial Progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAMBODIA</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Not Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partial Progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHINA</td>
<td>Not Ready</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>On Track</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDIA</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Not Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partial Progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDONESIA</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Partial Progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALAYSIA</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>On Track</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEPAL</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Not Ready</td>
<td>Not Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partial Progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHILIPPINES</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Partial Progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRI LANKA</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>On Track</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIETNAM</td>
<td>Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Not Ready</td>
<td>Partially Ready</td>
<td>Partial Progress</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Chattopadhyay and Manea (2019).

Gender Equality and Intersectionality

GENDER EQUALITY FOR HUMAN RIGHTS AND DEVELOPMENT

Given that non-discrimination on the basis of sex and gender identity is a fundamental universal human rights principle, it is crucial to focus on gender equality in development policies and programmes (UN Women 2014). Besides, it is also a prerequisite for advancing the key development agendas (World Bank 2012):

1. Improving national productivity and sustainable economic growth;
2. Improving social and human development outcomes especially for food, nutrition, education, health and family welfare; and
3. Improving policy decisions required for more peaceful and equitable societies.

Therefore, achieving gender equality is a goal sought across international development practice (UN Women 2014). Over the years, many international charters and conventions have endorsed and reinforced the need to focus on women’s empowerment and gender equality (see Table 1-2).

Protection of human rights of all women and elimination of gender-based discrimination have thus been recognized as key responsibilities of all governments as “duty bearers.” Yet gender-based discrimination remains the most all-pervading forms of deprivation around the world, as highlighted in the recent Global Gender Gap Report (WEF 2020). Many women still do not fully experience equal rights, and are often denied equality of opportunities in education, health, employment and resource ownership. They also continue to be under-represented in power and decision-making roles.
### TABLE 1-2: MAJOR INTERNATIONAL COMMITMENTS TO GENDER EQUALITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERNATIONAL COMMITMENT TO GENDER EQUALITY</th>
<th>YEAR OF ADOPTION</th>
<th>KEY PRINCIPLES/RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNITED NATIONS CHARTER</td>
<td>1945</td>
<td>Equal rights of men and women. Article 1 of its Charter is “To achieve international co-operation ... in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN (CEDAW)</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Dedicated to the realization of women’s human rights. The Convention provides the basis for realizing equality between women and men through ensuring women’s equal access to, and equal opportunities in, political and public life—including the right to vote and to stand for election—as well as education, health and employment. States parties agree to take all appropriate measures, including legislation and temporary special measures, so that women can enjoy all their human rights and fundamental freedoms. The Convention is the only human rights treaty which affirms the reproductive rights of women and targets culture and tradition as influential forces shaping gender roles and family relations. In 2018, the CEDAW Committee also adopted General Recommendation No. 37 on gender-related dimensions of disaster risk reduction in the context of climate change. (This has been discussed later in the section on gender equality, Session 0).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT (ICPD)</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Adopted a programme of action, highlighting the integral linkages between population and development, emphasizing on the fundamental role of women’s interests in population matters. The ICPD also introduced the concepts of sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THE BEIJING DECLARATION AND PLATFORM FOR ACTION</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Embedded gender equality and women’s rights in every facet of life. The Platform for Action imagines a world where each woman and girl can exercise her freedoms and choices, and realize all her rights, such as to live free from violence, to go to school, to participate in decisions and to earn equal pay for equal work. The Platform for Action covers 12 critical areas of concern that are as relevant today as 20 years ago: poverty, education and training; health; violence; armed conflict; economy; power and decision-making; institutional mechanisms; human rights; media; environment; and the girl child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS (SDGs)</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Included a specific goal (SDG 5) for gender equality underscoring the need to recognize this as a development objective and include targets for ending gender-based violence, eliminating child marriage and female genital mutilation, and ensuring access to sexual and reproductive health; ensuring equal access to education, expanding women’s economic opportunities, and reducing the burdens of unpaid care work on women and girls. It also pledges “significant increase in investments to close the gender gap and strengthen support for institutions in relation to gender equality and the empowerment of women at the global, regional and national levels.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from UN Women (2014).

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You can also use some of the sharable infographics from Handout 2 for the presentation. Handout 2 brings together some critical infographics from this report which highlight the key gender gaps.
These not only hamper their own growth but also deny the world the opportunity to benefit from women's potential as economic, social and sustainable development change-agents.

It is thus important to empower women so as to expand economic growth, promote social development and establish more stable and just societies. Women's empowerment has become an important approach within all development approaches.

However, as one moves into the creation of a more equal society, it is important to move beyond women's empowerment to focus on gender equality.

> This requires thinking beyond only women and look towards eliminating sex and gender-based discriminations also for lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer (LGBTIQ) individuals. It is important to acknowledge that the term ‘gender’ has diversified itself beyond the binary conceptions of a man and a woman and it is important to have a feminist, queer and intersectionality perspective while addressing gender concerns.

> There is also the need to recognize that women are not a homogenous community, and some groups of women face compounded forms of discrimination—due to factors such as their age, ethnicity, disability, or socio-economic status—in addition to their gender. For example, indigenous women often experience different but intersecting types of discrimination. Indigenous women who live in poor and remote communities and have less formal education are likely to experience more than one of the deprivations and disadvantages.

The HRBA approach to gender equality thus uses an intersectionality lens which acknowledges that women have different experiences and perspectives based on aspects of their identity, including race, class, caste, ethnicity, sexual orientation and gender identity, disability, religion, age, marital status, indigenous status and migration status. The emphasis is then on reaching the most marginalized groups and tackling different kinds of inequality as part of LNOB. This is significant from a gender perspective, as it can highlight women who experience multiple forms of discrimination and have been historically excluded. The concept of multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination describes overlapping identity-based inequalities that create additional forms of discrimination.

You can also refer to Session 2 of ARROW’s Intersectionality module for more details. It can be downloaded from https://arrow.org.my/wp-content/uploads/2019/03/E-Module_InterSEXionality.pdf.

Ask the participants why they think it is important to move beyond only binary gender identities to gender and intersectionalities.

Facilitator Clues

> Equating gender to men and women tends to ignore the needs and concerns of LGBTIQ people (those with other sexual orientation and identities). These groups also have specific concerns which cannot be equated with any one binary identity. For example, in many Asian societies, transgender people are not provided access to mainstream shelters and/or are often forced to share male quarters which exposes them to sexual harassment.

> Also, women are not a homogenous group. The traditional notion of women even in gender discourse often tends to be equated with white, straight, able-bodied and young women of reproductive age. Gender roles, responsibilities and stereotypes are not universal; thus, it is important to understand the roles and responsibilities related to women from different races, ethnic groups, sexual orientation, ability and age. Such analyses will not only help understand the actual concerns faced by these women but also bring to light the multiple deprivations and discriminations faced by them.

For example, the challenges faced by a young adolescent (dis)abled girl from a minority ethnic community will be different (and often additional) from young adolescent girls from majority communities as well as from other girls and women from her own community.
OPERATIONALIZING HRBA AND LNOB WITH A GENDER LENS

Application of gender lens does not always mean special treatment for women and other gender groups. What is needed is to set aside the gender bias or the ‘Male Norm’ across all phases of programming and to be sensitive to ways in which unexamined attitudes about men and women lead to the unintended result of biased decision-making. Once this sensitivity is achieved, it needs to be reinforced by analysis of gender. For this, there is the need for sex, age and diversity-disaggregated data. Said data need to acknowledge the diversity of this issue recognizing multiple gender identities, gender roles and different needs, rather than treating gender as a homogenous group of women. This analysis then needs to be applied to assess the implications of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes for men and women as well as across other gender and social identities. Additional actions/safeguards need to be inbuilt into the programme to ensure that the benefits reach out to all genders and across social groups.

All these processes need to be a part of the basic programme designing and not to be undertaken as an afterthought. The process of gender mainstreaming entails the inclusion of these as standard programme design/project development practices at all levels and in all sectors. As defined by the UN Economic and Social Council (1997), Gender Mainstreaming "is the process of assessing the implications for women, men (and other gender identities) of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making differential gender concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that everyone benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated.” (ECOSOC 1997).

Along with this, UN Women (2014) also recommends the inclusion of a stand-alone gender equality goal which addresses the following: freedom from violence against women and girls; gender equality in the distribution of capabilities; and gender equality in decision-making in all spheres of public and private life, to achieve this, in addition to mainstreaming of gender. This requires a gender transformative approach emphasis that “the commitment to gender equality should be universal; address the structural foundations of gender-based inequality, including in the three dimensions of sustainable development – social, economic and environmental; and ensure accountability” (UN Women 2014). For this, there is a need to understand structural, power and political dynamics that push particular groups further behind and deepen inequality. There is also a need for a comprehensive package of policies and programmes which include universal social protection and essential services to ensure an adequate standard of living, and redistributive and progressive tax policies to address income inequality.

The ultimate goal of both these approaches is gender equality. Most developmental organizations have, however, adopted a twin-track approach to enable gender equality, which includes focus on both integrating gender concerns as well as on empowering specific groups of women and those with other gender identities.
Gender Equality – A Case for Correcting Market Failures

Gender equality is a politically intricate issue. On one hand, there is a growing awareness and acceptance of the need to ensure gender equality. On the other hand, actual policy decisions that endorse equitable distribution of resources among various genders still have a long way ahead. This is despite the fact that gender equality is not only a “women’s issue” but a human rights issue, and should be seen as a pre-condition for, and an indicator of, sustainable people-centric development.

Sustainable development relies on ending gender discrimination and providing equal opportunities to everyone especially for education and employment. Achieving the SDG targets and 2030 Agenda requires thorough gender mainstreaming and a gender transformative approach applied to all public policies and programmes. The interests, needs and priorities of both women and men will need to be taken into consideration in all programme designing while also recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men.

The intrinsic link of gender equality with intra-household decision-making, however, often makes this a challenge, as governments seek to refrain from interfering in personal choices and to some extent provide a tactical endorsement to existing socio-cultural gender norms. Nevertheless, a case needs to be made for addressing the gender inequalities on intra-household allocation of resources by understanding that these are influenced by market signals and institutional norms that do not capture the full benefits to society of investing in women’s equality of life. This often creates a burble in economic efficiency and growth. Public policies need to compensate for these market failures by ensuring resources to those investments with the highest social returns and equalizing opportunities for various gender and social groups. Without addressing the issue of existing inequalities, neither sustainable development nor human rights will be realized to its full potential.

Facilitator Clues

> Providing livelihood trainings, employment of women in project construction activities, women’s participation in planning, micro finance for women, separate facilities – schools, shelters, toilets and others – are examples of gender mainstreaming within projects. For example, the Asian Development Bank (ADB) funded the Cambodia Greater Mekong Subregion Southern Economic Corridor Towns Development Project to provide for flood protection measures for women from climate change-related flooding, and to lighten their burden of cleaning up after a flood and caring for family members with flood-related water-borne diseases. With respect to adaptive infrastructure, roads integrated into flood protection schemes will give women better access to services and markets and improve their mobility. The two urban mass transit projects in Vietnam – Strengthening Sustainable Urban Transport for Hanoi Metro Line 3, sets aside space for women’s shops and women-vendors, and has provisions for priority seating for women and scheduling based on women’s transportation needs; and the Sustainable Urban Transport for Ho Chi Minh City Mass Rapid Transit Line 2 is designed with women-only waiting spaces, lighting for safety, separate toilets, and shop spaces for small businesses owned or run by women (ADB 2016).

> Projects providing life skills to adolescent girls and boys and active engagement of key stakeholders (schoolteachers, local government representatives, health service providers) to understand and challenge gender discriminatory practices, addressing gender-based violence and creating institutional response mechanisms; enabling women’s ownership rights to land, house and other property would constitute ‘gender transformative’ projects. For example, the Ethnic Minority Women’s Empowerment project by CARE International in Vietnam focuses on empowering remote ethnic minority women to actively participate in local socio-economic development planning and decision-making (WECF 2016).
MODULE 1 SESSION PLAN B

CLIMATE CHANGE RISKS, RESILIENCE AND DISASTER RISK REDUCTION

OVERVIEW
At the end of this session, participants should be able to recognize the impacts of climate change in Asia and be able to connect the macro picture with the climate risks and disasters experienced in their own geographical region. The participants will also be able to delineate between the concept of climate-associated stresses and shocks and the need to include them into the overall resilience and disaster risk reduction strategies.

CONTENT
A. The Realities of Global Warming and Climate Change
B. Perceived Climate Change Risks and Impacts in Asia
C. Climate Risks, Disasters and Sustainable Development
D. Existing Inequalities and Vulnerability to Climate Risks
E. Climate Change Adaptation, Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience Building
   - Mapping the Barriers

MATERIALS
> PowerPoint presentations
> Apparatus for film viewing on YouTube
> Histogram chart pasted on the wall or copies
> Whiteboard and marker pen
> Copy of Handouts

OUTLINE
5 mins. Sharing of overview and session content.

40 mins. "Histogram" on Climate Change (see Exercise 4).

45 mins. Viewing of film video on "IPCC’s Fifth Assessment Report (AR5)," followed by group discussion on "Observed Climatic Changes and Impacts" using Handout 3 (recommended for basic course).

OR: PowerPoint presentation on "Global Climate Risks, Adaptation, Resilience Building and Disaster Risk Reduction" (recommended for advanced course).

30 mins. "Observing CCDRR and Resilience Concepts" (See Exercise 5 and Handout 4).

GUIDANCE NOTES
Begin the session by sharing the overview and content. Ensure that the histogram chart is pasted on a wall in advance or copies made for small group discussions. Facilitate the "Histogram exercise" (See Exercise 4).

For basic course, follow it up with the viewing of the video on "IPCC’s Fifth Assessment Report (AR5)" available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fGH10dAwM-QE&feature=youtu.be. Emphasize the point that Climate Change is real and will impact all of us. Provide a copy of Handout 3 to all participants, and facilitate 30 minutes of small group discussion on the topic.

For advanced course, follow it with a PowerPoint presentation using technical content from "Global Climate Risks, Adaptation, Resilience Building and Disaster Risk Reduction."

End the session with a participatory exercise to enable them to have a better understanding of resilience concepts (see Exercise 5 and Handout 4).
Global Climate Risks, Adaptation, Resilience Building and Disaster Risk Reduction

THE REALITIES OF GLOBAL WARMING AND CLIMATE CHANGE

We often make remarks like “What a glorious day!,” “It’s so cold, my fingers are falling off!,” “Today is so much hotter than yesterday.” “Do you think it might rain today?” These statements relate to weather. Weather is what we feel during the day or night. Weather changes at various times during the day itself and from season to season.

We know what weather to expect:

> **During each season** – It is hot during summers; Hill stations are cooler during summers; and

> **Across locations** – It rains more in the mountains than along the coast; Snow falls in the Himalayas during winters.

This predictability of weather conditions during a particular season, month or location is the ‘climate’ of the region. Climate is the average weather of a given region or area over a given period of time. The climate anywhere on our planet can be well described as a result of a delicate balance between the sun, atmosphere, oceans, water systems, plants, living organisms and topography. The most important factors taken into account are rain, sunshine, humidity, wind and temperature.

Climate change encompasses the changes in the average weather conditions in the given region or area. These include changes in temperature, wind patterns, and precipitation. The change is referred to in a global sense and concerns the earth as a whole. Much of these changes are attributed to global warming.

Global warming is the rise in the temperature of the earth’s surface and the air over a period of time. The earth’s surface and air have slowly been warming up over thousands of years due to various natural causes. However, in the past century, our planet has been warming up faster than ever before due to increase in concentration of greenhouse gases (GHGs).

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), through its various Assessment Reports (ARs), confirms that human influence on the climate system is clear and growing, and this is one of the major causes of global warming and climate change. The IPCC stated in its Fifth Assessment Report (2014) that “Many of the observed changes since the 1950s are unprecedented over decades to millennia. The IPCC is now 95 per cent certain that humans are the main cause of current global warming” (IPCC-AR5 2014a). The key observed changes highlighted in the AR5 are:

1. Global warming due to human activities has caused an approximate 1.0 degree Celsius rise in global temperature from pre-industrialization levels.
2. Between 1901 to 2010, global mean sea level rose by 0.19 metres. The rate of sea level rise since the mid-19th century has been larger than the mean rate during the previous two millennia and it is very likely that extreme sea level rise like storm surges have increased since 1970.
3. Direct and insured losses from weather-related disasters have increased substantially in recent decades, both globally and regionally.

The report further goes on to state with a very high confidence that, “Impacts from recent climate-related extremes, such as heat waves, droughts, floods, cyclones and wildfires, reveal significant vulnerability and exposure of some ecosystems and many human systems to current climate variability.” The Fifth Assessment Report (IPCC-AR5 2014a) and the related working group reports further highlight the key climate risks, especially those which have a reason for concern.

PERCEIVED CLIMATE CHANGE RISKS AND IMPACTS IN ASIA

Most of the Asian region is extremely vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. Continued global warming will not only undo the recent achievements in economic growth but will also create additional challenges for sustained poverty reduction and human development.

Typically, the region is expected to see a high increase in mean temperatures, irregular precipitation trends with a much larger impact on water resources and increased fluvial flooding risks. Higher temperatures and drier conditions or flooding pose a threat to agriculture and, more importantly, food security in a region where malnutrition is already a major concern. Sea-level rise and the resultant increase in tropical cyclones and storm surges will further affect the urbanization process, destroying the already scarce infrastructure support systems in many countries.

Within Asia, South and South-East Asia are going to be even more vulnerable, already witnessing an increased frequency and intensity of extreme weather events such
as heat waves, droughts, floods, and tropical cyclones in recent decades. Some of the critical observed changes in climate of the region are given in Figure 1-3.

The adverse impact of these events will be further exacerbated in the growing water shortages; constrained agricultural production with declining crop yields, threatening food security; forest fires and loss of rich forests; fluvial flooding; coastal degradation and damage to coastal resources; greater health risks with increased outbreaks of water- and vector-borne diseases; and associated economic losses and human suffering. IPCC's ARS has highlighted the following impacts of climate change in Asia:

Water scarcity is expected to be a major challenge for most of the region as a result of increased water demand and lack of natural resource management. The region is already reeling with water shortage, especially in South Asia, where a massive population is even today deprived of basic drinking water facilities. Any further decline in water availability will increase the problems in the region extensively. Although there is low confidence in the precipitation projection trends in the region, there is an expected decline in freshwater availability not only due to low rainfall but also as the rise in temperature will affect the glacier melting in the Himalayan region, which is a significant source of fresh water availability for many South Asian countries.

The impacts of climate change on food production and food security in Asia will vary by region, with many regions to experience a decline in productivity. The two most critical cereal crops in the region – rice in South-East and South Asia and wheat in Indo-Gangetic plains of South Asia – are expected to show a decline in yield due to shorter growing periods resulting from higher temperatures, frequent droughts and water scarcity in agriculture, and increased coastal flooding and sea level rise submerging the rice growing plains.

Coastal and marine systems in Asia are under increasing stress from both climatic and non-climatic drivers. It is likely that mean sea level rise will contribute to upward trends in extreme coastal high-water levels. Mangroves, salt marshes, and seagrass beds may decline unless they can move inland, while coastal freshwater swamps and marshes will be vulnerable to saltwater intrusion with rising sea levels. Damages to coral reefs are already being reported and are predicted to increase with warming and ocean acidification.

Extreme climate events will have an increasing impact on human health, security, livelihoods, and poverty, with the type and magnitude of impact varying across Asia. Increased frequency and intensity of heat waves across Asia, but especially in South Asia, will increase the mortality and morbidity among elderly, children especially infants, informal sector workers and slum dwellers.
Increase in heavy rain incidents and temperature extremes will also increase the risk of water- and vector borne diseases like diarrhoea, dengue fever and malaria. According to recent estimates by the World Health Organization (WHO 2014a), regional heat-related deaths among the elderly (over 65 years) are thought to increase by approximately 20,000 cases due to climate change by the 2030s and approximately 52,000 cases by the 2050s. These show that attributable mortality related to vector-borne diseases (malaria and dengue) are also estimated to be on the order of 3,000 annual deaths in the 2030s and 10,000 annual deaths in the 2050s in the region. Mental disorders and post-traumatic stress syndrome have also been observed in disaster-prone areas.

Rural poverty in South Asia is expected to continue to be more widespread than urban poverty for decades to come. In Bangladesh for instance, these factors would cause a net increase in poverty of 15 per cent by 2030 (IPCC -AR5 2014b). Increases in floods and droughts will exacerbate rural poverty as a result of negative impacts on food production, thereby increasing food prices and the cost of living. According to the same WHO assessment, approximately 26,000 annual deaths in small children below five years of age related to undernutrition (stunting) will be attributable to climate change in the 2030s across the Asia and Pacific region. However, food insecurity related to climate change will also affect urbanizing South Asia. Certain categories of urban dwellers, such as urban wage labourers, could be particularly vulnerable to increase in food prices. Multiple stresses caused by rapid urbanization, industrialization and economic development will be further compounded by climate change.

**CLIMATE RISKS, DISASTERS AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT**

Natural hazards (earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, cyclones, droughts, and others) have been occurring since time immemorial, and have been known to have a detrimental effect on human lives and livelihood. Over the years, development pathways around the world have established a pattern where these natural hazards have become potential disasters. Disaster risk data show that more than 226 million people are affected annually by disasters associated with natural hazards and around 81 per cent of these are weather-related disasters (floods, cyclones, drought, and others). These weather-related disasters also account for 23 per cent of fatalities and 72 per cent of all economic losses often forcing more people into poverty. The IPCC’s Special Report on Extreme Events as well as the AR5 have reaffirmed that climate change is leading to more frequent and/or intense extreme weather events, and will only further exacerbate such natural hazards in the coming decades.

This would be a potential disaster, setting back decades of development progress and putting a critical limitation in the achievement of the SDGs. Many of the SDGs (see Table 1-3) will be significantly impacted based on whether the global warming is stabilized at 1.5 degrees Celsius.

**DISCUSSION POINT**

*Most people in these regions have long faced threats associated with weather-related events such as extreme temperatures and heavy precipitation (which can trigger flooding). Ask the participants why they think climate change suddenly has made a difference to their lives.*

**Facilitator Clues**

> To comprehend this, one has to look at the two critical components of any risk:
> - The probability of the disaster or adverse event happening; and
> - The consequences and potential impact of the event.
> Climate change increases the likelihood or probability of an extreme event like flooding, storm surge, heat wave happening; thereby increasing the number of such adverse events happening. It also increases the intensity of these events and compounds the associated risks through indirect interactions with other risks.
> So, in the above case, the frequency and the intensity of weather-related events like flooding will increase due to climate change not only with changes in precipitation patterns but also due to coastal erosion and sea-level rise. The hotter weather would contribute to increased amounts of ground level ozone (smog) in polluted areas, exacerbating an existing threat to human health, particularly for the elderly and the very young and those already in poor health. Moreover, the impacts can also reverberate by damaging critical infrastructure such as public health care systems, which will reduce the coping potential of the affected communities.
or moved beyond that. The IPCC AR5 (2015) clearly states that limiting warming to 1.5 degrees Celsius would make it markedly easier to achieve the SDGs for poverty eradication, water access, safe cities, food security, healthy lives and inclusive economic growth, and would help to protect terrestrial ecosystems and biodiversity. Furthermore, many SDGs require significant social protection measures and infrastructure development which would be significantly influenced by disasters.

These interventions need to have climate change adaptation and resilience perspective built into the development planning, resource mobilization and social protection, and infrastructure investments mechanisms. It is extremely important that both disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation are thus integrated within all SDGs and not limited to SDG 13 – take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts.

**CLIMATE CHANGE, DISASTER RISK AND DEVELOPMENT**

Earth’s climate is continuously changing since the time it was formed. This natural process, called the natural variability of climate, is different from climate change. The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) defines climate change as “a change of climate, which is directly or indirectly attributed to human activities and alters the composition of global atmosphere.” This process is in addition to the natural variability of climate observed over comparable time periods. The human-induced changes are often called “anthropogenic climate change” which has been a result of increased industrial activities, particularly from the industrial revolution, that have contributed to GHG emissions stock.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1-3: IMPACT OF CLIMATE CHANGE ON SDGs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACT</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WATER SCARCITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECO SYSTEMS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 70-90% Coral Reefs at risk of bleaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COASTAL CITIES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Fewer cities exposed to sea-level rise and extreme events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD SYSTEMS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEALTH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Smaller mosquito range.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 3546–4508 million people exposed to heat waves.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both the natural variability and anthropogenic climate change lead to weather- and climate-related events or hazards. IPCC defines hazards as “The potential occurrence of a natural or human-induced physical event that may cause loss of life, injury, or other health impacts, as well as damage and loss to property, infrastructure, livelihoods, service provision, and environmental resources.” Changes in the emissions stock due to human activities, lead to changes in the distributions of climate variables. It is difficult to attribute whether a hazard is a result of natural variability or anthropogenic climate change to a hazard. However, there is a scientific understanding that frequency and intensity of disasters have increased as a result of climate change.

These hazards pose a risk for our social and economic systems. Risks represent a potential of loss. The ultimate impact that risks can have depends upon frequency and intensity of the hazard, exposure to the hazard and vulnerability of the system. IPCC defines exposure as “The presence of people; livelihoods; environmental services and resources; infrastructure; or economic, social, or cultural assets in places that could be adversely affected.” A hazard may be of a high intensity, but if it affects a location with no people and infrastructure, the resultant impact will be low. On the other hand, vulnerability is a more complex phenomenon and represents the susceptibility of the system on account of prevailing conditions which may be social, economic, cultural, historical, institutional, among others. It is defined as “the propensity or predisposition to be adversely affected. Vulnerability encompasses a variety of concepts and elements including sensitivity or susceptibility to harm and lack of capacity to cope and adapt” (IPCC-AR5 2014c).

When the risks from disasters are realized, they result in impacts and affect the development process adversely. Our development paradigm is one that contributes to the emissions stock, thereby contributing to climate change. It is also the frontier where mitigation or reduction in GHG emissions, management of disasters, and adaptation to climate change happens due to individual and collective policy choices (IPCC-AR5 2014c).

EXISTING INEQUALITIES AND VULNERABILITY TO CLIMATE RISKS

The perceived threat of climate risks is global, but the vulnerability to the risk will be context-specific and more focused on non-climatic factors and pre-existing inequalities. Therefore, it is not surprising that IPCC AR5 highlighted that women, the poor, elderly, children, indigenous communities, coastal populations, and those with (dis)ability would be more vulnerable to climate risks. And while there is no research/information on the vulnerability of LGBTQI communities, given the overall discrimination faced by them, it would not be wrong to assume that they too will be affected disproportionately especially in the event of disasters.
For example, the dense urban population in South and South-East Asia are particularly susceptible to negative climatic changes, especially temperature extremes, flooding, and vector-borne diseases; the most vulnerable are those living in informal settlements. The risks from heat stress will be higher for those living without proper ventilation facilities or those who are engaged in outdoor jobs like street vendors. Similarly, inland and coastal flooding, as well as storm surges will affect those communities living in low-lying and exposed areas. Water scarcity and related diseases will be amplified for those lacking access to basic services and infrastructure.

Rural areas which experience more of droughts and extreme precipitation will see impact on the basic livelihoods of agriculture labourers, marginal farmers and pastoralists. With limited access to land, finances, modern agricultural inputs, infrastructure and education, these communities will suffer more. Generally, the poor, in both urban and rural areas, will also be affected by food insecurity, increased food prices, as well as increased health risks and disasters.

Children and the elderly are often at higher risk due to limited mobility, susceptibility to infectious diseases, poor caloric intake, and social isolation; young children are more likely to die from or be severely compromised by diarrheal diseases and floods. The elderly also experience disproportional physical harm and death from heat stresses, droughts, and wildfires.

These vulnerabilities are often directly linked with existing inequalities, which is why there is the need for a human rights-based approach to climate change adaptation and disaster risk management. This approach requires an in-depth analysis of the risks, exposure and vulnerability of specific communities to climate change. Here are some of these critical determinants of existing inequalities which would impact climate change:

1. **Geographical Exposure:** being located mostly in hazard-prone areas, low lying lands that experience frequent floods/inundation or higher elevations like hills and mountains with low ground water levels. Land tenure insecurity further hampers capital investment in these habitations. Four hundred fifty million flood-prone people would be exposed to doubling in flood frequency, and global flood risk would increase substantially (Arnell and Gosling 2016).

2. **Occupational Exposure:** dependent on occupations that require heavy physical labour; outdoor work like construction, street vending and/or informal livelihoods like seasonal vending, home-based work, that may be directly impacted by disasters. Each 1 degree Celsius increase could reduce work productivity by 1 per cent to 3 per cent for people working outdoors or without air conditioning, typically the poorer segments of the workforce (Park, et al. 2018). Similarly, those dependent on natural resources and agriculture will also be hurt with loss of livelihoods. In Bangladesh, for example, damages and losses are expected for poor households dependent on freshwater fish stocks due to lack of mobility, limited access to land and strong reliance on local ecosystems (Dasgupta, et al. 2017).

3. **Infrastructure Deprivation:** living in settlements that typically lack adequate drainage, energy and communications systems, where the impact of an event such as flooding or drought will be felt more sharply than elsewhere. Low quality of their housing, with limited ventilation and inadequate cooling facilities make them more vulnerable to climate vagaries like heat stress.

4. **Financial Susceptibility:** having paucity of income resources, land and other natural assets and access to credit and insurance; often forced to exhaust limited savings or assets in order to respond. With a low livelihood base and limited fall-back options, their capacity to withstand climate stress and shocks is limited, leaving them to be caught in the “poverty trap” – they will become poorer due to climate change but not be able to make the required resilience investments because they are poor and long-term solutions seem economically non-feasible. The AR5 also concluded, with very high confidence, that the poor will continue to experience climate change severely, and climate change will exacerbate poverty. Hallegatte and Rozenberg (2017) report that by 2030, roughly approximating a 1.5 degrees Celsius warming, 122 million additional people could experience extreme poverty, mainly due to higher food prices and declining health, with substantial income losses for the poorest 20 per cent across 92 countries.
5. **Social Marginalization:** having least fall-back options, limited resources and access to information but mainly inhibited recognition as a citizen and human being. Slums and informal settlements are often excluded, for instance, from early warning systems or flood prevention infrastructure. Further, most of the vulnerable groups are lost in the “male norm” or the system of aggregate data analysis for planning. Evacuation systems are often not designed keeping in mind the needs of elderly and (dis)abled. Poverty and economic vulnerability results in increased human migration flows, at particular times and places, often creating specific risks of conflict and violence.

6. **Gender Discrimination:** given the gender roles in these societies, especially domestic responsibilities like water fetching, food security and care giving, women are even more vulnerable and bear the dual burden of these climate-related events. Women are not only at a disadvantage to men in terms of earnings, but also are less likely than men to have social protection or access to financial services making them more vulnerable. Globally, women earn 77 per cent of what men earn, with an estimated 23 per cent gender wage gap (UN Women 2018). International Labour Office (ILO 2016) highlights that, across the world, about 40 per cent of women in wage employment do not have access to social protection. Similarly, World Bank Global Findex database-2014 (Demirguc-Kunt, et al. 2015) reports that while 65 per cent of men have accounts in financial institutions and/or banks, only 58 per cent of women have the same. Further, women and girls are also more susceptible to gender-based violence, especially domestic violence, trafficking, child marriage, and others (IFRC 2015). Sexual violence against women, girls and LGBTIQ people also often increases in the aftermath of a disaster (Mian and Namasivayam 2017).

**DISASTER RISK REDUCTION, CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION AND RESILIENCE BUILDING FOR POOR COMMUNITIES – MAPPING THE BARRIERS**

Whether one adopts disaster risk reduction or climate change adaptation/resilience building strategies, achieving results require the target communities to be aware of the climatic risks and projections; conduct their own risk and vulnerability assessments; and integrate the climate risk perspective, especially those linked with disaster preparedness, land/resource use and household level financial planning. However, poor communities, particularly women, face many information, technical, behavioural, institutional and financial challenges to building climate resilience (Figure 1-5).

### FIGURE 1-5: BARRIERS TO CLIMATE ADAPTATION AND RESILIENCE BUILDING FOR THE POOR

- **Information Barriers**
  - Lack of micro-level data
  - Low awareness levels of community
  - Limited capacities of city governments
  - Lack of communication channels between technical experts and affected communities
  - Lack of understanding of behaviour anomalies and communication tools for futuristic action

- **Institutional Barriers**
  - Lack of people’s institutions to undertake risk assessment and develop local risk management plans particularly at slum and city levels
  - Lack of boundary organizations for pro-poor technologies
  - No inter-departmental coordination in government

- **Technology Barriers**
  - Lack of community validation/prototyping of technology
  - Lack of technology solutions which build on existing investment
  - Lack of standardization for market process
  - No process to build on existing/traditional solutions

- **Financial Barriers**
  - Low ability to make upfront capital investments
  - High maintenance costs
  - Lack of access to credit
  - Lack of risk retention planning
  - No risk transfer mechanism for the poor

Source: Adapted from Mahila Housing SEWA Trust (2015).
Information Barriers – Communities are faced with two kinds of knowledge barriers – the first is a poor understanding of the potential risk of climate change due to lack of micro level data and access to climate related information, and the other is limited skill sets for scientific assessment of risks and vulnerabilities. Additionally, the skill gaps among local governments and climate scientists to work in participation with communities further hinder the participatory processes. Preston, et al. (2011), through a review of 45 vulnerability mapping exercises, found that only 40 per cent included stakeholder participation highlighting the technical, expertise, resource, and institutional challenges to implementing participatory processes.

Technology Adoption Barriers – While technology innovation is critical, a range of climate-resilient solutions for heat resistance (ventilation designs, alternative materials, green landscaping) and water management (rain water harvesting, small recharge measures, eco-system water planning, water testing kits, and others) are already available. However, they are not adopted by the communities due to a lack of awareness. Also, they are often inaccessible and unsuitably prototyped to meet the specific needs of these (Nagrath 2013). Often, the technology offered is not in sync with the existing infrastructure or the existing space constraints. Additionally, one also needs to understand that the poor prefer technology solutions which build on their existing investments. Addressing this requires the involvement of communities with social scientists and technical experts to design effective and customised solutions. Further, given their socio-economic context, the poor are forced to think and make decisions on short-term needs rather than long-term benefits, and thus often depict very typical behaviour anomalies when dealing with risk. The unpredictability of climate-related risks is more likely to bring out behaviour anomalies such as loss aversion, status-quo bias and/or narrow framing. Thus, mere information will not induce behaviour change or adoption. There is a need to provide distinct incentives (not necessarily financial) for this (WHO and IFRC 2010). This requires a study of the cultural as well as social dynamics, along with the behaviour patterns of the poor – a very context-specific approach (Nygaaard and Hansen 2015).

Institutional Barriers – Adaptation and DRR planning are often not inclusive, and the poor in particular are even less involved. A very critical requirement to resilience is the developing of social capital or people’s institutions across slums and cities, especially those which are inclusive of women and who have the capacity to generate pressure for changes within the government (Boonyabancha and Mitlin 2012). At the same time, there is the need for local governments and local service providers to respond to the needs of the poor. Most local governments, however, lack the capacities and inter-departmental coordination, to develop and implement pro-poor participatory climate resilience action plans. IPCC -AR5 (2014c) also highlighted the critical partnership gaps between technical experts, local governments and communities to undertake participatory risk assessments and design joint technical solutions for strengthening resilience.

Financial Barriers – Disaster mitigation and resilient technologies are often expensive and require capital investments and incur high maintenance costs, making them inaccessible to the underprivileged communities. Local governments also do not invest in such infrastructure solutions for the poor, as most of the budgetary allocations are for social protection and welfare activities – much needed but addressing only issues of the present. The financial barrier is even more severe in urban areas, where the poor are often concentrated in slums and informal settlements, thereby often completely outside the infrastructure investment radar of city governments.
### Module 1 Session Plan C

#### Linkage Between Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction

**Overview**
At the end of this session, participants should be sensitized towards the gender differentiated impacts of climate change and related disasters. They would be able to understand the need for mainstreaming gender concerns in all climate change adaptation, resilience and disaster management programmes.

**Content**
- A. Gender Dimensions of Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction (CCDRR)
- B. Gender Inequalities Amplified by Climate Change
- C. Gender Roles and Differentiated Impacts of Climate Change
- D. Gender Inequalities in Capacities for Climate Change Adaptation, Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience Building
- E. Need for Integration of Gender in Climate Change and DRR policies
- F. Existing Strategies, Gaps and Challenges to Gender Mainstreaming
- G. Women as Equal Partners and Actors in Climate Action

**Materials**
- > PowerPoint presentations
- > Gender Roles Cards
- > Poster on Gender and CCDRR
- > Whiteboard and marker pen
- > Chart papers and pens
- > Copy of Handouts
- > Apparatus for film viewing on YouTube

**Outline**
- **5 mins.** Sharing of session content and structure.
- **40 mins.** ‘Matching Cards’ on Gender Roles and Differentiated Impacts (see Exercise 6 and Handout 5) (recommended for basic course).
  - **OR:** ‘Moser Framework’ for Gendered Climate Risk Mapping (see Exercise 7) (recommended for advanced course).
- **60 mins.** Poster presentation on "Gender Dimensions of CCDRR" using Figure 1-6 (recommended for basic course).
  - **OR:** PowerPoint presentation on "Gender Dimensions of CCDRR" (recommended for advanced course).
- **45 mins.** PowerPoint presentation on "Integration of Gender in CCDRR."
- **60 mins.** "Women as Change Agents" case study review (see Exercise 8 and Handout 6).

**Guidance Notes**
Begin the session by sharing the content and structure. Explain that climate change and disaster risk reduction (CCDRR) are not gender-neutral. Existing gender roles-related needs and preferences as well as the inequalities in sharing resources and decision-making powers, affect the ways in which people from various social groups and different gender identities experience the impact of climate change and respond to them. Gender, age and poverty aspects particularly influence the vulnerability and response capabilities to CCDRR. The result is that climate change amplifies existing gender inequalities. Tell them that these concepts will be explored through several exercises. For basic course, begin with 'Matching Gender Roles and Impacts' task (see Exercise 6) and end with a poster presentation on gender dimensions of CCDRR. For advanced course, begin with the Moser Framework mapping (see Exercise 7) followed by a detailed PowerPoint presentation to explain all the gender dimensions of CCDRR.

The next part of the session is information-focused, thus use a PowerPoint presentation to explain the need for gender integration in CCDRR and resilience building as well as the existing strategies, gaps and challenges to enable the same. Make sure to break for all the discussions to ensure participant engagements. End the presentation, with an overview of women as agents of change. Then divide the participants into three groups for the case study review exercise on "Women as Agents of Change." (See Exercise 8.)
Gender Dimensions of Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience Building

GENDER-BASED VULNERABILITY AND DIFFERENTIATED IMPACT OF CLIMATE CHANGE AND DISASTERS

Climate change and disasters affect people with different gender and social identities differently, often making women and LGBTIQ people more vulnerable (Figure 1-6). Much of this is not due to any biological difference but due to the gender-differentiated roles and responsibilities at the household and community level (Neumayer and Plümper 2007). The gender-based vulnerability is further exacerbated due to existing gender disparities especially access to land and other resources, participation in governance and decision-making structures, and, more importantly, access to education, health, extension and financial services. The critical gender-based vulnerabilities of climate change and disasters have been discussed here:

A. Increase in Domestic Work and Time Poverty

Within our complex societal systems, women’s caregiving is essential in providing a backbone of support. This is even more true in Asia, where women do four times the unpaid care and domestic work than men do (ILO 2018), as compared to global figures of 2.6 times (UN Women 2018). Measuring minimum wages, Oxfam reports that the monetary value of unpaid care work globally could be around US$10.8 trillion (Coffey, et al. 2020). Women’s caregiving role and unpaid work will increase manyfold due to climate change especially in disaster situations. Poor women and those in rural areas more involved in informal caregiving will be most affected (ILO 2018). Some of the critical gender caregiving roles that will impact women more include:

1. **Managing food security:** As traditional food sources become increasingly unpredictable and scarce, along with raising food prices, women will be strained for managing food security within their homes. Poor women with limited access to land, resources, and extension services will be most affected.

2. **Fetching drinking and domestic water:** The gendered dimension of water management is well known. In most societies, women and girls are largely responsible for domestic and drinking water collection. Already in many parts of South Asia, scarcity of water and lack of proper supply infrastructure results in women walking miles or waiting for hours in queues to fetch water. With more than two billion people around the world expected to face water shortage by 2025 (Hameeteman 2013), this will especially have a harsher effect on women and girls. In drought-prone areas, the time spent by women and girls to fetch water will increase manyfold, as they have to travel longer distances for the same. In flood-prone areas, damage to existing water supply infrastructure will further decrease the access to water for many communities especially those living in urban slums, which will again hurt women more.

3. **Arranging fodder:** As pressure on land for production of more crops, bio-fuels and renewable energy increases, availability of grazing land will decrease. With women having the main responsibility for arranging fodder for the cattle, especially the small livestock that they often have control of, decline in fodder availability will affect both time poverty (for arranging fodder) and income poverty (loss of livestock) of women.

4. **Fuelwood for cooking:** Stringent measures for forest protection and emission reduction policies will further affect fuel availability for cooking especially for poor women who cannot afford clean energy sources. FAO estimates that many countries in the developing world draw on fuelwood to meet as much as 90 per cent of energy requirements. Further, gender roles and discrimination will hinder women from participating in decisions related to local forest management processes, which will hamper availability and result in women having to travel further to reach unprotected forest areas.

5. **Domestic Waste Management:** Governments all over are trying to address improper waste management in open landfills and water-ways. As women have the prime responsibility of waste management within the household, they will be most affected by the additional roles of waste segregation and recycling.
Women and LGBTIQ People are Affected More by Climate Change and Disasters

**INCREASE IN DOMESTIC WORK AND TIME POVERTY**
- Asian women’s unpaid care and domestic work, already four times that of men, will increase.
- With reduced food crop production and increased food prices, poor women will be strained to maintain food security.
- With more than 2 billion people expected to face water shortage by 2025, women and girls will have to travel longer distances and spend more time to fetch water.
- Damage to water supply infrastructure in floods and cyclones will also hurt women in urban areas.
- As pressure on land for food and fuel grows, grazing land will reduce, increasing the workload of women for arranging fodder.
- Forest protection and clean energy policies will affect fuel and wood availability – a source of 90% energy for poor women.

**EXACERBATED HEALTH BURDEN AND CARING RESPONSIBILITIES**
- Skewed intra-household food distribution will result in women and girls being deprived of basic food intake and nutrition.
- Women being more exposed to standing water due to water fetching responsibilities will be at higher risk of water-borne diseases.
- Physiological characteristics also make women, especially pregnant women, more susceptible to vector-borne diseases like Malaria.
- Drinking saltier water (a direct result of sea water ingress) will also have severe impacts, especially on pregnant women, as rates of hypertension and pre-eclampsia will escalate.
- After disasters, women’ sexual and reproductive health needs are further marginalized.

**GREATER RISK OF DEATH, INJURY, AND VIOLENCE**
- Women and children are 14 times more likely to die or be injured in a disaster than men due to gender inequalities.
- Forced to sleep in insecure homes and emergency shelters without privacy and hygiene facilities, women and LGBTIQ people are particularly vulnerable to physical and sexual assault.
- Women and girls also often face elevated levels of violence if they have to travel long distances to fetch water, firewood or fuelwood after a disaster.
- Adolescent girls especially report higher levels of sexual violence in the aftermath of disasters. The risk and likelihood of early marriage increases.
- Post-traumatic Stress Disorder among men often leads to hegemonic masculinity crisis increasing pre-existing levels of violence.
- Women and children also face greater risk of trafficking and being pushed into sex trade.

**HIGHER LIKELIHOOD OF LOSS OF LIVELIHOODS AND ASSETS**
- Women are more dependent on natural resource-based livelihood and hence will face more loss due to droughts, flooding, etc.
- Women are often more involved in subsistence farming and provision of agriculture labour and their livelihoods will be more impacted by loss of crop yield coupled with water scarcity.
- Women also own only smaller livestock such as chickens, ducks, goats, which are not only less likely to be rescued but also more prone to be sold for immediate cash after disasters, thereby resulting loss of limited assets.
- With more women being employed in informal sector, with low paid jobs and lack of social security, their loss of livelihoods will hurt more.
- Already deprived of access to land and resources, their profound vulnerability will be further exacerbated.

Source: Adapted from GGCA (2016).
Floods, cyclones and other disasters destroy both natural resources and supply infrastructure for basic services like water, fuelwood, and others. Women and girls, having the key responsibility of managing these, have to travel longer distances for arranging these. Working hours further escalate with caregiving to the injured and sick and reconstruction work after disasters. All these have a profound impact on women’s time poverty.

As noted by UN Women and BCAS (Bangladesh) in 2014 “…climate [change] is wreaking havoc with the livelihood of vulnerable women. From floods, to droughts, cyclones, increased salinity, erosion and water logging, women’s days are dictated by their access to natural resources, and they rely on these to care for their families and communities. Almost all climatic changes lead to women’s increased labour, especially as it relates to the access to clean and safe water, fuel and food.” (UN Women 2016).

B. Exacerbated Health Burden and Caring Responsibilities

1. *Increased health burden:* Intra-household gender discriminations especially in food and nutrition provision, access to safe water, and others also increase women’s health risks. Skewed intra-household food distribution will result in women and girls even being deprived on basic food intake and nutrition. Standing water can pose a significant health threat to people via water-borne diseases such as typhoid fever and cholera, or vector-borne diseases including malaria, dengue, yellow fever and chikungunya. Women are generally exposed to areas of standing water significantly more than men due to their assigned roles to collect drinking water, prepare food, or take care of family members and livestock. In addition, women may sometimes be more susceptible than men to vector-borne diseases due to physiological characteristics. For example, pregnant women are twice as likely to attract mosquitoes, which kill over one million people per year. Similarly, drinking saltier water (a direct impact of sea-level rise) can have severe health impacts especially for pregnant women, whose rates of hypertension and preeclampsia in some regions have begun to escalate. In coastal Bangladesh for example, a 2011 study emphasized that climate change-induced sea level rise was having serious health impacts for local populations, especially pregnant women (Khan, et al. 2011).

2. *Caring for children, sick and elderly:* As primary caregivers, women and girls will also find their health care responsibilities increased as family members will be more exposed to vector- and water borne diseases such as malaria, dengue, cholera, diarrhoea and heat stress morbidity.

3. *Women’s sexual and reproductive health (SRH) concerns:* After disasters, the sexual and reproductive health rights of women are often observed to be marginalized. Studies from South and South-East Asia have shown that disaster relief processes are not inclusive of the sexual and reproductive health needs of women. Women from fishing communities in the Philippines reported increased birth rate after disasters and as a mechanism to cope with reduced income from fishing which is being impacted by climate change (Castro and Hernandez 2015). A study from Nepal revealed narratives from women reporting that after disaster, many pregnant women did not receive proper nutritious food, resulting in deficiencies and child birth issues (Singh 2015). In Maldives, women reported that relief kits did not include gender-specific essential supplies. Family planning and SRH services become constrained and practically inaccessible in the islands of Maldives after disasters (Shazly and Mohamed 2015). A study of rural and remote women from Laos revealed that the access to even basic sexual and reproductive health services becomes impossible due to inaccessible roads and bridges during rainy season or after flood-induced damage. During summers, women have to walk from 12 to 20 km by foot under heat to access these services at health centres (Thikeo and Sychareun 2015). Increased domestic and unpaid work load after disasters and deteriorated sanitation facilities impact the health of women (Bisan and I 2015). In Bangladesh, many cyclone shelters are not inclusive of gender-specific needs, like a path to the shelters, access to toilets, or separate space for women and lactating mothers. Women from Pakistan reported safety and privacy issues in moving to such shelters (Hussain 2015). Instances of unwanted pregnancy and unsafe abortions increase after disasters.
MODULE 1
GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE

C. Greater Risk of Death, Injury and Violence

1. **Women are more likely to die during disasters than men:** Women are more likely to lose their lives during disasters than men are. Mortality rates associated with disasters as shown in Figure 1-7 clearly highlight this discrepancy (UN Women 2016). Another study by Neumayer and Plümper (2007) also states that women and children are 14 times more likely to die or be injured in a disaster than men. The study also reveals that this is not due to natural or physical weakness but largely due to gender inequalities. Based on a review of gender and disasters in 141 countries, this 2007 study showed that when economic and social rights are equally distributed, the death rates are similar. The key gender discriminations, which play major roles are highlighted here:

- After the Asian tsunami in 2004, more women and children died because they were trapped inside their homes (due to gender norms) while men were out in the open. UN Women (2016) also highlighted how this mortality can be higher for poor women as the homes they stay in are often poorly constructed and lack protection against disasters.

- Women have limited access to information and are also less likely to receive early warning information on time (Oxfam 2005). Illiterate women would be further constrained in reading and acting upon disaster warnings (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015).

- Even when they receive evacuation notice, cultural limitations like responsibility of elderly and children, failure to make snap decisions, not being able to relocate without male relative, among other situations, can result in delayed response. For example, it was documented that women in Bangladesh did not leave their houses during floods due to cultural constraints on female mobility; those who did were unable to swim in the flood waters (Demetriades and Esplen 2008).

- In several societies, practices of purdah (seclusion) dictate the extent that women and girls can leave the house to seek shelter (Sultana 2018). Many parents consider cyclone shelters to be unsafe for girls and prefer to leave them at home rather than exposing them to potential harm from shared sleeping quarters and lack of adequate and private sanitary facilities (Swarup, et al. 2011).

- Women and girls often receive little or no disaster response trainings (for example, swimming and climbing trees), and clothing restrictions (like wearing of sarees) can further hamper the free movement of women and girls during disasters. A 2009 study in Gujarat (India) revealed how most women could not swim although 40 per cent of men could (Ahmed and Fajber 2009).

- Furthermore, women, lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer (LGBTIQ) also face negative consequences in the aftermath of disasters, especially on relief and recovery efforts (UN Women 2016).

![Figure 1-7: Gender Differences in Mortality Rates During Disasters](image)

Source: UN Women (2016).
2. **Increased Sexual and Gender-Based Violence:** Often forced to sleep in unsecure homes and emergency shelters with lack of privacy and separate hygiene facilities, women and LGBTIQ persons are particularly vulnerable to physical and sexual assault. Adolescent girls report especially higher levels of sexual harassment and abuse in the aftermath of disasters (Bartlett 2008). Women and girls also face elevated levels of violence if they must travel long distances to fetch water, firewood or food after a disaster.

Further, increased stress and feelings of powerlessness – due to bereavement, loss of property and loss of livelihood, mental health problems such as post-traumatic stress disorder, scarcity of basic provisions, and other factors leading to hegemonic masculinity crises – contribute to pre-existing levels of violence among men. This is often compounded by loss of protection from family members who have died or migrated and a breakdown in the rule of law (UN Women 2016).

Increase in poverty and living in margins also leads to rise in early and forced marriage among underage girls. Women and children are also at greatest risk of being trafficked in times of disasters, and they face the greatest risk of becoming targets for exploitation, resulting in slavery and sex labour (Nelleman, et al. 2011). There is also evidence that employment in sex work increases during climate crisis (IFRC 2015).

**DISCUSSION POINT**

Ask the participants if they know of any instances wherein they have observed increase in sexual and gender-based violence after disasters.

**Facilitator Clues**

- After the 1991 Bangladesh cyclone, many young women were reportedly abducted and abused especially where there were no separate safe places for sleeping, changing, showers and toilets.
- Child marriage has always been a problem in Bangladesh; but recently there were links between disaster and child marriage. This is because families in poverty often see a girl as one mouth less to feed, while the groom's family looks at her as one more working hand. Furthermore, social evils like dowry and bride price often result in young girls being sold to future husbands.
- Field studies in Bangladesh and Indonesia by ARROW (Mian and Namasiyavam 2017) have reported that women and girls have a greater risk of sexual violence due to climate change, having to walk longer distances to fetch water, firewood, food, and others.
- Increases in violence against women after disasters and during hot weather have also been documented in Vietnam (Oxfam 2009).
- In a study by Action Aid (Chanthy and Samchan 2014), the number of instances of domestic violence reportedly almost doubled in Banteay Meanchey and Svay Rieng provinces (Vietnam), after floods as compared to before the floods.
- After the 2015 Nepal earthquake, many female-headed households reported feeling unsafe in makeshift tents, especially with increased alcohol consumption among men.
- Nepal also witnessed an increase in trafficking from an estimated 3,000-5,000 annually in 1990 to 12,000-20,000 per year after the earthquake.
- In West Bengal (India), there is an observed pattern between trafficking of women and girls and annual flooding. Similar reports appeared after the cyclone Phailin in 2013.
- There is also some evidence that trafficking was a major concern after the typhoon Haiyan in Philippines in 2013.
- After the tsunami in 2005, Sri Lanka also reported cases of harassment and abuses.
- The Covid-19 lockdown in 2020 showed a surge in cases of domestic violence all over the world.

**D. Higher Likelihood of Loss of Livelihoods and Assets**

There are some critical differences in the livelihood patterns of men and women in most societies. Although these are contextual, the underlying elements are:

1. **Women are more dependent on natural resource-based livelihoods than men:** Women also tend to possess fewer assets and depend more on natural resources for their livelihoods. Loss of livelihoods, particularly of small-scale farmers and those in agricultural-based livelihoods, also produce differentiated impacts for women and men. Women who are often involved in subsistence farming of food crops and provision of agriculture labour are more likely to be impacted by loss in crop yields coupled with water scarcity. And while they have a major labour contribution in allied activities like livestock rearing, women often own and control only smaller livestock such as chickens, ducks and goats. During disasters, these are less likely to be rescued due to operational constraints. Fisheries, another sector which employs women in large numbers in Asia, will be impacted by the degradation of marine ecosystems due to climate change.
2. **Sectoral implications:** Other than agriculture and allied activities, women, especially poor women in Asia, are often concentrated in manufacturing jobs in the garment industry and hospitality/tourism sector. The garment industry will particularly be impacted by climate change, first due to decline in cotton production in Asia and second due to the impact of heat waves on productivity. In Cambodia for example, studies show that downward trend of productivity for hotter days was statistically significant in the garment industry (Kjellstrom and Phan 2017). Home-based workers will also be majorly impacted by heat waves. Focused group discussions by Mahila Housing SEWA Trust with women home-based workers in 50 urban slums in India, Bangladesh and Nepal, had women reporting up to 30 per cent decline in productivity during summer months due to heat waves (Mahila Housing SEWA Trust 2015). Further, home-based workers are additionally vulnerable due to loss of raw-materials and work place, when homes are inundated during floods and/or destroyed during other major disasters.

3. **Loss of assets:** Women are also bound to lose their limited assets during and after a disaster. For example, in Nepal, women control smaller livestock, which is given to them by their parents to start a new family. It was noted that in the aftermath of the 2015 earthquake, stress-selling of assets to cope with the disaster tended to concentrate on smaller livestock, such as goats and chickens, which were owned and controlled by women. Similarly, in the 2015 Myanmar floods, women lost 80 per cent of all animals killed in the floods, while men lost 20 per cent in terms of buffaloes, cattle and pigs (UN Women 2016). In India, there are many reports which highlight that sale of smaller livestock is the first drought-coping strategy adopted by poorer families. Destruction of domestic buildings during floods also signify not just a loss of home but an end to a home-based livelihood for women. Such practices inevitably erode their livelihoods and ability to cope with future stresses. Many women in South Asia do not use banks but keep hidden cash/jewellery within homes, which could be lost in case of emergency evacuation and/or used to meet the immediate expenses, thereby leading women to further lose their meagre savings. An added limitation is that women also have no insurance or coverage to meet these disaster-related losses, nor are these accounted for in economic loss assessments after a disaster.

4. **Women are more likely to be in informal sector, with low paid jobs and lack of social security:** In most countries, women’s access to formal jobs is restricted due to legal, education and social constraints. Even now, only eight of the 190 countries have equal legal rights for women in employment. The rest have laws impeding women’s economic opportunities – no factory jobs, working nights, taking permission from husband for work, and others (World Bank 2020a). Women’s less access to education and the added burden of domestic responsibilities, child bearing and child care role, coupled with existing gender discrimination further limit their access to higher paid jobs and positions. Globally, there is a 50 per cent gender wage gap (the ratio of the total wage and non-wage income of women to that of men) and only 36 percent of senior private sector’s managers and public sector’s officials are women (about 2 per cent higher than the figure reported last year) (WEF 2020).

5. **Existing discrimination in resource rights and access to services further exacerbates gender-based vulnerability:** Customary and traditional practices in the patriarchal societies in Asia are a major barrier to women’s access to land and resources (water and forest products). Women lack access to land (and other resources available on the land) because they are often sidelined when it comes to inheritance rights to land ownership compared to their male family members. Without land (including farmland), household food security, particularly for women-headed household, will be affected as most rural population in Asia are agrarian. These existing gender discrimination in ownership, control and management of resources especially land, livestock, water and forests, will further exacerbate the impact on the way climate change affects women’s and men’s livelihoods patterns. To cite a few examples:

- As there is a competition for scarce land resources, the fact that women lack land titles could mean that they would lose the control of the even small surplus lands that they currently farm.
- Women generally own small livestock like goats that depend on common grazing lands, which will also become scarce with climate impacts. Poultry is also more likely to be impacted by heat-related mortalities and morbidities.
- As water becomes scarce, it is more likely to be diverted for industrial use and/or for cash-based agriculture products like cotton, horticulture, and similar crops that contribute more to the country’s
gross domestic product (GDP). Women who are engaged in subsistence farming will more likely lose their crops due to lack of water. Women’s lack of land titles means that they will also have no say in the irrigation committees that are often linked to titles, especially in South Asia.

• FAO (2015) reports that 25 per cent of the world population – 1.6 billion people, mainly indigenous communities, landless and women – rely on forests and forest products for their livelihoods. Conservation programs that aim at protecting forest areas from deforestation may make it difficult for indigenous women to access the conservation zones to collect the non-timber forest products they are dependent on to provide food security for their families.

• Women often take up home-based work, and hence loss of homes to disasters or displacement due to sea level rise will mean that they not only lose their place of shelter but also their place of work. Further, the raw material and other equipment stored at home are not accounted for in economic losses of a disaster, which mean they will have to bear the burden of these losses.

• Increasing heat will also have a major impact on women’s home-based livelihoods. Poor women generally live in small homes, often made of heat-conducting materials like asbestos sheets with less or no ventilation especially in slums of India and Bangladesh. As the day temperatures rise, indoor temperatures within these rises manyfold reducing women’s productivity by up to 30 per cent (Mahila Housing SEWA Trust 2015).

Lack of access to credit, extension services, and limited mobility due to domestic responsibilities will further mean that poor women will be more vulnerable to droughts, flooding and loss of natural resources due to climate change. Furthermore, women’s productive value is more often invisible in national statistics and related policy planning processes. As climate change involves changes in production patterns and livelihood options, women with less control and participation in policy planning will be more affected. Also, women earn lower wages than men, leaving them more vulnerable to changes in working environment due to external factors. The same would also apply to climate change.

Adding to the woes is that decision-making at the household level is often controlled by men. Women are many a times excluded from key decisions like sale of land, house and other assets which have a critical impact on their overall asset ownership. The issues of key immovable resources, especially land and housing rights, must be brought into the climate debate (Sultana 2018) as it has a profound impact on the vulnerability of women. Furthermore, a lack of understanding of the gender dimensions can impede equitable distribution of recovery assistance. For example, entitlement programs have traditionally favoured men over women, tenants of record, bank-account holders, and perceived heads of households.

GENDER-INTERSECTIONALITIES AND CCDRR

Disaster and the Male Gender – It is not only women who are disproportionately impacted due to gender roles. Cultural expectations in male risk-taking behaviour often put men and boys at greater risk of death and injury during a climate-related disaster. In Vietnam, anecdotal evidence suggests that men are more likely to be killed due to occupational segregation – for example being a fisherman. Men are also more likely to ignore evacuation calls than women. A decline in food security and livelihood opportunities can also cause considerable stress for men and boys, given the socially ascribed expectation that they will provide economically for the household. Added to this is the fact that men are less likely to seek help for stress and mental health issues than women and girls (Masika 2002) which can have severe consequences for them. This can be illustrated by the way in which men are distressed to the point of suicide in India due to agricultural losses leading to an inability to repay loans (Keneddy and King 2014). Men also have specific needs, such as stress, alcohol counselling, or developing the skills to cope with becoming a single parent after disaster. All these point to the contextual nature of gender and the need for gender analysis in CCDRR.

LGBTIQ and Health Concerns – The recent COVID-19 crisis affected the health of millions of people across the globe. These impacts are however likely to be heightened for some of the most vulnerable populations especially lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer (LGBTIQ) people (Gelder 2020). Their pre-existing inequalities are likely to be exacerbated by the pandemic, making it more difficult for these populations to access critical services – including healthcare and social protection. While global or Asia level data, which could have been particularly useful in better understanding the potential negative impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on sexual and gender minorities, is not available, data from Western Balkans, reported by World Bank, show that only 12 per cent of LGBTIQ people surveyed had forgone necessary medical treatment because of the fear of discrimination by medical providers. In Serbia, earlier research by World Bank (2019a) had also found that only one-third of LGBTIQ respondents rated their health as “very good,” compared to 55 per cent of the
general population. Again, transgender people fare much worse, with only 18 per cent rating their health as “very good.” The self-assessment of one’s health as bad or very bad progressively increases among LGBTIQ people who are materially deprived (11 per cent), severely materially deprived (14 per cent), and extremely materially deprived (20 per cent), compared to 5 per cent of the overall LGBTIQ sample. It is important to analyze similar trends in local context as the health risks with climate change are expected to increase over the next decade. Unless action is taken to remove gender discrimination and improve health seeking behaviour of LGBTIQ communities, the health impacts of climate change on these communities would be disproportionately higher.

**Climate Change and Elderly** – Elderly people are often mentioned as a group at particular risk during heat waves as shown in the 2003 heat wave in Europe as well as other climate-related disasters (Kuzuya 2012). However, they are often absent in climate change adaptation plans as a specific target group. Elderly women are likely to be particularly vulnerable, especially in developing countries where resources are scant and social safety nets are limited or non-existent. Elderly women may also have heavy family and caring responsibilities which cause stress and fatigue while also preventing wider social and economic participation; and their incomes may be low because they can no longer take on paid work. They may also not understand their rights to access community and private sector services, such as local clinics. Even when they are aware of these services, even nominal amounts for clinic visits and drugs may not be affordable. Access is further restricted for older women living in rural areas, who are often unable to travel the long distances to the nearest health facility (WHO 2014b). Older men are also particularly disadvantaged by their tendency to be less tied into social networks than women and therefore unable to seek assistance from within the community when they need it (WHO 2014b).

**Gender Inequalities Amplified by Climate Change**

Gender Equality is a human right and a very important development objective in itself. Over the last many decades, various actors including the UN and other international bodies, national and local governments as well as civil society organizations have been pursuing the agenda of gender equality. Although there is still a long way to go especially towards full realization of the SDG 5 by 2030, the world is much ahead on gender parity, than where it stood a few decades earlier.

Various studies (GGCA 2016; UNDP 2019; UNDESA 2020) state that climate change will actually push back the progress made towards achieving gender equality over the years. This can happen due to the following reasons:

1. Overall, people will be worse off in general; and women with less resources and fall-back options will feel the impact more.
2. The impact would be particularly on natural resources – land, water, food, energy, health, affecting women and girls’ time-use and livelihood patterns. For example, women and girls could end up spending more time fetching water, taking care of the sick and injured and/or undertaking construction tasks after a disaster.
3. Increased workloads would mean women have less time available for income-generating activities especially full-time jobs, which provide greater social security (Bradshaw and Linnekar 2014).
4. Increased workload for girls could also force them to drop out of schools to help with housework, thereby eliminating the gender parity gains in education made over decades (Davis, et al. 2005; UNDP 2009). This will further increase the gap in employment opportunities for girls as compared to boys.
5. Livelihoods are expected to be upset in a way that social norms and networks will be recast – expectations of traditional gender roles will resurface. For example, after the 2015 Myanmar floods, rural women who relied on agriculture labour for income were left without alternative livelihoods while men moved out to find work elsewhere (UN Women 2016).
6. Reduced education and economic power, coupled with increased economic stress among men as breadwinners, heightened after disasters are likely to increase domestic violence (Masson, et al. 2016).
7. Prevalence of other forms of gender-based violence like trafficking and child marriage, elimination of which are so critical to achieve SDG 5, can also escalate. In Bangladesh for example, Human Rights Watch found that disasters are one of eight factors that contribute to child/early marriage (IFRC 2015; Mian and Namasivayam 2017).
8. Studies have also pointed at the increased risk of sexual violence for young girls, women and those with other gender identities especially in the aftermath of disasters (Swarup, et al. 2011; Mian and Namasivayam 2017).
9. There is also the risk that action for climate change adaptation and disaster management would lead to diversion of government budgetary resources from health, education and other social services which can increase gender discrimination within the country (UNFPA and WEDO 2009a).
More importantly, these actions will not work in isolation but would have a cascading effect and can actually lead to a vicious cycle of gender inequality.

GENDER INEQUALITIES IN CAPACITIES FOR CCDRR AND RB

Not only does climate change impact men and women differently, but their gender-differentiated relative powers, roles and responsibilities also affect their adaptation and resilience capacities. Women and men exhibit different ways of responding to climate change. For instance, women are known to have a higher perception of risk from disasters as compared to men; thus, they tend to heed evacuation warnings more and also spread the information (UNDP and UN Women 2018).

Women are also clear about their needs and priorities; and with traditional knowledge base, have already begun taking action on climate change adaptation. Mitchell, et al. (2007) reports how women from rural communities in the Ganga river basin in Bangladesh, India and Nepal have shifted cultivation to flood- and drought-resistant crops, or to crops that can be harvested before the flood season, or varieties of rice that will grow high enough to remain above the water when the floods come. In flood-prone areas in Bangladesh, women prepare elevated platforms for family members with disabilities using the chouki (traditional bed) and bamboo. They also preserve fuels, matches, dry food (such as rice, peas, puffed rice, flattened rice and molasses), ropes and medicine at home and prepare portable mud stoves for future use. Women often collect firewood to store in dry places for later use.

The fact does remain though that pre-existing gender inequality and women’s lower social positions in many situations does limit their capacity to respond to climate change. The inadequate access of women, especially poor women, to education and information; limited ownership and control over natural resources, land and finances; and restrictions to participation in the governance and decision-making processes hinder their capacities to adapt to climate change.

DISCUSSION POINT

Ask the participants to list examples of how the social position of women and existing gender inequality in their regions hinder women’s adaptive capacities.

Facilitator Clues

> Women and girls are often restricted from participating in local committees for disaster management or climate change adaptation. Even when there is no restriction, they often cannot participate due to time constraints.

> Women’s lack of land ownership often results in them not being able to make decisions related to cropping patterns even though they may want to. FAO, in its brief on Gender-Responsive Approach to Climate Smart Agriculture (Nelson and Huyer 2016), reported that in Kenya, the most rapid adoption of drought-resistant crops was among women whose husbands were away and not making the day-to-day decisions.

> Women have less access to decision-making spaces and influence than men in shaping policies and prioritizing how climate finance is used. As the need for climate change mitigation and adaptation actions grow, the distribution of related financing will increase – as will the potential gap in access to and control over resources between men and women under the prevailing systems and mechanisms. This will further hinder women’s adaptive capacities.
Gender Integration in CCDRR and RB

NEED FOR INTEGRATION OF GENDER IN CLIMATE CHANGE AND DRR POLICIES

All policies and measures affect women and men differently, which is why undertaking gender analysis and inclusion of gender dimensions into policy planning is important. Gender integration helps find ways to mitigate possible risks that may exacerbate gender inequality, and highlight opportunities to enhance positive outcomes. In the context of CCDRR, this has multiple implications.

Gender Equality is a human rights issue and a development goal in itself. Climate change will not only heighten gender inequality but also increase violence against women, child marriage and trafficking, all of which are serious offences against human rights (UN Women 2016). A Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA) demands that protection of these human rights be central to all development, adaptation, risk reduction and resilience building programmes.

Moreover, not taking women and LGBTIQ people along with men into account in CCDRR policies would mean neglecting a large part of the people whose well-being we seek to improve. This would be in direct contravention of the Leave No One Behind (LNOB) approach that most countries have agreed upon as part of the 2030 sustainable development agenda. Women and girls who are still among the most marginalized groups of the society and particularly vulnerable to current and future climate change and disaster risks need to be the key target of the LNOB approach when applied to CCDRR. Application of a gender lens to CCDRR can achieve the desirable results in these contexts.

For example, when Cyclone Sidr hit Bangladesh in 2007, not only had the absolute numbers of people killed fallen to around 3,000 but the gender gap in mortality rates had also shrunk to 5:1. This was possible as between 1991 (when Cyclone Gorky killed thousands) and 2007, Bangladesh had made great strides in hazard monitoring, community preparedness and integrated response efforts as also focused on specifically addressing the cultural reasons why women were reluctant to use cyclone shelters, including paying particular attention to engaging women in these efforts as community mobilizers more likely to be heard by other women, and creating women-only spaces in cyclone shelters.

Applying the gender lens is not charity for women but, as the World Development Report states, is “smart economics” (World Bank 2012). If all countries were to match the progress toward gender parity of the country in their region with the most rapid improvement on gender inequality, as much as US$12 trillion could be added to annual global GDP growth in 2025. The World Development Report 2012 framework also encourages a more nuanced and forward-looking inclusive approach to gender and climate change.

In this context, it is also important to understand that gender inequalities and gender roles play a key role in determining the choice of adaptation strategies men and women have in terms of their different needs, strategies and opportunities for adaptation and recovery. Unless women are actively included in CCDRR planning and gender made an integral part of the action, there is bound to be a male bias in the programmes, which could lead to inefficient allocations of scarce resources. Actions that disregard linkages between gender and climate change and fail to identify women as a target group for specific measures may allocate resources inefficiently. For example, the assumption that men are farmers can lead to most agriculture technology trainings being focused on them. Women who actually perform more than half of the agriculture operations will not have access to that information, which can lead to technology mal-adaption (GGCA and UNDP 2016). Similarly, diverting water for cash crops based on men’s preference will further increase food insecurity, and affect not only women but the society as a whole. This will also further increase women’s reproductive work (time for fetching water), reducing her availability for productive activities, again hampering overall development and poverty eradication goals.

Thus, CCDRR action can reinforce or exacerbate inequalities if it misses the differential needs of the beneficiaries. However, it can also intentionally aim to overcome and transform them while building resilience of all people. Climate change adaptation and DRR policies, plans and projects that do not take women’s issues and needs into account may unintentionally exacerbate existing gender inequities. On the other hand, climate action can also be an opportunity to make use of previously underused (and under-recognized) abilities, knowledge and talents. By examining the existing constraints in socio-cultural structures while designing climate change response, long standing gender inequalities can be identified and addressed.
For example:
• Low carbon energy policies, for example, can inflict additional costs on women while also reducing forest-based livelihood opportunities. However, if implemented with pro-poor and gender-responsive approach, they also have a high potential to provide livelihood and entrepreneur opportunities for women.
• Bio-fuel promotion and similar agriculture technology policies can increase or decrease food production by diversion of land from its current usage.
• Public transport policies can reduce women’s time poverty or inflict additional costs on them.
• Prioritization of budget allocation within the health sector for communicable diseases as against reproductive and child health care.
• Forest conservation programmes that restrict indigenous women’s access to non-timber forest products that they are dependent on to provide food security and supplementary income for their families.

The argument above makes a case for gender analysis that can be considered for policy context and situational analysis, which should be coupled with the national commitments on Human Rights and Gender Equality, and subsequently integrated into policies and action plans. However, while gender equality matters in its own right, it also matters for effective climate action (World Bank 2011).

Gender is an important dynamic in climate and disaster risk reduction efforts. First, the knowledge, skills and inputs of women are very important for development of context-appropriate adaptation and DRR policies and strategies. While women’s vulnerability is almost always assumed, their unique capacities and contributions to adaptation and across the disaster management cycle (mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery) have not been well (Bradshaw and Fordham 2013). In fact, women’s individual and collective knowledge and experience in natural resource management and other societal activities at the household and community levels equip them with unique skills that benefit adaptation and disaster efforts across scales and sectors (O’Neil, et al., 2014).

Second, it is important that women are also as much informed, prepared and equipped as men, if the adaptation and DRR strategies have to be effectively implemented. Finally, integration of gender in CDDRR action leads in more efficient result. There is also strong and mounting evidence at the country level that improving gender equality contributes to policy choices that lead to better environmental governance, whether through increased representation and voice of women within their communities, in society at large, and at the political level, or through increased labour force participation (World Bank 2011).

Women and Mitigation Policies
Women and men have different influences on the carbon emission pathways. Women also have a major role to play in mitigation actions. Women being ‘homemakers’ can be seen as a choice, thereby minimizing their unpaid domestic and care work. They also influence major choices and consumption patterns like usage of cooking fuels, electricity and water, purchase of food products, packaging material, clothing, and others, which will need to be addressed for low-emission development pathways. Similarly, it is mostly women who decide which food products to buy and how to dispose of household waste. The waste management cycle can be made more efficient if men, women, and their children are all informed on how to separate their waste and dispose them at the household and community level.

Women and Mitigation Policies
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The argument above makes a case for gender analysis that can be considered for policy context and situational analysis, which should be coupled with the national commitments on Human Rights and Gender Equality, and subsequently integrated into policies and action plans. However, while gender equality matters in its own right, it also matters for effective climate action (World Bank 2011).

Facilitator Clues
> Climate change adaptation requires a re-evaluation of regional agricultural practices. Women, having more than 50 pe cent role in agriculture production, hold vast amount of important knowledge that will inform these needed re-evaluations of agricultural practices. Furthermore, representing 43 per cent of the world’s agricultural labour force, women will also have a major part to implement the solutions.
> Women have an important role in disaster response by virtue of their household responsibilities. They foresee risks and take cautionary measures in advance by making portable stoves, stockpiling firewood, storing dry food, conserving water, purchasing essential goods, saving money and building social networks within their communities.
> In La Masica (Honduras), there were no reported fatalities after Hurricane Mitch because a disaster agency had provided gender-sensitive training and involved women and men equally in hazard management activities, and women took over control of the early warning system. This led to a quick evacuation when the hurricane struck (Newman and Stephenson 2010).
The Asian Development Bank, in its training manual on gender and climate change (ADB 2015), sums up the importance of gender-inclusive climate action on four parameters making it more:

- **Effective** because it identifies all relevant target groups and stakeholders.
- **Efficient** because it achieves greater outputs with the allocated resources.
- **Equitable** because it identifies and reduces inequalities.
- **Sustainable** because it leads to long-term social and economic development.

### EXISTING STRATEGIES, GAPS AND CHALLENGES TO GENDER MAINSTREAMING

Recognizing the gender dimensions of CCDR, women's rights agencies like UN Women, the Global Gender and Climate Alliance (GGCA), WEDO, and the like, along with international agencies like UNDP, World Bank, Asian Development Bank, have been making efforts for engendering climate and disaster action.

This has led the global climate change policy architecture, the UNFCCC, to include gender as an important objective within its agenda as part of various Conference of Parties (COP), and specifically adopting the Lima Work Programme on gender in COP 20 (2014) and the enhanced Gender Action Plan in COP 25 (2019). The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction also has a strong gender commitment. Various national governments have also been taking various steps towards engendering domestic CCDRR policies and plans. (These have been discussed in further detail in Module 2 Session A.)

However, a lot still remains to be done. Some of the key gender mainstreaming strategies currently in practice and the gaps and challenges in execution are given below.

#### 1. Policy Measures:

There is a growing awareness among national governments and development agencies on the need for gender mainstreaming in climate change and DRR policies and plans. UN Women (2016) reports that there is substantive mention of the word ‘gender’ in CCDRR laws, policies and strategies. However, the same report also points that ‘gender’ is largely understood as women and presented as victims of climate change in need of protection measures. Further, despite all this progress, many national governments often do not have gender as a key priority in climate action having to manage multiple cross-cutting issues. Often faced with making difficult choices on allocating scarce resources, these policies remain on paper and are not backed with programmes and budgetary allocations.

**Gender Mainstreaming Strategy:** CSOs can take a strong lead for promoting gender-inclusive and transformative policy dialogues using the CEDAW commitment in national climate change planning processes. CSOs can also advocate for GRB or Gender-Responsive Budgeting to be adopted in the CCDRR sectors for translation of these policy commitments into budgetary allocation.

#### 2. Institutional Mechanisms:

There is a lack of coherence between their national strategies, national CCDRR planning, and international agreements on gender like CEDAW that they have ratified (Otzelberger 2011). One of the major constraints towards this is that national strategies are led by planning and finance ministries, CCDRR plans are with technical ministries like agriculture, water, forest and environment, while gender policies are by social and women’s ministries. In most countries, planning, finance and technical ministries have little or no gender understanding; while the social and women’s ministries with gender mandates lack knowledge on CCDRR. Unless there are institutional mechanisms in place to bring these ministries together throughout CCDRR policy formulation and implementation, the gender policy prescriptions will not translate into practice. An even more vital gap in institutional mechanisms is the lack of spaces for civil society organizations (CSOs), especially women’s groups, to participate in national planning and development processes.

**Gender Mainstreaming Strategy:** CSOs can support technical ministries in undertaking sectoral gender analysis for CCDRR to enable evidence-based planning. CSOs can also partner with the technical Ministries for capacity building on gender mainstreaming.

#### 3. Gender Analysis and Knowledge Management:

A gender-sensitive response requires a much deeper understanding of existing inequalities between women and men, and a contextual analysis of the ways in which climate change can exacerbate these inequalities. For example, while women may die more during floods and storms in Bangladesh due to cultural reasons, men may die more in Vietnam due to occupational reasons. Getting this level of gender analysis requires a high level of gender-disaggregated data collection as well as community participation in risk and vulnerability assessments. Unfortunately, there is lack of both at the community, national and regional levels.
levels, which limits evidence-based gender analysis and planning (UN Women 2016).

The good news is that there is a body of work on gender and climate change that is constantly expanding on the ‘directly’ climate-sensitive sectors like food security and agriculture, forestry, water, disasters, as well as on social sectors such as health and education. However, the areas where gender dimensions appear less obvious — such as transport and infrastructure, energy access, housing, and formal or informal employment — are far less well explored. Even lesser research is done on emerging complexities brought about by the uncertainties of climate change to gender equality, recasting of gender roles, sexual and gender-based violence, child marriage, among others. It is not surprising thus that UN Women (2016) reports that knowledge generation and management remain key barriers to the meaningful inclusion of gender equality in CCDRR.

**Gender Mainstreaming Strategy:** A key activity in this regard would be undertaking research especially in sectors where the gender impacts are not directly visible — transport, informal employment, migration, among others. CSOs can publish statistics and knowledge products highlighting gender dimensions within the sector, for raising awareness on need for gender integration and to be a handy document which can be directly used by the Technical Ministries.

4. **Gender-responsive governance with women's participation and leadership:** The most important element in gender-responsive climate action is the participation and leadership role by the communities themselves, especially women and girls. There is a need for governments to adopt participative processes, especially at local level, so that CCDRR strategies and interventions can truly identify and meet the needs of those they aim to assist. In this way, processes can be forged that respond to local realities while feeding into a broader vision of climate change deceleration. Gender sensitivity and women's participation is also required in all these participatory processes, consultation and decision-making processes related to climate change adaptation. This needs to move beyond just creating spaces for women to be present but to recognize their capacities and the knowledge that they can contribute to such processes. Women specifically need to be involved in identifying and monitoring climate risks, including developing risk and hazard maps and data, identifying gender-specific aspects of risk and vulnerability and crafting the responses to risk. Women must be fully involved in community level climate action groups/committees, disaster response drills and related activities.

**Gender Mainstreaming Strategy:** CSOs can strengthen local knowledge base and enable direct participation to capture the ideas and knowledge of men, women and those with other gender identities. Formation and strengthening of women local groups and federations on CCDRR concerns both in rural and urban areas could be vital CSO activities.

Additionally, it is important to empower communities, especially women, to voice their issues and concerns in national CCDRR policies and plans. An easy entry point for this could be increasing the engagement and political influence of CSOs advancing women's rights in national CCDRR platforms and policy making processes. While such CSOs do have a say at regional level, their participation in national decision-making is limited. There is a lack of any institutional mechanisms which could enable effective participation of these CSOs or even the women themselves in the decision-making processes.

Furthermore, there is also a severe under-representation of women in political participation in Asia and around the world. Women still hold only 25 per cent of the global seats of national parliaments (WEF 2020). Promoting gender-responsive governance, and having more women-leaders in electoral and executive positions in government, are necessary if women's voices are to be heard and they are to be included in the planning and implementation of CCDRR initiatives and strategies. This can also be done at the local level to begin with. For example, in India, there is a constitutional provision for ensuring that at least one-third of the elected representatives and leaders in rural and urban local bodies are women.

**Gender Mainstreaming Strategy:** CSOs can also support women-leaders’ participation, especially of those from poor and marginalized sections, in gender-responsive international and national climate negotiations. Identification and training of women-leaders from vulnerable communities to present their issues and concerns directly should be an important CSO activity.
Facilitator Clues

> It is very important to ensure that gender concerns are not limited to men and women, and that all gender identities are analyzed in the local context while undertaking gender analysis, collecting gender data or enabling gender representation in decision-making. For example, while analyzing sexual violence in the aftermath of a disaster, it should be analyzed across all genders and not limited to women and girls. Gender needs assessment should include assessment of needs of LGBTIQ persons for privacy and separate hygiene facilities. Similarly, the cultural pressures on men to earn or take risk which can increase their stress should also be understood in order to design interventions like alcohol de-addiction counselling after disasters.

> Similarly, other intersectionalities related to age, ethnicity, caste, class or social identities also need to be considered. For example, data on mortality during disasters must include age-specific information to understand if there are any additional concerns of the girl-child, adolescent girls or elderly women. When enabling representation of women in decision-making platforms it should not be limited to one group of educated women but include indigenous women, (dis)abled women, women from different occupational categories, rural and urban background.

5. **Gender mainstreaming and gender transformative approaches:** Mainstreaming gender into policy processes, programmes and projects can help ensure that such processes equitably benefit everyone as envisaged in the human rights-based approach and leave no one behind principles so critical to achieving the SDGs. However, while these measures can advance social policy (including gender equality), they may not always enable a transformative structural change in gender relations. For this, it is important that while gender is integrated in plans and response measures, the focus is not only on addressing vulnerability but exploiting potential opportunities to further advance the goals of gender equality. At the same time, this also calls for the need to move beyond focus only on women but on men and other genders as well while planning and implementing CCDRR programmes.

**Gender Mainstreaming Strategy:** Advocating for gender mainstreaming in national policies and programmes, CSOs can concentrate on designing and piloting gender transformative projects. Implemented in project mode with strong evaluation components inbuilt, these will have the potential to be adopted by the government for scaling up.

6. **Inclusion in plans and response measures:** There is an increased recognition that CCDRR plans and response measures should take into account gender-differentiated risks, vulnerabilities and capacities. Unfortunately, in practice, the actual plans and programmes are still pre-dominated by technology and economic solutions, which are considered gender-neutral – even though they are often based on the ‘male norm.’ For example, when early warnings are provided via mobile phones, it benefits men more than women, not only due to differences in mobile technology access but also the cultural limitations of taking snap decisions. There is still a major need to focus on all response measures to be evaluated on gender outreach and to focus on inclusion of these in CCDRR plans and response measures. Policies and measures that focus solely on gender-specific vulnerability, however, run the risk of victimizing women. Thus, it is important that men, women and people from other gender identities must all be involved directly in planning and implementation processes. Community-based women-led CCDRR programmes should be the key gender mainstreaming approach. Unfortunately, not only are these not yet fully recognized in national policies and programmes but...
there is also very limited donor funding available for implementing and scaling up such programmes, which are so important for achieving gender mainstreaming.

**Gender Mainstreaming Strategy:** CSOs should focus on developing and implementing community-based CCDRR projects which are either women-led, and/or focus on specific vulnerable populations – elderly, (dis)abled, LGBTIQ, indigenous communities, ethnic minorities, migrants/refugees, among others.

7. **Addressing Vulnerability versus Exploiting Opportunities:** Current gender mainstreaming approaches also have a strong focus on women's specific vulnerabilities and favoured intervention that put women at the receiving end of adaptation responses. They have, for a large part, not addressed the gender inequalities underlying these differences in vulnerability, and have lacked consideration of the roles, preferences, needs, knowledge and capacities of men and women, boys and girls at all levels, particularly at the national and regional levels. It is important for countries, CSOs and communities to take a closer look at their structural dimensions of gender inequalities and use climate adaptation programmes as a means to address these. Such ‘gender opportunities’ refer to the potential of a response to climate change that takes into account the roles, views, ideas, needs and capabilities of men and women to i) promote gender equality; ii) reduce poverty; and iii) contribute to successful climate change adaptation and mitigation strategies (Otzelberger 2011). A critical strategy towards this is to promote diverse livelihoods options for women in order to increase their resilience to hazards and to ensure that risks faced by women are not exacerbated by inappropriate development policies and practices (World Bank 2011).

**Gender Mainstreaming Strategy:** CSOs can improve the understanding of gendered impacts of climate change within the national and local context and appropriate response strategies through training programmes and workshops on gender and CCDRR. Long-term engagement with existing government training institutes focusing on CCDRR would be even more effective.

8. **Availability of Climate Finance:** Another critical element of gender-responsive climate action is the provision of financial resources. Some strides have been made in creating climate finance mechanisms that are gender-responsive, especially with gender being a component in donor driven investments. However, due to existing economic structures, financial resources to aid in the mitigation and adaptation of climate change are not as likely available to women as to men (World Bank 2011). Budget allocation for CCDRR implementation across scales and sectors should be prioritized for action that addresses gender needs. Furthermore, ensuring participation of women and other genders in decision-making on all aspects of climate-related financing so vital to the efficacy and efficiency, as well as equity, of resources, is still a long way ahead.

9. **Addressing Sex, Age, Disability Disaggregated Data (SADDD):** A cross-cutting area of concern across all the above is the limited availability of SADDD across all sectors related to climate change and especially during disasters. The risk from disasters is often exacerbated due to differences in male and female vulnerability, sexual orientation, age, (dis)ability, race, ethnicity, and others (GFDRR n.d.). Unfortunately, most disaster assessments do not focus on undertaking disaggregated assessments, with more than 90 per cent of the countries reporting to the Hyogo Framework Agreement not collecting SADDD (UNDRR 2015). Unless data are available to assess the differential vulnerabilities across these social dimensions, enabling gender and intersectionality responsive policies and programmes would always remain a challenge.

**Gender Mainstreaming Strategy:** Creating gender and climate change tools covering entire programme cycle with specific focus on monitoring and reporting.

10. **Focus on men and other gender identities:** Finally, it is important to note that a gendered approach to climate change should not simply be about women. Men and boys and those with other gender identities are also vulnerable to the impacts of climate change but often in different ways, and these need to be identified and communicated. Unfortunately, as reported in UN Women (2016), current climate policies still tend to equate ‘gender’ with ‘women.’
CAPACITIES FOR GENDER MAINSTREAMING

Efforts of various agencies over the years have seen an increased level of awareness, policy commitments and implementation of pilot projects for addressing gender concerns. There have even been some very innovative women-led programmes being undertaken with support from multi-lateral agencies and donors. However, most of these, while having plans for scale, are not scaled up mainly due to lack of capacities at the national level. As mentioned earlier, most technical ministries have little or no gender understanding, and therefore lack the capacities for systematic integration of gender in CCDRR work. Thus, even when a gender mandate exists, it is often not connected to actual practice. There is often a gender disconnect in project and programme cycles – between relatively strong gender analysis in the conceptual basis and planning of projects on the one hand, and the much weaker integration of gender perspectives into implementation, monitoring and evaluation of CCDRR initiatives on the other. One of the biggest challenges for gender mainstreaming is building capacities of technical ministries for gender integration and mainstreaming in policies and programmes related to CCDRR.

WOMEN AS EQUAL PARTNERS AND ACTORS IN CLIMATE ACTION

Women can be powerful agents of change for climate action. Unfortunately, this potential remains untapped due to lack of gender integration in climate change action planning and more importantly due to lack of spaces for women to participate in planning and decision-making or take lead in implementation of climate actions. Women can be important agents of change; all climate actions, especially at national and local levels, involve women as equal partners and actors. They just need to be empowered to benefit from the resilience efforts.

There are countless examples where empowering women to exercise leadership within their communities contributes to climate resilience. It is important to know and learn from these stories of women change agents. Women can play a critical role in disaster preparedness. For example, when the water level rises, some women move to the nearest high locations and make temporary shelters to ensure their safety and that of their families. Others find refuge in the houses of relatives or friends on higher ground. Those who have the necessary resources increase the plinth level of their houses or their homestead. To protect their assets and livelihoods, women try to store seeds in high places before floods come, which allows them to replant quickly after the floods have receded. Livestock is sometimes taken to higher ground, but safe places for cattle are often hard to find. Women also adapt their agricultural patterns, including intensifying efforts in homestead production and seeking non-farm production options. Some female farmers have switched to cultivating crops that can be harvested before the flood season, or to varieties of rice that grow high enough to remain above water when the floods arrive.

Most discussions on gender in the context of climate change has focused on exploring and highlighting the particular vulnerabilities of women to climate change impacts due to their gender roles and responsibilities. However, because of these very roles and their ensuing dependence on natural resources, women often have a unique understanding of their natural environment. Studies reveal that women express greater concern about climatic-induced calamities than men do about environmental problems. Therefore, women can play a very constructive role in environmental conservation, something that was often overlooked. In many South and South-East Asian countries – India, Nepal, Philippines – indigenous women play significant roles in sustaining and managing forests, which are critical for climate change mitigation, adaptation and disaster mitigation.

Women are also at the forefront of fighting climate change and helping their communities adapt to environmental changes. There is also enough evidence showing increase in community resilience where women are empowered to create institutional platforms that expand their own, their families’ and their communities’ endowments, agency and opportunities. Such empowerment opportunities can serve as a powerful springboard for building climate resilience.

In Vietnam, women – through the Vietnam Women’s Union – plan and organize information sessions for other women at the commune level. They perform plays on DRR and disease prevention, and organize awareness-raising activities in their community. Women also play a critical role in fortifying their homes against storms. In Cambodia, women reported that in time of droughts, they borrow money from women’s savings groups, which they give to their sons so that they can find work in the capital, Phnom Penh, or on farm plantations. However, what is also important is to explore how these collectives can become platforms for livelihood promotion of women.
**EXERCISES**

**EXERCISE 1: HUMAN RIGHTS WEB**

The key objective of this exercise is to sensitize the participants on the significance of universalization and indivisibility of human rights.

**Materials Required:**
Kraft paper, marker pens, spray gum, cards, ball of string, chart paper and felt pen. Simple whiteboard and markers can also be used if needed.

**Process:**

**Step 1:** Ask everyone to stand in a circle. You can also use the standard round conference room with all participants sitting across the table. Tell them that they have to introduce themselves and share two most important things about themselves:
- One thing that they need in life to be fulfilled or empowered.
- Another thing that if lost or taken away would make them feel disempowered/helpless.

Then holding the ball of string, introduce yourself in the same way and throw the ball of string to someone else, while keeping hold of the end of the string. Ask that person to introduce himself/herself and pass the string ball to someone else while holding the edge of the string in their hands. The process is repeated with all participants and in the end, there has to be a big web of the string being held by all the participants.

**Step 2:** Write down all the points emerging on the cards and stick them on the kraft paper or write them on the whiteboard in a circle (see Figure 1-8). Convert the points to more meaningful and universally applicable examples as below:
- Need for security
- Need to have freedom to move where I want
- Need to have freedom to say what I want
- Need to be involved in decision-making that affects me
- Need to have leisure time, to relax, to enjoy
- Need to have money/assets of my own

**Step 3:** After all participants are done, ask them if the web that they have made among themselves has any link to the points. Ask them: “Are any of the groups related to each other? For example, does one have an impact on another, or vice versa?” If yes, what happens if:
- Someone does not hold their string, then the whole web is weakened. Participation of all is important.
- One person pulls his/her end of the string, it impacts on the whole web. No one should dominate.
- Two people are pulling on the string between them, it upsets all other participants. There should be no groupism.

Ask them to think of the web as a society and explain how these web rules are similar to what happens in the society. Now ask the participants to leave the web and come to the whiteboard.

**Step 4:** Ask them if any of the two points on the board are complementary requirements, i.e. we cannot have one without the other. For example, it is difficult to have education without mobility; and it is difficult to have mobility without societal support. Make the connections between the points on the whiteboard. Now ask them if there are any other such points which are interconnected. They can draw a line/arrow between all such points on the board until a web emerges. An example of how the final diagram should look as shown in Figure 1-8.

**Step 5:** Ask them to relate this web with the societal/web rules and think how these benefits are distributed among the society. Ask questions like:
- Is there any link between these points/needs and human rights recognized internationally?
- What happens when one person does not get his/her one need/right satisfied?
- What happens when one person hoards all benefits?
- Is there any link between Societal/Web rules and Approach to Human Development?
Learning Output: Conclude the discussion by saying that this is why these issues have been guaranteed to us as Human Rights and that “Every human being, irrespective of their class, caste, sex, religion or place of residence, is entitled to these human rights without discrimination. This is the concept of universalization of human rights. And the interdependence of the issues is why human rights are considered interrelated and, thus, indivisible.”

EXERCISE 2: POWER WALK
The key objective of this exercise is to sensitize the participants on understanding the role of social constructs and gender in the context of LNOB.

Materials Required:
Large empty space, preferably open ground enough for participants to be able to stand in a straight line and walk 12 to 15 steps forward. Role play chits and water bottles.

Sample Power Walk Roles (adjust to country context):
> 45-year-old female parliamentarian from a major city
> 35-year-old physically-challenged male factory worker
> 35-year-old male farmer with large land parcels and mechanized farming
> 45-year-old female farmer with very small parcel of land and three kids
> 30-year-old lesbian professional working in a multi-national corporation (MNC)
> 30-year-old female factory worker with two kids living in a slum
> 50-year-old high ranking male government official working in finance ministry
> 15-year-old female who takes care of her ailing mother and siblings
> 25-year-old male taxi driver who migrated from a neighbouring country
> 60-year-old male village chieftain with good political connections

If space is not available, you can use chessboard with different figures provided to the volunteers to move. Begin from one end of the board to reach the other side.
Process:
Step 1: Bring all participants to the open space and ask for 10 volunteers. Ask each of the volunteers to pick a (role play) chit from the bowl. Tell them to keep the information on their assigned role a secret for now.

Step 2: Debrief the volunteers away from the other participants. Ask them to quietly imagine themselves in the assigned role, thinking about what kind of home and place they would have been living in, what type of facilities they have at home, what would be their education qualifications, occupations, monthly incomes, friends and social status.

Step 3: Divide the other participants in two groups and ask them to stand on different sides making space for the volunteers to walk in a straight line between them. Tell them they have to observe the behaviour of the volunteers and try to guess what would be the probable social and gender profile of the person.

Step 4: Ask the volunteers to stand in a straight line between the two groups (they all begin as equals). Keep a few (two to three) water bottles on the other side. There should be a distance of around 12 to 15 steps between the volunteers and the bottles.

Step 5: Tell everyone that you will read a statement and if the volunteers think that the statement applies to them positively, they take a step forward, otherwise they just remain where they are. Tell them there are no right or wrong answers and to make a choice based on what they think applies best for the role assigned to them in their country.

Step 6: From the above list, select around eight statements which are most suited to the audience or country context. Next, read the statements one by one. Go the next statement only after all the participants have made their choice. After all the statements have been read, ask the volunteers to remain wherever they are.

Step 7: Ask the audience who all do they think will be able to actually reach out and take the water bottles. Once they have identified two to four people, ask them to guess the profile of the person, based on their response to the statements.

Step 8: Once the audience has finished guessing on them, ask them to identify the persons and profiles of the last three people that they think have the least chances of getting the bottle. Ask them to reflect on the reasons for their guesses. Now ask all volunteers to share what is their role and why they are behind. Repeat with other participants, reflecting on the social roles and what the causes are which result in people moving ahead or staying behind.

Step 9: End by asking all participants to reflect on the following questions:
- Do they think that the bottles being provided were equally accessible to everyone and that the facilitator was ensuring the HRBA principle of non-discrimination?
- Are the people who are at the back actually responsible for their position? If not, what is?
- What can be done to address this situation and bring in non-discrimination and equality?

Learning Output: Conclude the discussion by saying that “Providing open access to resources and opportunities (or programme benefits) will not ensure that everyone can reach out to them. It is important to identify who are those most left behind and why. Then plan for ensuring that all of them have an equal access and that no one is left behind.”
EXERCISE 3: GENDER CONCEPT CHITS

The key objective of this exercise is to bring a common understanding among the participants on various gender concepts.

Materials Required:
Chits from Handout 1 (Prepare one set for each group using larger fonts on A2 size paper. Include explanations, also in the chits.), kraft paper, and gum.

Process:
Step 1: Divide the participants into pairs of two (or groups of three) and give them a chit on any one of the sets given in Handout 1. Make sure all group have one set; if there are more people, get them to join existing groups.

Step 2: Ask the participants to discuss the concept in the chits between themselves. Give them 10 minutes to discuss and come back with a simpler explanation of the term, practical examples, as well as any distinct/complementary features that they know.

Step 3: Ask them to share their responses in the plenary and complement the responses by adding information from Handout 1.

Learning Output: As each of the sets is discussed, stick the chits on a kraft paper (pasted on a wall) for the terms to be visibly placed throughout the day of the training. Keep reflecting on them as and when required during the other sessions.

EXERCISE 4: HISTOGRAM ON CLIMATE CHANGE

The key objective of this exercise is to introduce the subject of climate change and get the participants to realize the process of climate change.

Materials Required:
Kraft Paper with picture cards on different climate-related observed changes and impacts pasted on them as shown in Figure 1-9, and a pen.

Process:
Step 1: Begin with some discussion on the day’s weather, if it matches the season or if it is different. Ask the participants if they have been observing such variations in the climate for quite some time now.

For participants from different climate zones, you can also do the exercise in smaller groups by identifying a facilitator for each group and briefing him/her on the process.

Step 2: After a few instances have been cited, spread the kraft paper on a wall and tell them that you would like to record these changes more systematically (you can also use whiteboard with written headings if the group is more vocal).

Step 2: Ask the participants to discuss the concept in the chits between themselves. Give them 10 minutes to discuss and come back with a simpler explanation of the term, practical examples, as well as any distinct/complementary features that they know.

Step 3: Ask them to share their responses in the plenary and complement the responses by adding information from Handout 1.

Learning Output: As each of the sets is discussed, stick the chits on a kraft paper (pasted on a wall) for the terms to be visibly placed throughout the day of the training. Keep reflecting on them as and when required during the other sessions.

FIGURE 1-9: SAMPLE HISTOGRAM CHART

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRESS</th>
<th>BEFORE 10 YEARS</th>
<th>PRESENT STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image4.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image5.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image6.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image7.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image8.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image9.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Photo credit (top to bottom): VladisChern; egd; think4photop; Zenobillis; and Witsawat.S./Shutterstock.
**Step 3:** Point out to the picture of the first climate event – temperature – and ask them what changes they have observed in the temperatures in their area in the last ten years (if the group has a combination of young and old, it will be better to ask for changes in the last 20-30 years).

Note down the changes that they mention. Guide the participants to provide answers in indicators as used in Handout 3, wherever possible. The answers should come out as shown in Figure 1-10 below.

**Step 4:** Similarly, move on to the other heads. Sometimes participants may cross over to other issues during the discussion. It is okay, just make sure that you have recorded it in the correct box and are not repeating the point.

**Step 5:** Once the chart is completed, ask the participants to collectively reflect on the answers. Ask questions like:
- Do you really observe a trend in the weather changes over the years?
- Is it just weather or is it affecting your lives and livelihoods?
- Why do you think this is happening?

**Learning Output:** Conclude the discussion by saying that that is what is understood as climate change – “the changes in the specific seasonal weather conditions in a region. While natural causes also contribute to this, human activity is mainly responsible for climate change.”

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**EXERCISE 5: CCDRR AND RESILIENCE CONCEPTS**

The key objective of this exercise is to clarify some of the core concepts related to CCDRR and Resilience.

**Materials Required:**
Balloon, pins, rubber-ball, slinky (bouncing spring coil), glass of water, piece of paper, piece of hardboard, piece of plastic.

**Process:**
**Step 1:** Divide the participants into pairs of two or groups of three people and give them copies of one concept from Handout 4. Ask them to read the concept definition and identify an example for explaining the concept. Give them 10 minutes to discuss.

**Step 2:** Ask them to come to the plenary and share the examples. Validate or correct the examples as applicable.

**Step 3:** Tell them that sometimes there is no specific terms for exposure, vulnerability, resilience, and the like in most Asian languages. It is sometimes difficult to communicate the same at community level. In order to explain this, some examples can be used.

**Step 4:** Take a glass of water and a piece of paper. Now ask the participants what will happen if you pour this water on anything. The general reaction will be that the thing gets wet. Now ask them, what will happen if you pour the water on the ground. How will it affect the piece of paper? It will not. However, if the paper is placed in the section where the water is pouring then it will get wet and soggy. Explain that this is what “Exposure” is all about – the state of being in a place where the chances of getting in contact with something uncovered is high. Now ask them what will happen if you put the plastic on the paper and then pour the water. The result will be that the paper will not get wet or soggy. Explain that this is “Susceptibility” – the likelihood of being influenced or harmed by a particular thing. So, in the above example, the uncovered paper was more susceptible to being damaged.
Step 5: Show the piece of hardboard and ask, if you pour water in both the uncovered paper and hardboard what will happen. The reaction will be both will get wet; but how much the cardboard will get soggy will depend on the amount of water that is poured, very little water will not crumple the cardboard as it could the paper. Explain that this is “Vulnerability” – the level of susceptibility to influence. Vulnerability is also often based on the amount of exposure.

Step 6: Take the pin and pushball/balloon. Ask them what will happen when you prick both of the pushball and balloon with the pin. The pushball absorbs the shock of the pin while the balloon bursts upon pricking. Explain that if pricking was considered a “disaster,” then “resilience” is our capacities to absorb the shock. So, while the balloon could not survive the disaster, the pushball could absorb the shock and, thus, is more resilient. Add that this is what we aim to achieve through resilience building – to increase the ability to bounce back. Use the slinky (bouncing spring coil) to explain this concept of “bouncing back,” or returning back to original position.

Learning Output: End the session with the example of sickness. Explain how when two people go to the market and it suddenly pours, then both are exposed to the rainfall. However, if one was to open an umbrella, then his/her likelihood of getting drenched would decrease and so would the susceptibility to being ill. Moreover, even if both got wet, then the age, general health and fitness, and other factors would be various parameters which would define how vulnerable the person is to getting ill. These same parameters along with (resilience) capacities like access to medical facilities, good nutrition and rest would determine how fast the person is able to bounce back to good health.

EXERCISE 6: MATCHING CARDS FOR GENDER ROLES AND DIFFERENTIATED IMPACTS OF CCDRR
The key objective of this exercise is to sensitize the participants to existing gender roles and the differential impacts of CCDRR.

Materials Required:
Cards with various gender roles written (refer to Handout 5 for the various roles. Do not write the gender on the cards.), large brown kraft paper, gum, paper tape.

Process:
Step 1: Put up the kraft paper on a wall using paper tape. Divide it into columns and multiple rows as shown in Figure 1-11 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR</th>
<th>GENDER ROLES</th>
<th>CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACTD</th>
<th>GENDERED VULNERABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WATER</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FODDER</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENERGY</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If laptops are available, you can also do this exercise on the system using soft copies of the pictures to save paper.
Step 2: Distribute the gender role cards between the participants. Ask them to place the cards in the men's or women's column based on the gender which is generally associated with that role in their country. Tell them that they have to discuss as a group and then paste the card in the row related to the specific sector. Allow 15 minutes to place all the cards.

Step 3: Ask them, how they think climate change will impact the particular sector. For example, water or food security or energy. Then ask how this impact will affect men and how will it affect women. Write down the answers in small points in the respective cells. Do the same for a couple of sectors and then give them a copy of Handout 5 for further reading. Tell them that they will discuss this in more detail in the next session.

Learning Output: End by reinforcing the point that existing gender roles in society will result in men and women being differently impacted by climate change and disasters.

EXERCISE 7: MOSER FRAMEWORK FOR GENDERED CLIMATE RISK MAPPING
The key objective of the exercise is to get a basic understanding of the interlinkages between climate change and gender roles assigned to a woman.

Materials Required: Chart paper and pens.

Process:
Step 1: Divide the participants into four groups. Try to maintain homogeneity within the groups as much as possible. Now ask each group to think about one special occupational category of a middle-aged woman, whose lifestyle is known to most of the group members. They can choose from categories – farmer, fisherfolk, pastoralist, street vendor, home-based worker, garment worker. Ask them to narrow down on the geographical location of this woman.

Step 2: Ask each group to list out all the daily activities undertaken by this woman during a 24-hour period. Tell them to list all activities across all seasons which fall into the purview of this woman’s work.

Step 3: Ask the group to list down the activities on a chart in the sample format in Figure 1-12 below.

Explain the difference between the different activities – production or income-generation are activities which finally earn them money like farming, goat rearing, dairy, fish marketing, tailoring, fodder management, forest produce collection, bee keeping, and the like. Ask them to include activities for which the women do not get directly paid but these contribute to their overall household income. Domestic activities include all those that are required to run their household including cooking, cleaning, washing, fetching water, child-care, elderly-care, nursing the sick, and the like. Social activities include participation in common festivities, weddings, funerals, public meetings, and the like.

Ask them to seek clarification if necessary. For example, participants often think of women’s activities such as cowshed cleaning, or milking of animals as domestic works, whereas they should really be seen as productive activities. Tell them to keep one column between each group blank as it would be used in the later part of the exercise.

Learning Output: End by reinforcing the point that existing gender roles in society will result in men and women being differently impacted by climate change and disasters.

FIGURE 1-12: MOSER FRAMEWORK TEMPLATE FOR EXERCISE 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR</th>
<th>PRODUCTION/INCOME-RELATED ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>REPRODUCTION/ DOMESTIC WORKS</th>
<th>LEISURE/SOCIAL ROLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 AM - 8 AM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 AM - 12 NN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 NN - 4 PM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 PM - 8 PM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 PM - 12 MN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Step 4: Ask the participants to analyze the chart that emerged and list out the problems. For example:
- Women's productive work is largely unrecognized and unpaid.
- Overall, women do much more work and have little time for leisure.
- Women play little or no role in community management activity, and this is the area where decisions are made and these affect their lives.

Step 5: Ask them to list the various climate risks in their region. This should also serve as a recap from the previous session on climate risks. Once they have identified all risks, ask them to mark which of the risks would affect women's various roles and what the areas are that they see in their social role where they can discuss the disaster risk reduction, climate change adaptation and resilience activities. They can also identify multiple climate risks for the same work. This can be built into the earlier chart as shown in the example next (Figure 1-13):

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR</th>
<th>PRODUCTION/INCOME-RELATED ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>CLIMATE RISKS IMPACTING THE WORK</th>
<th>REPRODUCTION/DOMESTIC WORKS</th>
<th>CLIMATE RISKS IMPACTING THE WORK</th>
<th>LEISURE/SOCIAL ROLES</th>
<th>CLIMATE RISKS IMPACTING THE WORK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 AM - 8 AM</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ex.: Fetching water</td>
<td>Water Stress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 AM - 12 NN</td>
<td>Ex.: Feeding cattle</td>
<td>Heat Water Stress</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ex.: Caring for the sick</td>
<td>Health risk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 NN - 4 PM</td>
<td>Ex.: Rice farming</td>
<td>Heat Water Stress</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ex.: Participation in community activity</td>
<td>DRR planning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 PM - 8 PM</td>
<td>Ex.: Tailoring</td>
<td>Heat Flooding</td>
<td>Ex.: Cooking</td>
<td>Heat Energy Stress</td>
<td></td>
<td>Climate change planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 PM - 12 MN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ex.: Sleeping</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Step 6: Ask them to discuss on the following points within their group and to present the same to the plenary in the suggested format (Figure 1-14):
Learning Output: Conclude on the point that "climate change will disproportionately affect women especially those from the poorer and more marginalized communities. There is the need to engage women from such communities in the process of DRR and climate change adaptation/resilience processes, so that the need assessments are more realistic and the local plans are more gender inclusive.” Also tell them that Caroline Moser devised this framework for gender analysis in 1979 and we are using a simplified, adapted version for our reference.

TRAINER’S TIP

Instead of asking them to read the cases, you can also show them these short films and reflect. Divide them into two groups instead of three and share the links for these short videos to be seen on mobile phones.

a. She is the Change at https://youtu.be/1FNOK84DUB8 (Nepal Forestry Case).
b. SWaCH Pune Seva Sahakari Sanstha at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ybhX9e0K8KY (India Waste Management Case).

EXERCISE 8: CASE STUDY REVIEW FOR WOMEN AS AGENTS OF CHANGE

The key objective of this exercise is to highlight the positive role that women can play in building resilience to climate change and disasters.

Materials Required: Case paper from Handout 6.

Process:

Step 1: Divide the participants into three groups and give them any one case from Handout 6 to read and discuss. Give them 15 minutes for this.

Step 2: Ask them to discuss specifically on the following questions:

• How do they see the role of women in these projects?
• How are these different from existing gender roles?
• How do these projects address gendered vulnerabilities?
• Are there any HRBA/LNOB approach elements included in these projects?

Step 3: Give them 30 minutes to discuss these questions and get them into a plenary. Give each group five minutes to make their presentation.

Learning Output: End by summarizing that “Women are also at the forefront of fighting climate change and helping their communities adapt to environmental changes. Evidence is also mounting that where women are empowered to create institutional platforms that expand their own, their families’ and their communities’ endowments, agency and opportunities, this can serve as a powerful springboard for building climate resilience more generally.”
TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>TICK IF TRUE</th>
<th>TICK IF FALSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Human rights are guaranteed by the government and hence applicable to only citizens.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Some human rights are more important than others.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Economic growth is the key to development and will address all forms of inequalities.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Climate Change will affect income inequalities more than other forms of inequalities.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Women are more vulnerable to climate change.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. All women and girls will be equally impacted by climate change.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Rice yields in Asia will increase with global warming.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. DRR and CC Adaptation are the same terms and can be used interchangeably.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Women and children are likely to die ten times more than men during disasters.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Climate finance will not affect development finances.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUGGESTED READINGS:

TRAINOR’S NOTES

MODULE ____  SESSION PLAN ____  PAGE ____

AGENDA

REMINDEERS
GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE

HANDOUTS

MODULE 1
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEXANDGENDER</th>
<th>GENDER CONCEPTS AND TERMINOLOGIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SEX</strong> refers to biologically-defined characteristics that generally define humans as male or female. These are mainly based on genetics, anatomy, physiology and reproductive capabilities. It is universal, natural (people are born with it), a-historic and mostly unchanging, without medical treatment and/or surgery.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GENDER</strong> refers to socially constructed set of roles and responsibilities associated with being girl and boy or women and men, and in some cultures a third or other gender. It includes the economic, social, political, and cultural attributes and opportunities, associated with certain groups of people with reference to their sex and sexuality.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learned over time as a result of social conditioning processes, gender roles vary greatly in different societies, cultures and historical periods. They also depend on socio-economic factors, age, education, ethnicity and religion. Although deeply rooted, gender roles can be changed over time, since social values and norms are not static.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXAMPLES:**
Only women can give birth and breastfeed. This is a sex-related difference. On the other hand, the expectation of men to be economic providers of the family and for women to be caregivers is a gender norm, which, although prevalent in many cultures, proves to be non-universal.

**PRACTICAL POINTS:**
> At birth, the difference in the biological characteristics between boys and girls is their sex. These biological characteristics, however, are not mutually exclusive and there are individuals who possess both male and female characteristics.
> As people grow up, society gives them different roles, attributes, opportunities, privileges and rights that, in the end, create the social differences between men and women.
> Sexual orientation, while generally referring to one's sexual or romantic attractions, also includes sexual identity, sexual behaviours and sexual desires.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRANSGENDER AND INTERSECTIONALITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TRANSGENDER</strong> is an umbrella term referring to individuals who do not identify with the sex category assigned to them at birth or whose identity or behaviour falls outside of stereotypical gender norms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INTERSEX</strong> refers to biological variation in sex characteristics, including chromosomes, gonads and/or genitals that do not allow an individual to be distinctly identified as female/male at birth. These include lesbian, gay, bisexual, pansexual and transsexual persons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TRANSEXUAL</strong> refers to people who identify entirely with the gender role opposite to the sex assigned to at birth and seek to live permanently in the preferred gender role. Transsexual people might intend to undergo, are undergoing or have undergone gender reassignment treatment (which may or may not involve hormone therapy or surgery).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INTERSECTIONALITY</strong> moves beyond the traditional notion of binary genders – men and women – and looks at other forms of social discrimination that combine, overlap, or intersect with existing gender discrimination. Intersectionality recognizes that identity markers (e.g. &quot;female&quot; and &quot;differently-abled&quot;) do not exist independently of each other, and that each informs the others, often creating a complex convergence of oppression. Using the intersectionality framework means recognizing that a person or group of persons are affected by a number of discriminations and are often disadvantaged by multiple sources of oppression: their race, class, caste, tribe, gender identity, sexual orientation, religion, and other identity markers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXAMPLES:**
Simply speaking, this means that the discrimination faced by a differently-abled female cannot be dissected based on her ability and gender but that the two-types of discriminations not only add up but also increase putting the person at a greater disadvantage. Another example on intersectionality can be looking at how same-sex female couples are legally entitled to both adoption and insemination, while often only adoption is available to their male counterparts.

**PRACTICAL POINTS:**
> All surveys/questionnaires should include a third gender option besides woman/man (for example ‘other/none,’ ‘other gender identity’ or ‘other gender’).
> Also ask yourself which other background variables might be relevant (for example age, race, area of residence, ethnicity, ability).
> While getting data for analysis from other agencies especially the government, insist on data disaggregated not only by sex but also by other gender and social variables.
### GENDER CONCEPTS AND TERMINOLOGIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER STEREOTYPED</th>
<th>GENDER STEREOTYPED are ideas that people have on masculinity and femininity: what men and women of all generations should be like and are capable of doing.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GENDER BIASED</td>
<td>GENDER BIASED is the tendency to make decisions or take actions based on preconceived notions of capability according to gender. It also often refers to the prejudice of accepting the &quot;Male Norm&quot; as the standard for analysis and decision-making.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### EXAMPLES:
Girls should be obedient and cute, are allowed to cry; boys are expected to be brave and not cry; women and girls are better caregivers and men or boys are better at mathematics. The related bias is that women are preferred for nursing jobs while men are given preference for engineering jobs. Another example of a bias is that public transport is needed mainly for people to go to work; thus, all planning is done keeping this in mind. However, while this is important for both men and women, this has a "male norm" bias as men use public transport more for travel to work only while women need public transport for work as well as other activities.

#### PRACTICAL POINTS:
- Undertake a detailed gender analysis of the sector/issue before designing any project or programme.
- Map out the basic needs of men, women and other genders, in context to the problem that they face and not on how the accepted solution can be tweaked to meet the needs of all genders.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HETEROSEXISM</th>
<th>HETEROSEXISM is the presumption that everyone is heterosexual and/or the belief that heterosexual people are naturally superior to homosexual and bisexual people. It is based on the idea that romantic and/or sexual relationships and feelings between a man and a woman is acceptable, and that all other relationships or feelings are unacceptable or outside the &quot;norm.&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HOMOPHOBIA</td>
<td>HOMOPHOBIA is the irrational fear of, aversion to, or discrimination against homosexuals or homosexual behaviour or cultures. Homophobia also refers to self-loathing by homosexuals, as well as the fear of men or women who do not live up to society's standards of what it is to be a &quot;true man&quot; or &quot;true woman.&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### EXAMPLES:
Heterosexual name calling – "gay" used in a negative way (e.g., "that's so gay") at school and offices. Having separate and dedicated public toilet facilities for men and women, with no clarity on the utility preferences of transgender persons. Similar is the case with shelter facilities during disasters. Lesbian and bisexual women are more unlikely to have a cervical smear test, compared with women in general. Homophobia includes hate crimes due to sexual orientation of the victim, but also the high level of domestic abuse faced by gay and bisexual persons.

#### PRACTICAL POINTS:
- Identify the transgender population within your communities and support them to come forward.
- Create support groups especially for access to education, health care and during disaster relief activities.

*Source: Adapted from jhpiego (n.d.); Chauhan (2017); Ramšak (2017).*
INFOGRAPHICS ON GENDER GAPS

The global gender pay gap is stuck at 16%, with women paid 35% less than men in some countries.

740 million women globally work in the informal economy.

For every dollar a man earns, women earn...

**WAGE EQUALITY FOR SIMILAR WORK**

- **Developing countries**
- **High income countries**

Wage equality for similar work has increased in high-income countries, while it has declined in developing countries.

Average woman income: **11.5k a year**
Average man income: **21.5k a year**

**Workplace Gap**

- Share of women in the labor force: **49%**
- Share of women in skilled roles: **40%**

Globally, 65% of women had an account at a financial institution in 2017, compared to 72% of men.

Women aged 25 to 34 globally are 25% more likely than men to live in extreme poverty.

125 women for every 100 men.

Women's Political Empowerment

- Global (153 countries)
  - Parliament (lower house seats) 25%
  - Global ministries (153 countries) 21%

Percentage of countries where a woman took head of state office at least once in the past 50 years.

INFOGRAPHICS ON GENDER GAPS

EDUCATION GAP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Tertiary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Net enrollment rate</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS

Share of women who suffered intimate-partner physical and/or sexual violence

- 45% Middle East and North Africa
- 38% South Asia
- 32% North America
- 31% Sub-Saharan Africa
- 27% Latin America and the Caribbean
- 23% East Asia and the Pacific
- 22% Western Europe
- 19% Eastern Europe and Central Asia

31% Global

CARE GIVING ROLE

Women spend 3x as many hours as men in unpaid care and domestic work, limiting their access to decent work.

More men between the ages of 25 to 54 are in the labour force than women:

- 94%
- 63%

### Observed Climate Changes and Impacts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climate Variables</th>
<th>Observed and Potential Climate Changes</th>
<th>Risks and Potential Impacts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Extreme Heat and Temperature Rise** | • More days with high/extreme temperatures; More heat waves.  
• More days with low/extreme temperatures; More cold waves.  
• It is very likely that heat waves will occur more often and last longer. | > Mortality and morbidity during periods of extreme heat, particularly for vulnerable urban populations such as those living in shanties, those working outdoors in urban or rural areas, older people and those with pre-existing health conditions.  
> Risks from vector-borne diseases which arise due to conducive breeding environment that they receive from changing temperature and humidity conditions.  
> Reduction in renewable surface water and groundwater resources in most dry subtropical regions. |
| **Changes in Precipitation Levels** | • Increase in number of dry days; Longer dry spells.  
• Increase in winter rainfall.  
• Increase in high intensity precipitation events spread across fewer wet days.  
• Delay in onset of rainfall seasons.  
• It is very likely that the extreme precipitation events will become more intense and frequent in future. | > Increased food insecurity and the breakdown of food systems linked to warming, drought, flooding, and precipitation variability and extremes particularly for poorer populations in urban and rural settings.  
> Risk of severe ill-health and disrupted livelihoods for large urban populations due to inland flooding in some regions.  
> Loss of rural livelihoods and income due to insufficient access to irrigation water and reduced agricultural productivity, particularly for farmers and pastoralists with minimal capital in semi-arid regions. |
| **Coastal Flooding and Sea Level Rise** | • Coastal systems and low-lying areas will increasingly experience submergence, flooding and erosion due to sea level rise. | > Death, injury, ill-health, or disrupted livelihoods in low-lying coastal zones and small island developing states and other small islands, due to storm surges, coastal flooding, and sea level rise.  
> Marine ecosystems, especially coral reefs and polar ecosystems, are at risk from ocean acidification.  
> Loss of marine and coastal ecosystems, biodiversity, and the ecosystem goods, functions, and services they provide for coastal livelihoods, especially for fishing communities. |
| **Cyclonic Disturbances** | • Changes in frequency and intensity of cyclonic disturbances. | > Health risks due to inadequate drinking and domestic water and decline in water quality leading to water-borne diseases.  
> Systemic risks due to extreme weather events leading to breakdown of infrastructure networks and critical services such as electricity, water supply, and health and emergency services.  
> Risk of loss of terrestrial and inland water ecosystems, biodiversity, and the ecosystem goods, functions, and services they provide for livelihoods. |

Source: IPCC-AR5 (2014a)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONCEPT</th>
<th>DEFINITION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLIMATE</td>
<td>Climate in a narrow sense is usually defined as the average weather, or more rigorously, as the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>statistical description in terms of the mean and variability of relevant quantities over a period of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time ranging from months to thousands or millions of years. The classical period for averaging these</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>variables is 30 years, as defined by the World Meteorological Organization. The relevant quantities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>are most often surface variables such as temperature, precipitation and wind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Climate in a wider sense is the state, including a statistical description of the climate system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLIMATE CHANGE</td>
<td>Climate change refers to a change in the state of the climate that can be identified (e.g., by using</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>statistical tests) by changes in the mean and/or the variability of its properties and that persists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for an extended period, typically decades or longer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UNFCCC, however, focuses on climate change attributable to human activities, and defines it as a</td>
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<td>change of climate which is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the</td>
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<td>composition of the global atmosphere and which is in addition to natural climate variability</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>observed over comparable time periods.</td>
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<tr>
<td>GLOBAL WARMING</td>
<td>Global warming refers to the gradual increase, observed or projected, in global surface temperature,</td>
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<td>as one of the consequences of radiative forcing caused by anthropogenic emissions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>DISASTER</td>
<td>Severe alterations in the normal functioning of a community or a society due to hazardous physical</td>
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<td>events interacting with vulnerable social conditions, leading to widespread adverse human, material,</td>
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<td>economic or environmental effects that require immediate emergency response to satisfy critical</td>
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<td>human needs and that may require external support for recovery.</td>
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<td>UNISDR (2017) defines it as a serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society at</td>
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<td>any scale due to hazardous events interacting with conditions of exposure, vulnerability and capacity,</td>
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<td>leading to one or more of the following: human, material, economic and environmental losses and</td>
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<td>impacts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>HAZARD</td>
<td>The potential occurrence of a natural or human-induced physical event or trend or physical impact</td>
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<td>that may cause loss of life, injury, or other health impacts, as well as damage and loss to property,</td>
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<td>infrastructure, livelihoods, service provision, ecosystems and environmental resources. In this</td>
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<tr>
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<td>report, the term ‘hazard’ usually refers to climate-related physical events or trends or their</td>
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<tr>
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<td>physical impacts.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>UNISDR (2017) defines it as a process, phenomenon or human activity that may cause loss of life,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>injury or other health impacts, property damage, social and economic disruption or environmental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>degradation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RISK</td>
<td>The potential for consequences where something of value is at stake and where the outcome is</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>uncertain, recognizing the diversity of values. Risk is often represented as probability or likelihood</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of occurrence of hazardous events or trends multiplied by the impacts if these events or trends</td>
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<tr>
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<td>occur. It is often used to refer to the potential, when the outcome is uncertain, for adverse</td>
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<tr>
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<td>consequences on lives, livelihoods, health, ecosystems and species, economic, social and cultural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>assets, services (including environmental services) and infrastructure.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disaster Risk is the potential loss of life, injury, or destroyed or damaged assets which could</td>
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<td>occur to a system, society or a community in a specific period of time, determined probabilistically</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as a function of hazard, exposure, vulnerability and capacity.</td>
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<tr>
<td>EXPOSURE</td>
<td>The presence of people, livelihoods, species or ecosystems, environmental functions, services,</td>
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<tr>
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<td>and resources, infrastructure, or economic, social, or cultural assets in places and settings that</td>
</tr>
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<td>could adversely affected.</td>
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<tr>
<td>CONCEPT</td>
<td>DEFINITION</td>
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<tr>
<td>VULNERABILITY</td>
<td>The propensity or predisposition to be adversely affected. Vulnerability encompasses a variety of concepts and elements including sensitivity or susceptibility to harm and lack of capacity to cope and adapt. UNISDR (2017) defines it as the conditions determined by physical, social, economic and environmental factors or processes which increase the susceptibility of an individual, a community, assets or systems to the impacts of hazards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SENSITIVITY</td>
<td>The extent to which something will be positively or negatively affected if it is exposed to a climate stressor (USAID 2014).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRESSES</td>
<td>Stresses have been defined as ‘pressures which are cumulative and continuous, such as seasonal shortages and climate variability, soil degradation and population pressure (Jones, et al. 2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHOCKS</td>
<td>Shocks are sudden events such as floods, epidemics, droughts; but also wars, persecution and civil violence (Jones, et al. 2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPACTS (OF CCDRR)</td>
<td>Effects on natural and human systems. In this report, the term ‘impacts’ is used primarily to refer to the effects on natural and human systems of extreme weather and climate events and of climate change. Impacts generally refer to effects on lives, livelihoods, health, ecosystems, economies, societies, cultures, services and infrastructure due to the interaction of climate changes or hazardous climate events occurring within a specific time period and the vulnerability of an exposed society or system. Impacts are also referred to as consequences and outcomes. The impacts of climate change on geophysical systems, including floods, droughts and sea level rise, are a subset of impacts called physical impacts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MITIGATION</td>
<td>A human intervention to reduce the sources or enhance the sinks of greenhouse gases (GHGs). This report also assesses human interventions to reduce the sources of other substances which may contribute directly or indirectly to limiting climate change, including, for example, the reduction of particulate matter emissions that can directly alter the radiation balance (e.g., black carbon) or measures that control emissions of carbon monoxide, nitrogen oxides, volatile organic compounds and other pollutants that can alter the concentration of tropospheric ozone which has an indirect effect on the climate. Simply put in by UNISDR (2017), it is the lessening or minimizing of the adverse impacts of a hazardous event.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RISK MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>The plans, actions or policies to reduce the likelihood and/or consequences of risks or to respond to consequences. UNISDR (2017) further defines disaster risk management as the application of disaster risk reduction policies and strategies to prevent new disaster risk, reduce existing disaster risk and manage residual risk, contributing to the strengthening of resilience and reduction of disaster losses. Disaster risk reduction is aimed at preventing new and reducing existing disaster risk and managing residual risk, all of which contribute to strengthening resilience and therefore to the achievement of sustainable development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADAPTATION</td>
<td>The process of adjustment to actual or expected climate and its effects. In human systems, adaptation seeks to moderate or avoid harm or exploit beneficial opportunities. In some natural systems, human intervention may facilitate adjustment to expected climate and its effects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADAPTIVE CAPACITY</td>
<td>The ability of systems, institutions, humans and other organisms to adjust to potential damage, to take advantage of opportunities, or to respond to consequences.</td>
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<tr>
<td>CONCEPT</td>
<td>DEFINITION</td>
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<tr>
<td>COPING STRATEGY</td>
<td>The ability of people, organizations and systems, using available skills and resources, to manage adverse conditions, risk or disasters. The capacity to cope requires continuing awareness, resources and good management, both in normal times as well as during disasters or adverse conditions. Coping capacities contribute to the reduction of disaster risks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESILIENCE</td>
<td>The capacity of social, economic and environmental systems to cope with a hazardous event or trend or disturbance, responding or reorganizing in ways that maintain their essential function, identity and structure, while also maintaining the capacity for adaptation, learning and transformation. UNISDR (2017) defines resilience as the ability of a system, community or society exposed to hazards to resist, absorb, accommodate, adapt to, transform and recover from the effects of a hazard in a timely and efficient manner, including through the preservation and restoration of its essential basic structures and functions through risk management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESILIENCE CAPACITY</td>
<td>The ability of communities to survive, adapt and progress in the face of stress, without distress or loss of assets, while improving their current level of livelihood and health status.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECTOR</td>
<td>MAJOR GENDER ROLES*</td>
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<tr>
<td>WATER</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Men    | > Irrigation of cash crops  
> Manufacturing | > Increased water stress due to droughts, erratic rainfall and declining ground water. | > Increased conflicts over scarce water resources. |
| Women  | > Drinking and domestic use  
> Irrigation of food crops | | > Increase in time and distance travelled for safe water.  
> Diversion of water will lead to lesser water available for food crops. |
| FOOD   |                     |                        |                                      |
| Men    | > Money for food       | > Reduced food production globally and ensuing increase in food prices. | > Increased poverty as share of food bill in household expenses goes up.**  
> Increased mental stress for more income and financial management. |
| Women  | > Food and nutrition management  
> Cooking | > Forest conservation policies will reduce access. | > Increased poverty as share of food bill in household expenses goes up.**  
> Increased stress for food and nutrition security in family.  
> Skewed intra-household distribution pattern will lead to reduced food and nutrition intake for women and girls.  
> Indigenous and poor women dependent of forest will face more problems. |
| FODDER |                     |                        |                                      |
| Men    | > Purchase of fodder  
> Free grazing | > Land resource diversion, especially for bio-fuels, can lead to decreased fodder availability. | > Increase in fodder costs. |
| Women  | > Collection of fodder  
> Free grazing | | > Time and effort spent of fodder collection increases. |
| ENERGY |                     |                        |                                      |
| Men    | > Electricity and crude oil for machines and vehicles | > Low emission energy policies will increase costs. | > Increase in energy expenses.  
> Increased poverty as share of energy bill in household expenses goes up.** |
| Women  | > Fuel and gas for cooking  
> Electricity for home and work | > Forest conservation policies will reduce access. | > Time and effort spent of fuelwood collection increases.  
> Increased poverty as share of energy bill in household expenses goes up.** |
| HEALTH |                     |                        |                                      |
| Men    | > Money for medical expenses  
> Medical insurance | > Increase in morbidity due to heat waves. | > Increase in medical expenses can lead to families falling back into poverty. |
| Women  | > Caring for the sick | > Increase in vector- and water-borne diseases. | > Increased burden of caring for sick.  
> 22 per cent of women to lose wages due to absence from work for a sick child. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR</th>
<th>MAJOR GENDER ROLES*</th>
<th>CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACTS</th>
<th>GENDERED VULNERABILITY TO THE IMPACT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CROP FARMING</td>
<td>Men: Cash crop production and marketing, Agriculture labour</td>
<td>Average crop yields go down, exposing millions of farmers to lower yield.</td>
<td>Reduced farm incomes will lead to higher migration for alternative incomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women: Food crop production and storage, Agriculture labour</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower availability of labour days will further reduce income.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Reduced food crop yields will lead to food insecurity especially for subsistence farmers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIVESTOCK REARING</td>
<td>Men: Management of large cattle and dairy farms</td>
<td>Livestock will be adversely affected with rising temperatures, depending on the extent of changes in feed quality, spread of diseases and water resource availability.</td>
<td>Large cattle farming could become less profitable or even non-viable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women: Management of small livestock, poultry farms</td>
<td></td>
<td>Increase in cost of managing small cattle especially arranging fodder and water.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Increase in time spent on livestock management.</td>
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<tr>
<td>FISHING</td>
<td>Men: Catching of fish</td>
<td>Damage of ecosystems will reduce the productivity of fisheries and aquaculture, especially at low latitudes.</td>
<td>More time spent at sea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women: Processing and marketing, Pond fish farming</td>
<td></td>
<td>Need to venture in deep sea will increase fuel costs and need more mechanised boats.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Increase in costs will reduce profits from fishing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>HOME-BASED WORK</td>
<td>Men: Handloom and power looms</td>
<td></td>
<td>Higher temperatures will make fish processing and marketing more difficult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women: Fuel and gas for cooking, Electricity for home and work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Energy costs will go up.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Loss of raw materials and infrastructure in floods.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Loss of workplace due to disasters.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No financial risk coverage/ credit access will mean falling back into poverty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRANSPORT</td>
<td>Men: Private and public transport</td>
<td>Low emission transport policies will be put in place.</td>
<td>Increase in fuel and transport costs may reduce private transport usage for poorer families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women: Safe public transport</td>
<td></td>
<td>Increased pressure on public transportation will affect women's safety and access to public transport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECTOR</td>
<td>MAJOR GENDER ROLES*</td>
<td>CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACTS</td>
<td>GENDERED VULNERABILITY TO THE IMPACT</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>COASTAL DISASTERS</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>&gt; Risk taking behaviour&lt;br&gt; &gt; Saving lives and property&lt;br&gt; &gt; Information updates&lt;br&gt; &gt; Insurance and recovery</td>
<td>&gt; Loss of life&lt;br&gt; &gt; Occupational risks for fishermen&lt;br&gt; &gt; Increased migration&lt;br&gt; &gt; Increase in stress and mental health&lt;br&gt; &gt; Alcoholism and suicide rates can increase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>&gt; Storing household and emergency items&lt;br&gt; &gt; Reproductive workload&lt;br&gt; &gt; Water collection, cooking&lt;br&gt; &gt; Child and elderly care&lt;br&gt; &gt; Maintain dignity and cultural inhibitions</td>
<td>&gt; Increased saltwater intrusion, flooding and damage to infrastructure.&lt;br&gt; &gt; Women and children 14 times more likely to die/be injured than men.&lt;br&gt; &gt; 80 per cent of people displaced are women.&lt;br&gt; &gt; Reproductive workload escalates.&lt;br&gt; &gt; Health concerns due to salt water intake.&lt;br&gt; &gt; Sexual and gender-based violence increases.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The gender roles mentioned here are not fixed and need to be contextualized. These are just indicative of what could be the differentiated gender roles.

** Households that have a higher share of food and energy in household expenditure generally fall in the lower income quadrant (poor households).
Barishal, on the Kirtonkhola River in Bangladesh, is predominantly slum-populated. The high levels of poverty in the city are worsened by the weather conditions – cyclones and monsoons flood the riverbanks, overwhelming the city’s infrastructure and clogging it with waste. This means the spread of disease is always a threat. In 2007, more than 10,000 people died when Cyclone Sidr smashed its way through the city. Climate change means that the situation here will only get worse. And most of the time, there are few men around to help them deal with disaster; it is the women who are left to pick up the pieces.

But these women are made of sterner stuff. Josna and her friend Mahmuda, along with other local women, have formed a Women’s Squad – the Hatkhola community disaster management committee, with help of the Bangladesh Red Crescent Society. The squads were created to give women a platform to speak about the issues that matter to them the most. The team focused on developing the area; improving roads, drains, washrooms and toilet systems, as well as training people in disaster preparedness. But they have moved way and beyond. They received disaster management training and were ready in November 2019 when Cyclone Bulbul hit the area.

Josna and Mahmuda’s squad responded to an emergency. The squad made sure that children, the elderly, pregnant women and disabled people were taken to an evacuation centre. One of the them was Kobita, 18 and eight months pregnant when Cyclone Bulbul hit. As the water levels started to rise and swept under the tin doors of her hut, Kobita began to panic. Ankle-deep in water, she suddenly heard the mic from the local mosque crackle. But instead of the usual adhan – the Muslim call to prayer – a loud, echoey voice declared a state of emergency. Luckily, the Hatkhola Squad soon arrived and slowly escorted Kobita to the emergency shelter. “We keep a list of the most vulnerable,” says Josna. “Kobita was a priority, so we got to her as soon as we could.” The Hatkhola Women’s Squad worked tirelessly through the night, making sure everyone in the slum reached the shelter. They carried small children for those who were struggling and provided regular reassurance to terrified families.

Once the worst of the cyclone was over, the squad made sure the shelters were safe, clearing up debris and arranging for food donations to be delivered to families in need. After the cyclone had passed, the women helped clear the debris and return families back to their homes. They also arranged for local donations of dry food for the needy and vulnerable.

The women also received praise from the local police. Officer Abu Bakar Siddik says, “The Hatkhola Squad was critical in getting the early warning alerts to the community. We hope this will inspire more women in Barishal to get involved with future search and rescue missions.”

Source: Adapted from British RedCross (n.d.).
In Nepal, as in other parts of South Asia, women are responsible for the collection and management of forest products essential to the daily lives of their household. However, women are often neglected in the decision-making process within community level institutions devoted to the management of natural resources. WWF and its many partners work with government and local communities to help improve lives and restore forests as part of overall strategies to conserve large-scale landscapes and wildlife in Nepal. The focus is on empowering women to participate in local decision-making processes and stand up for their rights to forest resources and the benefits they provide. The projects also include introducing clean energy approaches to reduce the time women spend collecting firewood and ease the pressure on forests. Such approaches include biogas (gas produced from raw materials such as agricultural waste and manure), solar power, small hydropower plants, and fuel-efficient cook stoves. All of these improve lives and conserve nature – and women are strong custodians of their local forests.

This recognition of the essential role that women play in forest management can make a difference in terms of forest conservation. This happens mainly because women have different and complementary interests relative to men within a forest committee that stem from the differences in concerns and nature of dependence on the forest that women have relative to men. Better forest conditions directly affect the livelihood and the welfare of a large part of rural populations who rely on forest resources.

Radha Wagle, Nepal’s first woman Joint-Secretary and Chief at the REDD Implementation Centre under the Ministry of Forests and Environment, is also working to make the forestry sector more inclusive for women and marginalized groups. They have finalized a Gender Action Plan that identifies ways to make forestry programs more responsive to the needs of women and encourages women’s participation at all levels of government, civil society and the private sector, with support from the World Bank’s Forest Carbon Partnership Facility. When Wagle was a young forest ranger in the eastern region of Nepal, she became aware of a stark paradox in the land use sector. With the significant amount of time women spent gathering fuelwood for energy use, fodder for livestock, medicinal plants and herbs, she saw the essential role women play in agriculture, livelihoods and natural resources management. Yet, she also observed – and experienced herself – how women were marginalized time and time again in this male-dominated field. “Some clients would request a male ranger for the service they sought, such as making a forest management plan, providing technical support or writing a letter. Even if I told them that I could do it, they would deny it and wait for a male ranger to become available,” Wagle recalls. If this was happening in this region, Wagle became convinced it was happening across the country, and she was determined to do something about it. In 2015, she became the first woman Joint-Secretary at the Ministry of Forests and Environment in Nepal. In this role, she is focusing her efforts on increasing the engagement of Nepalese women in forest management.

Source: Adapted from World Bank (2019).
Pune is not the only city that struggles to contain its waste. It is a common problem in most Asian cities, where increasing waste being dumped into landfills is becoming a major environment and climate concern. In 2000, India’s national government issued its first Municipal Solid Waste Management Rules, requiring local governments to collect garbage door to door, separate recyclables from wet waste and put a stop to indiscriminate dumping. Like most Indian cities, Pune was ill-equipped to comply. However, rather than go for a contractor-based model or common waste treatment plant, the city opted for a livelihood promotion for poor model.

The idea grew from the fact that in Pune, as in most Asian cities, women formed a major constituent of waste pickers in the city. But Pune was different because the waste pickers in the city had unionized as Kagad Kach Patra Kashtakari Panchayat (KKPKP), and had been advocating for the rights of this previously fragmented and disempowered workforce since 1993. SWaCH thus grew as a pilot program of KKPKP and the Pune Municipality in 2005.

In SWaCH, each waste picker purchases shares in the cooperative. Waste pickers work in pairs to collect garbage directly from 150 to 400 households. They sort it and drop off non-recyclables at city-run feeder points, and make a living from charging customers a fee and selling recyclables to local scrap dealers. Those who service slum households also receive a per-household subsidy from the city to make up for the fact that fewer recyclables are usually thrown out in low-income areas. A council advocates for workers’ rights and negotiates with the city for occupational health and safety standards, workers’ benefits, equipment, sorting facilities and access to health care. To date, they have negotiated two long-term contracts with the Pune Municipal Corporation, and, for a time between contracts, SWaCH was able to maintain operations solely on user fees.

Pune looks different today than it did in the 1990s. More than 3,500 waste pickers have joined SWaCH’s ranks, mainly lower caste women and “Dalits,” previously known as “untouchables.” They handle 1,000 tons of waste every day and recycle more than 70,000 metric tonnes of materials a year.

“Everybody has become more aware of the waste pickers,” said Mini Shrinivasan, a SWaCH customer. “Their lives have become like a little more familiar for us, and now people have started thinking of them as working women.” Beyond earning a more respected place in society, SWaCH workers are making more than ever before. Sonawane said she earns a monthly income of 13,000 rupees (US$188) – more than her husband – and receives an additional 300-350 rupees per week from selling the recyclables she collects. “I have built my house with my own savings,” she said. “I have bought the appliances that I need and also saved money for my children's education.” “A waste picker today in SWaCH is the owner of an enterprise that offers her a dignified livelihood,” said Lakshmi Narayan, SWaCH’s co-founder. “It makes for an inclusive city in many ways.”

The arrangement also benefits the city economically. SWaCH estimates that the user fee model saved the Pune Municipal Corporation US$ 13 million last year, compared to a traditional tax-funded trash collection system. What’s more, residents now separate dry and wet waste in their homes, a big change in behaviour from previous habits of roadside dumping. The result is a more efficient waste system as a whole.

Source: Adapted from Parsons, et al. (2019).
Training Manual on Gender and Climate Change Resilience

MODULE 2
ENGENDERING CCDRR POLICIES AND NATIONAL PLANS
This module provides a snapshot of the climate policy landscape at the global and national levels, highlighting the role of governments to place gender within these frameworks and enabling multi-stakeholder processes for negotiating inclusive action in climate policies. It begins with an overview of existing international policy commitments and frameworks on Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction (CCDRR) and gender with a focus on the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and the Sendai framework for disaster risk reduction (DRR). The sessions also highlight how these global frameworks affect CCDRR planning mechanisms at the national level including development of NAPs. The last section emphasises on operational approaches to gender mainstreaming and the role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in it.

OBJECTIVES OF THE MODULE:

> Provide an overview of the global climate policy landscape and gender mandates in the existing international frameworks;
> Give an overview of basic tools for mapping the policy cycle and decision-making forums; and
> Provide framework and checklist for CSOs to undertake assessment of gender equality action points and gaps in the action plans, apply gender mainstreaming strategies in CCDRR plans and help identify entry points for negotiations and advocacy.

KEY MESSAGES:

> The Earth Summit marked a major change in the global policy landscape with an increased understanding for the need for cooperation for anthropogenic climate change. It also saw the introduction of UNFCCC.
> The 2001, Marrakesh COP 7 became an important turning point as it saw the first gender-related decision 36/CP7 on improving the participation of women in the representation of the parties. COP 7 also set the stage for the first UNFCCC-led national planning mechanism through National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs), which were to be guided by the principles of gender equality.

> The bottom-up approaches got momentum in climate negotiations since the Bali Action Plan (COP 13, 2007), with a growing acknowledgement of the need to integrate gender within the international climate change architecture.
> The Lima Work Programme on Gender (LWPG) adopted by COP 20 in 2014 was a major breakthrough in engendering the UNFCCC process.
> Adoption of the Paris Agreement and submission of Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (INDCs) in 2015 demonstrated heightened level of attention to gender and climate change.
> COP 25 in 2019 moved ahead to develop an enhanced five-year Gender Action Plan.
> The DRR global policy landscape had a higher level of gender integration, with both the Hyogo Framework of Action and the Sendai Framework clearly recognizing women as key players in DRR.
> The global processes have also had a significant impact at the national level. The Least Developed Countries (LDCs) have developed and submitted their NAPAs. Further, more and more countries are developing their own climate change and DRR policies and plans. The NAP process will further strengthen this.
> Some key strategies mainstream gender into the national CCDRR policies and plans: i) gender balance in participation and leadership; ii) creating institutional mechanisms for locating responsibility for gender mainstreaming and coordination between agencies; iii) focused knowledge sharing and capacity building; iv) engendering the NAP processes; v) engendering Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs); vi) developing Climate Change Gender Action Plans; vii) gender-responsive implementation, monitoring and review; and viii) gender statistics and sex-disaggregated information.
> The role of both national governments and CSOs is very critical for gender mainstreaming in CCDRR policies and plans.
MODULE 2_SESSION PLAN A

UNDERSTANDING THE CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION AND DRR POLICY LANDSCAPE

OVERVIEW
At the end of this session, participants should understand the international architecture for CCDRR and the gender mandates. They should be able to link these international mandates with national planning mechanisms and identify entry points for gender mainstreaming within the national processes.

CONTENT
A. International Policy Commitments and Frameworks for CCDRR
   a. The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)
   b. Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction
B. CCDRR Recommendations of Multilateral Gender Equality and Women’s Rights Conventions
C. National Planning Frameworks for CCDRR under UNFCCC
   a. National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs)
   b. National Adaptation Plan (NAP)
   c. Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs)
D. National Frameworks for CCDRR and Gender Mainstreaming at Country Level
   > Country Case Study – Bangladesh

MATERIALS
> PowerPoint presentations
> Chart papers and pens
> Whiteboard and marker pen
> Copy of Handouts

OUTLINE
5 mins. Sharing of overview and session content.

40 mins. ‘Cross and Knots’ or Tic Tac Toe on International CCDRR Frameworks (See Exercise 9 and Handout 7).

30 mins. PowerPoint Presentation on “Global CCDRR Policy Frameworks (UNFCCC and Sendai Framework) and Gender Commitments”.

45 mins. Group Discussion on “Application of UNFCCC and Sendai Frameworks at National Level” (See Exercise 10 and Handout 8).

45 mins. PowerPoint presentation on “National Frameworks for CCDRR and Gender Mainstreaming at Country Level”.

45 mins. Group Task on Gender Analysis of “NAP and NDC” using checklist (see Exercise 11 and Handout 9) (recommended for basic course).

OR: Group Task on Shadow Report Development for “CEDAW and BPIA” on status of gender mainstreaming in National CCDRR policies (see Exercise 12 and Handout 10) (recommended for advanced course)

GUIDANCE NOTES
Begin the session by sharing the module’s objectives and session plan. Distribute Handout 7 to all participants and give them 10 minutes to go through it (20 minutes for basic course). Divide them into two groups and facilitate the “Cross and Knots” exercise (see Exercise 9 and Handout 7). Repeat the exercise for basic course and summarize with a few additional points on “Global CCDRR Policy Frameworks (UNFCCC and Sendai Framework) and Gender Commitments.” For advanced course, make a detailed PowerPoint presentation on the topic. Divide the participants into four groups and tell them to explore how these frameworks can be used at national levels. Facilitate the group discussion on “Application of UNFCCC and Sendai Frameworks at National Level” (see Exercise 10 and Handout 8). You can also split each part into two and eight groups can be created for discussion. This will ensure more detailed discussion within the limited timeframe, covering all points.

Make a detailed PowerPoint presentation on “National Frameworks for CCDRR and Gender Mainstreaming at Country Level.” A case study on Bangladesh is provided for reference and inclusion in the presentation. However, if participants are from other countries, use the Bangladesh case format to provide them details on the CCDRR framework in their own countries. You can use the country-specific policies and plans highlighted in Table 2-1, which provides a gender mainstreaming review of CCDRR plans from some Asian countries. End the session, with the group task on “Gender Assessment of NDCs/NAPs” for basic course and “CEDAW Shadow Reporting on CCDRR” for advanced course.
Environmental concerns and climate change have been on the international policy agenda since early 1970s, beginning with the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (UNCHE) in 1972 and the first World Climate Conference (WCC) in 1979. The first Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) was set up in 1988 to review and assess scientific, technical and socio-economic data on climate change. The cumulative efforts over the years provided the much needed impetus to the issues raised in the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) held at Rio de Janeiro (Brazil) in 1992. Popularly known as the "Earth Summit," this was where the international community agreed upon the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC).

The UNFCCC provided a legal framework that enabled negotiations over various climate agreements every year at the Conference of Parties (COP). The COP is the highest decision-making authority of the UNFCCC and is an important forum for all international climate events since 1995, when the first COP was held. The UNFCCC has a primary objective to stabilize GHG emissions to prevent human-induced climate change. Towards this, its most important contributions, inter-alia, have been the Kyoto Protocol which came in force in 2005, the Bali Action Plan in 2007 and the Paris Agreement of 2015.

Over the years, the UNFCCC recognized the vulnerability of developing countries to climate change and acknowledged that their right to sustainable development and economic growth depends on collective climate action. What was mainly a top-down approach, turned into a bottom-up process since the COP 13 in Bali (Indonesia). This apparent shift led to increased participation from civil society in the COP negotiations, especially women's organizations, resulting in an increased emphasis on gender equality within the UNFCCC.

The UNFCCC, which had no gender equality mandate in its initial years, adopted its first text on gender equality and women's participation, along with a mandate that National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs) will be guided by gender equality, at the COP 7 in Marrakesh (Morocco). Nine years of additional efforts finally led to the acceptance of gender equality and women's participation as an element for effective action on all aspects of climate change at the COP 16 in Doha (Qatar). Since then, gender concerns have guided almost all actions of the UNFCCC and, as of mid-2015, the UNFCCC had over 50 mandates on gender equality (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015).

The COP now has a standing agenda on gender and climate change. The COP 18 in 2012 also embarked on the decision to maintain a gender balance and women's participation in all COP and related events. The Paris Agreement, adopted by the COP to the UNFCCC in 2015, also noted in its preamble that "Parties should, when taking action to address climate change, respect, promote and consider their respective obligations on human rights, the right to health, the rights of indigenous peoples, local communities, migrants, children, persons with disabilities and people in vulnerable situations and the right to development, as well as gender equality, empowerment of women and intergenerational equity" (UNFCCC 2014). The parties to the Paris Agreement also acknowledged that adaptation, including capacity building for mitigation and adaptation action, should be gender-responsive, participatory and fully transparent, taking into consideration vulnerable groups, communities and ecosystems (UN Women 2016).

The landmark decision in terms of gender, however, came at the COP 20 in 2014, through the launch of the Lima Work Programme on Gender (LWPG). The LWPG (2014) establishes a two-year work programme that includes (UNFCCC 2014):
1. A review of implementation of all gender-related mandates by the UNFCCC Secretariat;
2. Training and awareness raising for delegates on gender-responsive climate policy;
3. Training and capacity building for women delegates;
4. Two in-session workshops on gender (in relation to mitigation, technology, adaptation and capacity building) at Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI) 42 and 44;
5. Submissions by Parties on these workshops;
6. A technical paper by the Secretariat on guidelines for implementing gender considerations in climate change activities; and
7. Appointment of a senior focal point on gender at the UNFCCC Secretariat.

As of January 2021, 83 parties, including the European Union, have nominated gender focal points as mandated by the LWPG (UNFCCC n.d.(a)).

At the COP 23 in 2017, the LWPG adopted the Gender Action Plan (GAP). At the COP 25 in 2019, the enhanced Lima Work Programme on Gender and Gender Action Plan was adopted. This latest five-year GAP (UNFCCC 2019) was unanimously agreed to by governments who are called to lead or contribute to actions promoting gender equality in the UNFCCC process and supporting all activities. The latest GAP builds on the first GAP and addresses the emerging needs of scaling up gender-just climate solutions and greater implementation of action. It focused on: i) taking into account human rights in climate action; ii) being inclusive of the unique challenges experienced by indigenous people; and iii) promoting action in developing gender-responsive climate technology solutions and in preserving traditional knowledge.

The GAP sets out objectives and activities under five priority areas that aim to advance knowledge and understanding of gender-responsive climate action and its coherent mainstreaming in the implementation of the UNFCCC and the work of Parties, the Secretariat, United Nations entities and all stakeholders at all levels, as well as women's full, equal and meaningful participation in the UNFCCC process. These include:
1. Capacity building, knowledge management and communication.
2. Gender balance, participation and women's leadership.
3. Coherence and consistent implementation of gender-related mandates and activities.
4. Gender-responsive implementation and means of implementation.
5. Monitoring and reporting.

Driving Factors and Strategies Leading to Engendering of the UNFCCC

It is important to understand and learn from the driving factors which contributed to gender mainstreaming within the UNFCCC. Some of the key contributing factors included:
1. Growing influence of the evolving human rights and sustainable development framework over the same period;
2. Increased understanding of the need for gender equality as an integral part of a sustainable and efficient development model;
3. Collective and concerted efforts of gender champions including UN agencies, civil society groups, academics and researchers including leading networks like Global Gender and Climate Alliance (GGCA), GenderCC, LIFE e.V., etc.; and
4. Mounting research and evidence on the interlinkages between gender and climate change.

It is also important to highlight here the role of institutional mechanisms strategically influencing the processes. These include:

1. The Women Delegates Fund (WDF): Recognizing a need to support women's equitable participation and leadership in the UN climate negotiations, particularly from countries most affected by climate change, the Government of Finland partnered with the Women's Environment and Development Organization (WEDO) under the auspices of the GGCA to launch the WDF in 2009. The WDF works to enhance women's participation on national delegation to the climate negotiations by providing travel support especially to delegates from Least Developed Countries (LDCs) and by building leadership skills through knowledge and capacity building technical issues related to the negotiations, media and communications (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015).

2. The Women and Gender Constituency (WGC): While women's organizations have been active in the UNFCCC since its beginning, the initial 15 years of engagement was more informal. In 2008, active women's CSOs applied for provisional constituency status to gain official recognition and be afforded formal channels through which to provide input into negotiating processes. A provisional status was granted in 2009 for the WGC. The WGC became fully operational in 2015 and is able to make submissions and interventions on the floor, as well as participate in a range of in-session workshops and other events. It also collaborates closely with other major constituencies, including youth, indigenous peoples, trade unions and environmental non-government organizations (NGOs) (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015).
3. **Momentum for Change – Women for Results (W4R):**

In 2012, the UNFCCC Secretariat itself, with support from Rockefeller Foundation, launched an initiative “Momentum for Change” that recognizes innovative and transformative solutions that address both climate change and wider economic, social, and environmental challenges (Myers 2016). Called Lighthouse Activities, the projects that are chosen as winners of this prestigious competition fall into specific categories, including one called Women for Results. The winners get an opportunity to participate and showcase their work at the next COP. They also get access to policymakers and potential funders during the conference; public recognition by the UN Climate Change Secretariat; public relations support and media training; marketing materials, including promotional videos; a dedicated page about their project on the UNFCCC website; and professional photography.

**SENDAI FRAMEWORK FOR DISASTER RISK REDUCTION**

The 2005 Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA), a ten-year plan for disaster risk reduction, was developed at the World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) in Kobe (Japan) for building the resilience of nations and communities to disasters. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030, the successor instrument to the HFA, was adopted at the Third UN World Conference in Sendai (Japan) in 2015. The key features of the Sendai Framework include: i) strong emphasis on disaster risk management as opposed to disaster management; ii) focus on prevention, mitigation, preparedness, response, recovery and rehabilitation as part of disaster risk management; iii) the recognition of climate change as exacerbating disasters and also as a driver of disaster risk; and iv) calling for the coherence of DRR, sustainable development, climate change and other policies for improving efficacy and efficiency. The Sendai Framework (UNISDR 2015)\(^1\) also has an explicit outcome, goal, four priorities and seven global targets outlined in the following sections:

**Outcome:** Substantial reduction of disaster risks and losses in lives, livelihoods and health.

**Goal:** Prevent new and reduce existing disaster risk through the implementation of integrated and inclusive measures that prevent and reduce hazard exposure and vulnerability to disaster, increase preparedness for response and recovery, and thus strengthen resilience.

**Priorities:**

1. Building policies and practices on understanding of disaster risk in all its dimensions of vulnerability, capacity, exposure of persons and assets, hazard characteristics and the environment.
2. Strengthening disaster risk governance at the national, regional and global levels for an effective and efficient management of disaster risk. With clear vision, plans, competence, guidance and coordination within and across sectors, as well as participation of relevant stakeholders, are needed.
3. Investing in disaster risk reduction to enhance the economic, social, health and cultural resilience of persons, communities, countries and their assets, as well as the environment.
4. Enhancing disaster preparedness for effective response and to "Build Back Better" in recovery, rehabilitation and reconstruction. Empowering women and persons with disabilities to publicly lead and promote gender equitable and universally accessible response, recovery, rehabilitation and reconstruction approaches is important.

**Global Targets:**

1. Substantially reduce global disaster mortality by 2030, aiming to lower the average per 100,000 global mortality rate in the decade 2020-2030 compared to the period 2005-2015;
2. Substantially reduce the number of affected people globally by 2030, aiming to lower the average global figure per 100,000 in the decade 2020-2030 compared to the period 2005-2015;
3. Reduce direct disaster economic loss in relation to global gross domestic product (GDP) by 2030;
4. Substantially reduce disaster damage to critical infrastructure and disruption of basic services, among them health and educational facilities, including through developing their resilience by 2030;
5. Substantially increase the number of countries with national and local disaster risk reduction strategies by 2020;
6. Substantially enhance international cooperation to developing countries through adequate and sustainable support to complement their national actions for implementation of the present Framework by 2030; and
7. Substantially increase the availability of and access to multi-hazard early warning systems and disaster risk information and assessments to people by 2030.

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\(^1\) On 1 May 2019, the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction officially changed its acronym to UNDRR (from UNISDR).
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 mainstream 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.
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).

**NATIONALY 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...
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>KEY CCDRR AND NATIONAL POLICIES/PLANS</th>
<th>GENDER MAINSTREAMING COMPONENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| AFGHANISTAN | > NAPA (2009)  
> National Development Strategy (2008 - 2013)                                               | > Addressed very briefly with a statement that climate change affects women differently, but no specificities                                                                                                                |
| BANGLADESH* | > NAPA (2005, updated 2009)  
> Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan (2008)  
> Extensively discussed within the document with specific vulnerabilities or capacities identified.                                                                                                                               |
| BHUTAN    | > NAPA (2006)  
> 10th Year Plan (2008 - 2013)  
> Most projects are aimed at infrastructure and reducing exposure, thus, there is limited attention to human dimension.                                                                                                                    |
| CAMBODIA* | > NAPA (2006)  
> Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan (2014 - 18)  
> Gender and Climate Change Strategic Plan (2013 - 2023)  
> Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan (2014 - 2023)  
> Climate Change Strategic Plan for Disaster Management Sector, 2013  
> Law on Disaster Management (2015)                                                                 | Identified gender equality as one of the guiding principles for reducing vulnerability and identified gender and climate change strategic objectives.  
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. |
> 11th Five-Year Plan (2007 - 2012)                                                               | Differentiated impact of climate change on women recognized but not discussed within the NAPCC main document.                                                                                                                |
| NEPAL     | > NAPA (2010)  
> Three-Year Interim Plan (2007 - 2010)                                                           | Addressed gender-specific vulnerabilities and capacities as a cross cutting issue throughout the policy. Gender-specific vulnerability study conducted as part of policy processes.       |
| VIETNAM   | > National Strategy on Climate Change 2011                                                        | Specific target to include women's priority concerns of food, water, health and most importantly gender equality in the context of climate change.                                                                           |

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 Fo 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.
### MODULE 2 SESSION PLAN B

#### OVERVIEW
At the end of this session, participants should be able to relate with the challenges to gender mainstreaming and identify strategies and entry points within the national policy and planning cycles in their own countries. Participants should also be able to realize the role of CSOs as both advocates and facilitators of gender mainstreaming in national CCDRR planning mechanisms and in all national communications.

#### CONTENT
- **A. Gaps and Challenges to Gender Mainstreaming**
- **B. Strategies for Gender Mainstreaming**
  - a. Gender Balance in Governance and Institutions
  - b. Gender Integration in NAP Development
  - c. Climate Change and Gender Action Plans (CCGAP)
  - d. Gender-Aware Monitoring and Evaluation
  - e. Country Case Study - Cambodia
- **C. Role of CSOs in Mainstreaming Gender in National CCDRR Policies and Plans**
  > Country Case Studies - India and Sri Lanka

#### MATERIALS
- > PowerPoint presentations
- > Chart papers and pens
- > Whiteboard and marker pen
- > Copy of Handouts

#### OUTLINE
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 mins.</td>
<td>Sharing of overview and session content.</td>
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<tr>
<td>40 mins.</td>
<td>'Batokas and Gonkas’ Role Play on need for Gender Mainstreaming in National Policies (See Exercise 13)</td>
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<tr>
<td>30 mins.</td>
<td>PowerPoint presentation on &quot;Gaps and Challenges to Gender Mainstreaming&quot; (recommended for basic course) OR: Small group discussion on &quot;Gaps and Challenges to Gender Mainstreaming&quot; (recommended for advance course)</td>
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<tr>
<td>45 mins.</td>
<td>PowerPoint presentation on &quot;Strategies to Gender Mainstreaming: Governance and Institutions, National Policies and National Action Plans (NAPs), and Climate Change and Gender Action Plans (CCGAP)&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>60 mins.</td>
<td>Case study-based discussions on &quot;Engendering National CCDRR Policies – Entry points for CSOs&quot; (See Exercise 14 and Handout 11)</td>
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#### GUIDANCE NOTES
Begin the session with sharing of overview and content. Break the participants into two groups and facilitate the ‘Batokas and Gonkas’ role play (See Exercise 13). This role play is for sensitizing participants; thus, divide the participants into aggressive and passive groups based on their behaviour during the training so far (without telling them that). Assign them the roles – the passive group will be Batokas and the aggressive group will be Gonkas. Stick to time limit in this exercise as it can get out of hand. You just want them to experience the feelings.

For an advanced course, facilitate group discussion by dividing the participants into five groups and providing each group with a topic and related content from the technical notes (see trainer tip). Follow it up with a PowerPoint presentation on "Strategies to Gender Mainstreaming: Governance and Institutions, National Policies and National Action Plans (NAPs), and Climate Change and Gender Action Plans (CCGAP). For basic course, combine the two sessions into one with a common presentation on "Gap and Challenges" and "Strategies and Entry Points" (see trainer tip). A case study on Cambodia is provided for reference, for inclusion in the presentation. However, if participants are from other countries, use the Bangladesh case format to provide them details on the CCDRR framework in their own countries. You can use the country-specific policies and plans highlighted in Table 2-1. Gender mainstreaming review of CCDRR plans from some Asian countries as reference for this. End the session with the case study-based discussions on "Engendering National CCDRR Policies - Entry Points for CSOs" (See Exercise 14 and Handout 11). The focus of this discussion should be on developing an action plan on roles and responsibilities of CSOs in mainstreaming gender into CCDRR policies and programs, as well as identifying the potential stakeholders to create a network to incorporate gender into the CCDRR projects both at local and national level.
Gender mainstreaming requires integration of a gender perspective into the planning, designing, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, regulatory measures and spending programmes. CCDRR policies have come a long way from the initial years when the UNFCCC did not have women's participation and a gender mandate and most NAPAs did not adequately include gender concerns. Today, doubts surrounding gender and CCDRR have been clarified; there is documented evidence that gender equality and climate solutions have co-benefits. However, full realization of gender mainstreaming efforts at the national level still remains a challenge. Figure 2-3 highlights the key challenges which have been elaborated in the coming section.

GENDER IMBALANCE IN PARTICIPATION AND DECISION-MAKING

Prioritization and selection between alternatives have a critical role in all CCDRR policies and decisions. Who gets a seat at these decision-making tables and who they represent is therefore all the more important in the case of CCDRR policies. Unfortunately, women are under-represented in all levels of institutional decision-making (Dekens and Dazé 2019).

A review of 193 countries (IUCN and UN Women 2015; Prebble, Gilligan and Clabots 2015) showed that:

- In six out of nine environment decision-making processes analyzed, women represent less than one-third of decision-makers.
- Of 890 environmental sector ministries in 193 UN Member States, only 12 per cent are women.
- Of the total world energy council chairs, there is only one woman-representative for every 24 men-representatives.
- For the most recent COPs, the Convention on Biodiversity (CBD) has the highest women's participation rate, with an average of 43 per cent of government delegates, bureau members, and NGO representatives. The UNFCCC has an average of 36 per cent and the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) has an average of 30 per cent.
- Women represent less than one-third of the 304 Global Environment Facility (GEF) national focal points.

The trend continues in local governance structures, including those for land management, forestry and fisheries (NAP Global Network and UNFCCC 2019). For example, although studies in India and Nepal have shown that women's participation in local forest governance is not only beneficial for them but also improves forest health, (Agarwal 2009) in a REDD+ program in Nepal, women made up only 15 per cent of related leadership (Khadka, et al. 2014). Scoping studies done in Cambodia, Philippines and Sri Lanka show that women faced numerous barriers to participation in REDD+, including lack of access to non-forest livelihood activities, limited and overly technical information provided to women about REDD+, and a failure to integrate gender into REDD+ policymaking activities (WOCAN, UNREDD and USAID-LEAF 2013).

Furthermore, even when countries like Bangladesh, Cambodia, India and Nepal have mandated women's participation at local levels through reforms especially in disaster management committees, ground reports from the community level suggest that women's meaningful participation in decision-making remains minimal and often absent altogether (UN Women 2016).
These highlight the fact that aside from socio-cultural barriers blocking women's participation, there is a need for stronger policy frameworks to effectively incorporate women's voices in adaptation and disaster management institutions and decision-making committees at local levels. Under-valuation of women's contribution in the sector often leads to them not being considered as relevant stakeholders, leading to their exclusion from such decision-making forums and process (IPCC 2020).

**AMBIGUOUS INSTITUTIONAL MECHANISMS**

Another challenge in gender mainstreaming in Asia is the complexities of the CCDRR institutional mechanisms within the government structures. Even when addressing climate change falls within the mandate of Ministries of Environment, there are many sectoral ministries and departments that have a key role to play in the process. DRR is even more complex, being housed under different ministries depending on the country, such as Ministries of Home Affairs (India), Ministry of Disaster Management and Relief (Bangladesh), or Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (Vietnam). An excess of institutional entities dealing with similar issues on CCDRR without proper coordination impedes progress in gender mainstreaming across the region (UN Women 2016).

Furthermore, gender equality and women's empowerment are often considered as the mandate and responsibility of the Ministries of Women's Affairs. However, they are often weaker ministries, lacking political power and technical knowledge to adequately mainstream and address issues of gender equality across other ministries (UNDESA 2007). Technically, the women's ministry needs to support gender mainstreaming in other ministries. However, the absence of effective coordination and collaboration platforms is the reality on the ground, especially in the Asian context. Even when there is scope and case for gender mainstreaming, the ministries are often unable to speak the relevant gender technical language that would be easily understood and applied by other ministries (UN Women 2016).

Even when some limited evidence exists on where gender mainstreaming has been achieved, there is no sharing of this information for learning and improvement. Also, silos of responsibilities for mainstreaming gender further hinder proper integration (OCED 2015). The mandate of gender and CCDRR must be located within both the gender and CCDRR ministries; and institutional mechanisms for coordination between the two on the issue must be created with adequate technical support.

For advanced course, instead of a presentation, the participants can be divided into five random groups and assigned one topic/challenge, along with the text as a handout and then be asked to deliberate on the status and gaps in gender mainstreaming in Asia, with focus on their own countries.

For basic course, combine the two topics “Gap and Challenges” and “Strategies and Entry Points” into one PowerPoint presentation. Make one slide on each of the points using the following template:

- **GAPS AND CHALLENGES**
- **RELEVANT STRATEGIES**
- **CSO ENTRY POINTS**

Add the NAP process and CCGAP as critical examples in detail.

**KNOWLEDGE GAPS AND LACK OF CAPACITIES**

The lack of a mandate to work on gender equality in environment and CCDRR ministries also requires adequate capacities within the women's ministries and other ministries. For the women's ministries, this means technical expertise to successfully advocate for the inclusion of gender equality dimensions in CCDRR, which they often lack. On the other hand, the other ministries have only a basic understanding that ‘gender means women’; resulting in policies and strategies that largely depict women as victims (WEDO 2016). The capacity to understand and comprehensively address the complex relationship between gender equality and climate change and disasters, however, is a major challenge facing these institutions.

The problem is further compounded within decentralized governance structures, where the level of gender understanding is even further limited. There are major concerns across the region regarding the actual
implementation of existing policies and planned actions at local level. The challenge is further exacerbated due to low involvement of non-state actors at the local level. In most Asian countries, CSOs often have specific programmes/projects to address climate change or DRR and gender equality, which means that they also have a wealth of information on the impact of climate change and disasters on different social groups. However, there are very few functional forums for strategically coordinating activities, communicating outcomes, or sharing data or best practices that integrate both gender equality and CCDRR.

A lack of coordination among government and civil society actors working on CCDRR results in missed opportunities to consolidate community level data and evidence into a consolidated picture of human impacts of, and adaptation to, climate change and disasters (UN Women 2016).

**INEFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICIES AND PLANS**

It must be acknowledged that across the region, efforts are being made to bring the gender dimensions of CCDRR into policy. However, ambiguity in responsibility allocation coupled with the knowledge and capacity gaps often result in policy reforms failing to translate into actions and implementation at the ground level that can actually make a meaningful change in the lives of women.

In Bangladesh, for example, the Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan (BCCSAP) is in place since 2009. However, even with the strong focus on ‘women as vulnerable’ in the BCCSAP policy document, very few projects funded by the Bangladesh Climate Change Trust (BCCT) have focused on reducing the vulnerability of women, let alone a more radical gender equality agenda. In fact, the CCGAP of Bangladesh, although developed very comprehensively, has also not yet taken off at the implementation level (UN Women 2016). Similarly, although the policy landscape in Cambodia is extensive and engendered, issues persist in implementation. There is a lack of common understanding and coordination between various stakeholders and implementing agencies in the context of gender and CCDRR (Reggers and Lim 2019).

The situation is even worse in case of DRR. An analysis of funds allocated to protection and gender issues in ‘Flash Appeals’ shows that addressing gender equality in disaster response is not a priority, as humanitarian actors often do not perceive the need to promote protection and gender equality in emergency setting as ‘life-threatening,’ which is the main criterion for qualifying for ‘Flash Appeals’ and United Nations Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) (UN Women 2016).

In fact, a significant number of major donors dedicate less than one per cent of humanitarian funding to advancing gender equality in emergencies (Development Initiatives 2014). The trend is the same in Asia. For example, in response to Nepal’s two earthquakes, only four per cent of the humanitarian funding received under the ‘Flash Appeal’ was allocated to gender and protection cluster activities (UN Women 2016).

**LIMITED REVIEW AND REPORTING MECHANISMS**

Another major challenge is that reporting progress on gender in the context of climate change is not mandatory at the global level. Left to the discretion of national governments, there is very little reporting on gender and climate change happening as part of the INDCs/NDCs (WEDO 2016). Even when reporting happens, the reports are often a yes/no answer leaving little scope to assess the actual integration and results. For example, the reports between 2014 and 2015 for the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) showed eight of the 13 countries (62 per cent) mentioning gender action; however, only half of these included gender guidance in their post-disaster needs assessments methodologies. This illustrates limited attention to reaching out to women but not actually addresses ‘gender’ needs and priorities. For example, even though Thailand reported that women are key players in DRR, the needs of men and women were assumed to be the same, and the government provided universal packages for disaster response and relief (UN Women 2016).

**DISCUSSION POINT**

**Ask the participants what they think the national governments can do to address these gaps.**

**Facilitator Clues**

- Create formal forums and institutional mechanisms for women’s engagement at all levels. Examples include 33 per cent quotas in local government or preference to women in public offices.
- Constitute coordination agencies and formal spaces for CSO engagement
- Partner with local gender actors and experts especially for community engagement, women’s skill development, gender and CCDRR capacity building, local project planning and implementation
- Provide funding for community engagement, capacity building and support for implementation.
Strategies for Gender Mainstreaming and Entry Points for CSOs

GENDER BALANCE IN GOVERNANCE AND INSTITUTIONS

The need for gender balance in participation and leadership in CCDRR decision-making is well acknowledged in terms of providing spaces for women to voice their concerns and ensuring their priorities are incorporated in the decisions. Women’s leadership delivers environment and crisis management results better. The key learnings and strategies for gender mainstreaming at national level include:

1. **Creation of a national women’s participation fund:** At the national level, CSOs with support from UN agencies and national governments can create a fund for providing transport and logistical facilities for women from the grassroots to participate in the national planning processes. The fund can also be extended to support leadership development, technical knowledge communication and negotiation trainings for the grassroots women-leaders. For example, the day before a national or regional workshop, a separate women’s meeting can be held to provide them with updated information, help them to analyze and prioritize their concerns and issues and enable them to speak as a collective to negotiate for their rights in the final decision.

2. **National network of “Women and CCDRR”:** A federation-based representative model of networking which represents women from all background to come together, exchange knowledge and information and engage collectively for pursuing the gender agenda in local, sub-national and national CCDRR policies and programmes.

   In Cambodia for instance, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) manages the Cambodia Climate Change Alliance (CCCA), which was set up with support of the European Union’s (EU) Global Climate Change Alliance (GCCA). It constitutes a multi-donor financial facility to provide resources for climate change capacity building at national and local government levels. It also offers a mechanism for knowledge sharing and learning about climate change. A similar forum for women can be created. Examples of such women’s forums also exist in India under the National Livelihood Mission programme and in Bangladesh under the PKSF programme. CCDRR mandate can be integrated in the agenda of such existing forums.

   Such forums can also become a base for all advocacy efforts with national governments. There should be sustained efforts for government to provide a formal recognition to such groups in all processes.

3. **Announcement of a Gender in CCDRR Award:** It is also important to recognize women’s exemplary work in CCDRR at national and sub-national levels. Reviewing the existing national and sub-national awards related to CCDRR and gender/women empowerment and instituting a gender and CCCDRR category in both of these will provide the much needed impetus.

4. **Creation of space and opportunities for women’s participation in all local decision-making bodies:** Countries in Asia are already taking action for women’s participation in local committees especially those related to disaster management (Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Nepal); forest management (India, Nepal); water management (India); education, health and nutrition (India, Thailand); among others. It is important to extend this participation beyond the existing sectors to agriculture, irrigation, energy, housing, infrastructure and urban development, since no sector is gender-neutral and women need to be represented in all sectors.

   However, it is not enough to just include women as participants; women need to be brought into leadership and decision-making positions within these bodies. Also, these need to be strongly backed by capacity building and hand-holding support from CSOs for the effective results. Development agencies like the UN can play a major role in this. In South Asia (India, Bhutan, Maldives and Sri Lanka) for example, UN Women, with support from the Government of Norway, implemented a focused gender and local governance programme which prioritizes building women’s political leadership and empowering women as citizens to participate in village level development planning.

5. **Representation of women/women’s groups in all mainstream institutional mechanisms:** All countries have a national planning and policy making body, such as the Ministry of Planning in Vietnam and Cambodia or the Planning Commission in Bangladesh. It is very important to have a focused women/gender unit within this highest planning body in the country. India, for example, has a dedicated unit for women and child development division in its supreme planning body, the Niti Aayog (erstwhile Planning Commission).
6. **Formation of a steering committee with select ministries on board for developing their CCDRR policies especially the NAP:**

The Ministry of Women’s Affairs or equivalent institution dealing with gender equality should be included in this Steering Committee in order to ensure that gender equality becomes an integral dimension of the strategy and action plan development. The key role of this organization would be to provide information related to gender in CCDRR, ensuring harmonization of the NAP with all gender-related laws and policies in the country including the CEDAW and SDG commitments. It should act as a bridge between women’s groups and local organizations working on gender, leading to a women’s perspective into the national CCDRR planning process.

7. **Having a gender expert directly or as a support for all institutions:** In countries wherein a planning or coordination team is put in place for developing and implementing the CCDRR plans, it is very important that this body is supported by gender expertise. A possible strategy is to have one gender expert for the whole planning process who can further identify the governmental and non-governmental organizations to consult with on each theme. Furthermore, as gender is a cross-cutting issue, a gender expert should also have the mandate to engage in discussions with other relevant ministries, when necessary. In Bangladesh for example, there is a growing understanding within the Bangladesh Climate Change Trust (BCCT) that women should be included in project management teams and implementation committees.

8. **Establishment of gender focal points for gender mainstreaming:** This is a common institutional arrangement across Asian countries. For example, in Bangladesh, each ministry has a climate change focal point and a Women in Development focal point who are responsible for mainstreaming climate change and gender respectively into government processes and programmes. In Thailand, a Cabinet’s Resolution dated 31 July 2001 orders every ministry and department to have one of their executives designated as the Chief Gender Equality Officer, and its own resource as gender focal point. This mechanism is aimed at promoting gender awareness into the technical ministries. However, it is important to have higher ranking officials and those who are trained in gender analysis skills to be appointed as the gender focal point.

9. **Having an explicitly stated institution with mandate for gender mainstreaming and representation from all sectors related to CCDRR:** Cambodia, despite some challenges, made progress by creating specific institutions to work on issues of gender equality and gender mainstreaming in CCDRR. The Ministry of Women Affairs (MoWA) carries responsibility for gender mainstreaming throughout the line ministries, and a Gender and Climate Change Committee (GCCC) was formed in 2011. The GCCC has staff members who meet every month, and has sub-committees for climate change, DRR, Green Growth, and the Mekong area. The committee also has its own policy master plan 2014 - 2022.

Cambodia also has an Inter-Ministerial Gender Working Group, in which different governmental agencies participate, that acts as advising body and
is potentially important in the process of integrating gender issues in climate change and DRR. In Pakistan, the needs and concerns of vulnerable groups, including women, children, people with age and disabilities, are addressed by a dedicated Gender and Child Cell, that is established at the National Disaster Management Agency (NDMA) with provincial counterparts at the Provincial/Regional DMAs.

10. **Spaces for stakeholder engagement and civil society involvement**: There is also the need to provide national and local women's groups with a platform for dialogue, exchange of experiences, and the development of best practices that strategically link with elements of the national CCDRR policies and plan. More importantly, there is the need to facilitate open spaces for constructive dialogue between the community women and decision-makers so that women's needs, perspectives and strengths as agents and leaders of change in climate change action are taken into account. At the local governance level, activity planning and project implementation committees should be created to provide formal spaces for women in the implementation processes.

**11. Involvement of youth**: An important step in this direction would be the involvement of children, adolescent girls and young women in this process. The UNFCCC Secretary General, for example, has set up YOUNGO (Youth Constituency UNFCCC), an advisory group comprising young leaders who can provide perspectives and solutions to tackle worsening climate crisis. In India, Child Parliaments at the village level, popularly known as Bal Sabhas, are being promoted, which focus on climate change and disaster management, among other concerns. In urban areas too, CSOs like Mahila Housing SEWA Trust and Centre for Environment Education have been focusing on engaging adolescents and young girls into the participatory planning and city governance forums. In many other Asian countries, school children and adolescents have been involved in climate action especially related to tree plantation, disease surveillance, waste management and energy efficiency.

**DISCUSSION POINT**

*Ask the participants what type of institutional mechanisms they think will be more suited for their country and what role can the CSOs play in strengthening those institutional structures.*

**Facilitator Clues**

- Be in touch with the Ministry of Women Affairs/Gender Expert in planning team, and work closely with them (it would be better as part of a national network), providing them background information and supportive data or even case studies on gender and CCDRR linkages.
- CSOs can divide the sectors among themselves based on their focus areas and ability to analyze and produce a policy brief and share with the gender expert for negotiating with the sectoral ministries.
- Based on sector preferences, CSOs can work with sectoral ministries for research, analysis and capacity building on gender and CCDRR. Sectoral ministries are often more resourceful and also have budgets for small research studies. Undertaking such studies in multiple sectors will not only help improve gender integration within the sectors but also contribute to strengthen the gender understanding in the overall planning process.
- Negotiate for a formal space for the network within the gender and climate committees. However, there has to be a balance between continuity and diversity maintained at the national network level for this. If only one CSO is represented every time, then the other CSOs will lose interest in the network. On the other hand, changing the representative every time will lose the network's credibility in the forum. It is important for the CSO network to have a system to address this. A suggested system could be to allow one person to attend two consecutive meetings, develop a detailed note on the same and handover to the next person. This way, all meetings with participant perceptions get documented for the network to review later on. Furthermore, before every important decision-making meeting of the forum, the network members should have a small meeting of their own and brief the representative on the concerns and agenda that the network wants to push for in the meeting. It is even more desirable to put this in writing and share a copy of the network’s common inputs with the forum through the representative.
- Local government officials will not directly involve CSOs into planning systems unless there is a long-term rapport. To enable this initially, local government members should be invited to community women’s meetings (those beyond the basic unit of village), and positive interactions between the women-leaders and the officials should be encouraged. The women should also be encouraged to prepare their own activity plan and submit to the local officials for incorporation in the implementation plans. Once the rapport is established, the interactions can be formally institutionalized.
12. Capacity building on gender mainstreaming in CCDRR: The importance of capacity building for gender mainstreaming in CCDRR is well recognized. However, instead of a generic capacity building programme, it is also important to have focused capacity building efforts to enable gender concerns to be incorporated in all national policies and plans. In one such innovative project, UN Women Bangladesh and the Bangladesh Climate Change Trust Fund (BCCTF) in 2015 focused on building awareness, knowledge and skills for the gender focal points on the gender equality dimensions of climate change. It is currently unknown how successful such training programmes have been in creating change. However, the initiative was welcomed by government officials, demonstrating one possible path for building technical expertise on gender mainstreaming in different government ministries (UN Women 2016). Similar efforts would need to be targeted at multiple levels with customized trainings.

Exchanges between different levels and diverse stakeholders can inform both gendered policy development and implementation. For example, annual DRR platforms supported by the UNDRR can facilitate the integration of gender equality in DRR policy and practice by inviting women’s organizations and CSOs to share their experiences and policy implications. Similar forums can be created for climate change adaptation, like the GCCA in Cambodia. These can be used for gender mainstreaming in the national climate change policies and adaptation plans.

**Gender Integration in National Adaptation Plans**

The UNFCCC NAP process is a key mechanism for defining climate change adaptation priorities and actions, redefining overall development planning and channelling resources for resilience, and sustainable development. Engendering the NAP process provides an opportunity to incorporate gender concerns in adaptation priorities, and also within overall development and sectoral planning. It can be an important strategy to address gender inequalities in a country (Dekens and Dazé 2019; NAP Global Network and UNFCCC 2019). This section highlights the key gender entry points for engaging within the NAP process. It needs to be noted that while NAP is one plan document, the entry points can be suitably applied to all national and sub-national planning processes.

**Step 1: Preparatory phase and Launch of the NAP.** Gender considerations should be at the centre of the NAP process from the very beginning. The focus should be sustained throughout.

a. Use international commitments and domestic laws and policies on gender equality, strengthening the mandate for a gender-responsive NAP and establishing high-level political commitment for the same.

b. Identify gender equality advocates and engage them as allies, involving them in the NAP processes and providing opportunities for them to share their perspectives.

c. Incorporate gender issues in strategic documents that are developed to guide the process, such as the NAP roadmap and/or the NAP framework.

d. Establish a gender-equitable team to coordinate the NAP processes.

**Recommendations:** CSOs should maintain regular contact with the national gender and climate change focal points. Whenever, the NAP or NDC is being reviewed or updated, they should lobby for being part of the consultation process.

Review all national gender and climate change policies and strategies, including already-developed CCGAPs, and update in light of new UNFCCC communications, mechanisms, and financing.

**Step 2: Situational Analysis (Stocktaking and Assessments).** Stocktaking and assessments are functional parts of the strategy development and include identification of problems, needs and potentials from which the adaptation plan can be based on as well as facilitate the adoption of decisions. This is also an opportunity to ensure that NAP processes build on existing information, knowledge and capacities related to gender.

a. Undertake an initial literature review on gender and climate change in the country, looking at relevant gender analyses, sex-disaggregated data and reporting in other areas, such as the SDGs.

b. Analyze available information on gender dynamics and differences in climate-related impacts, vulnerabilities, risks and capacities, and identify the information gap areas.

c. Undertake gender-aware vulnerability assessments to fill in the information gaps, especially analyzing the underlying issues that make some people more vulnerable than others.

2. This section is derived mainly from Dekens and Dazé (2019) and NAP Global Network and UNFCCC (2019).
Recommendations: A critical input from CSOs in the NAP and NDC process would be undertaking gender-aware vulnerability assessments and sector-specific gender studies, especially mapping the gender power dynamics related to climate change and resource use in unexplored sectors. Information on gender and resource use for many sectors like agriculture, forestry, water, health, bio-fuels, and others are already available. However, there are certain sectors wherein the gender power dynamics has still not been fully explored. These include mainstream sectors like transport, urban planning, waste management, renewable energy, and others, which have a strong climate change linkage but the gender dynamics is not well-researched. Bringing these to the forefront creates a new discourse on gender and CCDRR. Even core women-related sectors like sexual and reproductive health, gender-based violence and their linkage with climate change has not been well researched.

d. Assess how effectively gender considerations are integrated into ongoing and past adaptation activities and identification of gender-responsive technologies and adaptation solutions.

e. Facilitate inclusive and gender-equitable stakeholder engagement processes to involve women and men, including representatives of marginalized groups, in assessing climate vulnerabilities and identifying adaptation options.

f. Identify targeted adaptation options for women, men and marginalized groups in line with their vulnerabilities and capacities, taking into account socially-acceptable roles and responsibilities.

Recommendations: Facilitate consultative workshops with community women-leaders especially from vulnerable groups. CSOs should also take lead in preparing the women-leaders and groups to articulate their concerns and demands before such workshops.

Sector Specific Adaptation Planning

If your country is taking a sector-based approach to adaptation planning, analyze sector-specific gender issues and the implications for adaptation in the sector and identify gender-specific adaptation options within sectors where appropriate. It is particularly important to look at scope for transformative gender strategies within each sector.

One such example worth noting is the Multi-Donor Trust Fund (MDF) for Aceh and Nias in Indonesia. The MDF was a partnership between the international community, the Government of Indonesia and civil society to support recovery efforts in Aceh and Nias following the 2004 earthquake and tsunami. Women's empowerment was incorporated into each of the MDF's community recovery projects. The projects piloted efforts not only to increase women's participation in community planning activities and to find ways to ensure that women's voices were heard, but also to provide the opportunity to address gender and other social inequalities. The piloted activities included enhancement of women's empowerment by setting aside specific funds for activities selected by women. The projects also supported women's empowerment through providing microfinance opportunities specifically for women. They played an important role in raising awareness of women's land rights and by supporting joint land titling. Almost 30 per cent of the land titles that were issued under the project were joint titles or in women's names. The project promoted women's access to employment in the reconstruction, and opened up new opportunities for women's participation in the labour market in non-traditional areas such as construction. Women also benefited from MDF livelihood support in their roles as farmers, traders and small entrepreneurs, and from capacity building and training across a range of sectors. These projects offer an interesting model of how greater equality in labour force participation can be encouraged through reconstruction programmes such as the MDF. Lessons from integrating gender into community-driven projects and disaster preparedness programmes in Aceh and Nias have fed into the ongoing national Program Nasional Pemberdayaan Mandiri (PNPM) (National Program for Community Empowerment) and other programming in Aceh and Nias across Indonesia (Multi Donor Fund 2012).

Another example is from Eurasia. Following the floods in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia in May 2014, UNDP embedded gender concerns into its flood-recovery programmes. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, UNDP prioritized the rehabilitation of households headed by women and ensured that women benefited from cash-for-work and employment programmes. A total of 132 public institutions were reconstructed, recovering a significant number of public jobs that are predominantly occupied by women. In Serbia, UNDP incorporated a strong gender component in the selection criteria for employment-creation programmes, increasing women's access to safe and productive livelihoods. A third of all jobs created were filled by women (UNDP 2017a).
**Step 3: Appraisal of Adaptation Plans.** Once adaptation options have been identified, there is usually a process of prioritization required to determine which actions most urgently require resources for implementation. Considering gender responsiveness as a criterion during the prioritization process and the actions will help create a plan that addresses the differing needs of women, men and people of other gender identities and that the implementation of priority actions will yield equitable benefits.

a. Apply participatory and inclusive approaches to prioritize adaptation actions for implementation (for example, by holding stakeholder workshops for different groups and/or in different parts of the country).

b. Facilitate separate prioritization processes for people of different genders and social groups (for example, through parallel discussions during stakeholder workshops).

c. Ensure transparency in the prioritization process by documenting how priorities were identified and who participated in the process.

d. Engage women and men, including representatives of marginalized groups, in the development of criteria for prioritization at different levels.

e. Use “contribution to gender equality” as a criterion for prioritization, linking to the results of the gender analysis and assessing the extent to which adaptation options address identified inequalities.

**Recommendations:** Identify and create a database of gender-sensitive adaptation options – technologies, projects, which will garner the attention of sectoral ministries looking for different and innovative solutions. CSOs can also create opportunities for women to share their knowledge with climate change specialists and co-design solutions which are more effective and gender-responsive in nature.
**Step 4: Compilations and Communication.** The planning materials developed through the NAP process frame adaptation issues and document the options, priorities and approaches that will be pursued to advance adaptation goals in the country. It is then important that gender issues are integrated throughout adaptation planning documents.

Therefore, when writing the text of the national adaptation plan:

a. Ensure each section has a gender perspective.
b. Assess if all the proposed strategies and actions promote gender equality or worsen existing gender gaps.
c. Use sex-disaggregated data for all analysis.
d. Use gender-sensitive language and terms like "women," "men," "girls," and "boys," brings them to the fore, and prevents the very significant differences in terms of opportunities, rights and obligations based on gender and age from being ignored.
e. Refer to the national constitution if gender equality is included, to national “Equal treatment/Non-discrimination Acts,” and the national policy on gender equality, including past and ongoing actions. It is also important to mention international commitments taken by the country under CEDAW, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, and SDGs, for example.
f. Emphasize the fact that gender is a cross-cutting issue and leads to increased efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability of climate change and other sustainable development efforts. Clarify that the goal of gender mainstreaming is to empower women and reduce existing inequalities.

**Recommendations:** CSOs can also contribute in the finalization/writing of the document. Where such spaces are not available, use the NAP/NDC Checklist (Handout 9) to undertake a gender analysis of the document and share widely for incorporation of gender concerns.

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**CLIMATE CHANGE AND GENDER ACTION PLANS (CCGAPS)**

The CCGAP methodology, developed by IUCN as part of GGCA programme, presents a path to gender mainstreaming that moves away from a business as usual approach by building capacity across stakeholder groups to construct nationally appropriate non-conventional solutions that are concrete, practical and innovative.

A CCGAP also provides an opportunity to move beyond framing women as vulnerable victims and rather recognizes gender equality as a driver for transformational change.

The key steps in the CCGAP methodology include:

**A. Understanding of the political, governance, socioeconomic, and environmental circumstances:**

A CCGAP is the result of a series of inputs: desk research, interviews with policy makers, stakeholder consultations and peer reviews, among others. The focus is on identified key sectors, including, but not limited to, water, agriculture, livestock, health, mitigation (including energy and forests), disaster risk reduction, infrastructure, tourism and coastal management.

**Recommendations:** A CCGAP can be initiated with a request from the Ministry of Environment. CSOs, with help from the Ministry of Women’s Affairs, should pressurize the Ministry to have a CCGAP. Use the gender and environment index developed by IUCN (2013) to map the national status on gender mainstreaming and create a case for CCGAP.

**B. Capacity building on targeted themes is key to ensure strong engagement and ownership:**

A key focus area is building the capacity of women and women’s organizations, as well as environmental and climate change institutions and ministries, on the links between gender and climate change. This is done through a series of workshops with local women identified as leaders in their communities, and also with women’s advocacy organizations that support their rights and development.

**C. Facilitating a meaningful participatory and multi-stakeholder process:**

The process is uniquely multi-stakeholder and multi-sectoral, often representing the first time when technical staff of different ministries, such as from Water, Energy or Women’s Affairs departments, have a chance to build mutual capacity on key issues related to gender and climate change. The engagement of donors and a wide range of stakeholders is also key, especially women’s organizations and networks both versed in and new to ‘climate change,’ as they contribute experience and expertise of on-the-ground realities and context to policymaking, as well as innovative ideas for action, which often build on current projects participants.

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3. This section is derived mainly from IUCN (2013) and Aguilar, Granat and Owren (2015).
The underlying principle of CCGAPs is the transformative nature of gender interventions. To achieve this, the process is based on seven principles which IUCN recognizes as the “I’s” necessary for, and enhancing successful CCGAP implementation.

**The Seven Principles Necessary for Successful CCGAP Implementation:**

- **Inclusive**
  by ensuring the participation and voices of all groups, irrespective of caste, ethnicity, religion, gender, region, age, or class.

- **Innovative**
  in their purpose and process for reaching beyond ordinary/traditional solutions and finding new and inspiring tools and techniques while expanding capabilities for a stronger more comprehensive approach to climate change.

- **Set to Improve**
  the quality of life for women and men in regards to both their basic (e.g. water) and strategic (e.g. land tenure or political participation) needs, but also by recognizing gender-differentiated priorities, roles, and knowledge useful in responding to climate change.

- **Creating an Impact**
  on the overall goal of climate change response by reducing anthropogenic emissions and providing adaptive resilience opportunities for both women and men to engage at local, regional, and national levels.

- **Championing Strategies to Increase**
  sustainable development and climate change outcomes by ensuring nature-based solutions are within the limitations of the planet, and more importantly do not exceed local and regional natural resources.

- **Inciting**
  transformational change, by rearranging how climate change needs to be approached. Providing equal opportunities for women and men to champion the solutions, but also providing the necessary means to build the capacity and capability to secure lives and livelihoods that are equitable for all.

- **Inspiring**
  actors at all levels to push beyond ‘business as usual’ demonstrating that implementing gender and climate change commitments are possible.

Source: Aguilar, Granat and Owen (2015).
The CCGAP documents are then drafted on the basis of an analysis of the current national priorities (e.g., specific sectorial policies or plans, or national reporting and communications to the UNFCCC), and draw substantially from the discussions and outputs of two multi-stakeholder workshops attended by representatives from ministries, donors, government agencies, NGOs and civil society, including women's organizations and networks. While the workshops to formulate the zero-draft of a CCGAP are multi-sectorial and multi-stakeholder, a validation process is then conducted at regional/local levels to enrich the national outcome document with experiences and lessons learned across the field of gender and climate change, from the multiple projects and programmes spread over a country, to improve and validate the CCGAP and to inspire its comprehensive implementation.

As a result of the “I’s” being an integral part of each CCGAP, the strategies also derive unique characteristics that set them in their own bracket for development and climate change response by engaging not only women, but entire communities, sectors, and governments to build a more cohesive and just approach in responding to climate change.

CASE STUDY: CAMBODIA – GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN NATIONAL CCDRR POLICIES

UNFCCC Framework Policies and Plans

The Royal Government of Cambodia submitted the first NAPA in 2006, which aimed to identify adaptation priorities through a consultative process and focused on “vulnerable groups” as key stakeholders. However, the lack of clear identification of who constituted the target groups led to limited reach. The NAPA did not mention gender equality as a priority and women were only recognized as important actors in the health sector for malaria prevention and treatment.

Cambodia also submitted its first national communication in 2002 and the second communication in 2015. These again did not include Sex, Age, Disability Disaggregated Data (SADDD) and lacked a gender analysis. Again, women were only recognized in the context of malaria-related interventions. Similar situation was observed in the Intended Nationally Determined Contribution (INDC) submitted in 2015, although the report did feature “reducing Gender Vulnerability” as part of its second strategy. The Sendai Framework Readiness Review Report of Cambodia submitted in 2017 also does not report any SADDD or gender analysis.

It was only in the fourth and fifth periodic reports of Cambodia submitted to CEDAW in 2013, that the challenges to women’s access to livelihoods in the context of climate change and the disproportionate impacts of climate change and natural disaster on women were mentioned. And while the sixth periodic report submitted in 2018 highlighted the gender mainstreaming efforts of various sectoral ministries like Agriculture, Forestry, Fisheries, and others, there was still no focus on gender mainstreaming within the CCDRR policy framework.

Cambodia also declined to report on vulnerability by sex as part of SDG 13 reporting.

Domestic Plans and Legislations

In the domestic arena, the constitution of Cambodia set the foundation for gender equality and equal rights for women. Neary Rattanak IV (2014 - 2018) produced by the Ministry of Women Affairs (MoWA), is the nation’s guiding gender equality policy and identifies the interlinkages between gender and climate change as part of its strategic objective 3.2 to be incorporated in the National Strategic Development Plans. Towards this, the MoWA also established a Gender and Climate Change Committee (GCCC) to oversee the work on this.

As part of the Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan (2014-2018), the MoWA also undertook a detailed situational analysis for the sectoral action plan, highlighting the links between gender inequality and climate change vulnerabilities and outlining six action areas. The MoWA also developed a Gender and Climate Change Action Plan (2014 - 2018) to operationalize the strategic plan, demonstrating vision and commitment from the MOWA and the Ministry of Environment. The main objectives of this action plan are to promote gender mainstreaming and strategic pilot interventions.

The GCCC also produced the 2013-2023 Gender and Climate Change Action Plan in collaboration with Ministry of Environment and Department of Climate Change. Although lacking in SADDD, this document has an elaborate gender analysis of gender-based vulnerabilities including women’s reproductive roles and their importance in greening the economy. This document brings together gender strategies outlined in the Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan and the sectoral plans of other line ministries.
Core elements of these gender plans that could also be applied in other Asian country contexts include, *inter alia*:

1. Promote women in decision-making on climate change adaptation and mitigation, and natural disaster management, at all levels and domains. Increase the level of awareness on gender and climate change, including natural disasters, within the women’s machinery and its decentralized offices and stakeholders;

2. Increase the level of capacity of women’s machinery and its decentralized offices and stakeholders on gender-integrated vulnerability and capacity assessment, planning methods for climate change adaptation and mitigation, and natural disaster management;

3. Deliver targeted interventions for women with a high level of vulnerability, to strengthen their climate change adaptation and mitigation capacities, and their empowerment (e.g., food security, nutrition, sustainable access to clean water, urban and rural livelihoods, waste management, access to information, and support group formation);

4. Conduct research and development to increase the availability of data and information on gender and climate change; and

5. Elicit best practices and lessons on gender and climate change for scaling-up, learning and sharing across the country and the region.

The key national instrument, the Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan (2014-2023), was developed with gender mainstreaming and human rights-based approaches for climate change response in Cambodia. The plan recognizes the disproportionate impact that climate change can have on women, and that there is a need to mainstream gender into climate change response measures and laws and policies.

The plan identifies gender equality as one of the guiding principles to “ensure that climate change response is equitable, gender-sensitive, transparent, accountable, and culturally appropriate.” It has ‘reducing vulnerability of women to climate change’ as one of its goals. The plan also has three strategic gender objectives:

1. Reduce sectoral, regional, gender vulnerability and health risks to climate change impacts and prioritize women’s needs in climate change adaptation and mitigation actions;

2. Improve capacities, knowledge and awareness for climate change focus, targeted at vulnerable groups, women, children, youth and minorities; and

3. Promote adaptive social protection and participatory approaches and integrate gender into climate change response planning.

The National Action Plan for Disaster Risk Reduction (2014-2018) aims to deepen the efforts to mainstream DRR and Disaster Risk Governance especially through institutional and capacity building reforms. The plan has a focused strategic component on gender and aims to achieve “a comprehensive post-disaster damage and needs assessment in practice with gender-segregated information.” The Climate Change Strategic Plan for Disaster Management (2013) is another policy document that established the link between DRR and Climate Change adaptation. It also included a specific Gender-Responsive Framework recognizing women's vulnerability to climate change and suggesting inclusion of gender equality indicators in monitoring disaster and climate change action.

The Law on Disaster Management (2015) aims to regulate disaster management in Cambodia, including prevention, adaptation and mitigation in the pre-disaster period, emergency response during the disaster, and recovery in the post-disaster period. While generally recognizing the right to protection of life, dignity, property, and others for ‘every individual,’ the Law’s Article 18 specifically mentions the need to “pay high attention to the needs of women, children, elderly, handicapped, and disabled persons” in the event of a disaster.

*Source: Adapted from UN Women (2016); Reggers and Lim (2019); and scoping study done under the EmPower project.*
FOCUS ON IMPLEMENTATION, MONITORING AND EVALUATION

A plan by itself is of little use unless it is put into action. In order to make it a reality, it needs to be fleshed out with concrete measures. Based on a gender-responsive plan, it is essential, at this point, to identify those activities that are able to meet the objectives of the national adaptation plan. Gender-responsive implementation strategies recognize gender-specific opportunities and barriers and aim for adaptation actions to be inclusive of the most vulnerable groups, enabling them to realize their potential as agents of change in their households and communities. These help to ensure that adaptation actions are implemented where they are most needed and that benefits are equitable.

1. Undertake inclusive and gender-equitable participatory processes to develop implementation strategies.
2. Involve women-leaders from the affected groups and gender actors in the development of implementation strategies.
3. Identify activities directly linked to the gender objectives of the national adaptation plan.
4. Prioritize activities that promote gender equality, empower women, and are most accessible to them.
5. Create sex-disaggregated targets for individual benefit-oriented activities.
6. Where social restrictions can prevent women from being equal beneficiaries, identify actions which help them overcome the social barrier. These actions may be in the form of additional activities or changing the way the activities are delivered in its current form.
7. Each activity description in the action plan should include the following elements: title of the activity, objective of the activity, gender equality objective, context, description, implementing institutions, length of activity, inputs, target physical numbers and gender components.

As to monitoring and evaluation, national adaptation plans have to include the development of participatory approaches which are able to assess both quantitative and qualitative developments and track the successful implementation thereof and ensure that all gender issues are covered adequately.

Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) systems are established to track the progress made in terms of physical achievements of targets, beneficiary coverage and effectiveness of the activity. Integrating gender considerations into M&E systems can help ensure that gender differences in participation in adaptation actions and benefits from investments in adaptation are captured, and that imbalances can be redressed. It also helps to track progress on gender equality and women’s empowerment.

The following actions are necessary for a gender-sensitive M&E system:
1. Develop gender-specific indicators which are SMART - specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-bound.
2. Collect sex-disaggregated data and undertake a gender analysis of data to assess gender equity in decision-making, and access to benefits and results from adaptation actions.
3. Evaluate gender-differentiated impacts of adaptation actions on women, men and marginalized groups.
4. Encourage participatory evaluations and gender audits of programmes.

Involving gender actors in the development of M&E frameworks is very critical for this. Local CSOs, women’s groups and academics, and communities should also be involved in the process to ensure fair and robust data collection, especially of qualitative information.

Budget is one of the most important indicators of any commitment made by decision-makers. In developing the action plan, the planning team has to dedicate resources to enhance the promotion of gender equality. Gender-sensitive budgeting implies the following: first, analysis of the budget of all activities proposed to determine the differentiated impact on women and men of the budget; second, reallocation of resources to achieve gender equality outcomes from the actions planned.
EXERCISES

EXERCISE 9: CROSS AND KNOTS GAME
The key objective of this exercise is to provide the participants with a quick overview/revision of the global policy landscape on climate change and disaster risk reduction.

Materials Required:
Whiteboard and markers.

Process:
**Step 1:** Divide the participants into two groups – “X” and “O” – and give them each a copy of Handout 7. Ask them to quickly go through Handout 7 in 15 minutes. (In case of an advanced group, you can skip this step and move directly to the next step.)

**Step 2:** Tell them that you will now be playing the old cross and knots games between the two teams but with a twist. Draw a nine-part matrix on a flipchart, write out one term related to CCDRR policy frameworks in each box as shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UNFCCC</th>
<th>Kyoto Protocol</th>
<th>Paris Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sendai Framework</td>
<td>NDCs</td>
<td>Earth Summit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAPAs</td>
<td>IPCC</td>
<td>COP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Step 3:** Now tell the teams that they have to select one term on their turn and provide details of the term. The team has to provide at least two details, of which at least one has to be related to the main content. (The facilitator will determine whether the answer is right or wrong.) Tell them that for each question, the teams will need a separate representative to answer on their behalf. The team that is able to give definitions in three correct answers in one straight or diagonal line on the matrix wins the game.

**Step 4:** Allow the first team to pick a random term/box and explain the word. If the answer is correct, put the mark “X” and “O” of the team in the square. If the answer is wrong, they have to pass their turn. The process continues until one team has three straight or diagonal marks on the board as shown next.

```
  X  X  X
   O  O
   O
```

**Step 5:** Repeat the process with another set of terms. If no team is able to win, continue the game with the remaining boxes and the team with the maximum marks on the board will win the game.

Learning Output: Conclude by providing the participants with the timelines of these conventions and agreements while also adding any key points missed in the discussion.
EXERCISE 10: GROUP DISCUSSION ON GENDER-AWARE APPLICATION OF UNFCCC AND SENDAI FRAMEWORK AT NATIONAL LEVEL

The key objective of this exercise is to unpack the UNFCCC and Sendai Framework gender commitments into actionable points at the country level.

Materials Required:
Copies of Handout 8 after removing the facilitator notes.

Process:
Step 1: Divide the participants into four groups. Give each group either PART A or PART B of Handout 8.

Step 2: Ask the participants to discuss the key questions in Handout 8 with respect to each of the points mentioned. Tell them to divide the points further between them so that the discussion is completed in time. Give them 30 minutes to discuss.

Step 3: Now ask them to share their responses in the plenary. If anything is missing, add to the responses using information from the facilitator notes in Handout 8.

Learning Output: Conclude by saying that these frameworks are very useful documents to advocate for gender mainstreaming in CCDRR policy and action at the domestic level. However, it is also important for CSOs to unpack the information into actionable points and pursue specific activities which are most relevant at the country level.

EXERCISE 11: GROUP TASK ON GENDER-AWARE ASSESSMENT OF NDCS AND NAP

The key objective of this exercise is to introduce the checklists for assessing gender in NDCs and NAPs at the country level and provide them with a hands-on experience of using these.

Materials Required:
Copies of Handout 9 and laptops with internet.

Process:
Step 1: Divide the participants into four groups. Give each group either PART A or PART B of Handout 9.

Step 2: Ask them to select a country whose documents they want to analyze. Share the UNFCCC links with them to access the requisite NDC/NAP documents for that country.

Step 3: Ask them to review the document using the checklist and their own experience as a group within the country. Tell them to focus only on summary and adaptation content for the exercise. Give them 20 minutes for the task. Ask them to share the report in a PowerPoint presentation or Word document.

Step 4: Once back in plenary, tell them that you will collate the reports and provide them to the participants as part of the training report. Thus, the discussion will just focus on the experience. Ask them to reflect on the following questions:

- How easy/hard did they find the checklist?
- What were the challenges (other than time constraints for the exercise) faced in using the checklist?
- What information would be additionally needed in order to execute this exercise at the country level and publish reports on it?
- How could such reports be used?

Learning Output: Conclude by saying that these checklists are useful in assessing gender-responsiveness of NDCs and NAPs. Tell them that the exercise was to provide them only a feel of the tool and that they will need to do a more in-depth analysis for publishing a formal report. Tell them that such reports can be useful advocacy tools for CSOs to pursue the need for gender mainstreaming in CCDRR policies and also for sharing with UNFCCC as part of the their gender action plan.

NDC link: https://www4.unfccc.int/sites/NDCStaging/Pages/All.aspx
NAP link: https://www4.unfccc.int/sites/NAPC/Pages/national-adaptation-plans.aspx.
EXERCISE 12: GROUP TASK ON CEDAW GENERAL RECOMMENDATION NO. 37 AND ASIA PACIFIC BEIJING (+25) DECLARATION

The key objective of this exercise is to provide a hands-on experience to participants on using the forums of periodic review and shadow reporting in CEDAW and Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) for promoting gender-responsive CCDRR action.

Materials Required: Copies of Handout 10.

Process:
Step 1: Divide the participants into four groups. Try and include participants from the same country/region into one group. Give each group either PART A or PART B of Handout 10.

Step 2: Ask them to select a country for analysis and to prepare a short presentation on the status of implementation of the CEDAW/BPfA in the country. The presentation should be focused with one slide each covering the following aspects:

- What has been done in the country to enable the achievement of the objectives/obligations of the Convention/Declaration with respect to CCDRR?
- What are the gaps in the action? What are very essential and critical but not being done?
- What are the implementation and resource gaps?
- What are the key recommended actions for the national governments?
- Provide a real case as evidence to reinforce your points.

Step 3: Give them 30 minutes for the task. Ask them to share the report in a PowerPoint presentation or Word document.

Step 4: Once back in plenary, tell them that you will collate the reports and provide them to the participants as part of the training report. Thus, the discussion will just focus on the experience. Ask them to reflect on the following questions:

a. What were the key learnings from the exercise?
b. What were the challenges (other than time constraints for the exercise) faced in developing the presentation?
c. How can they address these challenges especially when developing a formal presentation?
d. How could such reports be used?

Learning Output: Conclude by saying that both CEDAW and BPfA provide regular review platforms, with space for engagement of CSOs, especially women’s organizations. It is very important to bring the CCDRR agenda within these review mechanisms, especially by making contributions to the CEDAW shadow report and BPfA review documents.
**EXERCISE 13: BATOKAS AND GONKAS – ROLE PLAY**

The key objective of this exercise is to sensitize the participants on the need for inclusion of gender considerations in policy planning and the significance of participation of the affected groups themselves in the deliberation and decision-making processes.

**Materials Required:** Whiteboard and markers.

**Process:**

**Step 1:** Divide the participants into three groups. Rather than random grouping, use your discretion and put all participants who are aggressive/dominant in one group and those who are passive in another. Name the aggressive group as “Batoka” and the passive group as “Gonka.” Those who are more analytical should be appointed as observers.

**Step 2:** Tell them that they are to conduct a meeting in the village to discuss the formation of the Village Disaster Management Committee (VDMC) and identify three key concern areas for the VDMC to work on. Give the batokas an overview based on box 1 and gonkas based on box 2. The observers should have the full overview. Customize these to the local context as much as possible.

**Step 3:** Give them 10 minutes to discuss and finalize the roles, and another 15 minutes to conduct the meeting and decide on who will be part of the VDMC and what are the three concerns that the VDMC will work on.

**Step 4:** Tell the participants to come back in a plenary and ask them the following:
- How did the Batokas feel and how did the Gonkas feel?
- How was the decision taken?
- How were the rules decided?
- Who won and who lost in the process?
- Would the development reach both the communities or would the gap be widened?

**Learning Output:** Conclude by sharing that this is what happens when a group is left out of all decision-making process and that it is important that “men, women as well as people from other gender identities need to be included in all decision-making processes. This is required not only at the village level but at all levels, including at national and global levels.”

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**BOX 1: BATOKAS**

- One member of the Batoka is a health functionary and underwent disaster management training as part of job orientation.
- Another member is a geography teacher and was trained to conduct classes for students on local disasters.
- Four members work in the paddy fields that get flooded every second year. Their loss means that they had to face shortage of food that year and sometimes have also had to migrate for work.
- Four other members have had their homes destroyed in the last three floods and lost much of their belongings. They also had to stop the tailoring work at home as the machines and raw material were destroyed.
- Most Batokas cannot swim. One member lost a child last year as she could not swim and the child got carried away in water.
- All Batokas and their families face water and fuel shortage during floods.
- All members had to spend two weeks at the local rehabilitation camp last year after the cyclone, and two of them also faced sexual harassment at the shelter homes.

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**BOX 2: GONKAS**

- One member of the Gonka is a village leader and also has good contacts with the local politicians.
- Another member is a local contractor and takes up projects like river embankment construction, flood protection walls, and others.
- Four members own paddy fields that get flooded every second year. They got some compensation that was not enough to cover the costs. They had to migrate for work with their families.
- Four other members also own paddy fields but their fields do not get flooded. The problem is storage of the crop after harvest as it often rains, and transport of the paddy crop to the market.
- Four other members had their homes destroyed in the last three floods and lost much of their belongings.
- All but two members cannot swim.
EXERCISE 14: CASE STUDY REVIEW FOR IDENTIFICATION OF ROLES AND ENTRY POINTS FOR CSOS TOWARDS GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN CCDRR POLICIES

The key objective of this exercise is to help the CSOs develop action plans for gender mainstreaming in national policies and plans and identify important stakeholders for collaboration in the process.

**Materials Required:** Copies of Handout 11, chart papers and pens.

**Process:**

**Step 1:** Divide the participants into groups of four to five persons. Give them copies of Handout 11. Ask them to go through the cases together. Give them 15 minutes for this.

**Step 2:** Ask them to discuss the key features of gender mainstreaming in the cases and the strategies employed for enabling the same. Give them 15 minutes to discuss.

**Step 3:** Ask them to relate these features and strategies in their own context, adding learnings from the session and their own experience to develop action plans for CSO involvement in gender mainstreaming. The presentation should be in the following format:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal/Objectives</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Partnerships with Other Stakeholders</th>
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**Step 4:** Paste the action plans on the walls, referring to them as and when required in the upcoming sessions. You will specifically need to point out which tools will be applicable for which activity during the Module 3 Session A on Gender Mainstreaming within project cycle.

**Learning Output:** At the end of the session, the participants should have a framework which they can take back to refine and develop their own action plans.
TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPLETE THE STATEMENT</th>
<th>✓ TICK YOUR SELECTION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Kyoto protocol on market mechanisms for environment...</td>
<td>was a top-down approach not designed to benefit women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Adaptation Plan (NAP)...</td>
<td>is the same as NAPA for LDCs but not a mechanism for other developing countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Balance in participation and leadership is important...</td>
<td>*because its UNFCCC mandate and important for the country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Equality CCDRR Plans should...</td>
<td>address women’s differential vulnerability to climate change and disasters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s participation is important...</td>
<td>*more at local/village and district levels.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Items in red are the incorrect answers.

SUGGESTED READINGS:


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<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGENDA</th>
<th>REMINDERS</th>
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ENGENDERING CCDRR POLICIES AND NATIONAL PLANS

HANDBOOKS

MODULE 2
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>BRIEF OVERVIEW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EARTH SUMMIT</td>
<td>United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), Rio (1992) also known as the Earth Summit, is one of the foremost and historic conferences related to sustainable development. It was the Earth Summit that led to the launch of: i) the UN Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD); ii) the UN Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD); and iii) the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCC</td>
<td>The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) is the United Nations body for assessing the science related to climate change. Established in 1988, the objective of the IPCC is to provide governments at all levels with scientific information that they can use to develop climate policies. IPCC Assessment Reports (ARs) are also a key input into international climate change negotiations. To date, IPCC submitted five ARs, and the sixth AR is under process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNFCCC</td>
<td>While a number of multilateral environmental agreements and other international policy frameworks are relevant to combating and coping with climate change, the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) was developed to specifically address the urgent issue of climate change, with the ultimate objective to stabilize greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations “at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system.” While Parties ratify it, thereby entering it into force or validating it, the treaty provides a legal framework for further action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COP</td>
<td>The Conference of Parties (COP) is the supreme decision-making body of the UNFCCC. Since 1995, it meets every year to review the implementation of the UNFCCC and related legal instruments. A key task for the COP is also to review the national communications and emission inventories submitted by Parties. All States that are Parties to the Convention are represented at the COP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KYOTO PROTOCOL</td>
<td>Given the nature of the climate change challenge and the need for decisive action, the international community established the Kyoto Protocol (KP) that legally binds signatory developed countries, which are primarily responsible for GHG emissions, to reduce those emissions. The first commitment period of the KP was 2008-2012, and the second was 2013-2020. The KP turned GHGs into a tradable commodity. While countries must meet their reduction targets primarily through national measures, the KP introduced three flexible market mechanisms that allow countries to meet their targets by encouraging GHG abatement where it is most cost-effective, for instance in developing countries. The aim is to reduce overall emissions from the planet’s atmosphere, while stimulating sustainable economic growth and technology transfer in developing countries. The three Kyoto mechanisms are: - Emissions Trading - Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) - Joint Implementation (JI) These mechanisms are part of what is known as the carbon market.</td>
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<tr>
<td>BALI ACTION PLAN</td>
<td>One of the main questions confronting climate negotiators, as the first commitment period was scheduled to come to a close in 2012, was how to alter the architecture of international climate change agreements so as to engage developing non-Annex I countries but without binding them into top-down targets and timetables that might slow their development. The answer to this question came out of negotiations at COP13 in Bali (Indonesia). The Bali Action Plan, the key agreement from COP13, included provisions that called for developing country parties to take Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Actions (NAMAs) in the context of sustainable development in exchange for finance, technology and capacity building in a measurable, reportable, and verifiable manner. The Bali Action Plan also marks a major turning point in UNFCCC negotiations, with a shift from a technocratic top-down to a bottom-up approach.</td>
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<tr>
<td>PARIS AGREEMENT</td>
<td>The Paris Agreement (2015) is a landmark environmental accord that was adopted by nearly every nation in 2015 to address climate change and its negative impacts. The deal aims to substantially reduce global GHG emissions in an effort to limit the global temperature increase in this century to 2 degrees Celsius* above pre-industrial levels, while pursuing means to limit the increase to 1.5 degrees Celsius. The agreement includes commitments from all major emitting countries to cut their climate-altering pollution and to strengthen those commitments over time. The pact provides a pathway for developed nations to assist developing nations in their climate mitigation and adaptation efforts, and it creates a framework for the transparent monitoring, reporting, and ratcheting up of countries’ individual and collective climate goals. At present, 197 countries have adopted the Paris Agreement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAME</td>
<td>BRIEF OVERVIEW</td>
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<tr>
<td>HYOGO FRAMEWORK</td>
<td>The 2005 Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) was developed at the World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction. It provides guidelines and global blueprint to reduce vulnerabilities to natural hazards, through a 10-year action plan. The HFA assisted the efforts of nations and communities to become more resilient to, and cope better with the hazards that threaten their development gains.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SENDAI FRAMEWORK</td>
<td>The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 was adopted by UN Member States on 18 March 2015 at the Third UN World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction. The Framework aims to achieve the substantial reduction of disaster risk and losses in lives, livelihoods and health, and in the economic, physical, social, cultural and environmental assets of persons, businesses, communities and countries over the next 15 years. The Sendai Framework is the first major agreement of the post-2015 development agenda, with seven targets and four priorities for action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAPs</td>
<td>The National Adaptation Plan (NAP) process helps countries conduct comprehensive medium- and long-term climate adaptation planning. It is a flexible process that builds on each country’s existing adaptation activities and helps integrate climate change into national decision-making. The Parties to the UNFCCC established the NAP process in 2011 in Durban (South Africa).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAPAs</td>
<td>The outcome of COP 7 in Marrakech (Morocco) included an agreement that Least Developed Countries (LDCs) would develop National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs). NAPAs 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDCs</td>
<td>186 countries – responsible for more than 90 per cent of global emissions – submitted carbon reduction targets, known as “intended nationally determined contributions” (INDCs), prior to the Paris conference. These targets outlined each country’s commitments for curbing emissions (including through the preservation of carbon sinks) through 2025 or 2030, including both economy-wide carbon-cutting goals and the individual commitments of around 2,250 cities and 2,025 companies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAMAs</td>
<td>According to the Copenhagen Accord, the non-committal outcome of COP 15 in 2009, Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Actions (NAMAs) are to be defined by developing country parties to the UNFCCC and “will be recorded in a registry along with relevant technology, finance and capacity building support.”</td>
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<tr>
<td>LWPG</td>
<td>In 2014, the Conference of the Parties (COP) to the UNFCCC adopted the Lima Work Programme on Gender (LWPG), which established a plan for “promoting gender balance and achieving gender-responsive climate policy, developed for the purpose of guiding the effective participation of women in the bodies established under the Convention.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER COP</td>
<td>Sometimes referred to as the ‘Gender COP’ because gender issues garnered so much attention, COP 18 in 2012 produced a decision promoting gender balance and women’s participation, and called for an in-session technical workshop on gender issues for the next year.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNFCCC (2014), UNISDR (2015), UNFCCC (2017), UNFCCC (2019), UNFCCC (n.d. (a)), UNFCCC (n.d. (b)), and UNFCCC (n.d. (c)).
### GENDER-AWARE APPLICATION OF GLOBAL CCDRR FRAMEWORKS

#### PART A: UNFCCC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FRAMEWORK ACTION AREAS</th>
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<th>ACTUAL ACTIONS UNDERTAKEN AT COUNTRY LEVEL</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| Strengthen capacity building efforts for governments and other stakeholders in mainstreaming gender in formulating, monitoring, implementing and reviewing national climate change policies and plans. | > Create gender cells in all national and local CCDRR training institutions.  
> Allocate funds for capacity building on gender and CCDRR. |                                           |
| Engage women's groups and national women and gender institutions in the process of developing, implementing and updating climate policies, plans, strategies and action. | > Create institutional platforms and forums for engagement of women's groups.  
> Conduct seminars and webinars for consultation with women's groups. |                                           |
| Enhance capacities to collect, analyze and apply sex-disaggregated data and gender analysis in the context of climate change. | > Review the current data collection mechanisms for Sex, Age, Disability Disaggregated Data (SADDD) integration. |                                           |
| Enhance the availability of sex-disaggregated data for gender analysis. | > Create legal/policy mandate for ensuring SADDD availability.  
> Commission new surveys for collection of SADDD. |                                           |
| Strengthen the evidence base and understanding of the differentiated impacts of climate change on men and women and the role of women as agents of change and on opportunities for women. | > Commission research studies on gender dimensions in various sectors.  
> Create a knowledge platform for collation and validation of existing studies and evidence base created at national level. |                                           |
| Promote the use of social media, web resources and innovative communication tools to effectively communicate gender action plan and gender equality to the public, in particular reaching out to women. | > Undertake Information, Education and Communication (IEC) campaigns on gender and climate change through the use of social media, and also local folk art and community radio. |                                           |
| Capacity building of women delegates on leadership, negotiation and facilitation to enhance women's participation. | > Support preparation stage activities – pre-consultation workshops, among others, including webinars and in-session training. |                                           |
| Promote travel funds as a means of supporting the equal participation of women and indigenous people in all national delegations at UNFCCC sessions. | > Provide travel funds at national level to support participation even in national consultations.  
> Host dialogues to discuss advancing the leadership of local communities and women. |                                           |
| Strengthen coordination on gender between bodies under the Paris Agreement and other relevant entities especially the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. | > Support shadow reports on gender and climate change as part of CEDAW and SDG national reporting. |                                           |

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4. The details in this section need to be removed before sharing the handout with participants for the exercise.
### PART A: UNFCCC

<table>
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| Share experience and support capacity building on gender-responsive budgeting (GRB). | > Institutionalize GRB at national, sub-national and local levels and extend scope to international climate finance.  
> Provide funds for capacity building and research on GRB.  
> Engage women’s groups as experts for GRB within technical ministries. | |
| Raise awareness of the financial and technical support available for promoting the strengthening of gender integration into climate policies. | > Publish all climate funds flow in the country in one forum.  
> Map the country’s climate finance governance framework and create online data access system. | |
| Raise awareness on good practices to facilitate access to climate finance for grass-roots women’s organizations and indigenous peoples and local communities. | > Create simplified manuals for fund accessing systems.  
> Workshops for NGOs on proposal development for climate change and on fund raising mechanisms.  
> Publish case studies on existing practices. | |
| Promote the deployment of gender-responsive technological solutions to address climate change. | > Identify and publish case studies on gender-just solutions.  
> Create systems for validation and proof of concept development of local solutions. | |
| Foster women’s and girls’ full participation and leadership in science, technology, research and development related to climate change. | > Fund programmes for piloting of co-creation of solutions with researchers, communities and private service providers. | |
| Support the collection and consolidation of information and expertise on gender and climate change in sectors and thematic areas. | > Identify and create a roster on gender and climate change experts at national level.  
> Promote knowledge platforms on gender and climate change. | |
| Strengthen the monitoring and reporting on women in leadership positions within the UNFCCC process. | > Publish national statistics on gender composition in international delegations and national climate negotiations/consultations. | |
| Monitor and report on the implementation of gender-responsive climate policies, plans, strategies and action. | > Publish bi-annual reviews and progress on gender objectives in national climate policies and plans. | |

Source: UNFCCC (2019).
<table>
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| Collection, analysis, use and dissemination of relevant data taking into account the needs of different categories of users. | > All data should be disaggregated by sex and age.  
> Understand cultural barriers of disaster risk management in the society.  
> Needs of women and girls during disasters should be accounted for. |                                                                                                                            |
| Systematically evaluate, record, share and publicly account for disaster losses and understand economic, social, health, education impacts, and others. | > Account for women's time poverty resulting from increased domestic and caregiving role.  
> Account for loss of women's income from informal sources - home-based work, backyard poultry, goatry, and others. |                                                                                                                            |
| Knowledge and capacity building of government officials at all levels, civil society, communities and volunteers. | > All trainings and capacity building activities should include gender sensitization.  
> All knowledge products should have a gender analysis. |                                                                                                                            |
| Promote national strategies to strengthen public education and awareness in disaster risk reduction. | > Public awareness should be taking into account specific needs of women especially elderly, illiterate and (dis)abled especially those with vision and hearing impairment. |                                                                                                                            |
| To assign clear roles and tasks to community representatives within disaster risk management institutions and processes and decision-making through relevant legal frameworks. | > Women should be part of all meetings and disaster (risk) management committees at all levels of governance. |                                                                                                                            |
| To assign clear roles and tasks to community representatives within disaster risk management institutions and processes and decision-making through relevant legal frameworks. | > Women should be part of all meetings and disaster (risk) management committees at all levels of governance. |                                                                                                                            |
| Undertake comprehensive public and community consultations during the development of such laws and regulations to support their implementation. | > Active participation of women, and if required separate consultations with women and girls, should be undertaken. |                                                                                                                            |
| Establish and strengthen government coordination forums composed of relevant stakeholders at the national and local levels. | > Gender balance should be ensured in all forums. |                                                                                                                            |
| Promote mechanisms for disaster risk transfer and insurance, risk-sharing and retention and financial protection. | > Financial mechanisms for small and informal business which women are involved should also be included. |                                                                                                                            |
## PART B: SENDAI FRAMEWORK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promote the disaster risk resilience of workplaces through structural and non-structural measures.</td>
<td>&gt; Home should be considered as a workplace especially when a larger number of women are home-based workers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strengthen the design and implementation of inclusive policies and social safety-net mechanisms.</td>
<td>&gt; Look at all livelihood enhancement programmes, and access to basic health-care services, including maternal, new born and child health, sexual and reproductive health, food security and nutrition, housing and education, towards the eradication of poverty, to find appropriate solutions in the post-disaster phase for women.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Invest in, develop, maintain and strengthen people-centred multi-hazard, multi-sectoral forecasting and early warning systems, disaster risk and emergency communications mechanisms.</td>
<td>&gt; Early warning systems and emergency communications should be tested for gender sensitivity at the local level.</td>
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<td>Promote the resilience of new and existing critical infrastructure to ensure that they remain safe, effective and operational during and after disasters.</td>
<td>&gt; Water, sanitation, health and education infrastructure must remain a high priority.</td>
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<td>Establish community centres for the promotion of public awareness and the stockpiling of necessary materials to implement rescue and relief activities.</td>
<td>&gt; Such community centres can be promoted with the dual purpose of serving as a workshef and warehouse for women in non-disaster times.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Train the existing workforce and voluntary workers in disaster response and strengthen technical and logistical capacities to ensure better response in emergencies.</td>
<td>&gt; Women and girls should be part of the volunteers and be trained in disaster response mechanisms.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The existence of any reference to gender or women in the policy;
- Identification of affected groups and sectors within the country – “who” are the key stakeholders and beneficiaries;
- Statement of a long-term goal or vision and whether gender equality is included;
- Existing national strategy, policy or initiatives related to gender and climate change that an INDC can build on or connect to;
- Strategic points or partners for leveraging change in the status of women and gender equality in the country;
- Statement of gaps, barriers and needs of women and men;
- Monitoring and evaluation using gender analysis, sex-disaggregated data or gender indicators;
- The degree to which gender equality is integrated into climate change policies, strategies and programmes;
- The degree to which gender equality is considered in priority climate change sector actions; and
- Inclusion of women as targets of capacity development and support structures and mechanisms.

The nature of the reference, which includes:
- The context for the reference, e.g., commitments to mitigation (M), adaptation (A), capacity building, implementation or whether the gender reference is cross-cutting. Where a government committed to gender mainstreaming or taking gender into account across one or more components of the INDC, this is noted as gender-sensitive (GS).
- The way in which women are positioned in the NDC. This includes positioning women as a group that is vulnerable to the impacts of climate change (WVG); as beneficiaries of projects or policies (B); as agents of change (AC); or as stakeholders, i.e., as having a stake in climate change-related decision-making (S).

The existence of gender-responsive budgeting in the NDC;

The existence of a participatory planning process for the NDC; and

The existence of a mechanism or process for monitoring or implementing the NDC.

Source: Huyer (2016), and WEDO (2016).
**Checklist for Gender Mainstreaming in Institutional Arrangements:**

> Is the equitable participation of women within the institutional structures ensured?
> Is there a balanced representation of women and men in the senior management?
> Does the Steering Committee include: i) representatives of the Ministry of Women's Affairs or equivalent; ii) representatives of the main NGOs dealing with gender equality; and iii) an equitable number of women and men?
> Is the National Project Director/Manage/Lead Consultant: i) “gender-sensitive”; ii) supported by gender experts?
> Is gender-tailored training provided for staff?

**Checklist for Assessing Women's Participation:**

> Is the representation of women ensured both in national and regional workshops, and are female participants drawn from the governmental, civil and business sectors?
  • Is gender balance in the workshops ensured?
  • Is the participation of women supported?
> Is gender equality one of the major criteria for the evaluation of options and conditions for approval?
> Are women involved in identifying the possible options for achieving objectives?
> Do women's needs and interests receive the same consideration as those of men in analyzing the advantages and disadvantages of the options?
> Are the following organizations invited?
  • Gender focal points in other ministries or departments;
  • Development partners with a gender equality mandate;
  • A governmental or independent economist with gender expertise;
  • Male and female representatives of private sector interests;
  • An umbrella organization of women's non-governmental organizations (NGOs);
  • NGOs or lobby groups with gender expertise;
  • Any NGOs or community groups that represent men's gender interests;
  • Relevant sectoral or “special interest” NGOs that have an interest or experience in gender issues;
  • Human rights groups or advocates;
  • Think-tanks or policy analysts with experience and expertise in gender issues; and
  • Academics or researchers from university Gender Studies Department(s).

**Checklist for Gender Mainstreaming of Stocktaking and Vulnerability Assessment**

> Data on the use of and access to biological resources, disaggregated by sex – what is used by whom, by women or men?
> Data on the differentiated vulnerabilities and impacts of disasters among women and men;
> Are all statistics on individuals collected and presented disaggregated by sex?
> Have specific efforts been made to identify gender issues and to formulate concepts and definitions that capture the differences between women and men in all aspects of their lives;
> Include the traditional knowledge and perception of women in the analysis and evaluation of the characteristics of key risks;
> Identify the capacity and available resources for managing and reducing vulnerability;

**Checklist for Assessment of Gender Mainstreaming in the NAP Document**

> Is gender included in the NAP as one of the cross-cutting issues?
> Is conceptual clarity on gender ensured?
> Is convincing argumentation presented?

Source: Adapted from Dekens and Dazé (2019); and NAP Global Network and UNFCCC (2019).
The 1979 Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) is one of the core human rights treaties with signatory governments bound to undertake legal obligations to promote and protect the rights of women. It is also one of the most broadly-endorsed human rights treaties, ratified or acceded to by 187 countries.

CEDAW has direct implications for climate change adaptation and disaster risk management, as all parties are obliged to undertake appropriate measures to address discrimination against women in CCDDRR policies and programmes. Besides, CEDAW also guarantees the right to women to participate in all decision-making processes related to CCDDRR. Having been endorsing this stance since 2009, the CEDAW Committee presented a General Recommendation No. 37 on gender-related dimensions of disaster risk reduction in the context of climate change in 2018. (CEDAW/C/GC/37 2018).

The recommendation mandates that parties should ensure that all policies, legislation, plans, programmes, budgets and other activities related to disaster risk reduction and climate change are gender-responsive and grounded in human rights-based principles, including:

1. Equality and non-discrimination, with priority being accorded to the most marginalized groups of women and girls, such as those from indigenous, racial, ethnic and sexual minority groups, women and girls with disabilities, adolescents, older women, single women, female-headed households, widows, women and girls living in poverty in both rural and urban settings, women in prostitution, and internally displaced, stateless, refugee, asylum seeking and migrant women;

2. Participation and empowerment, through the adoption of effective processes and the allocation of necessary resources to ensure that diverse groups of women have opportunities to participate in every stage of policy development, implementation and monitoring at each level of government from the local to the national, regional and international levels;

3. Accountability and access to justice, which require the provision of appropriate and accurate information and mechanisms to ensure that all women and girls whose rights were directly and indirectly affected by disasters and climate change are provided with adequate and timely remedies.

Additionally, the CEDAW committee also recommended specific convention principles relevant to disaster risk reduction and climate change with respect to:

1. Vulnerability assessments and data collection;
2. Coherence among policies on gender equality, disaster risk reduction, climate change and sustainable development;
3. Extraterritorial obligations, international cooperation and adequate and effective allocation of financial and technical resources for gender-responsive disaster and climate change prevention;
4. Inclusion of civil society organizations and private sector; and
5. Enabling capacity development and access to technology.

The committee also highlighted six specific areas of concerns for women and girls including:

1. Right to live free from gender-based violence;
2. Rights to education and information;
3. Rights to work and social protection;
4. Right to health;
5. Right to an adequate standard of living; and
6. Right to freedom of movement.
The CEDAW Committee (General Recommendation No. 37 on gender-related dimensions of disaster risk reduction in the context of climate change 2018) further elaborated on each of these principles and areas of concerns, providing around 63 obligations for the state Parties to undertake. These include:

1. Develop disaggregated and gender-responsive indicators and monitoring mechanisms and establish or identify existing national and local mechanisms to collect, analyze, manage and apply sex, age, disability, ethnicity and regionally-disaggregated data;

2. Undertake gender impact assessments during the design, implementation and monitoring phases of disaster risk reduction and climate change plans and policies and engage in a comprehensive gender audit of policies and programmes across different sectors and areas including climate, trade and investment, environment and planning, water, food, agriculture, technology, social protection, education and employment;

3. Increase dedicated budget allocations for gender and CCDRR and invest in women's adaptability by identifying and supporting livelihoods that are resilient to disasters and climate change, sustainable and empowering, along with gender-responsive services that enable women to access and benefit from these livelihoods;

4. Increase women's participation in the development of disaster risk reduction and climate change plans by supporting their technical capacities and providing adequate resources for this purpose and institutionalize women's leadership in disaster prevention, preparedness (including the development and dissemination of early warning systems) response, recovery and climate change mitigation and adaptation at all level;

5. Ensure that women have access to technology for preventing and mitigating the adverse effects of disasters and climate change on crops, livestock, homes and businesses, and that they can use and economically benefit from climate change adaptation and mitigation technologies, including those related to renewable energy and sustainable agricultural production;

6. Develop policies and programmes to address existing and new risk factors for gender-based violence against women — including domestic violence, sexual violence, economic violence, human trafficking and forced marriage — within the context of disaster risk reduction and climate change and promote women's participation and leadership in their development;

7. Develop participatory and gender-responsive development plans and policies that integrate a human rights-based approach in order to guarantee sustainable access to adequate housing, food, water and sanitation. Priority should be given to ensuring the accessibility of services for all women; and

8. Provide training, sensitization and awareness-raising for authorities, emergency services workers and other groups on the different forms of gender-based violence, women's health and human rights that are prevalent in situations of disaster and how to prevent and address these. This training should include the rights and needs of women and girls, including those from indigenous and minority groups, women with disabilities and lesbian, bisexual, transgender and intersex women and girls, and information on how they might be affected differently.
The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA) of 1995 is one of the most comprehensive global policy frameworks for promoting gender equality and women's empowerment. Signed by 189 Governments, the BPfA covers 12 critical areas of concern, with women and environment being one of them. The document highlights the gender inequalities in the management of natural resources and in the safeguarding of the environment, and calls for focus on understanding the gender-based vulnerabilities of environmental risks and disasters, while also emphasizing on the need for: i) Involving women actively in environmental decision-making at all levels; ii) Integrating gender concerns and perspectives in policies and programmes for sustainable development; and iii) Strengthening or establishing mechanisms at the national, regional and international levels to assess the impact of development and environmental policies on women (United Nations, and World Conference on Women 1995).

The BPfA is also reviewed by the UN General Assembly, as done specifically in 2000 (B+5) and 2015 (B+20), wherein governments agreed on further actions to accelerate implementation. These review mechanisms especially can be strong entry points for CSOs to advocate for the gender mainstreaming in the climate change agenda at regional and national levels. In 2019, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) member states undertook regional review meetings in the context of the preparations for the global Beijing+25 review in 2020.

The Asia Pacific review meeting was held in Bangkok in November 2019, to review the progress made, challenges to address and forward-looking policies to enact in order to accelerate the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action in Asia and the Pacific in the context of the 2030 Agenda (UNECAP 2019a). Following this, in December 2019, the Asia Pacific Declaration on Advancing Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment: Beijing+25 Review was adopted, which also included a section on environmental conservation, climate action and resilience-building, highlighting the need for “Integrating and mainstreaming a gender perspective into environmental conservation, protection and rehabilitation, and promoting gender-responsive climate action, disaster risk reduction and resilience building, taking into account that climate change ... has differentiated, considerable impacts on all women and girls.” (UNESCAP 2019b).

The declaration especially focuses on:
1. The role of women as holders of knowledge and as agents of change;
2. The need for full and equal leadership and participation of women at all levels of policymaking and decision-making;
3. Adopting and implementing gender-responsive strategies on climate change mitigation and adaptation through the promotion of equal access to essential infrastructure and climate-smart agricultural technology, clean energy, appropriate financing and technology, humanitarian assistance, food and nutrition, safe drinking water and sanitation, waste management, healthcare services, education and training, adequate housing and decent work, social security, and gender-sensitive forecast and early warning systems;
4. Gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation; and
5. The need to focus on women with disabilities, elderly women and girls, those in rural and remote areas and those from indigenous and local communities (UNESCAP 2019b).
Making Women's Voices and Votes Count was a two-and-a-half-year project (2013 - 2015) supported by UN Women and the National Mission for the Empowerment of Women (Government of India), with the aim of capacity building of elected women representatives from rural local bodies, and strengthening the linkages between elected women and women's collectives, for building a vibrant women's political constituency at the grassroots, and gendering local governance structures, processes and agendas. The project aimed to use an Information and Communication Technology (ICT)-enabled model to catalyze a critical mass of women in local governance, construct a horizontal platform for peer-based support, and develop a discourse of governance and politics that is informed by women's rights perspectives.

Three different CSOs from three sites: i) IT for Change in Mysore (Karnataka); ii) Kutch Mahila Vikas Sangathan in Kutch (Gujarat); and iii) Area Networking and Development Initiatives in Bhavnagar (Gujarat), were involved in the project using the same strategies, monitoring and reporting mechanisms that help understand the limitations and scalability of the model. Such strategies are particularly useful for CSOs that prefer to work more at an in-depth level but at the same time are open to collaboration and systematic reporting to be able to avail funding by demonstrating replicability and scaling potential.

This project worked towards the following three outcomes:

1. Increased networking among Elected Women Representative, facilitating their active participation along with local women's groups in gender-responsive governance processes;
2. Increased realization of claims and entitlements by women in Gujarat and Karnataka; and
3. Advocacy and campaigns at a local and institutional level, enabling a shift in local public discourse towards gender equality.

5. Indian Constitution mandates one-third reservation for women in rural and urban local bodies resulting in more than 1.3 million grassroot women-leaders. Source: UN Women India (2015).
**Women’s Major Group (WMG) for Sustainable Development (SD)** was created as an outcome of the Earth Summit in 1992, with a core mandate and responsibility to facilitate women’s civil society perspectives in the policy space and processes of the United Nations related to sustainable development. The WMG is the focal point for UN DESA (Department of Economic and Social Affairs), for all UN Sustainable Development policies including SDG 2030. An open-ended alliance that in 2017 comprised 1300+ organizations and individuals, the WMG provides a formal channel for: 1. physical or virtual participation in key global and regional meetings; 2. observing and speaking in official intergovernmental sessions; 3. engaging in coordinated and strategic advocacy with decision-makers; 4. contributions to coordinated position statements, analysis and policy recommendations published on the UN webpage for Major Groups; 5. participation in reporting and accountability efforts; vi) capacity building; and vii) access to documents and information. (See more at: https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org)

**Asia Pacific Regional CSO Engagement Mechanism (APRCEM)** is a civil society platform aimed to enable stronger cross constituency coordination and ensure that voices of all sub-regions of Asia Pacific are heard in intergovernmental processes in regional and global level. The platform is initiated, owned and driven by the CSOs, and seeks to engage with UN agencies and Member States on the post-2015 as well as other development related issues/processes. As an open, inclusive and flexible mechanism, RCEM is designed to reach the broadest number of CSOs in the region, harness the voice of grassroots and peoples’ movements to advance development justice that address the inequalities of wealth, power, resources between countries, between rich and poor and between men and women. (See more at: http://asiapacificrcem.org/)

**Women and Gender Constituency (WGC)**, established in 2009, is one of the nine stakeholder groups of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). The WGC represents women’s and environmental civil society organizations, and actively works towards ensuring that gender equality and women’s human rights are integral to the negotiations. One of the various modes that WGC uses for active engagement of its members is through online groups. These online groups are used for information sharing, coordinating events, contributing to inputs for negotiations, brining for the emerging issues, among others. Such low cost and easy to operate platforms can be effectively used to mobilize CSOs networks. These groups can be used to build CSOs networks within regions/country or within specific thematic groups/programme of work. (See more at: http://womengenderclimate.org)

**Asia Pacific Regional CSO Engagement Mechanism (APRCEM)** is a civil society platform aimed to enable stronger cross constituency coordination and ensure that voices of all sub-regions of Asia Pacific are heard in intergovernmental processes in regional and global level. The platform is initiated, owned and driven by the CSOs, and seeks to engage with UN agencies and Member States on the post-2015 as well as other development related issues/processes. As an open, inclusive and flexible mechanism, RCEM is designed to reach the broadest number of CSOs in the region, harness the voice of grassroots and peoples’ movements to advance development justice that address the inequalities of wealth, power, resources between countries, between rich and poor and between men and women. (See more at: http://asiapacificrcem.org/)

**Working Group on Women and Land Ownership (WGWLO)** is an informal and unregistered network of 40 civil society groups and community-based organizations in Gujarat (India), working through a small rotating secretariat since 2002. It influenced policies and plans at state and national levels. The network raises funds jointly from various donors and provides activity-based support to its members. The network members contribute through insights for research and common use of communication material. (See more at: http://wgwlo.org/)

**Inspiring Women Awards by Women In Leadership (WIL)** in Bangladesh aims at recognizing the aspiring and leading women in the corporate sector of Bangladesh, under different categories, thereby identifying inspiring role models for women. Moreover, WIL gives recognition to the business organizations with the most female-friendly working conditions and policies. Distinguishing the role models will persuade the other aspiring women to come forward and play their part in the national development stream. (See more at: http://bbf.digital/iwa-2020)
While ensuring gender mainstreaming within the CCDRR plans, it is also important to have a Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA) and Leave No One Behind (LNOB) perspective included in the implementation of strategies and activity plans. This section provides a summary of some of the Tsunami Recovery projects from a HRBA and LNOB perspective supported by UNDP.

**People's Consultations** – In an attempt to ensure that the voice of the people affected by the tsunami was documented and that they were able to express their grievances with regard to the recovery process, UNDP undertook a comprehensive public consultation in all the tsunami-affected districts. The final product which included the People's Consultation report as well as two follow-up papers based on the consultations (an analysis of the findings and vulnerability assessment) provided a detailed account per district of the main concerns and priorities of the people affected by the tsunami.

**Community Level Disaster Risk Management (DRM)** – Workshops and consultations were carried out among stakeholders to introduce legal provisions for ensuring that DRM measures were used at the ground level. Community contingency planning exercises were carried out by volunteers from selected community-based organizations (CBOs), non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and Grama Niladhari divisions to enhance their capacities to confront disasters.

**Participatory Monitoring of Projects** – AidWatch is part of the STRONG PLACES project which sought to empower beneficiaries to hold duty-bearers accountable for the aid that was distributed to them. AidWatch committees, made up of beneficiaries, were set up to inform people of their aid entitlements and rights and to enable them to monitor incoming aid in their communities and hold duty-bearers accountable. It was piloted with the beneficiaries of UNDP’s housing projects, where they were encouraged to engage in monitoring of and dialogue with the relevant duty-bearers.

**Access to Information** – A number of concurrent initiatives were undertaken to promote transparency and accountability of UNDP’s recovery programme:

1. Community notice boards informing communities of the aid provided by UNDP in that district were placed in prominent locations.
2. Project leaflets explaining the projects and giving a breakdown of the budget were distributed to beneficiaries as well as to journalists and government officials.
3. Training was provided to beneficiary communities on rights and entitlements so that they were aware of what was due to them.
4. Use of various forms of media to disseminate information on services available to the tsunami-affected communities.

**Capacity Development of Journalists** - Training in access to information was provided for regional journalists to ensure that they could monitor and report on the delivery of aid and the specific concerns in the various tsunami-affected areas, including highlighting any discrepancies in aid delivery and bringing to attention issues that may be otherwise overlooked.

**Human Rights Help Desks** – As a follow up to the People's Consultations, Help Desks were set up in the tsunami-affected areas specifically to address human rights-related complaints from the affected communities. Working with the Disaster Relief Monitoring Unit of the Human Rights Commission of Sri Lanka and located within the Human Rights Commission field offices (or, in three districts, the Legal Aid Commission), these Help Desks registered and investigated complaints and made recommendations on how the complaints should be addressed. Additionally, they informed the communities of human rights standards and entitlements as well as liaised with CBOs, NGOs, International NGOs (INGOs) and government officials to promote human right principles so that the recovery and rehabilitation work was conducted in a manner that respected human rights and was participatory, equitable, non-discriminatory, transparent and accountable.

**Training on HRBA** – Training was provided to duty-bearers on human rights-based approaches (UNDP, the Ministry of Disaster Management and Human Rights, RADA, the Disaster Relief Monitoring Unit, local government officials, and others).
LNOB-EMPOWERMENT OF VULNERABLE GROUPS

**Micro-Enterprise Development** – The Micro-Enterprise Development programme targeted those affected by the tsunami, particularly the poor and medium-income families (women in particular, along with other vulnerable groups such as Internally-Displaced Persons (IDPs) and returnees, the unemployed and the disabled), by providing them the opportunity to rebuild their livelihoods. It provided small-scale loans to help restart small businesses (e.g., coir yarn, lace, masks, handicrafts, cane, hemp, and others) and linked them with local chambers of commerce to help them develop their enterprises and find a market for their goods.

**Fisheries** – The Fisheries programme focused on restoration and improvement of community livelihoods including the building of small-scale infrastructure facilities (e.g., community centres, ice plants and retail outlets targeting small-scale fisherfolk), capacity building and development (e.g., to establish fisheries cooperatives), gender equality and women empowerment (training on gender awareness as well as leadership, work and business skills for women with the additional aim of mobilizing women's groups within the fisheries sector).

**Disaster Risk Management** – Community contingency plans for future disasters were carried out in selected vulnerable villages. This helped map out resources, alternative roads as well as safe and vulnerable locations. While enabling outsiders to assist affected villagers efficiently, the emergency planning mechanism also empowered the villagers to respond in an organized manner should an emergency arise. In addition, selected individuals of active volunteer organizations, local NGOs and selected youth at the village level were trained in emergency response activities such as first aid, swimming, firefighting, life-saving, search and rescue, and others.

The Strengthening Urban Resilience and Engagement (SURE) programme is implemented by the Nepal Red Cross Society (NRCS) in partnership with the British Red Cross (BRC) in seven municipalities, targeting four groups vulnerable to disasters in each of the municipalities to increase their awareness of their risks to different disasters and mitigation measures they can take. Learning from the previous Earthquake Preparedness for Safer Communities (EPSC) programme, it was reflected that disseminating general messages to entire populations was ineffective in creating behaviour change. The SURE programme therefore developed the Participatory Campaign Planning (PCP) process to understand which messages and means of communication would be most effective with the different target groups of the programme. The PCP methodology was developed by the BRC and NRCS headquarters SURE team and rolled out by the programme team in each municipality. A separate one-day workshop was held with each of the programmes’ target groups, 28 in total.

The workshops were participatory and activity-based and sought to establish:

- Hazards that target groups felt they were at the biggest risk of.
- Test existing key messages to understand if target groups think each message is effective in changing behaviour, and if not, why not?
- Map the barriers to behaviour change.
- Understand participants’ social networks and understand the best opportunities to share information.
- Understand the most effective means of communication.
- Understand how different target groups prefer to give feedback.

Following the workshop, detailed analysis was done by the programme team and specific key messages for the target groups were developed for the target groups based on the findings. The key principles applied in the project included:

1. Engagement from all of society, specifically the most vulnerable people in urban areas and working with them to build their resilience to disasters;
2. Empowerment of local authorities and communities through resources, incentives and decision-making responsibilities as appropriate; and
3. Decision-making to be inclusive and risk-informed while using a multi-hazard approach. The PCP process examines messages from multiple hazards that have previously been identified as being risks to those populations, both man-made and natural hazards. The PCP process is conducted with illiterate groups and people with disability groups, and is aimed at those groups who are often excluded or marginalized from decision-making processes such as single women (widows) and the landless.

KEY LEARNINGS FROM THE WORKSHOPS

**Income considerations** – Many PCP participants highlighted that they are poor and lack resources required to be resilient against disasters including property and equipment. As such, messages that promote the use of resources, for example prepositioning rescue materials and constructing a house following the building code, will not lead to behaviour change.

**Availability** – In the case of messages related to road accidents, people with disabilities objected that it will be hard to follow messages that request them to walk on footpaths because footpaths are not disabled-friendly. Similarly, people who are living on river banks said the messages suggesting that people move to temporary shelters during flooding are ineffective because they do not have access to shelters.

**Accessibility** – It is also important to consider people with disabilities. For example, flood warnings disseminated through sirens and radio are ineffective for people with hearing loss.

**Social status** – Dalit target groups said that they cannot follow the message that asks them to go to safe shelters during disasters because they are socially excluded and not allowed to access them with other so-called higher castes.

Source: IFRC (2018a)
This module will introduce various gender mainstreaming tools for gender-aware problem analysis, project preparation and design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. Building on the institutional framework and organizational structures covered in the earlier module, it deliberates on tools for assessing the complex realities of local communities from a gender perspective, gender action plan development, and gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation systems.

OBJECTIVES OF THE MODULE:
> Provide an overview of the tools for gender mainstreaming for problem analysis, project design, implementation and monitoring; and evaluation;
> Provide a step-by-step guide for application of the gender mainstreaming tools in the context of Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction (CCDRR); and
> Provide application guidance to enable selection of the most suitable options for a context.

KEY MESSAGES:
> Gender mainstreaming is “...the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels.” (UN Secretary-General 1997). This includes all four stages of the project cycle – problem identification, project design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.
> Gender analysis is defined as analysis focused on the relative distribution across genders of “resources, opportunities, constraints and power in a given context.” (SIDA 2015). The purpose of gender analysis is to develop responses to remedy inequalities by gender in achieving their full human potential.
> Gender analysis, which involves collecting relevant sex-disaggregated data as well as identifying relevant gender issues relating to the roles of men and women and their position, capacity, and inequalities, is the key to gender mainstreaming. There are a number of framework and tools for undertaking gender analysis. These include: i) Moser Framework; ii) Harvard Analytical Framework; iii) Gender-Aware Vulnerability Assessments; and iv) Leave No One Behind (LNOB) assessment.
> Designing a gender-responsive project requires prior undertaking of gender analysis and incorporating the findings/gender needs into the project goal, outcomes, outputs and activities. Causes, Consequences and Solutions Framework and the Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis Framework can be useful tools for this.
> Gender-sensitive implementation includes:
  1. Stakeholder analysis and meaningful participation of all stakeholders especially women;
  2. Facilitating community-based action plan development; and
  3. Ensuring proper communication, knowledge transfer and capacity building.
> It is equally important to ensure that the progress made on gender mainstreaming is monitored both in terms of processes and in terms of outcomes. This can be through a results-based approach using gender-aware indicators or using warning signals as part of gender monitoring matrix.
> Gender mainstreaming should be viewed as an ongoing iterative process and not a stand-alone action. Ensuring participation of women as equal stakeholders and partners in all stages of the project cycle is an important tool for gender mainstreaming.
## MODULE 3 SESSION PLAN A

### OVERVIEW
At the end of this session, participants should have the basic knowledge of a range of gender mainstreaming tools and techniques applicable across the project cycle. They would be aware of the step-by-step process for application of these tools and should be able to identify the most suitable options for application in their work.

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### MATERIALS

- PowerPoint presentations
- Whiteboard and marker pen
- Chart papers and pens
- Copy of Handouts

### OUTLINE

- **20 mins.** Lecture on Gender Mainstreaming across project cycle.
- **20 mins.** PowerPoint presentation on "Gender Analysis: Need, Process and Select Tools."
- **40 mins.** Practical session on "Moser Framework for Planning" (See Exercise 15) (recommended for basic course). **OR:** Practical session on "Harvard Analytical Framework" (See Exercise 16) (recommended for advanced course).
- **60 mins.** PowerPoint presentation on "Tools for Gender-Aware Vulnerability Assessment Tools for CCDRR projects" (recommended for advanced course).
- **30 mins.** Small Group Discussion on "Examples of Gender Assessments" (See Exercise 17 and Handout 12).
- **30 mins.** PowerPoint presentation on "Gender-Responsive Planning, Project Preparation and Design"
- **60 mins.** Practical session on "Causes, Consequences and Solutions Framework" (See Exercise 18) (recommended for basic course).

### GUIDANCE NOTES

Begin the session with the definition of gender mainstreaming and its linkages with project cycle. Then using Figure 3.1, list the various gender mainstreaming methodologies and tools for climate projects. Print the figure in the form of a poster for better emphasis. The entry points for gender mainstreaming at institutional and policy level were discussed in Module 2 and this module focuses on the various entry points at programme/project levels. Share that you will be discussing the first three stages of the project cycle in this session and the later ones in the next session. Ask the participants to share their experience of using tools for gender mainstreaming. Use Handout 12 to provide examples application of gender mainstreaming tools in CCDRR projects.

Make a presentation on "Gender Analysis: Need, Process and Select Tools" with focus on need for gender analysis covering Moser and Harvard frameworks. Follow up with a practical session on any one of the two frameworks based on the course level – Moser for basic course (See Exercise 15) and Harvard for advanced course (see Exercise 16). Remind the participants of the advanced course that they have already worked on Moser Framework in Module 1, Session C (Exercise 7).

For advanced course, make a presentation on "Gender-Aware Vulnerability Assessment Tools for CCDRR projects.” Give the participants a quick overview of all the available tools covered in the module. Do not dwell in detail on all the tools but select any two or three based on the level and interest of the audience, whether they are project implementers or policy/research-oriented (see Table 3.1 to guide your selection). Follow-up with the group discussion on "Examples of Gender Assessments" (see Exercise 17 and Handout 12). For basic course, skip the presentation and move directly into the exercise. If you want to take a break, this is the point to place it.

Move to the next stage with a presentation on "Gender-Responsive Project Preparation and Design." For the advanced course, end the session with the presentation. Tell the participants that they will learn to apply GRAS tool later in Module 4, Session A. For the basic course, however, you need to conduct a practical session on application of "Causes, Consequences and Solutions Framework" (See Exercise 18)
Gender Mainstreaming and Gender Analysis

GENDER MAINSTREAMING ACROSS PROJECT CYCLE

Gender mainstreaming is "...the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality." (UN Secretary-General 1997).

It must be noted here that the binary language of assessing implications for men and women evolved over the years to include other gender identities (LGBTIQ). Furthermore, women are not a homogeneous group and gender mainstreaming also needs to include an intersectionality lens and focus on specific groups of women based on age, (dis)ability, class, race, ethnicity, social status, and others.

Gender mainstreaming needs to be considered at all levels – institutional, policy, programmes/project – and across all stages – project identification, situation analysis, assessment and planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. Each entry point requires a different strategy adjusted to the context and actors involved.

NEED FOR GENDER ANALYSIS

Gender Analysis is defined as analysis focused on the relative distribution across genders of "resources, opportunities, constraints and power in a given context." (SIDA 2015). The purpose of gender analysis is to develop responses to remedy inequalities by gender in achieving their full human potential.

Gender analysis must take place as one of the first steps of gender mainstreaming to identify gender roles, needs, interests, and inequalities. This involves collecting relevant sex-disaggregated data, identifying relevant gender issues relating to the roles of men and women and their position, capacity and inequalities. Gender analysis aids in understanding not only gender dimensions of climate change, but the socio-economic, cultural and structural equality issues embedded in the impacts of interventions and adaptation strategies.

**Discussion Point**

*Ask the participants to think through the project cycle approach and share how gender considerations have to be considered at each stage.*

**Facilitator Clues**

- Ensure that women participate equally and actively alongside men and are enabled to take up leadership positions throughout the project cycle. This includes ensuring their equal access to information and training. It may also require the creation of women-specific organizations or committees.
- Monitor and evaluate changes in gender relations using gender-sensitive indicators.
- Additionally, ensure that the institutional arrangements of implementing organizations support gender equality by ensuring that there is a gender-balanced team and adequate gender expertise at all levels within the organization and addressing cultural issues, such as organizational culture, staff attitudes, systems for learning, and protect all women-stakeholders from sexual exploitation and abuse.
FIGURE 3-1: GENDER MAINSTREAMING METHODOLOGIES AND TOOLS FOR CLIMATE PROJECTS

GENDER-INFORMED PROJECT IDENTIFICATION

National Climate Action Plans and Strategies

Project Identification

GENDER ANALYSIS

Information Collection using Frameworks

Gender Analysis Matrix

GENDER ASSESSMENT

Risk, Vulnerability and Resilience Mapping

Sectoral Gender Narratives

PLANNING FOR GENDERED SOLUTIONS

Problem and Solutions Tree

Gender Action Plans

Gender Assessment Scales

PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

Meaningful Participation of all Stakeholders

People’s Institution Building and Knowledge Sharing

MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Gender-Aware Indicators

Results Framework

Report on Gender Outcomes

Source: Adapted from Glemarec, Qayum and Olshanskaya (2016)

FIGURE 3-2: KEY QUESTIONS FOR GENDER ANALYSIS

HOW?

Will the project address the inequalities?

WHAT?

Are the socio-economic context and cultural norms related to gender equality?

WHO?

Is responsible for caregiving, resource management and cash income?

WHO?

Has access, control and ownership of resources, goods and services?

WHO?

Makes all decisions at household and community level?

WHO?

Is more vulnerable to climate and disaster risks?
A gender analysis must address the following questions (Figure 3-2):

1. **What are the socio-economic context and cultural norms related to gender equality?**
   Analyze socio-economic context and gender representation
   - What is the demographic, legal, social and economic context and norms related to gender equality that shape people's behaviour in the region/community?
   - If there are gender and social differences, what are the institutional, economic, and social factors that underlie, support, or influence them?

2. **Who is responsible for caregiving, resource management and cash income?**
   Analyze gender roles and responsibilities
   - Who does what?
   - Are the roles, responsibilities and priorities of men and women in the public and private sphere different?
   - Who is involved in resource management?
   - Who works with resources that earn cash incomes?
   - Who is involved in subsistence and livelihood activities?
   - Who provides caretaking in families?
   - What are the responsibilities, needs, interests and capacities of both women and men?

3. **Who has access, control and ownership of resources, goods and services?**
   Analyze gender rights over resources
   - Who has rights and entitlements to resources and services?
   - Who owns what?
   - Who controls what?
   - Who has access to what?
   - What are entitlements (e.g., education, health, land ownership) and who receives them?
   - How are goods and services distributed?

4. **Who makes all decisions at household and community level?**
   Analyze decision-making processes
   - Who is involved in leadership and has decision-making authority at all levels (from local to international policies, agreements, and adaptation)?
   - Who has access to information?
   - Who has control of the distribution of resources?
   - Who allocates benefits?
   - Are there differences among men and women?
   - Do institutional and legal systems support equality?

5. **Who is more vulnerable to climate change and disaster risks?**
   Analyze gender risk and vulnerabilities
   - Who are the most vulnerable to climate and disaster risks?
   - Are there differential risks, vulnerabilities, adaptive capacity, and resilience among women, men, girls, and boys at all levels?
   - Are there added risks by gender from age, class, status, race, caste, ethnicity or indigenous community?
   - What is the autonomy of women and men in dealing with risks?

6. **How will the project address the existing inequalities?**
   Analyze Project Response
   - How will the project ensure gender-responsive design, implementation and monitoring?
   - What are the entry points to ensure equal participation and benefits?
   - What measures can the project take to address relevant gender gaps/inequalities and to ensure that the project benefits both men and women?

Gender analysis generally consists of two parts:
- A desk study of legal, social and cultural frameworks; and
- A field study to identify gender roles, relations and possible inequalities related specifically to the targeted project or policy. The field study may include rapid assessments and scoping studies through surveys or participatory approaches like focused group discussion and use of exercises.

There are many frameworks developed over the years which can be used for gender analysis. A few of these are discussed in detail here.

**MOSER FRAMEWORK**

The Moser Framework developed by Caroline Moser in the early 1980s aims to make gender planning an independent exercise in its own right (March, Smyth and Mukhopadhyay 1999). The framework consisting of six tools is based on three fundamental concepts:
1. Identification of gender roles and women's triple burden (productive, reproductive and community works);
2. Practical needs and Strategic gender interests; and
3. Categories of Women in Development (WID) and Gender and Development (GAD) policy approaches.

As we discuss the various tools in brief, Figure 3-3 summarizes the step-by-step process of application and presentation of the Moser Framework-based gender analysis in CCDRR planning.
### TOOL 1: Gender Roles Identification/Women’s Triple Burden of Work

This tool helps identify women’s triple burden of work:

- **Reproductive roles** which involve caring and maintenance of the household and its members, including bearing and caring for children, preparing food, collecting water and fuel, cleaning and washing clothes, shopping and housekeeping and family healthcare.

- **Productive role** which involves production of goods and services for consumption and trade (in employment and in self-employment as well as in formal and informal sectors).

- **Community work** which includes the collective organization of social events and services – ceremonies and celebrations, activities to improve the community, participation in groups and organizations, local political activities, and others.

Women, men, boys and girls are all likely to take some part in each of these areas of work; but in most societies, men are much less likely to be involved in reproductive work. Furthermore, while both women and men can be involved in productive activities, but their functions and responsibilities often differ. Women’s productive work is often less visible and less valued than men’s work. Also, women are most likely to be involved in community management works like managing water resources, education and health care. On the other hand, men are more likely to participate and be in charge of community politics and formal decision-making processes.

### Steps to Map Gender Roles at Local Level

- Chart out the 24-hour daily routine in the life of a woman and man separately from the community you want to target.
- Ensure you ask what they do each hour and try to detail each activity.
- Classify each of these works into three categories: productive, reproductive, community.
- Add any other works which they do under any of the classifications.
- The output will help you identify women’s triple role.
- Comparison of women and men’s roles helps identify gender roles.

Source: Adapted from March, Smyth and Mukhopadhyay (1999).

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**TOOL 3: DISAGGREGATED CONTROL OF RESOURCES AND DECISION-MAKING WITHIN THE HOUSEHOLD**

- **Resources:**
  - Land
  - House
  - Cash Income
  - Food Stock
- **Control:**
  - Male
  - Male & Female
- **Decision-making:**
  - Male
  - Female

---

**TOOL 5: WID/GAD POLICY MATRIX**

- **Project Objectives:**
  - Empower women and girls to take charge of their lives, assets and resources required for their well being
  - Undertake activities which increase women’s income while reducing their drudgery/time poverty
  - Ensure women’s participation and leadership in all CCDRR activities

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**TOOL 4: PLANNING FOR BALANCING TRIPLE ROLES**

- Agricultural productivity enhancement techniques include small farm tools which help reduce women’s drudgery
- Increase in big livestock population is accompanied by sufficient fodder availability mechanisms
- Increase honorarium for primary health care volunteers

---

**TOOL 2: GENDER NEEDS ASSESSMENT**

- **Practical Needs:**
  - Food security
  - Water provision
  - Bio-gas system
  - Primary health care
  - Extension services for productivity
  - Fodder provision

---

**TOOL 6: INVOLVING WOMEN AND GENDER ORGANIZATIONS IN PLANNING**

- Women are part of all project planning, execution and decision-making committees
- Project team is gender balanced at all levels including senior management
TOOL 2: Gender Needs Assessment. The idea of women's practical and strategic interests was originally developed in the 1980s by Maxine Molyneux, and later by Caroline Moser.

A. Practical gender needs are those which, if they were met, would assist women in their current activities without challenging the existing gender division of labour. These include: i) Water provision; ii) Health-care provision; iii) Opportunities for earning an income to provide for the household; iv) Provision of housing and basic services; vi) Distribution of food; and others. These needs are shared by all household members, yet women often identify them as their specific needs because it is women who assume responsibility for meeting their families’ requirements.

B. Strategic gender interests are those which exist because of women's subordinate social status. If met, these would enable women to transform existing imbalances of power between women and men. These relate to gender divisions of labour, power and control, and may include such issues as legal rights, domestic violence, equal wages and women's control over their own bodies.

TOOL 3: Disaggregated control of resources and decision-making within the household. This tool links allocation of resources within the household (intra-household allocation) with the bargaining processes which determine this. Who has control over what resources within the household, and who has what power of decision-making?

TOOL 4: Planning for balancing triple roles. This tool looks at the impact of a project intervention on women's triple work burden. Sectoral planning frameworks, which concentrate only on one role, often tend to ignore the effect on women's other roles. Users of the framework are asked to examine, whether a planned programme or a project will increase a woman's workload in one of her roles, to the detriment of her other roles. For example, the provision of irrigation water will increase women's participation in agriculture activities while constraining the time available for domestic activities, or might increase the workload of fetching water due to diversion of fresh water from domestic use to irrigation.

TOOL 5: Distinguishing between different aims in intervention. This tool helps identify the approach that a project followed or will follow (if used for evaluation) by asking to what extent do different approaches meet practical and/or strategic gender needs.

Moser classified various policy approaches into five categories based on this:

1. **Welfare approach** which focuses on practical gender needs and sees women as passive beneficiaries of development interventions,

2. **Equity approach** which focuses on strategic gender interests and recognizes women as active participants in development,

3. **Anti-poverty approach** which focuses on practical gender needs and ensures that poor women move out of poverty by focusing on increasing their productivity,

4. **Efficiency approach** which recognizes all three roles but focuses on practical gender needs for harnessing women's economic contribution; and

5. **Empowerment approach** which focuses on strategic gender interests through supporting their own initiatives, thus fostering self-reliance. This approach recognizes women's subordination not only as a result of male oppression but also as a consequence of colonial and neo-colonial oppression.

TOOL 6: Involving women and gender-aware organizations and planners in planning. Finally, Moser's framework asks users to think about the importance of involving women, gender-aware organizations and planners themselves in planning. This should be at all levels – in planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation.

HARVARD ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

The Harvard Analytical Framework for gender analysis was developed in 1985 with an aim to demonstrate an economic case for allocating resources for women as well as men at a time when the efficiency approach was gaining prominence (March, Smyth and Mukhopadhyay 1999). The framework has four main components – three tools for gender analysis and a checklist to examine a project proposal or intervention from a gender perspective using gender-disaggregated data and capturing the different effects of social change on men and women. The three tools for gender analysis are discussed in brief herewith:

TOOL 1: The Activity Profile. This tool identifies all relevant productive and reproductive tasks and answers the question: who does what? How much detail you need depends on the nature of your project. It is advisable to add a time dimension – specifying what percentage of time is allocated to each activity, whether it is carried out seasonally or daily; or a skill and technology dimension – specifying whether the activity involves only manual labour, or specific skills and tools for undertaking. The analysis is presented in the following format (see Figure 3-4):
TOOL 2: Access and Control Profile (Resources and Benefits). This tool enables users to list what resources people use to carry out the tasks identified in the Activity Profile. It indicates whether women or men have access to resources, who controls their use and who controls the benefits of a household’s (or a community’s) use of resources. Access simply means that you are able to use a resource. The person who controls a resource is the one ultimately able to make decisions about its use, including whether it can be sold.

Source: Adapted from March, Smyth and Mukhopadhyay (1999).
**TOOL 3: Influencing Factors.** This tool helps chart factors which influence the differences in the gender division of labour, access and control as listed in the two Profiles (Tools 1 and 2). Influencing factors include all those that shape gender relations, and determine different opportunities and constraints for men and women. These factors are far-reaching, broad and interrelated. This tool is intended to help you identify external constraints and opportunities which you should consider in planning your development interventions.

![Figure 3-6: Template for Harvard Analytical Framework for Gender Analysis (Influencing Factors)](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFLUENCING FACTORS</th>
<th>CONSTRAINTS</th>
<th>OPPORTUNITIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Community norms and social hierarchy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Cultural practices and religious beliefs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Demographic factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Institutional structures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Economic factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Political factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Legal parameters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Training</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Attitude of community to development workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from March, Smyth and Mukhopadhyay (1999).

**STEP-BY-STEP PROCESS FOR HARVARD FRAMEWORK TOOLS 1 AND 2**

**TOOL 1. Activity Profile**
- Identify a key sector or programme activity that needs to be targeted (e.g., dairy farming).
- Identify the list of tasks that need to be undertaken for the activity/programme (e.g., chart the complete cycle of dairy farming from cattle purchase to milk sale and sale of redundant animals).
- For each of the tasks, identify who does most of the work.
- The ensuing list gives a clear picture of women's role in the sector and helps identify areas of intervention with women for their practical needs.

![Figure 3-7: A Sample for Dairy Activity in South Asia Context (Activity Profile)](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DAIRY ACTIVITY</th>
<th>MAJORITY OF THE WORK DONE BY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MALE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arranging loans for buying of animals</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buying of animals</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleaning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathing</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeding</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking cattle for grazing</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting fodder from the field</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buying fodder</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling of milk</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collecting money from selling milk</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insurance of animals</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availing veterinary services</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling of animals</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TOOL 2. Access and Control Profile

> Identify the list of tools, resources and decisions required for the activity above.

> Identify whether the access, control and ownership of these resources/decision is with men and/or women.

> This helps you identify the position of women in the sector.

> Identify activities which would help change this position – these are women’s strategic needs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOOLS/RESOURCES/DECISIONS REQUIRED</th>
<th>ACCESS</th>
<th>CONTROL/OWNERSHIP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tools and Resources:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credit for cattle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cattle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cattleshed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veterinary services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insemination services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fodder availability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grazing lands / common plots</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extension services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milk cooperative membership</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milk cooperative position holder</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milk cooperative union (district-level) membership</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Decisions Required:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which cattle breed to purchase</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of cattle to keep</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disposal of non-milch cattle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of grazing land</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fodder production in own field</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When to call the veterinarian vs local treatment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling of calves/cattle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much milk to sell vs how much to keep for home consumption</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 3-8: A SAMPLE FOR DAIRY ACTIVITY IN SOUTH ASIA CONTEXT (Access and Control)
GENDER ANALYSIS MATRIX

The Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM) was developed by Rani Parker in 1993 to find out the different impacts of development interventions on women and men by providing a community-based technique for the identification and analysis of gender differences (March, Smyth and Mukhopadhyay 1999; Parker 1993). It also assists the community to identify and challenge their assumptions about gender roles in a constructive manner. The analysis is conducted at four levels of society: women, men, household and community. The GAM examines impact on four areas: labour, time, resources and socio-cultural factors. The GAM features these two main concepts on a matrix which focuses on the impact of the proposed development intervention.

GAM TOOL 1: Analysis at Four ‘Levels’ of Society.
GAM allows analysis of an intervention at four levels: men, women, households and community. The levels of analysis appear vertically on the matrix:

- **Men**: Represent men of all ages who are in the target group or all men in the community.
- **Women**: Represent women of all ages who are in the target group or all women in the community.
- **Household**: Represents all women, men and children living under one roof (or extended family) as defined within the culture.
- **Community**: Represents everyone in the community.

It is also important for the facilitator to account for age group, class, ethnic composition, social system (caste) and other important variables in the community.

GAM TOOL 2: Impact Analysis.
GAM examines impact on four areas, which appear horizontally on the matrix:

- **Labour**: Captures changes in tasks (Do women take over men’s tasks in the field?), the level of skill (formal education, training) required, the number of people involved in this activity and the demand for additional labour.

- **Time**: Captures changes in time requirements to complete specific tasks.

- **Resources**: Capture changes in access to resources (income, land, extension information) and the extent of control over resources (increase or decrease) as a result of an intervention.

- **Socio-Cultural Factors**: Capture changes in gender roles or status as a result of an intervention. Note any cultural barriers to using the proposed intervention.
The GAM is proposed to be used with groups of community members (with adequate representation across genders and social groups), facilitated by a development worker. When the GAM is filled in, the group discusses the findings by asking the following questions:

- Are the effects listed on the GAM desirable? Are they consistent with the programme's goals?
- How is the intervention affecting those who do not participate?
- Which results are unexpected? (These will appear on GAMs filled in during and after implementation.)

After the boxes have been filled in with the changes brought about by the project, group members should go back to the matrix and add the following:

- a plus sign (+) if the outcome is consistent with project goals;
- a minus sign (−) if the outcome is contrary to project goals;
- a question mark (?) if they are unsure whether it is consistent or contrary.

These signs are intended to give a picture of the different effects of the intervention; they are not intended to be added up in an effort to determine its net effect.

Drawing on this tool, the World Health Organization (WHO 2011) developed the GAM for health. The GAM for health has biological factors and various mechanisms of gender-based oppression as columns and various health-related outcomes as rows.

Each cell in the matrix represents a query about the impact of biology or gender on a health-related outcome. For example, the second cell on the first row, the intersection of sociological factors and risk factors and vulnerability, represents the question: Are risk factors and vulnerability to this particular health condition influenced by gender roles and norms or gender-based division of labour? Suppose we are conducting this gender analysis with reference to road traffic accidents. Then we would look for evidence to this effect and find that men are at greater risk, because of the identification of masculinity with risky behaviours on the road, and because men are more likely to be drivers because of gender-based division of labour.
**DISCUSSION POINT**

Ask the participants what they think are the potential advantages and disadvantages of Moser and Harvard Frameworks and GAM.

**FIGURE 3-11: FACILITATOR CLUES – MERITS, LIMITATIONS AND POTENTIAL USES OF MOSER AND HARVARD FRAMEWORKS, AND GAM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MERITS</th>
<th>LIMITATIONS</th>
<th>POTENTIAL USES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **MOSER**      | > Effective for groups which do not have a very sound understanding of the local situation, especially women’s roles.  
> Useful as a participatory tool for helping women and men identify their own needs.  
> Provides local information and hence local-level planning is possible—provides counter argument for the theory that things have changed. | > Requires field work and hence may not always interest government officials.  
> Inherent biases or “I know everything” approach hinders quality analysis.  
> Tool 1 only helps identify activities for practical needs. The tools for strategic needs are too complicated for non-gender activists. | > For overall gender analysis.  
> For sensitization and training.  
> To highlight women’s unpaid role.  
> To highlight women’s reproductive roles and the need for inclusion of the same in planning. |
| **HARVARD**    | > Makes women’s work visible.  
> Programmatic application and focus keeps it interesting for implementers.  
> Once identified for a particular sector in a given region, can become a project document for general use rather than redoing the same every time.  
> Helps identify entry points from an efficiency perspective and therefore can have quick buy-in for resource allocation.  
> Focuses on practical and strategic needs.  
> Can also be used for evaluation of projects. | > Seems complicated at first glance.  
> Requires high amount of facilitation to identify who actually does what—often the answer is both.  
> While it does give a picture of strategic needs, it does not give the reasons.  
> More based on efficiency approach rather than empowerment. | > For sectoral analysis – Agriculture, Water Management, Health, etc.  
> Helps highlight women’s roles within a specific activity.  
> Can help improve efficiency and identify role of women as agents of change within the sector. |
| **GAM**        | > Simple and systematic; uses familiar concepts.  
> Encourages “bottom-up analysis” through community participation.  
> Transformatory and technical in its approach, combining awareness-raising about gender inequalities with development of practical skills.  
> Includes men as a category and therefore can be used in interventions that target men. | > A good facilitator is necessary.  
> The analysis must be repeated in order to capture changes over time.  
> The GAM does not make explicit which women and which men are most likely to experience positive or negative impacts.  
> It does not include either macro or institutional analysis.  
> More useful as an ongoing learning tool. | > Project-based application.  
> More for sectoral use in agriculture (food security), health and nutrition.  
> When needed to be used by grassroots community-based workers. |
Vulnerability Assessments are a critical step in all climate change and disaster risk reduction planning. It is very important to undertake gender-aware vulnerability assessments to inform policymakers about the needs of the targeted population, and what policy interventions are likely to be more effective in helping both men and women to better adapt to climate change (Care International 2014). There are a number of gender-aware vulnerability assessment tools developed. Most of these are built upon the information collected during the gender analysis phase using different tools and frameworks and provide an approach to link these with climate change and disaster-related vulnerabilities. Table 3-1 brings together the various gender and vulnerability assessment tools, with a quick reflection on their purpose and when would it be most relevant for CSOs.

### Gender-Aware Vulnerability Assessment Tools

Vulnerability Assessments are a critical step in all climate change and disaster risk reduction planning. It is very important to undertake gender-aware vulnerability assessments to inform policymakers about the needs of the targeted population, and what policy interventions are likely to be more effective in helping both men and women to better adapt to climate change (Care International 2014). There are a number of gender-aware vulnerability assessment tools developed. Most of these are built upon the information collected during the gender analysis phase using different tools and frameworks and provide an approach to link these with climate change and disaster-related vulnerabilities. Table 3-1 brings together the various gender and vulnerability assessment tools, with a quick reflection on their purpose and when would it be most relevant for CSOs.

### Table 3-1: Overview of Gender and Vulnerability Assessment Tools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOOLS</th>
<th>KEY PURPOSE</th>
<th>POSSIBLE USAGE BY CSOs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **CAPACITY AND VULNERABILITY ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK** | > Designed especially for humanitarian interventions and disaster preparedness.  
> Helps outside agencies plan aid in emergencies in a way that interventions help meet immediate needs as well as strengthen local efforts and support long-term socio-economic development. | > Disaster relief work for provision of emergency food, clothes, household items, water, sanitation and health support  
> Designing of rehabilitation programmes especially livelihood restoration  
> More suited for project planners and implementers. |
| **GENDER-AWARE VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT**    | > Designed to map the contextual vulnerability and capacities to adapt to climate change specially to generate an understanding of how the climate is and will continue to be impacting the lives of vulnerable people. | > Ideal starting point for community-based adaptation and development programming that consider climate change and natural disasters.  
> For assessing community knowledge on climate change  
> More suited for project planners and implementors as well as for research and policy influencing where SADDD is available. |
| **WOMEN’S RESILIENCE INDEX**                | > An interactive web tool providing the status of Women’s Resilience for select countries in South Asia. Builds on a set of indicators and database to provide a resilience score. | > Useful for quantitative assessments and for highlighting spatial/regional vulnerabilities.  
> More suited for research and policy influencing. |
| **RAPID GENDER ASSESSMENT FOR CRISIS**       | > Shortcut to a detailed gender analysis in emergency situations.           | > Immediate post-disaster situation and pandemic assessments. More suited for project planners and implementors. |
| **SECTORAL SCOPEING STUDIES**               | > Using mixed-method research design for analysis within sectors.           | > Providing inputs in National (Sectoral) Adaptation Plans and to influence sectoral budgets.  
> More suited for research and policy influencing. |
| **LEAVE NO ONE BEHIND ASSESSMENT**          | > A set of five steps for LNOB analysis, action, monitoring, accountability and meaningful participation as applicable in the context of UN System. | > Useful to incorporate within existing assessment tools in the form of guiding questions to ensure that all genders and vulnerable groups are considered. |
CAPACITY AND VULNERABILITY ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK

Capacities and Vulnerabilities Assessment Framework (CVA) (UNDP 2017b) is designed on the premise that people’s existing strengths (or capacities) and weaknesses (or vulnerabilities) determine the impact that a crisis has on them, and the way they respond to the crisis. It is specifically useful for disaster risk reduction planning. The CVA distinguishes between three categories of capacities and vulnerabilities, using the following analysis matrix shown in Table 3-2.

### Table 3-2: CVA Matrix – Key Questions and Gender Analysis Methods/Tools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THREE CATEGORIES OF VULNERABILITIES AND CAPACITIES</th>
<th>VULNERABILITIES*</th>
<th>CAPACITIES**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MEN</td>
<td>WOMEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MEN</td>
<td>WOMEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical or Material</strong> (include features of the climate, land and environment where people live or lived before the crisis; their health, skills, their work, their housing, technologies, water and food supply, their access to capital and other assets):**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key Questions to consider:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What were/are/could be the ways in which men and women in the community were / are / could be physically or materially vulnerable?</td>
<td>E.g.: Fishing on high seas</td>
<td>E.g.: Knowledge of flood-resistant varieties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What productive resources, skills and hazards existed/exist/could exist?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Who (men and/or women, which men and which women) had/have/could have control over these resources?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social or Organizational</strong> (include family and community systems, and the formal political structure and the informal systems through which people make decisions, establish leadership or organize various social and economic activities):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key Questions to consider:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What was the social structure of the community before the disaster, and how did it serve them in the face of this disaster?</td>
<td>E.g.: Out migration for work</td>
<td>E.g.: Limited information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What was the impact of the disaster on social organization?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What might be the effect on social structures and systems of future disasters?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What is the level and quality of participation in these structures?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivational and Attitudinal</strong> (include cultural and psychological factors which may be based on religion, on the community’s history of crisis, on their expectation of emergency relief):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key Questions to consider:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How do men and women in the community view themselves, and their ability to deal effectively with their social/political environment?</td>
<td>E.g.: Risk-taking behaviour</td>
<td>E.g.: Credit access</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What were people’s beliefs and motivations before the disaster and how did the disaster affect them? This includes beliefs about gender roles and relations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Do people feel they have the ability to shape their lives?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Do men and women feel they have the same ability?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* This term refers to the long-term factors which weaken people’s ability to cope with the sudden onset of disaster or drawn out emergencies. They also make people more susceptible to disasters. Vulnerabilities exist before disasters, contribute to their severity, make effective disaster response more difficult and continue after the disaster.

** This term refers to the existing strengths of individuals and social groups. They are related to people’s material and physical resources, their social resources, and their belief and attitudes. Capacities are built over time and determine people’s ability to cope with crisis and recover from it.

Source: UNDP (2017b).
A gendered CVA matrix enables the analyst to ‘map’ a complex real situation and to highlight the relationships between different factors. It goes beyond the material, and encourages the examination of social interactions within a community (e.g., social cohesion and leadership) and the psychological realm (e.g., loss of hope in the future).

The CVA is flexible and can be used before, during or after a disaster or intervention. It is not short-term, thereby encouraging a long-term perspective by highlighting how necessary it is to reduce vulnerabilities and strengthen capacities.

Ask the participants how they will generate information on the above categories.

Facilitator Clues
Some of the tools which they can use for the analysis include:

- Physical – Activity Profile, Access and Control Profile
- Social – Stakeholder Analysis, Institutional Mapping
- Motivational – Observation, Open Interviews and Focus Group Discussions

GENDER-AWARE CLIMATE VULNERABILITY AND CAPACITY ASSESSMENT

A gender-aware climate vulnerability and capacity assessment (GCVCA) practitioners’ guidebook (Care International 2014) provides a framework for analyzing vulnerability and capacity to adapt to climate change and build resilience to disasters at the community level, with particular focus on social and gender dynamics. The GCVCA process uses a series of guiding questions to analyze information on climate change, disaster risk and vulnerability at national, local government/community and household/individual levels. It can be conducted using participatory tools and secondary research for policy analysis. There are seven key steps in designing a GCVCA as shown in Figure 3-12.

The key guide questions for GCVCA at the local level and the possible tools which can provide the data are highlighted in Table 3-3.

**FIGURE 3-12: GCVCA SCHEMATIC SEVEN STEPS**

1. Decide on the questions that you want to answer in your CVCA
2. Decide what data you need to answer those questions
3. Check if there is already data to answer those questions
4. Select appropriate tools to yield that data
5. Compiling and analyzing the data
6. Validating the data
7. Documenting and disseminating

Revisit Step 1 if necessary

Source: Care International (2014).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>PURPOSE</th>
<th>QUESTIONS</th>
<th>TOOLS FOR DATA COLLECTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Broader Context | A1. Climate and Disasters Context | > What weather extremes (temperatures, precipitation, cyclones, floods, droughts, and others) are considered normal? Have these changed?  
> What changes in the climate and weather have people observed over decades and over recent years?  
> Which hazards occur in the area; when, how often and how strong are they? Have changes been observed in the occurrence of these hazards (frequency, intensity and others)? | > Seasonal calendar  
> Historical timeline  
> Focus group discussion  
> Community Problem Ranking |
| A. ESSENTIALS | A2. Social Context | > What are the most important livelihood resources to different groups within the community?  
> Who are the better off and worse off in the community? Who are the different wealth groups? Different ethnic and religious groups? What do they do (main livelihood) and own, how do they live? | > Resource map  
> Community Problem Ranking |
| Underlying Causes of Vulnerability | B1. Access to and Control Over Assets and Services | > Which assets (e.g., land, sea, rivers, other natural resources, livestock and others) and services are key for the ability of men and women to buffer shocks and adapt to changes? What degree of access to and control (e.g., decision-making power) over these do they have?  
> Which of these assets and services come under most stress from climate variability and disasters?  
> How have gender inequalities in access to and control over these assets and services changed in the past or are currently changing? Why? | > Resource map  
> Focus group discussion  
> Venn diagram  
> Community Problem Ranking |
| B. RECOMMENDED FOCUS | B2. Decision-Making and Participation | > How do local planning processes work? Who is involved in, or influences decisions at, the community level? Whose interests are represented externally, e.g., towards local government?  
> In what ways do women and men participate or make sure their interests are represented in local decision-making?  
> When climate variability and change affect people’s lives and livelihoods, who makes decisions over changes in resource distribution and practices?  
> Who tends to benefit from these decisions, and who does not?  
> Who influences and decides how natural resources such as land and water are allocated? | > Resource map  
> Focus group discussion  
> Venn diagram  
> Community Problem Ranking |

Table 3-3 Source: Care International (2014).
### TABLE 3-3: KEY GUIDE QUESTIONS FOR GCVCA AT THE LOCAL LEVEL
AND THE POSSIBLE TOOLS FOR DATA COLLECTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Tools for Data Collection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Underlying Causes of Vulnerability |                                      | > Who (women, men, boys, girls in what circumstances) is allowed or expected to do certain types of work, complete certain tasks?  
> What specific sets of opportunities, constraints and status do these specific types of work and duties mean for individuals of different gender and age groups? How much time do women, men, boys and girls spend engaging in these different duties?  
> How have labour division and time use changed over time, and why? What happens to people’s roles and time use under changing climatic circumstances; for example, when floods and droughts become more frequent and intense? | > Seasonal calendar  
> Focus group discussion  
> Venn diagram  
> Community Problem Ranking |
| B. Recommended Focus   | B3. Division of Labour, Use of Time | > To which degree are women, men, boys and girls in control over their own bodies and sexuality, decisions on marriage, family planning and freedom from abuse and exploitation?  
> What factors affect decisions over marital status, marital partner or family planning?  
> What threats jeopardise women’s, men’s, boys’ or girls’ control over their bodies? What factors drive these risks?  
> Have there been any changes in these dynamics, and why?  
> What impacts do climate variability and disasters have on this or how is climate change and disasters influencing women and girls’ control over their own bodies? | > Focus group discussion  
> Community Problem Ranking |
|                        | B4. Control Over One’s Body          | > Which livelihoods are most vulnerable to climate variability and disasters?  
> How are they affected by them? Whose livelihoods are they (women or men, young or older, married or unmarried, others)? Which livelihoods are least affected, and why?  
> How are the livelihood strategies of women and men at different stages in their lives (adolescent/adult/elderly, unmarried/married/divorced/widowed/others) evolved? Who is changing them and why? Are men and women adapting differently? How are female-headed households adapting? Do households (male-headed and female-headed) have diversified livelihood strategies? Does this include non-natural resource-based nonfarm strategies? Do livelihood strategies involve working away from the community? If so, who does that and when, for how long and with what effect, on whom? | > Resource map  
> Seasonal calendar  
> Historical timeline  
> Community Problem Ranking |
|                        | C1. Livelihoods                      | > What strategies are currently employed to deal with shocks and stresses to the livelihoods of women and men?  
> How are women and men in different social situations managing risk, planning for and investing in the future? Who generates and who makes use of climate information for planning?  
> Are women- and men-headed households employing climate-resilient agricultural practices? If so, which households do so (socio-economic situation, male- or female-headed households, others)? And with what effect, on whom? | > Seasonal calendar  
> Community Problem Ranking |
<p>|                        | C2. Coping and Adaptive Strategies   |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |                                                  |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>PURPOSE</th>
<th>QUESTIONS</th>
<th>TOOLS FOR DATA COLLECTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|       | C3. Hazards and Changes | > What are the most important climate-related hazards and other hazards that the region and/or ecological zone faces? How have these hazards changed in recent decades and years, and how are they currently changing?  
> How do they affect different groups within the community, which groups are most vulnerable to which hazards and why? Within each group, how are women affected by these hazards and how are men affected? Why? | > Resource map  
> Seasonal calendar  
> Historical timeline  
> Community Problem Ranking |
|       | C4. Disaster Risk Information | > What disaster risk information do local institutions, men, women, boys and girls have access to and how useful is it?  
> What early warning systems are in place and how well are they working? Who (among women, men, boys and girls in different social situations) has access to them and makes use of these, and who does not? | > Historical timeline  
> Venn diagram  
> Community Problem Ranking |
|       | C5. Response and Risk Management Strategies | > How do women, men, boys, girls protect themselves and their assets in the event of a disaster?  
> Who has protected reserves of food and agricultural inputs, secure shelter and mobility to escape danger, and who does not? Who can seek support? | > Seasonal calendar  
> Historical timeline  
> Venn diagram  
> Community Problem Ranking |
| Local and Community Capacity |       |                     |                     |
|       | C6. Aspirations for Oneself and Strategic Interest | > What are the aspirations that men, women, boys and girls articulate for themselves, or for future generations?  
> What are the changes that they are hoping to see around themselves to make these aspirations possible – in terms of services and resources available, social rules, the natural environment or security issues?  
> To which degree do men, women, boys and girls feel in control over their fate and future, make plans and set priorities? To which degree do they feel able to face the changes in the context of broader trends they are seeing? | > Historical timeline  
> Venn diagram  
> Community Problem Ranking |
|       | C7. Knowledge, Information and Innovation | > What distinct knowledge do women and men hold in their livelihood activities? What knowledge do they hold of expected future changes?  
> Who has the knowledge, skills and resources to employ innovative strategies to support adaptation?  
> What innovative strategies are available to women and men to adapt to changes in the climate and disasters context? Who can take advantage of them and who receives institutional support to do so, and who does not? Who makes decisions on innovations? | > Seasonal calendar  
> Historical timeline  
> Venn diagram  
> Community Problem Ranking |
|       | C8. Flexible and Forward-Looking Decision-Making | > How are predictions made about the future when, for example, deciding which crops to plant or when to sell seeds, yields, animals or other assets?  
> Among women and men in the community, who makes these predictions and whose opinions are considered in these decisions?  
> What weather and climate forecasting information is available? How are they disseminated to women, men, girls and boys in different social settings? Among them, who has best access to it? Who makes use of it and who does not? |
VULNERABILITY REDUCTION ASSESSMENT TOOL

The (VRA) approach is a participatory tool used by UNDP-GEF for Community-Based Adaptation (CBA) programmes (Vincent, et al. 2010). It is designed to measure the changing climate vulnerabilities of communities, and to be comparable across vastly different projects, regions, and contexts, making it possible to determine if a given project is successful or unsuccessful in reducing risks. The VRA is based on a composite of four indicator questions for each Adaptation Policy Framework (APF) step, tailored to capture locally-relevant issues that are at the heart of understanding vulnerability to climate change. Questions are posed during a series of three to four community-level meetings over the period of a CBA project. Responses to the questions take the form of a numerical score, provided by the respondents during these community meetings. The four VRA indicators, corresponding example questions and a gender element are outlined here.

Repeated evaluations of community perceptions of project effectiveness and climate change risks permit an indication of the relative change in vulnerability. This is assessed through the degree of change in the VRA scores relative to baseline values established prior to the commencement of project activities. The VRA’s perception-based approach is a key compliment to quantitative indicators that are also used to measure project results.

### FIGURE 3-13: INCORPORATING GENDER IN THE UNDP VULNERABILITY TOOL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AFP STEP</th>
<th>VRA INDICATOR</th>
<th>VRA QUESTION (examples as applicable to increasing drought risk)</th>
<th>ADDING A GENDER ELEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASSESSING CURRENT VULNERABILITY</td>
<td>Vulnerability of livelihoods/welfare to existing climate change and/or climate variability.</td>
<td>What happens when there is drought?</td>
<td>Are there differences between men's and women's experiences of drought? Why and how?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASSESSING FUTURE CLIMATE RISKS</td>
<td>Vulnerability of livelihood/welfare to developing climate change risks.</td>
<td>What would happen if drought were twice as frequent?</td>
<td>Would this affect men and women differently? If so, how?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORMULATING AN ADAPTION STRATEGY</td>
<td>Magnitude of barriers (institutional, policy, technological, financial, etc.) to adaptation.</td>
<td>What stands in the way of adapting to increasing drought? What means are available to manage events occurring more frequently?</td>
<td>What are the different obstacles to men and women in adapting to increasing drought? Will increasing drought increase the relative vulnerability of men and women?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTINUING THE ADAPTION PROCESS</td>
<td>Assets available to community for adaptation (volunteers, skills, commitment, indigenous knowledge, community leadership, etc.).</td>
<td>What assets are available to assist adaptation to climate change? Who has (or needs) access to these assets?</td>
<td>How many women and men will be involved in the proposed project? What specific skills/knowledge do women and men have? How much time do women and men have to contribute each week? What might stop women and men from being able to volunteer their time?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ability and willingness of the community to sustain the project intervention.</td>
<td>Rate your confidence that the project activity will continue after the project period.</td>
<td>How can the likelihood of continued project activity be improved by addressing men's and women's needs (both common and differentiated?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WOMEN’S RESILIENCE INDEX

ActionAid developed a Women's Resilience Measurement Toolkit (The Economist Intelligence Unit 2014) aimed at scoring the gender-sensitive resilience of local communities. It uses four categories (see below) with a set of 36 indicators to assess different aspects of people's resilience at the community level, in the context of South Asia. The toolkit consists of a detailed questionnaire based on these indicators, which need to be administered to an equal number of women and men for each indicator.

Data collected from these questionnaires is entered into a spreadsheet which then calculates an unweighted index score. There is also an option of adding weights to the score, if required. This result is two resilience scores: one for women and one for men, which can then be compared to demonstrate any inequalities that exist. The resilience scores are also accompanied by focus group discussions and key informant interviews to provide qualitative analysis. The result is presented in the form of a radar chart that is automatically created (see Figure 3-14).

FIGURE 3-14: WOMEN’S RESILIENCE FOR SELECT COUNTRIES IN SOUTH ASIA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESILIENCE INDEX</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ECONOMIC</td>
<td>Access and control of economic resources makes it easier for people to prepare for and respond to disasters. This category considers the overall economic strength of households, the availability of personal finance and opportunities to access financial instruments. Key indicators in this category also measure people's access to, and control over, natural resources and livestock to support their livelihood options, as well as their engagement in small- and medium-sized business enterprises.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INFRASTRUCTURE</td>
<td>Reliable infrastructure ensures communities can reduce the initial effects of a disaster, minimize structural damage and allow for evacuation. Thereafter, good infrastructure enables faster recovery. Key indicators in this category measure the extensiveness and reliability of infrastructure for people to access basic services (i.e. safe locations, housing, clean water and sanitation, transport, power and communications technology); and whether there is a functioning early warning system (EWS).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCIAL</td>
<td>Human resources (e.g. people's health status and educational attainment) and social resources (e.g. being able to rely on support from household members or neighbours and belonging to community or religious groups) are critical to the resilience of people in terms of being able to prepare for, cope with and respond to disasters. Key indicators in this category also assess how people's resilience is influenced by migration patterns, the prevalence of gender-based violence and the level of personal disaster preparedness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTITUTIONAL</td>
<td>This category examines the extent to which people are participating in and leading decision-making processes and whether their perspectives are accounted for by public institutions. Key indicators in this category also measure how effective the government is in the implementation of disaster management plans and activities and whether people trust local government and the media to reflect and respond to their needs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Snapshot from an interactive webtool providing the status of Women’s Resilience for select countries in South Asia available at http://actionforglobaljustice.actionaid.org/womens-resilience-index/index_m.html.
RAPID GENDER ASSESSMENT FOR CRISIS

While a detailed gender analysis is always more effective and desirable, it may not always be possible in crisis or emergency situations especially after a disaster. In such a scenario, rapid gender assessment needs to be undertaken and produced as a brief template to ensure that all relief and rehabilitation measures take into account the concerns of women and those with other gender identities.

Such a rapid gender assessment should include information on gender roles and responsibilities, capacities and vulnerabilities, together with programming recommendations. They build up progressively, using a range of primary and secondary information to understand gender roles and relations and how these may change during a crisis (Care International 2012). The Care rapid gender assessment toolkit highlights five stages of analysis with the key principles to ensure that the differential needs of all genders and social groups are met while ensuring that we "do no harm." The five stages and key steps in each of the stage are brought together in the framework seen in Table 3-4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGES</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>KEY QUESTIONS/POINTERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. FIND available data that are disaggregated by sex and age, and existing analysis on gender relations. | Find a good mix of primary and secondary background information and qualitative and quantitative data on what gender relations were like before the emergency. This information should be drawn together as part of Emergency Preparedness Planning as a country-specific Gender in Brief. | > How many women, men and LGBTQI+ people were there in the population before the crisis?  
> What was the number of elderly, (dis)abled and children?  
> What was the average household size?  
> What were relations like between women, men, boys and girls before the emergency?  
> What social/cultural structures does the community use to make decisions?  
> How do women and men participate in these?  
> What is the role of religious and cultural practices, beliefs and institutions in the community?  
> How do they affect gender roles? |
| 2. COLLECT additional data by sex and age through gender assessments. | Collect information from review or sector assessments. Find out what types of sector programming is planned, and see if there is any previous development programming that can be drawn on or linked to. Review online and print media sources to understand the trends even if it may not be very gender-specific. Undertake key informant interviews and focus group discussions to understand existing gender relations and how it may have affected women and people with other gender identities. Individual research methods can include: i) Online survey via various technology and social media platforms; ii) Semi-structured in-person/phone interview with key informants at the local level; and iii) Semi-structured in-person/phone interview with key informants from vulnerable groups. | For Community and Stakeholder Discussions:  
> Ask who was affected, including deaths, injuries, displacement.  
> What was the loss to livelihoods, assets and infrastructure, especially basic infrastructure services like water, sanitation and health?  
> Ask what types of relief measures were being provided and who were receiving services.  
For Household Surveys:  
> Ask for the type of relief services that they have received.  
> Who is in the frontline of receiving these services?  
> Ask the key problems that they face which are threatening their survival.  
> Ask the people what are their immediate needs and concerns.  
> Ask what they require to continue with their lives.  
> Ask about traditional gender roles and how they have been affected due to the crisis. Ask if workload increased or is shared.  
> Ask about gender relations and how things have changed since the crisis.  
> Ask women for information separately from men, and girls separately from boys. As far as possible, all additional information should include Sex, Age and Disability Disaggregated Data (SADD) |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGES</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>KEY QUESTIONS/POINTERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 3. ANALYZE | Gender analysis in emergencies analyzes the impact of the crisis on women, men, girls and boys. It compares how gender issues were prior to the crisis with how gender issues have changed since the crisis began or the program started. | > List the distinct capacities, needs and preferences of women, men, girls and boys. Are they the same since before the crisis or have they changed?  
> List the pertinent roles and responsibilities for women, men, girls and boys. Is there a fair workload distribution? How does the distribution affect their respective rights for growth and opportunities? Who makes decisions about the use of the resources? Are needs equitably met?  
> List the dynamics between women, men, girls and boys. How do women and men help or hinder each other to meet their needs and rights? Who perpetrate violence against whom? What types of violence occur? What roles do the community and institutions play in meeting needs and rights, as well as addressing and preventing violence?  
> What are the vulnerabilities women and the most marginalized group of people face due to the disaster? What are the impacts do the disaster have in their regular livelihoods, including Gender-Based Violence (GBV), protection, Sexual and Reproductive Health Rights (SRHR), Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH), shelter centres, access to the relief? |
| sex, age and disability disaggregated data by comparing existing information with the results of the gender assessments | A critical part of any RGA is the program and organization recommendations that come from an analysis of the collected information. Provide clear recommendations to improve or address some of the problems or gaps identified in the analysis of the different needs, capacities and contributions of women, men, boys and girls. Remember that the purpose of collecting this information is to improve your response effort (and potentially those of your partners as well). Make sure that the recommendations are practical and easily accessible to colleagues who are not gender specialists. | > How has the emergency affected the community? Are women, men, boys and girls affected differently?  
> How should programs be adapted to meet the different needs of women, men, boys and girls?  
> What targeted programs are needed to make sure that women, men, boys and girls all have access to assistance, and are able to meet their needs?  
> What specific risks did the emergency cause?  
> What are the key indicators that need to be monitored during the relief and rehabilitation work?  
> Who should lead the Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) plan? How should this be carried out?  
> What additional information do you need to continue your rapid gender analysis?  
> Recommendations need to be focused on the gender-specific vulnerabilities that arise from the disaster. |
| 4. WRITE | After gathering data, this information can be presented using the RGA Template. | |
| a practical recommendation for humanitarian action based on the analysis |  |
| 5. SHARE |  |
| Rapid Gender Analysis with other actors |  |
| Other actors |  |

Source: Adapted from Care International (2012).
SECTORAL SCOPING STUDIES

Scoping studies are usually sectoral in nature and help create knowledge and awareness on the impact of climate change on within a specific sector or area of concern. They are a good entry point for understanding the gender roles, responsibilities and relations within the sector, and how these will be impacted by climate change. The studies involve using mixed-method research design, which involves both quantitative and qualitative methods using primary and secondary data. Table 3-5 brings together the various steps and methods employed in scoping studies and how gender can be integrated into the same.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 3-5: STEPS AND METHODS EMPLOYED IN SECTORAL SCOPING STUDIES AND INTEGRATING GENDER IN THEM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>STEP/METHOD</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELECTION OF STUDY TOPIC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QUANTITATIVE METHODS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QUALITATIVE METHODS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PARTICIPATORY METHODOLOGY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DATA PRESENTATION</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LEAVE NO ONE BEHIND ASSESSMENT

Operationalizing LNOB (UNSDG 2019) presents a methodology with a set of five steps for LNOB analysis, action, monitoring, accountability and meaningful participation as applicable in the context of UN System. Applied with a gender perspective, however, it can be a very useful tool for women's organization to ensure that within women, the most vulnerable sections and communities are included. The key steps of an LNOB approach are:

**STEP 1: Who is being left behind? Gathering the evidence.**
- Identify who is being left behind and in what ways, and who among them is likely the furthest behind.
- To this end, the organization should gather and analyze all data and information, revealing gaps and trends in implementation between sub-populations and/or geographic localities.
- Seek diverse feedback and input from stakeholders, including groups and populations left behind.

**STEP 2: Why? Prioritization and analysis.**
- Conduct a root cause analysis to enable responses to the root and underlying causes of inequalities, including gender inequalities, vulnerability, deprivation, discrimination, displacement and exclusion.
- Conduct a role pattern analysis to map who are the duty-bearers who are responsible for taking action.
- Conduct a capacity gap analysis to understand what gaps prevent duty-bearers from fulfilling their duties; what prevents right holders from claiming their rights and what is required for both of them to take action.

**STEP 3: What? What should be done?**
- Identify what should be done and by whom.
- Identify actions and interventions to address challenges, barriers and capacity gaps. Possible areas include: i) advocacy; ii) enabling environment; iii) capacity development and supporting civil society; iv) community empowerment; v) quality and accessibility of services; and vi) partnerships including civil society.
- Prioritize actions, taking into account the commitment to address the furthest behind first.

**STEP 4: How? How to measure and monitor progress?**
- Help identify and contextualize LNOB indicators and targets.
- Employ innovative ways of tracking, visualizing and sharing information.

**STEP 5: Advancing accountability for LNOB**
- Support national accountability to people left behind by advocating for disaggregated data to be collected and reported in all national communications related to climate change, human rights, gender equality and SDGs.

Gender-Responsive Planning, Project Preparation and Design

It is important to ensure that the findings of gender analysis are visible in the project implementation plan. The project formulation process should logically follow as a way of addressing the identified problem by defining the project goals and objectives, outcomes, activities and budgets. In order to ensure that these are gendered, the following questions need to be asked (Vincent, et al. 2010):

- What is the current situation of men and women in the sector of your planned intervention?
- Will the proposed project contribute to existing inequalities among men and women?
- Does the proposed project break down or challenge existing inequalities among men and women?
- Will the proposed project change the perceptions or stereotypes about men and women and their roles in any way?
- What options should be considered to strengthen a gender perspective?
- Will the proposed project contribute to women’s empowerment? If not, is there a place for an allied intervention that will contribute to empowerment, so as not to reinforce the disparity between men and women?

There are two specific gender analytical tools which can help better articulate the above: i) Gender-Responsive Assessment Scale; and ii) The Causes, Consequences and Solutions Framework.

Project development is a highly context-specific process. However, there are some action domains that can be considered an integral part of all project formulations (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015). These include actions that:

- provide equal access to and control over resources and information, such as gender- and age-appropriate training and communication material;
- give equal voice and representation in decision-making, such as quotas for women in community resource management groups;
> reduce women’s workload, such as introducing labour-saving technologies and tools; and
> engage at policy level, such as review of the existing sectorial policies to identify entry points for women’s empowerment.

### GENDER-RESPONSIVE ASSESSMENT SCALE

The WHO’s Gender-Responsive Assessment Scale (GRAS) (WHO 2011) provides criteria for assessing levels of gender-responsiveness. Drawing on Kabeer’s concepts related to gender sensitivity of policies and programmes, the scale categorizes policies and programmes into five levels, ranging from gender-unequal to gender-transformative, as shown in Figure 3-15.

#### FIGURE 3-15: GENDER-RESPONSIVENESS ASSESSMENT SCALE

| LEVEL 1: GENDER-UNEQUAL | > Perpetuates gender inequality by reinforcing unbalanced norms, roles and relations  
| | > Privileges men over women (or vice versa)  
| | > Often leads to one sex enjoying more rights or opportunities than the other |
| LEVEL 2: GENDER-BLIND | > Ignores gender norms, roles and relations  
| | > Very often reinforces gender-based discrimination  
| | > Ignores differences in opportunities and resource allocation for men and women  
| | > Often constructed based on the principle of being “fair” by treating everyone the same |
| LEVEL 3: GENDER-SENSITIVE | > Considers gender norms, roles and relations  
| | > Does not address inequality generated by unequal norms, roles and relations  
| | > Indicates gender awareness, although often no remedial action is developed |
| LEVEL 4: GENDER-SPECIFIC | > Considers gender norms, roles and relations for women and men and how they affect access to and control over resources  
| | > Considers women’s and men’s specific needs  
| | > Intentionally targets and benefits a specific group of women or men to achieve certain policy or programme goals or meet certain needs  
| | > Makes it easier for women and men to fulfill duties that are ascribed to them based on their gender roles |
| LEVEL 5: GENDER-TRANSFORMATIVE | > Considers gender norms, roles and relations for women and men and that these affect access to and control over resources  
| | > Considers women’s and men’s specific needs  
| | > Addresses the causes of gender-based health inequities  
| | > Includes ways to transform harmful gender norms, roles and relations  
| | > The objective is often to promote gender equality  
| | > Includes strategies to foster progressive changes in power relationships between men and women |

Source: Adapted from WHO (2011).
CAUSES, CONSEQUENCES, SOLUTIONS FRAMEWORK

The causes, consequences and solutions framework is a refined version of the problem-solution tree development exercise used widely in Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) exercises. In 2010, it was redesigned as a process-based conceptual framework to assist decision-making and management of adaptation projects by defining the different problem solution components of the adaptation process. The process has two major phases as shown in Table 3-6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROBLEM ANALYSIS PHASE</th>
<th>SOLUTION ANALYSIS PHASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The problem phase process is diagnostic; and its purpose is to identify what the problem is. This is done by identifying the risks associated with potential climate change impacts and prioritizing them. The primary framing that directs the frameworks and tools used is risk. Knowledge during this time is collected and synthesized to enable understanding, ownership and decision-making.</td>
<td>The purpose of the solution phase is treatment of the problem. This is achieved through the development and implementation of adaptation actions and is the active phase of the process up to the final evaluation of project. The key framing for this phase is innovation. Knowledge collected and synthesized in the problem phase is integrated and used to enable agency to act, learn and improve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; What is the problem?</td>
<td>&gt; What solution has the greatest value for the stakeholders? (Cost-effectiveness, social benefits, preservation.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Who is affected by this problem?</td>
<td>&gt; Who will be undertaking the action?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Who is responsible for this problem? How are they affected by this problem?</td>
<td>&gt; Who is responsible for the action and how are they responsible? (At an individual and agency level.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; What are the priorities?</td>
<td>&gt; What resources are available and what is the capacity of the organization undertaking the action?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

> What are the risks associated with undertaking this action and how should they be managed?

Source: Young (2014).

Over the years, the framework was further developed, and its aspects refined. The framework can be a very useful tool in development sector specific gender-responsive adaptation and disaster risk reduction projects. The key steps to be followed include:

**Step 1**: Identification of the core gender (or gender inequality) problem(s) that the project needs to address.

**Step 2**: Draw a problem tree to retrace the possible causes of the gender inequalities. This should include three types of causes:

> Immediate Causes: Who are left behind? Why are they left behind? What are the most obvious and direct causes?

> Underlying Causes: Why do these occur? What are other underlying causes? Why do the communities, especially those left behind, not have access to these services or similar opportunities/outcomes?

> Root/Structural Causes: Why does this problem-cause occur? What are the root causes of the problem?

**Step 3**: The problem tree should visualize the information gathered to identify social, economic or environmental barriers that are linked to the achievement of mitigation or adaptation goals (see Figure 3-16).

**Step 4**: Convert the problem tree into positive actions to develop a solutions tree. Each problem should have a specific solution identified (see Figure 3-17).

**Step 5**: Define the expected outcomes and impacts; and convert the impacts and results into objectives.

**Step 6**: Identify strategies and activities (gender design interventions and targets) necessary to achieve the outputs. Assess the best alternative solution(s).

**Step 7**: Identify who will be the person or institution responsible for implementing the strategies and activities identified above.
It is easier to provide a practical demonstration of this tool than explain in theory. The trainer can select any gender problem in the sector or ask the participants to identify one that most of them are familiar with. The example here covers “Incidence of Vector-Borne Diseases.”

Ask them to share the causes of the problem. Keep going down to three to four levels, asking the question “Why does this happen?” The first level is immediate cause, second level underlying cause and third level the root cause.

Now come back to the core problem and ask “So what?” Keep going up to two levels asking this question. The first level is the immediate consequence on communities; and second a key development consequence. This mapping of causes and consequences is your problem tree (see Figure 3-16).

Identify solutions to each of the problems (causes and consequences) (see Figure 3-17). Those addressing the causes should be included as project outputs; and those addressing immediate consequences become project outcomes and the development consequence is the project goal.

The final output needs to be presented in the following format, as shown in Figure 3-18.

### Figure 3-18: Format for the Final Output

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROBLEM DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>SOLUTIONS DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>INDICATORS*</th>
<th>RESPONSIBLE AGENCY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEVELOPMENT CONSEQUENCES</td>
<td>Impact Goal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMMEDIATE CONSEQUENCES</td>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CORE PROBLEM</td>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMMEDIATE CAUSES</td>
<td>Outputs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDERLYING CAUSES</td>
<td>Activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROOT CAUSE</td>
<td>Strategies (or Risks)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*You can also define the outputs and outcomes in the form of quantitative and qualitative targets and gender-responsive indicators to get an elaborate Monitoring and Evaluation framework.*
MODULE 3 SESSION PLAN B

GENDER MAINSTREAMING FRAMEWORKS AND TOOLS FOR CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANIZATIONS (Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation)

OVERVIEW
At the end of this session, participants should have the basic knowledge of a range of gender mainstreaming tools and techniques applicable across the project cycle. They would be aware of the step-by-step process for application of these tools and should be able to identify the most suitable options for application in their work.

CONTENT
A. Gender-Aware Implementation Process
   a. Stakeholder Analysis
   b. Meaningful People’s Participation and Institution Building
      > Country Case Study – China
   c. Community-Based Adaptation (CBA) Planning
   d. Communication and Knowledge Sharing
B. Gender-Sensitive Monitoring and Evaluation
   a. Gender-Aware indicators
   b. Gender Monitoring Matrix
      > Country Case Study – Myanmar

MATERIALS
> PowerPoint presentations
> Chart papers and pens
> Posters and participatory tools from Handout 13
> Fake currency
> Boards to put up the posters in an open space
> Apparatus for film viewing on YouTube

OUTLINE
5 mins. Sharing of overview and session content.
55 mins. PowerPoint presentation on “Gender-Aware Implementation Process”
60 mins. Development Market Place on “Participatory Tools and Techniques” (see Exercise 19 and Handout 13).
30 mins. PowerPoint presentation on “Gender-Sensitive Monitoring and Evaluation”
30 mins. Wheel Ranking exercise for monitoring “Leave No One Behind” (see Exercise 20 and Handout 14).

GUIDANCE NOTES
Begin the session by sharing overview and content. Tell the participants that the session will now move into implementation, monitoring and evaluation phases of the project cycle. Make a PowerPoint presentation on “Gender-Aware Implementation Process” covering stakeholder analysis, meaningful participation, people’s institution development, community-based planning, communication and knowledge sharing. The discussion breaks highlighted in the content provide examples from general life issues to help participants make better connections. Make the session more engaging by asking participants to share their own experiences. Do not make judgements unless there is something completely out of context. Encourage everyone to speak up – you need to ensure that by the end of the session, all the participants have shared at least one example. Also use the viewing of Amrai Pari-BBC Media Action video to take a break from presentation (see trainer tip). During the section on Community-Based Planning, tell them that they will be exposed to a few tools in the exercise.

The next session is a very engaging exercise of a Development Market Place on “Participatory Tools and Techniques” (see Exercise 19 and Handout 13). Make sure you have gone through the exercise well in advance and also identified volunteers for the exercise. The volunteers can be from the group or the organization hosting the event. If possible, try to take the participants outside for this exercise, or arrange for the tables and chairs to be cleared to allow enough space. Ensure that the posters are printed in colour in A3 size paper (try to get them laminated for future use). This is often a highly-charged session, thus, it is ideally good to schedule it after lunch. It will be okay to take this before the gender-aware implementation presentation to adjust to time.

Follow it up with the PowerPoint presentation on “Gender-Sensitive Monitoring and Evaluation” and the Wheel Ranking exercise for monitoring “Leave No One Behind” (see Exercise 20 and Handout 14).
Gender-Aware Implementation Processes

The implementation or execution phase of a project is usually the longest and most important in terms of gender integration. The most well-designed gender-responsive projects could not deliver the desired results if implementation processes are not gender-aware. This requires three key steps:

1. Maintain partnership with all key stakeholders to ensure "ownership";
2. Effectively involve both men and women in all processes; and
3. Ensure proper communication and knowledge transfer for capacity-building of men and women.

STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS

A "stakeholder" is "any individual, group or institution that has a vested interest in the project area and/or who will be potentially affected by project activities and has something to gain or lose if conditions change or stay the same" (Golder and Gawler 2005). The participation of all stakeholders needs to be considered in order to successfully achieve project goals. Stakeholder analysis identifies all women and men who have a vested interest in the issues with which the project or policy is concerned. Stakeholder analysis is generally used at the design stage of the project to ensure that the different roles that women and men play are well understood. However, it can also be very useful in the implementation stage for:

1. Restructuring activities to ensure equitable and meaningful participation of men and women at all levels;
2. Development of systems for communication and training of women and men to have equal opportunities to benefit from the project;
3. Development of community-based plans to ensure that the contributions of both women and men are adequately recognized in determining access to, and control over resources;
4. Most of all, it helps identify who, how and when women and men stakeholders should be involved in project activities.

Below are the two key steps to do a gender-sensitive stakeholder analysis:

**Step 1. Identify key stakeholders and their interests.**

Brainstorm on all possible stakeholders using the question “Who is most dependent on the resources at stake, women or men?” as a guide. Learn about each stakeholder group as much as possible by asking:

- Who is managing the resources? With what results?
- Who are the women and men that are the most knowledgeable about, and capable of dealing with, the resources at stake?
- What adaptation activities do different men and women propose? For what?
- For each proposed adaptation or mitigation activity, who are the stakeholders? How big is their stake? What are their historical relationships with each other?
- Is there a social hierarchy? Who hold the positions of power?
- Is there conflict between stakeholders? Is there partnership?
- How do different stakeholders perceive the risks associated with climate change?
- How do they perceive the benefits of mitigation and adaptation activities?
- How can short- and long-term needs of different stakeholders be balanced?
- Will men and women benefit equally? Will men and women in different income groups benefit equally?
- Is participation of women ensured? Is participation of other marginal groups ensured? By whom?
- Is access to information ensured? By whom?
- Was there a similar initiative in the region? If so, to what extent did it succeed? Who was in charge and how did local female and male stakeholders respond?

**Step 2. Analyze the stakeholders and finalize strategies to engage them.**

Analyze the list of stakeholders, grouping them according to their levels of interest and influence in the project. The next step involves determining how to involve the different stakeholders and communicate with these stakeholder groups. Different types of stakeholders need to be engaged in different ways based on their placing in the stakeholder matrix (see Figure 3-19).

**FIGURE 3-19: STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS MATRIX**

MEANINGFUL PARTICIPATION AND PEOPLE’S INSTITUTION DEVELOPMENT

Participation is conceptualized as the community involvement in planning, decision-making, monitoring and evaluation. Often considered as a forum for “building community consensus,” participation can be made more meaningful as a two-way communication where information is exchanged in the form of dialogue or negotiation and where processes are designed for “Co-learning or Co-management.” Such meaningful participation enables better needs analysis and prioritization, higher quality of information and decisions, and more informed adoption action.

Participation of all stakeholders not only increases public trust but promotes deeper social learnings and co-generation of knowledge. The critical test, however, is the identification of the right channels and platforms for participation of all stakeholders. People’s Consultative Processes and People’s Institutions are often considered two most suitable strategies for this especially at the grassroot level. These are both normative in nature – offering people a democratic right to participate in decision-making – and also pragmatic: providing space for in-depth involvement and higher quality decisions.

The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA) as well as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) have emphasized the need for inclusions and participation of women in all these public processes. However, given women’s subordinate social status in most Asian societies, specific interventions are required to create an enabling environment to ensure women’s meaningful participation in project implementation.

Six Levels of Participation by Agarwal (2009):

1. Nominal participation refers to mere membership to a group without any involvement;
2. Passive participation refers to a situation where women attend meetings and merely listen to decisions, without actually voicing their concerns;
3. Consultative participation is where women’s opinions are sought in specific matters without any guarantee of their inputs influencing final decisions;
4. Activity-specific participation refers to a situation in which women are asked to (or volunteer to) undertake specific tasks;
5. Active participation is when women express their opinions, whether solicited or not and take different initiatives;
6. The highest level is interactive participation in which women have the ability to speak, influence and implement decisions.

FIGURE 3-20: STRATEGIES FOR ENABLING WOMEN’S MEANINGFUL PARTICIPATION

- Mapping women and other groups participation in existing decision-making processes
- Identify barriers to participation of women and vulnerable groups
- Support women’s participation at local level – within existing systems
- Promote and strengthen women-only groups and organizations
- Ensure inclusion of all vulnerable sections - race, caste, class, age, (dis)ability, marital status in the women-only groups
This involves specific strategies, including mapping out existing governance structures to learn how men, women and various at-risk groups, including adolescent girls and women and girls with disabilities, participate in decision-making processes. The assessments should also examine the barriers and opportunities to increasing women’s participation and explore strategies that could facilitate this. It needs to be understood that not all decisions that affect women’s lives are being made at the formal, public level. Arguably, “supporting women’s local-level participation and leadership, in both implementation and decision-making, is crucial because it is at this level that many of the decisions that affect women’s lives are being made.”

Women’s institutions particularly have an informal nature, fostering collective action. These remained important over the past decades as critical entry points into dealing with exclusionary tendencies against women and vulnerable sections of the communities. Supporting existing women’s groups and encouraging the formation of new ones that help women gain access to decision-making and the political process as well as strengthen women’s support for one another is very crucial for gender-responsive Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction (CCDRR) actions.

However, formation and strengthening of women’s groups are not enough. It is also important to consult with women on all matters related to the project, involve them in decision-making and, most importantly, build their leadership and negotiation skills to employ their agency and voice within the community.

The key strategy should be to utilize these women’s groups as a building block for increasing women’s knowledge and leadership skills. The emerging leaders should be included within mainstream local decision-making groups and institutions, so that women can have a say and influence all CCDRR and resource management decisions at the local level.

The most important aspect of women’s meaningful participation, however, is to leave no one behind. It is important to understand that women are not a homogenous community. Diversity and inclusion of all marginalized women irrespective of their race, caste, class, age, (dis)ability, marital status must be ensured. Adolescent girls, in particular, must be heard in all CCDRR decisions. The inclusion of women with disabilities is also important especially in the context of DRR. Specific actions may be required to facilitate participation of women with disabilities. For example, are meeting/workshop venues accessible and/or is sign language interpretation required.

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**WOMEN IN VILLAGE DISASTER COMMITTEES (VDCS): A CASE STUDY FROM CHINA**

The Community-Based Disaster Preparedness (CBDP) project implemented by the Guangxi branch (GXRC) of the Red Cross Society of China was developed within this framework and was carried out in partnership with the Australian Red Cross (ARC). The project aimed to provide disaster preparedness training and physical hazard mitigation activities in hopes of improving the resilience of the participating village communities to disasters. The project’s emphasis on women’s participation in project decision-making processes had a positive impact on perceptions of women’s roles within the communities.

In the creation of Village Disaster Committees (VDC), the participation of women was encouraged by making at least 40 per cent female representation a requirement. These committees oversaw the planning and implementation of the project; and its members were elected at a Villagers Representative Meeting. As a result of women’s involvement in the VDCs, both women and men in the village became more aware of women’s contributions to the public sphere. During one focus group discussion, a male villager said, “It has been several decades in our village that there is no women village leader. The last one was in the 1970s during the Cultural Revolution. Women are capable to be the leaders.”

At the same time, changing gender norms and traditional gender roles is not easy to do. The ability of women to play active roles in the VDC depended on their levels of education, work experience, relationships with other villagers as well as the attitudes and cooperation of other members of the VDC. In some communities, women ended up relinquishing their own identified priorities in formal decision-making discussions due to the traditional dominance of male views and cultural practices. In many villages, women were organized into separate groups – often through the Vulnerability and Capacity Assessment (VCA) process – in an attempt to give them more voice and to address their concerns.

The project’s proactive approach to more gender-balanced representation contributed to the identification of specific roles for men and women in disaster response, an increase in opportunities for women to acquire valuable new skills that could benefit their families and communities and greater recognition of the important roles that women can play in disaster management. In order to ensure gender-balanced participation, a target of equal male-to-female representation was set for the recruitment of project members.
volunteers and for those who were to receive disaster preparedness and first aid training. This was very nearly achieved with a rate of 40 per cent participation by women.

Volunteers played an important role: i) facilitated training; ii) disseminated educational and communications materials; iii) organized disaster-preparedness rehearsals; and iv) provided outreach to families. The female volunteers also played active roles in mobilizing other women in the community. The VDC assigned the volunteers various specific disaster preparedness and disaster response tasks according to their physical strength and areas of expertise. For example, male volunteers were put in charge of coordinating the emergency response and protecting the elderly and people with disabilities, while female volunteers were made responsible for communications and psychological counselling. This division of tasks was considered to be a reflection of the complementary roles men and women play in the community.

Women in particular found the project trainings very practical, and applied the new knowledge in caring for their families and serving the community. In one village, women even organized a quiz contest on disaster preparedness in celebration of International Women's Day. The event attracted women and men from the community and the local media. These kinds of events increase the visibility of women as community stakeholders. Both the GXRC county office staff and community members, including village leaders and male villagers, came to recognize the importance of female volunteers. However, some women mentioned the need for creating more incentives and opportunities for older women to volunteer. Women tended not to remain as active as men as they got older due to heavy responsibilities for housework and as caregivers.

Source: IFRC (2020).

ENGENDERED COMMUNITY-BASED PLANNING

Another critical strategy to engender CCDRR project implementation is when communities, especially women, are equipped with the necessary tools and facilitated to do their own vulnerability assessments and develop adaptation plans. This is an iterative process enabling women to be more informed and have a more meaningful say and ownership over adaptation decisions that affect their lives. There are several participatory vulnerability assessment and adaptation planning toolkits available (see Handout 13).

However, what is important is to ensure that the community-based adaptation planning processes are engendered. This requires specific interventions including ensuring that:

a. Women are part of the assessment and plan facilitation team. This is required at two levels – at the organizational level and at the community level. The women from the community in particular also need to be provided training not only on the tools and processes but also on facilitation skills.

b. The entire facilitation team is trained on gender. This is important not only to ensure that the facilitation team be aware on ensuring women's meaningful participation in the process but also to guide the process to bring gender concerns and women's issues into the forefront.

c. Women are part of the consultation and planning processes. This involves ensuring that most exercises are conducted separately with women's groups.

d. Gender analysis using Moser or Harvard Frameworks is done as part of the vulnerability assessment with both men and women to help the communities understand the gender concerns in CCDRR and plan for the same.

Table 3-7 show the key principles for a CBA planning process and its gender components.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPLE</th>
<th>BASIC COMPONENTS</th>
<th>GENDER COMPONENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BOTTOM-UP AND PARTICIPATORY</td>
<td>Community plays a major part in the problem analysis, identification and solutions prioritization.</td>
<td>Women are an integral part of the community and they need to be meaningfully participating in all planning processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUILDING ON LOCAL RESOURCES</td>
<td>It is important to build on existing strengths and available resources of the community</td>
<td>Women are not only linked closely to natural resources and infrastructure but also have different priorities for its utilization and maintenance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMBINING LOCAL AND SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE AND CO-CREATION OF SOLUTIONS</td>
<td>Integrating local knowledge along scientific information and research findings helps ensure building of robust, locally-relevant adaptation action plans.</td>
<td>Women are a critical source of local knowledge both for productive and survival activities. They also have different criteria for selection of adaptation options.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COLLABORATIVE DIALOGUE AND CROSS-LEARNING</td>
<td>Enables spaces for dialogue and two-way learning between communities, and other stakeholders including local authorities, researchers and social entrepreneurs.</td>
<td>Women from all ages and socio-economic background need to be involved in the process. Forum for providing voice for gender concerns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLEXIBLE AND CONTEXT-SPECIFIC</td>
<td>Tailored to local realities, the plans are most context-specific and can easily be adjusted to align with specific objectives, a preferred sectoral focus and available resources to carry out the process.</td>
<td>Tailored to sectors which address women’s practical needs and provision of resources for the same. Local level flexibility also enables better intersectoral convergence for addressing gender concerns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOCUMENTATIONS AND COMMUNICATION</td>
<td>The local relevance increases interest levels and also provides space for iteration. Becomes a starting point for awareness-raising and behaviour change activities, among others.</td>
<td>Can be communicated in local language and in means and formats which help reach out to every one especially illiterate women and women with disabilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MONITORING AND EVALUATION</td>
<td>It is also important to identify indicators and tracking mechanisms to monitor the progress on the plans. A formative Monitoring and Evaluation (M&amp;E) system needs to be designed so that any new information and learnings can be incorporated into the plans and activities.</td>
<td>There should be a specific focus on monitoring who is taking the key implementing decisions, who controls the process, who is getting the benefit and who is left out during implementation. Inclusion of all women, LGBTIQ persons irrespective of their class, caste, ethnicity, age, (dis)ability, others should be monitored.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Care International, Vietnam (2015).
COMMUNICATION AND KNOWLEDGE SHARING

Research (Carmin, et al. 2013) shows that civic engagement, participatory inclusion and equity, combined with careful deliberation and persuasion can enable legitimate and effective action when choices are uncertain and complex. This requires multi-stakeholder collaboration and frameworks which can facilitate cross transfer of knowledge to enable deliberation and decision-making. One such framework proposed in the IPCC and adapted by Alam, Rahman and Alam (2015) is shared in Figure 3-21.

![Figure 3-21: Interrelationships of different actors in multi-stakeholder collaboration](image)

Knowledge Filters
- Media (print, blogs, audio-visual, etc.);
- Individual agenda sectors;
- Boundary organizations;
- Lobby groups

Deliberation and Decision-Making
- Argument, persuasion and interpretation to shape mitigation;
- Adaptation and urban development

Knowledge Producers
- Academic science, business and NGO research, experts and communities

Knowledge Actors
- Government decision making; implementation or management;
- Urban communities at regional and national levels (e.g. for development cooperation);
- Households; civil society

Therefore, there is the need for CSOs and local governments to apply innovative communication strategies to actually induce behaviour change especially at the community level. In the last decade or so, an increased understanding of behaviour change communication coupled with technological advances resulted in many pilots on behaviour change especially in relation to CCDRR being undertaken especially in South and South-East Asia. In Table 3-8, we bring together select examples of communication tools which can help reach out to communities, both men and women, to induce attitudinal change on gender stereotypes and norms as well as behaviour change for management of climate change and disaster risks.

However, mere knowledge transfer can never induce behaviour change. The uncertainty associated with Climate Risks and existing gender norms entrenched in behaviours through years of social conditioning gives rise to many behaviour anomalies which, even when dealt with logically, might not result in action. Addressing gender concerns in CCDRR involves a striking departure from our current mental and physical actions. Typically, such human behaviour change can only happen when there is compulsion or fear, or where there is a distinct incentive to change.

For CSOs and local governments who are applying innovative communication strategies to induce behaviour change, it is suggested to add the weblinks of select tools from the table next into your presentation and browse their website so that the participants have a better idea of the same. Alternatively, it will also be good to show the participants a short video on what was the impact on Bangladesh of Amrai Pari-BBC Media Action, available at [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4aNdQz_LQgI](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4aNdQz_LQgI) and/or about the programme available at [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dVJ-UjM1ERk](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dVJ-UjM1ERk). The video explains the importance of using available communication technologies especially visual tools for climate action.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMMUNICATION TOOL</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>EXAMPLE OF USE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer and network effects that incentivise behaviour change through a hub and spoke approach</td>
<td>Trained women and girls at local level become a “hub” of knowledge which spreads throughout each community via in-person meetings and constant persuasion. The approach works because women relate directly to their peers regarding information that directly applies to them and their neighbours.</td>
<td>Global Resilience Partnership, Mahila Housing SEWA Trust in India, Bangladesh and Nepal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Games related to climate change and resilience action</td>
<td>Learning through Games: innovation provides a method of teaching-learning that makes adult learning experiential and people-centric. It also develops women’s leadership skills and instils a positive “can do” mindset. Can be especially useful in enlisting adolescents and young girls.</td>
<td>Act to Adapt, Red Cross Climate Centre &gt; Snake and Ladder Game, Mahila Housing SEWA Trust in India &gt; Ecofunopoly in Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community-led surveillance/Citizen science and journalism</td>
<td>Creating systems within the community to collect real-time weather information and climate data, and share among themselves for monitoring change and vulnerability as well as to take timely action. CSOs have experimented with systems beyond temperature and precipitation to look also at water quantity and quality, vectors, flooding and inundation.</td>
<td>Health Information Early Warning System (HIEWS), an online application to allow participatory reporting for dengue cases as part of ACTIVE, Mercy Corps, Indonesia &gt; Child Doctors for Vector Surveillance and Women Leaders for Water Quality Surveillance, Mahila Housing SEWA Trust in India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personalised access to information</td>
<td>Use of mobile messaging and integrated Voice Response (IVR) service provides an opportunity for people to access climate change-related information and access adaptation information on their phones. Some IVR-based models also have unique call back facility, to help community share their concerns and feedback.</td>
<td>Small Enterprise Financial Centre and Awaaz De's to deliver financial training and business advice in India &gt; Mobile Vaani for climate change, health and concerns of indigenous people in India &gt; Farm-stack for farmers by Digital Green in India and Ethiopia &gt; Samvard for Health and nutrition by Digital Green in India &gt; Weather forecasting app for agriculture in Bangladesh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism for awareness building</td>
<td>Developing a team of volunteers from the community and training them to use a journalist approach to make radio/TV programmes and small online videos. The trained resource then develops the programmes with localized content which the communities can relate with. Community screenings of these programmes not only add an entertainment value but are also more effective to reach out to women.</td>
<td>Amrrai Par, a BBC media action programme on CCDRR in Bangladesh &gt; The National Rural Livelihood Programme, a flagship government scheme for women’s empowerment and poverty alleviation, used it to deliver health, nutrition and agriculture services through Digital Green in India &gt; Earth Journalism Network, Asia Pacific region &gt; KBR Radio in Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online social media platforms</td>
<td>Using crowdsourcing and online technology to help improve the bottom-up flow of information.</td>
<td>Ushahidi, an open source platform for such campaigns, created a quake map deployed to help match those affected by Nepal’s earthquake with ongoing relief efforts being conducted by various government, non-government and volunteer groups.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation (M&E) refers to the review of processes and impacts of climate change programs and projects using a gender lens that will recognize differentiated outcomes for women and men, whether planned or not. To develop an effective and gender-sensitive M&E plan, NEST (2011) presented a framework that includes gender-sensitive baseline and progress indicators, and a process that involves all stakeholders, both male and female in the monitoring process. An adapted version of the same is presented in Figure 3-22 (NEST 2011).

Gender-Sensitive Monitoring and Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 3-8: EXAMPLES OF COMMUNICATION TOOLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COMMUNICATION TOOL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Campaigns with media                         | Tapping on local broadcast media and social media channels to develop innovative campaigns that mobilizes awareness and collective action. | > UNICEF Sanitation campaign - Poo2Loo  
> The Guardian's Keep it in the Ground campaign  
> The Sunrise Movement/Fridays for Future online movement  
> Greater Young Women Empowerment in Decision Making and Accountable Public Service Delivery in Cambodia |
| Traditional media such as community radio, theatre, music and art |                                                                                 | > Climate Visionaries Project, Greenpeace in the USA  
> Climate Change Poetry Slam in Fiji and Kathy Jetnil-Kiner in Marshall Islands  
> Olafur Eliasson and Benjamin Wong, installation artists working on climate change |

**FIGURE 3-22: FRAMEWORK FOR GENDER-SENSITIVE MONITORING AND EVALUATION**

**WHAT IS TO BE MONITORED**
- Process, output, outcomes, impacts
- Explicit measures of participation of and impact on women and men
- Collect verifiable qualitative and quantitative data
- Sex and age distribution

**WHEN M&E IS TO BE DONE**
- Monitoring is continuous – scheduled either monthly or quarterly
- Evaluation happens at the end of the project

**HOW M&E IS TO BE DONE**
- In a participatory manner with methods appropriate for women and men
- Involve stakeholders

**COST IMPLICATION**
- Ensure proper budgeting for M&E activities
- Provision of necessary logistics and support structure for the effective gender-sensitive M&E system

**WHAT TO DO WITH M&E**
- Analyze data to detect successes and challenges
- Develop a document and data storage system
- Policy appraisal to make policy changes to correct gender imbalance

**WHO IS TO DO M&E**
- Project implementation team
- Independent stakeholders
- Community members
- Policy makers
- Subject matter experts

Source: NEST (2011)
GENDER-AWARE INDICATORS

A core component of tracking gender results is the formulation of sex-disaggregated and gender-aware indicators at all levels of outcomes, outputs and results. All beneficiary-level indicators and targets should be disaggregated by sex (as well as age, class, (dis)ability, sexual orientation, ethnic origin and others to identify sub-groups of men and women) wherever possible. For example, rather than targeting only women, an indicator could look specifically at improvements for the situation of indigenous women who potentially face different challenges, not only from indigenous men (owing to the gendered division of labour in indigenous cultures) but also from other women. Figure 3-23 provides examples of sex-disaggregated indicators in various sectors.

Additionally, programs and projects may also have activities for achieving gender equality or the empowerment of women, the indicators for which go beyond disaggregation of beneficiaries by sex. For example, while a sex-disaggregated indicator can measure the number of women and men farmers who received training on sustainable agroforestry, it may not be sufficient to determine whether the training itself responded to the differentiated needs of women and men farmers. In this case, there might be a need for a gender-sensitive indicator that qualitatively assesses whether the capacity of women and men has increased.

Indicators of a gender-integrated approach would also need to reflect the extent to which central or local policies integrate gender perspectives (for example, progressive pricing of health insurance schemes according to the life course, or access to parental leave at workplaces) or the conditions in which services are delivered, including their responsiveness to the rights and needs of low-income and/or rural women and men (for example, the number of rural hospitals with access to electricity grids, safe water and sanitation, or ambulances; or the number of rural banks offering access to microfinance services).

Projects should also develop and track unintended negative consequences of gender equality policies and programmes (for instance, women who have gained economic empowerment may experience increased violence in households from comparatively-disadvantaged spouses; subsidies for large families combined with specific conditionalities targeted at women may increase women’s dual work burden and time poverty). It needs to be noted though that ‘negative’ results may not indicate programme failure but rather be evidence that the process was working and was creating resistance from the status quo as a result.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FIGURE 3-23: EXAMPLES OF SEX-DISAGGREGATED INDICATORS FOR GEF PROJECTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>KNOWLEDGE FILTERS</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number and percentage of men and women actively participating in consultations, workshops and committee meetings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women and men in decision-making positions relating to the activities or in the project context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number and percentage of women and men serving in leadership positions relating to the areas of intervention or in the project context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number and percentage of men and women, by social group, consulted about project plans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BENEFIT SHARING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women and men benefitting from organized workshops and training opportunities within the program or project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women and men receiving program or project benefits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women and men benefitting from tools and resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women and men benefitting from financial investments due to program interventions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women and men engaged in benefit-sharing discussions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of poor households that are project beneficiaries; number headed by men/women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ACCESS TO RESOURCES AND SHARING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of men who have ownership of land in their name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women and men who have access to land, water and forest resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women and men who have knowledge of laws relating to areas of intervention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women and men trained on land-right issues (e.g., land titles and tenure security).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women who have ownership of land in their name (e.g., land titles and tenure security).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Number of women in a leadership position with regard to land, water, forest and other biological resources (e.g., entrepreneur, manager, lead farmer).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
GENDER MONITORING MATRIX

A Gender Monitoring Matrix (GMMX) is a monitoring system that uses indicators in a matrix or table form. Some of the indicators are quantitative, like the gender representation in events or activities; others may be qualitative, like narrative summaries of how women and men contributed in a group. Qualitative indicators are more difficult to report on; and it is found that they are often not recorded. However, it is important to keep records such as how women and men participate in events (not only how many attend). For example, do the women voice their opinions, and do men respect their opinions? The first part of this tool defines the monitoring activities, identifies who should carry out these activities and suggests warning signs or standards to enable situations to be identified where special action should be taken. This tool is very flexible to use and manipulate to suit the needs of the situation. The second part of the GMMX explains the actions needed when certain ‘warning signs’ appear, and what actions to take if participation of either gender falls short of an expected target.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>WHAT TO LOOK FOR</th>
<th>MEANS OF CHECKING</th>
<th>WARNING SIGNS</th>
<th>HOW TO CHECK</th>
<th>WHEN</th>
<th>ACTIONS TO ADDRESS WARNING SIGNS</th>
<th>WHO SHOULD TAKE ACTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community-Based Planning</td>
<td>Number of women participating</td>
<td>CBA meeting records</td>
<td>Less than 20% of participants are women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of exercises conducted with women’s groups</td>
<td>CBA document</td>
<td>No exercise conducted separately with women’s group</td>
<td>The person who finalizes the plan document should report the warning sign</td>
<td>Every quarter</td>
<td>Project funds based on such CBAs should not be released</td>
<td>Finance person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of gender analysis exercises conducted</td>
<td>CBA document</td>
<td>No gender analysis conducted</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 3-9: GENDER MONITORING MATRIX**

**DISCUSSION POINT**

To summarize the module, ask the participants which of the above tools do they find most relevant for their work and why.

**Facilitator Clues**

> Gender assessments can be carried out through mixed methodology for data collection but for Gender Analysis, Moser or Harvard Frameworks are most useful. The information from these can actually feed into the Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis, which becomes a strong gendered vulnerability assessment.

> Rapid assessments and scoping studies can be useful to supplement information of vulnerability assessment exercises already undertaken or to understand the scope before taking a deep dive into sectoral vulnerability assessments.

> The Causes, Consequences, Solutions Framework is one tool which can be used across the project cycle but especially in project formulation stage.

> Stakeholder analysis tool helps further strengthen gender-sensitive implementation processes by bringing out the role of women and enabling them to have a role in community-based planning and decision-making as well as for all communication and information sharing and capacity-building measures.

> The Gender Monitoring Matrix is a useful tool for measuring gender mainstreaming processes and achieving gender equality outcome targets.

> However, there are also specific tools for measuring Women’s Resilience Index and the Vulnerability Reduction Assessment tool of the UNDP-GEF CBA programme which can be useful for CCDRR projects.

> The participatory tools and exercises can be used in all the stages.
EXERCISES

EXERCISE 15: MOSER FRAMEWORK FOR GENDER ANALYSIS AND PLANNING

The key objective of this exercise is to provide the participants with a quick hands-on experience of application of Moser Framework for gender analysis in planning process.

Materials Required:
Chart paper and markers.

Process:

**Step 1:** Divide participants into two groups of equal numbers, representing men and women. Men can play women's roles if women are not sufficient in numbers and vice versa. Ask the groups to choose their location, occupation and a season of their choice.

**Step 2:** Ask each group to list out all their daily activities, from dawn to dusk, writing each activity against a specific hour, from 4am to 5am, 5am to 6am,.....until 9pm to 10pm. Both groups must work on the same profile, with one representing men and the other representing women.

**Step 3:** When complete, get the men's group to come and check the women's list, and vice versa. During this process of data verification, changes may be made if agreed by all. Explain that they will now analyze the data using the Moser Framework (Tool 1).

**Step 4:** Draw the framework on a whiteboard as shown above and ask the groups to read their activities one by one, and say which column it should go into. Guide the participants for any anomalies. There is often a tendency to place women's unpaid agriculture and livestock activities as reproductive/domestic work.

**Step 5:** When all the actions are written down, ask them to reflect on the differentiated gender roles in the community and how climate change will affect men and women differently. Ask them to identify the key problems that women face in undertaking those roles currently and how the problem can be exacerbated by climate change or during disasters.

**Step 6:** Ask the participants to identify adaptation/risk management actions which are required to be undertaken for:
1. Reducing women's drudgery/workload;
2. Increasing women's access to livelihoods and cash incomes; and
3. Ensuring that women have an increased role in decision-making at the community level especially in relation to the selected roles.

**Step 7:** The participants should then decide on what activities would be necessary within a project to enable the above actions. Ask them to finalize the activity plan and present the discussions in the plenary in the format shown in Figure 3-25.
EXERCISE 16: HARVARD FRAMEWORK FOR GENDER ANALYSIS

The key objective of this exercise is to provide the participants with a quick hands-on experience of application of Harvard Framework for gender analysis.

Materials Required:
Pre-prepared livelihood chits (e.g., rice farmers, fisherfolk, maize farmers, weavers, handicraft workers, others. Be as specific and contextual as possible), chart paper and markers.

Process:
**Step 1:** Divide participants into four to five groups and ask them to pick a livelihood chit. Explain the exercise to them.
- They are to break down the activities in a life cycle of a livelihood. For instance, if they take weaving, they have to list all that is required from buying the yarn to selling the cloth.
- Discuss who (male or female) has most responsibility and who is most impacted.
- Decide who has access and control over the tools, resources and decisions of each activity.

**Step 2:** Tell them that they have 30 minutes to discuss this and present their analysis on chart papers in the format as shown below.

**Step 3:** Once finished, ask the groups to paste their charts on the walls and come in the plenary. Ask them to share their learnings from the process. Get them to reflect on the following:
- How did they begin the exercise, and what were the initial challenges?
- How did they mitigate the challenges?
- What were the key learnings from the exercise?
- What do they need to do to ensure that they have more accurate information?

**Learning Output:** Conclude by asking the participants if there are any activities that they would have missed or not have considered in planning if the background analysis was not undertaken. Tell them that this is why it is important to undertake gender analysis for project development.
EXERCISE 17: PRESENTING GENDER ANALYSIS
The purpose of this exercise is to get the participants interested in applying the various tools and also to understand how the results of gender analysis are better presented.

Materials Required: Copies of Handout 12.

Process:
Step 1: Divide the participants into four groups and provide them with Handout 12. You can even divide the examples among the groups, giving each group two to three examples for better discussion within the given timeframe.

Step 2: Ask the participants to discuss the examples in the handout and answer the following questions:
- What were the gender analysis/assessment tools used in each of the examples?
- How can gender analysis results be presented?
- What did they learn from the examples?
- Ask them which example was most suited to their work and why.

Step 3: Give them 15 minutes to reflect as a group and then discuss these questions in the plenary.

Learning Output: Tell them that it is not enough to do the gender analysis, but also important to present and disseminate the findings of the gender analysis in order to influence CCDRR projects and policies in the region.

EXERCISE 18: CAUSES, CONSEQUENCE AND SOLUTIONS FRAMEWORK
The key objective of this exercise is to provide the participants with a quick hands-on experience of application of Causes, Consequences and Solutions Framework for project designing.

Materials Required: Kraft paper and pen; apparatus for viewing short film.

Process:
Step 1: Show the participants a short film related to any social or CCDRR issue. Make sure that the film is from their region and most participants can relate with it.

Step 2: Divide the participants into four or five groups and ask them to identify one key gender problem from the above film. Try and get them to identify different problems while narrowing down the issue. For example, instead of saying reduced diseases, let them identify a specific disease; or instead of saying low productivity in agriculture, let them fix a crop. Encourage gender-specific problem identification.

Step 3: Ask the participants what the underlying causes are behind the causes, and keep adding cards accordingly. (You may have to shuffle cards to accommodate the discussions.) Probe deeper by asking the question “Why does this happen?” at least three to four times for each card. Repeat the exercise for the consequences. Here ask the question “So what happens next?” Encourage participants to be as specific as possible. For example, ‘poverty’ is too big an issue to name as a cause (or consequence), let them mention lack of money or lack of opportunities. Tell them to develop a problem tree as they have learnt in the session before.

Step 4: Ask the participants what the underlying causes are behind the causes, and keep adding cards accordingly. (You may have to shuffle cards to accommodate the discussions.) Probe deeper by asking the question “Why does this happen?” at least three to four times for each card. Repeat the exercise for the consequences. Here ask the question “So what happens next?” Encourage participants to be as specific as possible. For example, ‘poverty’ is too big an issue to name as a cause (or consequence), let them mention lack of money or lack of opportunities. Tell them to develop a problem tree as they have learnt in the session before.

Step 5: Ask the participants to identify solutions for each issue separately. Ask them to flip the cards and write on them. They can also use additional cards if necessary. This should bring them to develop the solutions tree.

Step 6: Ask the participants to prioritize the solutions based on importance, doability within a two-year timeframe and resource efficiency. The output should be presented in the format shown in Figure 3-26.
Learning Output: Summarize by asking them how this can be used in their own work when they develop projects. Tell them that it is easier when developing a new project to break the core problem into sub-problems for this exercise. They can then link the various activities and prioritize those which address maximum problems. Tell them that the rest should be assumed as stable (and or identified as risk factors) within the project design. Remember to mention that while all consequences will have monitoring indicators, in project design phase, they should select those wherein they will be able to get data from primary or secondary sources.

EXERCISE 19: DEVELOPMENT MARKET PLACE ON PARTICIPATORY TOOLS FOR GENDER ANALYSIS AND COMMUNITY-BASED ADAPTATION PLANNING

The key objective of this exercise is to quickly go through some of the participatory tools. The idea is not to provide detailed step-by-step approach to the tools since that would be a complete training module in itself, but to generate the interest of the participants and encourage them to access the available toolkits.

Materials Required:
Printed posters on the figures for each of the tools (one large A3 size and five to seven small cards) and copies of Handout 13. Place for pasting/putting up the posters in the form of a stall. Fake currency notes (just take twenty colour printouts of US$100 or local currency and forty of US$20 or local currency). Gifts or chocolates for winners.

Pre-preparation:
A day before the session, identify six volunteers from the group who have some experience of using participatory tools. Provide them each with the content and posters of any one tool from Handout 13. Tell them that you will run a marketplace the next day and you need the volunteers to sell these posters to the participants. Each tool (small card) has a base price of US$100 (or the local currency), but they can hike or bargain if they want. Tell them that it will be like a competition. The person who earns the maximum money will be the winner. The volunteers for this session should be more vocal and competitive in nature. That would make the exercise more interesting.

### FIGURE 3-26: OUTPUT TEMPLATE FOR EXERCISE 18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CAUSES</th>
<th>SOLUTIONS/ACTIVITY</th>
<th>CONSEQUENCES</th>
<th>MONITORING INDICATORS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Solutions/Activity</th>
<th>Consequences</th>
<th>Monitoring Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Process:

#### Step 1:
Break the participants into small groups of four people each and given them three fake currency notes of US$100 and five of US$20 (or local currency) each. Tell them that they have to design a project with their community using participatory tools, but a new Act by the government has recognized patenting for these tools, so they have to buy the tools.

#### Step 2:
There is a marketplace nearby where they can go and buy these tools. Each tool is being sold in a separate shop. Tell them to buy as many tools as possible based on what they feel will be most useful for designing a participatory gender-responsive CCDRR project with the community. The group that makes the most logical choice will be the winner. To win, they have to have a tool card with them and also be able to explain the purpose and process of the tool.

#### Step 3:
The groups can decide on the modality of who and how they will buy the tools. Give them five minutes to decide that and then open the marketplace. Tell them that they have 30 minutes to buy the tools.

#### Step 4:
Let the market begin. Things will initially move slowly but can get a bit noisy. Make sure it is not going out of hand and ensure that the purpose and process of the tools are adequately discussed. If they are not as desired, the trainer should take lead in asking the same to the participants and encourage them to learn more.
**Step 5:** Once all the groups have bought their tools, give them 15 minutes to discuss how they will present their findings. Bring everyone to the plenary and begin the presentations. Let all groups make a short presentation. The trainer along with the volunteers will take a call on which group wins. Calculate the amount earned by each volunteer and decide on the winner from among them. Try to arrange for small gifts or chocolates for the winners.

**Learning Output:** Conclude the exercise by sharing that there are many more such participatory tools available which can be very useful for designing a participatory gender-responsive CCDRR project with the community. The participants should explore these further. However, they need to be cautious about one thing while using the participatory tools. Not all tools by themselves will be gender-responsive. Some tools help bring out the gender roles, barriers and strengths. They need to specifically include such tools in their process. Other tools are more useful if done separately with men, women and other gender identities in small groups. The participatory planning processes should be designed with this in mind to ensure that everyone is adequately involved in the processes. Only then will the tools actually yield the desired analysis and plans.

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**Exercise 20: Wheel Ranking Exercise on “Leave No One Behind”**

The key objective of this exercise is to orient the participants with a participatory monitoring and evaluation exercise and to reinforce the concept of LNOB.

**Materials Required:** Chart paper, pens and copies of Handout 14.

**Process:**

**Step 1:** Divide the participants into four groups and ask them to develop five indicators for monitoring of LNOB approach integration into a project. Suggest a few indicators like: i) Project Management Committee has participation of all groups; ii) Women and other vulnerable groups have voice in decision-making; iii) All vulnerable communities have benefitted from the project; and others.

**Step 2:** Tell them to write the five indicators on a wheel, with each indicator forming one spoke as shown in Figure 3-27. Ask them to set targets for each of the identified indicators. For example, for the indicator – Project Management Committee has participation of all groups – the target can be 50-50 per cent participation of men and women from all vulnerable groups. Ask them to set the maximum goal and then further break it down to progressive targets. There should be five points of progress. For example, if 50 per cent is the goal, the progress targets would be 40 per cent, 30 per cent, 20 per cent, and 10 per cent.

**Step 3:** Provide each group a copy of Handout 14. Ask them to rank the case study on each of the indicators based on the target achieved. Tell them that they can also modify the indicators, if required. Tell them to map the progress on each indicator at the level of the goal achieved as in Figure 3-27. Tell them that they can rank 10 for goal achieved and keep reducing the scores accordingly.

**Step 4:** Once all groups are done, ask them to present their wheels in a plenary. The discussion should focus on the logic of providing a particular score on any indicator. If two groups have conflicting scores, encourage healthy debate on the scores.

**Learning Output:** Conclude by mentioning that undertaking this exercise in the beginning of the project and then in review meetings can be a good tool for internal monitoring of LNOB progress in projects.
## TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPLETE THE STATEMENT</th>
<th>✓ TICK ALL RESPONSES THAT ARE APPLICABLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Which of the following are intersecting factors in Leave No One Behind?</td>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the following are components of triple burden of work for women?</td>
<td>Domestic Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the following will be stakeholders in your project?</td>
<td>One who is vulnerable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the following are more likely to be used as gender-aware indicators?</td>
<td>Maternal Mortality Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the following tools are you more likely to use for vulnerability assessment to design relief projects after a disaster?</td>
<td>Rapid Gender Assessment for Crisis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Gap is more significantly proven by research for which of the following?</td>
<td>*Mortality due to heat waves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Items in red are the incorrect answers.

## SUGGESTED READINGS:

MODULE 3

TOOLS FOR GENDER-MAINSTREAMING

HANDOUTS
### EXAMPLE 1: WOMEN’S RESILIENCE INDEX (WRI)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR/SUBSECTOR</th>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DISASTER</td>
<td>BANGLADESH</td>
<td>&gt; Australian Aid</td>
<td>&gt; Action Aid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### PROCESS/KEY QUESTIONS
- Women’s Resilience Index (WRI) tool through which resilience of a community is measured from women’s perspectives.
- Using a mixed method approach the WRI generates scores against 36 indicators that are contextualized and enables comparisons between women and men.
- This includes focus group discussions with 51 participants, 10 Key Informant Interviews, 200 individual questionnaire surveys. The study was conducted in four locations – North Channel, Patharghata, Sadar and Charduani, and Nilgon.
- Overall, 261 respondents took part in the study, of which 129 were men and 132 women.

#### EXAMPLES/HIGHLIGHTS OF FINDINGS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control Over Expenditure</th>
<th>Earnings Per Day</th>
<th>Access and Affordability of Healthcare</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Action Aid, Bangladesh (2018).*

### EXAMPLE 2: RAPID GENDER NEEDS ASSESSMENT OF FLOOD-AFFECTED COMMUNITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR/SUBSECTOR</th>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FLOODS</td>
<td>PAKISTAN</td>
<td>United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### METHODOLOGY
- Using the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) guidelines as the minimum response benchmark, this assessment report analyzes emerging trends and data, relying primarily on the Gender Needs Assessment (GNA), the Multi-cluster Rapid Assessment Mechanism (McRAM), case studies and emerging secondary information.
- UNIFEM collected 141 case studies from across Pakistan in the immediate aftermath of the floods. The Gender Needs Assessment (GNA) survey was conducted with 253 respondents, with 55 per cent female respondents and 45 per cent males.
- It is structured into two broad categories of practical and strategic gender needs most relevant in the immediate aftermath of humanitarian crises.

#### EXAMPLES/HIGHLIGHTS OF FINDINGS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROTECTION OF RIGHTS RELATED TO BASIC NECESSITIES OF LIFE (Practical Needs)</th>
<th>PROTECTION OF LIFE, SECURITY, INTEGRITY AND DIGNITY (Strategic Needs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&gt; For men, face-to-face interactions, radio and telecommunications were the main source of early warning/communications while for women, there were male relatives and community gatherings</td>
<td>&gt; Less than 40 per cent of the respondents felt safe and comfortable about using latrine and bathing facilities, whereas a quarter of the respondents said they felt unsafe doing so. The data shows 13 per cent of the respondents said violence was most likely to occur in the tent or shelter.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EXAMPLE 2: RAPID GENDER NEEDS ASSESSMENT OF FLOOD-AFFECTED COMMUNITIES

- Uneven evacuation processes. Most people had to find their own devices.
- The decision to relocate, when and where, was primarily taken by male heads of households.
- As families tried to stay together in makeshift shelters or lived under the open skies, women felt particularly exposed without the protection of enclosure.
- Women complained that it is usually the men who can access relief distribution as they push their way forward and women would need to physically jostle and compete with them.
- The GNA data show that when there is a shortage of food, half the respondents gave preferential treatment to nutritional needs of boys, the next prioritized category of mothers/wives trailing far behind. Least attention was paid to food intake of the elderly.
- By the time the survey was conducted, 55 per cent of respondents had access to latrines and bathing facilities, whereas 44 per cent still did not.
- In 10 per cent of households surveyed, there had been one or more births in the family after the floods. From all the households surveyed, an average 30 per cent had at least one or more lactating women.
- 16 per cent respondents were already identifying early marriages as the main safety problem faced by girls and women.
- 34 per cent of respondents said violence against women is most likely to occur within the home, whereas an almost equal 33 per cent said its likelihood was highest when traveling alone or working outside the home.
- Women’s vulnerability profiles change with age, marital status, presence of informal familial social protection systems and markers of intersections of ethnicity, language, religion and class. Women belonging to low caste agricultural worker clans felt they could be abducted by ‘khalifas’ (deputies) of landlords.

Source: UNIFEM (2010).

EXAMPLE 3: GENDER ANALYSIS IN BUILDING URBAN CLIMATE RESILIENCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR/SUBSECTOR</th>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| URBAN RESILIENCE | VIETNAM  | > Asian Cities Climate Change Resilience Network (ACCCRN)  
> International Institute of Environment and Development (IIED)  
> Rockefeller Foundation, Institute for Social and Environmental Transition (ISET)  
> Climate Change Coordination Office (CCCO) of Da Nang City (Vietnam) | 2016 |

KEY RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What are the common and different roles and responsibilities of women and men in vulnerability reduction and climate resilience enhancement? What is their comparative status in the household and within the community? How have women and men’s roles changed or transformed in recent years?
- What are the strategic and practical gender needs and capacities of women and men, and are those normally considered separately in the analysis of needs, formulation and implementation of climate resilience enhancement activities? What is the effect, or potential effect, of addressing women’s and men’s needs and capacities separately and collectively?
- Which local organizations involved in building urban climate resilience take, or may take, primary responsibility for promoting gender roles and improving gender relations, specifically in strengthening the roles and status of women in resilience enhancement?
EXAMPLES OF GENDER ANALYSIS AND ASSESSMENTS

EXAMPLE 3: GENDER ANALYSIS IN BUILDING URBAN CLIMATE RESILIENCE

PRIMARY DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

- Consultations with different groups of men and women in vulnerable wards/communes;
- Interviews with representatives of government departments and other public organizations at the city, district and ward/commune levels; and
- Sixty household-level interviews, of which half were economically ‘poor’ and half were ‘near poor’.
- Both husband and wife were invited for the interviews and the number of male and female respondents in the household survey was nearly equal, 47 and 51 respectively.

Number of Men and Women Generating Income from Different Livelihoods in the Interviewed Households

Degrees of Gendered Consideration in the Design of Public Spaces/Green Parks in Vulnerable Areas

Household Responses to Climate Change and Disasters

Source: Ath, et al. (2016)
EXAMPLES OF GENDER ANALYSIS AND ASSESSMENTS

EXAMPLE 4: GENDER ANALYSIS OF CLIMATE-FRIENDLY AGRI-BUSINESS VALUE CHAINS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR/SUBSECTOR</th>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AGRICULTURE</td>
<td>CAMBODIA</td>
<td>Asian Development Bank</td>
<td>2018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**METHODOLOGY**

Three subprojects have been identified under the project and a gender analysis of all three subprojects was undertaken separately to feed into the gender action plan. The information sources included:

- Secondary data including recent social survey reports and publications;
- Focus groups (both mixed gender and with women separately) with target beneficiaries;
- Key informant interviews with local commune and village leaders and commune women and children local points;
- Interviews both face-to-face and by telephone with key informants;
- Meetings with key Ministry staff, and with international non-government organization (NGO), Oxfam.

**EXAMPLES/HIGHLIGHTS OF FINDINGS**

**Work profiles in agriculture and organization of paddy production:**

- Women are involved in land preparation, clearing grass and weeds; broadcasting rice for seed beds, broadcasting fertilizer, transplanting seedlings, hand harvesting paddy; threshing and winnowing; collecting and storing paddy and selling paddy to collectors. When selling paddy, both men and women decide and agree jointly on which price to accept. Paddy transportation is mostly done by men and some families hire labour for hauling and transporting paddy.
- Only one village in the commune is currently able to cultivate three crops of rice a year because they have access to a year-round water supply. In the other villages, there is only one rice cropping season per year because of insufficient water. There is no water users' association or agricultural cooperative in the commune. When farmers require water for cultivation, they seek permission from the village chief. The amount of available water is limited and water distribution is determined by the village chief.
- The majority of rice collectors/intermediaries in the locality of subproject 1 in Tani commune are women. They purchase paddy from local farmers on behalf of their clients, the wholesalers, both Cambodian and Vietnamese, who set the purchase price. The collector in this locality is a local woman who lives in the commune and has learnt the trade from a family member. Her husband assists by transporting purchased sacks of paddy from the farms. During interviews with rice collectors, they explained that in order for their businesses to grow, they need access to more paddy. For this reason, they view the proposed irrigation modernization subproject as a positive development that will increase the volume of paddy production. The rice collectors who were interviewed explained that they do not lend money to farmers, but will provide interest-free advances to those farmers they trust.
- The local female rice miller provides households with interest-free loans of US$75 to US$125 for four to five days before harvesting paddy. Households pay back the loan in kind. Each season, the rice miller explained she needed US$10,000 in order to purchase paddy from farmers. However, she frequently does not have sufficient cash for her business and therefore borrows approximately US$5,000 from the local microcredit institution. The rice miller buys paddy from commune farmers and collectors and sells milled rice in the commune and to a client in Thailand.

**Work profiles in mango production and organization of production:**

- Most mango farmers in the area have either used revenue from rice production or borrowed money from the bank or used remittances from their children in order to plant their mango orchards which are typically approximately five to seven hectares. Mango cultivation is costly for farmers and because they do not have sufficient capital, labour or knowledge of mango cultivation, it is a common practice for farmers to lease their orchards to private contractors — usually Cambodian companies after three to four when the trees are established and begin to bear fruit. The cost of a mango sapling is approximately 50 cents to one dollar. The labor cost for harvesting mangoes is KHR 50,000 per day. Irrigation water for the orchard is usually from a pond or borehole.
- Depending on negotiations with contractors, farmers might receive US$5 to US$10 for leasing one tree. A typical rent for a seven-hectare mango orchard with four-year old trees is from US$6,000 to US$7,000 per year. The contractor then takes care of the orchard using his own hired (male) laborers — for weeding, fertilizing and applying insecticide to make sure the mango trees produce fruit. The orchard owner has no further responsibility or claim to the orchard. All the revenue from mango sales — typically to wholesalers in Vietnam, goes to the contractor.
EXAMPLES OF GENDER ANALYSIS AND ASSESSMENTS

EXAMPLE 4: GENDER ANALYSIS OF CLIMATE-FRIENDLY AGRI-BUSINESS VALUE CHAINS

> Contractors provide training to farmers on how to correctly plant mango trees. Local agricultural suppliers frequently provide demonstrations of the recommended agricultural products to use for mango cultivation such as pesticides and fertilizers. They provide a five-day training for farmers, and trainees are exclusively male. In the subproject area, there are many absentee mango farmers.

> It is mostly men who do the heavy work in mango farming. About 50 per cent of men in this locality also share responsibility for household work and men are responsible for looking after large animals such as cattle. Some men also help women take care of small children. For female-headed households where adult children have migrated and left grandchildren in their care, the workload is substantial. In addition to looking after the grandchildren, these women are the caretakers of livestock, and manage and undertake both paddy and crop cultivation including hiring day laborers. Some women are also directly involved in mango cultivation. Hired labour is necessary because of family labour shortages as a consequence of migration, and migrants’ remittances are used to pay day laborers.

> There is a water users’ group in the commune but it is only involved in water management for rice production.

> When interviewed, a local mango contractor explained that he pays US$S to US$10 per tree for one year and he is able to sell a kilo of mango fruit for KHR3,500 to the local mango collector. He said he was able to meet his running costs without having to borrow any money. The local mango collector explained that in order to purchase mangoes, he borrows money interest-free from his client in Vietnam and the approximate amount borrowed is US$10,000 in order to purchase mangoes from his regular contractors. The Vietnamese client subsequently sells the mangoes to his client in China. In this instance, the collector does not act as a local moneylender, as neither local farmers nor contractors have ever approached him for advance payments or loans.

Source: ADB (2018)

EXAMPLE 5: STUDY OF GENDER EQUALITY IN COMMUNITY-BASED FOREST CERTIFICATION PROGRAMME

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR/SUBSECTOR</th>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FORESTRY</td>
<td>NEPAL</td>
<td>University of Freiburg, Germany</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

> Are men and women involved in different activities related to use of forests?

> What are the forest products gathered by men and women – before and after certification?

> What is the participation of men and women in committees and subcommittees?

> How do men and women perceive the forest management practices, forest conditions and their living conditions after implementation of certification requirements?

METHODOLOGY

> Understanding of gender equality with a focus on participation of women in a forest certification project and awareness levels of forest users.

> Experts from the project and local people were interviewed. Committee meetings were conducted and 60 household interviews were also carried out.

EXAMPLES/HIGHLIGHTS OF FINDINGS

Opinions of Respondents in Sushpa and Bhitteri CFUGs on Living Condition After Certification

> 33 per cent of the committee members were women, as mandated by policy. However, men usually held the prime positions, while women members were in the majority only in the subcommittees.

> Men felt better informed about upcoming committee meetings than women.

> In Sushpa only 21 per cent of the women were aware that the forests were certified, one third of them were aware of the year of certification, the others not. Of all men, 50 per cent were aware of the forests being certified; two-fifths of them knew the year of certification.

Source: Lewark, George and Karmann (2011)
EXAMPLES OF GENDER ANALYSIS AND ASSESSMENTS

EXAMPLE 6: MISSING VOICES – EXPERIENCES OF FLOODS AND EARLY WARNING FROM MARGINALISED WOMEN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR/SUBSECTOR</th>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DISASTER</td>
<td>NEPAL</td>
<td>Practical Action</td>
<td>2019</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

METHODOLOGY

> The study aimed to capture a diverse range of experiences and perspectives on the interaction between gender and early warning systems (EWS) in the context of LNOB.
> Targeted interviews were conducted with marginalized women, including those who are elderly, women with disabilities, single mothers, transgender women, women who were pregnant or with young babies, those with young children, and women with visual impairments. Names were changed to preserve anonymity, unless an individual explicitly requested that their name was used.
> Proactive efforts were made to build trust with individuals from marginalized groups, often linking with a related community-based organization (CBO) or trusted intermediary and taking a snowball sampling approach relying upon chains of personal introduction to reach individuals.
> A strategic decision was made to conduct Missing Voices interviews remotely via telephone, finding times when the interviewee felt confident to speak openly, giving greater reassurance of privacy and anonymity, and potentially enabling interviewees to share their views more openly than might have been expected when an interview team arrives from outside a community.

EXAMPLE OF VOICES

Hira Devi Tharu*, young woman with visual impairment, far-west Nepal

Hira is married to a man with a visual impairment. They have a toddler together and live with Hira’s husband’s family.

“My mother-in-law alerted me and my husband just before the flood reached us. She then arranged for us to be taken to the shelter. It was very scary; the flood swept away everything we owned soon after. I am certain my husband [also blind] and I would have died had we not had help. I know my way to school and, even in the midst of such chaos, might have been able to make my way there, but not with my daughter and belongings. I would be too worried for her safety. I have never attended any trainings or meetings regarding disaster preparedness. I never thought I would benefit from them, or others could learn or benefit from my contribution to them. If that was the case, I think, I would have been asked to participate, no?”

Nobody has ever asked for her opinions and she had never thought to proactively share them as she didn’t think anybody cared.

“The biggest challenge at the shelter was keeping my toddler safe and out of people’s way. Being so little, she knew nothing about personal boundaries, and because she would relieve herself whenever she felt the need to, and because of course I could not always see, people shunned us. Also, we were on the second floor and along with having no railings, there were also no toilets there. Overall, it was a very difficult and uncomfortable experience... it was not far from being traumatic as I felt shunned by people around, even though there was little else I could do to help myself.”

“During uncertain and chaotic times such as a flood, people are, rightly, focused on saving themselves. In such settings, people like us [blind and disabled] who cannot see, cannot hear and therefore cannot move around with ease and confidence, become even more vulnerable. We are left with no choice but to wait until somebody gets around to thinking of us. Until somebody is willing to help us. Along with us, I think women who are pregnant and women with new born children are the most vulnerable.”

Champa Kali Musalman, transgender woman, western Nepal

Champa is in her early 50s. She has never married, and lives with and supports her family of nine, including her elderly mother and widowed sister-in-law.

“I led my family to a safe place. We only left after water started entering our house. We just about saved our lives. There was nothing else left. We didn’t expect floods to be worse than in previous years; had we known better, I definitely would have prepared better and made sure we left earlier.”

“As I started heading to higher ground with the rest of my family, the name-calling started almost immediately. People pointed to us and said, ‘Oh look, the chakka [pejorative term] family is coming too’. I have lived openly for many years now, people in my community know I am teso-langi (third gender) and I am used to being jeered at and called derogatory names. But to be treated like this even during such a precarious time made me feel terrible. Nobody thought to offer any help,
EXAMPLE 6: MISSING VOICES – EXPERIENCES OF FLOODS AND EARLY WARNING FROM MARGINALISED WOMEN

even though my mother is very old and my nieces and nephews are young. Instead they tried to avoid us. When the jeering and taunts continued for days even where we were taking shelter and people did their best to seclude us, I sometimes thought about jumping into the water and ending it all once and for all. On top of everything, there was nowhere private to clean, wash, and change, and this made things worse.*

Champa Kali solely supports her family through the income she makes by dancing and singing at various cultural and religious events. She feels she has the final say in most of the family matters because of this. Yet she also feels she would never be able to attend any meetings or discussions, even at a community level.

“I feel too shy and uncomfortable. I know the rest of the community distrust and dislike people like me. I would never willingly put myself in a position where I might be sneered at openly. Unless I know a meeting is organized specifically for people like me, I would never go sit and put my views forward when surrounded by normal men and women.”

Source: Brown, et al. (2019)

EXAMPLE 7: RAPID GENDER ASSESSMENT FOR COVID-19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTOR/SUBSECTOR</th>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PUBLIC HEALTH (Pandemic)</td>
<td>ASIA AND THE PACIFIC</td>
<td>UN Women</td>
<td>2020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- Unlocking the Lockdown
  > Understanding the gendered effects of COVID-19 on achieving the SDGs in Asia and the Pacific.
  > Mapping consequences of COVID-19 on women’s and men’s economic empowerment.

- Rapid assessment surveys in 11 Asia-Pacific countries through mobile phones.
- Basic questionnaire (with 16 questions) to be finished within 10 minutes.
- Parameters covered included: i) background information; ii) source of COVID related information; iii) employment status and earnings before and during the lockdown; iv) affect on household resources; v) domestic and care giving work within the household; and vi) access to social protection, etc.

EXAMPLES/HIGHLIGHTS OF FINDINGS

Proportion of People Whose Time Allocated to Unpaid Domestic and Care Work Increased Since COVID-19, by Sex and Intensity (Percentage)

COVID-19 Multiplied the Workload at Home and Women are Paying the Price

- 85% of women are helping more*
- 67% of daughters are helping more*

Women in Large Cities Were Disproportionately Affected by Public Transit Disruptions

- 63% Men in capital cities
- 61% Men in non-capital cities
- 69% Women in capital cities
- 58% Women in non-capital cities

*Women and men were asked whether their partner helps more, as an assumption is made that their partner is of the opposite sex, even though this may not be the case.

Source: UN Women (2020a)
PARTICIPATORY TOOLS FOR GENDER ANALYSIS AND COMMUNITY-BASED ADAPTATION PLANNING

RESOURCE AND HAZARD MAPPING

- To show a clear picture on exposure and sensitivity to climate hazards of various areas, resources and groups in the community.
- To become familiar with the community and to see how the place is perceived by different groups within the community.
- To identify important livelihood and other resources in the community.
- To identify areas, people, assets and resources at risk from or impacted by climate hazards.

SEASONAL CALENDAR

- To understand the annual seasonal cycles of the main livelihood activities in the community.
- To identify seasonality of hazards, weather stresses, diseases, debt, social and religious activities and others, and link it with livelihood activities.
- To identify and analyze past medium- and long-term changes to livelihood activities, and the impact of weather and climate change on livelihood strategies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JAN</th>
<th>FEB</th>
<th>MAR</th>
<th>APR</th>
<th>MAY</th>
<th>JUN</th>
<th>JUL</th>
<th>AUG</th>
<th>SEP</th>
<th>OCT</th>
<th>NOV</th>
<th>DEC</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Agricultural Labour</td>
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<tr>
<td>Off-farm Labour</td>
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<tr>
<td>Water Availability</td>
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<td>Human Diseases</td>
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<tr>
<td>Animal Diseases</td>
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When done in separate groups or by using symbols, the seasonal calendar can help in identifying the roles of men and women in key economic and social activities. One can also identify how the seasonal calendars of men and women have changed in the past in response to weather and climate change. During the discussion, one can identify differential access to climate information and resources required for the livelihoods; understand the reasons why and their potential impact, and start discussion solutions.
### IMPACT MATRIX

- Identify the occupation which is more impacted by climate change within the community.
- Characterize and compare how the range of occupations is affected by climate change.
- Identify the climatic risk which has more impact on the community.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OCCUPATION/LIVELIHOOD</th>
<th>☀️</th>
<th>☁️</th>
<th>⚡</th>
<th>🐜</th>
<th>🐙</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Men and women are generally employed in different types of occupations. This exercise helps understand which occupations have a higher exposure and sensitivity to climate risks. The focus should be on understanding why a particular occupation is more vulnerable – is it because of the exposure or sensitivity, and what can be done to address the risks. During the discussion, one can also identify how many people within the community are involved in the occupation, what is the current stability of income from the occupation, required skill sets.

### RISK QUADRANT

- Identify the risks according to its likelihood and level of impact it can perpetuate on the community.
- The community becomes aware about the “likelihood or possibility” and “impact” of a disaster/event. For example, a tsunami may have a very high impact on lives but the likelihood of it happening in non-coastal zones is nil. Similarly, heat waves may have less visible impact but the likelihood of happening is much higher.

![Risk Quadrant Diagram]

Helps bring forth the tussle between climate “stresses” and climate “shocks.” Often, poor women are more affected by climate stresses than shocks. However, adaptation planning tends to be geared more towards shocks than stresses.
### Participatory Tools for Gender Analysis and Community-Based Adaptation Planning

**Adaptive Capacity Scoring**

> Identify the current scenario/status of the infrastructure related to basic services and climate adaptation available in the area.

> Help map the current adaptation capacities from an infrastructure and service perspective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To Flooding and Inundation</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Well Managed Drainage Networks</strong></td>
<td>No drainage network within slum</td>
<td>Open drainage lines with high shadow and overflowing</td>
<td>Well managed open drains or partially closed drainage facing frequent breakage</td>
<td>Overlaid water and sewage lines with breakage causing frequent contamination of drinking water</td>
<td>Proper drainage network with disposal facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Storm Water Management Systems</strong></td>
<td>No system in place</td>
<td>Open drains often clogged</td>
<td>Drains are there but unlined</td>
<td>System in place but not effective</td>
<td>Well managed storm water drainage is there or slum is on highground facing no water logging problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Solid Waste Management Systems</strong></td>
<td>No system of collection of solid waste – visible in dump site</td>
<td>No system of collection of solid waste but garbage truck comes on demand</td>
<td>Irregular collection of solid waste at mouth of slum designated area</td>
<td>Regular collection of solid waste at mouth of slum designated area</td>
<td>Regular door to door collection of solid waste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Regular Cleaning of Drains</strong></td>
<td>No drains</td>
<td>Occasional cleaning but it is dumped outside of the nalla (not ever picked)</td>
<td>Occasional cleaning of drains but it is not picked regularly</td>
<td>Cleaning of drains before monsoons and it is picked within 48 hours</td>
<td>Regular cleaning of drains and it is picked within 48 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High Plint Level of Homes</strong></td>
<td>Very low base and no plint of homes</td>
<td>Houses are lower than roads</td>
<td>Print on level of roads but not effective</td>
<td>Adequate print for normal monsoon but not for heavy downpours</td>
<td>Adequate print for heavy downpour</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Including infrastructure and services related to men and women's practical needs can bring the discussion to address women's infrastructure needs for climate change adaptation.

### Solutions Prioritisations

> To assess and study the preferences of community for a particular solution or technology over others.

> Useful to provide the community with a range of solutions and helping it select based on criteria which are more relevant to its people.

> Can be used for prioritization of many projects as well as for detailing within projects. For example, to select between drinking water supply lines and drainage construction line as well as between seed varieties of a flood-resistant crop or for selecting species for forest plantation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SI No.</th>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>VILLAGE</th>
<th>PANCHAYAT</th>
<th>PREFERENCES</th>
<th>EWRs</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>General administration (salaries, sitting charges, TA, DA, Stationery, etc.)</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>3.</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Public health</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Civic amenities</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Works under schedule caste and tribes welfare</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>8.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Debt heads</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


It also helps them share their perspective with others in a more analytical manner, often resulting in their having an optimal decision.
In May of 2008, Cyclone Nargis struck Myanmar, causing widespread devastation in the Ayeyarwady and Yangon divisions. Not only was it the eighth strongest cyclone in the world to date, it was also the worst natural disaster the people of Myanmar could remember. The official death toll stands at 84,537 with another 53,836 people unaccounted for. About 50 townships were affected in the two divisions, including Yangon, the country’s largest city. This devastating cyclone caused major damage to houses and other public infrastructures like roads, jetties, water and sanitation facilities, communication and electricity systems. One long lasting impact of the cyclone was the devastation of livelihoods resources in the communities. The Delta region, a big producer of rice, sustained major damage to agricultural fields due to the influx of seawater. Fishing, livestock and other small enterprises also incurred substantial amounts of damage. As one of the most vulnerable segments of the population, women felt the impact of the disaster most acutely. According to assessment data, the majority of the cyclone’s victims were female: 61 per cent of those who died were women, with a much higher number in some villages. The disproportionate number of female victims is especially evident in the key productive and reproductive age group of 18-60 years.

The Myanmar Red Cross Society (MRCS), supported by the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC), responded immediately following the cyclone, with distributions of non-food relief items such as toolkits for shelters, tarpaulins, jerry cans, hygiene kits, mosquito nets, blankets and kitchen sets. Assistance in health and water and sanitation sectors was also offered early on. Focus was also given to activities aimed at meeting the needs of their families. Different activities to be carried out at the village level by CFW were also identified. The project was successful in providing assistance to the most vulnerable landless casual labourers, who were in urgent need of wage employment following the disaster. Multi-sector Village Tract Assessments were carried out by MRCS teams comprised of volunteers, 30-40 per cent of whom were women. The teams used different participatory approaches during assessments, including focus group discussions and interviews with households and stakeholders. Women were encouraged to participate in the focus groups, as this helped the assessment teams incorporate gender perspectives into their understanding of urgent community needs. For example, it became clear that landless female labourers had difficulty finding employment post-disaster and needed work to be able to meet the needs of their families. Different activities to be carried out at the village level by CFW were also identified. Utmost care was taken to identify activities that facilitated women’s participation. These included:

1. the repair of village roads;
2. the restoration of river embankments;
3. the cleaning of debris from agricultural fields; and
4. the repair of canals.

The main objectives of the CFW were:
• to generate wage employment opportunities for the most vulnerable households affected by the cyclone
• to ensure food availability and economic security among the most vulnerable households with specific reference to women
• to restore community assets and infrastructure linked to community livelihoods systems
• to restore natural and environmental resources affected by the cyclone at the community level.

During all phases of CFW, 13 cyclone-affected townships were involved. The project reached out to 67 village tracts and covered 178 villages. A total of 6,644 beneficiaries were helped. Of these, 33 per cent were women. Other vulnerable groups represented included landless casual labourers (60 per cent), single male and female heads of household (12 per cent each), the elderly (10 per cent), large families (4 per cent), and the disabled (2 per cent). The project was successful in providing assistance to the most vulnerable landless casual labourers, who were in urgent need of wage employment following the disaster.

The main component of the recovery phase. MRCS identified livelihoods recovery of the most vulnerable households as one of the main goals of the programme. Livelihoods projects including asset recovery, community capacity-building, restoration of natural resources and wage employment by means of a cash for work project (CFW) were conducted. The CFW was implemented in October 2008, and was successfully completed by May 2009. The project was designed to mainstream gender awareness at all levels of implementation.

MRCS developed specific project implementation guidelines for branch level teams. The guidelines covered different aspects of the project including:
1. the formulation of activity proposals;
2. beneficiary selection criteria;
3. the kinds of activities to be selected;
4. daily wage rates;
5. implementation and monitoring procedures; and
6. financial management.

Some of the key gender-specific elements that were emphasized in these guidelines were:
• selection criteria that includes a target of 50 per cent female beneficiaries
• the inclusion of activities that were not overly technical and therefore encouraged women’s participation
• equal wage payment of 2,000 Myanmar Kyats per day per beneficiary for both men and women
• wages paid to actual beneficiaries at the work site and not family members

After the necessary training and capacity building of implementation teams, community-level project planning began. MRCS established Village Tract Recovery Committees (VTRC), which had a minimum of two female representatives, to coordinate the recovery programme. Community mobilization was undertaken through VTRCs to help communities become familiar with CFW. Details of the project were explained in community meetings. This was followed by the making of decisions concerning the kinds of work to be carried out and the selection of beneficiaries. The number of beneficiaries selected was based on the nature of the activity and the size work force required, and was decided by the community. Women’s participation was encouraged at this stage of the planning process. Based on community-level action plans, MRCS teams then developed proposals. Beneficiary selection criteria included:
• the elderly (55 years or older and in need of employment)
• large families (households with eight or more dependents)
• the disabled
• single female headed households (including widows)
• landless casual labourers and labour-dependent families
• single male-headed households (families with a single male parent looking after dependents).

**FIGURE 3-28: OVERALL BENEFICIARY COVERAGE AND VULNERABILITY COVERAGE**

**OVERALL BENEFICIARY COVERAGE**

- Female - 33%
- Male - 67%

**OVERALL VULNERABILITY COVERAGE OF CFW PROJECT**

- Disabled - 2%
- Large Family size - 4%
- Elderly - 10%
- Single Male-Headed Household - 12%
- Single Female-Headed Household - 12%
- Landless Casual Labour - 60%
Before any activities began, additional preparatory meetings were conducted to finalize the project monitoring and implementation systems. It became clear that the selected female beneficiaries, especially those with large families and those who were the heads of household, found it difficult to participate in a full day of work due to their responsibilities at the household level in looking after other family members. In response, MRCS included a psychosocial component in the CFW. Necessary facilities were provided for women to bring their children to worksites so that they could productively participate in the project. Necessary arrangements were also made at worksites on a case-to-case basis to promote women’s participation. Wage payments were made to the actual beneficiaries and not to other family members. This helped to ensure that women taking part in CFW received their wages directly, which enabled them to use the money to meet the needs of their households.

The CFW was a successful early recovery project implemented in response to the needs of the most vulnerable households affected by Cyclone Nargis. Some key outcomes of the project were:

- Wage employment opportunities were provided to 6,644 vulnerable households following the disaster.
- The programme was successful in strengthening and developing village infrastructure that was damaged in the disaster.

Ensuring the active participation of women in CFW though was a challenge. MRCS set a target of 50 per cent female participation, but in reality achieved only 33 per cent. Women were, however, represented across all the vulnerable groups as can be seen in Table 3-10:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BENEFICIARY DETAILS</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elderly</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large family</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landless casual labourer</td>
<td>2,979</td>
<td>1,038</td>
<td>4,017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single female-headed household</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>808</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disabled</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single male-headed household</td>
<td>759</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,445</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,199</strong></td>
<td><strong>6,644</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Training Manual on Gender and Climate Change Resilience

MODULE 4
GENDER IN ADAPTATION APPROACHES AND SECTORAL ACTION
# MODULE 4: GENDER IN ADAPTATION APPROACHES AND SECTORAL ACTION

## SESSION PLAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SESSION A</th>
<th>SESSION B: Gender and CCDRR Dimensions in Sectors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adaptation Models and Gender</td>
<td>A. Agriculture and Food Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B. Public Health and Epidemics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. Coastal Zones</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This module brings together the various approaches to adaptation planning – area-based, ecosystem-based, infrastructure-based, community-based, and the Leave No One Behind approach. Using select case studies from the region, this module will help the participants identify gaps, strategies and tools which can be applicable to their own work. The module also provides a step by step guide to Community-Based Adaptation (CBA) and resilience building approaches with focus on: i) Conceptual framework and guiding principles; ii) Building people’s institutions with women and girls at the forefront; iii) Enabling transdisciplinary collaboration and multi-stakeholder processes; iv) Communicating climate concepts and scientific knowledge to women; and v) undertaking gender-sensitive community-based vulnerability assessment and resilience planning. The focus is on how women can be involved as equal stakeholders in Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction (CCDRR) projects. Building on this to provide a more nuanced understanding of the gender dimensions within various sub-sectors related to climate change, the module also covers technical information and tools for sectoral interventions and cases on gender-just practices and technical solutions implemented in the given sector.

## OBJECTIVES OF THE MODULE:

- Understand the various approaches to adaptation and resilience planning;
- Identify strategies and tools integration of gender in various adaptation projects;
- Be able to develop a community-based adaptation/resilience project;
- Understand the gender and CCDRR dimensions within select sectors – be able to identify key stakeholders, strategies and activities for gender mainstreaming in the selected sectors;
- Be able to design a gender-responsive CCDRR project.

## KEY MESSAGES:

- Adaptation to climate change involves anticipating the adverse effects of climate change and taking action to prevent or to minimize the damage that they can cause.
- Globally, there are different types of approaches to adaptation practice that are employed. These include local adaptation action plans, city resilience plans, infrastructure-based adaptation, ecosystem-based adaptation, community-based adaptation and Leave No One Behind approach.
- Local Adaptation Plans of Action (LAPAs) and City Resilience Plans are spatial approaches for adaptation planning, often prepared at the local government level, and focus on coverage of a decentralized administrative or geographical unit.
- Ecosystem-based Adaptation (EbA) refers to nature-based solutions to address climate change and disasters. Such projects include two components – maintenance of ecosystems and ecosystem resilience. EbA is a more inclusive approach that takes into consideration vulnerable groups whose livelihoods directly depend on natural resources.
- Community-Based Adaptation (CBA) is a more process-oriented approach which focuses on adaptive capacity-building rather than adaptation action. A key component of all CBA projects has to be knowledge enhancement of the communities.
- All different types of adaptation approaches can be community-based but LAPAs and EbAs are seen to have adopted this approach more. CBAs are generally led by local non-governmental organizations (NGOs).
- There is a need to integrate gender within all the adaptation approaches across sectors.
- Sectoral adaptation – especially those concerning agriculture, livestock, food security, water management, drought management, public health services, coastal zones, cyclones, flooding and fisheries – have a strong gender dimension which must be considered in the planning and implementation processes.
- Most importantly, women need to be part of all adaptation action and gender-just solutions must be promoted.
# Module 4 Session Plan A

## Overview
At the end of this session, participants should be able to understand the guiding principles and processes for the various adaptation approaches. They should be able to identify strategies for gender integration within these processes.

## Content
- **A. Local Adaptation Plans of Action (LAPAs)**
  - Country Case Study – Nepal
- **B. City Resilience Plans**
  - Country Case Study – Indonesia (Semarang)
- **C. Infrastructure-Based Adaptation**
  - Country Case Study – China
  - Country Case Study – Bangladesh
- **D. Ecosystem-Based Adaptation**
  - Country Case Study – Vietnam
  - Country Case Study – Nepal
- **E. Community-Based Adaptation Approach**
  - Country Case Study – Vietnam
  - Country Case Study – India

## Materials
- PowerPoint presentations
- Whiteboard and marker pen
- Apparatus for film viewing on YouTube
- Chart papers and pens
- Copy of Handouts

## Outline
- **5 mins.** Sharing of overview, session content and process.
- **85 mins.** PowerPoint presentation on “Adaptation Models” intervened with Mock Panel Discussion for Gender-Responsiveness Assessment of Adaptation Projects (see Exercise 22 and Handouts 16 and 17).
- **90 mins.** Harvard Case Review Method for “Women-Led Community-Based Urban Resilience Project” (see Exercise 22 and Handout 18).

## Guidance Notes
Share the session overview and content with the participants and state that this session will be conducted a bit differently. Tell them that the session aims to provide the participants an overview of the various adaptation models through a detailed presentation and sharing of examples. You will be making a presentation on various “Adaptation Models.” Simultaneously, a panel discussion on Gender-Responsiveness Assessment of select adaptation projects will also be happening. Tell them that they have to assess their projects based on the Gender-Responsive Assessment Scale (GRAS) tool that they have learnt in the earlier session (see Exercise 21 and Handouts 16 and 17). Begin the presentation after each model type, break for a relevant case (see trainer tips).

This would be followed by a case review methodology to enable the participants to learn about community-based adaptation and resilience approaches in detail. A detailed case study is provided to guide the participants through the project preparation steps and stages. It will indicate how the design of the gender-specific activities progressed in a participatory manner, working with the range of stakeholders (communities, women, donor agencies, government and relevant NGOs). Participation is a key in all these project steps, from data collection, the identification of barriers, needs, and potential enablers, to the design of women-specific activities and relevant budgets, staffing needs and indicators (see Exercise 22 and Handout 18). Make sure that you have circulated the Handouts to all participants well in advance, so that they have enough time to go through them (recommended for the advanced course). The trainer tip on Exercise 22 also provides video links on how to best facilitate a case review session. It is advisable for the trainer to go through these videos and read the case thoroughly before facilitating the session.
Adaptation Models and Gender

Adaptation to climate change involves anticipating the adverse effects of climate change and taking appropriate action to prevent or minimize the damage they can cause. The goal is to reduce vulnerability and exposure to the harmful effects of climate change (like sea-level rise, extreme weather events or food insecurity). It also encompasses making the most of any potential beneficial opportunities associated with climate change (for example, longer growing seasons or increased yields in some regions).

Globally, there are different types of approaches to adaptation practice that have been employed over the last two decades. Some of them are short-term (less than 10 years), addressing impacts that are already occurring and are likely to rise in the immediate future. These are often local measures, infrastructure- or service-oriented and often targeted to a specific risk. Many are medium- or long-term responses which focus on enhancing adaptive capacity or the ability of a system (human, natural or managed) to adjust to climate change.

LOCAL ADAPTATION PLANS OF ACTION – INTEGRATION OF BOTTOM-UP AND TOP-DOWN APPROACH

Local Adaptation Plans of Action (LAPAs) is a spatial approach to adaptation planning. LAPAs are often prepared at the local government level and focus on coverage of a decentralized administrative or geographical unit. LAPAs may be prepared with or without community participation; though in most cases, LAPAs have been able to mainstream participatory processes. LAPAs are in a continuum to identify and address mid-term and long-term adaptation goals.

The practice of LAPA was first initiated in Nepal as part of the National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA) development processes (Peniston 2013). The Government of Nepal developed LAPAs in 14 districts (87 villages and 9 municipalities) which helped embed local priorities, needs and capacities into national-level planning, policies and action (Rattani and Lama 2018). After the initial pilots, LAPAs were also included in the National Adaptation Plan (NAP) processes (Daze, et al. 2018).

Specifically, the LAPA Framework (MoFE Nepal 2018) supports:

- The development of local adaptation plans which reflect location- or region-specific climate change hazards and impacts. The plans support adaptation options that are available locally and that are accessible to the most vulnerable communities and households, including women.
- The integration of local adaptation priorities into village, municipality, district and sectoral level planning processes in accordance with the Local Self Governance Act.
- The implementation of local adaptation plans by supporting the timely and sustainable delivery of adaptation services to the most climate-vulnerable, including women.
- Iterative adaptation planning through constant monitoring, evaluation and feedback.

The LAPA Framework was designed to consist of seven steps for integrating climate change resilience into local-to-national planning processes. They include: i) Sensitization; ii) Climate vulnerability and adaptation assessment; iii) Prioritization of adaptation options; iv) Developing local adaptation plan for action; v) Integrating the local adaptation plan for action into planning processes; vi) Implementing the local adaptation plan for action; and vii) Assessing progress of local adaptation plan for action (Peniston 2013). Each step is carefully considered as to why it is important; what actions should be undertaken; and, a list of appropriate participatory tools to use was outlined. Handout 14 brings together the key processes and tools involved in the different stages of LAPA.

The framework is based on the four principles of bottom-up, inclusive, responsive and flexible (see Table 4-1).

Gender Mainstreaming in LAPAs

During the NAPA development process in Nepal in 2010, gender sensitivity analysis of climate change impacts was undertaken, highlighting the differentiated vulnerability of women across all six NAPA thematic areas. The LAPA took this further to also look at women as agents of change, especially highlighting the facts that male outmigration was increasing the number of women-headed households in the country, the feminization of agriculture sector, and the dependence of the country on women for natural resource management and health (MoFE Nepal 2018).
Gender is integrated across all stages of the LAPA (Figure 4-1). The focus was also extended in the NAP development which had “Gender and Social Inclusion (Marginalized Groups)” as a cross-cutting issue and stand-alone theme. The focus was also in developing a dedicated adaptation pathway and ensuring representation of women and vulnerable groups across all working groups (Daze, et al. 2018).

CITY RESILIENCE ACTION PLANS – MULTI-DIMENSIONAL PLANNING

Rapid urbanization trends that have transformed the planet from 30 per cent urban in 1950 to over 55 per cent urban today are further expected to double by 2050. This means that every 7 of 10 people in the world will live in cities (World Bank 2020b). A significant portion of this expansion will happen in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, both regions with growing exposure to climate change and disaster impacts. Enabling urban resilience has become critical to achieving sustainable development agenda.

Recognizing this, more and more cities are addressing their vulnerability by creating resilience plans and/or prioritizing CCDRR in their master and sector-specific plans. These plans often use multiple strategies to help cities understand their vulnerabilities and prepare for climate impacts and disasters. Urban resilience is what helps cities adapt and transform in the face of these challenges, helping them to prepare for both the expected and the unexpected. Resilience Cities defines urban resilience as “the capacity of individuals, communities, institutions, businesses and systems within a city to survive, adapt and grow no matter what kinds of chronic stresses and acute shocks they experience” (C40 Cities and 100 Resilient Cities 2016). Building urban resilience requires looking at a city holistically, understanding the systems that make up the city, and the interdependencies and risks they may face in future. By strengthening the underlying fabric of a city and better understanding the potential shocks and stresses it may face, a city can improve its development trajectory and the well-being of its citizens.

The City Resilience Framework (CRF) (Arup International and Rockefeller Foundation) provides a lens to help understand the complexity of cities. It identifies a series of drivers necessary for a city’s resilience. The CRF describes the essential systems of a city in terms of four dimensions: i) Health and Wellbeing; ii) Economy and Society; iii) Infrastructure and Environment; and iv) Leadership and Strategy. Each dimension contains three “drivers,” a total of 12 goals, further broken into 52 indicators which reflect the actions that cities can take to improve their resilience.

Show this short film available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hLPcDfDWKes for the participants to get a feel of the framework and indicators.
FIGURE 4-1: LAPA CYCLE IN NEPAL

STEP 1: CLIMATE CHANGE SENSITIZATION
(Carried out in all steps)
- At the outset of LAPA formulation, hold climate change sensitization-related interaction, workshop and seminar at community, village, town and district levels.
- Ensure information flow and awareness raising throughout the LAPA process to support learning and feedback.

Data generation and awareness building on gender and caste issues (gender analysis and mobility mapping)
- Raise awareness around the impacts of climate change and the means to address these impacts.
- Strengthen and establish institutions and organisations that will drive local adaptation.

STEP 2: VULNERABILITY AND ADAPTATION ASSESSMENT
- Identify climate vulnerable communities and households
  - Identify vulnerable VDCs, municipalities
  - Identify vulnerable wards
  - Identify vulnerable households/communities
  - Identify adaptation practices and actions

Gender analysis and identification of vulnerable men and women across social groups in the hotspots
- Identify climate vulnerable VDCs, municipalities, wards and vulnerable communities, households and individuals within these wards;
- Identify adaptation practices and actions that will reduce vulnerability to current and future climate change; and
- Support identification and efficient mobilization of resources planning.

STEP 3: PRIORITIZATION OF ADAPTATION OPTIONS
- Identify and prioritize the most urgent and important adaptation actions for the most vulnerable people, community, VDC and municipality;
- Prioritize the actions based on social, environmental, technological and economic costs and benefits.

Using gender-sensitive multi-criteria ranking/analysis to prioritize the most urgent and important adaptation actions based on gender needs and priorities
- Prioritize the most urgent and cost-effective adaptation actions for implementation.

STEP 4: LAPA FORMULATION
- Base the plan around identified & prioritised adaptation actions;
- Identify areas to implement adaptation actions;
- Identify competent service providers to implement adaptation actions;
- Estimate the costs for identified actions and allocate for the implementation of identified adaptation actions;
- Integrate progress monitoring into the plan for action, and include procedure for monitoring of each action.

Build roadmap showing the adaptation journey with milestones, targets and monitoring
- Ensure that decision is made in consultation with women to understand their availability and interest, as also their accessibility to the action sites. Focus on "how to ensure equitable access to the benefits for women?"

STEP 5: LAPA INTEGRATION INTO PLANNING PROCESS
- Prepare a plan for settlement and ward level adaptation actions and integrate into a VDC or municipality plan;
- Identify entry points for integrating LAPA into local development planning processes;
- Submit LAPA to the local bodies for necessary ratification (acceptance); and
- Submit feedback and learning regularly to departments, ministries and National Planning Commission to ensure integration of climate adaptation and resilience aspects into national development planning.

Ensure mechanisms have a system and capacities to ensure gender and social inclusion into the integration process. Adopt Gender-Responsive Budgeting.
- Support the integration of climate adaptation and resilience into sectoral development plans.
- Support the integration of identified adaptation actions into public, private and NGO planning processes.

STEP 6: LAPA IMPLEMENTATION
- Strengthen district and VDC level institution mechanism (Environment, Energy, Climate Change Coordination Committee)
  - Define responsibilities of different institutions for LAPA implementation;
  - Implement the plans logically and sequentially, but ensuring flexible approach that can be responsive to additional information through monitoring and evaluation;
  - Commission and contract the Service Providers through competitive process based on needs, expertise and skills.

Ensure equity provisions to promote gender equality and inclusion in decision making processes.
- Implement Local Adaptation Plans for Action.

STEP 7: LAPA PROGRESS ASSESSMENT
- Develop and monitor the implementation of a monitoring plan that contains indicators, baselines and targets;
- Develop monitoring information system;
- Develop the provision of periodic participatory evaluation meeting, public audit and public hearing;
- Develop monitoring tools such as score card evaluation for quality assurance of the Service Providers;
- Establish district and VDC level monitoring committee for monitoring adaptation actions and mobilize ward citizen forum for coordination and monitoring at community level.

M&E is based on disaggregation by gender, age, caste, class and ethnicity
- Address reflection and learning that will guide responsive and iterative adaptation planning.

Source: Adapted from UNDP Nepal (n.d.)
The framework also builds on existing research on resilient systems and identifies seven characteristics that a city resilience system needs. These seven qualities are: i) reflective; ii) robust; iii) redundant; iv) flexible; v) resourceful; vi) inclusive; and vii) integrated.

The inclusion aspects especially focus on the need for broad consultation and engagement of communities, including the most vulnerable groups (ARUP 2015). Table 4-2 next identified the gender dimensions important to be considered across the four dimensions and 12 goals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CITY RESILIENCE DIMENSION</th>
<th>RELATED DRIVERS/GOALS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION OF GOALS</th>
<th>GENDER AND INCLUSION CONSIDERATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HEALTH AND WELL-BEING</td>
<td>Minimal human vulnerability</td>
<td>Indicated by the extent to which everyone’s basic needs are met.</td>
<td>Access to food, water, shelter and basic assets for everyone especially vulnerable groups is critical.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diverse livelihoods and employment</td>
<td>Facilitated by access to finance, ability to accrue savings, skills training, business support and social welfare.</td>
<td>An inclusive approach to livelihoods ensures that all citizens in a city have unrestricted access to legitimate occupations, regardless of race, ethnicity, gender or sexual orientation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effective safeguards to human health and life</td>
<td>Relying on integrated health facilities and services, and responsive emergency services.</td>
<td>Accessible and affordable day-to-day individual healthcare, as well as appropriate population-based interventions. Services or facilities that target vulnerable groups ensure that preventive and responsive strategies are inclusive and able to reach the entire population.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECONOMY AND SOCIETY</td>
<td>Collective identity and community support</td>
<td>Observed as active community engagement, strong social networks and social integration.</td>
<td>Communities that are active, appropriately supported by the city government and well-connected with one another contribute to the bottom-up creation of a city with a strong identity and culture. Social inclusion practices reinforced through physical intervention-communal facilities, physical accessibility and others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehensive security and rule of law</td>
<td>Including law enforcement, crime prevention, justice and emergency management.</td>
<td>Laws upheld by resourceful and inclusive systems of policing. Social stability and security is also facilitated by inclusive public space design, which helps to avoid creating places where crime may proliferate, while maximizing the safety and security of individuals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sustainable economy</td>
<td>Observed as sound financial management, diverse revenue streams, the ability to attract business investment, adequate investment and emergency funds.</td>
<td>City government can contribute to the sustainability of private economic activities by empowering different sectors within the economy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INFRASTRUCTURE-BASED ADAPTATION PLANNING

The impact of climate-related events and disasters are expected to put an added stress on vital water, sanitation, flood management, transportation and energy infrastructure. Climate change will play an increasingly important role in defining the level of service, location, design, operation and maintenance, renewal or retrofitting options and eventual disposal of the asset. Thus, it is important that practitioners have effective tools and resources to develop and implement climate resilient solutions for existing and new infrastructure.

The incorporation of climate change adaptation principles into infrastructure planning, design or renewal may not always require a major change in process but more in
Approach and design principles. Instead, the following approach stipulates an integration of climate change considerations in each phase of project implementation by:

- Taking into consideration future climate conditions (along with past and current climate conditions); or
- Considering uncertainty in the review and use of climate data through sensitivity testing and adjusting the design (for example, through a greater safety margin) or, at a minimum, adjusting the performance or service expectations of the designed structures.

Examples of alterations in engineering design could include: i) rehabilitating a stormwater network for greater capacity, as extreme precipitation events are expected to increase in the future; ii) building break waters or sea fronts, dikes and barriers against rising tides; iii) designing foundations of a new seawall so that it can be heightened in the future in response to sea level rise; iv) building a new bridge at a higher elevation if the existing structure is frequently submerged and damaged by river flooding; v) design and construction of shelters for cyclones, hurricanes and floods; and others.

While these projects per se may seem gender-neutral, they may not essentially also benefit women unless women's rights, priorities and needs are considered and women are meaningfully included and represented in the planning, design and management of the new infrastructure.

The gender-differentiated access over infrastructure and related services needs to be kept in mind while designing such services. Otherwise, it may not only end up with women not being able to gain economically or socially from these infra-related services but also being left worse off as a result of the new infrastructure. For example, diverting fresh water to areas where there is a water shortage (through dikes, water transfers or irrigation canals) may have the unintended consequence of lengthening and intensifying women's productive and reproductive working day by placing water sources in distant places (Aguilar 2009).

Such examples underscore the need for proper consideration of the interests and contributions of all members of society, especially women and other vulnerable groups, in the design and planning of climate-resilient infrastructure. In 2015, AECOM and USAID developed a manual on incorporating climate change adaptation in infrastructure planning and design. Figure 4-2 brings together the methodological steps for planning and design of climate-resilient infrastructure proposed in the framework, with suggestions for gender-responsive actions.
| Step 4: Adaptation Strategy | Development and Comparison of Adaptation Responses | How should engineering design be adjusted to account for climate change impacts? What are the optimal (multi-criteria) responses?

- Project Appraisal: Further refine options (e.g., cost benefit)
- Resource-Base Analysis: Availability of and access to resources

Selection of the appropriate adaptation strategy

Adaptation responses, new designs should consider more gender-friendly options (For e.g., shelters should be designed keeping in mind the need for privacy and dignity of women).

| Step 5: Implementation | Best Practices | Incorporate lessons learned in future design and planning process

Best practices should highlight options that create jobs for women. All projects should have a clear target for training and hiring women

| Monitoring and Evaluation | Monitor and evaluate for change in risk status

Source: Adapted from AECOM (2015).
GENDER DIMENSIONS IN VARIOUS STAGES OF INFRASTRUCTURE PLANNING – THE CASE OF LAKE BASIN IN CHINA

This case from AECOM (2015) manual on climate-resilient infrastructure planning is focused on a large freshwater lake basin in mainland China. The basin’s water resources are threatened by projected increases in average annual temperature, changes in precipitation patterns and drought. The steps provided in the case highlight the gaps and opportunities for gender mainstreaming.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 4-3: STEPS IN CLIMATE-RESILIENT INFRASTRUCTURE PLANNING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>STEP 1</strong> To establish the context, available historical data from local weather stations were analyzed and climate modelling was used to establish that the lake was characterized by a marked dry spell.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‣ A gendered approach would have also triangulated the data with the usage and dependency patterns to understand not only the dry spells but also the major deficit periods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>STEP 2</strong> Risk screening was undertaken by preparing a risk screening matrix, which illustrated a number of relationships. On the far-left side, the matrix shows the relationships between core elements (e.g., agriculture) and sub-elements (e.g., rice production). Relationships are then identified as being strong, minor, uncertain, distant, or non-existent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‣ As can be seen, the core elements and sub-elements clearly missed the relationships on:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‣ Water quantity for human consumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‣ Water quality for human consumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‣ Impact on existing water sources due to lower recharge from the lake</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY CLIMATE DRIVER</th>
<th>Extreme Heat</th>
<th>Extreme Cold</th>
<th>Drought</th>
<th>Mean Rainfall</th>
<th>Extreme Rainfall</th>
<th>Floods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CORE ELEMENT - SUBELEMENTS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGRICULTURE - 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6</td>
<td>1. Pests/Vermin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDUSTRY - 6, 7</td>
<td>2. Rice Production</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUBLIC HEALTH - 8, 9, 10</td>
<td>3. Citrus Production</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIVELIHOODS - 5, 11, 12, 13</td>
<td>4. Forestry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIODIVERSITY - 6, 14</td>
<td>5. Fisheries and Aquaculture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOURISM - 14</td>
<td>6. Water Resources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>7. Lake Water Level</td>
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<td>8. Schistosomiasis</td>
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<td>9. Cold Spell-Related Facilities</td>
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<td>10. Heat Wave-Related Facilities</td>
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<td>11. Water Quality for Human Consumption</td>
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<td>12. Subsistence Fishing</td>
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<td>13. Subsistence Agriculture</td>
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<td></td>
<td>14. Wetland Ecosystems (Including migratory birds)</td>
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</table>

**STEP 3** Based on the vulnerability screening steps presented above, almost 30 risks were identified and analyzed; most of the risks are likely to result in negative impacts while a few might present positive impacts (opportunity). The key climate change risks considered in the adaptation strategy included:

> Reduction in surface water resources;
> Decline in agricultural yields (including fisheries and forestry);
> Decrease in water availability for key industries;
> Public health impacts, in particular increased transmission and diffusion of schistosomiasis (a vector-borne disease influenced by temperature and flood patterns) and extreme heat;
**TABLE 4-3: STEPS IN CLIMATE-RESILIENT INFRASTRUCTURE PLANNING**

- Potential degradation of key natural resources (water and subsistence farming) for local livelihood systems; and
- Potential decline in biodiversity values (migratory birds and wetlands).

  - The rated risk evaluation highlights the impact of water availability in the province but not on the consequence to women's time poverty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RISK</th>
<th>LIKELIHOOD</th>
<th>CONSEQUENCE</th>
<th>RISK 2050</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reduced surface water resource as a result of increased frequency and intensity of drought events and increases in mean temperature and extreme heat events. Surface water resources account for 96% of total water supply in Jiangxi Province. Increase in the frequency and intensity of drought events, mean temperature and extreme heat all contribute to a decrease in surface water resources. Rising mean temperature and increases in the frequency and intensity of extreme heat events increase evaporation rates of surface water, the watershed and water reservoirs.</td>
<td>4 – LIKELY</td>
<td>4 – MAJOR</td>
<td>16 – HIGH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean temperature is likely to increase by 2050, along with the frequency and intensity of extreme heat events, resulting in reduced surface water recharge rates by 2050, particularly during drought. The trend of droughts out to 2050 is uncertain for the Poyang Lake Basin; however, the potential for increases in frequency and intensity of droughts should be considered.</td>
<td>With surface water resources accounting for 96% of total provincial water supply, a reduction in this resource would have a significant impact causing widespread disruption to water supply in the Province.</td>
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</table>

**STEPS 4 and 5**

A list of 12 possible adaptation measures was identified to address some of the most threatening risks. Most of these measures focus on a specific sector (water, lake level, agriculture, industry) and two of them were general measures (public health, awareness). The waters strategy included permanent (seasonal) water restrictions.

- Interestingly, domestic water has not even been considered as a major sector, the only role has been in terms of public health. There is documented evidence of the impact of water restrictions on women's productivity and even girl-child education. These have not even been considered.

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**ECOSYSTEM-BASED ADAPTATION**

Ecosystem-based Adaptation (EbA) refers to the use of environmental assets and natural protection measures as solutions to address climate change and disasters. For example, "floodplain forests and coastal mangroves provide storm protection, coastal defences and water recharge, and act as safety barriers against natural hazards such as floods, hurricanes and tsunamis, while wetlands filter pollutants and serve as water recharge areas and nurseries for local fisheries." The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (2005) also uses two EbA components in its analysis of how changes to ecosystems and their services affect human well-being.

**Maintenance of ecosystem services** – Ecosystems provide a number of provisioning, regulating, cultural and supporting services. In the context of climate change adaptation, these “natural assets” or “ecosystem services” include water provision, erosion protection, climate regulation, disaster risk reduction and genetic diversity. It is very important to ensure that these ecosystems are not degraded and they continue to provide these essential services. Central to the concept of EbA is the importance of adopting a holistic approach to maintaining ecosystem structure and functioning, and ecosystem service provision.

**Ecosystem resilience** – Climate change impacts such as changes in sea levels, temperature and rainfall will affect the functionality of ecosystems. Such changes can have significant social, cultural and economic consequences (Jeans, et al. 2014). The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (2005) predicts that "By the end of the century, climate change and its impacts may be the dominant direct driver of biodiversity loss and changes
in ecosystem services globally.” Ecosystems have limits beyond which they cannot function. The concept of ecosystem resilience builds on developing and maintaining “capacity of a system to tolerate impacts of drivers without irreversible change in its outputs or structure.”

EbA often provides greater opportunity to target vulnerable groups whose livelihoods directly depend on natural resources. A community-based EbA even makes it possible to strengthen their position by offering multiple benefits.

EbA is very important from a gender perspective as women are generally the primary custodians of local and traditional knowledge due to the close linkage and stronger relationships with natural resources (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015). Thus, EbA also provides a larger space for women's involvement. The knowledge that women have as managers of natural resources can provide important insights into the design of effective strategies. It is, however, important to mention that gender integration is not a default process within EbA. It is important to take steps that include local and gender-based experiences in EbA planning processes. Equally important is to assess the ability of natural resources to contribute to women's livelihoods, health and other aspects as part of any EbA project designing. Generally, this aspect is missing, with the result that women are not aware of the benefits that they can directly achieve from options (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015).

CBA is also regarded by some (Reid and Huq 2007) as a “vital approach to the threat climate change poses to the poor.” The authors of this paper argue that simply giving money to governments in poor countries will not ensure money reaching the poor and most vulnerable. Thus, it is important to adopt CBA that has a greater potential to reach out to these communities. Proponents of participatory approaches like Robert Chambers and others have already been arguing that “top-down” approaches are often disempowering and biased against the interests of the poor (Mansuri and Rao 2013). Climate activists argue that this also applies to adaptation projects which can focus on hard infrastructure projects and technological responses to discrete climate impacts instead of initiatives to strengthen the long-term adaptive capacity which reportedly failed to provide adequate adaptation support to those most vulnerable to climate change (Kirkby, Williams and Huq 2018).

CBA is generally driven by multiple components. The key component involves working in partnership with place-based communities to improve their capacity to adapt to climate risks and impacts. However, a CBA is more than a project; it is more like a movement since it involves a community with a shared interest in advocating for institutional and financial support for vulnerable communities to adapt to climate change.

Thus, it is a socio-political landscape where the decisions on adaptation are based on the needs and priorities of those who will be affected the most.

The objective of CBA is to enable communities to drive their own self-sufficient and sustained adaptation by allowing them to determine the methods and goals of adaptation for themselves (Dodman and Mitlin 2013). This is achieved through a process of empowerment that involves mobilizing the energy, effort, enthusiasm, knowledge and experience of individuals and communities (Reid, et al. 2009). CBA is “about the community making choices, not having them imposed from outside.” CBA policies and interventions should reflect local values, priorities and conceptions of wellbeing – as opposed to those of external actors – and “should be done with rather than to or for communities” (Warrick 2011).

The key strategies of a CBA model (Reid and Huq 2007; Kirkby, Williams and Huq 2018) include:
1. Focused on adaptive capacity-building more than local adaptation action;
2. Sustained mobilization of communities with an aim to build trust between themselves and with other stakeholders;
3. Recognizing the complex realities of the local communities, especially the existing power structures, and creating enabling environment and institutional mechanism for vulnerable groups to participate in benefit-sharing, management and decision-making processes;  
4. Building capacities of communities to understand the complexities of climate change through top-down scientific information sharing while also ensuring the transfer of local knowledge for co-producing adaptation strategies. Integration of local wisdom and scientific knowledge is the key to a CBA. Towards this, CBA also necessitates the application of a trans-disciplinary approach;  
5. Focus on community-based vulnerability assessments and resilience planning approaches. Tailoring adaptation understanding and solutions to address the local and cultural contexts which define vulnerability (inhibit adaptation) – for example, women and landless not having space in natural resource management decisions – as well as adaptive capacities (enable adaptation) – for example, community awareness and systems for forest or mangrove restoration;  
6. Negotiating institutional barriers especially those related with resource control and power imbalances, finances, human resources and coordination between government agencies;  
7. CBA approaches especially focus on addressing underlying causes of vulnerability, thereby providing for an integrated model which mainstreams adaptation action within development processes; and  
8. Focus on women and vulnerable communities need to be an essential part of the CBA approach not only because they are most vulnerable to climate change but also because they are active agents of change and can be valuable contributors in adaptation work.  

A key component of all CBA projects has to be knowledge enhancement of the communities. Knowledge, of both likely future changes in the climate and possible adaptation strategies, empowers individuals and groups to decide whether, when and how to adapt, and enables them to address place-specific effects of climate change in ways that prioritize their long-term goals. Adaptive knowledge refers to any knowledge that improves individuals’ or groups’ abilities to adapt themselves to climate change. It includes both theoretical and practical knowledge and determines how well actors can adapt within constraints imposed by limited resources and power (Williams, Falzon and Huq 2018). Knowledge is a necessary but insufficient condition for successful adaptation: regardless of how much money or power actors have (Adger, et al. 2004), they cannot adapt to climate-induced hazards or stresses unless they are aware of a problem, understand potential responses to this problem and know how to effectively implement these responses.

**FIGURE 4-3: THE ADAPTATION KNOWLEDGE LADDER**

Source: Williams, Falzon and Huq (2018)
At the level of implementation, CBA projects are largely supported and funded by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and/or government agencies, in collaboration with local communities. However, there are other institutions which play a major role, including multi-lateral financing agencies, facilitation, planning, research and advocacy agencies.

The key challenges of a CBA approach are characterized by limitations of participatory approaches, lack of demonstration of effectiveness of the approach through adequate monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, achieving scale, and being able to separate general development actions from adaptation actions. The last one in particular is a major hindrance to ensuring financial flows from adaptation funds, as there is a need to show the contribution to climate actions. Thus, most CBA projects are funded through development assistance. However, UNDP-GEF Small grants project, Global Resilience Partnership fund and others have also funded CBA projects that have co-financing from local partners.

Gender Mainstreaming in CBA Projects

Gender mainstreaming is a critical factor to the success of a CBA project. Just as different communities are distinctively affected by climate change impacts, different groups within a single community have their own unique vulnerabilities. It is particularly important to identify gender-based vulnerabilities within the community as part of the CBA planning process.

This requires two kinds of strategies:

- a. Ensuring that women are part of all discussions of local vulnerability assessments. This can be done by bringing women as part of the community groups, or in societies where this is not possible, to have separate discussions with women-only groups, to understand the local vulnerabilities. However, it is important to ensure that women from all class, caste, (dis)abilities, ages, sexual orientation, ethnicity and others are part of these discussions.

- b. Applications of participatory gender analysis tools to highlight the gender roles and gender-based vulnerabilities in the community. Moser and Harvard frameworks; Capacities and Vulnerabilities Assessment (CVA) and GVCA assessment tools are especially useful to bring out gender and other vulnerabilities. It is also important to focus on the vulnerabilities faced by women with (dis)abilities and LGBTIQ persons, especially while planning for disaster risk management strategies.

The inclusion of women in CBA is essential not only because women are vulnerable, but also because they can be valuable contributors to adaptation work. Women can be community leaders and are often natural resource managers who can help develop strategies to cope with climate-related risks. It is important that CBA projects include a component of gender sensitization of communities and existing leaders so that they are more supportive to women taking up leadership positions in CDDR-related institutions and decision-making processes. One strategy for enabling this is to provide a normative framework to women's participations - mandate that 30 per cent to 50 per cent of the members in all decision-making bodies are women. To further enable this, women-only groups and forums can also be supported, which can communicate the problems and required interventions to them prior to placing them before the main decision-making body. For example, in India, there is the concept of Mahila Sabha or a Women's (Village) Parliament before the Gram Sabha (Village Parliament), to ensure that all women have better and open opportunity to place their concerns in a village level forum. The resolution passed by the Mahila Sabha is then placed before the Gram Sabha (of which women are also members, but they do not speak up much in these forums due to social restrictions). Undertaking separate prioritization solutions exercises with men and women's groups and then bringing them together to discuss in one forum can be another strategy to support integration of women's demands in the resilience and CDDR action plans. Another useful strategy is setting targets for female participation in activities and budget allocations using the Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB) framework.

Equally important is to focus on knowledge and information sharing and capacity-building of women. Information in communities when provided in general forums may not always reach women. It is important to have separate channels, like female volunteers, who can connect between the project and all women. The information also needs to be presented and communicated in way that considers local education levels and cultural dynamics to ensure that it reaches out to women. Using folk media, songs, games and participatory exercises can especially be useful to reach out to women. It is also important to ensure that all women are reached out to for such events and processes. It is very important to organize meetings in places which are open for all social groups and accessible especially to the elderly and (dis)abled, and have it at times which taken into consideration women's domestic and labour/work timings.
## MODULE 4 SESSION PLAN B

### SECTORAL ADAPTATION AND GENDER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OVERVIEW</th>
<th>At the end of this session, participants should be able to map all the gender and CCDRR dimensions within the given (selected) sector and identify gender-responsive strategies, practices and solutions. The session should be conducted in practice mode aiming for the participants to be able to go back and apply the learnings directly into their work.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| CONTENT | This session dwells into three specific sectors:  
A. Agriculture and Food Security  
B. Public Health and Epidemics  
C. Coastal Zone  
The trainer can provide an option to the participants to choose from a range of three sessions running simultaneously if logistics permit, or pre-select one sector.  
Within each sector, the following dimensions are covered:  
1. Impact of Climate Change and Disasters  
2. Gender-Based Vulnerabilities and Adaptation Choices  
3. Examples of Gender-Responsive Solutions |
| MATERIALS |  
> PowerPoint presentation  
> Two different colour post-it chits  
> Apparatus for film viewing on YouTube  
> Whiteboard and marker pen  
> Chart papers and pens  
> Copy of handouts |
| OUTLINE |  
| 10 mins. | Gender-based vulnerability discussion point and session overview. |
| 50 mins. | “Infographic on interlinkages of Gender and Climate Change Adaptation” in the Selected Sector (see Exercise 23 and Handout 19). |
| 30 mins. | Presentation on “Gender-Based Vulnerabilities and Adaptation Choices in the Selected Sector” |
| 60 mins. | Matrix Ranking Exercise for prioritization of “Gender-Responsive Adaptation Solutions” (see Exercise 24 and Handout 20). |
| GUIDANCE NOTES |  
Begin the session with the discussion on gender-based vulnerability within selected sector. Tell them that the next exercise will help them better understand how these gender dimensions within the sector will be affected by climate change and related adaptation choices (see Exercise 23 and Handout 19).  
Follow up the exercise with a presentation on “Gender-Based Vulnerabilities and Adaptation Choices in the Selected Sector.” You can use the technical content provided in the module for the lecture but it is advisable to call a local sectoral expert for the lecture. This will ensure that the information is more contextual and country-specific.  
After the presentation, tell the participants that you will now provide them with examples/project details of gender-responsive adaptation solutions which can be applied in the sector. Provide them five preselected examples from Handout 20. Share that they will now also learn how to prioritize the solutions based on gender using the participatory technique of matrix ranking. |
GENDER IN ADAPTATION APPROACHES AND SECTORAL ACTION

MODULE 4

GENDER IN ADAPTATION APPROACHES AND SECTORAL ACTION

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GENDER-BASED VULNERABILITIES

Agriculture and allied activities are not only the major components of food production systems but also the mainstay livelihood activity of most of the world’s poor populations who earn their living from subsistence farming – working as wage labourers, farmers, small-scale processors or traders. This is especially true for Asian countries where more than half of the populations are often engaged in agriculture activities. For example, in Cambodia, around 8.8 million people (57.6 per cent of the population) is engaged in agricultural activities, contributing to 32.1 per cent of the country’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2011 (NCCP Cambodia 2013). Similarly, in Vietnam in 2007, agriculture still contributes 21 per cent of the GDP and employs over 47 per cent of the country’s labour force (CGIAR n.d.).

Changes in temperature and precipitation patterns, in particular, will have an effect on the agriculture ecosystem, thereby impacting food production; Asia will be particularly impacted by the reduced agriculture production (IPCC-AR5 2014d).

Rural poor women, especially those in developing country, largely rely on subsistence agriculture to feed their families (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015). Given their high dependency on agriculture and the already existing gender discrimination in the agriculture sector, these women would be most vulnerable to the climate change risks.

Sector 1: Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security

Ask the participants what the existing gender dimensions in agriculture and food security sectors are. Focus on highlighting gender roles and barriers in the sector as well as women’s limited access to assets, resources and services. As the participants list the issues, write them on the whiteboard in two columns.

Facilitator Clues

Gender Roles and Barriers
- Women produce 60-80 per cent of domestically produced food.
- Nearly all rural women (96 per cent) work on family farms, providing 75 per cent of the farm labour and 60 per cent of farm-derived income.
- With increasing male migration, women have expanded their productive role by adapting techniques to increase yields to earn incomes and ensure living standards above mere survival for their households.
- Women face more market-related barriers. Even in societies without purdah rules, women are less likely to have personal vehicles and bicycles, relying more on public transportation than do men.
- For those women who make their livelihood from buying and selling or selling in municipal markets, they often face greater levels of harassment, including sexual harassment, from officials when obtaining marketing permits or space.
- Women and girls generally eat last and are the first to forgo nutrition in case of shortage.

Access and Control Over Assets, Resources and Services
- Women-farmers are often not recognized by authorities as “farmers.”
- Their provision of household foods and their land use are often unrecognized and at the end of the hierarchy of agricultural development schemes.
- Agricultural extension services are often directed to men because they are deemed to be the farmers and heads of households. Women have little technical information necessary to improve their farm and manage water resources.
- Women also lack access to finance and modern business practices to enhance their farm management, inputs and outcomes.
- Women have lower rates of membership in producer cooperatives or may be restricted from joining.
- Women still lack legal and property rights. Lack of land ownership, or at least secure tenure rights, means that women do not have the required collateral for credit or other financial mechanisms from formal financial institutions or meet the requirements for membership in some producer, marketing or water user associations. It also means that in areas where land grabbing is occurring by large-scale, agricultural interests and women’s rights are at greater risk.
- Women are often under-represented in decision-making processes, even if they can make important contributions to these discussions due to the knowledge of ecological and water-related conditions gained as a factor of their societal roles as natural resources managers.
and disasters in the agriculture sector. The key impacts on women would include the following:

> Climate change is expected to reduce average yields of most crops, especially rice, wheat and maize. In Cambodia for example, rice production could decline by 10 per cent for every 1 degree Celsius temperature rise (MEF and GSSD Cambodia 2019). Sea level rise also threatens coastal and deltaic rice production areas in Asia, such as those in Bangladesh and the Mekong River Delta. For example, about 7 per cent of Vietnam’s agriculture land may be submerged due to 1-meter sea level rise. In Myanmar, saltwater intrusion due to sea level rise could also decrease rice yield (IPCC-AR5 2014b). Similarly, in India, the Indo-Gangetic Plains are under threat of a significant reduction in wheat yields. This area produces 90 million tons of wheat grain annually (about 14-15 per cent of global wheat production (IPCC-AR5 2014b). In societies where they are mainly involved in food production, especially rice, wheat and maize, the decline in productivity due to the impact of climate change will increase their vulnerability both as farmers and as agriculture labourers. In Vietnam for example, climate change is reducing crop yields, increasing women’s workload as they replant rice crops more often to replace lost production (Oxfam 2009).

> With reduced yields and production of rice and wheat, there is bound to be a “food production shortfall” in the region. These increasing shortfalls will be further exacerbated during droughts, which are the most serious cause of food shortages, causing 60 per cent of food emergencies (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015). Women, who also have the additional responsibility of ensuring food security within their households, will be more exposed to these climate change impacts affecting food, nutrition security and health. Existing social discrimination and cultural practices in many Asian societies result in women and girls eating last and being the first to forgo nutrition in case of shortage. It is not surprising that approximately 60 per cent of chronically hungry people are women and girls. Food shortages resulting from climate change will further exacerbate the insecurities affecting women’s health.

> Climate change will also increase water stress, which will further increase the work burden of women subsistence farmers who need access to water for food production and preparation. For example, in

For the advanced course, you may want to use Figure 4-4 and explain as: “Climate disruption may have the same impact on the food security of male and female – moving down the dotted line from Level A to Level B on food security levels, both men and women will move behind the poverty threshold for insecurity (the vertical red line). Safety nets and assets will help households move ahead of the poverty threshold, as seen in Level C. However, this will not lead to normality; and households will have to take adaptation actions to restore equilibrium. Given the intra-household gender discrimination in food security, however, while men will be better than earlier, women will be left worse off, as seen at Level D.”

**Figure 4-4: Food Security Relative to Poverty Threshold – Gender and Climate Change Impacts**

**A.** households’ normal food security level; **B.** impact of climate disruption on food security; **C.** safety nets and assets raising households above the poverty line but not to normality; **D.** household adaptation is needed to return to equilibrium.

Source: Asfaw and Maggio (2016)
Vietnam, female-headed households are disadvantaged in securing sufficient water for agricultural needs. Female-headed households report 20 per cent lower rice yields compared to male-headed households due to limited water supplies (Huynh and Resurreccion 2013).

Climate Change and subsequent adaptation choices can also affect allied livelihood options like livestock rearing. Unsustainable uses of rangelands with the stress of climate change led to vegetation cover being increasingly undermined by water scarcity, having a detrimental consequence on fodder production. Given women's key role in pastoral lifestyles and livestock rearing, they had to bear most of the brunt of these changes.

Women also tend to be more likely to own small animals, such as chickens, goats and pigs, while men are more likely to own larger animals, such as cows and improved varieties of livestock. In disaster situations, women often end up losing these options, either due to lack of rescue or due to post-disaster sale to meet the family's cash requirements. In the 2015 Myanmar floods, women lost 80 per cent of all animals killed in the floods, while men lost 20 per cent in terms of buffaloes, cattle and pigs (UN Women 2016). Men who most often own large cattle and expensive breeds are also disproportionately affected as cattle are particularly vulnerable to the effects of climate change (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015).

**Women as Agents of Change**

However, women are not just a vulnerable section of the farming community who need to be taken care of. Given the significant role of women in agriculture and food security, they also have the potential to take forward adaptation measures as key agents of change. According to FAO (2011), with equal access to resources and services, women could increase the yields of their farms by as much as 20-30 per cent. This would boost the total agricultural output in developing countries by 2.5 per cent to 4 per cent. The additional yield could feed an additional 100-150 million people. Thus, addressing the differences between women and men in access to financial and productive resources, decision-making, markets and services, land and water, and knowledge and technology can be a major adaptation strategy to boost production.

Women also play an important role as agents of agrobiodiversity conservation and household food security through gardens or small household plots. As migration flows reduce male involvement in farming, women are playing increasingly important roles in maintaining knowledge about different plant varieties and deciding which crops to plant. In the Philippines for example, the farm roles of female household heads are changing as farms struggle to adapt to floods. Women's farming experience and relatively greater education levels compared to men in this setting are enabling them to take on greater managerial responsibilities, challenging traditional gender roles (Tatlonghari and Paris 2013).

With dual roles as farmers and food preparers, women's selection of traditional crop varieties in this region is often influenced by cooking preferences contributing to food security. There is also a growing body of research highlighting the unique role of women in maintaining crop diversity in countries such as Nepal (Gautam, et al. 2009), and Bangladesh (Oakley and Momsen 2005), often through saving and exchanging seeds, and maintaining home gardens, with these becoming key sources of household food security.

Women in rural households also have traditional strategies for ensuring food supplies in the event of disasters like floods and droughts. Women are often responsible for food and seed storage. They generally control small livestock and process their by-products that can be a source of ready cash in emergencies. Dairy products, which are often women's responsibilities, and other animal products (e.g., bees, silkworms) provide families with more regular income than either crops or animal sales. Women may increase their collection of wild plants and game to unsustainable levels to make up for crop and protein shortages.

**GENDER-RESPONSIVE ADAPTATION CHOICES AND STRATEGIES**

It is important that gender considerations are accounted for in agriculture adaptation processes both for ensuring that women's additional vulnerability is addressed and for involving them as key agents of change. Furthermore, given the existing gender equality situation and discrimination against women, it is highly unlikely that so called “gender-neutral” adaptation measures could yield the requisite results. For example, CCA projects which promote drought, salinity and flood-tolerant new species to cope with ecosystem changes could displace women farmers if the new crops or varieties are profitable and dominated by men (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015). These could also increase the demand on women's productive labour. In Nepal for example, the shift to buckwheat in response to climate disruptions has resulted in women performing much more work than men in order to produce it, reducing time available for other livelihood activities (Onta and Resurreccion 2011).
In fact, most may end up affecting women and their families negatively while also increasing gender inequalities. Agriculture adaptation options must be reviewed for gender considerations. This means that the particular needs, priorities, and realities of men and women are recognized and adequately addressed in the design and application of Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA) so that both men and women can equally benefit. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) has proposed a potential matrix for gender considerations within CSA projects. Undertaking such analysis would be the first step to gender-responsive CSA approach especially for project implementers.

Women also are more likely to benefit from select livelihood interventions. For example, livestock projects requiring fewer inputs, as is generally the case with smaller animals such as pigs or chickens or locally-adapted breeds of cattle (Hoffmann 2013), may benefit women more (Chanamuto and Hall 2013). Promoting vegetable gardening especially in homestead lands where women have a greater say and control can be another such intervention. These especially help in areas like Cambodia that are prone to flash floods which affect rice harvest. Women’s vegetable gardens prove to be a good fallback option. A recent study by Nexus for Development found that in Pursat province in Cambodia, renewables-powered water pumps, biodigesters, and harvest refrigerators and dryers can greatly benefit women farmers in the long run (UN Women and UNEP 2019).

**Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA)**

“CSA is an approach to developing the technical, policy and investment conditions to achieve sustainable agricultural development for food security under climate change. It integrates the three dimensions of sustainable development (economic, social and environmental) by jointly addressing food security and climate challenges. It is composed of three main pillars: i) sustainably increasing agricultural productivity and incomes; ii) adapting and building resilience to climate change; and iii) reducing and/or removing greenhouse gas emissions, where possible” (Nelson and Huyer 2016).

### FIGURE 4-5: POTENTIAL GENDER CONSIDERATIONS FOR CSA-SENSITIVE PROJECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CSA-SENSITIVE PRACTICES</th>
<th>GENDER IMPACT</th>
<th>REQUIREMENTS FOR ADOPTION PRACTICE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s Control of Income from Practice</td>
<td>Relative Amount of Time Until Benefits are Realized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation Agriculture</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved Home Gardens</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-Farm Tree Planting</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small-Scale Irrigation</td>
<td>Low-Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock Genetic Improvement</td>
<td>Low-High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, what is also important is to prioritize these practices in allocations of budgets and pursue them actively through implementation strategies especially extension services. Often, extension services and other practices are geared more to men than women. It is as important to have a gendered delivery as it is for the practices themselves to be gender sensitive (Nelson and Huyer 2016).

Table 4-4 shows some key strategies and practices that can be applied to promote gender-responsive climate-smart agriculture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 4-4: STRATEGIES AND PRACTICES FOR CLIMATE-SMART AGRICULTURE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PROMOTING WOMEN’S LIVELIHOODS IN AGRICULTURE</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt; Analyze the impact of introducing new varieties and promote a more equitable distribution of reproductive work.</td>
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<td>&gt; Adapt promoted practices to the existing gender division of labour for agriculture and livestock management.</td>
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<td>&gt; Provide training on agricultural extension and climate smart agriculture to women.</td>
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<td>&gt; Make marketing facilities available.</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt; Institutionalize alternative provisions to accommodate women, women’s groups and cooperatives that are unable to provide the collateral needed for accessing agricultural credit.</td>
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</table>
Module 4

Training Manual on Gender and Climate Change Resilience

Sector 2: Climate Change, Public Health and Epidemics

DISCUSSION POINT

Ask the participants what they think about the prevalence and fatality rates of men and women from COVID-19. Ask them what they think are the other gender impacts and risks of COVID-19.

Facilitator Clues

> Men and women have the same prevalence of COVID-19. However, a study in China shows that men are more at risk for worse outcomes and death, independent of age, with COVID-19 (Jin, et al. 2020). Similar analyses in USA and Italy have also shown that the relative death rate is higher among males.

> The differences are attributed to sex-based immunological differences due to female hormones, a lower prevalence of smoking in women, and men developing co-morbid conditions such as hypertension at a younger age than women.

> On the surface, men seem to be more vulnerable to COVID-19 than women. However, there are many other gendered impacts.

First of all, there are demographic anomalies.

> India, for example, reported higher prevalence among men (with 65 per cent of the case share) but the mortality rate was higher at 3.3 per cent among women compared to 2.9 per cent among men. Then there was the age intersectionality – in the 40-49 age group, 3.2 per cent of the infected women died, compared to 2.1 per cent of men. (Joe, et al. 2020).

> The social determinants like access to healthcare as well as general health and nutrition status, which are generally worse for women in India than their male counterparts, could explain these differences that defy the global trend (Joe, et al. 2020).

Then, there is an exposure anomaly.

> Women make up 70 per cent of all health and social services staff globally (Boniol, et al. 2019), and their share of healthcare workers affected has also been high, for example, at 72 per cent and 66 per cent in Spain and Italy, respectively (UN Women 2020b).

> Furthermore, most of these women are on the frontlines of the pandemic dealing with communities directly and often paid less than men. In India for example, the frontline Health Workers (ASHAs and Anganwadi Workers) who are only paid an honorarium and even denied minimum wages have been the most involved in community outreach, testing and contact tracing.

> Homemaker caregivers are also more prone to contracting the infection. Even during the 1918 Spanish flu, more women in India – relatively undernourished, cooped up in unhygienic and ill-ventilated dwellings, and nursing the sick – died than men (Joe, et al. 2020).

And finally, the crisis-management anomaly – The key strategy to deal with the crisis was imposition of lockdowns. This has resulted in women suffering more than men, mainly due to the fact that:

> Domestic, sexual and gender-based violence increased under conditions of quarantine or stay-at-home measures; women and children who live with violent and controlling men are exposed to considerably greater danger. These trends are seen globally and in Asian countries like India (Joe, et al. 2020) and Cambodia (CCHR Cambodia 2020). Young boys and girls in Asia-Pacific regions have been especially affected (Plan International and Save the Children 2020). This was not unforeseen – previous epidemics, such as the Ebola virus disease outbreak in west Africa, as well as cholera and Zika virus disease outbreaks, led to regional environments where domestic violence became more prevalent (Chandan, et al. 2020). However, no measures to address these issues have been considered or deliberated upon.

> Women have also been left to face an economic crisis. Already existing gender gaps in wages, higher concentration in informal sectors could mean that women could lose their existing income sources. It is also well-documented that women are often disproportionately affected by cuts and lay-offs (ILO 2020).

> Media reports in May 2020 showed that across the United States of America, the cost to female jobs is already visible. The latest unemployment figures show that women held 55 per cent of the 20.5 million jobs lost last month. Women’s share of all unemployment claims filed between March and April 11 ranged from 53 per cent in Wyoming to as high as 67 per cent in Alabama, according to
non-profit journalism organization The Fuller Project. In Canada, too, women have made up the bulk of the layoffs (Martinuzzi 2020).

- The lockdown also increased the workload of women and girls at home, as in most societies, women are traditionally responsible for domestic responsibilities, spending three times more than men. The lockdown in many countries meant shutting down of all domestic services which are linked to market like restaurants and food supply, washing and ironing clothes, even children’s online education support. The burden of all these activities has fallen on women, thereby increasing their care role (ILO 2020).
- The provision of sexual and reproductive health services, including maternal health care and gender-based violence-related services, are central to health, rights and well-being of women and girls. The diversion of attention and critical resources away from these provisions may result in exacerbated maternal mortality and morbidity, increased rates of adolescent pregnancies, HIV and sexually transmitted diseases (UN Women 2020a).

As a result: The pandemic is deepening pre-existing inequalities, exposing vulnerabilities in social, political and economic systems which are in turn amplifying the impacts of the pandemic. It would also put the achievements of 2030 Agenda at stake, especially for women and girls (UN Women 2020b).

**GENDER-BASED VULNERABILITIES**

Climate change is not only projected to increase treats to human health (IPCC-AR5 2014a) through direct effects of extreme events, such as heat waves, floods and storms, but also through more complex pathways of altered infectious disease patterns and negative effects on food and nutrition security and water scarcity, among others.

Unfortunately, although there is some evidence that health impacts of climate change vary by gender, even the World Health Organization has acknowledged that there is limited research available to capture the gendered dimensions of health and CCDRR (WHO, 2014b). The key health impacts on women projected based on available studies in select regions show that:

- Climate change is increasing the risk of health impacts associated with storms and flood events with evidence that mortality rates for women and girls during these events is higher than that of men and boys (UN Women 2016). Much of these can be attributed to gendered cultural practices related to purdah, restrictions on mobility, unsuitable dressing, lack of swimming skills, limited access to early warning systems and others.
- Furthermore, while studies in the United States of America and Australia indicate no significant gender differences, available studies from Asian countries suggest otherwise (GGCA 2016). For example, the rate of deaths among females (likely associated with heat) in Ahmedabad (India), during a 2010 heat wave was significantly higher than for males (Azhar, et al. 2014). Similarly, research from Korea suggest that women were at a significantly greater risk (16 per cent) of mortality during heat waves between 2000 and 2007, while men's increased risk of mortality was statistically indistinguishable from zero (Son, et al. 2012). While physiological differences between males and females in their capacity to regulate high temperatures are at least partially responsible for gender differences in heat-related mortality (Lundgren, et al. 2013), most trends suggest that gendered living and livelihood patterns, access to medical treatment, and local climatic factors likely matter more than biological differences.
- Climate change is increasing the spread of water- and vector-borne diseases around the world (IPCC-AR5 2014c), such as cholera, dengue fever, malaria and schistosomiasis, which tend to disproportionately burden the poor more especially in developing countries. It is estimated that in 2000 alone, climate change was responsible for 2.4 per cent of cases of diarrhoea worldwide and 6 per cent of cases of malaria (Prüss-Ustün, et al. 2008). Sex-disaggregated analysis of the disease burden shows that men may be more susceptible to dengue than women while women, especially pregnant women, are more susceptible to malaria (Dhangadamajhi, Kar and Ranjit 2009; WHO 2015). Cholera may roughly affect men and women equally in many settings, while some studies show slightly higher burdens of the disease among men, and others among women (Agtini, et al. 2005; Lopez, et al. 2015)
- Bacterial and viral infections related to exposure to contaminated flood waters, however, seem to affect women more. Evidence from Bangladesh suggest that females may be disproportionately exposed to skin problems related to floodwater exposure (Alston 2015). While formal studies are not available, saline
contamination expected to increase with climate change and sea-level rise is indicated as affecting a large number of pregnant women in Bangladesh with preeclampsia, eclampsia and hypertension (Khan, Scheelbeek, et al. 2014). Local healthcare workers have reported that there are increasing trends of gynaecological problems due to unhygienic water use and water logging (Neelormi, Adri and Ahmed 2009).

> Climate change also has gendered impacts on mental health, with additional stress especially after disaster, often leading to depression and in extreme cases suicide. However, while both men and women tend to experience higher rates of mental health challenges after disasters, women are generally more susceptible to developing stress-related disorders and depression (Olff, et al. 2007).

- A large study after flooding in Hunan (China) found that females had a 1.1 times greater risk of developing post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) than males (Liu, et al. 2006). Another study (Li, et al. 2010) found that the odds of girls developing PTSD were also slightly greater than those of boys. After Cyclone Nargis in Myanmar, the odds of women developing PTSD were 2.6 times greater than those of men, while women's odds of developing acute stress disorder were 3.2 times greater than men's odds (Kim, et al. 2010). In Nepal, Women's Rehabilitation Centre (WOREC) reported that women who were displaced during the flood in Dang district in 2014 experienced trauma, and this resulted in them suffering from irregular menstrual cycles and abdominal pain (Singh 2015).

> While studies on suicide risks are not so clear, there is evidence to show that men are disproportionately more likely to commit suicide. In India for example, climate change is increasing risks to farmers on small plots on marginal lands (largely men), who are more vulnerable to crop failures due to the limited ability to diversity crop holdings, which in turn is associated with elevated suicide rates (Keneddy and King 2014).

> Climate change also threatens the ability of women to access family planning services, making it harder for women to choose if and/or when to have children. While data from Asia is not available, studies elsewhere have shown that climate-linked natural disasters are likely to hamper access to reproductive healthcare, as occurred after Typhoon Haiyan and Hurricane Katrina. Additionally, the impacts of disasters may exacerbate the effects of pre-existing barriers that women have to seeking reproductive health services, such as race and class, as documented after Hurricane Ike (GGCA 2016).

> Climate change is also likely to impact pregnancy outcomes and care. Pregnant women are more susceptible to dengue (Machado, et al 2013) and malaria (Khan, Galagan, et al. 2014). Other research has linked heat wave (He, et al. 2016) and flood/storm events (Currie and Rossin-Slater 2013) to an increased risk of preterm delivery and related pregnancy complications. Saltwater intrusion into groundwater, which is more likely with higher sea levels and associated flooding, may also increase rates of preeclampsia and hypertension during pregnancy.

The lack of accessible and affordable healthcare services, especially sexual and reproductive health (SRH) care, further aggravates the problem. Accessibility barriers may include lack of time due to long working hours, long waiting hours at public health care facilities, transportation costs and lack of decision-making power due to gender inequality. The privatization of healthcare services, made these services unaffordable. Furthermore, SRH is often not prioritized in the New Urban Agenda and unabated climate change will make the situation worse for the urban poor women and girls (Mian 2017; 2018).

A study by ARROW and the Khan Foundation in Bangladesh (2015) showed:

- Around two-fifths cited absence of emergency doctors as the key problem, while another two-fifths stated lack of necessary medicines, sanitary and hygiene products, and one-fifth stated lack of emergency and delivery kits as major problems.

All the above have negative consequences on the sexual and reproductive health and rights of women and girls especially during disasters. As expressed by Mahmuda Begum, a 35-year-old housewife and mother of seven children, from Fakirghona village of Moheshkhali sub-district:

"During times of disasters, the biggest problem faced by the women in our community is the lack of access to medical care, including health services and facilities." (N. Khan 2015)
As these point to the added dimension of vulnerability for pregnant women in relation to climate change, it is thus important to integrate family planning and other reproductive and sexual health services within all adaptation and disaster management programmes.

- The increase in the disease burden due to climate change will also affect the caregiving role of women and girls, as they take care of the sick in their homes (Brody, Demetriades and Esplen 2008). This increases their workload and they often end up neglecting their own health and well-being. This also limits the time they have available for income generation and education, which, when coupled with the rising medical costs associated with family illness, heightens levels of poverty, which is, in turn, a powerful determinant of health. It also means that they have less time to contribute to community-level decision-making processes, including on climate change, health and disaster risk reduction.

- Climate change is also expected to increase water scarcity, forcing many families to use unsafe sources, including streams and ponds that are likely to be contaminated. This will not only lead to an increase in water-related diseases such as diarrhoea and cholera, but also affect women more than men by increasing their workloads. In a study of drought management in Ninh Thuan (Vietnam) for example, 74 per cent of the respondents believed that women were more affected from the drought due to water scarcity which forced them to walk long distances. There are also studies which show that during the dry season in rural India, 30 per cent or more of a woman’s daily energy intake is spent fetching water. Carrying heavy loads over long periods of time causes cumulative damage to the spine, the neck muscles and the lower back, leading to early ageing of the vertebral column (WHO 2014b).

- Damages to sanitation facilities and scarcity of water, especially toilets and bathrooms not having running water, also restrict menstrual hygiene practices among women and girls. The typical way for them to cope is to refrain from drinking water to avoid having to go to the toilet during the day, thereby exacerbating urinary tract infections and reproductive tract infections. Also, the lack of water and toilet facilities in school contributes to absenteeism among girls and this impacts their education (Mian 2018).

- Climate change also threatens crop production in terms of the decline in quality and quantity of food crops, resulting in food insecurity and undernutrition. Crop failure would cause a hike in food prices, indirectly increasing the cost of living. This would ultimately affect women’s food consumption, not only due to poverty but also due to household food hierarchies still practiced in some cultures in Asia where women and girls are allowed to eat only after the men and boys have eaten, resulting in high undernutrition and its related health problems.

- Their undernutrition will be further exacerbated during climate extreme events (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015). After natural disasters in India, young girls were more likely to be stunted and underweight than boys (Datar, et al. 2013). In another study in Andhra Pradesh (India) twice as many women as men reported eating less in response to drought (FAO 2018). A Bangladesh study (Alston 2015) showed that women and girls are typically the first to skip meals if there is a shortage of food, as often occurs during droughts, floods or storms. In the Philippines, infant mortality increased after typhoons among girls but not among boys, which researchers attribute to competition for scarce resources within families (Anttila-Hughes and Hsiang 2013). In Vietnam, women are more likely to skip meals than men during periods of food scarcity due to cultural norms regarding the importance of men’s physical labour (Oxfam 2009).

- Studies on the impact of climate change on undernutrition have also shown that it would result in increased disability-adjusted life year (DALY) lost in developing countries. Women are more susceptible to nutritional deficiencies compared to men because of their distinct nutritional requirements, particularly when pregnant or breastfeeding. For example, in South Asia and South-East Asia, 45 per cent to 60 per cent of women of reproductive age are underweight and 80 per cent of pregnant women have iron deficiencies. Thus, they need more iron intake compared to men as they are more prone to anaemia. They also need more protein when they are pregnant or breastfeeding. Undernourished pregnant women are at high risk of having pregnancy and delivery problems such as intrauterine growth retardation, premature labour, stillbirth, low birth weight babies and perinatal mortality. Undernourished women may suffer from amenorrhoea and infertility, and undernourished prepuberty girls may experience delayed menarche (WHO 2014b).
Gender-Based Violence: A Critical Dimension in Climate Change and Health Considerations

Although specific evidence of impact of climate-related disasters and Gender-Based Violence (GBV) is not available, studies from other disasters point to an increase in gender-based violence in after disaster settings. Displaced women and girls are often forced to sleep in unsecure homes and shelters, making them feel unsafe and exposing them to sexual harassment. For example, after the 2010 Pakistan floods, majority of women reported feeling unsecure sleeping in the open (UNIFEM 2010). Shelters that do not offer separate sleeping arrangements for men and women, unit and insecure bathing and washing facilities can all increase the risk of GBV for women and girls (Hussain 2015). Women and girls also face elevated levels of violence if they must travel long distances to fetch water, firewood or food after a disaster (Nellemann, Verma and Hislop 2011).

"Overcrowding, chaotic conditions, lack of privacy and the collapse of regular routines can contribute to anger, frustration and violence," with children (especially girls) and women being the most vulnerable individuals (Bartlett 2008). Increased stress and feelings of powerlessness, due to bereavement, loss of property and loss of livelihood, mental health problems such as post-traumatic stress disorder, the scarcity of basic provisions, and other factors leading to hegemonic masculinity crises also contribute to pre-existing levels of violence among men. This is often compounded by loss of protection from family members who have died or migrated, as well as a breakdown in the rule of law. A study in Bangladesh, found extremely high incidences of violence against women after 2007 flooding, particularly among disadvantaged groups such as sex workers and the disabled (Dankelman, et al. 2008). Increases in violence against women after climate change-related disasters have also been documented in Vietnam (Oxfam 2009). Although trends in Asia are not known, studies (Sanz-Barbero, et al. 2018) have reported an increase in risk of intimate partner violence after three days of a heat wave threshold on 34 degrees Celsius in Madrid (Spain).

Women and children are also at greatest risk of being trafficked in times of disasters, and they face the greatest risk of becoming targets for exploitation, resulting in slavery and sex labour (Nellemann, Verma and Hislop 2011). Again, while no statistical data are available, employment in sex work and begging are risk factors in times of environmental and climate crises (IFRC 2015). In West Bengal (India), there is an observed pattern between human trafficking of women and girls, and annual flooding. There is a yearly increase in human traffickers who follow annual inundation, when targeted families become destitute and desperate for livelihoods. Some evidence following typhoon Haiyan in the Philippines in November 2013 also supports the claim that trafficking is a major concern.

GENDER-RESPONSIVE ADAPTATION CHOICES AND STRATEGIES

The adaptation actions in the health arena mainly overlap with adaptation strategies for disasters, such as enhancing early warning systems, ensuring access to fresh water for drinking and hygiene, ensuring agriculture and food security for nutrition, reducing poverty and ensuring education to expand opportunities, and addressing psychosocial and mental health issues related to stress from disaster recovery, relocation, and forced migration. However, there is also the need to look at improvement in general public healthcare services, especially sexual and reproductive health care, water and sanitation accessibility, which fall within the development purview as important adaptation strategies. The World Health Organization (2014b) has brought together the gender dimensions of climate change, along with adaptation strategies and possible interventions. Key highlights from this are reproduced in Table 4-5.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER-RESPONSIVE ADAPTIVE STRATEGIES</th>
<th>GENDER-RESPONSIVE ADAPTATION PRACTICES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Provide safe shelters and homes for both women and men.</td>
<td>&gt; Gender-sensitive disaster preparedness.</td>
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<td>&gt; Training on gender-sensitive disaster risk reduction and early warning systems.</td>
<td>&gt; Gender-sensitive early warning systems.</td>
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<td>&gt; Promote programmes that facilitate men to seek help for psychosocial problems.</td>
<td>&gt; Ensure women’s participation on equal basis in all policy and programme cycles.</td>
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<td>&gt; Empowerment of women to strengthen their capacity to question and change harmful behavioural norms that put them at risk in the case of extreme events.</td>
<td>&gt; Target women and men differently in communication campaigns and health promotion strategies, taking into account their gender norms and roles.</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt; A gender perspective must be incorporated into infectious disease analysis and research to target policies and programmes.</td>
<td>&gt; Adopt strategies at all levels of programming to change norms and practices that prevent women or men from appropriate responses and coping mechanisms in situations of natural disasters.</td>
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<td>&gt; Collected data must be disaggregated by sex, age, socioeconomic status, education, ethnicity and geographical location, where appropriate.</td>
<td>&gt; Ensure better availability and access to, and support by, health systems for both women and men, but especially for women, given their caregiving roles.</td>
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<td>&gt; An understanding of gender and its implications for health and health-seeking behaviour should be incorporated into training of health professionals and development of health-sector responses.</td>
<td>&gt; Support outreach activities, using gender-sensitive information, education, and communication strategies and materials for advocacy and training.</td>
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<td>&gt; Promote programmes that facilitate men to seek help for psychosocial problems.</td>
<td>&gt; Promote childcare facilities and other approaches to support women’s caregiving role, while trying to transform related gendered roles and norms.</td>
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<td>&gt; Empower women to enhance their capacities to look after themselves and their families and specifically to use available social and other networks to cope with increased burdens and tensions.</td>
<td>&gt; Target women and men differently in post-disaster relief, taking into account gender norms, roles and relations.</td>
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<td>&gt; Promote water-saving practices that take into account the different uses and roles related to water for women, girls and men.</td>
<td>&gt; Ensure affordable drinking water, taking into account the different roles and needs of women and men.</td>
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<td>&gt; Address salination and arsenic contamination of water, proposing specific actions that consider the different patterns of exposure and impacts on women and men.</td>
<td>&gt; Empower women and facilitate their equal participation in management of water resources at national, regional and grassroots levels.</td>
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<td>&gt; Counter social stigma attached to the effects of arsenic poisoning on women and men.</td>
<td>&gt; Appropriate technologies for assuring potable water closer to where families live.</td>
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<td>&gt; Promote women’s rights to own land and ownership of land use certificates.</td>
<td>&gt; Strengthen forestation and water harvesting mechanisms, considering the different roles, needs and impacts on women and men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Effective implementation of water policies that consider women’s and men’s different needs and roles for water use, provision and consumption.</td>
<td>&gt; Promote women’s rights to own land and ownership of land use certificates.</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt; Ensure equitable access to resources also in relation to payments for environmental services.</td>
<td>&gt; Training on agricultural extension for both women and men.</td>
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<td>&gt; Involve women and men in conservation of biodiversity.</td>
<td>&gt; Better nutrition supplements for needy families.</td>
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<td>&gt; Marketing facilities.</td>
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<td>&gt; Land rights for women.</td>
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### Sector 3: Climate Change and Coastal Zones

**Activities:**
- Fishing (subsistence, household level)
- Fishing (commercial/local or external markets)
- Capture fisheries (caught fish, prawns, crabs, or shellfish)
- Gleaning/hand collection from wetland areas (e.g., snails, frogs, crabs)
- Aquaculture
- Fish processing and post-harvest production
- Preparing fishing gear
- Rice and vegetable farming
- Marketing and selling (fish, vegetables, rice, forest products, others)
- Tourism (e.g., tour guide, boat operator, cooking, homestay, working in a guesthouse)
- Informal employment (unpaid work, e.g., shopkeeper, food preparation, handicraft production, casual work)
- Business (small and medium enterprise, shop, trading)

**Impact of Climate Change on Coastal Livelihoods:**
- **Rice Farmers** – Seawater inundation has become a major problem for traditional agriculture in countries like Bangladesh, Cambodia, Vietnam and other low-lying island nations (Lata and Nunn, 2012; Rahman and Rahman 2015). The combination of rice yield reduction induced by climate change and inundation of lands by seawater causes an important reduction in production (Chen, et al. 2012).

- **Fishers** – Rising temperatures could also lead to changes in fish migration patterns and localized extinction of fish species, severely affecting the livelihoods of fisher communities (Cochrane, et al. 2009). According to the FAO, about 58 million people worldwide are directly engaged in fishing and aquaculture, including substantial numbers of men and women in Asia. In Cambodia for example, the fishing sector alone contributed up to 10 per cent of the country’s GDP and employed six million people nationwide in 2013 (NCCP Cambodia 2013), indicating that any changes in fish productivity would endanger the economic development and livelihoods of millions.

- **Tourism** – Changes in marine ecosystems and frequent disasters will also affect tourism in the areas, further resulting in loss of supplementary incomes for most coastal families.

- **Local Business** – With falling local incomes and decline in tourism, local business will also suffer.

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#### TABLE 4-5: GENDER-RESPONSIVE ADAPTATION STRATEGIES AND PRACTICES IN CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION FOR HEALTH SECTOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER-RESPONSIVE ADAPTIVE STRATEGIES</th>
<th>GENDER-RESPONSIVE ADAPTATION PRACTICES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Build strong and supportive networks for both women and men</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt; Promote gender-sensitive training to eliminate violence against women, girls and boys</td>
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<td>&gt; Capacity-building within the health system to ensure early detection of domestic or sexual violence</td>
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<td>&gt; Involve women in management of shelters and distribution activities</td>
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<td>&gt; Policy initiatives in the health, education, finance and labour sectors to be conceived as a part of a cohesive national/international violence prevention effort that includes women, girls, men and boys</td>
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<td>&gt; Implement appropriate health services that respond to the specific needs of women and men based on their respective needs, roles and capacities</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt; Design effective referral systems for cases of domestic violence. Design referral system for cases of sexual harassment</td>
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*Source: Adapted from WHO (2014b).*
GENDER-BASED VULNERABILITIES

Coastal zones contain unique ecosystems with significant economic assets and activities, and they typically have higher population densities than inland areas. At least 1 in 10 people worldwide live near the coast in a low-lying area; most of them in the United States of America and Asian countries like China, India, Bangladesh, Vietnam and Indonesia (Neumann, et al. 2015). The IPCC-AR5 (2014a) has predicted with a high confidence that coastal and marine systems are under increasing stress from both climatic and non-climatic drivers in Asia. These would involve damage to the coastal ecosystems and increase in disasters due to storm surges and tropical cyclones causing loss of livelihoods and social impacts, including food and water insecurity, to millions of people, especially the poor and women.

The key impacts of climate change on coastal zones and coastal communities especially women were elaborated here:

- Degradation of marine ecosystems, especially coral reefs, will significantly affect coral reefs and mangroves. These provide natural barriers and resources for managing climate change risk, such as storm surge from disasters. If these coastal landscapes are degraded, it can cause even more severe impacts on surrounding communities and ecosystem resilience. A significant decline in biodiversity is also predicted and likely to include local loss of pollinators, which, with other threats, will put at risk food availability for coastal communities. Women’s livelihoods are also impacted by risk in coastal resource use and fisheries. Women are involved in the fisheries sector, particularly in processing fish, preparing for market, and small-scale harvesting – activities that are close to the shore. In the Pacific region alone, it is estimated that women catch about a quarter of the total seafood harvested. In Cambodia, Laos, Thailand, Vietnam and the Philippines, there are communities where women have a greater role in aquaculture production and harvesting of littoral organisms than that of men (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015). Shifts in pelagic fish may increase fishing labour and price of fish, and the income from post-harvest production can decline, impacting incomes of women fishers. Ocean acidification is harming many shellfish species, with profound economic costs for producers who are often female (Narita, Rehdanz and Tol 2012). The loss of near-shore resources’ sustenance also impacts women more especially, as household food security and nutrition are threatened.

- Sea level rise, in combination with cyclone intensification, could increase coastal flooding; losses of coral reefs and mangrove forests would exacerbate wave damage. Asia already has more than 90 per cent of the global population exposed to tropical cyclones. Fifteen of the global top 20 cities for projected population exposure and 13 of the top 20 cities for asset exposure are based in Asia (IPCC-AR5 2014c). There is an observed gendered disparity in mortality during major storms in the developing world. Evidence examining 26 years of cyclones from Bangladesh show that women were 58 per cent more likely than comparably-aged men to die during these events (Lindeboom, et al. 2012). Preliminary evidence from Tacloban City (Philippines) after Typhoon Haiyan struck its shores show that among adults, roughly 50 per cent more females died than males (Ballera, et al. 2015). Much of this is due to socio-cultural practices like purdah, restrictions in mobility of women, limited access to information and early warning systems, traditional attire and lack of swimming skills, among others (Alston 2015).

- Storms (including tropical storms such as hurricanes and cyclones, as well as thunderstorms) and floods are often also associated with mortality and can pose a significant risk to the coastal communities. The 2013 Typhoon Haiyan in the Philippines, for example, displaced more than 4 million people, destroying entire communities and ruining millions of livelihoods. It was the fiercest storm to make landfall at the time, with winds reaching 196 miles per hour (Singer 2014).

- The damage to assets and infrastructure will have long-term economic and social impacts. In Cambodia, the typhoon Ketsana of 2009 caused US$24 million in damages to the education sector, affected 12 per cent of the schools in the country and many others had to be closed due to inaccessibility following destroyed infrastructure (UNDRR 2019b).

- The aftermath of a disaster also places acute pressure on women with their everyday workloads, besides creating the loss of household dwellings, security, safety nets and ruptures in social controls that regulate behaviour and norms within and between households (Bartlett 2008). There is evidence from Bangladesh suggesting that females may be disproportionately exposed to skin problems related to floodwater exposure (Alston 2015).

- Women are also often subject to be disproportionately impacted by loss of livelihoods in the aftermath of a disaster. In the Philippines, post-typhoon vulnerability assessments found that female-headed households were more likely to be vulnerable to flooding and other storm-related impacts (Barth 2010).
After Typhoon Ondoy struck Metro Manila (Philippines), female-headed households experienced greater damage costs, while male-headed households experienced greater temporary loss of income, likely due to a reliance on manufacturing employment among men, which took longer to resume after the floods (Porio 2014).

> Climate change-related disasters are also associated with increases in gender-based violence. Recent work from Bangladesh notes that violence against women increased in response to the effects of climate change (Alston 2015). Extremely high incidences of violence against women occurred after the 2007 flooding, particularly among disadvantaged groups such as sex workers and the disabled (Azad, Hossain and Nasreen 2014). Research also notes that adolescent girls are particularly at risk of sexual harassment and violence in shelters (Swarup, et al. 2011). Increases in violence against women after climate change-related disasters have also been documented in Vietnam (Oxfam 2009). Organized trafficking of women and girls is emerging as a potentially serious risk associated with climate-related disasters. Reports of advocacy groups from the Philippines also suggest that after Typhoon Haiyan, there was an increase in risk of sex trafficking. In another study by IFRC (2018b) on Sexual and Gender-Based Violence during disaster situations in Indonesia, Lao PDR and the Philippines, household survey respondents expressed that child marriage and domestic violence are “harmful incidents for women and girls” that occur in the immediate aftermath of the disasters.

- In the Philippines, 30 per cent of respondents reported that women and girls felt distressed by the rise in child marriage after the disaster.
- In Indonesia, 18 per cent of respondents reported that women and girls felt distressed by the rise in child marriage after the disaster.
- In Lao PDR, 47 per cent of respondents reported that women and girls felt distressed by the rise in child marriage after the disaster.

> Evidence also suggests that extreme weather events – such as heavy rainfall, flooding, and cyclone – tend to cause disruption to water systems. As a result, safe and clean water have become scarcer. Women have to consume and use polluted water, causing them to be more susceptible to SRH problems, especially for pregnant women.

> Coastal freshwater wetlands will also be vulnerable to saltwater intrusion with rising sea levels, affecting the availability of drinking water (Rasmussen, et al. 2013).

Water sources in coastal Bangladesh, such as rivers and groundwater, have already become contaminated by varying degrees of salinity due to saltwater intrusion from rising sea levels. Besides increasing their workload for finding water, this will also impact women's health, especially hypertension among elderly and pregnant women (Shammi, et al. 2019).

> Other possible health consequences of hazards associated with flooding and typhoons include stress-related illness and risk of malnutrition related to loss of income and subsistence, which are known to have a strong gender dimension. Studies from Vietnam found that stress factors were apparent at the household level. People interviewed in cities in the Mekong Delta referred to increased anxiety, fears or intra-household tension as a result of the dangers and damage associated with flooding and its livelihood impacts. Interviewees in the central provinces referred to food shortages and hunger potentially resulting from crop and income losses following destructive floods and typhoons (Few and Tran 2010). Studies in China and Myanmar have also shown that females, both women and girls, have a greater odd of developing post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) than males (Liu, et al. 2006; Kim, et al. 2010; Li, et al. 2010).

> Climate change also threatens the ability of women to access family planning services, making it harder for women to choose if and/or when to have children. GGCA (2016), in a review of existing literature on gender and climate change, concluded that climate-linked natural disasters are likely to hamper access to reproductive healthcare. The review quotes studies which report that this occurred after Typhoon Haiyan and Hurricane Katrina. Additionally, it says, the impacts of disasters may exacerbate the effects of pre-existing barriers that women have to seeking reproductive health services, such as race and class, as documented after Hurricane Ike. Similar results are seen in various scoping studies conducted by the Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women (ARROW) in Bangladesh (N. Khan 2015), Philippines (Castro and Hernandez 2015); Lao PDR (Thikeo and Sychareun 2015); among others.

At this point, it would be good to take a break and show a short film on women in coastal areas in the Philippines by Path Foundation, available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YZ-IHRcTe2Y.
GENDER-RESPONSIVE ADAPTATION CHOICES AND STRATEGIES

Not considering these gender-differentiated effects of climate change on coastal communities can result in adaptation choices which are less efficient – not only due to their limited outreach to women and girls but also due to the negative impacts that the choices may have.

For the protection of the coastline, one of the key identified adaptation options includes the construction of physical barriers (e.g., seawalls, breakwaters, gabion, groins and sluices). Unless a gender lens is incorporated in these projects, these may end up creating job sources that favour hiring a male work force, with no opportunities for women to work on jobs they would like to do and can do. Due to ignorance of the impact on women's productive activities (hand digging for molluscs, among others), there is often also no attention paid to the consequences of such projects on women.

The same is also true for disaster risk management. For example, women often experience increased vulnerability due to the fact that disaster planning and policymaking does not routinely take into account the needs and concerns of women.

> Women are often not involved in designing the spaces around them – construction is often seen as men’s work – and this may lead to the use of designs (such as the use of ladders that are less accessible for pregnant women), which can make women disproportionately vulnerable to harm during storms, fire and floods (Jabeen 2014).

> Additionally, information regarding hazards may not be provided in a way that is easily accessible for women. There is evidence which indicates that women and men have different preferences regarding how to hear warnings, as women often have less access than men to radios, televisions and mobile phones. After Cyclone Sidr for instance, women reported that warnings about the storm were provided only in local markets, and that efforts were not made to notify people door-to-door.

> Women are also more impacted by inaccessible shelters due to distance. For example, a study of predominately male respondents in Bangladesh found that individuals who lived more than one kilometer from a shelter were significantly less likely to evacuate to a shelter during Cyclone Sidr than those who lived within one kilometer (Paul 2012). Since evacuation decisions in Bangladesh for entire families are typically made by men, these results imply that women distant from shelters are less likely to evacuate during storm as well, even if they independently prefer to leave.

> Women also face additional barriers if shelters are not designed to provide them sufficient space or privacy. Studies of shelter in Bangladesh (Alam and Rahman 2014) show the lack of separate or hygienic washing facilities for women, as well as private spaces for breastfeeding or changing menstrual pads, often resulting in women being harassed or threatened in these settings. A recent study also found that among individuals who did not evacuate to a shelter during Cyclone Alia, 36 per cent cited the lack of separate spaces for women in shelters as an important reason for not evacuating (Ahchan, et al. 2016).

The second is less construction-oriented and involves improved environmental management, with approaches such as protection of existing ecosystems and reforestation of areas adjacent to coastlines. However, restoring damaged ecosystems may worsen gender inequality by encouraging the voluntary (unpaid) work done by many women in rehabilitation and conservation activities. This may reinforce traditional environmental work roles, for example, making women responsible for cooking, community meetings, and children's and adolescents’ environmental education, without promoting non-traditional roles. It is important to promote joint responsibility and redistribution of reproductive work in families, to give women free time for other activities, and also to pay women for their work on environment restoration. Similarly, introduction of native and salt-tolerant plants and animals to protect/re-vegetate the coast without consulting women and taking into account their knowledge can have a negative effect on women’s interests and needs in coastal zones, if varieties introduced affect resources specifically used by them (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015).

There is also the need to acknowledge the linkages between climate change and reproductive health so that voluntary, rights-based family planning programs are adopted as a strategy for reducing vulnerability to climate disruptions. In particular, integrating family planning with other forms of development designed to promote resilience, such as through population, health and environment initiatives, is an increasingly popular approach for jointly improving human health and environmental outcomes (D’Agnes, et al. 2010; De’Souza 2014). Providing women with greater control of their fertility empowers them to make choices that can improve their resilience to the effects of climate change (Mian 2018).

Another critical aspect is to look at reproductive health concerns during disasters. For example, after Typhoon Haiyan struck the Philippines in 2013, it was estimated that there were more than 250,000 pregnant and
169,000 breastfeeding women in the typhoon-hit areas. Some 1,000 childbirths were taking place every day, with 150 expected to experience potentially life-threatening complications (UNFPA 2014). Extreme events like typhoons often end up damaging health service infrastructure. While restoring health services should be a priority in disaster recovery interventions, it is also important that relief measures include focus on child birth and needs of pregnant women.

Fisheries is another important sector that has not only neglected gender-responsive planning and adaptation choices but also has had limited involvement of women as important stakeholders in the decision-making processes. Due to their focus on activities that are often on the sideline of harvesting, women’s tasks in relation to fisheries have not been prioritized in economic analyses or resource investment. Few sustainable development programs in coastal areas have reached out to women as strategic partners due to the misconception that women are not actively involved in the fishing industry. The result is that:

- Women do not usually participate in the meetings held by the fishermen’s organizations;
- Most of the fishing projects are oriented toward men, and the participation of women is limited with respect to planning, programming and management;
- There are very few policies or programmes within the fishing sector where gender aspects are considered, as also indicated by recent results from the Environment and Gender Index (EGI).

Tourism activities in coastal zones also do not take into account the relationship between tourist and the local population and its impact on gender relations. Jobs in the tourism sector reproduce the traditional forms around the sexual division of work (i.e., hiring women as chambermaids and cooks).

GGCA and IUCN have suggested various strategies for gender-responsive coastal adaptation (Aguilar, Granat and Owren 2015). These include the following:

- Ensure access to wage-earning productive activities to improve living conditions for families.
- Include gender criteria in Environment Impact Assessments (EIAs).
- Undertake focused gender assessments of all projects.
- Develop a network of women and local bodies and sectoral departments for efficient infrastructural management, in order to ensure protection of infrastructure from damage during calamities.
- Involve women in monitoring the effects of climate change, for example in coral ecosystems and in aquaculture.
- Women should be trained in administration to ensure official resource and fishing permits.
- Include women in strategies to adapt to the reduction of marine species, or managing new marine species.
- Grant concessions and permits of marine coastal resources to groups of women.
- Develop initiatives to recover and reforest mangroves.
- Implement integrated coastal management policies that consider gender-sensitive risk management.
- Involve women in coastal research through training on monitoring and data gathering methods.
- Train women and men on non-traditional activities related to rehabilitating ecosystems.
- Encourage leadership and women’s effective participation in organizations and decision-making.
- Analyze gender relations associated with the use of, access to, management and control of coastal environmental resources.
- Promote equitable inclusion of women and men when introducing varieties.
- Create jobs with equitable participation of women and men.
- Relocate critical infrastructure and facilities with consideration of gender-specific socio-economic impact.
- Establish protection of marine and coastal systems and infrastructure managed by women.
- Ensure equal access to resources.
- Establish gender equality and diversity in planning, design, decision-making and leadership roles of marine and coastal systems, and in designation of marine protected areas.
- Ensure equal access to education and employment in technical and scientific fields, and strive for, or guarantee, equality in food distribution.
- Analyze gender relations associated with the use of access to, management and control of resources to conduct gender-disaggregated vulnerability studies in coastal zones. Develop a process for capacity-building for women so that they can run local meteorological stations to report on coastal weather conditions, and mobilize these women to act as information focal points for weather information that has to be transmitted to communities regarding major meteorological events along the coasts.
EXERCISE 21: GRAS APPLICATION THROUGH MOCK PANEL DISCUSSION

The key objective of this exercise is to enable the participants to identify gender gaps in existing adaptation and disaster projects. This will also provide them with an opportunity to have a hands-on experience of how they can contribute as observers in project approval/steering committee meetings related to climate finance.

Materials Required:
Copies of Handouts 16 and 17.

Pre-preparation (day before the exercise):
Select 10 volunteers from the participants and divide them into pairs. Give each pair any one case study from Handout 14. Tell them to go through the case and to try and make short presentations of one or two slides or posters on a chart paper related to the case. They are also free to look up for any additional information that they can get on these cases. This has to be done a day before so that the volunteers have enough time to work on the cases. Ask them to be ready with the presentation before the beginning of the sessions the next day, as they can be called in any time to make the presentations.

Process:
Step 1: Tell the audience to imagine a mock panel discussion on various adaptation models being implemented in South and South-East Asia. Tell them that projects are already ongoing, and that the discussion is to assess the gender-responsiveness of the projects and to provide inputs for strengthening gender integration.

Step 2: Place a copy of Handout 17 on a wall, where everyone can see. Go through it so that everyone is on the same page and understands the levels.

Step 3: Tell them that after each presentation, they will have to rate the project on the Gender-Responsiveness Assessment Scale (GRAS). They have to provide the level of responsiveness as well as their comments/reasons for the assessment. This has to be done on a separate sheet of paper for all the projects.

Step 4: Begin the presentations one by one. Provide five minutes to the volunteer pair for making the presentation and another two minutes for participants to finish their ratings. Collect the rating sheets from the participants. Go through them quickly and ask one or two persons who have given the most accurate/relevant responses to share their insights. Ask the group to share ideas on how the projects can be brought up by one level, especially making them gender-responsive or gender-transformative. Encourage different people to speak for different projects.

Learning Output: As each of the projects is discussed, the participants get to understand the various adaptation models and the use of the GRAS scale. Tell them that this same process can be followed when people attend various meetings and conferences where adaptation projects are presented. Women’s organizations should keep this assessment at the back of their mind and highlight the gaps in gender in those projects. Conclude by saying that the same thought process can also be followed if anyone is attending meetings for any climate funds as observers. (If the participants do not know about it, tell them that the same will be discussed later in the module on climate finance.)

This exercise is best conducted simultaneously with the presentation on “Adaptation Models.” See the markers in the main technical content for break for case sharing.
EXERCISE 22: COMMUNITY-BASED RESILIENCE CASE STUDY

The objective of this exercise is to provide the participants with a deeper understanding of what constitutes a community-based resilience model and the nuances of developing and implementing such a project.

Materials Required: Whiteboard and markers.

Process:

Step 1: Provide each of the participants with the case paper (Handout 18) in advance and ask them to read it before the discussion.

Step 2: Divide the participants into groups of 5-6 people. For a discussion-based approach, questions have been assigned as part of the case paper. Tell the group that they have to assume that they are on the board of this Trust, that they have to take decisions related to strategy and approve funding for each of these activities. Tell them to remember that resources are not finite; thus, the decisions will need to be made accordingly.

Step 3: Give around one hour for the participants to reflect on them as a group. Ask them to discuss and find suitable answers to all the questions in the handouts. Tell them that the group need not come to a consensus but must have a logical reasoning for what it decides.

Step 4: During the discussions, before the group comes together in a plenary, divide the whiteboard to bring together the following key learning points:

- Why should CSOs promote women-led resilience models?
- What would be the key features/Unique Selling Points (USPs) of such a model?
- What relevant strategies must be deployed within the organization and at project level?
- How to incorporate iteration in the project, learning from what works and what does not?
- How can the key principles, tools and steps on CBA be applied in a women-led resilience model?

Step 5: Once the participants come together in the plenary, ask them what decisions they have taken and why.

Step 6: As various viewpoints emerge, make notes in the relevant section of the white board. Identify participants who hold opposing views and ask questions designed to stimulate debate among participants until the group uncovers most or all of the learning points identified in advance.

Step 7: A potential analysis is shown in Table 4-6.

Learning Output: End the session with a quick response from all participants on what the participants have learned from the case study that may be applied into their own work.

The practical exercise following this session is more geared to an advanced level of learners especially those in senior management and leadership roles. For a basic orientation training programme, you can replace the session or to save time with the viewing of the film on “Women-Led Climate Resilience Action in South Asia” available at https://www.mahilahousingtrust.org/our-work/climate-resilience/. You can then move straight to the discussion on the model, key strategies and tools applied.

Also, if the trainer has no experience of using or participating in the Harvard Case study method, it is advisable to first watch the following videos to understand the basic thinking and principles behind the approach. You need to see: Case Study Method a Unique Approach to Learning available at https://www.exed.hbs.edu/video?videoid=3200; and/or How to prepare for Case Study Method available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wP3id-DxwDU or Teaching With Cases: Lessons From a Harvard Business Professor available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-jxDjewaesg.

You can also make the approach more iterative by encouraging participants to apply their real life experiences into the cases so as to enable a more experiential learning experience.
EXERCISE 23: INFOGRAPHIC DEVELOPMENT ON GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE

The key objective of this exercise is to enable the participants to connect the dots between climate change risks and impacts in any given sector with the existing gender roles and vulnerabilities.

Materials Required: Post-it chits (different colours); chart paper and pens; copies of Handout 19.

Process:
Step 1: Divide the participants into two to three groups, and give each group a chart paper ‘Strengths’; ‘Weaknesses’; ‘Opportunities’; and ‘Challenges’ as shown in Figure 4-6.

Step 2: Explain the concepts of SWOT analysis. Strengths are positive attributes; or in case of our exercise, the existing livelihoods, assets and capacities that the women have. Weaknesses are negative parameters; or in our case, the existing gender biases and discriminations. Opportunities are the factors which you can support the growth; in our case, new innovations and adaptation actions. Threats are like climate risks and externally-pursued adaptation choices that women have no control on. Strengths and weaknesses are internal – things that you have some control over and can change. Opportunities and threats are external – you can take advantage of opportunities and protect against threats, but you cannot change them.

Step 3: Give them a copy of Handout 19 and two sets of post chits, asking them to write the general points on one colour and the gender-related aspects on another colour. Ask them to place the chits in the relevant boxes on the chart above. Tell them that if they are confused, they can check with you or place the chits in the area connecting the two boxes. They are also free to add any more points that they find relevant.

Step 4: Give them 15 minutes to finish the task. Ask them to connect the chits/points that they think will positively or negatively impact each other as shown in Figure 4-6. Give them 15 minutes for this. Remember, the purpose of this exercise is not to create a good diagram but for the participants to understand the interlinkages between climate change, gender and the sectoral dimensions.

Step 5: Bring the participants to the plenary and ask them to present their charts. Ask each group to note down the key points emerging from all groups.

Learning Output: Sum up the session by reiterating the key points.
EXERCISE 24: MATRIX RANKING OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE ADAPTATION SOLUTIONS

The key objective of this exercise is to provide the participants with a first-hand experience of conducting a participatory matrix ranking exercise for facilitating women's prioritization of gender-just solutions.

Materials Required: Chart paper and pens; Copies of Handout 20.

Process:
Step 1: Provide the participants with Handout 20 (5-6 most relevant examples) and ask them to identify two most relevant gender-just sectoral solutions.

Step 2: Prepare a matrix chart listing out the major type of works in the “Y” axis.

Step 3: Ask the group to select the type of work that they feel will be most suitable and why. List down the list of criteria on the top column of the “X” axis. The type of criteria may include: i) number of people affected by the issue, level of difficulty; ii) level of difficulty for vulnerable groups such as elderly or children; iii) impact of the problem; and others. You may have to convert the reasons into criteria as part of your facilitation. For example, if the people say “two times of day,” you may mark it down as “frequency”; or if they say “everyday” as against “sometimes,” you may want to mark as “regularity.”

An example of a chart for identification of preferred energy solutions for livelihoods would look like Table 4-7.

Step 4: Ask the group to rank each option against the deciding factors on a scale of 1-5 or 1-10.

Step 5: Facilitate the identification of the preferred option jointly with the group by analyzing the marks obtained by the different solutions.

Learning Output: Conclude by telling the participants that the same exercise can also be undertaken for the selection of components within a project, for example tree species for forest plantation (See Figure 4-7). It is best to do this separately with men and women, and then facilitate a joint discussion; but even within a common group, this could be done by ensuring that all of women’s criteria for preference is included in the list and is given weight.
### TABLE 4-7: TEMPLATE FOR GENDER-RESPONSIVE CLIMATE-RESILIENT SOLUTIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA FOR PREFERENCE</th>
<th>TYPE OF CLIMATE-RESILIENT SOLUTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community-based rice drying improvement with solar technologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of people involved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of months providing employment/income</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stability of incomes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Losses faced due to natural hazards</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential of increased income stability and reduced losses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of women involved in the activity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of women owning the business</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of women having received training in the business</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential number of women’s groups/businesswomen who can take up the enterprise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will it reduce drudgery of women and girls?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TOTAL**

### FIGURE 4-7: EXAMPLE OF TREE SPECIES FOR FOREST PLANTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
<th>Siso</th>
<th>Khair</th>
<th>Dhavdo</th>
<th>Teak</th>
<th>Kalam</th>
<th>Biyo</th>
<th>Tirmu</th>
<th>Mahudo</th>
<th>Sadad</th>
<th>Bilii</th>
<th>Tanachh</th>
<th>Bamboo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Fuel Wood</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Bedi</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. House Construction</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Agriculture</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Charcoal</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Vegetable</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Medicinal Use</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Colour</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
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<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Fruits/Food</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Oil</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
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<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Soap</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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<td>–</td>
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<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Furniture</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Fishing</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Gum</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Shade</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Country Wine</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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**TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPLETE THE STATEMENT</th>
<th>✓ TICK YOUR SELECTION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local Adaptation Plan of Actions...</td>
<td>*are bottom up planning processes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Resilient infrastructure in cities will have to be...</td>
<td>*a least cost alternative.</td>
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<td>Ecosystem-adaptation includes projects like...</td>
<td>*damb and flood protection wall construction.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Typical communication tools for a CBA project would include...</td>
<td>*scientific and peer review publications, conferences and seminars, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Infrastructure projects...</td>
<td>*cannot include gender assessments directly.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* Items in red are the incorrect answers.

**SUGGESTED READINGS:**


TRAINOR’S GRID NOTES

MODULE ____  SESSION PLAN ____  PAGE ____

AGENDA

REMINDEERS
GENDER IN ADAPTATION APPROACHES AND SECTORAL ACTION

HANDOUTS

MODULE 4
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LAPA STEPS</th>
<th>CORE TOOLS</th>
<th>ADDITIONAL TOOLS</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>STEP 1:</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Development Needs and Climate Change Sensitization | 1. Shared Learning Dialogues (district level)  
2. Gateway Services Analysis (district level)  
3. Visuals and stories  
4. Climatic Hazard Trend Analysis  
5. Seasonal Calendars |  > Climate adaptation capacity assessment and opportunities identification  
> Cause and Effect Analysis (problem tree)  
> Envisioning climate scenarios  
> Hazard and Impact Risk Analysis  
> Hazard and Response Analysis  
> Mapping: hazards, vulnerability (social, economic, physical), resources (social, natural, etc.)  
> Timeline history regarding changes  
> School level awareness raising tools; essay competition, quiz contest, scouts, eco-clubs, etc. |
| **STEP 2:**  |
| Vulnerability and Adaptation Assessment | 6. Gateway Services Analysis  
7. Mapping hazards, risks, vulnerability, resources  
8. Disaggregated Vulnerability Matrix  
9. Hazard and Impact Risk Analysis  
10. Envisioning Climate Scenarios  
11. Climate Adapted Well-Being Assessment |  > Cause and Effect Analysis  
> GIS mapping  
> Hazard and Response analysis  
> Seasonal Calendars  
> Livelihoods Impact Analysis  
> Climatic Hazard Trend Analysis  
> Mapping of service provider/institutional analysis |
| **STEP 3:**  |
| Prioritization of adaptation actions | 12. Multi-Criteria Ranking  
13. Participatory Cost-Benefit Analysis |  > Impact Implementation matrix  
> Pair wise ranking  
> Scenario tool for identifying energy |
| **STEP 4:**  |
| Adaption Plan Development | 14. Service Provider Analysis  
> The 4 WHs (what, where, when, who, budget, etc) |  > Logical Framework  
> Inclusion-sensitive budgeting (for example gender and indigenous people-sensitive budget) |
| **STEP 5:**  |
| Integrating Adaption Plan |  > Shared learning dialogue  
> Policy and institutional analysis to identify entry points and/or adopt entry points included in this framework |  > Sharing best practices and lesson learned with plan decision-makers |
| **STEP 6:**  |
| Implementing Plan | NA | NA |
| **STEP 7:**  |
| Assessing Progress (M&E) and Informing Future Plan Development |  > Visioning high adaptive capacity  
> Service Providers Analysis  
> Behavior Change Journals Analysis  
> Disaggregated Vulnerability Matrix  
> Mapping risks, vulnerability, and service providers  
> Climate-Adapted Well-Being Assessment  
> Self-Monitoring and Evaluation  
> Most Significant Change Analysis |  > Mapping hazards, risks, and vulnerability  
> Envisioning climate scenarios  
> Logical Frameworks  
> Hazard Trend Analysis  
> Seasonal Calendars  
> Hazard Response Analysis  
> Gateway Systems Analysis  
> Policy and Institutional analysis |

Source: UNDP Nepal (n.d.).
As a city, Semarang still faces a diverse range of issues. Tidal flooding and flash floods, sanitation and waste management, congestion, and unemployment, among others, are the issues the city currently dealt with. About five percent of the city’s population living in poverty is considered to be the most vulnerable to these problems. The Semarang City Government, together with all of the city elements, tried to overcome these challenges through improved physical and non-physical infrastructures. Although the city achieved and accomplished a lot, there is still much left to be done for the completion of Semarang City’s Resilience Strategy Document as part of the 100 Resilient Cities initiative. The strategy was formulated through an inclusive process involving many elements of the city (see Figure 4-8).

CASE 2: MOVING TOGETHER TOWARDS A RESILIENT SEMARANG (INDONESIA) – DEVELOPING A CITY RESILIENCE STRATEGY AND ACTION PLAN

As a city, Semarang still faces a diverse range of issues. Tidal flooding and flash floods, sanitation and waste management, congestion, and unemployment, among others, are the issues the city currently dealt with. About five percent of the city’s population living in poverty is considered to be the most vulnerable to these problems. The Semarang City Government, together with all of the city elements, tried to overcome these challenges through improved physical and non-physical infrastructures. Although the city achieved and accomplished a lot, there is still much left to be done for the completion of Semarang City’s Resilience Strategy Document as part of the 100 Resilient Cities initiative. The strategy was formulated through an inclusive process involving many elements of the city (see Figure 4-8).

The key steps undertaken by them include:

a. Expanding linkages with local communities and civil society organizations, as well as with local and national government agencies and entities (e.g., Department of National Park and Wildlife Conservation, Buffer Zone Management Committee, Sagarmatha Pollution Control Committee, etc.) as a means of enabling, supporting, and facilitating the LAPA production for the Khumbu.

b. Facilitating community consultations; follow on meetings with stakeholders in Kathmandu; and LAPA introductory and climate change impact assessments in communities in the valley.

c. Facilitating final community consultations, adaptation prioritization, funding source identification, and intervention mainstreaming workshops.

d. In addition to the LAPA guidelines of Government of Nepal, the project integrated three components designed to enhance the utility and sustainability of the LAPA planning documents produced. They include i) assisting stakeholders in the identification of prospective funding sources for each of the priority climate change adaptation interventions identified (e.g., Buffer Zone, VDC, GON, international donors), ii) purposely mainstreaming high priority climate change adaptation interventions with district- and local-level development priorities (e.g., adding water collection systems and climate smart designs to the construction of new community buildings), and iii) actively leveraging co-financing for the implementation of priority climate change and risk reduction interventions (e.g., National Geographic Society alternative energy grants, UNDP/Nepal subcontracts).

**FIGURE 4-8: RESILIENCE STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT PROCESS IN SEMARANG (INDONESIA)**

The diagram below explains the stages and milestones in the development of city resilience strategy in Semarang.

**2013**

**DECEMBER**

Semarang was selected to become one of the first cities in 100 Resilient Cities Organization.

**2014**

**DECEMBER**

Agenda Preparation Work was aimed to prepare Semarang in executing the stages of 100RC.

**2015**

**APRIL**

Strategy Launch and Chief Resilience Officers (CRO) Appointment to become one of the first cities in 100 Resilient Cities Organization.

**JULY**

City context development was signified by holding the first workshop, which invited different stakeholders. The workshop collected informations on the actual conditions of Semarang in order to determine priority shocks and stresses, and also perspective of stakeholders on Semarang resilient concept, the program's data collection and city assets.

**AUGUST**

The Resilient Steering Committee was established. The committee aimed at providing guidelines and inputs for the implementation of 100RC. The city secretary was the advisor of the committee and the committee members include different elements of community.

**SEPTEMBER**

Preliminary Resilience Assessment (PRA) The launch of Preliminary Resilience Assessment included three themes (Security, Mobility and Capacity) and five discovery areas (Basic Needs, Employment, Disasters and Diseases, Mobility and Capacity).

**OCTOBER**

The Identification of Discovery Areas Five city resilience working groups were established to safeguard the process of strategy formulation. The members of the work teams included the municipal government, provincial government, academics and members of the community in order to obtain a wide perspective. The work resulted in 56 city resilience strategy suggestions and 174 city resilience initiatives.

[Stakeholder Engagement Planning was executed during the formulation process of the city resilience strategy.]

**2016**

**FEBRUARY**

The identification of opportunities and priorities of city resilience strategy and initiatives

The cross focus working group consists of representatives from the other five discovery areas working groups. The team conducted study on interconnectedness of the themes and strategies that could be integrated. Priority strategy was the result of this stage, achieved through various methods. There were 18 city resilience strategies and 53 city resilience initiatives which were under 6 pillars of strategy.

**MAY**

The City Resilience Strategy Launch

A comprehensive City Resilience Strategy is officially launched.

Source: Semarang City Government (2016).
Bangladesh Nari Progati Sangha (BNPS) has been implementing “Resilience through Economic Empowerment, Climate Adaptation, Leadership and Learning (REE-CALL)” project supported by Oxfam GB since August 2010. The project aims to build community capacities for disaster risk reduction and management. The key foundations of the project are the development of a strong community-based organization (CBO) with men and women-leaders from the local village, facilitating identification of DRR interventions through use of participatory capacity and vulnerability analysis (PCVA) process.

In 2011, a CBO was formed in Kurerpar village with 92 members including women. During the PCVA with the CBO, it was revealed that the village faces a double jeopardy of alternative flood and droughts every year. For about seven months, the haor remains under water; the rest of the year, it is a dry low land. During the PCVA exercise, the CBO members identified risks like tidal hit, flood and under-developed transportation system. The insecurity and loss of assets and livelihoods due to tide strokes was highlighted as the key impacts of the disaster risks. The CBO members planned to construct a guide wall (mound protection wall) in a limited area which would directly benefit 30 families. However, while identification of solution was easy, the implementation was not. Other than the need for financing technical assistance was also an issue. As the project could not support the full costs, the CBO members approached the local administration for the support. The sub-district engineer and project implementation officer were approached; and after regular follow up and liaising, the construction was finally completed in April 2015. Apart from BDT 225,000 provided by the RECALL project, the community themselves also contributed money and labour to the tune of BDT 100,000 for the construction of 517 feet guide wall and 290 feet CC-mounded protection wall. The government contribution for this work was BDT 118,000 which was used to construct 227 feet CC-mounded protection wall. It was a totally new experience for the villagers and CBO members, and highlights how it is important that the community should also be involved in infrastructure development projects.

Source: Case information provided by Bangladesh Nari Progati Sangha.
The focus is on sub-watershed level through various interventions like water conservation, land rehabilitation, livelihood diversification and capacity enhancement of government agencies and local communities.

Practices, like water source conservation and construction of conservation ponds, were initiated to address water scarcity issues. Rangeland management was done by building compound walls to halt over-grazing activities of the livestock and protect the grassland ecosystem from further degradation. Several riverbank conservation initiatives with application of grey-green measures, i.e., engineered structures coupled with bamboo plantation were carried out to protect agricultural lands in the riverbanks to reduce deposition of sediment downstream.

The Project broadcasted radio programs named ‘Panchase ko Serofero’ through Radio barahi-99.2, Radio saligram-100.6 and Syangja FM-89.6 from Kaski, Parbat and Syangja, respectively, to increase local-level awareness on ecosystems and EbA.

The Project is implemented by the Department of Forests under the Ministry of Forests and Soil Conservation and is coordinated by the Ministry of Science, Technology and Environment. Similarly, there are three implementing agencies: United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN).

The overall aim of the Integrated Community-Based Adaptation in the Mekong Delta (ICAM) project is to increase the resilience of communities in the Mekong Delta to the unavoidable impacts of climate change. The project targets the most vulnerable people, specifically landless and land-poor people, with a particular focus on minority ethnic groups such as the Cham and Khmer, living in five communes in the provinces of Soc Trang and An Giang, in close collaboration with partners.

The project has four core components:

A. Building local capacity to carry out improved gender-sensitive analysis and planning for CBA:
   A step-by-step approach to vulnerability assessment and CBA planning was developed using CARE’s Climate Vulnerability and Capacity Assessment (CVCA) manual and community visioning tools (see tool in Figure 4-9). Afterwards, a collaborative analysis of climate risks and adaptation options between communities and the local authorities was conducted. Communities planned for a resilient future by accounting for different climate scenarios. The resulting action plans inform approaches to livelihoods, disaster risk reduction and behaviour change.

B. Supporting the implementation of DRR measures and climate-resilient livelihoods:
   DRR activities like swimming skills training, a flood warning system, child safety information and tree planting for the prevention of soil erosion are being jointly funded by the project and government. Additionally, the project also provided support for climate-resilient livelihood activities like organic eel raising, organic indoor mushroom farming, onion waste-based bio-fertilizer production, drip irrigation techniques, bio-bedding for pig manure management, floating food gardens and chilli growing.

C. Advocacy and social mobilization to address the underlying causes of vulnerability:
   Members of different ethnic groups, women, the poor and the landless, those living on boats or in unprotected houses on the river were supported to communicate their experiences and concerns through community digital storytelling.
D. Strengthening civil society in the Mekong Delta:
Enhanced civil society networking, information-sharing, learning and collaboration on climate change through
the joint establishment and operation of the Southern Climate Change Working Group. This group brings together
Vietnamese civil society, international NGOs, research institutes and bilateral funding organisations.


**FIGURE 4-9: PROCESS STEPS FROM THE CARE VIETNAM CBA PLANNING MANUAL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STEPS: CC/CBA Orientation for Provincial and District Authorities</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>RESULTS</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| **STEP 1** | > Orientation sessions on CC, CBA and gender.  
> Consensus building on CBA planning process. | > Improved understanding among provincial and district local authorities on CC, CBA and gender.  
> Approval and commitment of local authorities to CBA planning steps. |
| **STEP 2** | > Establishment and approval of CBA taskforce.  
> Selection of potential CBA trainers. | > Established group of the main CBA decision-makers in the province.  
> A gender-balanced list of potential CBA trainers. |
| **STEP 3** | > Training on climate change and DRR.  
> CBA planning process + tools.  
> Training and facilitation skills. | > A group of qualified gender-balanced CBA trainers from the province, district (and commune) level that will lead Step 4 to Step 9.  
> Improved understanding among commune and village local authorities on CC (including gender) and CBA.  
> Approval and commitment of local authorities to CBA planning steps. |
| **STEP 4** | > Consensus on CBA planning process.  
> Selection of CBA facilitators. | |
| **STEP 5** | > Training on CBA planning process + tools.  
> Facilitation skills.  
> Field testing of CBA tools. | > A group of qualified gender-balanced CBA facilitators from the commune and village that will help the CBA trainers facilitate Step 7 and 8 (village and commune CBA planning). |
| **STEP 6** | > Developing work plan for Step 7 to Step 9. | > A detailed work plan, including time schedule, jointly developed by the CBA trainers and CBA facilitators to carry out the village and commune plan. |
| **STEP 7** | > Secondary data collection + CVCA exercises.  
> Visioning and village CBE plan.  
> Documentation. | > Village CBA planning reports, including CVCA report, a common village vision and a gender-responsive inclusive village CBA plan. |
| **STEP 8** | > Present village CBA plans, commune socio-economic development plan (SEDP).  
> Developing commune CBA plan.  
> Discuss mainstreaming into SEDP. | > Commune CBA planning reports, including a gender-responsive inclusive commune CBA plan and recommended follow-up actions for mainstreaming into the commune SEDP. |
| **STEP 9** | > Present commune CBA plan + district SEDP.  
> Orientation on CC mainstreaming.  
> Discuss mainstreaming into district SEDP. | > Improved understanding of the CBA taskforce on CC mainstreaming into SEDP and the results of the CBA planning.  
> Agreed follow-up actions for mainstreaming into SEDP/sectoral plans. |
| **STEP 10** | > Discussion by Government, communities, mass organisations, CSOs, NGOs, etc. about implementation. | > Implementation of commune and village CBA plans. |

Source: King (2014).
| LEVEL 1: GENDER UNEQUAL | > Perpetuates gender inequality by reinforcing unbalanced norms, roles and relations.  
> Privileges men over women (or vice versa).  
> Often leads to one sex exercising more rights or opportunities than the other. |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| LEVEL 2: GENDER-BLIND   | > Ignores gender norms, roles and relations.  
> Very often reinforces gender-based discrimination.  
> Ignores differences in opportunities and resource allocation for men and women  
> Often constructed based on the principle of being "fair" by treating everyone the same. |
| LEVEL 3: GENDER-SENSITIVE | > Considers gender norms, roles and relations.  
> Does not address inequality generated by unequal norms, roles and relations.  
> Indicates gender awareness, although often no remedial action is developed. |
| LEVEL 4: GENDER-SPECIFIC | > Considers gender norms, roles and relations for women and men and how they affect access to and control over resources.  
> Considers women's and men's specific needs.  
> Intentionally targets and benefits a specific group of women or men to achieve certain policy or programme goals or meet certain needs.  
> Makes it easier for women and men to fulfill duties that are ascribed to them based on their gender roles. |
| LEVEL 5: GENDER-TRANSFORMATIVE | > Considers gender norms, roles and relations for women and men and that these affect access to and control over resources.  
> Considers women's and men's specific needs.  
> Addresses the causes of gender-based health inequities.  
> Includes ways to transform harmful gender norms, roles and relations.  
> The objective is often to promote gender equality.  
> Includes strategies to foster progressive changes in power relationships between men and women. |

Source: WHO (n.d.).
About Women's Empowerment Trust:
The Women's Empowerment Trust was founded in the 1990s to facilitate better housing, infrastructure and associated services for women in Gujarat (India). Beginning with a modest team of social workers and engineers, the Trust was called upon in 1998 by the local city government to support community mobilization in slums for provision of basic services like water, sanitation, drainage, internal road, solid waste management, street lights and tree plantation. Their project implementation approach focused on women-led development. This model focuses on forming women-led community-based organizations (CBOs) in the slums and developing leadership skills of women to plan and implement the project in their areas. This work approach was extremely successful. In the period 1999-2004, the Trust, with support from the local municipal government, was able to reach out to over 35,000 slum families for coverage of these services.

Approach and Programmes up to 2014:
After initial successes, the Trust then built on this experience to scale its operations both horizontally and vertically. It increased the scope of its activities along the value of chain community-led services. Its initial activities in the slums helped form CBOs; and women-leaders were trained and empowered to liaise and work closely with local authorities to get access to legal electricity connections, adoption of energy efficient and renewable energy products and loans for better housing. Vertical scaling was in two ways; First, the Trust used its own learnings from the community-based work to influence city, state and national policies. Second, the Trust facilitated the CBOs to engage with each other at the city level, thereby forming a city-level women’s federation of CBOs. The horizontal expansion included increasing the number of slums engaged within the city, moving into other cities within the state (sub-national level) and moving into other states.

Strategy Plan Development in 2014:
In 2014, the Trust decided to undertake a strategic plan development exercise with a view to review the impact and coverage of its work with reference to the emerging Sustainable Development Agenda and the changing development focus in the country as well as the altered development finance landscape. The exercise was facilitated by external consultants and involved a series of participatory workshops with grassroot women-leaders of the city federation and the programme staff. This exercise brought forth the following three potential strategies for the Trust:

a. Focus solely on select sectors that are common to the SDGs and national government agenda as they are more likely to secure development finance. This would involve focusing on three sectors – water, sanitation and energy. The Trust would need to realign its current human resources and focus on scaling up the work to reach out to more than a million households in the next five years.

b. Shift its focus to professional for-profit housing services (which is also aligned with the development agenda of the national and city government) to generate finances, which can cross-finance its not-for-profit work on service delivery. This would involve consolidating its current work to limited geographical locations with focus on creating higher level of impacts on the lives of around a hundred thousand people in a few cities.

c. Move focus from service delivery to governance and advocacy work building leadership and technical capacities and community organizations of women for empowering them to prioritize their own development needs, and to avail these from city governments and other service providers. This process would entail moving into transdisciplinary partnerships, with a core focus on community development that identifies local vulnerabilities and strengthens resilience with most appropriate solutions chosen by CBOs.

Key Questions:
a. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each approach?
b. Which approach do you think is best suited for the Trust?
c. What should be the criteria for selection of the right approach?

7. Adapted from Women’s Action Towards Climate Resilience of Urban Poor in Asia: A project by Mahila Housing SEWA Trust. (Documents reviewed include project evaluation reports, manuals and policy briefs. The information and photos are used with permission from Mahila Housing SEWA Trust).
After the consultations, the Trust decided to go through a combination of the approaches and adopted the following strategy:

a. Mainstream climate change resilience into its existing sectoral work through technical partnerships and co-create cost-effective gender-sensitive solutions which can be scaled through a market-based mechanism to reach out to more than a hundred thousand people;

b. Continue its focus on building social capital through CBO formation and women’s leadership development but push the frontier to address urban governance and inclusive planning by effective empowerment of women changemakers and reaching out to larger populations;

c. Partner with other grassroot-based organizations for sharing knowledge products and strategies to enable scale to other cities; and

d. Consolidate its current service delivery work to focus on last-mile service delivery targeting the most vulnerable and marginalized among the slum communities.

The idea behind this strategy is to let vulnerable populations, especially women, set the agenda and to support them in overcoming the barriers to development. The strategy has its fundamentals on two premises. First, if the urban poor are provided with the requisite knowledge to undertake vulnerability and risk assessments and are equipped with available resilient technologies, they will be able to devise and implement locally-relevant and pro-poor climate-resilient solutions. Second, if the poor are empowered to implement their own resilience plans, and the institutional mechanisms representing their voices are in place, they will be able to provide a constructive voice in city planning and governance on pro-poor adaptation and resilience action. Using this strategy framework as a guiding principle, the Trust specifically developed a Women-Led Climate Resilience Project.

The key stages followed for the project development included:

**Stage 1:** An initial project concept note was developed for funding support to undertake an in-depth problem assessment and then design their solutions. The funding secured for this was used as an opportunity to test the viability strategy and its premises. Thus, the project was developed in a participatory manner by providing initial orientation to select women community leaders to understand climate risks and vulnerability. (See Exhibit A for initial challenges in participatory approach.)

**Stage 2:** A quick gender and risk assessment exercise kit using Climate Trend Histogram and Moser Framework was put together, and grassroot workers and women-leaders from slums were trained to apply these to encourage focus group discussions (FGDs) on the issue with the slum communities. A total of 52 FGDs were organized in six different cities during this phase on the issues related to climate change. The key stresses of heat, water, water quality, flooding and inundation and vector management emerged as the major issues during these FGDs. Communities shared that due to extensively hot afternoons, four hours of the day went in vain as they could not take up any activity due to the extreme heat. This led to decrease in the working hours as well as reduced efficiency. The FGDs also brought out that most of the households received 2-3 hours of water per day through individual municipal connections or through common bore wells in the community. However, there were still areas where water was a major issue, especially in the summer months. Most of the communities also reported on inland flooding which caused backlogged sewers. Some also mentioned that heavy rainfall for as little as 1-2 hours caused knee-level water logging, which made workers miss out an average of 4-5 working days a month, as instead of working, the residents got involved in removing water or fell sick and were unable to work as flooding caused unhygienic conditions, increase in dengue and cases of other vector-borne diseases. Based on these interactions, detailed city level community profiles and slum profiles were developed for the target settlements.

**Stage 3:** Equipped with settlement level information, the women-leaders then engaged with the technical experts in workshop mode to undertake a joint problem analysis. The problem tree development workshop, bringing together the technical partners of the project, implementation team and women-leaders from slum communities on one platform, was a key highlight of the project development stage. This was the first type of interaction where the experts and communities were gathered around the table and discussed about the specific stresses from their different perceptions to develop problem trees. Each of these problem trees on heat stress, water scarcity, inland flooding, water and vector-borne diseases, loss of property and institutional capacities as well as mechanisms developed as part of this workshop were taken as a base to develop log-frames which helped the team to design solutions in a participatory mode. At the end of this two-day comprehensive workshop, securing health and livelihoods emerged as the core of the solutions framework. (See Exhibit B for Technical Partnerships.)
Stage 4: This workshop also broke the ice between the technical experts and community leaders. Following the workshop, many technical experts visited the slums to understand the issues better where women-leaders facilitated the engagement. These field visits further refined the project design.

Stage 5: Later in this phase, there was also an Indicator Development Exercise undertaken with the women-leaders and grassroot mobilization team, which was to feed into the process of assessing community-level vulnerability in a workshop mode. Women’s views on smart slums and smart cities were noted to understand their perception of vulnerability, risk and resilience building. Various sources of information for the women-leaders were also mapped to identify the existing barriers and prospects for behaviour change communication interventions as part of the project implementation. Different types of communication strategies/practices including role plays and story-telling exercises were used on the ground to mobilize the communities. The entire exercise was helpful in charting out a behaviour change communication strategy for the project. The workshop also had participation from communication technology providers who shared their models to explore possibilities of collaboration. Two new communication partners were bought into the project through this workshop.

Stage 6: In order to further the stakeholder engagement process, multi-stakeholder workshops were organized at the city level. This especially helped in getting the buy-in of local government stakeholders, both officers and elected representatives. (See Exhibit C for Local Government Partnerships.)

Stage 7: During this phase, the technical experts also did their own scoping of solutions/technologies and also developed sectoral briefs of their subjects of expertise. These sectoral briefs went on to become the basis for establishing the evidence to validate the theory of change and proposed project strategies.

Stage 8: Finally, after four months, a solutions development workshop was organized, which again brought together the technical experts and women-leaders, to reflect on the proposed project model, implementation strategies and activities.

Key Questions:

a. What is your reflection on the project development process followed by the Trust? What are the advantages and disadvantages of such a process?

b. Financial resources are often limited. There is always a trade-off in spending on project development with actual activities of the project. How do you think they can be balanced? Do you think donor funding can be made available for project development activities?

c. What are key challenges to developing transdisciplinary multi-stakeholder partnerships? Are there any learnings from the project actions which should be documented and used for advocacy to enable funding for such activities?

d. What type of partnerships would you recommend to be conducted formally and which partnerships could be continued informally? Do you think forming a consortium or formal network would be more suitable than informal partnerships? If so, why?

e. Where do you envision your role in such a project?

EXHIBIT A: INITIAL CHALLENGES IN THE PARTICIPATORY APPROACH

The new strategy advocated for participatory approach. However, this task turned out to be the most challenging task of the project development phase. As the person who first introduced climate change to the women-leaders describes it:

“A talk which I thought would be quite easy turned out to be a daunting task when I realized I was talking to women with modest or no education, who had no idea of global warming and yet they were the ones I knew are to be the most affected by the impact of the changing climate. I not only use technical jargons so I did what I knew best and asked the women what they were experiencing about the changing weather conditions. And voilà, the women not only knew what was happening, but were in their own ways developing mechanisms to cope with it. This got me thinking, if just experience could help a group of women to fix so many problems, what could they not do if they had the requisite scientific knowledge, capacities and technologies. Can this be a way to develop actionable adaptation plans?”
The Trust started the issue of climate resilience with city-level technical experts. Initial discussions were limited to understanding the issue and how it impacts women from slum communities. Subsequently, the Trust also organized specific trainings on climate change for the women-leaders, which were aimed to help the women advance their domain knowledge and also to bring about the finer issues of impacts and challenges that they share as a community.

Transferring scientific knowledge to the grassroot staff and women-leaders was difficult. Climate science is a very technical subject; and to train the literate or often illiterate women required a specialized approach of linking the technical issues with day-to-day impacts. These trainings were not just academic exercises but also engagement modes to bring out the impacts and solutions relevant for them. Therefore, the approaches used in the training also had to deal with the concepts and enable the participants to use this understanding within the existing complexity of inter-linkages and inter-connectedness between various issues to come up with solutions. A simple climate solution of building a recharge pond may sound like a relevant solution to recharge ground water but may lose its relevance and purpose in extreme heat waves or it can create issues of vector-borne diseases or it may become a source of contaminated water if connected to discharge pipelines if all the relevant social, economic, environmental, policy and planning issues are not considered in the climate context.

EXHIBIT B: TECHNICAL PARTNERSHIPS

The challenges of growth and resilience building faced by the urban poor require sound research and innovations. However, taking the innovation to scale often faces barriers related to the multi-dimensional and multi-stakeholder nature of social challenges. Dealing with this requires a new approach where social and technological progress co-evolves through direct dialogue between the natural and social sciences and collective action between communities and technical experts.

Given the multi-dimensional nature of the project, four types of technical experts were engaged as a part of the project:

- **Innovative Entrepreneurs and Businesses** who demonstrated their products/services in the slums. They sought the help of the Trust to get an entry into the communities and get a space to showcase their product. The Trust’s interest in facilitating this was to create a basket of efficient and effective choices for the community to choose from, based on their needs, aspirations and financial status. During the project, a range of such partners dealing with improved roofing solutions, water purification products, composting technologies, building technologies, among others was explored.

- **Academic Institutions – Universities and Public Research Institutes** that enabled a systems-thinking approach, provided subject-specific inputs and technical trainings, and creation of knowledge products (technical manuals, audio/video bytes, others). The key institutes participating for technical support were those particularly engaged in undertaking applied research projects in the areas and those who wanted to take the lead in the formative and summative project evaluation to be able to capture and disseminate the learnings.

- **Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) and Social Innovators:** Local CSOs with different organizational focus and expertise were also involved in the process. The key among them were those working on communication and behaviour change aspects of the project. These included those who worked on environment and climate education as well as communication technology partners Mobile Vaani (for mobile-based communication). The highlight of the project was that these agencies did not work in isolation but came together to support the development of an integrated and effective communication strategy.

- **Individual Subject Matter Experts** who demonstrated an interest in working directly with the communities/grassroot to train them or design products and services for them. The project benefitted from the expert services of more than 20 people from the field of health, vector management, disaster management, water management, behaviour change analysis and risk management and information technology.

The initial attraction for most technical partners to collaborate was the Trust’s ability to mobilize slum communities, especially the women. The project design approach enabled the partners to interact directly with the women-leaders. Among the key barriers to innovation and transfer of knowledge identified by the project were the skills and abilities of technical experts to work with
communities. These technical partnerships and engagements were included in the project design stage itself, making the engagement process streamlined.

Currently, the engagement of experts with communities happens in two ways:

a. **For research**, when the research institutes send their students or surveyors to the slum communities to get data which would inform their research projects. Here, the community’s role is limited to being basically a supplier of information, with no or little control over the analysis and conclusions drawn. In most cases, the results may not even be shared with the communities.

b. **For marketing purposes**, when innovators and businesses with established products want to promote their products. In the current marketing paradigm, the urban slum communities are target consumers, especially those who are a level higher on the poverty pyramid.

Both these engagement modes are inadequate to deal with the issues of climate change experienced by the slum communities for many reasons. First, the products or services offered are often designed in a generic manner and are not suitable for slum communities. They need designs that are planned for density, have mixed or multiple use, build on their existing investments, are cost-effective and at the same time aspirational. Thus, even though a range of climate-resilient solutions for heat resistance and water management are already available, they are often inaccessible and unsuitably prototyped to meet the specific needs of these communities. Often, the technology offered is not in sync with the existing infrastructure or the existing space constraints. This happens mainly because the innovator has no space to test the prototype of the product directly with the slum communities and also no facilitation for validation of the prototype. One of the essential services that the Trust brought into this partnership was facilitation to test and provide feedback on the prototype and to validate the solution.

Second, businesses have a proper supply chain model which enables them to distribute products to communities at a scale. The current distributor-based model of most businesses which require high upfront investments are not successful in slum communities where the capacity to pay is low and initial turnover is less, making the business less viable. While the Trust is still struggling to enable big changes in this, the women-leaders have been able to make a mark by becoming sales agents and marketers for many of the products. This helps disseminate the product in the community while also becoming a source of livelihood for the women-leaders.

Third, cost is a challenge. Most innovations at the initial stage are not cost-effective especially as the manufacturer did not achieve the economies of scale. This makes the products costlier; often, there are not many takers at the slum levels. As slum dwellers have little access to formal finance, they are not even able to take these on instalments. The Trust worked towards enabling this by linking slum dwellers to formal banks and credit cooperatives as well as by having a revolving fund specifically created for financing such products. This is also an attraction for innovators and businesses to partner with the Trust.

Fourth, communication is a challenge. CBA projects also require top-down attempts to educate people of the risks, impacts and available technology options to climate change. Unfortunately, the current system of scientific knowledge focuses on reducing climate change impacts to biophysical changes with pre-determined notions of what should and can be done. It was very important to enable knowledge sharing between communities and technical experts to happen on an equal footing. One of the key aspects of the project was to facilitate processes and platforms which enable communities and technical experts (social and natural scientists) to interact and co-create pro-poor resilient solutions. A very good example of this was observed when the geohydrological partner actually adopted the participatory research approach to ground water management for the first time and even placed a research student for the duration of the project period to interact and work directly with communities.

**EXHIBIT C: LOCAL GOVERNMENT PARTNERSHIPS**

The Trust recognized that to be effective in influencing ‘higher level’ policy decision-making, grassroots organizations need to work closely with the local governments. In fact, the key to the Trust’s success over the years was based on the fact that the Trust does not focus only on identification of gaps in implementation of people-centric programmes but also works in tandem with local governments to develop pro-poor solutions. This requires constant liaising with civic officials – sensitizing them to people’s needs while understanding procedural dynamics; manoeuvring red-tape while remaining within the regulatory frameworks; demonstrating workable approaches on the ground and training Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) on these approaches.
Another key role that the trust plays is enabling coordination and convergence between the multiple departments of the ULBs. There are two key players within the local governments which were included as project partners:

1. **Municipal Corporators (Local Councillors)**
   - Their role is to monitor the activities of urban local body in the provision of all municipal services and ensure their effectiveness in their respective wards. The Trust successfully mobilized and trained women-leaders from poor communities to engage with the councillors and leverage their budgets to bring in improvements to their area. With the active engagement and financial support of local councillors, the women-leaders have been able to bring about tangible improvements in their areas.

2. **Technical Staff of Local Government**
   - Along with elected representatives, Municipal Corporations in India also have an executive wing headed by the Municipal Commissioner. These are subsequently divided into zone/ward level offices and different functional departments like public health and engineering, water and sanitation, school education, and others. One of the unique selling points of the Trust was training the women-leaders and programme staff to work closely with the local technical staff of the ULB to overcome these barriers by recommending process improvements, changes in policies and operational guidelines, and surrogate mechanisms to help reach their policies and programs to the poor.

In the past many years, the Trust successfully worked with local governments and was instrumental in bringing key policy and program changes that have enabled the poor to access improved services. Local governments also recognize the value that the Trust brings in resolving the implementation hurdles on ground.
The Trust was also able to receive project funding for a two-year period. This was both an opportunity and a challenge. Community-based projects require a continuous and a long-term approach to building trust between the various stakeholders, enable cross learnings and knowledge sharing, facilitate planning and gather support for resilience action itself. Achieving this in a two-year period was ambitious and at the same time an opportunity to showcase a working model of women-led resilience action in urban slums, which could be replicated, scaled up and fed into the learning curve of policy and planning processes. The project thus developed a joint household and slum-level implementation strategy to be undertaken over a two-year period as can be seen in Figure 4-10. The core base of the project was organizing and mobilizing women from poor slum communities to form their own community-based organizations (CBOs), each comprising 200 to 250 families.

A group of 15 to 25 women representing these families are trained on community action, leadership and urban governance. Generally, a group of 10 to 12 women would emerge as leaders during the training process. This group of leaders is called the community action group (CAG).

The CAG then becomes the support system within the slum for women to actively interface with government bodies and municipal corporations and take charge of the slum improvement processes.

The CAG not only included ten women-leaders from the CBO but were also encouraged to include two adolescent/young girls. This was done with the dual motive to firstly have a more contemporary and futuristic perspective within the group as well as for the CAG to benefit with the technology skills which these young girls would bring with them. The CAG members were then trained over a period of six months on the following topics:

1. Orientation to project;
2. Importance of collective action and process of CBO/CAG formation;
3. Structure and functioning of ULBs and service agencies (including a visit to the local ULB office); and
4. Urban development programmes and people's entitlements.
The Trust also came up with a scaling up plan to enable this within the limitations of time and funding resources, achieving the desired scale by deciding to intervene in seven cities within three nations. These cities fall into three categories:

- **Established cities** that have well-established networks of women-leaders in both informal settlements and city-wide, emerging out of the Trust’s long history of intervention;
- **Emergent cities** that are in the process of establishing networks of women-leaders at both informal settlements and city levels, emerging out of the Trust’s shorter history of working in these cities;
- **Partner cities** that contain neither an established network of women-leaders nor an existing non-government organization (NGO) with experience in creating such networks, where the Trust is partnering with local organizations for cross sharing on experiences of community-based adaptation models.

Another key focus of the project was to provide the communities with a basket of choices on technological solutions, so they can then make their own decisions based on what is affordable and appealing to them. The new technologies were scoped through exposure visits and inviting innovators and technology providers to workshops along with inputs from the project technical experts. This coupled with field demonstration of relevant technical interventions. Seeing and experiencing various products first-hand helped build the confidence among communities, with themselves investing in resilient technologies. Twenty-one household-level solutions and nine community-level solutions were demonstrated. These included, among others: modular cool roofs, cool autos, urban landscaping, vermi-compost systems, water meters, roof rain water harvesting systems, compost tumblers and community-managed water supply systems.

The project implementation strategy was to pilot a practice, tool or technology within the established city, replicating a changed model through an iterative learning process in an emergent city. Documentation was done on the application of the practice, tool or technology in different cities and the ways to tailor the same to local context, converting this into a knowledge product and sharing with partner cities for customizing and adoption in their field of work. A focused knowledge management team was put in place at the project office to facilitate this process.

The project also recognized that transferring scientific knowledge would require repeatedly and progressively conveying information regarding climate change and resilience actions without losing residents’ interest. To achieve this, it was necessary to devise innovative communication tools that are systematic and repeated, slowly progressing in depth and difficulty.

Another aspect of project design was that communities need to undertake their own vulnerability assessment. This was a challenge, since local slum-level data were not readily available in the region and the women-leaders did not have the capacities and orientation to learn complex models. To deal with this, the partners developed vulnerability assessment, surveillance and planning toolkits. There were around nine tools of process/practices which were identified during the project development phase, which needed to be piloted and tested for efficacy and impact. These included training modules; audio-visual and print material; games; community-based vulnerability assessment and resilience planning toolkit; and Community-Based Surveillance practices. (See Exhibit D on Knowledge Products.)

**Key Questions:**

a. What do you think constitutes an adequate time frame for a CBA project? What could be the problems associated with racing against time on such projects?
b. What do you think would be the challenges of undertaking such a project of this complex nature? What are the ways in which this project anticipates potential problems and includes them in its implementation design?
c. What are the key steps required at organizational level for managing such a project? What would be the recommendations of the Board for checks and balances to ensure that all the project outputs are delivered in time, partnerships are well-managed and financial resources efficiently utilized?
d. How would you rate the capacity strengthening strategy and its tools of the project?
e. What do you think are the key gaps/limitations of the project in terms of addressing Intersectionalities and ensuring LNOB?
The basic training module aimed to introduce the concept of climate change and generate awareness of its impact on the urban poor, especially women. It’s a step-by-step process composed of six sessions. The first two sessions are intended to stimulate interest. Session 3 and Session 4 introduce concepts such as climate change and global warming and explain their impacts on the entire humanity as well as everyday life. The last two sessions are more activity-oriented, with Session 5 introducing the game of Snakes and Ladders, where climate stressors are snakes to drag women down and resilience actions are ladders that help them up. Session 6 encourages personal reflection and introduces the concept of resilience actions and futuristic thinking.

**TECHNICAL TRAINING**

**Materials**
Take only one bead of each colour.

**Directions**
1. Thread the different coloured beads on the string in any order.
2. Place the string around your wrist and tie it.
3. By rotating the beads around your wrist, you have created a water cycle.

The technical trainings conducted by sector experts offered more in-depth and comprehensive information on a given topic such as water management, vector-borne disease, heat stress, managing one's own health etc. Instead of giving all CAG members undifferentiated technical training, the intention is to encourage each CAG member to become specialized in at least one climate change-related stressor among the four. There was a specific focus on developing participatory tools – games and exercises for technical trainings.

- **Yellow = Solar Energy** > Energy provided by the sun for the never-ending water cycle.
- **Clear = Evaporation** > Vapour created when the sun heats water in lakes, streams, rivers or oceans.
- **Green = Transpiration** > Vapour created when plants and trees give off moisture.
- **White = Condensation** > Tiny droplets of water formed when vapour rises into the air and cools.
- **Blue = Precipitation** > Moisture released when the clouds become heavy and form rain, snow, hail etc.
- **Brown = Percolation** > Movement of water through the ground.
Innovative communication strategies tools like Snake and Ladder game, animated videos, posters, and wall paintings and folk media were deployed to reach out to communities through multiple channels. The print media material included dissemination of 500 copies each of a set of four posters on different stresses, which was widely used in all CBO meetings reaching out to a wide audience. Folk media shows were organized in 38 slums reaching out to more than 7,500 people within a span of one month.

Around 229 rounds of the Snakes and Ladders game were organized in which more than 3,500 people participated. Short audio-visual materials on community vulnerabilities, interventions and community feedback have also been produced for community awareness building. Among these, the animation film on “Ramaben’s Story” became quite popular with the communities.

**Climate Change Will Impact Women More**

- Decreased food security
- Impact on livelihoods
- Water resource shortage and access
- Increased burden of caregiving
- Reduced access to fodder and fuelwood
- Suffer more from disasters

Photo credits (left to right, top to bottom): Farmers in Beora, a small farming community in Rupandehi District, CIIAT/Neil Palmer/Flickr; a woman shopkeeper checks on her live food at Jagalchi Seafood Market in Busan, South Korea, Cheng Wei/Shutterstock; women drawing drinking water extracted from well in Lalitpur, Nepal, Aleksandr Todorovic/Shutterstock; medical assistance to Myanmar refugees at the Mae Tao clinic, Thailand, Savicampillo/Shutterstock; women workers are returning after collecting firewood in Sylhet, Bangladesh, H.M. Shairul Islam/Shutterstock; and woman wading through flood waters in Vietnam, UN Women Vietnam/Pham Ke Toai/Flickr.

**INTEGRATED VOICE RESPONSE (IVR) SERVICE AND COMMUNITY RADIO**

An Interactive Voice Response Service (IVRS) provided personalized access to climate-change related information and a venue for their personal feedback on household-level interventions. Communication channels like community radio that report local situation, expert opinion, government responses and citizens’ voices help widen reach beyond our targeted communities. 45 radio episodes have been broadcasted on the broad theme of “Enabling Inclusive and Resilient Cities” via a community radio station. Four adolescent girls who were CAG leaders have also begun working as city level radio reporters for the Community Radio Station.
The CBVAT is a participatory learning tool using a set of six exercises. It was designed to develop a community’s understanding about climate risks and adaptation strategies. The assessment spans over six to eight weeks. A series of charts and tables are provided to CAG members, guiding them to identify the stressor against which the community is most vulnerable and the occupation groups/gender that are most vulnerable, and to assess the root cause of the vulnerability and their adaptive capacity. These include:

A. **Histogram**: To map the climate and urbanization challenges faced in the last 10 years.

B. **Moser**: To understand the gender implication of climate stress and shocks.

C. **Matrix Ranking**: To apply a somewhat objective analysis to identify the most impacting stressor and the most vulnerable occupational groups.

D. **Risk Quadrant**: To understand the stressors and shocks in relation to the level of impact and frequency of occurrence.

E. **Root Influence Diagram**: To dissect the key risks emerging in the last session and identify causes which are mainly responsible for the risk as well as for aggravating the situation.

F. **Adaptive Capacity Scoring**: To assess the availability of infrastructure, knowledge and social capital within the community which would contribute to building their resilience.

The CBVAT provided a framework for dialogue within communities regarding identification of practical strategies to facilitate community-based adaptation to climate change.

Once the CBVAT assessment is completed, the results are converted into a PowerPoint presentation and shared with the CAG members during the Resilience Planning process.
When the CAGs come together to develop their Community-Based Resilience Action Plan, they revisit the vulnerability assessment results once again, improve or accept the same and develop an annual action plan for addressing the identified key stressors, listing the time required for action, the daily/weekly/monthly goals, the funding they need, and organizations who can support the communities in implementing these action plans.

**Solutions Quiz**

### Air-lite Ventilation

- Water Stress
- Heat Stress
- Flooding
- Water Quality
- Vector-borne Disease

### Cool Auto

- Water Stress
- Heat Stress
- Flooding
- Water Quality
- Vector-borne Disease

### Modular Roof

- Water Stress
- Heat Stress
- Flooding
- Water Quality
- Vector-borne Disease

**COMMUNITY-BASED SURVEILLANCE**

While the annual action plan development process is a periodic affair, the project was also conscious of the fact that resilience building is an iterative process and that the communities, especially the CAG leaders, have to be groomed into monitoring the climate-related changes and stresses to be able to take timely action. Towards this, the project developed a two-pronged surveillance system:

**A. Seasonal surveillance system:** This was initiated through drives involving young boys and girls (known as Child Doctors) from the community for collecting real-time data on larvae presence and water quality testing.

**B. Daily/weekly surveillance systems:** The project also piloted systems to collect real-time weather information and climate data in 23 slums. This included systems to measure temperature, humidity and precipitation and to look at water quantity and quality, vectors, flooding and inundation.
PROJECT OUTREACH
> Three Countries
> Seven Cities
> 107 Slum Settlements
> 135,000 People

OUTCOMES ACHIEVED

Reduction in Vulnerability to Climate Change

The project had a robust quantitative monitoring and evaluation system which showed that:
> Around 35 per cent of the treatment households showed a reduction in their vulnerability scale as compared to baseline.
> The percentage of most vulnerable households (red category) went down drastically for project participants as compared to control group.
> The movement from medium (yellow) to low (green) category was higher for participants as compared to control.
> There is decline in both CAG and non-CAG categories, indicating that the impact was not limited to the core leadership group but also spread beyond as desired.

Knowledge and Empowerment Outcomes

> Around 8 per cent of households surveyed have made major investments in their home to improve climate change resilience.
> Around 64 per cent of women surveyed have reported increase in awareness on resilience solutions.
> Around 64 per cent of the women surveyed reported awareness on the climate risks.
> The city-level women’s federation was directly invited by local government to present their cause in the city’s Heat Action Plan. This led to them being officially recognized as a stakeholder in the Heat Action Plan, incorporating slum-level strategies for the first time in the plan. By the next year, white painting of roofs for slum households was officially adopted as an action point. In another city, Roof Rain Water Harvesting Systems were included as an essential costed part of the slum redevelopment project.

This is not to say the process was without challenges.
> The project required mobilizing families in emergent cities to partner with the Trust. This process was long-drawn, involved repeated visits and was resource consuming. Even though the trainings were organized – keeping in mind women’s schedules, their loss of livelihood, religious/cultural festivals and other engagements – in some communities, getting women out was very challenging. There was scepticism among women and men alike about the whereabouts/nature of these trainings.
To generate awareness and interest around the issue of climate change among poor women was a key challenge. Area meetings did not get a lot of attention and interest. The use of creative communication tools on climate change and its impacts initially generated interest among the communities. However, at one point, it was felt that the programme was getting too focused on training.

To sustain the interest of communities in the program, there was a need to demonstrate action and tangible change on ground. The community-based surveillance system had to be modified into a campaign while it was still in its design phase. Therefore, the vector surveillance system was expanded to include at least half of the households in the slums, which was beyond the initial plan of a smaller sample of households. This encouraged the involvement of adolescents in the programme.

Several team members and women-leaders were trained to facilitate the vulnerability assessment processes. However, the process was technical and slightly complex and involved a longer learning curve. According to one facilitator, "It was difficult for me to remember all the terms and the different tools. I used to get them confused and mixed-up. It took us a long time to facilitate the CBVAT in the first five to six slums. We thought it was a lot of paperwork which we were not used to. The communities also showed little interest."

The CBVAT process elicited different responses from different communities. In some communities, it was very successful. Women consistently participated in all the exercises that were spread across a few weeks. They were able to understand and articulate their vulnerabilities. In emerging communities, it proved a little more challenging to sustain interest in the initial phases of the process.

Technology demonstrations require a buy-in of the community even in the initial phase of the product testing. The cool auto demonstration generated a lot of interest and the product was tried with the auto-drivers for free. While the auto-drivers were interested in the product since it was for free, they did not really invest in the maintenance. As a staff member shares, "In Cool auto earlier, there was no contribution and so the initial beneficiaries passed on wrong messages. The people started to believe that the Rexene would be spoiled and it was cited as a reason especially when asked for contribution; none agreed."

However, we learnt from this and for solar roof paint we insisted on contribution. Women are so empowered that they kept checking the quantity of roof paint used and the contribution they made, staff made them understand how it actually works and then she was fine with it."

It is important to have a long-term approach that incorporates strategies for knowledge generation, triggering behaviour change and promoting community-led action. However, the project experience suggests that to mobilize communities around climate change and sustain their interest in long-term resilient planning, it is often essential to serve their immediate interest. As a woman-leader shares, "Initially when I started conducting area meetings around climate change, in all meetings women would enquire about when the drainage line would be completed? One year into the program the work for drainage line started. Once the change was visible, they took more interest in participatory planning processes. These processes offered them a space to come together and decide collective action that the community wants to take next."

Real-time collection and monitoring of climate data further triggered a behaviour change in communities towards making more informed decisions, and empowered them with knowledge to demand improved government services. As was reported by one partner, "We had done several trainings earlier on use of water filters, but no one was willing to adopt it. When we conducted water testing, community women realized the quality of water they are drinking was quite bad. We explained how drinking such water results in health problems like kidney stones, stomach illnesses etc. After these drives, people came forward on their own to buy water filters."

Key Questions:

a. Are you satisfied with the results of the project? Does the time and resources invested justify the outreach and outcomes?

b. What more would you have liked to see as a part of project outcomes?

c. Is the project outreach and scale sufficient to justify the adoption of a combination of approaches? Or would it be better to go with any one strategy (refer to Part A)?

d. How do you see the project actually contributing to what the Trust had identified as its strategy? Is it on track to achieve the desired strategy?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY POINTS IN SECTORAL CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION AND GENDER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART A: AGRICULTURE AND FOOD SECURITY</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected changes in climate – temperature and precipitation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average yields of rice will go down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floods, storms, cyclones and droughts will increase the instability in agriculture and food production.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agriculture land may be submerged due to 1-meter sea level rise.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rice-growing areas will shift upwards.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Droughts will result in crop losses.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rice and wheat are the key staple crops across the world.</td>
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<td>Women still lack land rights.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rural women, especially the poor, rely heavily on subsistence agriculture.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Floods, storms and cyclones will result in livestock loss.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Women farmers are often not recognized by authorities as farmers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Women also lack access to finance and modern business practices.</td>
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<td>Women have limited access to weather information and early warning systems.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indo-Gangetic Plains will see significant reduction in wheat yields.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Water stress will reduce crop (rice) yields for female-headed households.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Climate change will also increase water stress.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Changes in land use patterns will be observed.</td>
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<td>Small livestock rearing will be more impacted during floods and storms.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Women have the primary responsibility of cooking and food security for family.</td>
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<td>A 20-30 per cent increase in food yields could feed an additional 100-150 million people.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Women have a profound knowledge of the flora and fauna in their environment, and respective conservation methods.</td>
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# Key Points in Sectoral Climate Change Adaptation and Gender

## Part A: Agriculture and Food Security

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Women also play an important role as agents of agro-biodiversity conservation and household food security through gardens or small household plots</th>
<th>Addressing the differences between women and men in access to financial and productive resources, decision-making, markets and services, land and water, and knowledge and technology can be a major adaptation strategy to boost production.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women invest 90-95 per cent of the money they receive related to biodiversity on improving the family’s quality of life.</td>
<td>Bio-diversity losses mainly affect poor and indigenous communities, especially women.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male outmigration result in growing feminization of agriculture.</td>
<td>Women have traditional strategies for ensuring food supplies in the event of disasters like floods and droughts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women are responsible for food and seed storage.</td>
<td>Small livestock are easy cash resources in emergencies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCA projects promote drought, salinity and or flood-tolerant new species to cope with ecosystem changes.</td>
<td>If the new crops or varieties are profitable and dominated by men, they may result in displacing women from the plots where they previously cultivated subsistence food crops.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-yielding and tolerant crop (new) species often require elevated levels of care.</td>
<td>Women’s work burden could increase with the promotion of new high-yielding or tolerant species.</td>
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<tr>
<td>To increase resilience, time- and labour-saving technologies that are useful to women need to be focused on.</td>
<td>New varieties may often require the use of pesticides and herbicides without considering gender specifics, especially affecting pregnant women.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Men are more likely to own larger animals, such as cows, as well as improved varieties of livestock.</td>
<td>Cattle are particularly vulnerable to the effects of climate change.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Women also have a major role in cattle care.</td>
<td>Small livestock like goats and chicken can be kept at home and are often less expensive and need less care than larger livestock like cattle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCA projects promote water-related infrastructure (dikes, water transfer, or irrigation canals) for diverting fresh water to areas where there is a water shortage.</td>
<td>Water-related infrastructure projects often ignore women’s requirements of fresh water needed for their productive and reproductive activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women have a major role in arranging drinking and domestic water.</td>
<td>Women often have greater interest in horticulture or fuelwood-providing trees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>KEY POINTS IN SECTORAL CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION AND GENDER</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART B: PUBLIC HEALTH AND EPIDEMICS</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Climate change is increasing the risk of health impacts.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is evidence that mortality rates for women and girls increase during storms and flood events.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Climate change will increase extreme events, like storms and floods.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women are also at a significantly greater risk of mortality during heat waves.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Climate change will also lead to heat waves.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water- and vector-borne diseases disproportionately affect the poor more.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Climate change is increasing the spread of water- and vector-borne diseases such as cholera, dengue fever, malaria, and schistosomiasis around the world.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural practices related to purdah, restrictions on mobility, unsuitable dressing, lack of swimming skills, limited access to early warning systems, among others contributed to women's late evacuation resulting in higher mortality rates.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Men may be more susceptible to dengue than women.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women especially pregnant women are more susceptible to malaria.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cholera may roughly affect men and women equally in many settings.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is limited research available to capture the gendered dimensions of health and CDDRR.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contaminated flood waters will increase bacterial and viral infections.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacterial and viral infections related to exposure to contaminated flood waters seem to affect women more.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Females may be disproportionately exposed to skin problems related to floodwater exposure.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saline contamination expected to increase with climate change and sea-level rise was indicated as affecting pregnant women with preeclampsia, eclampsia and hypertension.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>There are increasing trends of gynaecological problems due to unhygienic water use and water logging.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate change also impacts mental health, with additional stress especially after disaster often leading to depression and, in extreme cases, suicide.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CCA projects on health promote research on health impacts of climate change.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women are often tasked with ‘education’ on how to prevent such diseases in the household area.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Women are generally more susceptible to developing stress-related disorders especially post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and depression.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men are disproportionately more likely to commit suicide.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Climate change-related disasters are also associated with increases in gender-based violence.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGBTQ persons, (dis)abled and adolescent girls are particularly at risk of sexual harassment and violence in shelters.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organized trafficking of women and girls, in fact, is emerging as a potentially serious risk associated with climate-related disasters.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women in coastal areas also face differential impacts related with consumption of saline water, especially hypertension during pregnancy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Climate-induced disasters will also lead to significant damage to infrastructure and assets.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic services such as water supply systems can be damaged during disasters.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Climate change also threatens the ability of women to access family planning services. Climate-linked natural disasters are likely to hamper access to reproductive healthcare.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women are more affected due to water scarcity which forces them to walk long distances, carrying heavy loads over long periods of time. This causes cumulative damage to the spine, the neck muscles and the lower back, leading to early ageing of the vertebral column.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Climate change is also likely to impact pregnancy outcomes and care.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The increase in the disease burden due to climate change will also affect the caregiving role of women and girls as they have to take care of the sick in their homes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### PART B: PUBLIC HEALTH AND EPIDEMICS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>This increases their workload and women often end up in neglect of their own health and well-being.</strong></th>
<th>Climate change is also expected to increase water scarcity, forcing many families to use unsafe sources, including streams and ponds that are likely to be contaminated.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recurring drought will further aggravate the problem of water.</strong></td>
<td>Damage to sanitation facilities and scarcity of water, especially toilets and bathrooms not having running water, also restrict menstrual hygiene practices among women and girls.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The impacts of disasters may exacerbate the effects of pre-existing barriers that women have to seeking reproductive health services.</strong></td>
<td>Climate change also threatens crop production in terms of the decline in quality and quantity of food crops, resulting in food insecurity and undernutrition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Women and girls are often the last to eat and first to forego food and nutrition in times of scarcity</strong></td>
<td>Studies show that after typhoons, infant mortality increased among girls but not among boys, which researchers attribute to competition for scarce resources within families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impact of climate change on undernutrition would result in increased disability-adjusted life year (DALY) lost in developing countries.</strong></td>
<td>Women are more susceptible to nutritional deficiencies compared to men because of their distinct nutritional requirements, particularly when pregnant or breastfeeding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Girls also face an even more serious risk with the onslaught of climate-induced disasters, like an increase in child marriage.</strong></td>
<td>Men’s vulnerability to mortality during disaster is because of gender norms that promote risk-taking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Women often lack, or have less access to, health services.</strong></td>
<td>Women constitute the majority of those who take care of the sick (both as household caregivers and as frontline health workers).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CCA projects on health promote enhanced early warning and disease surveillance systems.</strong></td>
<td>CCA projects promote appropriate technology and behaviour change norms for prevention of diseases.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Key Points in Sectoral Climate Change Adaptation and Gender

## Part C: Coastal Zones

| Coastal zones contain unique ecosystems with significant economic assets and activities | Coastal zones typically have higher population densities than inland areas. |
| Rising temperatures could also lead to changes in fish migration patterns and localized extinction of fish species | Livelihoods of fisher communities will be highly affected with changes in fish availability. |
| Storms (including tropical storms such as hurricanes and cyclones, as well as thunderstorms) and floods pose a significant life risk for coastal communities. | Asia already has more than 90% of the global population exposed to tropical cyclones. |
| Coastal and marine systems are under increasing stress from climate change. | Changes in marine ecosystems and frequent disasters will also affect tourism. |
| Tourism is a major source of supplementary incomes for most coastal families. | Climate change will damage the coastal ecosystems. |
| Damage to coastal ecosystems will cause loss of livelihoods to millions of people, especially the poor and women. | Coastal freshwater wetlands will also be vulnerable to saltwater intrusion with rising sea levels. |
| Water resources, by varying degrees of salinity, will be contaminated due to salt water intrusion. | At least 1 in 10 people worldwide live near the coast in a low-lying area, most of them in the United States of America and Asian countries like China, India, Bangladesh, Vietnam and Indonesia. |
| Marine ecosystems will suffer through increased ocean acidity and water temperature. | This will lead to significant decline in bio-diversity especially local loss of pollinators. |
| Loss of pollinators will risk food availability for coastal communities. | Saltwater intrusion will affect agriculture production, especially rice yields. |
| Sea level rise, in combination with cyclone intensification, could increase coastal flooding. | Coastal zones also provide natural barriers from disasters, like storms and cyclones. |
| Degradation of coastal ecosystems, especially coral reef and mangroves, will significantly exacerbate wave damage. | Rising winter temperatures are also expected to result in poleward expansion of mangrove ecosystems. |
| Storms and similar climate change-induced disasters will also displace millions of coastal populations. | Sea-level rise is expected to exceed. |
| Sea-level rise will increase coastal flooding, erosion, and saltwater intrusion into surface and groundwaters. | With sea-level rise, beaches may erode and mangroves, salt marshes, and seagrass beds will decline. |
| Climate-induced disasters will also lead to significant damage to infrastructure and assets. | Basic services such as water supply systems can be damaged during disasters. |
| Schools can also be damaged and closed during major disaster events like typhoons. | Women are more likely to die in disaster than men. |
| Socio-cultural practices like purdah, restrictions in mobility of women, limited access to information and early warning systems, traditional attire and lack of swimming skills hamper women’s quick evacuation during disasters. | In the Pacific region alone, it is estimated that women catch about a quarter of the total seafood harvested. In Cambodia, Laos, Thailand, Vietnam and the Philippines, there are communities where women have a greater role in aquaculture production and harvesting of littoral organisms than that of men. |
| Climate change-related disasters are also associated with increases in gender-based violence | LGBTIQ persons, (dis)abled and adolescent girls are particularly at risk of sexual harassment and violence in shelters. |
### Key Points in Sectoral Climate Change Adaptation and Gender

#### Part C: Coastal Zones

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organized trafficking of women and girls, in fact, is emerging as a potentially serious risk associated with climate-related disasters.</th>
<th>Female-headed households were more likely to be vulnerable to flooding and other storm-related impacts.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women are involved in the fisheries sector, particularly in processing fish, preparing for market, and small-scale harvesting – activities that are close to the shore.</td>
<td>The loss of near-shore resources’ sustenance also impacts women more, especially as household food security and nutrition is threatened.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men leave communities to find paid income for recovery after a disaster.</td>
<td>The aftermath of a disaster also places acute pressure on women with their everyday workloads.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indigenous people and women are often predominantly employed in low-paying work in the tourism sector.</td>
<td>Females may disproportionately exposed to skin problems related to floodwater exposure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females, both women and girls, have a greater odds of developing post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) than males.</td>
<td>Women in coastal areas also face differential impacts related with consumption of saline water, especially hypertension during pregnancy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate change also threatens the ability of women to access family planning services. Climate-linked natural disasters are likely to hamper access to reproductive healthcare.</td>
<td>The impacts of disasters may exacerbate the effects of pre-existing barriers that women have to seeking reproductive health services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCA projects on the protection of the coastline include construction of physical barriers (e.g., seawalls, breakwaters, gabion, groins and sluices).</td>
<td>Without a gender lens, construction projects can end up creating job sources that favour hiring a male work force with no opportunities for women to work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women often experience increased vulnerability due to the fact that disaster planning policymaking does not routinely take into account the needs and concerns of women.</td>
<td>Women are often not involved in designing the spaces around them, because construction is often seen as men’s work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information regarding hazards may not be provided in a way that is easily accessible for women.</td>
<td>Women and men have different preferences regarding how to hear warnings, as women often have less access than men to radios, televisions, and mobile phones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women are also more impacted by inaccessibility of shelters due to distance.</td>
<td>Evacuation decisions in many societies for entire families are typically made by men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women also face additional barriers if shelters are often not designed to provide them sufficient space or privacy.</td>
<td>CCA projects also promote protection of existing ecosystems and reforestation of areas adjacent to coastlines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restoring damaged ecosystems may worsen gender inequality by encouraging the voluntary (unpaid) work done by many women in rehabilitation and conservation activities.</td>
<td>Introduction of native and salt-tolerant plants and animals to protect/re-vegetate the coast, without consulting women and taking into account their knowledge, can have a negative effect on women’s interests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Due to their focus on activities that are often on the sideline of harvesting, women’s tasks in relation to fisheries have not been prioritized in economic analyses or resource investment.</td>
<td>Extreme events like typhoons often end up damaging health service infrastructures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most of the fishing projects are oriented toward men, and the participation of women is limited with respect to planning, programming and management.</td>
<td>Jobs in the tourism sector reproduce the traditional forms around the sexual division of work (i.e., hiring women as chambermaids and cooks).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### EXAMPLES OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOLUTIONS

#### EXAMPLE 1: WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT THROUGH AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAIN ENHANCEMENT (WEAVE)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VIETNAM</td>
<td>Oxfam, Care International, SNV</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Description**

WEAVE supports ethnic minority women’s economic empowerment in pork, cinnamon and banana value chains. Across each value chain, women producers’ potential is restricted by lack of access to secure markets, technical skills and finances along with a division of roles and responsibilities between women and men that exclude women from decision-making and lead to high domestic and income-generating workloads. In the period 2013-2015, the project supported over 1,720 remote ethnic minority women to learn about their rights and access finance for income generation activities through establishing 41 women’s Village Saving and Loan Associations (VSLAs) and strengthening 30 existing women’s groups. The project worked with 426 remote ethnic minority women, training them on climate change and helping them to identify and implement new climate-resilient livelihood options.

**Gender Strategy/Impact**

Besides having women as its core development partner, the project aimed to promote equality between women and men within households and producer groups, strengthening women and men producers’ skills and bargaining power, and working with business and government decision-makers to improve the policy environment to support producers. Through activities and discussions targeting both women and men, the project supported equality between women and men so that women can enjoy increased benefits from their work in the banana, cinnamon and pork value chains.

The project also completed a participatory gender analysis to identify women and men’s roles, responsibilities and harmful gender norms, and worked with communities to develop Action Plans to address any harmful norms. It also engaged over 400 project participants and partners in dialogue about gender-based violence, with women’s group facilitators showing an increased commitment to addressing the issue. This included working with male authorities to create spaces for women’s voice in decision-making forums, and establishing a ‘Men’s engagement for gender equality’ network to promote women’s rights.

**Source:** Pham and Pham (2018).

#### EXAMPLE 2: VEGETABLE GARDENS BRING VERITABLE GAINS FOR WOMEN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CAMBODIA</td>
<td>UNEP, UN Women</td>
<td>Agriculture, Energy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Description**

UN Women and UN Environment have jointly initiated the EmPower project, for strengthening gender-responsive climate and disaster risk reduction (DRR) policies. Between 2018 and 2022, the programme will focus on Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam, along with many governmental, nongovernmental and civil society organization partners, towards achieving this.

In Cambodia’s Pursat province, the project builds on a scoping study by EmPower and Nexus for Development which highlighted how the area was facing the dual burden of excess and little water. On one hand, there were floods which wash away the harvest. On the other hand, during some months, fields run dry, paddy fields wither and villagers walk up to 20 kilometres to collect water. With an aim to promote climate-resilient livelihoods, the project encourages and supports women to use renewables – powered water pumps, biodigesters, and harvest refrigerators and dryers – that can greatly benefit women farmers in the long run.

Through support from the project, women have also started diversification into home-grown vegetable gardens. From Chinese cauliflower to lettuce and gourds, multi-cropping in these gardens is not only helping keep the land fertile but is also a steady source of income, bringing nearly US$500 per growing cycle. Water for the gardens comes from local/family wells, with the help of an electric pump and/or diesel generator, which are enabled through promotion of renewable energy in the areas where gaining access to the grid is still a challenge.

**Gender Strategy/Impact**

The most crucial part of this project is to encourage women and marginalized groups to participate in the decision-making process; generate, analyze and use sex, age, and disability disaggregated data (SADDD) to inform policy; improve gender-responsiveness in climate and disaster risk reduction policies; enable women to use renewable energy as economic resources for resilient livelihoods; and improve regional mechanism, processes and knowledge on climate change and disaster risk reduction to include gender and human rights.

**Source:** UN Women and UNEP (2019).
### EXAMPLES OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOLUTIONS

#### EXAMPLE 3: PROMOTING CLIMATE RESILIENCE FOR WOMEN THROUGH BIODYNAMIC FARMING AND WATER-RETAINING VEGETABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NEPAL</td>
<td>Aabash Memorial Foundation</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### DESCRIPTION

This Aabash Memorial Foundation (AMF) project empowers marginalized women facing climate change and water scarcity in the Khokana community in Nepal through practical assessments and trainings on environmental resilience. Actions are put in place through knowledge dissemination on climate impacts, along with practical assessments.

The project focuses on food security and water availability, and women are empowered to be self-reliant in terms of decision-making concerning water-retaining vegetables for improved cropping, knowledge of biodynamic farming systems, climate change impacts, and sustainable measures that would help to build adaptive capacity during water scarcity on their farm lands.

Activities include awareness programs in schools/colleges/women's groups, group technique discussions, and solar demonstration. Key indicators of affordability and sustainability include increased food supply with water-retaining crops; reduced working hours and time spent to fetch water; less conflicts; and revenue from vermicomposting fertilisers.

Source: WECF (2017)

#### GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT

The most crucial part of this project is to empower women and girls living in a community with low literacy rate. The project also aims to empower them by teaching about climate change impacts, sustainable solutions, solar demonstration training, rainwater harvesting system, and others. Besides that, women and girls also learn vermiculture with solid waste and they would sell the compost to generate revenue.

### EXAMPLE 4: COMMUNITY LIVESTOCK DEVELOPMENT PROJECT (CLDP)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NEPAL</td>
<td>Asian Development Bank</td>
<td>Livestock</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### DESCRIPTION

The goal of the Nepal Community Livestock Development Project (CLDP) is to reduce poverty in rural communities through gender and socially-inclusive development. It aims to improve food security, nutrition, income and employment for 164,000 families through increased productivity from livestock production and small-scale livestock-related enterprises in 48 out of 75 districts in all five regions of Nepal. The key components of the project include:

> Formation of 3,450 mixed farmers’ groups (at least 35 per cent are women) with 20 households per group to select an enterprise from a menu of 15 livestock enterprises.

> Identification of 15 livestock improvement models as suitable investments, including forage development, calf rearing, goats, pigs, and poultry, to enable the participation of the poor, including women, disadvantaged groups and landless farmers.

> Small-scale processing and marketing of livestock and livestock products to create employment and to improve the quality of livestock products. Enterprises range from live animal markets to milk chilling centers, milk processing facilities, slaughter slabs, meat shops and para-veterinary practices.

> Strengthening outreach to communities in high altitudes through surveys and participatory rural appraisals conducted to identify the overall development needs and particular needs to improve livestock rearing in pilot areas.

#### GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT

Given the predominance of women in the livestock sector, the CLDP’s intended impact, outcome, and outputs included gender-based objectives and performance indicators, and the project was classified with a gender equity theme. To facilitate gender mainstreaming throughout project implementation for the achievement of gender-inclusive project outcomes, the project mandated all surveys and participatory rural appraisals to collect information on livelihoods, livestock production and processing activities at high altitudes, addressing gender issues through consultations with both men and women.

The socioeconomic assessment during project preparation underscored that while only a small proportion of poor women and men had access to training in improved livestock care, women were particularly difficult to reach and hard to organize into groups as they faced higher opportunity costs resulting from delayed investment payoffs.
EXAMPLES OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOLUTIONS

EXAMPLE 4: COMMUNITY LIVESTOCK DEVELOPMENT PROJECT (CLDP)

A component-wise Gender Action Plan (GAP) was developed during the design phase: which focused on ensuring that 35 per cent of the farmers in all activities were women, 50 per cent of the participants of training and loan recipients were women, and that women were provided the necessary support to participate in farmers’ groups and umbrella-ward level farmer coordination committees, community associations and cooperatives. The project also focused on promoting one model woman entrepreneur per project district to increase women’s participation in enterprise development.

Source: ADB (2010).

EXAMPLE 5: ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT OF RURAL WOMEN WITH SOLAR ENERGY AND MICRO-ENTREPRENEURSHIP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDIA</td>
<td>AIWC–Priyadarshini Mahila Samajam</td>
<td>Agriculture, Energy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

This green energy project aims to demonstrate the economic sustainability and gender impact of selling solar-dried fruits, vegetables, and condiments. The micro-enterprise, created and managed by five women, uses two solar dryers (capacity of 50 kilograms each) to process and transform local seasonal fruits and vegetables into packaged food products with strong value added. They work with 43 women suppliers who receive important additional revenues and reduce product wasting. The organization trains women's groups in solar drying processes and marketing skills.

Source: WECF (2016).

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

Women are empowered through local production and sale of high value-added food products. Revenue increase for women employees and suppliers (from US$10 to US$30 per month, depending on the season and product). Reduced labour burden (two hours per day), creating time for other income-generating activities. Participation in purchasing and processing decisions, marketing, and profits sharing. The micro-enterprise participates in fairs and festivals to share knowledge and offer training support.

EXAMPLE 6: ORGANIK FARM: EMPOWERING WOMEN FOR A SUSTAINABLE, CLIMATE-RESILIENT FOOD PRODUCTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VIETNAM</td>
<td>APFSVA – Association Pour la Promotion des Femmes Scientifiques Vietnamiennes</td>
<td>Food Security</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

Organik Farm (created in Dalat, Vietnam in 2007) is a perfect example of women’s empowerment through sustainable, climate-resilient farming and food distribution. Organik processes “bio” certified vegetables and fruits from mountainous lands. Vegetables are grown according to GAP (Good Agricultural Practices) and organic standards. The produce is distributed through their Ho Chi Minh City shop, online shop, diverse retail channels and export to Cambodia and Thailand. The Farm employs women at all levels: farming, sales, accounting, purchasing and management. It offers a specific pricing policy for schools and hospitals, ensuring organic diet for children and the sick.

The Farm strengthens the ecosystems, ensuring presence of beneficial insects, greater below-ground diversity, nutrient cycling, disease suppression, nitrogen fixation. Its performance is good in energy consumption, soil conservation, water-use efficiency, water purity and increasing soil health (crop rotations, green manures, composting), proving that a farm can manage resources sustainably and while being climate-friendly.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

Vietnamese girls and women continue to suffer gender-based violence and gender inequalities. Organik Farm has 55 employees, of which 44 are women: 8 of 17 farmers, 20 of 21 processing staff, 12 of 14 managers, and 2 of 3 shop assistants. Employees climb the work ladder very fast. Organik trains women on organic GAP; hygiene food safety; free range; non-GMO; crop rotation; seedlings; natural pest control; animal husbandry. They also build capacity on decision-making for sales, purchases and coordination of market schedules.

### EXAMPLES OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOLUTIONS

**EXAMPLE 7: REGIONAL FISHERIES LIVELIHOODS PROGRAMME FOR SOUTH AND SOUTH-EAST ASIA (RFLP)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGION</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SOUTH AND SOUTH-EAST ASIA</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)</td>
<td>Fisheries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### DESCRIPTION

The RFLP was a four-year project (2009-2013), for strengthening capacity among participating small-scale fishing communities and their supporting institutions in Cambodia, Indonesia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Timor-Leste and Vietnam. It seeks to improve the livelihoods of fishers and their families while fostering more sustainable fisheries resources management practices. The project has six key areas of focus:

- Co-management mechanisms for sustainable utilization of fishery resources
- Improved safety at sea and reduced vulnerabilities for small-scale fisher communities
- Improved quality of fishery products and market chains
- Strengthened or diversified income opportunities for fisher families
- Better access to microfinance services
- Increased sharing of knowledge

#### GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT

The project especially focused on undertaking a gender analysis to understand the gender roles in fishing communities. This was used to provide gender trainings to men and women in fishing communities. The trainings were an opportunity for meso-level actors to be aware of “gender perceptions” and “gender stereotypes in the fisheries sector.” RFLP also focused efforts on increasing the participation of women in decision-making, including their participation in co-management mechanisms, taking various roles in fisheries management interventions. In the Philippines, RFLP integrated gender into Coastal Resource and Fisheries Management Plans (CRFM) of the Local Government Units (LGUs). As a result, women will be acting as fish wardens and fishery law enforcers. RFLP is also working with the communities to set a women’s managed area. In Sri Lanka, the inclusion of women representatives in co-management coordination committees was made compulsory, as well as the inclusion of minimum of two women directors in the Fish Finance Network Association. In Timor-Leste, women were involved as signatories of the first ever documented Tara Bandu, a traditional coastal resources management practice. Local authorities and communities were informed of the need to involve women in resource management, and agreed to an RFLP request to include women as signatories of the Tara Bandu document. Women now have a role in the formalization of the traditional and community-based resource management system, albeit a mainly symbolic one, a role that they did not have before the RFLP intervention. As signatories, they will now participate in all decision-making meetings. In Vietnam, the RFLP supported 16 Fisheries Associations (FAs) between the provinces of Quang Nam, Quang Tri and Thua Thien Hue. The FAs are community-based organizations for mainly male fishers – of the 1,335 members, only 36 are women. In Vietnam, it is normal that men represent their household in most registrations. The local authorities’ argument is that even if women’s names do not appear in FA, they are considered FA members. RFLP worked through this to increase women’s FA membership and encourage their active participation, through an incentive scheme that includes: i) providing assistance for livelihood model implementation to women that are FA members only; and ii) specifying that the membership fee is by household, instead of individual. This means that if both husband and wife are members, they will only need to pay one fee.

*Source: FAO (2012)*
### EXAMPLE 8: EMPOWERING WOMEN’S GROUPS IN DISASTER-PRONE AREAS THROUGH COMMUNITY-BASED SUSTAINABLE WATER MANAGEMENT

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<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDONESIA</td>
<td>YAKKUM Emergency Unit (YEU)</td>
<td>Water</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

The Gemawang, Kaloran and Temmangung districts in Central Java are threatened by water scarcity and landslides due to deforestation. This project empowers women’s groups to identify and implement adaptation strategies within their communities. The women conduct field assessment and feasibility studies with village authorities and water experts and select appropriate water management technologies to adapt to a changing environment. They use water-saving solutions, water infiltration techniques and ecological sanitation, improving livelihoods in their communities.

Massive deforestation in the Central Java area significantly reduced groundwater supply and led to a severe drought. The changing function of the forest caused serious damage to the land and increased the risk of landslide. The women’s groups and people in the sub-villages have worked together to develop sustainable water management systems, preserve important old trees and replant young trees around the water sources to prevent landslides, maintaining water supply through infiltration and preserving a balanced ecosystem. These measures are effective climate adaptation strategies.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

The project was initiated by women. The women’s groups are actively involved in decisions on water management technology and they do advocacy both at local and regional level. Ten members of the women’s group Munca’ Lor’s were involved in the regional authority’s field assessment on water. Gender equality is also strengthened by income-generating activities through the sale of water technology. This new income can be used to maintain facilities, set up social funds and ensure self-development.

*Source: WECF (2016).*

### EXAMPLE 9: ETHNIC MINORITY WOMEN’S EMPOWERMENT

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<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VIETNAM</td>
<td>CARE International in Vietnam</td>
<td>Livelihood</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

This project aims to empower remote ethnic minority women to actively participate in local socio-economic development planning and decision-making. To achieve this objective, the project focuses on four components: i) women’s voice in local development plan; ii) climate-resilient livelihood; iii) strengthening women’s groups; and iv) fighting gender-based violence. The project targets 4,500 women and 5,000 men of Thai, Tay, Dzao and Hmong people in remote northern mountain area. Nearly 90 per cent of women were aware of climate change and its implication on their community, and 43 per cent of target women increased their income.

The project worked with indigenous communities to conduct climate vulnerability and capacity assessments, as well as research on climate-resilient livelihood models. For the first time in their life, local people reflected on climate change and its impact. A system of Sustainable Rice Intensification (SRI) was applied. People saved 40 per cent of their seedlings, reduced fertilizers use by up to 40 per cent and saved 30 per cent water. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from SRI practice can fall by 70 per cent. This model helps farmers adapt better to drought and disaster by reducing water usage and shortening the cultivation period.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

The project established a social protection net for local women via a saving and loan association. This is a platform for women to talk, share, start saving and gain easy access to loans. It improves women’s confidence and solidarity. The SRI technical trainings were introduced for men and women. For the first time, the women could build their capacity on technical knowledge and agriculture, which is usually male-dominated. As a result, women improved their income by US$70 per acre of rice.

*Source: WECF (2016).*
## EXAMPLES OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOLUTIONS

### EXAMPLE 10: WOMEN AS DRIVERS OF CHANGE FOR SUSTAINABLE FOOD CONSUMPTION AND PRODUCTION

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<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TAIWAN</td>
<td>Homemakers United Foundation</td>
<td>Food Security</td>
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</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

Started in 2012, this project aims to empower women and local communities to address food security problems under climate change. This is achieved in four ways: i) mobilizing women to adopt a low-carbon food consumption lifestyle through workshops; ii) supporting women to launch climate change campaigns in their communities; iii) providing a free online map to promote local food sourcing from “green spots”; and iv) drawing the government’s attention on food education in communities and schools.

In the past decade, the number and intensity of typhoons have escalated, threatening Taiwan’s food supply. Homemakers United Foundation convinced 580 small farmers to use non-GMO (genetically-modified organism) seeds and sustainable farming practices. Between 2012 and 2016, 100 food education programs were held in Taipei, Taichung and Kaohsiung, participated in by more than 4,000 mothers and members of the local communities. In 2015, a “Green Food Community Online Map” was launched, mobilizing youth on an “anti-climate change” action on a daily basis.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

In Taiwan, women are aware of climate change and are drivers of change. Homemakers United Foundation enables more than 700 women to launch and lead various food education programs in primary schools, universities and their communities. Women are empowered to trigger behavioural change towards sustainable food consumption and production (reducing food waste, eating locally and seasonally, sourcing locally to urban farming and others).

Source: WECF (2016).

### EXAMPLE 11: AGRO-CLIMATE INFORMATION SERVICES FOR WOMEN AND ETHNIC MINORITY FARMERS IN SOUTH-EAST ASIA (ACIS) PROJECT

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<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VIETNAM</td>
<td>Care International Vietnam</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
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</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

The ACIS project is co-implemented by CARE International in Vietnam and World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF), with funding from the Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security run by the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR). CARE applied a Participatory Scenario Planning approach to engage stakeholders from different backgrounds, including meteorology and agriculture, to participate in discussions with commune staff, village heads and representatives of Village Saving and Loan Associations (VSLA), which are self-managed, sustainable groups of women aimed at creating opportunities through financial cooperation. These discussions are to generate and share downscaled (detailed and local, rather than regional) seasonal forecasts sourced from both scientific and local knowledge.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

These forecasts are translated into agricultural advisories and actionable information, taking into consideration the local farming context, language and culture. The translated information is shared with women members in the VSLA group in their monthly meetings. Female members have the chance to provide feedback on how they apply the advisories and it is also the forum for them to raise their general needs, concerns and issues to commune officials and government agricultural authorities. For example, before the annual Socio-Economic Development Plan process, the VSLAs engaged in discussions about their issues and raised them with village heads and the commune People’s Council in consultation meetings. Women are also able to seek advice from Agricultural Extension Workers regarding farming practices such as seasonal calendar application, crop structure development and pesticide, and herbicide and fertilizer management. Men and boys are engaged in the discussions with women about sharing of workload, in productive and reproductive activities, and decision-making regarding agricultural inputs at the household level and other decisions at the community level.

### EXAMPLES OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOLUTIONS

#### EXAMPLE 12: STRENGTHENING CLIMATE INFORMATION AND EARLY WARNING SYSTEMS

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<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CAMBODIA</td>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction, Agriculture</td>
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</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

Supported with funding from the Global Environment Facility – Least Developed Countries Fund, this project (2015-2020) is supporting the Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC) to bridge existing gaps in institutional capacity, inter-ministerial coordination and infrastructure. It focuses on enhancing the inclusion of climate change considerations in short- and long-term planning, sectoral planning and other decision-making processes. Data generated through installed hardware, along with risk mapping and forecasted data, are being made available to specifically benefit agriculture and water management sectors in their planning processes. Under the project:

- 24 automatic weather stations and 29 automatic hydro stations were installed
- 29 hydrologists, meteorologists and technicians were trained in modelling and forecasting
- A Forecast Application for Risk Management (FARM) Field School curriculum was developed
- A seasonal forecast system ("FOCUS") was established
- Three national climate outlook forums ("Monsoon Forums") were hosted
- Drought Information Hubs (InfoHubs) were established in Takeo, Kampot, Kampong Chhnang, Pursat and Battambang provinces, with another three to be developed by May 2020
- More than 60 trainings were conducted for local agricultural cooperative leaders, farmers and partners on drought-resistant agricultural techniques
- Five international partnerships and four local partnerships were forged
- More than 20 women were trained in disaster risk reduction and early warning systems
- More than 1,300 farmers were trained in drought-resistant agricultural techniques
- 12,511 Cambodians were reached through the extension of the phone-based early warning service EWS1294 (in Koh Kong, Sihanoukville, Kampong Cham, Tbong Khmum and Prey Veng)
- 2,369 children were trained in school safety drills

The project also partnered with EWS1294, a free mobile phone service developed by the non-government organization (NGO) People in Need (PIN) in Cambodia following severe flooding in 2013. The focus is to extend the service from the existing five provinces to eight provinces, with the goal of nationwide coverage by 2020. EWS1294 is a practical means for Cambodians to receive early warning messages. According to a 2016 study, more than 96 per cent of Cambodians report owning a phone, and more than 99 per cent are reachable through some sort of phone. Members of the public register by simply dialling 1294 and entering their location. In the event of an emergency, such as a flood or storm, users in the affected area receive an audio message from the National Committee for Disaster Management, warning them of the risks and steps to take to protect themselves, whether evacuating to the nearest safe site, staying indoors or securing their livestock. Since being piloted in 2013, EWS1294 integrated into the National Committee for Disaster Management’s disaster management strategy. In 2018, UNDP and PIN also worked together to install water-level stations and engage with communities in the flood-prone coastal provinces of Koh Kong and Sihanoukville.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

Within the project, UNDP, with a focus on enhancing gender equality in early warning system and disaster risk reduction, also forged a partnership with Action Aid for increasing the representation of local organizations and women in disaster management and climate change adaptation decision-making. This ensures their voices are heard locally and nationally, and makes sure their knowledge and contributions are maximized. The project focuses on selecting, training and linking local women as ‘DRR Champions’ with skills in community-based disaster risk reduction; hazard, vulnerability and capacity assessments; and leadership and advocacy. The project also developed a Women’s Resilience Index for Cambodia. Women and youth will be trained in data collection and entry, with analysis supported by international specialists. The project will also produce and promote a women’s ‘Charter of Demands for Disaster Risk Reduction and Climate Change Adaptation.’ The Charter will be developed based on data and consultative workshops, and on input from women ‘DRR Champions’ from the two provinces. The Charter will provide the basis for advocacy at the sub-national and national levels, seeking action on priority areas.

*Source: UNDP GEF (2020)*
### EXAMPLE 13: COMMUNITY CAPACITY-BUILDING THROUGH AN ALTERNATIVE APPROACH BASED ON PARTICIPATION IN HANDLING DENGUE HAEMORRHAGIC FEVER (DHF) IN SEMARANG

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<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
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<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tr>
<td>INDONESIA</td>
<td>Mercy Corps Indonesia</td>
<td>Health</td>
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**DESCRIPTION**

The ACTIVE (Actions Changing The Incidence of Vector-Borne Endemic Diseases) program was carried out with the local Government of Semarang (Health Department, Development Planning Agency, Meteorology Climatology and Geophysics Agency, Department of Education) and academics of Diponegoro University. The focus is to build the adaptive capacity of the city to respond to DHF through increase in community participation. The alternative approach in the ACTIVE Program is a variation of the method used in a series of capacity-building activities such as: i) the use of educational games; ii) a participatory approach; iii) interactive discussions; iv) workshops; v) the use of modules and props; vi) meetings to mobilize the commitment of stakeholders; vii) adult learning approaches; and viii) mentoring activities that always involve the community. Through this approach, the project was able to increase the community's enthusiasm on participation in various activities ranging from training to practicing the things that they learned related to the control and prevention of dengue in everyday life.

In addition to motivating the community, an alternative approach is expected to shape the culture of the community in applying clean and healthy behaviour. The ACTIVE program comprises a series of 10 activities comprising of three stages of community capacity-building efforts including: i) preparation and training – Training of Trainers (ToT), the community and schools, action orientation group (AOG), training of cadre, empowering small doctors; ii) implementation – larva monitoring routine (LJR), mosquito breeding site eradication (PSN), the health information system (HIS) and the health early warning system (HEWS); and iii) maintaining continuity – through workshops and assistance prior to musrenbang (community discussion about local development needs) and mentoring.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

Mercy Corps uses a gender approach (and not a women’s approach) because we recognize that sustainable solutions to the challenges outlined above require that men and boys play key roles as partners, supporters and advocates of the integration of women’s and girls’ participation in their communities.


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### EXAMPLE 14: POPULATION, HEALTH AND ENVIRONMENT (PHE) APPROACH IN CLIMATE CHANGE POLICIES

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<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
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<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHILIPPINES</td>
<td>PATH Foundation Philippines, Inc.</td>
<td>Health</td>
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</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

PATH Foundation Philippines, Inc. (PFPI) implemented the Population, Health and Environment and Climate Change Project in the Philippines’ Verde Island Passage. Verde Island is a key marine biodiversity area threatened by overfishing, pollution and climate change. The goal of the project is to mainstream sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR) into climate change policy and practice. The project applied a developmental approach (PHE) that forges multisectoral collaboration and partnership, and employs multiple interventions to address SRHR needs (family planning), biodiversity loss, poor health and food insecurity to foster climate-resilient communities.

Women play a critical role in achieving climate change resilience. PFPI’s scoping study results show that women are central to conceiving and implementing solutions. Planning their families, managing the resources and being pro-health and pro-environment advocates in their own communities will help build resilience to climate change. All these will contribute to a better future for their children. The women also highlighted that collaboration and agreements between communities will create synergy in community actions and results.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

At the core of the population, health, environment and climate change nexus is the “burden on the woman.” Fishing communities in the Verde Islands experience declining fish catch, depleting potable water and poor health. Lack of livelihood options, loss of family income and food insecurity drive women to engage in multiple jobs and to work longer hours to supplement the family's income. The project addresses women’s needs and rights as well as family planning in a participatory approach, helping them identify coping strategies.

*Source: WECF (2016)*
### EXAMPLE 15: REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH CARE IN EMERGENCY RESPONSE

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<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHILIPPINES</td>
<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>Coastal Disaster Management</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

After Typhoon Haiyan, United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) estimated that there were 230,000 pregnant women in affected areas, with 835 women giving birth every day with very limited access to emergency obstetric care. UNFPA and its partners provided lifesaving maternal health services through 80 temporary maternity wards, two emergency obstetric theatres in containers and 34 ambulances, including motorbikes. Women and girls of reproductive age were also provided access to basic hygiene items, such as sanitary pads, underwear and soap, through the distribution of 105,000 dignity kits in evacuation centres. An additional 110,000 kits were for pregnant and lactating women. UNFPA also focused on ensuring that 4,000 women every week have access to reproductive health care services by providing equipment and repairing infrastructures in all eight affected provinces.

In the aftermath of the storm, UNFPA also paid special attention to the needs of young people affected by the disaster. With their direct involvement and the help of local partners, UNFPA set up "Youth-Friendly Spaces" that offer peer education training for volunteers and various activities for local youth, including information sessions about life skills and responsible sexual behaviour. More than 20,000 young people across hard-hit areas attended UNFPA-supported health information sessions to address issues of gender-based violence. UNFPA established 17 women-friendly spaces across the four provinces. The spaces serve as primary venues for raising awareness on gender-based violence, anti-trafficking and psychosocial support with referrals to services for survivors. It also has linkages to cash-for-work programmes. In addition, 2,400 service providers were oriented on handling gender-based violence cases during emergencies.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

As needs intensified after Typhoon Haiyan, UNFPA began working with the Government of the Philippines to ensure that women affected by the typhoon are not cut off from life-saving reproductive health care, wherever they are located.


### EXAMPLE 16: COOL ROOFS FOR URBAN POOR

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<th>COUNTRY</th>
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<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDIA</td>
<td>Mahila Housing SEWA Trust (MHT)</td>
<td>Health and Livelihood</td>
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</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

Abnormally high temperatures not only increase energy demand but also impact health and livelihood of the poor, especially those living in urban slums. More than 60 per cent of urban roofs are made from metal, asbestos and concrete, trapping heat inside buildings. Home-based workers, mostly women, are most affected by this, with reports of decline in their productivity by up to 30 per cent in summer. To address this, the MHT piloted a programme on cool roofs or the urban poor in India. By shifting to passive cooling, these homes could better adapt to days of extreme heat, making households less vulnerable to weather impacts and improving their resilience against climate change risks. Cool roofs reflect sunlight and absorb less heat. Depending on the setting, cool roofs can help keep indoor temperatures lower by 2-5 degrees Celsius (3.6-9 degrees Fahrenheit) compared to traditional roofs. Cool roofs can cost from as little as 0.5 square foot for a simple lime-based paint, to more expensive reflective coatings or membranes. There are three key models of cool roofs that are being piloted:

a. "Air Lite" ventilators: Made of fibre sheet, these dome-shaped roof ventilators not only improve air circulation and reduce indoor temperatures, they also enable better day-time lighting of homes, thereby reducing electricity consumption (of fans and tube lights) by almost half and helping deal with indoor air-pollution.

b. "Mod-Roof" tops: Made of paper waste and coconut husk, these water proof mod-roofs not only reduce home temperature by 5-8 degrees Celsius but also provide for a cheaper and environment-friendly alternative to RCC roofs. They are easy to dismantle and can be reinstalled after adding additional floors or when moved to new locations. It is a boon for slum dwellers with uncertain land tenures.

c. Heat-Reflective Paints: Painting the roofs of households with heat-reflective paint lower indoor temperatures by up to 2 degrees Celsius.

MHT also partnered with University of Chicago Energy and Environment Lab in Delhi and with National Defence Research Council (NDRC) to evaluate the effectiveness of these technologies in lowering indoor temperatures.
### EXAMPLES OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOLUTIONS

| GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT | Cool roofs have multiple benefits for women, as highlighted from the pilots. They help reduce energy bills, while also providing bearable afternoon time for home-based women workers. The project also mobilizes women to generate awareness on the benefits of using the product by training women entrepreneurs, and designs a loan product to create a sustainable business model. Cool roofs also help build community resilience to extreme heat. The organization also elevated the experience through women leaders at the city level. Ahmedabad City now has a cool roofs program for over 3,000 low income homes as part of its heat action plan. |

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### EXAMPLE 17: SOLAR HOME LIGHTING SYSTEMS PROMOTED BY INDIGENOUS YOUNG WOMEN IN THEIR TRIBAL COMMUNITIES

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<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDIA</td>
<td>Rural Agency for Social and Technological Advancement (RASTA)</td>
<td>Energy</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

The project trains indigenous young women to install solar photovoltaic systems for indoor lighting in tribal homes of the forest area of Wayanad in India. RASTA cooperates with the Barefoot College women of Rajasthan to train young women from a tribal community in installing and operating photovoltaic lamps. After the training, the young women conduct installations in their community, and motivate the community to contribute a small fee for ongoing and future maintenance. The major beneficiaries are school children and women, as the illuminated homes allow time for homework and keep wild animals away.

The photovoltaic systems, installed in 165 households of a remote forest area, reduced the climate impact of the tribal community by approximately 16.5 tons of greenhouse gas (GHG). Their consumption of kerosene was considerably reduced by around 10,000 liter per year. The lamps’ batteries can be returned, recycled and refitted, reducing the environmental impact of the project.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

The project's committee consists of 80 per cent women, and the installations are carried out by trained tribal girls. The installation process attracts women, who are taking on a job traditionally done by men. The social recognition and the economic status of the female solar engineers improved. As a consequence, dropouts of girls from school were reduced, and women improved their reading habits.

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### EXAMPLE 18: GENDER ASSESSMENT OF NON-TIMBER FOREST PRODUCTION AND CAPACITY BUILDING

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<th>COUNTRY</th>
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<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tr>
<td>LAO PDR</td>
<td>Gender Development Association</td>
<td>Forestry</td>
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</tbody>
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**DESCRIPTION**

Gender Development Association (GDA) assessed gender roles in the northern rural uplands of Lao PDR, focusing on Non-Timber Forest Production (NTFP). The project used a women’s empowerment lens to bridge traditional harvesting practices with sustainable livelihood initiatives in the target communities. The 4,500 project beneficiaries were women, their families and fellow community members. Many of them belong to the Hmong and Khmu ethnic groups who were systematically marginalized in Lao PDR. The project identified key areas and documented policies for improving sustainability. Women leaders in the community participated in the Training of Trainer workshops, with the goal to enhance their capacity and their knowledge sharing.

The villages selected for the assessment were located in high-risk landslide regions. The risk increased in past years due to deforestation from overharvesting. By supporting alternative economies and NTFPs, GDA works towards mitigating the risk of natural disaster. Natural resources are preserved through training and advocacy on sustainable harvesting practices, especially advocating for policy reform in the area of unsustainable harvesting of fish, cardamom and wild mushrooms.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

In addition to the familial and household duties, women in the targeted villages are also primarily responsible for NTFP. Using a rights-based gender framework, the project conducted awareness raising and training on financial management to promote financial independence. By building the capacity of the women to become knowledge bearers in the field of agriculture and income generation, the project aimed to increase their inclusion and impact on community decisions.

**Source:** WECF (2016).
### EXAMPLE 19: BIODIVERSITY PRESERVATION: WOMEN’S ROLE IN MANGROVE RESTORATION

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<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
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<th>SECTOR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDONESIA</td>
<td>Natural Aceh</td>
<td>Coastal Ecosystem</td>
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</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

In a poor coastal village in Aceh, men go out to sea for days to catch fish, while women add to the family income by collecting oysters around the village. Through training and awareness-raising of local women on the importance of restoring mangrove forests, the project manages to secure increased household income and mitigate climate change. With a long-term focus, the practical training looks at seedling techniques, planting and sustaining ecosystems. Through community participation, the project contributes to food security and nutrition, improving the lives of 1,270 inhabitants. Situated in a conflict prone area, economic resilience can reduce the possibility of future conflicts.

Continuous exploitation and external impacts are affecting oyster’s habitats, thereby affecting the income of those dependent on their availability. Mangrove ecosystems have a potential to reduce carbon emissions by sinking it to the ocean floor. Planting mangroves improves air and water quality, enhances biodiversity and reduces local temperature. With right restoration method and cheap mangrove tree (€0.15 – 0.20 each), the community can benefit in long-term, environmentally and economically.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

Almost 90 per cent of the rural women in Aceh are oyster farmers. The work is strenuous and affects their health. The project trains the women in sustainable mangrove restoration. To avoid adding to the women’s workload, they are given a daily allowance during the training period. Women in Aceh struggle to be included in community decision-making. However, the project provides the women a space to participate in local decision-making on environmental issues which affect their lives adversely.

*Source: WECF (2017)*

### EXAMPLE 20: WEATHER-INFORMED AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES STRENGTHEN DISASTER RISK REDUCTION AND CLIMATE RESILIENCE

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<tr>
<td>PHILIPPINES</td>
<td>Rice Watch Action Network, Inc.</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
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</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

The program enhances 15,000 farmers’ sensitivity and knowledge about weather and climate patterns. It helps them anticipate heavy rains and typhoons and interpret weather information for decision-making on farm adjustments and crop contingency plans. Localized, automatic weather stations were set-up, and 150 local government staff were trained to interpret and post weather data and farming advice to publicly-accessible collection points. Climate resiliency Field Schools (CrFS) are established to train farmers in ecological agriculture methods to help them prepare for and cope with adverse short- and long-term weather patterns and climate change.

This emergency quick response program supported by 30 informed municipalities alleviates climate-related damages or losses in farmers’ livelihoods and assets. Additionally, the program rebuilds biodiversity with new, organic seed varieties and organic fertilizer made from compost. An integrated pest management brings back beneficial insects. Low emission technologies such as Rice Intensification using alternate wetting and drying reduce methane emissions by 50 per cent and help retain carbon in the soil.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

The Climate resiliency Field Schools follow open enrolment, including women and youth. The learning program is done onsite, enabling participation of home-bound women. The learning modules also promote diversification of income and food sources and capacitate women on activities traditionally dominated by men (e.g., fisheries). This helps increase their knowledge toward shared decision-making on family assets and livelihoods.

*Source: WECF (2019)*
### EXAMPLES OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOLUTIONS

#### EXAMPLE 21: KEEPING AFLOAT – GENDER-RESPONSIVE CLIMATE ACTION IN CAMBODIA’S FLOATING VILLAGES

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<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CAMBODIA</td>
<td>Conservation International</td>
<td>Fisheries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DESCRIPTION**

Sustaining the endangered ecosystem of lake Tonle Sap is a matter of survival for 8,000 Cambodians and of crucial regulation for the entire Mekong area. With an integrated approach targeting emissions reduction via fuel-efficient fish processing and women's economic and social empowerment – through trainings to improve environmental knowledge, hygiene practices, packing, marketing and pooling of sales – this project transforms traditional fish smoking methods that have become unsustainable into climate-resilient livelihood activities. By changing the perception of women's roles, it challenges patriarchal structures to ensure gender-just decision-making that promotes ecological conservation initiatives.

Fuel-efficient stoves reduce carbon emissions and wood consumption, helping protect the fragile ecosystem of lake Tonle Sap, which is based on flooded forests and is an exceptional natural fish nursery. Education in the communities about specific climate change impacts on the Tonle Sap and possible ways to mitigate these threats is backed by the development of financial buffering through increased revenues for women. The creation of saving groups enables investment of the loans' interest into conservation projects, strengthened by the implementation of protected areas.

**GENDER STRATEGY/IMPACT**

Gender equality and women's empowerment is promoted in many ways, alleviating women's burdens through efficient smoking technology. Girls' school enrolment is up 60 per cent. With sales increased by 32 per cent without adding pressure on the fisheries, women's economic power and self-confidence were raised. Sixteen saving groups in seven villages foster women's entrepreneurship. This results in informed and outspoken women participating in decision-making processes in the fishery committees, as they benefit from the saving groups investments and must report about their priorities and conservation activities.

Source: WECF (2019)
This module provides an overview on the global climate finance architecture, with focus on multilateral institutional finance, regional and national funds. It also looks at the gender integration within the existing climate funds and the role that Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) can play in further strengthening the integration of gender equality into these processes, especially the consultation mechanisms, and for tracking gender in climate finance.

Building on the need for tracking gender in climate finance, the module looks at using Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB) as a strategy for gender mainstreaming in national level climate finance. This has to be at two levels: i) analyzing existing climate funds using gender lens; and ii) engaging with key line departments for engendering sectoral allocations which can have an impact on women's adaptation and resilience capacities. The focus is on orienting the CSOs with GRB tools which they can use to influence and enable financing for gender equality priorities in policies and programmes for climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction.

OBJECTIVES OF THE MODULE:
> Chart the global and regional climate finance architecture and the current level of gender integration;
> Identify strategies for CSOs to be able to engage with existing climate finance mechanisms;
> Understand the concept of GRB and its application in the domestic climate finance sector; and
> Learn the application of Five-Step Framework and GRB tools for undertaking a gender budget analysis of national climate funds.

KEY MESSAGES:
> Overall climate finance need is estimated to run into hundreds of billions, if not trillions, of US$ annually after 2023. However, progress on international public finance for climate change, especially from developed to developing countries, has remained low.
> Most of the tracked climate finance continues to flow for mitigation activities; adaptation finance made up just 5 per cent with US$30 billion in 2017-2018 (Buchner, et al. 2019).
> Only 0.01 per cent of all worldwide funding for support projects address both climate change and women’s rights (Habtezion 2016).
> The largest sources of approved funding for adaptation projects are dedicated climate finance initiatives like the Adaptation Fund (AF), the Pilot Program for Climate Resilience (PPCR) of the World Bank’s Climate Investment Funds (CIFs), Green Climate Fund (GCF) and the Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF) administered by the Global Environmental Facility (GEF).
> The key adaptation funds with a gender mandate that CSOs can engage with include the Adaptation Fund (AF), Climate Investment Fund (CIF), Green Climate Fund (GCF) and Global Environment Facility (GEF).
> The three major strategies for CSOs, especially women’s organizations, to engage with these funds include: i) Directly apply for funding under the Adaptation Fund Innovation grant thematic area of “Advancement of gender equality (women and girls’ empowerment)” or the GEF Small Grants Program (SGP) implemented by UNDP, which provides financial and technical support up to US$50,000 directly to local organizations; ii) Provide technical assistance to the existing National Implementing Entities (NIEs) of the Adaptation Fund, Climate Investment Funds (CIF) focal points and national designated authority (NDA) for Green Climate Fund (GCF); iii) Engage in stakeholder participation and to bring forth voices of women-leaders from the community.
> Tracking domestic finance for gender mainstreaming through the use of GRB would be an effective strategy at the local level. GRB analyzes government budgets and aid-finance to map the differences in outreach and impact on women and girls as compared to men and boys, and can be an important research and advocacy tool for CSOs.
> CSOs should specifically track gender-responsiveness in climate finance through the development of Gender and Climate Budget Statement (GCBS). Also, unlike other GRB initiatives, GRB in climate finance should not be limited to government budgets alone, but should also look at donor funds.
## MODULE 5 SESSION PLAN A

**UNDERSTANDING THE GLOBAL CLIMATE FINANCE ARCHITECTURE AND ITS GENDER ELEMENTS**

### OVERVIEW
At the end of this session, participants should have the knowledge of the international finance architecture for climate change mitigation and adaptation. The key adaptation related funds, their gender components, and space for engagement of women’s organizations, have also been discussed.

### CONTENT
- **A. Global Climate Finance Architecture**
- **B. Climate Finance Requirement**
- **C. Global Climate Finance Fund Flows**
  - a. Climate Finance in Asia
  - b. Adaptation Funds
- **D. Gender in Global Climate Finance**
- **E. Key Adaptation Funds and Scope for CSO Engagement**
  - a. Adaptation Fund
  - b. Climate Investment Funds
  - c. Green Climate Fund

### MATERIALS
- PowerPoint presentations
- Apparatus for film viewing on YouTube
- Whiteboard and marker pen
- Chart papers and pens
- Copy of Handouts

### OUTLINE
- **5 mins.** Sharing of overview, session content and process.
- **40 mins.** Exercise on "Global Climate Finance Architecture" (see Exercise 23 and Handout 21) (recommended for basic course).  
  **OR:** PowerPoint presentation on "Global Climate Risks, Adaptation, Resilience Building and Disaster Risk Reduction" (recommended for advanced course).
- **60 mins.** PowerPoint presentation on "Key Adaptation Funds and Scope for CSO Engagement."
- **75 mins.** Practical session on "Adaptation Project Analysis" (see Exercise 24 and Handout 22) (recommended for advanced course).

### GUIDANCE NOTES
Share the session overview and content. For basic course, begin with viewing of short films by Heinrich-Böll-Stiftung Washington, DC on "What is Climate Finance" available at [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9vVM4e9XaM](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9vVM4e9XaM), followed by the exercise of Global Climate Finance Architecture (See Exercise 23 and Handout 21) and film on "Gender-Responsive Climate Finance" available at [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9KmvdXIDFg](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9KmvdXIDFg). For advanced course, use the technical content to make a detailed PowerPoint presentation on "Global Climate Finance Architecture." This section also includes data on fund figures up to 2019. The trainer should add updated fund figures from the references for a more relevant session. Also, if participants are from only one country, include a slide on the status of projects and allocations under major climate funds for that country.

Next, focus on "Key Adaptation Funds and Scope for CSO Engagement." Again, while the technical content here provides an overview and key strategies for CSO engagement, the trainer should make the session more engaging by:

1. Inviting country focal points to share the status, processes, opportunities and challenges of the fund utilization in the country, and
2. Asking participants to share their own experiences on engaging with these funds. (The trainer should provide more time for the discussion point suggested at the end of this section.)

End the session with the "Adaptation Project Analysis Exercise" (see Exercise 24 and Handout 22). This exercise is only recommended for advanced course and aims to give the participants a feel of how the different types of adaptation funds function and get them interested enough to want to explore the fund websites in more detail. Make sure that there is Wi-Fi (or internet facility) available for this exercise.
Global Climate Finance Landscape

GLOBAL CLIMATE FINANCE ARCHITECTURE

Climate finance remains central to achieving low-carbon, climate resilient development. However, a definition of the term “climate finance” is yet to be internationally agreed. The UNFCCC (n.d. (d)) defines climate finance as, “local, national or transnational financing – drawn from public, private and alternative sources of financing – that seeks to support mitigation and adaptation actions that will address climate change.”

Under Article 4.3. of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), developed countries committed to provide funding for the “agreed full incremental costs”9 of climate change in developing countries. One of the key focus areas of the UNFCCC has been towards creating mechanisms and instruments for climate finance globally and ensuring transfer of these funds from developed to developing countries.

> In COP 15 (2009), through the Copenhagen Accord, developed countries pledged US$30 billion in ‘fast start’ finance from 2010 to 2012, with a pledge to increase the financing to US$100 billion annually by 2020.
> At the COP 16, the Standing Committee on Finance was established under the UNFCCC to assist the COP in meeting the objectives of the Financial Mechanism of the Convention. The Standing Committee on Finance is tasked with, among other things, preparing a biennial assessment of climate finance flows, the fourth of which will be published in 2020 and will detail flows from 2017 to 2018.
> At COP 21 in Paris (2015), developed countries failed to make significant new public finance pledges. However, under the Paris Agreement, it was agreed that in 2025 a new collective goal for climate finance from the present floor of US$100 billion per year will be set.
> Some initial decisions were taken at the COP 24 in Katowice as part of efforts to agree on the Paris Rulebook. However, no agreement was reached even at the COP 25 in Madrid (2019); this was pushed forward to the COP 26 in Glasgow (Scotland) scheduled for November 2021.

Following these decisions, a number of channels have become active through which the global climate finance flows. These include:

1. Multilateral climate funds that are dedicated to addressing climate change;
2. Bilateral development assistance established by several developed countries;
3. National government budgets;
4. Privately channelled climate funds; and
5. Regional and national funds created to accept global funding and channel these funds around the region.

Figure 5-1 presents an overview of the climate finance architecture, focusing on public financing mechanisms.

The adaptation finance architecture includes finance flows and mechanisms from private finance, public finance, resources from development finance institutions and, increasingly, from insurance and risk pooling mechanisms. The green colour in Figure 5-1 highlights the funds which are dedicated to or have high focus on adaptation.

Climate Finance Definitions Adopted by Various Agencies Collating Information on Climate Finance

Overseas Development Institute (ODI) and Heinrich-Böll-Stiftung (HBS) Climate Fund Update (CFU) (Watson and Schalatek 2020a) define climate finance as, “the financial resources mobilized to fund actions that mitigate and adapt to the impacts of climate change, including public climate finance commitments by developed countries under the UNFCCC.”

The Women Empowerment and Development Organization (Hall, Granat and Daniel 2019) refers to it as “a broad, overarching term that can encompass public, private and philanthropic flows of funds toward climate change actions, as well as the systems that structure the ways these funds are distributed.”

The Global Landscape of Climate Finance (CPI 2019) adopted the working definition of climate finance as, “Climate finance aims at reducing emissions, and enhancing sinks of greenhouse gases and aims at reducing vulnerability of, and maintaining and increasing the resilience of, human and ecological systems to negative climate change impacts.”

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Source: Adapted from Watson and Schalatek (2020a).
CLIMATE FINANCE REQUIREMENTS

The overall climate finance need is estimated to run into hundreds of billions of US$ annually after 2023 (Schalatek 2019a). The IPCC special report of global warming of 1.5 degrees Celsius projected annual average investment needs in the energy system alone of approximately US$2.4 trillion between 2016 and 2035 (IPCC 2018). Global Commission on Adaptation (GCA 2019) estimates that investing US$180 billion annually from 2020 to 2030 in resilience could generate trillions worth of economic returns. UNEP (2016) in the Adaptation Gap Report estimates that the annual cost of adaptation could range from US$140 billion to US$300 billion by 2030.

Earlier, the Human Development Report (UNDP 2011) projected that the cost of the climate change response by 2030 could range from US$249 billion to US$1,371 billion annually. Another study by World Bank (2010) estimated that costs of adaptation alone would be in the range of US$75 billion to US$100 billion per year between 2010 and 2050.10 Now, ten years after these assessments were done, the climate finance needs are much higher than those anticipated by these studies.

GLOBAL CLIMATE FINANCE FUND FLOWS

Against these requirements for climate finance, the progress was quite slower than needed due to persistent barriers and disincentives, especially until 2015. Reinforcing the same, the Paris Agreement acknowledged that developed countries must continue to take the lead in mobilizing climate finance (Schalatek 2019a). After the Paris Agreement, climate finance saw some growth with annual investments crossing the US$0.5 trillion mark for the first time in 2017 and 2018, as seen in Figure 5-2. Annual flows rose to US$79 billion, on average, over the two-year period of 2017-2018, representing a US$116 billion (25 per cent) increase from 2015 to 2016 (Buchner, et al. 2019).11

Furthermore, less than half of these commitments come from public climate finance – which includes government (national) budgets, domestic financial institutions, bilateral finance, multilateral development finance institutions, dedicated climate funds like Green Climate Fund (GCF), Adaptation Fund (AF), Global Environment Facility (GEF) and others (see Figure 5-3 for break up of 2017-18 flows).

The next section focuses on the flow of global climate finance flows collated from various reports. The figures are updated as available for up to 2019. The trainer should update the figures to the latest available options. Also, highlight country-specific figures, if participants are from the same country.

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10. Assuming the Earth’s average surface temperature will be about 2°C warmer by 2050.
11. Although it needs to be noted here that just under one quarter of the increase in climate finance tracked in 2017/2018 is due to the incorporation of new data sources into the landscape, including EV charging infrastructure investments; private investment in sustainable infrastructure; and use of proceeds of bonds issued by the private sector and regional and municipal governments.
Within the public climate finance flows, more than three-quarters is raised and spent domestically. The share of multilateral Domestic Financial Institutions (DFIs), bilateral assistance and dedicated climate funds, which form a major chunk of the promised climate finance from developed to developing countries, is less. As envisioned in various climate agreements, it is important to increase the flow of international public climate finance from developed to developing countries. As of now, however, most estimates point to the fact that this is well below the promised US$100 billion benchmarks in the Paris Agreement. Of the total international flows, only US$72 billion flowed from Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) to non-OECD countries in the period 2017-2018, accounting for 12 per cent of tracked climate finance (Buchner, et al. 2019).

From the civil society’s perspective, it is also important to understand the instruments of climate finance. In the period 2017-2018, grants accounted for only 5 per cent of the total climate finance at US$29 billion. Almost 60 per cent of tracked grants in the period 2017-2018 were made internationally, and 40 per cent domestically (Buchner, et al. 2019). Another major limitation is that most funds have not been established to consider local stakeholders, and the structure is generally geared to large-scale projects and to entities which can then channel the funds to others.

In terms of sectoral allocations, as shown in Figure 5-4, renewable energy generation continues to receive the most priority with US$337 billion in the period 2017-2018, followed by low-carbon transport at US$141 billion and energy efficiency at US$34 billion. Among the adaptation sectors, agriculture and land-use received US$ 21 billion, while water and waste management also had a major share of US$13 billion. Disaster risk management received only US$7 billion (Buchner, et al. 2019).

### CLIMATE FINANCE IN ASIA

Given the low level of international public climate funding, it is also important to identify the major recipient-countries, especially within Asia. CFU (Watson and Schalatek 2020b) data review for 18 countries in Asia shows that from 2003 to 2019, a total of US$4.9 billion for 530 projects and programmes have been approved by 18 multilateral climate funds and initiatives. The largest contributions are from the Clean Technology Fund (CTF) focused on increasing penetration of low carbon technologies, which approved a total of US$1.7 billion for 34 projects, mostly in the form of concessional loans. Climate Finance Update compiled the fund flow in Asia, which is reproduced in Table 5-1.

However, the distribution was very uneven. A considerable amount – 62 per cent of finance (US$3 billion) – was for mitigation projects mainly related to large-scale renewable energy, energy efficiency and transport. Adaptation projects and programmes in the region receive only about a third of mitigation financing amounts (US$1 billion).

In terms of countries, India, Indonesia, China and Vietnam have together received 56 per cent of the funding approved for Asia since 2003 (see Figure 5-5). The largest project in the region approved to date is the US$195 million Rajasthan Renewable Energy Transmission Investment Program, closely followed by the US$175 million Solar Rooftop PV programme, both supported by the CTF in India. In 2019, the GCF also approved its largest project in 2019 with US$100 million in China for a green financing development fund.

### ADAPTATION FINANCE

Another critical element of the global climate finance flows is that most of the tracked finance continues to flow for mitigation activities. As per CPI, mitigation finance accounted for 93 per cent of total flows in 2017-2018, or US$37 billion annually on average (Buchner, et al. 2019). Adaptation finance made up to just 5 per cent of the tracked finance flows. Although at US$30 billion in 2017-2018, it increased by 35 per cent from US$22 billion in 2015-2016. The rest amounting to US$12 billion was for dual benefit projects.

Almost all of the adaptation funding is from public finance, with only US$0.5 billion of adaptation finance from private sources (Buchner, et al. 2019). The largest sources of approved funding for adaptation projects are dedicated climate finance initiatives like the Green Climate Fund (GCF), the Pilot Program for Climate Resilience (PPCR).
of the World Bank’s Climate Investment Funds (CIFs), the Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF) administered by the Global Environmental Facility and the Adaptation Fund (Watson and Schalatek 2020c).

The Climate Finance Update (Watson and Schalatek 2020c) further highlights how developed countries’ contributions to adaptation funds remain low compared to those funds supporting mitigation. At a global level, adaptation remains underfunded. Currently, about 24 per cent of the financing approved since 2003 flowing from the dedicated climate finance initiatives that CFU monitors supports adaptation actions, a proportion that remained largely stagnant over the past year. Table 5-2 brings together the details of the major multi-lateral funds supporting adaptation.

### TABLE 5-1: FUNDS SUPPORTING ASIA 2003-2019 IN US$ MILLION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUND OR INITIATIVE</th>
<th>AMOUNT APPROVED (MILLION US$)</th>
<th>PROJECTS APPROVED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Clean Technology Fund (CTF)</td>
<td>1,670.0</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Green Climate Fund (GCF)</td>
<td>1,099.1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Global Environment Facility (4,5,6,7)</td>
<td>871.8</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Pilot Program for Climate Resilience (PPCR)</td>
<td>284.3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF)</td>
<td>220.9</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Scaling-Up Renewable Energy Program for Low-Income Countries (SREP)</td>
<td>144.8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Forest Carbon Partnership Facility (FCPF)</td>
<td>107.6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Global Climate Change Alliance (GCCA)</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Adaptation Fund (AF)</td>
<td>75.3</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Forest Investment Program (FIP)</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Adaptation for Smallholder Agriculture Programme (ASAP)</td>
<td>62.2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Global Energy Efficiency of Renewable Energy Fund (GEEREF)</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF)</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Partnership for Market Readiness (PMF)</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; UN-REDD Programme</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; MDG Achievement Fund</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; BioCarbon Fund</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Indonesia Climate Change Trust Fund (ICCF)</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### FIGURE 5-5: TOP 15 RECIPIENT COUNTRIES OF CLIMATE FINANCE IN ASIA (AMOUNT OF FUNDING APPROVED IN US$ MILLION)

Source: CFU (n.d.)
Adaptation Finance in Asia

While overall details on adaptation finance are not available, CFU tracks adaptation finance from all multilateral funds. CFU (Watson and Schalatek 2020b) data show that almost 42 per cent of these were directed to Sub-Saharan Africa; 16 per cent to East Asia and the Pacific; 15 per cent to Latin America and the Caribbean; and 14 per cent to South Asia. The update also highlights that the top 20 recipients of adaptation finance (out of over 122 countries) received 45 per cent of the total amount approved. Top 10 recipients Bangladesh, Niger, Zambia, Cambodia, Nepal, Mozambique, Samoa, Bolivia and Tajikistan received more than US$100 million each since 2003. Interestingly, all except Tanzania are PPCR recipient countries.

Within Asia, Bangladesh, Nepal, Cambodia, Samoa and India have been the top recipients of adaptation finance. Figure 5-6 highlights the share of various Asian countries in adaptation finance. The largest amounts for adaptation projects are being provided to support programmes in Bangladesh, Cambodia and Nepal by the Pilot Program for Climate Resilience (PPCR) for a total approved amount of US$284 million and the Least Developed Countries Fund with total approved amount of US$221 million (Watson and Schalatek 2020b).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUND</th>
<th>PLEDGED</th>
<th>DEPOSITED</th>
<th>APPROVED</th>
<th>PROJECTS APPROVED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Green Climate Fund (GCF)</td>
<td>10,319.6</td>
<td>8,144.7</td>
<td>1,288.1</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF)</td>
<td>1,463.5</td>
<td>1,411.5</td>
<td>1,161.0</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pilot Program for Climate Resilience (PPCR)</td>
<td>1,144.8</td>
<td>1,144.8</td>
<td>988.1</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptation Fund (AF)</td>
<td>956.6</td>
<td>890.7</td>
<td>720.5</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptation for Smallholder Agriculture Programme (ASAP)</td>
<td>381.7</td>
<td>330.3</td>
<td>291.2</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF)</td>
<td>377.4</td>
<td>369.0</td>
<td>279.4</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Environment Facility Trust Fund 7 (CEF 7)</td>
<td>654.2</td>
<td>654.1</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**FIGURE 5-6: ADAPTATION FINANCE IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC***

*Source: CFU (n.d.).

**Funds Covered: Least Developed Countries Fund; Pilot Programme for Climate Resilience; Adaptation Fund; Adaptation for Smallholder Agriculture, Special Climate Change Fund; and MDG Achievement Fund.**
GENDER IN GLOBAL CLIMATE FINANCE

Gender in global climate financing mechanisms has progressed only in recent years largely as a result from persistent advocacy of women’s organizations and the growing recognition of the need for projects to integrate gender to increase efficacy and effectiveness. As a result, we have seen some changes, but there is still a long way to go. Worldwide, only limited climate finance integrated or addressed women’s rights and/or gender equality, also within limited sectors and geographical locations. Of the US$26 billion of Overseas Development Assistance (ODA) that was focused on climate change in 2014, only US$8 billion (31 per cent) also supports gender equality. This is an increase from the US$4.4 billion in 2010 (Figure 5-7) (OECD 2016).

The integration was higher in adaptation only projects (41 per cent) compared to mitigation only projects (18 per cent). There is an uneven distribution within the sectors, with strongest focus on gender equality being in agriculture (59 per cent), followed by water (39 per cent). Although energy projects constitute the largest share of all bilateral climate aid, only 8 per cent of the energy projects integrated gender (OECD 2016).

These trends are not so surprising, given that in spite of UNFCCC mandate to increase gender balance in governance, female representation in the governing bodies of the major climate funds was, on an average, just 22 per cent in 2015 (Habtezion 2016).

Another important limitation is that while 19 per cent of all gender-responsive bilateral climate aid (US$1.4 billion) was channelled through civil society organizations, a large majority (14 per cent or US$1 billion) went to donor country-based NGOs. Only a very small amount (2 per cent of US$132 million) went to CSOs in developing countries (OECD 2016). There must be a focus on reviewing the projects of donor country-based NGOs, and they need to be held more accountable for gender mainstreaming.

Recommendations: A critical advocacy point for strengthening gender-responsive climate finance also raised by OECD DAC is the need for simplified funding mechanisms to enable women’s organizations to access climate finance. Women’s organizations should take this up as an advocacy point in all national and international climate finance forums.

**Key Adaptation Funds and Scope for CSO Engagement**

Amidst these limitations in the global climate finance architecture, there is very limited scope for CSOs, especially women’s organizations, to have direct access to the funds. However, there are other ways that CSOs, especially women’s organizations, can engage in enabling gender-responsive climate finance. Some of the key adaptation funds which have a strong gender component/action plan are discussed here, outlining the scope for CSOs and women’s organization to engage in the same.

**ADAPTATION FUND**

Established in 2001 under the Kyoto Protocol of UNFCCC, the Adaptation Fund (AF) aims to increase the climate change adaptation capacity of the most vulnerable communities in developing countries. It finances climate change adaptation and resilience activities that are based on country needs, views and priorities. The fund is fully operational since 2010 (Adaptation Fund n.d.). As of 1 January 2019, the AF is now mandated to serve the Paris Agreement, in line with the newly approved 5-year Medium-Term Strategy 2018-2022, based on pillars of Action, Innovation, and Knowledge and Sharing (Hall, Granat and Daniel 2019).

The fund is financed through a 2 per cent levy on the sale of emission credits from the Clean Development Mechanism of the Kyoto Protocol and in part by government and private donors (Adaptation Fund n.d.). However, given the low carbon prices, currently it is heavily dependent on the voluntary contributions from
After the Adaptation Fund Board decides to accredit an entity considering the recommendation by the Accreditation Panel, the entity can submit a concept or a full project proposal. Parties seeking financial resources from the Adaptation Fund must submit their project and programme proposals through accredited National, Regional or Multilateral Implementing Entities. Proposals will be reviewed with respect to specific criteria available in the Operational Policies and Guidelines. Proposals are accepted three times a year: twice before the biannual Adaptation Fund Board meetings and once during an intersessional review cycle. (Adaptation Fund n.d.). The adaptation fund provides support across multiple sectors. Figure 5-8 brings together the sectoral grants provided under the adaptation fund.

In addition to the project grant, the Adaptation Fund also supports three other types of grants:

**A. Readiness Grant Funding** – small grants available under the Climate Finance Readiness Programme to help NIEs provide peer support to countries seeking accreditation with the Fund and to build capacity for undertaking various climate finance readiness activities. The AF readiness grants also support implementing entities to provide technical assistance to build their capacity on gender, particularly to support gender integration in proposal design and development.

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations can provide technical assistance to existing NIEs through the readiness programme. Reach out to the NIEs directly and advocate for leveraging women’s organizations as consultants and trainers as part of the grant.

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**FIGURE 5-8: ADAPTATION FUND INVESTMENTS BY SECTOR IN US$ MILLION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Investment (US$ Million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water Management</td>
<td>89.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>82.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Security</td>
<td>78.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
<td>75.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-sector Projects</td>
<td>72.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Development</td>
<td>67.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coastal Management</td>
<td>58.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecosystem-based Adaptation</td>
<td>16.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Development</td>
<td>15.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forests</td>
<td>5.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adaptation Fund (2019).
B. Innovation Grants – of up to US$250,000 to NIEs, starting with the first request for proposals under a set-aside of US$2 million, was launched in December 2018. These small grants are awarded to vulnerable developing countries through two routes: directly through NIEs particularly to those countries that have accredited NIEs, and through an NIE aggregator delivery mechanism to other entities (organizations, groups, associations, institutions, businesses, agencies, others) that are not accredited with the Fund. Supported by United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), approximately 45 grants of up to US$250,000 are expected to be awarded to non-accredited entities in the second round in 2020.

Recommendations: Women’s Organizations can directly apply for funding under the innovation grant under the thematic area of “Advancement of gender equality (women and girls’ empowerment)”.

C. Learning Grants – a new funding window for NIEs to access learning grants. Learning Grants build on the Fund’s recently revised Knowledge Management Framework and Action Plan (approved in 2016). The grant amount that can be accessed by an accredited NIE is up to a maximum of US$150,000 per project/programme.

In 2011, the AF first established a gender policy and action plan that guides its work, followed by a new Environmental and Social Policy in 2013 which has a specific principle on “gender equity and women’s empowerment” (Hall, Granat and Daniel 2019). In 2015, a Board-mandated review of the integration of gender considerations in Adaptation Fund policies and procedures highlighted the limited progress in a comprehensive gender equality approach. Afterwards, it was decided that the Fund should develop its own gender equality policy (Schalatek 2019b). A human rights-based Adaptation Fund Gender Policy and a multi-year gender action plan (FY2017-2019) was adopted after a consultative process in March 2016 and updated in March 2021 (Adaptation Fund 2021). In 2017, a Guidance Document for Implementing Entities on Compliance with the Adaptation Fund Gender Policy was also created to provide Implementing Entities with practical guidance on how to achieve and assess compliance with the AF Gender Policy throughout the project cycle (Adaptation Fund 2018).

One of the concrete recommendations for Implementing Agencies as part of the Gender Policy, Gender Action Plan and The Guidance Document is active consultations with both women and men, and the need for targeted efforts to include national women’s machineries (including women’s organizations and networks, local women’s cooperatives and gender experts) in these consultations.

Recommendations: Women’s organizations can take this guidance to AF Implementing Entities in their country to promote the machinery (and women’s organizations) and their inclusion as stakeholders throughout all stages of the project/programme cycle.

The plan also mandates the secretariat to establish a roster of gender expert consultants. As of February 2019, the secretariat is working to identify other organizations to develop and host the roster for broader use across climate finance mechanisms. The AF also developed a dedicated Knowledge and Learning thematic webpage on gender with materials available on the AF Gender Policy and programming, sharing guidance and experience in project implementation.

Recommendations: This roster will provide opportunities for women’s regional organizations to participate in the Fund’s financed projects/programmes contributing to gender considerations throughout the project lifecycle.

CLIMATE INVESTMENT FUND

Established in 2008, the Climate Investment Funds (CIFs) is administered by the World Bank in partnership with five regional development banks including the African Development Bank (AfDB), the Asian Development Bank (ADB), the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) and the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB). The CIF was originally created to trigger investments at scale in both developing and middle-income countries, specifically empowering “climate-smart growth and transformation.” A total of US$8 billion was pledged directly to the CIF by 14 contributor countries. Currently, the CIF supports 72 countries across sectors like energy, climate resilience, transport and forestry (CIF n.d.).

The CIF comprises two funds:

a. The Clean Technology Fund (CTF); and
b. The Strategic Climate Fund (SCF), with three programs:
   1. The Pilot Program for Climate Resilience (PPCR);
   2. Scaling Up Renewable Energy in Low-Income Countries Program (SREP); and
   3. The Forest Investment Program (FIP).
Under the CIF, countries must first apply to become a “pilot country” of one of the four programs. Once approved, each country must develop an investment plan (IP) for that program. Development of an IP is a process often involving many rounds of consultations with different types of stakeholders to determine the investment details and explicitly stating expected contributions from the CIF and other sources. The IPs must be approved by the CIF Trust Fund Committee before countries work with the MDBs to develop projects for funding (Hall, Granat and Daniel 2019).

**Recommendations:** Country IPs provide an entry point for women’s organizations to engage in the process. In countries where there is already an IP, organizations can engage during updating of IPs.

The CIF did not include any mandates for gender considerations at its inception. However, a 2013 comprehensive CIF gender review confirmed that the CIFs needed to do much more to address gender considerations systematically (Schalatek 2019b). To address this, in 2014, the CIF recruited a specialist on gender and social issues. Subsequently, the CIF developed Gender Action Plans (GAP) that were approved and implemented across three phases. A 2017 CIF gender progress report showed improvements for most CIFs under the CIF Gender Action Plan. However, the gender-responsiveness of the CTF continued to lag behind (Schalatek 2019b). The latest CIF Gender Action Plan, Phase 3 (FY 2021-2024), was approved in June 2020. The GAP-3 will continue its emphasis for "gender-transformative impacts in the key areas of asset position, voice and resilient livelihood status of women through gender-responsive institutions and markets" (CIF 2020). The CIF Gender Policy, adopted in 2018, also provides a governance framework to "advance equal access to and benefit from CIF-supported investments for women and men in CIF pilot countries." (CIF 2018).

The CIF also now includes gender equality as a co-benefit and core criteria in FIP and the SREP, while other CIF programs are expected to assess the gender dimensions during their technical reviews. The PPCR and FIP also explicitly indicate women and women’s groups as key stakeholders who should be consulted for the preparation of IPs and project design (Burns and Granat 2020).

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations can engage in stakeholder participation like civil society organizations to bring forth voices of women-leaders from the community.

Further, the PPCR also includes gender experts in country missions or outreach to women’s groups as key stakeholders in consultations in the programme planning stage (Schalatek 2019b).

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations can connect directly with CIF country focal points in the IP creation process. The relationships can be further strengthened for potential engagement in regional and global stakeholder meetings.

The CIF Governance structure also includes the role of “active observers” across each of the CIF programs. Observers hold a seat on the trust fund committees, alongside donor and recipient governments. The structure aims to ensure each committee has a diverse representation of stakeholders from civil society, indigenous peoples and the private sector, from developed and developing countries. In 2011, following the first term of CIF observers, the election process for new observers specified that, “Special effort will be made to recruit and select observer organizations that are represented by women and/or that focus on women's involvement in addressing the challenges of climate change.” (CIF n.d.). The 2018 Gender Policy also introduced a new category of “gender representatives” to the CIF for all Trust Fund Committees and Sub-Committees to be selected from among existing sets of CIF observers (CIF 2018). The CIF local stakeholders and observers’ engagement processes have been reported to have been effective in enabling changes in the investment plans (IPs) (Consensus Building Institute 2020) and can be a strong advocacy tool for CSOs to engender CIF investments in the country.

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations and gender experts can specifically engage in CIF governance by applying to become an observer of one or more of the CIF programs through a nomination and voting process.
In 2015, the CIF established the Stakeholder Advisory Network (SAN) to “strengthen the partnership of non-state actors with climate finance entities to advance the agenda of climate smart development through collaboration, research, advocacy, networking and partnerships.” The SAN is currently hosted by the CIF, and membership is open to all stakeholders engaged as observers to multilateral climate finance funds. The SAN network is steered by a governing committee made up of civil society members and Indigenous Peoples, as well as private sector representatives (CIF n.d.).

**Recommendations:** THE SAN Concept note does not include explicit mentions of gender or women, but women’s organizations can engage with the CIF as a SAN member.

**GREEN CLIMATE FUND**

The Green Climate Fund (GCF), established in 2010, became fully operational with its first projects approved at the end of 2015. The GCF serves as an operating entity of the financial mechanism of both the UNFCCC and the Paris Agreement and is expected to become the primary channel through which international public climate finance will flow over time. By December 2019, the GCF’s first formal replenishment (GCF-1) resulted in pledges from 29 countries of funds amounting to US$9.8 billion (GCF n.d.).

The GCF’s approach to climate finance seeks to “promote a paradigm shift to low-emission and climate-resilient development…. (with) particular attention to the needs of societies that are highly vulnerable to the effects of climate change.” (GCF n.d.).

Developing countries can access the GCF through MDBs, international commercial banks and UN agencies, as well as directly through accredited National, Regional and Sub-National Implementing Entities. By October 2020, the implementing partner network of the GCF grew to 99 Accredited Entities (GCF n.d.).

The GCF is also set to be one of the largest financers of adaptation projects by devoting 50 per cent of its initial resource mobilization to adaptation. Half of this is expected to go to the SIDS, LDCs and African states (GCF n.d.). The GCF would also have an Asia focus as reflected in the approval of 26 projects (US$1.1 billion) and 45 readiness programmes (US$45 million) so far in the region. The 2019 GCF approvals make up 62 per cent of the US$400 million in new approvals for the region which include also projects from the CTF, Adaptation Fund, GEF and Least Developed Countries Fund (Watson and Schalatek 2020b).

The key features of the GCF include its country-driven approach. Each country has a National Designated Authority (NDA), often a ministry of finance or environment, with a designated focal point to serve as the representative between an NDA and GCF. NDAs serve as each country’s “interface” with the GCF and are fundamental to the GCF’s funding processes and ways of working, from accessing readiness support to signing off on every funding proposal submitted to the GCF Board with activities for that country (GCF n.d.).

**Recommendations:** A critical entry point for women’s organizations is to engage with the country NDA and DAEs. This should give insights into what proposals are being developed and to be able to influence the same. Women’s organizations can also partner with them for technical assistance and grants under the readiness programmes.

It would be even more useful for CSOs to hear about these processes directly from someone involved in the GCF at the country level. It is recommended to invite the national designated authority (NDA) focal point or national accredited institution representative for this session to share the country-specific process information, experiences, opportunities and challenges for CSOs. This would also provide a networking opportunity to the participants. You can begin the session with the viewing of this short film on Green Climate Fund available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hiQ-Gs8NW3s followed by the discussion.

The GCF disburses funding through an accreditation system where any organization submitting a funding proposal must be an Accredited Entity (AE) (GCF n.d.). This system was designed to ensure that AEs, particularly those that only work on the national level, “possess the type of specialist knowledge and experience that can be best utilized to mobilize climate finance on the ground.” AEs, which can be private, public, non-governmental, regional, or national in their scope and operation, can be considered as one of two different types:

**A. Direct Access Entity (DAE)** – a sub-national, national or regional organization that needs to be nominated by developing country NDA or focal points which may be eligible to receive GCF readiness support.
B. International Access Entity (IAE) – UN agencies, multilateral development banks and international financial institutions which need not be nominated by any NDA.

As part of the accreditation process, the GCF Secretariat also assesses the “gender-responsive capacity” of applicants by ensuring all AEs have a proven track record and are capable of complying with the GCF Gender Policy.

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations can also seek accreditation so they can submit projects as AEs, enabling ownership of the project design and implementation so there is more flexibility in proposal scope, timing, and collaborators.

The GCF is uniquely positioned as “the first climate finance mechanism to mainstream gender perspectives from the outset of its operations as an essential decision-making element for the deployment of its resources” (Hall, Granat and Daniel 2019). The governing instrument for the GCF also includes several references to gender and women in the Fund’s governance and operational modalities, including on stakeholder participation, and anchors a gender mainstreaming mandate prominently under its funding objectives and guiding principles. It mandates gender balance for its staff and Board (Schalatek 2019b).

GCF’s first Gender Policy and Gender Action Plan (2015-2017) was approved in March 2015. In November 2019, the GCF Board also approved an updated Gender Policy and Gender Action Plan (GAP 2020-2023). The policy (2019) reinforces GCF’s commitments to promote gender equality throughout its activities and institutional framework (GCF 2019a). The Gender Action Plan (2019b) highlights five priority areas for gender mainstreaming covering the following aspects:

**Priority Area 1: Governance**
Ensure gender parity and include gender competence in all key advisory and decision-making bodies, including the Accreditation Panel, the independent Technical Advisory Panel and the Secretariat. GCF will also help strengthen NDAs and focal points, and AEs for furthering the GAP through the Readiness and Preparatory Support Programme.

The GCF has a capacity-building component – its readiness and preparatory program – to help countries become ready to secure and manage climate finance, which can be leveraged for more gender-responsive climate finance.

In 2017, the GCF adopted the Simplified Approval Process Pilot Scheme (SAP) for small-scale activities (US$10 million or less requested from the GCF), and streamlined the review and approval process. NDAs and AEs can submit SAP concept notes.

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations can leverage these relationships to become partners in conceptualizing these smaller-scale initiatives.

**Priority Area 2: Competencies and Capacity Development**
Focus will be on increasing awareness on gender policy and GAP as well as training of NDAs/focal points, AEs, and delivery partners on how to interpret and operationalize GCF’s gender and climate change toolkit.

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations can engage with NDAs/focal points and accredited entities to provide capacity and technical expertise on gender, climate change and taking forward the GAP.

**Priority Area 3: Resource Allocation, Accessibility and Budgeting**
As part of this, GCF will require AEs to submit funding proposals that contain gender assessments and project-level gender action plans, which include implementation budgets.

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations can engage with accredited entities for undertaking gender analysis and provide capacity and technical expertise preparation of gender-responsive project proposals and project-level GAPs.

**Priority Area 4: Operational Procedures**
AEs will be required to undertake a mandatory initial gender assessment and develop a project-level gender action plan, complementary to the environmental and social safeguards (ESS) requirements.

Expectations for a gender assessment are part of both the concept note template and the full project proposal template guidance documents. The GCF project proposal template requires entities to describe the project’s gender programming; submit a gender and social assessment comprehensive enough to show the differentiated needs of men and women, boys and girls, the elderly, and other social groups; and often, include a gender and social inclusion action plan (GAP).
Also, gender-equitable and inclusive stakeholder engagement and consultations will need to be conducted and documented throughout the design and implementation of the project/programme.

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations should be part of and also facilitate such stakeholder consultations.

**Priority Area 5: Knowledge Generation and Communications**

There would be a particular focus on development and dissemination of communication material on gender and climate change for all stakeholders, including public outreach activities at national and grassroots levels. The GAP also envisions country-level multimedia campaign on gender and climate change.

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations can engage with country specific teams to be an active part of these campaigns and outreach activities.

The GCF also has many civil society groups following it, and their collective input has weight with decision-makers and implementers. Two active observers, elected by civil society to represent developing and developed countries, are able to speak at the Board meetings. Furthermore, the national-level machinery for the GCF should consult with and engage civil society, though experiences show that this engagement currently varies widely by country (WEDO 2017).

**Recommendations:** Women’s organizations can become official observers of GCF by applying for observer status when calls for accreditation are periodically issued.

**Women’s Organizations and Climate Finance: Additional Strategies and Examples for Engagement**

**Relationships with Environment and Climate Change Ministries** – Women’s Organizations are usually engaged with ministries of gender or women’s affairs. However, government units overseeing climate financing and the representatives to the funds are usually ministries of the environment or finance. It is important for women’s organizations to connect their work with the concerned ministries.

**Engage in Public Consultations** – Environment policies and laws in many countries/funds call for public consultative processes as part of environment and social safeguard processes. CSOs can map such processes in their own countries, especially understanding how and when the consultation is publicized. This information can then be used to disseminate the information on the consultative process among women, encouraging them to participate in these processes. CSOs can themselves also participate in these processes and highlight the gender concerns in upcoming projects.

**Join the NGO Networks and CSO platforms dealing with the different climate funds** – Civil society organizations following the work of the Adaptation Fund have formalized their work through the Adaptation Fund NGO Network. In 1995, the GEF CSO Network was established. The GEF regularly holds Consultation Meetings with the Network prior to the GEF Council Meetings. The GEF CSO Network also has regional meetings and Expanded Constituency Workshops to strengthen participant knowledge of GEF. There is also a GCF-CSO mailing list which supports CSOs to stay abreast of GCF developments, and reviewing and providing feedback on proposed policies and procedures as well as the funding proposals and applications for accreditation. Women’s organizations should join these given platforms to begin with.

**Creating a Climate Finance Community** – In April 2018, Prakriti Resources Center in Nepal hosted an “Orientation Program on Gender and Climate Finance,” with Climate and Development Dialogue Members. This program included information on climate change in Nepal, climate finance and the GCF, gender integration in climate change and Nepal’s NDA’s role. In May 2019, Climate Watch Thailand, and Thailand Climate Network came together in a CSO Dialogue with the Thai National Designated Authority, the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment. The purpose of the meeting was to discuss a CSO engagement mechanism so that we civil society organizations could be involved in GCF project preparation and monitoring. In August 2018, the Asia Pacific Forum on Women, Law and Development (APWLD) invited grassroots women’s organizations to apply for grants of up to US$3,000 to hold a workshop/dialogue between a variety of GCF national-level stakeholders (GCF board members, GCF secretariat, CSOs monitoring GCF, National Designated Authorities and Country Focal Points, project specific departments and organizations, Accredited and Direct Access Entities of GCF and other related NGOs advocating GCF). The grantees were supported to a regional training to catalyze their work. Organizing and participating in such events can enhance CSO understanding and capacity on how to engage with the GCF.
Ask the participants if they are aware of the adaptation finance mechanisms active in their countries and the entities that are implementing projects on behalf of the funds (as accredited entities, national implementing entities, etc. according to the fund). Ask them if they know who are the current gender focal points, and if they have interacted or been a part of any consultative processes. Ask them to share examples of any experience they have had of successfully engaging with any of the stakeholders for gender inclusion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUND</th>
<th>BANGLADESH</th>
<th>CAMBODIA</th>
<th>VIETNAM</th>
<th>INDIA</th>
<th>INDONESIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>&gt; Secretary, Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change</td>
<td>&gt; Deputy Director General, Ministry of Environment of the Kingdom of Cambodia</td>
<td>&gt; Deputy Minister, Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment</td>
<td>&gt; Joint Secretary, (Climate Change) Ministry of Environment and Forests</td>
<td>&gt; Director General of Climate Change, Ministry of the Environment and Forestry, Republic of Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD)</td>
<td>&gt; Partnership for Governance Reform in Indonesia (Kemitraan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>&gt; Gender focal point within the national climate change directorate/division</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Ministry of Environment, Forests and Climate Change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCF – DAES</td>
<td>&gt; IDCOL, PAKSF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; NABARD, SIDBI</td>
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MODULE 5_SESSION PLAN B

GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING (GRB) FOR CLIMATE FINANCE

OVERVIEW
At the end of this session, participants should become aware of the concept of Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB) and its applicability within the domestic climate finance sector. Possible GRB tools that can be applied in the sector are discussed in brief. The participants can explore these tools in detail from the references and suggested readings for application in advocacy for gender-responsive climate change commitments and budgets.

CONTENT
A. Overview of Gender-Responsive Budgeting
   a. Concept and Importance of Gender Mainstreaming in Budgets
   b. Progress on GRB in Asia
   c. CSO Engagement in GRB Processes
B. Application of GRB in Climate Finance
   a. Key Questions and Strategies for CSOs
   b. Five-Step Framework
C. GRB Tools and Techniques with Entry Points for CSOs
   a. Gender-Aware Policy Appraisal
   b. Gender Budget Statement
   c. Gender-Aware Beneficiary Assessment of Public Service Delivery and Budget Priorities
   d. Gender-Aware Public Incidence Analysis
   e. Sex-Disaggregated Analysis of the Budget on Time Use
   f. Participatory Budgeting
D. GRB for Climate Finance: Gender and Climate Budget Statement

MATERIALS
> PowerPoint presentations
> Whiteboard and marker pen
> Copy of Handouts
> Apparatus for film viewing on YouTube
> Chart papers and pens

OUTLINE
5 mins. Sharing of objectives, overview and session content.
5 mins. Video on "What is Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB)?" by UN Women available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mcuOcP2UYPs. Follow it up with the PowerPoint quiz (see Exercise 25 and Handout 23).
20 mins. PowerPoint quiz on "Concept and Importance of GRB (See Exercise 25 and Handout 23)."
20 mins. PowerPoint presentation on "Progress on GRB in Asia."
30 mins. Group discussion on "CSO Engagement in GRB Processes" using Indonesia Case Study (See Exercise 26 and Handout 24)
60 mins. > PowerPoint presentation on "Application of GRB in Climate Finance."
> PowerPoint presentation on "Five-Step Framework for GRB."
30 mins. PowerPoint presentation on "GRB Tools and Techniques with Entry Points for CSOs."
15 mins. PowerPoint presentation on "GRB for Climate Finance: Gender and Climate Budget Statement."
45 mins. Group exercise on "GRB and Climate Public Finance." (See Exercise 27.)

GUIDANCE NOTES
Share the session overview and content. Clarify that this is not a full-fledged GRB training but a capsule module for understanding the application of GRB in the CDDRR sector. Show this short video on "What is Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB)?" by UN Women available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mcuOcP2UYPs. Follow it up with the PowerPoint quiz (see Exercise 25 and Handout 23). Supplement the answers with additional information using technical content on "Concept and importance of GRB" in lecture mode. Sum up the discussion point with a quick introduction to the role of CSOs in the GRB process (see below). Divide the participants into small groups of four to five people and provide each group with the copy of the case study provided in Handout 24. Provide instructions for the next steps (see Exercise 26 and Handout 24). Let the participants come back to a plenary and encourage each group to share two key points/strategies/learnings that they think can be applied in their work.

Provide a brief overview of all the tools and techniques through PowerPoint. Make it clear that the purpose here is just to expose the participants to the basket of tools and not to actually learn the application of all tools. Clarify that they will learn one specific tool by the end of the session. Make the presentation in a way that explains the tool – name, description and techniques – while encouraging them to think about possible application in CDDRR sector. Do not place the examples in the PowerPoint; they can be added orally to supplement the participant inputs.
Overview of Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB)

CONCEPT OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING

Gender-Responsive Budgeting or GRB is an approach to systematically integrate gender equality objectives into government policy, planning, budgeting, monitoring, evaluation and audit. It aims to highlight the distributive impacts of the budget (revenue and expenditure) on women and men and adjusts (or reallocates) resources to ensure that both benefit equally from government resources (UN Women n.d.). This requires:

A. Construction of general budgets from a gender perspective.

GRB is based on the notion that budgeting is not a mere accounting exercise, but a key part of policy planning and implementation processes. GRB encompasses a comprehensive policy approach to support governments to integrate a gender perspective into the budget as the framework for public expenditure. GRB looks to influence all levels and stages of the budgetary process – planning/policy/programme formulation, assessment of needs of target groups, allocation of resources, implementation, impact assessment and prioritization of resources.

B. Analysis of actual government expenditure and revenue on gender-responsive policies and programmes. This includes how revenues are raised and from whom, and how expenditures address the needs/priorities of women and girls as compared to men and boys.

GRB analyzes government budgets and aid-finance to map the differential outreach and impact on women and girls compared to men and boys. It includes analysis of budget allocation, expenditures for gender equality priorities, as articulated in policies and programmes, and spending on women and girls. This cover tracking the utilization of allocated resources, impact analysis and beneficiary incidence analysis of public expenditure and policy from a gender perspective.

C. Providing for affirmative action to address the specific needs of women and other gender identities, if needed.

GRB highlights the sexual division of labour and recognizes the ways in which (mainly) women contribute to the economy with their unpaid labour in bearing, rearing and caring. GRB thus aims to make visible the needs, interests and economic contributions of individuals from different social groups and ensures that these are addressed in budgets.

A gender-responsive budget is the culmination of this analytical process. It is a budget that acknowledges gendered inequalities and patterns in the society and then allocates money to implement policies and programmes that will redress these to move towards a more gender equal society.

GRB can be an important research and advocacy tool for CSOs to map the gender-responsiveness of the existing climate funds at the national level and also analyze the overall and sectoral climate change adaptation policy commitments on gender and ensure that budget is allocated for the same within the national public expenditure framework.

CSOs can use GRB to answer three critical questions:

1. Are the CCDRR priorities of women and other vulnerable groups (especially those recognized by national climate policies) also recognized as budgetary priorities within the climate finance sector?
2. Does the money allocated for women and vulnerable groups actually reach them?
3. Even if it reaches them, does it positively shift gender roles and/or respond to women's needs and priorities?
GRB – Not Limited to Government Budgets

Gender-responsive budget exercises recognize that government budgets “command substantial resources and that the state is an influential force through its budgets in shaping gender outcomes both directly and indirectly” (Sharp 1999). GRB was conceived with a focus on government budgets, based on the rationale that: a) government budgets use public money; therefore b) must incorporate public accountability; and c) must be used for the public good, in particular to help those with the least and most in need of public resources/services. Government budgets have an essential role in the planning and control of economic and fiscal actions. Government budgets have many functions, but the three central economic and fiscal policy ones are:

- Allocation of resources – influences and determines the provision of public goods and services and has a huge impact on whether women’s needs are identified as priorities and financed via public budgets.
- Distribution of income and wealth – government budget decisions have a high potential to enable a ‘fair’ distribution of income and wealth between different groups of people and poor women need to be central in this re-distribution.
- Stabilization of the economy – government budgets often guide and provide direction toward establishing a certain level of employment, stability in prices, economic growth, environmental sustainability and external balance.

Given these critical functions of government budgets, GRB to date primarily focused on public budgets. However, there are reasons where allocations and contributions from other sources should also be considered.

In the context of climate finance, it is probably appropriate to distinguish between different forms of foreign funds, such as those from the global funds and those that come through bilateral and multilateral agencies alongside other Overseas Development Assistance (ODA). This is especially important considering that the foreign assistance is often set up as separate trusts/funds. These are separate channels established for the flow of donor funds; and these are not reflected in the standard government budgets. Bangladesh, for example, set up a separate channel even for its own climate change-related funds. If GRB is limited to government funds, then a major chunk of the climate funds may not be covered under the GRB analysis. In case of tracking climate finance, it is important that the scope of GRB is extended to all public investments and expenditures irrespective of the source.

PROGRESS ON GRB IN ASIA

In the Asia region, various GRB initiatives can be found in at least 22 countries at national, sub-national or community levels. Some countries, such as the Bangladesh, Nepal, Philippines, India and Indonesia, have sustained GRB approaches for more than 10 years, while others are more recent entrants (UNESCAP 2018; Kanwar 2016). Table 5-4 presents a timeline when various countries in South and South-East Asia have adopted GRB.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>SOUTH-EAST ASIA</th>
<th>SOUTH ASIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Thailand</td>
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A UN Women review of GRB in Asia Pacific (Kanwar 2016) provides additional information on the areas of progress and challenges to date in GRB implementation. These include: “Strong evidence of GRB improving both the quantity and quality of budgetary allocations for gender equality. Most importantly, GRB work improved systems to track allocations for gender equality over time.” Many countries, especially in South and South-East Asia, have seen much progress on GRB:

- Bangladesh, Indonesia, India and Nepal have been able to institutionalize GRB across multiple sectors, through incorporation of specific tools within their existing budgetary frameworks. These countries have also attempted to strengthen the accountability mechanisms by adopting scoring systems and linking gender budgets to audits strategies.
- The Philippines introduced a key mandate of 5 per cent Gender and Development (GAD) budget, continually revisiting and refining its core GRB methodology to increase allocations for gender equality, and to move beyond the 5 per cent to influence and mainstream gender into the other 95 per cent of public budget.
In Vietnam, concerned sectors are required to draw up action plans for implementation of the National Strategy on Gender Equality and additional funds are allocated for implementation of these plans.

On the other hand, some main challenges have centered on the availability and effectiveness of institutional mechanisms, and capacity gaps of key actors as well as critical contextual factors, including budget transparency and the political climate. Notwithstanding data limitations, many countries had still allocated less than 1 per cent of their national budget to women's machineries despite their substantial mandates on gender equality (Kanwar 2016).

If there is time and the participants are from only one country, you might want to discuss in more detail about the framework and status of GRB in the country. (Refer the country-specific annex for the same from “Gender-Responsive Budgeting in the Asia-Pacific Region – a status report” published by UN Women (2016) available at https://www2.unwomen.org/-/media/field%20office%20eseasia/docs/publications/2016/12/grb_report-for-web-s.pdf?la=en&vs=1520. This would be especially useful for an advanced level course.

Civil society organizations (CSOs) have an important role to play in promotion of GRB especially at the sectoral and local/community level.

- CSOs can undertake post-facto budget analysis from a gender perspective and disseminate it in simple formats for encouraging wider public debates.
- CSOs can train government officials on application of tools and techniques for undertaking GRB.
- CSOs can work with government officials by providing grassroots information and highlighting gender needs and women’s priorities for inclusion in the budget and also provide technical support on GRB.

- CSOs can support/conduct social accountability audits that can examine how public resources actually reached recipients and the extent to which these translated into necessary public services for women and men.
- CSOs can collaborate/liaise with parliamentarians to share gender budget analysis and support parliamentary scrutiny of budgets from a gender perspective.

Indonesia is one example where CSOs have demonstrated their importance in taking forward GRB. The Asia Foundation took a major lead in collaborating with CSOs and local government agencies to advance GRB especially at the sub-national level. Women’s groups such as Koalisi and Komnas Perempuan have undertaken advocacy work to propose specific budget allocations and reforms affecting health, justice and other sectors. The Indonesian Forum for Budget Transparency published a detailed description and examples of how to use the Gender Action Plan (GAP) and the GB Statement (Kanwar 2016).

**Discussion Point**

Ask the participants what they know of the GRB initiatives being undertaken in their country. What role do they think that the civil society can play in this process?
Application of GRB in Domestic Climate Finance

**KEY QUESTIONS AND STRATEGIES FOR CSO ENGAGEMENT**

GRB reinforces that gender issues can be found “everywhere” and that no sector and programme is actually gender-neutral. In CCDRR policies and programmes, which already have an established agreement concerning the differential needs and priorities of women and men, the application of GRB is thus not only relevant but also highly desirable.

At the outset, however, it is important to emphasize that the term GRB covers a very wide range of activities with different purposes and uses. Before applying GRB in climate finance, it is thus important to understand the key components of GRB and how it relates to climate finance. Table 5-5 brings together the key questions that need to be answered before application of GRB work in the climate finance sector.

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**TABLE 5-5: KEY QUESTIONS AND STRATEGIES FOR CSO ENGAGEMENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POINTS TO CONSIDER</th>
<th>EXAMPLES OF STRATEGIES FOR CSOS TO APPLY GRB IN THE DOMESTIC CLIMATE FINANCE SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| > Increasing allocations for women and different sub-groups. | > Undertake a gender analysis of specific sectors and their climate related actions and identify specific needs of different groups of women and men in the community.  
> Prioritize Gender-Just Solutions which can address the needs.  
> Identify current programmes/schemes which can fund the solutions and undertake advocacy with the government for increased funding thereof (or if no scheme exists, then for new scheme creation and then corresponding financing for these). |
| > Ensuring existing climate finance allocations are targeted to policies and programmes that promote gender equality and support various social groups. | > Map the national domestic climate finance architecture.  
> Identify Sectoral Ministries which hold most of the funds, received through donors or within the existing programme budgets.  
> Undertake a gender-aware assessment of the flow of funds of these programmes.  
> Identify gap areas and advocate with the sectoral ministry to take affirmative action to ensure equitable benefit sharing. |
| > Assessing the impact of the allocations on differential gender priorities and needs especially on how it promotes gender equality. | > Identify two to three climate programmes with high annual allocations.  
> Undertake gender-aware impact assessment.  
> Make public the findings of the gender impact assessment and use these to advocate for improved policies, programmes and gender budget allocations |

**KEY QUESTION: What would be the core objective of the GRB work?**

**Examples of strategies for CSOs to apply GRB in the domestic climate finance sector**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POINTS TO CONSIDER</th>
<th>EXAMPLES OF STRATEGIES FOR CSOS TO APPLY GRB IN THE DOMESTIC CLIMATE FINANCE SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| National Women’s Machinery  
> Have a gender mandate but less strong position for influencing climate finance. | > Work with the national women’s machinery for bringing gender into the planning and budgeting agenda and CCDRR framework.  
> Engage for implementation and reporting on CEDAW General Recommendation-37 (related to CCDRR). |
| Ministry of Finance  
> Has a greater influence but limited gender and/or CCDRR understanding. | > Engage with the existing Climate Investment and Public Expenditure Review (CIPER) mechanisms in the country and strengthen their capacities to undertake gender analysis of the budget.  
> Undertake a review of the existing allocations under the CIPER from a gender and climate change perspective and develop an annual Gender and Climate Budget Statement. Present the analysis in simplified format for public debate to influence the Ministry to bring these considerations in budget sanction processes.  
> Work with the Ministry to influence existing budget decision-making processes, to ensure gender and CCDRR perspective is brought within the deliberations and concerns addressed in the planning and approval stage itself.  
> Advocacy for providing institutional space for public engagement in budgeting processes and adoption of participatory budgeting with balanced gender representation. |
### TABLE 5-5: KEY QUESTIONS AND STRATEGIES FOR CSO ENGAGEMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POINTS TO CONSIDER</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Ministry of Environment and Forest and/or Climate Change  
> Has a climate mandate but limited gender understanding. | > If a national mandate and institutional mechanism for GRB exists in the country, engage for capacity-building of the Ministry on the subject.  
> Undertake research, develop policy briefs and toolkits for influencing the budget decisions.  
> If resources are available, provide technical assistance and coaching/mentoring support directly for implementing GRB and/or the Climate Change Gender Action Plan (CCGAP).  
> Engage for reporting on allocations for UNFCCC gender action plan. |
| Sectoral Line Ministries  
> Responsible for planning, budgeting and implementation of most programmes which impact gender and CCDRR but with limited capacities to integrate these perspectives.  
> Also, there are a number of Line Ministries which are recognized within the gender and CCDRR frameworks. | > Identify key sectoral Ministries with larger overall budgets and higher implications for addressing CCDRR issues.  
> Engage with select Ministries for budget analysis and capacity building from a gender and CCDRR perspective. |
| Parliamentarians  
> Can play a critical role in raising the issues in budget debates as well as in monitoring gender budgets via specialized committees. | > Sensitize Parliamentarians on the need for Gender-Responsive Budgeting, especially in the CCDRR sector.  
> Provide Parliamentarians with updates on budget and gender analysis to take forward in national budget and policy discussions. |

**KEY QUESTION: Which Tools are to be employed and who will do what?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POINTS TO CONSIDER</th>
<th>EXAMPLES OF STRATEGIES FOR CSOS TO APPLY GRB IN THE DOMESTIC CLIMATE FINANCE SECTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| > There are many GRB tools and entry points (discussed in the next section) which can be applied, keeping in mind the country context. A decision must be made about which tools to apply, what will be produced and who will undertake the analysis. | > Your core objective and key stakeholder(s) would generally define which tools are most suitable.  
> The Gender Aware Policy tool is the most effective to begin with for two reasons: One, CSOs are experienced in policy analysis; application of GRB lens strengthens it with budgetary information. Second, most countries have Climate Change Policies/Strategies/Plans for specific periods; it is easier to be involved and influence the updating process if the background analysis is already done.  
> At the start, CSOs can also engage in gender impact assessments which assess the genderresponsiveness of a proposed policy prior to its implementation.  
> However, if the Gender Aware Policy Tool is to be adopted, it would be important to also consider the following: i) who would do the analysis, whether it would be a consultant-driven exercise or a participatory process with involvement of the policy makers; ii) how would the analysis be undertaken, would a more simplistic approach of checklist be used or a more elaborate consultative approach be undertaken; and iii) how would the results of the analysis be produced for wider audience to reflect on.  
> The Gender and Climate Budget Statement can be used as the second step to understand the flow of funds for the gender commitments in the CCDRR policies. Such a statement also provides a macro and micro level picture and has the most potential to enable media and public debate around the issue. However, if the Gender and Climate Budget Statement is the adopted tool, one would need to consider the following: i) who does the coding; ii) who provides the information for the coding; iii) what format will be used; and iv) when will the statement be produced.  
> Another consideration here would also be to understand whether the exercise would involve publishing of the statement in public domain and whether it would be published as a shadow report or pursued within the government systems. The latter makes a GB Statement a strong tool to bring about transparency on gender budgets.  
> For smaller and/or community-based organization, participatory budgeting tools will be more relevant. |
FIVE-STEP FRAMEWORK ON GRB

The GRB Five-Step framework by Debbie Budlender (2000) is used extensively (and adapted) in many countries around the world. While it is a useful framework for inside government initiatives in countries that are implementing programme or performance budgeting, it can also be a useful tool for CSOs while undertaking GRB analysis of a particular sector or line ministry (Budlender 2000). In practice, a weakness in this approach is the limited ability to move beyond the second step. Generally, the researchers involved are practised in describing the situation and discussing policy, but the sections on the budget are brief and often weak.

STEP 1 – Analyzing the Situation of Women, Men, Girls and Boys, in the Given Sector
At the core of the five-step framework is mapping the situation of women, men, girls and boys in any given sector or those served by a particular Policy or Ministry. The quantitative information gathering can be done through a combination of national (local) and international sources that include international compendiums, cross-country statistical data, national development plans, government policy documents, official government statistics, administrative data and independent research. Select gender analysis tools discussed in Module 3 can also be used by CSOs for collecting qualitative information on gender bias and gender constraints/barriers. It is also important that in addition to the gender data, information on other dimensions of disadvantage (age, ability, ethnicity, class, social group, others) are also considered when collecting information to assess the gender situation.

Recommendations: It is very important for CSOs to define the scope of the sector/ministry while undertaking the analysis. A limited scope helps generate better quality data and more focused information. A simple rule of thumb can be to identify the target group of the policy/ministry being served. Identify a key problem faced by this target group and use the Causes, Consequences and Solutions framework for identification of parameters for the situational analysis.

STEP 2 – Assessing the Gender-Responsiveness of Policies
The objective of this step is to assess whether a particular policy or programme is likely to increase gender inequalities described in the previous step, leave them, or decrease them. Some countries have overall gender policies that state how they see the gender inequalities in the country and what they plan to do to address them. Some countries go further to develop sector-specific gender policies that perform a similar function for that specific sector. Whether or not there is a gender policy, it is also important to look at the general, mainstream policies both for the sector and for development as a whole. The mainstream policies must be examined for what they say, either implicitly or explicitly, about gender. They must also be looked at to see whether they contradict the gender policies in any way.

Recommendations: Look at the objectives of the policy/programme and identify those which have an explicit gender goal and those which need to be rephrased to include gender concerns identified in Step 1 above. Match the activities in the policy/programme document to the objectives, and assess if the gender objectives are accompanied by necessary activity plans. Make a strong link between the activities and the resource allocation especially on areas of affirmative action.

STEP 3 – Assessing Budget Allocations
The main aim in this step is to see whether the budget allocations are adequate to implement the gender-responsive policy/programme objectives and activities identified in the second step. The adequacy needs to be analyzed in two ways:

a. Is the amount allocated for the activity sufficient to reach the target numbers as desired by the policy/programme?
b. Is the unit cost for the activity sufficient to ensure that it is undertaken in an effective manner?

The main source for this information is the budget book itself, especially if they contain information about objectives and indicators. Some governments also publish documents (annual reports/performance budgets/outcome budgets) that discuss the performance of the different ministries over the past year and plans for the coming year. These, together with the budget speech, assist in the analysis of the budget figures.

Another important parameter to assess here is the actual expenditure made in the previous years, compared against the budgetary allocations. Often, gender-specific activities do not get specific attention in the implementation stage, and the budget left unutilized until late in the year is appropriated to another head. Exploring the reasons for the un-utilization will also further help in identifying the gaps in the implementation and service delivery challenges.
**Recommendations:** It is important to assess adequacy of budgets in terms of quantum of allocations, as often, the total allocation can be very meagre in comparison to what is actually required to address the concerns of a significant population. Further, it is also important to review the unit costs specially to understand the under-allocations for women’s unpaid work. Many programmes do not take into account the contribution of women’s unpaid work to ensure effective implementation. It is important that this is budgeted and compensated.

**STEP 4 – Monitoring Spending and Service Delivery**
The types of data needed for gender budget analysis can be divided into two broad categories:
- ‘Inputs’ measure what is put into the process (e.g., the amount of money budgeted or the staff allocated for a particular programme or project).
- ‘Outputs’ measure direct products of a particular programme or project (e.g., the number of beneficiaries receiving medical services or the number of clinics built).

**Recommendations:** Assess whether the budget allocated is used effectively to achieve the planned outcomes. Review the physical and financial achievements against the plan, and if the money was spent as desired. Especially review the proportion of beneficiaries from different genders and social groups, to see if it is in line with the Policy and population parameters. If any section is not adequately covered, analyze the cause of the same, as they could often insights requiring budget revisions.

**STEP 5 – Assessing Impacts/Outcomes**
Outcomes measure the results of the policy or programme (e.g., increased health, educational levels and availability of time). While this is difficult in the short run, verify whether the gender objectives/outcomes of the policy/programme identified in step 2 have been achieved.

Table 5-6 presents an example of the application of the Five-Step framework in the water sector, bringing together examples of indicators/parameters that need to be assessed for each step.

---

**TABLE 5-6: FIVE-STEP FRAMEWORK ON GRB**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS</th>
<th>&gt; What are the gender dimensions of water usage patterns (productive/reproductive) within the household and in the village/city?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Are there any gender dimensions for the same?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; What is the average time spent by men and women, boys and girls across different social groups on collecting water?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; What is the incidence of water-borne diseases among men and women?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POLICY/PROGRAMME ANALYSIS</td>
<td>&gt; Does the water policy recognize the gender patterns in water usage?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Which water usages patterns are prioritized for interventions within the Policy?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Based on the existing water usage patterns, whose water concerns are more likely to be addressed?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Does it have an objective to reduce the time spent on water collection?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; What are the water management solutions identified in the policy?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Are there enough solutions for both productive and reproductive water usage for both genders and across social groups?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; What are the activities planned in the policy which will reduce gender inequality within the water sector?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Is there any policy commitment to gender balance in water management institutions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Are there any gender dimensions in the changing water use patterns, user fees or privatization policies (if any) promoted by the policy?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUDGET ANALYSIS</td>
<td>&gt; What is the share (percentage) of the budgetary allocations approved across various water usage patterns?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Is the budget distributed adequately to address the differentiated gender and social needs?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; What is the allocation between infrastructure, management and maintenance activities, and who would benefit more from the current allocation status?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; What is the allocation for the activities identified above which would address gender and social concerns?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Is the actual allocation as intended in the policy?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Is the allocated money spent on the desired activities? If not, what were the causes thereof?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are many tools and techniques which are used as part of GRB analysis, the most prominent being the seven tools suggested by Diane Elson. In the coming section, several tools with corresponding examples and potential application in the Climate Finance sector were discussed in brief.

### GRB Tools and Techniques with Entry Points for CSOs

There are many tools and techniques which are used as part of GRB analysis, the most prominent being the seven tools suggested by Diane Elson. In the coming section, several tools with corresponding examples and potential application in the Climate Finance sector were discussed in brief.

#### Table 5-6: Five-Step Framework on GRB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Output Analysis</th>
<th>Outcome Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Is there enough budget allocation for activities addressing the needs of women and other social groups?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Is there any budgetary allocation for communication directed at addressing changing gender roles in the water sector?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Was the communication budget targeted for changing gender roles spent accordingly?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Was the maintenance budget allocated released and spent? Who received the money – people who were actually involved in the maintenance or the management committee?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Did women in the water management committees have an adequate say in the budget allocations?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Did women receive equal and fair opportunity for employment during the implementation? What was the share of male and female wages?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; How many families were provided access to water (productive/reproductive)?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; What is the satisfaction level of men and women across social groups with the quality of the water supply service?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Did it reduce the time spent by women and men on water collection?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Did it provide any economic benefit to women and men?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**For advanced course, ask the participants to select another theme and brainstorm on possible indicators/parameters to be assessed for each of the five steps.**

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**GRB Tools and Techniques with Entry Points for CSOs**

There are many tools and techniques which are used as part of GRB analysis, the most prominent being the seven tools suggested by Diane Elson. In the coming section, several tools with corresponding examples and potential application in the Climate Finance sector were discussed in brief.

#### Table 5-7: GRB Tools and Techniques

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Techniques</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Involves an analysis which reflects an understanding of the policy’s gendered implications by:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Identifying the implicit and explicit gender issues;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Identifying the allied resource allocations;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Making strong link between policy and resource allocation; and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Assessing whether the policy will continue or change existing inequalities between men and women (and groups of men and women) and patterns of gender relations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; A checklist of questions for assessing the policy, including checking the gendered assumptions of the policy against the evidence;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; A discussion of events, activities and associated budget allocations generated by the policy; and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; Checking the policy against its stated aims and performance objectives.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**APPLICATION IN CCDRR**

Many countries have a legislation, policy or strategy document on CCDRR. Even without these, there are various policy commitments made as part of NDCs, SDGs and Sendai Framework. A gender-aware policy analysis will help highlight the gender commitments (or lack thereof) in these; while also helping track which of the gender commitments remain on paper and which are backed by adequate resource allocation.

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TABLE 5-7: GRB TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES

GRB TOOL: GENDER BUDGET STATEMENT

DESCRIPTION
A GB Statement is usually described as a gender-specific accountability document produced by a government agency to show what its programmes and budgets are doing in respect to gender. Such statements are typically tabled in the parliament, often together with the standard budget documents. These documents are meant to inform budget prioritization. These statements may be made publicly available in full, or the information they contain may appear only in summarized form in documents tabled in parliament or made publicly available in other ways. In some countries, however, the information in these gender budget statements may not be made public at all.

TECHNIQUES
A GB Statement can be quantitative as well as qualitative in nature. It is generally a template attached to the call circular for line ministries and departments to provide information on gender budgets. Some GB Statements are designed to include questions on gender concerns and priorities within the ministry/department, while others include categorization of Government Budgetary Estimates/Allocations/Expenditures; or a combination of both.

APPLICATION IN CCDRR
The GB Statement template and categorization can be easily applied to CCDRR finance within the country, especially the Climate Investment and Public Expenditure Review (CIPER) documents.

GRB TOOL: GENDER-AWARE BENEFICIARY ASSESSMENT OF PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY AND BUDGET PRIORITIES

DESCRIPTION
This tool aims to collect and analyze opinions of women and men on the extent to which government policies, programmes and services reflect their priorities and meet their needs. These responses are analyzed in order to assess the extent to which a government’s current budget meets the priorities of women and men. In essence, women and men participants in beneficiary studies are being “asked how, if they were the Finance Minister, they would slice the national budgetary pie.” For example, the perceptions of women and men regarding the quality of services being provided to them by the sub-centres or primary health centres in a block/district could be ascertained using this tool. The limitations of this tool are: i) it captures only the perception of the beneficiary and not the non-user or the service provider; ii) it is time consuming; and iii) it usually addresses only one service at a time.

TECHNIQUES
> Opinion polls,
> Attitude surveys,
> Participatory rapid appraisal,
> Focus group discussions,
> Conversational interviewing, and
> Preference ranking and scoring.

APPLICATION IN CCDRR
Gender-aware beneficiary assessment can also become an important tool especially for research organizations working on CCDRR. Regular investigation of people’s perception (sex-disaggregated) on the budgetary allocations made for CCDRR especially those reported in the Climate Investment and Public Expenditure Reviews (CIPER) can become a strong advocacy tool for engendering budgetary resources for CCDRR.

GRB TOOL: GENDER-AWARE PUBLIC EXPENDITURE INCIDENCE ANALYSIS

DESCRIPTION
The objective of this tool is to analyze the extent to which men and women benefit from expenditure on publicly-provided services. Statistical analysis is done to determine the distribution of expenditure between men, women, girls and boys. This analysis can be done for any sector or programme. The approach requires the following: i) calculating the unit cost of providing a service (e.g., the cost of running a primary school for one year), ii) calculating the number of girls and boys who benefited; and iii) working out the benefit incidence by multiplying the unit cost by the number of girls and again by the number of boys.

TECHNIQUES
This quantitative tool reveals what was the historical gender-specific distribution of benefits from public services. It is particularly valuable for establishing baselines and setting up monitoring systems. This requires the measurement of:
1. the unit costs of providing a particular service – e.g., the costs of providing a primary school place for one year;
2. the number of units utilized by men and women, boys and girls.

Benefit incidence can then be calculated as the value of the unit costs multiplied by the number of units utilized by the relevant individuals. The benefit incidence depends upon: i) the allocation of public expenditure in providing public services; and ii) the behaviour of households in utilizing public services. For example, the incidence of benefit of public expenditure on primary education is i) for girls, the value of public spending on primary education multiplied by the ratio of girls’ enrolment in primary school to total enrolment in primary school; ii) for boys, the value of public spending on primary education multiplied by the ratio of boys’ enrolment to total enrolment in primary school. The limitation of this tool is that it assumes that the cost of a service for male and female, rich and poor, rural and urban is the same. It can only be done for services targeting individual beneficiaries.
Participatory Budgeting (PB) is a process that lets citizens decide how certain budget funds should be allocated. By including the public in decision-making, participatory budgeting has the potential: i) to be an agent of accountability, helping to demystify government budgets; ii) to turn voters into active contributors and informed monitors of government progress; and iii) to support efforts for proactive budget disclosure. As it stands today, PB helps communities explore many of these opportunities, and it serves as an important gateway to engagement with local government for a wide group of residents, especially the traditionally-underrepresented groups. It’s a transformative process, one that may cost governments almost nothing, since it just reallocates existing funds. There are several forms of participatory budgeting in the world, but each form aims at ensuring citizen’s participation in the allocation of public funds.

There are different processes which can be used for PB:

- The government allocates a certain percentage of the budget to a given group or geography to plan and propose activities within that range.
- The government invites proposals and demands from the citizens before its budgeting exercise, and adequate emphasis is laid on, including the people’s demands.

PB can be specifically included as part of Local Adaptation Plans and Urban Resilience Planning exercises. It is important to note here that not all PB initiatives are gender-responsive and focus on reaching out to women as stakeholders in the process. Providing them a platform and space to voice their demands and prioritization of their needs and demands within PB processes are very much required.
GRB for Climate Finance: Gender and Climate Budget Statement

Another important GRB tool which can be used in climate finance is the Gender Budget Statement (GBS). The GBS is used to disaggregate projected expenditure into gender-relevant categories. This involves stating the expected gender implications of the total national budget (public expenditure and taxation) and/or the gender implications of expenditure by sectoral ministries. The statement can be constructed on the basis of any of the above tools. It can also be constructed according to pre-set categories. Some examples of GBS in Asia from Budlender (2015) are highlighted next:

THE FIVE-SCALE GRADING OF GOVERNMENT OF BANGLADESH (GOB)

The GoB requires that agencies assess all government programs and projects against the expected contribution to four criteria that represent different aspects of women’s empowerment, namely:
1. social rights and voice;
2. employment;
3. productivity; and
4. access to resources, services, and information.

Programs and projects that are assessed as having a direct impact on women’s empowerment must then be rated for the strength of the impact on a scale of “negative,” “zero,” “low,” “medium” and “high.” Instructions provided to ministries in the budget call circular include “standards” (or criteria) for assessing the gender impact and assigning a percentage.

Along with this quantitative classification, the gender budget report also follows a well-designed framework addressing the following issues:

- The roles and responsibilities of the ministry/division;
- How the activities of the ministry/division impact women’s advancement and rights;
- Who benefits or may benefit from these activities and how, in a gender-disaggregated manner;
- How the strategic objectives of the ministries/divisions are related to women’s advancement and rights;
- Information on gender-disaggregated apportionment of budgetary allocation of the ministry/division;
- A description of the ministry/division’s success in addressing women’s advancement; and

- Recommendations on strengthening the roles of the ministries/divisions in undertaking activities for women’s advancement.

Each ministry submits its budget and the Finance Ministry tables the analysis titled “Women’s Advancement and Rights” alongside the annual budget. The report reviews how the ministries have dealt with women’s advancement and rights issues in the budget, with different sections highlighting composite progress for the relevant Ministries. Section 1 of the composite report discusses the budgets of seven ministries under the heading “Empowering Women and Enhancing their Social Dignity.” Section 2 discusses the budgets of nine ministries grouped under the heading “Improving Women’s Productivity and Participation in the Labour Market.” Finally, Section 3 discusses the budgets of 24 ministries grouped under the heading “Widening Women’s Effective Access to General Public Sector Services and Income Generating Activities.” The ministries’ individual gender budgeting reports are also available on the Ministry of Finance’s website.

THE TWO-WAY CATEGORIZATION OF GOVERNMENT OF INDIA (GOI)

The GOI currently requires government official to use a two-category format as the basis of presentation in the Gender Budget Statement in the Union Budget. The two categories cover:
1. Women-Specific allocations, where 100 per cent of the allocation is meant for women.
2. Pro-Women allocations where 30-99 per cent of the allocation is meant for women.

The programmes and schemes are classified in these two categories by the respective line ministries/departments and submitted to the Ministry of Finance. It is then collated as a separate Gender Budget Statement and placed before the Parliament along with the Union Budget.

THE GOVERNMENT OF NEPAL (GON) SCORING EXERCISE

The Nepal GRB assessment gives ministry allocations a value, on a scale of 0-100 points, according to the extent to which they fostered gender equality. Three categories of impact are utilized:
1. expenditures directly benefitting women (scoring 50 to 100 points);
2. expenditures indirectly benefitting women (scoring between 20 and 50); and
3. neutral expenditures (if the program/initiative scored below 20).
Three GRB-related qualitative indicators and associated weights have been incorporated in the electronic budgetary tools. The scoring is undertaken by the planning unit within each ministry together with the Ministry of Finance. To assist the officials in their task, a summary framework of generic GRB indicators and sub-indicators was developed; and a manual (in Nepali language) was produced to explain the indicators and sub-indicators and provide examples.

GBS IN INDONESIA

The Indonesia GBS approach builds on the performance budgeting system introduced into the central government in Indonesia in 2010. For GRB, each ministry is required to select a number of activities (kegiatan) or sub-activities considered especially important from a gender perspective, and to describe them using a set format. The headings for the format are sub-activity, objectives, situation analysis, planned activities, budget for activities, and input, output, and outcome indicators. The headings closely follow the standard items contained in the main budget documents. The activities chosen should fall into one of two categories: i) service delivery, for which technical ministries are primarily responsible; or ii) capacity-building and gender advocacy, which is primarily the responsibility of coordinating ministries. The second category was included as otherwise ministries, such as MOWE and the Ministry of Finance, would have struggled to find relevant activities for the gender budget statement.

Discussion Point

Ask the participants to reflect on what could be the best document to begin the GCBS analysis in their respective countries.

Facilitator Clues

It would be best for the CSOs, especially women's organizations, to use the Climate Investment and Public Expenditure Review (CIPER) documents to develop the GCBS. Most CIPERs already have the climate relation assessed, and one could begin by classifying the already identified programmes and budgetary allocations in terms of their gender-responsiveness. A very quick analysis can be to look at the programmes covered and classify them into three categories: i) those addressing practical gender needs; ii) those addressing strategic gender needs; and iii) those whose impact/relevance cannot be established. As one gets into the analysis, in-depth categorizations as mentioned in the box above can be analyzed.

Another way of doing this would be to begin with select sectors, 10 to 12 line ministries identified based on two criteria: i) their relevance (or ease of analysis) for women's needs and priorities; and ii) their share of the climate budget and investments. Working with select sectors (especially those which the organization already has some insights and expertise on) helps undertake a more nuanced GRB analysis.
EXERCISE 25: GLOBAL CLIMATE FINANCE ARCHITECTURE MAPPING

The key objective of this exercise is to give the participants an overview of the various Climate Finance Funds functional at national, regional and global levels.

Materials Required:
Whiteboard and marker pens; copies of Handout 21.

Process:
Step 1: Begin with viewing of short films by Heinrich-Böll-Stiftung Washington, DC on "What is Climate Finance" available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_Y9vM4e9XaM.

Step 2: Divide the participants into pairs. Give each pair any of the fund details from Handout 21. Ask them to go through these and discuss. Give them 10 minutes for this.

Step 3: Tell them to imagine that they are the fund representative and will be presenting about their fund at a national level meeting on climate finance. Give them five more minutes to prepare for this.

Step 4: Get all participants in a plenary and ask each pair to share the key features of their fund. At the end, ask the participants to reflect on the following:
  > Which are dedicated climate funds?
  > Which of the funds have more focus on adaptation and which have more on mitigation?
  > Which of the funds have most scope for CSO engagement?

Step 5: Show the film on Gender-Responsive Climate Finance available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YKmvdiXlDFI. Ask the participants to reflect on "which funds they think have more potential for gender mainstreaming."

Learning Output: End the session with a quick recap of all the funds.

EXERCISE 26: ADAPTATION PROJECT GENDER ANALYSIS

The key objective of this exercise is to give the participants a feel of how the different types of adaptation funds function and get them interested enough to want to explore the fund websites in more detail. The exercise also provides an opportunity for the participants to explore how women's organizations can be involved as observers and reviewers.

Materials Required:
Whiteboard and marker pens.

Process:
Step 1: Divide the participants into groups of five to six people and provide each group with a copy of Handout 22 (Examples of different climate change adaptation projects).

Step 2: Ask them to read the handout and understand the assigned exercise. Tell them that they will need to use their own knowledge, and to explore the internet for more information.

Step 3: Give around 30 minutes for the participants to work on this as a group. Discuss the responses in a plenary keeping the following considerations in mind:
  > Ask one group to answer any one question, with the rest of the groups adding information.
  > Focus more on the gender observations.
  > Do not spend much time on deliberation of the answers. The purpose of the exercise is not to get the right answers but for the participants to understand the process.

Step 4: Discuss the answers. Ask them what they learned from the process. Focus the discussion around the following points:
1. Which of the websites could they easily locate and navigate and which were difficult?
2. What sections of the website were most useful?
3. Did they find any additional information about any fund that was not included in the presentation?
4. Which funds do they see their organization associating more with and what could be the possible ways of engagement?

Learning Output: End the session with a quick response from all participants on what they have learned from the case studies and the processes that can be applied into their work.
**EXERCISE 27: POWERPOINT QUIZ ON GRB**

The key objective of this exercise is to recap the concepts of GRB viewed by the participants in the short film on GRB, and to increase their understanding on the nuances of some of the concepts.

**Materials Required:**
PowerPoint Presentation (see Handout 23).

**Process:**

**Step 1:** Divide the participants into two groups: “Apples” and “Oranges” (preferably without disturbing the sitting arrangement).

**Step 2:** Inform them that they will now be playing a quiz game. You will be showing a question related to the film that they have just seen on the PowerPoint slide. Then alternatively, each group will have to answer the question.

**Step 3:** Tell them that the quiz will have two options. The group will receive 25 points for each correct answer if they choose option 1 and 10 points for each correct answer if they choose option 2. The two options are:
- **Option 1:** Answer the question without looking at clues and choices.
- **Option 2:** Answer with the help of clues and choices.

The group can choose an option after seeing the question. If a question passes to the next group, they also get 10 points for the same.

**Step 4:** Run through each of the slides, asking the questions and putting up the scores on the board. As the participants answer, they may supplement their responses with additional information and explanation. Calculate the total and declare the winning group.

**Learning Output:** Conclude by revisiting the concept of GRB based on the technical note. “GRB is an approach to systematically integrate gender equality objectives into government policy, planning, budgeting, monitoring, evaluation and audit. It aims to highlight the distributive impacts of the budget (revenue and expenditure) on women and men and adjusts (or reallocates) resources to ensure that both benefit equally from government resources (UN Women n.d.).”

**EXERCISE 28: CASE STUDY ON ENGAGEMENT OF CSO IN GRB**

The key objective of this exercise is for the participants to be able to identify strategies and scope of involvement for CSOs in the GRB work.

**Materials Required:**
Copies of Handout 24.

**Process:**

**Step 1:** Divide the participants into groups of four to five. If from multiple countries, participants from the same country should be put together.

**Step 2:** Provide each group with a copy of Handout 2 and ask them to discuss the contents. Provide around five minutes to read the case and discuss in general.

**Step 3:** Ask them to discuss specifically on the following:
- a. What are the key strategies that were deployed for CSO engagement in the GRB process?
- b. Who were the key actors, and what types of partnerships were developed?
- c. What do they envisage as the key enabling factors and challenges that might have been faced by the CSOs in undertaking this exercise?

**Step 4:** Provide each group around 15 minutes to discuss these questions. Bring them to the plenary and ask each group to share one key point related to each of the questions.

**Learning Output:** Conclude by asking them to share two key learning points from the case study which they think can be applied in their own work.
EXERCISE 29: GRB AND CLIMATE PUBLIC FINANCE ANALYSIS

The key objective of this exercise is to get the participants to use GRB to map the domestic funding landscape in their country and apply the GRB lens to Climate Public Finance as part of their advocacy work.

Materials Required:
White sheets and post-its, laptops (one for each group) for data analysis.

Process:
Step 1: Divide the participants into groups of five to six. If from multiple countries, participants from the same country should be put together.

Step 2: Provide each group with the program budget document of any one ministry from their country in Excel (see country budget documents in website).

Step 3: Ask the group to note on the Post-its all the programmes that they have some information on or understanding of. (One post-it note should have only one programme.)

Step 4: Ask the group to classify all the programmes on a climate and gender impact matrix as shown below:

**FIGURE 5-9: GENDER IMPACT MATRIX TEMPLATE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climate Impact</th>
<th>Gender Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HIGH</td>
<td>HIGH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIGH</td>
<td>LOW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOW</td>
<td>LOW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOW</td>
<td>HIGH</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 5: Allot around 15 minutes for this exercise, and then ask the participants to classify the ministry budget according to the three categories:
- **Highly Relevant**: Those which fall under High climate and High gender impact;
- **Relevant**: Those which fall under High climate but Low gender impact or High gender but Low climate impact;
- **Not Relevant**: Those which fall under Low gender and Low climate impact.

Step 6: Ask them to identify two programmes with the highest budget allocations from each of the categories and define their climate and gender relevance using the following checklist:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q1</th>
<th>Is there a direct link of the programme to the national climate policy?</th>
<th>Yes/No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Will the programme address climate change adaptation directly?</td>
<td>Yes/No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Will the activity decrease women’s workload and time poverty?</td>
<td>Yes/No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>Will it increase women’s income and livelihood?</td>
<td>Yes/No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>Are women included in the planning, decision-making or capacity-building?</td>
<td>Yes/No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 7: Ask them to classify these programmes according to relevance to Gender and CCDRR. If three or more of the above are answered with a Yes, then "Highly relevant", if two are Yes, then “Relevant”; and if less than two then as "Not relevant."

Step 8: Ask them to reassess the total budget in three categories:
1. Highly relevant
2. Relevant

Step 9: Ask them to analyze the difference in the two categorizations and what they learned from the same.

Learning Output: Conclude by telling them that these are just simple ways of categorization and they can build on the process to actually undertake in-depth analysis within select departments to develop their own Gender and Climate Budget Statements.
### TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPLETE THE STATEMENT</th>
<th>✓ TICK YOUR SELECTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Through the Copenhagen Accord, developed countries pledged...</td>
<td>*US$30 billion annually by 2020.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Standing Committee on Finance is tasked with...</td>
<td>preparing a biennial assessment of climate finance flows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedicated climate funding mechanisms of UNFCCC have a mandate to...</td>
<td>*provide more funds for mitigation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engendering climate finance requires...</td>
<td>systematically taking women’s differentiated needs, knowledge, experiences and priorities into account in all climate responses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readiness, Innovation and Learning Grants can be used for...</td>
<td>strengthening the capacity of national implementing entities to receive and manage climate financing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB)...</td>
<td>is a systematic integration of equality objectives into government policy, planning and budgeting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRB is adopted by...</td>
<td>more than 20 countries in Asia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Items in red are the incorrect answers.

### SUGGESTED READINGS:

### Multilateral Channels for Climate Finance:
> Often break from contributor country-dominated governance structures, typical in development finance institutions.
> Gives developing country governments greater voice and representation in decision-making.
> Over the years, various steps to increase inclusion and accountability in multilateral climate fund governance were taken, including creating a role for non-governmental stakeholders as observers to fund meetings.

### A. Global Environment Facility (GEF)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>UNFCCC Financial Mechanism. Supports multiple conventions. Its decision-making body is the GEF Council. The GEF now includes representation from 182 member-governments and works with 18 implementing partners, acting as a secretariat to funnel money to these organizations. GEF also provides funding for other environmental projects like bio-diversity and land use along with climate change.</th>
<th>Fund Base and Size</th>
<th>6th replenishment (2014-2018): 30 donor countries pledged US$1.26 billion for climate change.</th>
<th>Projects Supported</th>
<th>Projects approved by the GEF range in size, from up to US$1 million for “enabling activities,” between US$1-2 million for “medium-sized” projects, and over US$2 million for “full sized.” As of December 2019, through the fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh Trust Fund, GEF approved over 750 projects in the focal area of climate change amounting to US$2.8 billion.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year: 1991</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### A1. Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>UNFCCC mechanism administered by GEF to support national adaptation plan development and implementation, although largely through smaller scale projects.</th>
<th>Fund Base and Size</th>
<th>Country ceiling for funding of US$20 million.</th>
<th>Projects Supported</th>
<th>As of December 2019, the LDCF made cash transfers to projects of US$34 million.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year: 2001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### A2. Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>UNFCCC mechanism administered by GEF to support national adaptation plan development and implementation, although largely through smaller scale projects.</th>
<th>Fund Base and Size</th>
<th>Country ceiling for funding of US$20 million.</th>
<th>Projects Supported</th>
<th>As of December 2019, the SCCF made cash transfers of US$181 million.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year: 2001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### B. Adaptation Fund (AF)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>UNFCCC mechanism, which, as of 1 January 2019, also started serving the Paris Agreement, in line with the newly-approved 5-year Medium-Term Strategy 2018-2022, based on pillars of Action, Innovation, and Knowledge and Sharing. The fund is managed by the AF Board which meets twice a year. Provides direct access to climate finance for developing countries through accredited National Implementing Entities that are able to meet agreed fiduciary as well as environmental, social and gender standards.</th>
<th>Fund Base and Size</th>
<th>Financed through a 2 per cent levy on the sale of emission credits from the Clean Development Mechanism of the Kyoto Protocol, along with developed country grant contributions.</th>
<th>Projects Supported</th>
<th>As of 30 June 2019, 84 projects for a total amount of US$560.6 million were approved for funding. In addition, the Board approved 56 project formulation grants for a total of US$2.3 million. Sixty projects are currently under implementation, for a total grant amount of US$384.8 million. A total of US$350.20 million (62.8 per cent of approved amount) were transferred to implementing entities.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year: 2011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

13. The information is compiled from respective websites of the funds.
14. As opposed to working solely through UN agencies or Multilateral Development Banks (MDBs) as multilateral implementing agencies.
### BRIEF OVERVIEW OF VARIOUS CLIMATE FINANCE MECHANISMS

#### C. GREEN CLIMATE FUND (GCF)

| TYPE | UNFCCC mechanism also mandated to serve the Paris Agreement. Expected to be the primary channel for international public climate finance and is the largest fund by amount of available and anticipated funding. A commitment to a 50:50 balance between adaptation and mitigation. Developing countries can access the GCF through Multilateral Development Banks (MDBs), international commercial banks and UN agencies, as well as directly through accredited National, Regional and Sub-National Implementing Entities. The GCF was founded with a strong emphasis on the principle of country ownership. Each country has a national designated authority (NDA), often a ministry of finance or environment, with a designated focal point to serve as the representative between an NDA and GCF. |
| PROJECTS SUPPORTED | By October 2019, the implementing partner network of the GCF grew to 95 Accredited Entities. GCF already supported 126 developing countries in building readiness to implement climate finance and committed US$5.21 billion for 111 projects in 99 countries. A total of 65 projects valued at US$2.82 billion in GCF funding are under implementation and helping developing countries to transform their climate ambitions into action. |
| YEAR: | 2010 |

#### D. CLIMATE INVESTMENT FUNDS (CIFs)

| TYPE | Non-UNFCCC mechanism administered by the World Bank. Operated in partnership with regional development banks including: > African Development Bank (AfDB) > Asian Development Bank (ADB) > European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) > Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) Finances programmatic interventions in developing countries with an aim to understand how public finance can be best deployed to assist transformational development trajectories. Had a sunset clause which was indefinitely postponed in 2019. |
| FUND BASE AND SIZE | Total pledge of US$8.3 billion by 14 contributor countries. As it functions on a co-financing structure, it anticipates that its portfolio of over 300 projects generated an additional US$58 billion in co-financing. |
| PROJECTS SUPPORTED | Provides 72 countries with resources. |
| YEAR: | 2008 |

##### D1. CLEAN TECHNOLOGY FUND

| TYPE | Provides middle-income countries with highly concessional resources to scale up the demonstration, development and transfer of low carbon technologies in renewable energy, energy efficiency and sustainable transport. |
| FUND BASE AND SIZE | US$5.4 billion in contributions. |
| PROJECTS SUPPORTED | By December 2019, US$1.65 billion in cash transfers to projects to-date. |
| YEAR: | 2008 |

##### D2. CLEAN TECHNOLOGY FUND

| TYPE | Supports the Pilot Program for Climate Resilience (PPCR), Scaling Up Renewable Energy in Low-Income Countries Program (SREP), and the Forest Investment Program (FIP). |
| FUND BASE AND SIZE | US$2.61 billion in contributions. |
| PROJECTS SUPPORTED | By December 2019, US$818 million in cash transfers to projects. |
| YEAR: | 2008 |
## BRIEF OVERVIEW OF VARIOUS CLIMATE FINANCE MECHANISMS

### D2.1 PILOT PROGRAM FOR CLIMATE RESILIENCE (PPCR)

**TYPE**
Helps developing countries integrate climate resilience into development planning and offers concessional and grant funding to support private and public sector investments for implementation.

The PPCR invests in some of the world’s most vulnerable countries. At the frontline of climate change are small island developing states (SIDS).

**YEAR: 2008**

**FUND BASE AND SIZE**
US$1.2 billion

**PROJECTS SUPPORTED**
The PPCR supported SIDS with US$250 million for nine Caribbean and Pacific island nations, providing 20 per cent of PPCR resources. PPCR also invested more than US$200 million for most vulnerable countries to upgrade climate data and services for climate-smart project design.

### D2.2 FOREST INVESTMENT PROGRAM (FIP)

**TYPE**
Supports efforts of developing countries to reduce deforestation and forest degradation, and to promote sustainable forest management that leads to emissions' reductions and enhancement of forest carbon stocks (REDD+).

There is also a Dedicated Grant Mechanism for Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities (DGM) implemented under the programme which provides grants on a smaller scale directly to civil society organizations (CSOs) rather than through national governments.

**YEAR: 2008**

**FUND BASE AND SIZE**
US$775 million

**PROJECTS SUPPORTED**
Thus far, the DGM approved US$51 million USD in 10 different projects throughout the world. In the Asia-Pacific region, DGM works only in its pilot countries, including Indonesia, Nepal, and Lao PDR.

### D2.3 SCALING-UP RENEWABLE ENERGY PROGRAM FOR LOW INCOME COUNTRIES (SREP)

**TYPE**
Helps deploy renewable energy solutions for increased energy access and economic growth in the world’s poorest countries.

**YEAR: 2008**

**FUND BASE AND SIZE**
US$720 million

**PROJECTS SUPPORTED**
The SREP is one of the biggest global funders of mini-grids with over US$200 million for projects in 14 countries.

### E. MULTILATERAL DEVELOPMENT BANKS (MDBS)

#### E1. FOREST CARBON PARTNERSHIP FACILITY (FCPF)

**TYPE**
Administered by the World Bank to explore how carbon market revenues could be harnessed to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation, forest conservation, sustainable forest management and the enhancement of forest carbon stocks (REDD+).

**YEAR: 2008**

**FUND BASE AND SIZE**
US$1.3 billion from 17 donors

**PROJECTS SUPPORTED**
The FCPF supports REDD+ efforts through its Readiness Fund (US$400 million) and Carbon Funds (US$900 million) in 47 developing countries across Africa, Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean.

#### E2. PARTNERSHIP FOR MARKET READINESS (PMR)

**TYPE**
Administered by the World Bank, the PMR aims at helping developing countries establish market-based mechanisms to respond to climate change.

**YEAR: 2010**

**FUND BASE AND SIZE**
As of 31 March 2015, total committed contributions amounted to about US$126.5 million, while total received contributions equalled US$127 million.

**PROJECTS SUPPORTED**
The PMR brings together more than 30 countries, various international organizations and technical experts to facilitate country-to-country exchange and knowledge sharing, leading to enhanced cooperation and innovation.
### E3. BIO CARBON FUND INITIATIVE FOR SUSTAINABLE FOREST LANDSCAPES (ISFL)

**TYPE**
Administered by World Bank, ISFL is a public-private partnership. It promotes reducing Green House Gas (GHG) emissions from the land sector, including efforts to reduce deforestation and forest degradation in developing countries (REDD+), sustainable agriculture, as well as smarter land-use planning, policies and practices.

**FUND BASE AND SIZE**
US$355 million

**PROJECTS SUPPORTED**
The ISFL currently supports programs in Colombia, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Mexico, and Zambia.

**YEAR:** 2013

### E4. CLIMATE CHANGE FUND (CCF)

**TYPE**
Administered by the Asian Development Bank, the CCF facilitates investments in developing member countries (DMCs) to effectively address the causes and consequences of climate change, by strengthening support to low-carbon and climate-resilient development in DMCs.

**FUND BASE AND SIZE**
US$74 million

**PROJECTS SUPPORTED**
As of 31 December 2019, US$71.6 million of the US$74 million total fund resources (net of savings) was allocated to 118 projects: 44 on CE development, 66 on adaptation, 11 on REDD+ and land use, and one on climate finance readiness.

**YEAR:** 2008

### E5. ASIA-PACIFIC CLIMATE CHANGE FUND (ACLIFF)

**TYPE**
A multi-donor trust fund administered by the Asian Development Bank to support the development and implementation of financial risk management products that can help unlock capital for climate investments and improve resilience to the impact of climate change.

**FUND BASE AND SIZE**
US$33.3 million

**PROJECTS SUPPORTED**
Not Available

**YEAR:** 2017

### E6. URBAN CLIMATE CHANGE RESILIENCE TRUST FUND (UCCRTF)

**TYPE**
A multi-donor trust fund administered by the Asian Development Bank to support fast-growing cities in Asia to reduce the risks that poor and vulnerable people face from floods, storms or droughts, by helping to better plan and design infrastructure to invest against these impacts.

**FUND BASE AND SIZE**
US$150 million

**PROJECTS SUPPORTED**
As of December 2019, US$130 million was committed from the fund for various cities in Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines and Vietnam.

**YEAR:** 2013

### F. UN AGENCIES

#### F1. UNDP GEF SMALL GRANTS PROGRAMME

**TYPE**
Administered by UNDP, it provides financial and technical support to projects that conserve and restore the environment while enhancing people’s well-being and livelihoods. The programme provides grants of up to US$50,000 directly to local communities, including indigenous people, community-based organizations and other non-governmental groups for projects in Biodiversity, Climate Change Mitigation and Adaptation, Land Degradation and Sustainable Forest Management, International Waters and Chemicals.

**FUND BASE AND SIZE**
US$526 million

**PROJECTS SUPPORTED**
Around 5,391 projects with a total grant of US$159 million have been supported for climate change mitigation.

Around 798 projects with US$24 million grant have been supported for community-based adaptation to climate change.

**YEAR:** 1992
## BRIEF OVERVIEW OF VARIOUS CLIMATE FINANCE MECHANISMS

### F2. UN-REDD PROGRAMME

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE</th>
<th>PROJECTS SUPPORTED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administered by UNDP, UNEP and the FAO to support REDD+ activities, with the governance structure giving a formal voice to representatives of civil society and Indigenous People's organizations.</td>
<td>Over the past decade, the Programme worked with 64 partner countries to successfully achieve substantial climate, forest and development goals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| YEAR | 2008 |

### F3. ADAPTATION FOR SMALLHOLDER AGRICULTURE PROGRAMME (ASAP)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE</th>
<th>FUND BASE AND SIZE</th>
<th>PROJECTS SUPPORTED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administered by International Fund for Agriculture and Development (IFAD) to support smallholder farmers in scaling up climate change adaptation in rural development programmes.</td>
<td>ASAP 1 (2012-2017): US$316.2 million, ASAP 2: US$100 million</td>
<td>As of August 2018, 42 projects have signed government agreements; 37 approved projects have started disbursement totaling US$80 million. US$292.6 million was channelled to at least eight million smallholder farmers to build their resilience to climate-related shocks and stresses.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| YEAR | 2012 |

### BILATERAL CHANNELS FOR CLIMATE FINANCE:
- Direct flow of funds from developed to developing countries in the form of Overseas Development Assistance or International Aid.
- Administered largely through existing development agencies although a number of countries have also set up special bilateral climate funds.

### A. INTERNATIONAL CLIMATE INITIATIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE</th>
<th>FUND DETAILS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supported by Germany for mitigation, adaptation and REDD+ projects. The initiative is innovatively funded partly through sale of national tradable emission certificates, providing finance that is largely additional to existing development finance commitments.</td>
<td>Provided over US$4 billion for more than 700 mitigation, adaptation and REDD+ projects.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| YEAR | 2008 |

### B. INTERNATIONAL CLIMATE FUND

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE</th>
<th>FUND DETAILS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supported by Government of UK.</td>
<td>Commitment of US$5.8 billion from 2016 through to 2021.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| YEAR | 2016 |

### C. NAMA FACILITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE</th>
<th>FUND DETAILS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supported by Germany, Denmark, UK and the EC for nationally appropriate mitigation actions (NAMAs) in developing countries and emerging economies that want to implement ambitious mitigation measures.</td>
<td>In January 2020, the NAMA Facility announced a new funding commitment of up to EUR60 million from Germany and the United Kingdom in support of the 7th Call for the submission of NSP Outlines. Furthermore, in recognition of both the strength of the NAMA Facility’s project pipeline and the country’s commitment to the NAMA Facility, the United Kingdom announced an additional contribution of up to EUR38 million to the NAMA Facility to support NSPs from past and future Calls.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### D. INTERNATIONAL CLIMATE AND FOREST INITIATIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE</th>
<th>FUND DETAILS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supported by Norway through bilateral partnerships, multilateral channels and Civil Society.</td>
<td>Pledged US$350 million each year. Sizeable pledges have been made for REDD+ activities in Brazil, Indonesia, Tanzania and Guyana.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| YEAR | 2008 |
### BRIEF OVERVIEW OF VARIOUS CLIMATE FINANCE MECHANISMS

**REGIONAL AND NATIONAL CHANNELS AND CLIMATE CHANGE FUNDS:**

- Established by developing countries at regional and/or national level with a variety of forms and functions, resourced through international finance and/or domestic budget allocations and the domestic private sector.

### A. INDIAN CLIMATE CHANGE TRUST FUND (ICCTF)

**TYPE**

A national funding entity which aims to develop innovative ways to link international finance sources with national investment strategies. Created by the Government of Indonesia (GOI), it acts as a catalyst to attract investment and to implement a range of alternative financing mechanisms for climate change mitigation and adaptation programmes.

**YEAR:** 2009

**FUND DETAILS**

The ICCTF receives non-refundable contributions from bilateral and multilateral donors. The main funding mechanism of the ICCTF is the 'Innovation Fund,' which provides grants to line ministries to support climate change-related projects within the GOI. With projects administered through UNDP, acting as the interim fund manager, eligible project duration was set to one year, while project budgets were capped at US$3 million.

### B. BANGLADESH CLIMATE CHANGE TRUST FUND (BCCTF)

**TYPE**

A national fund established through the passage of the Climate Change Trust Act, 2010.

Administered by Palli Karma-Sahayak Foundation (PKSF) for funding of local NGOs for plantation, sanitation, food security, capacity building and various kinds of research activities.

**YEAR:** 2010

**FUND DETAILS**

In one of the first moves, the Government of Bangladesh (GoB) set aside in FY 2009-2010 a budgetary allocation of BDT 700 crore (US$87.5 million equivalent) from its own resources for the trust. The finance ministry, GoB, regularly allocates around 100 crore taka (approximately US$12.5 million) each year to fund the many initiatives of the government, non-government organizations (NGOs) and research bodies in climate change and disaster management. The government continues to support this fund, and in 2016 allocated about US$405 million equivalent to the trust.

As on 30 November 2016, PKSF disbursed BDT 23.85 crore (approximately US$2.98 million) among 61 NGOs.

### C. CAMBODIA CLIMATE CHANGE ALLIANCE (CCCA) TRUST FUND

**TYPE**

The CCCA Trust Fund is a multi-donor trust fund, which was established by the CCCA donors and government to apply a more coherent approach to climate change support for Cambodia. The CCCA is implemented through a series of grants that finance activities attempting to address Cambodia’s climate change challenges. The CCCA program supports capacity-building and institutional strengthening which are implemented by a grant facility. Initially, grant components are focused on building resilience to climate change in coastal areas, and strengthening climate change awareness, education and public information.

**YEAR:** 2006

**FUND DETAILS**

The CCCA Trust Fund is a sinking fund, where all the funds committed will have been disbursed by the end of the agreed project timeframe. The initial design was for the duration of three years (2010-2012), and approximately US$8.9 million was committed for that period. Donor contributions to the Trust Fund are pooled and not earmarked anyway. The Trust Fund is open for additional contributions from new and existing donors. The Trust Fund is administered by UNDP and the operation of the Trust Fund is implemented according to UNDP rules and procedures.
THE EXERCISE:
An international agency is undertaking a participatory evaluation of the gender-responsiveness of the various climate change adaptation projects in your country. As a part of the process, your group is selected to provide inputs on select projects established in your country from a gender perspective. The report for each of the project should be in the following format:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF THE PROJECT</th>
<th>IMPLEMENTING AGENCY</th>
<th>FUNDING SOURCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Key objective(s) of the project: (Add details)</td>
<td>Gender objective(s) of the project: (Add details)</td>
<td>Key results with specific focus on gender equality and women’s empowerment results: (Add details)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the project fall in line with the gender mandate of the Fund? (Please explain in brief)</td>
<td>Have all gender-related processes been followed for the project? (Please explain in brief)</td>
<td>What are the key gender gaps? (Please explain in brief)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You have been given a brief note of the projects but it is very sketchy, so you can use your experience and understanding based on the information provided to answer the questions above. In order to do a good job, you will also need to further explore details related to the projects from the internet. Feel free to browse through the websites on various climate change funds and implementing agencies to gain more information about the projects so as to be able to provide a more elaborate review.

PROJECT 1: BANGLADESH ADAPTATION FUND: ADAPTATION INITIATIVE FOR CLIMATE VULNERABLE OFFSHORE SMALL ISLANDS AND RIVERINE CHARLAND (UNDP)

The project, “Adaptation Initiative for Climate Vulnerable Offshore Small Islands and Riverine Charland in Bangladesh,” is implemented by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). It aims to enhance the climate resilience of vulnerable communities who live on small alluvial islands in rivers and the Bay of Bengal that are particularly at risk from climate change. It further aims to enhance the resilience of households through climate-resilient housing, renewable sources of electrification and the provisioning of safe drinking water. It also intends to increase climate resilience of communities through climate risk mapping, cyclone and flood preparedness and basic infrastructure that is resilient to cyclones and flood, and to improve income and food security of vulnerable households by innovating and introducing locally appropriate climate resilient livelihoods practices. Finally, it aims to enhance knowledge and capacity of communities, government and policymakers to promote climate resilient development on riverine and offshore islands.

An estimated 341,000 people living on chars in Rangpur and Bhola are expected to benefit from cyclone- and flood-resistant homes, enhanced livelihoods, and improved disaster preparedness and early warning.

This initiative will enhance climate resilience of 900 women-led households through climate-resilient housing, electrification and climate-proof water provisioning. In addition, the project will build cluster houses for particularly vulnerable households that will function as emergency shelters during flooding and cyclones. The cluster houses will be designed to be women- and children-friendly; will include water, sanitation and hygiene facilities; and will have solar lighting. The cyclone preparedness programme will be made gender-responsive by seeking the increase of women in the volunteer corps by 25 per cent. All in all, shifting women’s livelihoods to climate-resilient options will reduce the likelihood of the need for social protection and social safety net pay outs.

PROJECT 2: BANGLADESH PPCR: COASTAL TOWNS ENVIRONMENTAL INFRASTRUCTURE PROJECT AND COASTAL CLIMATE – RESILIENT INFRASTRUCTURE PROJECT (ADB)

The Bangladesh Coastal Towns Environmental Infrastructure Project and the Coastal Climate-Resilient Infrastructure Project are being implemented by Asian Development Bank (ADB) through the PPCR fund.

The first project employs an integrated approach to improving urban services to strengthen climate resilience and disaster preparedness in eight vulnerable coastal pourashavas (secondary towns) that lack basic urban

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15. The information is compiled from respective websites of the funds.
services and are extremely vulnerable to the negative impact of climate change. It targets women and poor households as beneficiaries. Its major output is climate-resilient municipal infrastructure, including water supply, sanitation, drainage and transport facilities, in addition to urban roads and bridges, solid waste management and slum improvements. Better access to municipal services that have been made more reliable and climate-resilient under the project is seen to promote good health among the residents of coastal towns. Local governance will also be strengthened, with increased local capacity for sustainable service delivery, urban planning, and natural disaster preparedness, on top of an overall improvement in climate and disaster resilience. Because of their extensive experience in managing urban projects supported by ADB, the Local Government Engineering Department worked as the executing agency, and the Department of Public Health Engineering as co-executing agency for the project.

The second project will boost the livelihoods of these communities by upgrading rural roads, markets and disaster shelters to climate-resilient standards, and increasing the capacity of beneficiary-area residents to adapt to climate change. Road connectivity will be improved through the upgrading of 130 kilometers of subdistrict roads under the project, and an additional 407 kilometers of union and village roads under a complementary initiative funded by the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). Market services are expected to improve with the upgrading of 88 growth centres and large markets under the project, and the improvement of 186 community markets under the complementary IFAD initiative. Each of those markets and growth centres will have allotted spaces for the market-related activities of women. In addition, 37 boat landing platforms will be built to climate change—appropriate standards. Local government capacity to adapt to climate change will improve in two ways: i) through the strengthening of systems for knowledge capture and sharing, particularly the geographic information systems of the Local Government Engineering Department, and the establishment of a network to serve all local government agencies concerned with climate change; and ii) through the training of local government staff in climate resilience, disaster risk management and related activities. In a parallel initiative, the German government-owned development bank KfW will finance the extension of 15 multipurpose cyclone shelters, the improvement of 10 other shelters and the upgrading of 15 kilometers of tracks that provide access to these shelters, thereby improving livelihoods in these beneficiary rural coastal districts.

The projects include separate areas for women and men in cyclone shelters, and improved market centres with strategic allotments made available for women through the process of climate-proofing roads. These services provided to women and men as beneficiaries – building climate-resilience for women and men – were corroborated during the country consultation workshops, and in follow-up interviews with the in-country project managers. The workshop consultation participants and project managers reported from their experience that the PPCR project efforts have had a direct beneficial impact on women’s economic empowerment.

PROJECT 3: BOOSTING RESILIENT LIVELIHOODS, RESTORING GREENBELTS AND ENHANCING EARLY WARNING ALONG BANGLADESH’S COAST

Since 2015, with the backing of the Global Environment Facility’s Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF), Bangladesh’s Forest Department and UNDP have been working with eight coastal Upazila (sub-districts) in the highly-vulnerable districts of Bhola, Barguna, Patuakhali, Noakhali and Pirojpur. Taking a grassroots approach, the Integrating Community-Based Adaptation into Afforestation and Reforestation (ICBA-AR) Project focused on offering people with climate-resilient livelihoods, restoring greenbelts and strengthening early warning and preparedness for disasters.

Promoting resilient and innovative livelihoods – By offering families with more resilient, sustainable livelihoods, the project helps families put food on the table and boost their incomes, while reducing pressure on forests. Under the project, 2,300 households received support for adopting more resilient, innovative and nature-based agricultural livelihoods, including the cultivation of saline-tolerant rice, sorjone culture, floating vegetables, mixed fruit orchards and pulses; and fish-rice rotation. More than 2,500 households have been trained and received support in livestock-rearing such as raising ducks and using hydroponic fodder. Further, 2,200 households received support to establish fisheries, including cage aquaculture and crab fattening. Another 140 households have been introduced to innovative ecosystem-based farming models, including the award-winning ‘Forest-Fruit-Fish and Vegetable’ (3FV) model, implemented in 28 hectares of degraded forest land. To regulate drainage and protect agricultural fields from saline water intrusion, the project excavated 2.9 kilometers of canals and renovated sluice gates. Around 500,000 households in Bhola have
seen improved agricultural production as a result. Around 150 tube well platforms have been raised above flood level, while 140 new ponds are also helping ensure safe drinking water for communities and reducing women’s time spent collecting water. The project constructed six raised earthen platforms (‘killa’), with the capacity to shelter approximately 15,000 livestock during disasters.

**Protecting communities through stronger greenbelts** – Restoring and nurturing mangrove forests, considered a first line of defence against climate disasters, was a core component of the ICBA-AR project. Since its inception, more than 572,000 seedlings of 12 climate-resilient species have been raised in its nurseries. The project expanded the diversity of species in 650 hectares of previously mono-culture plantations, developing an assessment plan to determine the effectiveness of diversification. Co-management committees have been formed in all eight Upazila under the project, supporting forest protection and resources management, and facilitating dialogue between communities and local government. Around 600 forest-dependent ultra-poor, mostly women, are now members of Forest Resource Protection Groups (FRPG) established under the project to co-manage and protect mangrove plantations. Members of the FRPGs act as stewards of the forest, including patrolling with the Forest Department and raising awareness against illegal tree felling.

**Saving lives through enhanced early warning** – Finally, with disasters looming large over communities, the project focused on enhancing local early warning capacity. In support of the government’s Cyclone Preparedness Programme, the project distributed microphones, hand sirens, signal flags, jackets and motorcycles to local institutions. Approximately 6,000 Cyclone Preparedness Programme volunteers were equipped to disseminate early warning and conduct rescues. Eight female community watchers were appointed to work closely with households to empower women and facilitate the adoption of climate-resilient livelihoods. Cyclone Preparedness Programme volunteers trained under the project played an active role in spreading awareness and helping locals to minimize loss and damage when Cyclones Fani, Bulbul and Amphan hit Bangladesh. Volunteers and staff are now working to raise awareness among coastal islanders about the prevention of COVID-19.

**Leaving no one behind** – The ICBA-AR project is now focused on replicating the Forest-Fruit-Fish and Vegetable (3FV) model at the homestead level; developing an agreement between the Forest Department and Forest Resource Protection Groups for forest conservation; and further construction of ‘killa’ for protecting livestock during cyclones and storm surges. A climate adaptation learning centre is under implementation at the local level, to be linked to a forthcoming regional adaptation centre in Dhaka, under Bangladesh’s Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change. As well as continuing to support the uptake of more resilient livelihoods, the project is turning to other adaptation initiatives such as improved cooking stoves, ‘climate-proofed’ tube wells, rainwater harvesting and solar power in rehabilitated villages for climate refugees.

**PROJECT 4: INCREASING THE RESILIENCE OF POOR, MARGINALIZED AND CLIMATE-VULNERABLE COMMUNITIES IN FLOOD-PRONE AREAS OF BANGLADESH**

The coastal belt of Bangladesh is vulnerable to cyclones, storm surges and sea-level rise, which have recently been observed to be becoming more intense. Increased occurrence of these hazards is accelerating saltwater intrusion into the fresh water resources along Bangladesh’s coastline. This project focuses on community-led and gender-sensitive adaptation. Based in five flood-prone districts, it will prioritize female-led households. It is based on consultative adaptation models which have already proved to be successful.

The strengthening of adaptive capacities in this project is projected to reduce the adverse impacts to agricultural livelihoods that are freshwater dependent, and to address the availability and quality of drinking water in vulnerable coastal communities. This community-based approach in planning and managing climate-resilient water supply targets the highly vulnerable, specifically women and girls.

The project’s goals include: i) providing cyclone shelters and safeguarding critical road access to protect lives in a rural coastal region of Bangladesh; ii) developing urban infrastructure and safeguarding vulnerable city-dwellers from climate risk; and iii) establishing a national centre of excellence for climate resilience infrastructure, to inform and guide future infrastructure development throughout the country.

Bangladesh is one of the world’s most vulnerable countries to climate risk, notably to cyclones and floods. Coastal districts are particularly at risk from extreme weather, a risk which will be exacerbated by climate change impacts such as increased seasonal variation, higher precipitation levels and rising sea levels. Three of the country’s most vulnerable and poor coastal districts are targeted by the project: Bhola, Barguna and Satkhira.
The project establishes a national centre of excellence to gather, develop and share climate resilience infrastructure knowledge. Rural infrastructure development will be supported by constructing 45 new cyclone shelters and renovating 20 existing shelters. The shelters built under this project will be used as primary schools in normal times, providing 45 additional schools and helping educate 18,590 children. The improvement of 80 kilometers of critical access roads to the rural shelters will also be undertaken to safeguard access during extreme weather and enhance the adaptive capacities of local communities. Pilot climate-resilient urban infrastructure projects will also be undertaken in the city of Satkhira.

Led by the Bangladesh Ministry of Women and Children Affairs, this project focuses on strengthening the adaptive capacities of coastal communities, especially women and adolescent girls, to cope with impacts of climate change-induced salinity on their livelihoods and water security. The six-year project (2018-2024) focuses on the Southwestern coastal districts of Khulna and Satkhira, both of which frequently experience cyclones and tidal flooding and experience severe drinking water scarcity due to salinity. Under the project, communities will be empowered as ‘change-agents’ to plan, implement and manage resilient livelihoods and drinking water solutions. The project will promote a paradigm shift away from a focus on short-term responses and technology-led interventions towards community-centric solutions that build ownership and capacities across multiple stakeholders, to sustain and scale-up adaptive responses to safeguard livelihoods and water security. An estimated 719,229 people (about 245,516 directly and 473,713 indirectly) are set to benefit.

PROJECT 5: BANGLADESH COMMUNITY-BASED ADAPTATION (CBA) PROGRAMME

The Community-Based Adaptation (CBA) programme is being implemented in Bangladesh by UNDP and the Government of Bangladesh along with local CSOs. The project is funded by the Global Environment Facility (GEF) and the UK Department for International Development (DFID). The objective of the Bangladesh national CBA country programme strategy is “Natural resource management practices improved in Bangladesh to reduce the vulnerability to climate change impacts and increase the capacity of communities and key ecosystems to adapt to climate change.” This objective's success will be measured by the following impact indicators:

> Percentage change in livelihood groups engaged in sustainable resource management practices
> Percentage change in stakeholders enjoying sustainable benefits resulting from community-based initiatives
> A notable increase in community awareness about climate change impacts

The project Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) is based on three indicator systems: the Vulnerability Reduction Assessment (VRA), the Small Grants Programme Impact Assessment System and the UNDP Climate Change Adaptation Indicator Framework.

The programme includes five projects:

1. **Community-Based Wetland Management Project (BIRAM)** – The indigenous Chakma peoples (population of approximately 2,000) in the five villages of Borkona Godabanne Chora Adam face declining rainfall, rising temperatures and decreased water levels under climate change. The nearby Godabanne Chora stream is the main source of irrigation and fish farming in the area, but climate change forecasts predict that current climate shifts will continue towards warmer and drier conditions, with negative consequences to both ecosystems and livelihoods. This project will increase the community’s capacity to adapt to adverse climate conditions and sustainably manage the wetland area. It focuses on promoting sustainable crop varieties, improved agricultural practices and improved water collection. The project will also train community members in alternative income-generating activities to reduce pressure on natural resources and diversify income sources. Conservation of biodiversity is a strong component of this project; a community committee will be established to protect and care for the ecosystem.

2. **Strengthening Community Resilience in the Southwestern Coastal Area (Practical Action)** – Due to its high levels of poverty and close proximity to water, Atulia Union in the southwestern coastal region of Bangladesh is considered to be one of the most vulnerable areas to climate change. Over the last few decades, both farming and aquaculture activities have become less productive as soil degrades, water salinizes and competition for resources increases. More than 56 per cent of the area’s population is now food-deficient for two to six months out of every year. After being severely damaged by Cyclone Aila in 2009, local soil and water ecosystems became weakened and became more vulnerable to subsequent climatic...
impacts. Area villages also suffered from infrastructure damage, loss of property and loss of livelihood during the cyclone. This project aims to improve the resilience of Bangladesh’s coastal communities through strengthened ecosystem functions and protected livelihoods. The community will benefit from improved aquaculture practices and reduced negative pressure on natural aquatic animals, thereby enhancing livelihood opportunities. A thriving model of sustainable development will improve the resilience of the community and the local ecosystem to climate change impacts.

3. Piloting Climate-Resilient Development Initiatives (CNRS) – Char Kazul is a riverine island comprised of four villages, located between the Bura Gaurango and Tetulia rivers in Bangladesh. During monsoon season, the Bura Gaurango River can swell up to 10 kilometers wide, making it difficult for residents to reach the mainland for trade and services. Climate change models predict more frequent cyclones over a longer season, which will increase the occurrence of storm surges, riverbank erosion, salinity intrusion, abnormal high tides, rough sea weather conditions and erratic rainfall. Changing weather patterns and social pressures resulted in widespread degradation of arable land, and negative impacts on local flora and fauna. This project (July 2011 to December 2012) improves community-based adaptive capacity by piloting sustainable agriculture practices and promoting land conservation. Demonstration and promotion of saline-tolerant rice varieties, alternative crops and crop intensification will improve agriculture production while reducing the effect of climate-related risks. Additionally, the project will increase the capacity for coping with natural weather hazards by rehabilitating mangrove forests and renovating house and boat structures.

4. Coping with Climate Risks by Empowering Women in Coastal Areas (GBSS) – This project aims to reduce the vulnerability of people living in four proposed villages under Dashmina Upazila in Bangladesh by establishing Women Resource Centers (WRC) that will foster a community approach to climate change awareness and adaptation planning. The target sites already face an eroding natural resource base and biodiversity, and the potential for damaging cyclones, tidal surges and drought are projected to increase. By empowering marginalized women, this project will increase their access to resources, diversified livelihood activities, health and sanitation needs, and agricultural production. Teams of 18 to 20 women will be responsible for establishing and operating seed banks, planting nurseries, building vegetable gardens, rearing livestock and coordinating climate change awareness campaigns. Gram Bikash Shohayak Shangstha (GBSS), the coordinating non-governmental organization (NGO), will ensure that the women have appropriate access to materials and funds by establishing linkages with government, NGO, and community leaders.

5. Promoting Diversified Agro-Based Activities in Jamalpur District (RDOP) – In the hilly areas of Bakshigani Upazila region, the Adibashi community faces increased heavy rainfall and more frequent droughts. The region’s traditional hillside farming technique, known as jhum cultivation, gradually deteriorates the hillside environment, thereby increasing the risks of flash floods and landslides. Projected climatic changes exacerbate this risk, reducing the amount of cultivable land and threatening livelihoods. This Community-Based Adaptation project works to reduce land degradation and increase the adaptive capacity of seven vulnerable hill villages where the natural resource base is quickly depleting. Homestead-based mixed vegetable cultivation, fruit cultivation, fish production and terracing techniques will be promoted as alternatives to jhum methods as a way to reverse land degradation and diversify income. Awareness activities will further enhance the community’s understanding of climate change, better equipping them to adapt to its impacts.
### WHAT IS GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING?

- Separate budgets for men and women
- Public funds distributed to address the differential needs men and women

### WHEN IS GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING APPLIED?

- When the government budget is being developed
- Across all stages of planning, budgeting, implementation and monitoring

### WHAT ARE EXAMPLES OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING?

- Economic aid for families in need
- Child care centres
- Putting street lights
- Housing for widows
- All of the above

### WHAT DOES GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING START WITH?

- Gender equality policies
- Gender analysis
- Publication of gender budget

### WHO ARE KEY ACTORS INVOLVED IN GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING?

- Government officials
- Civil Society Organizations
- Parliamentarians
- Gender advocates
- Academicians
- Local communities

### WHICH LEVEL IS GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING BEST APPLIED WITHIN THE GOVERNMENT?

- National level
- Sub-national level
- Local level
- At all levels

### WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING AND GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGET?

- Gender budgeting involves people's participation, while gender budget does not involve communities but only works within government.
- Gender budgeting is a process, while gender budget is the culmination of that process.

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Convert this handout into a PowerPoint presentation with one question per slide. Use animation to ensure that only the question is first seen on board. Only when the participants ask for clues or options should the other options come up. Ensure that the options are shown one by one and not at the same time.
Indonesia is a country with a strong civil society budget movement. Several International NGOs and CSOs have worked on enabling community participation in local budgetary processes and of budget advocacy work.

UN Women worked closely with the Ministry of Finance (MoF) and Bappenas on Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB). The key strategies deployed by UN Women included: i) using GB Statement as a GRB entry point; ii) providing technical support to national government through consultants; iii) developing and introducing practical tools for GRB in budgeting processes; iv) developing a national strategy for Gender-Responsive Planning and Budgeting; and v) Creating an expert group on GRB, including international experts like Debbie Budlender and UN Women's GRB specialist for the Asia-Pacific region.

Asia Foundation worked with national experts such as Pattiro, the Indonesian Forum for Budget Transparency (Fitra), local CSOs and local government agencies in 25 districts and eight cities on GRB and pro-poor budgeting for improving public services. Together, they have enabled US$1 billion investment on three programmes: i) The Kecamatan Development Programme, administered by the Ministry of Home Affairs; ii) the Urban Poverty Programme, administered by the Ministry of Public Works; and iii) the Family Welfare Programme, administered by the Ministry of Health. These programmes are run with a community-driven development approach under the umbrella of the Programme Nasional Pemberdayaan Masyarakat (Community Empowerment Programme). Women's groups such as Koalisi and Komnas Perempuan have been advocating for specific allocations for health and justice especially in context of domestic violence.

Various groups also worked on budget transparency and literacy. Urban Poverty Coalition, whose members include urban slum dwellers, street vendors and cab drivers, focused on budget transparency, using judicial processes to force the Major of Jakarta to disclose information on spending of allocations for flood victims. Koalisi also worked on building basic budget literacy in its civic education work. The Indonesian Forum for Budget Transparency came out with a publication that explained in detail with examples how to use the Gender Action Plans (GAP) and the GB Statement, and encouraged CSOs to use these tools to enable GRB at the local level. Another example is Show Me the Money: Budget Advocacy in Indonesia, co-published in May 2011 by the International Budget Partnership and Indonesia CSOs. It documents their experiences of doing GRB work and describes their models of advocacy as well as the issues they have addressed.

Another key strategy was the collaboration between women's organization and NGOs which do not have a gender focus to support citizen's participation and bring women's needs into political. Similarly, some other NGOs also partnered with local governments to conduct trainings and support capacity-building on GRB. There are many well-documented case studies of CSOs working with communities to facilitate participatory GRB activities. Other efforts include women's involvement in sub-district planning, opposition to local budgets which were not pro-poor and the budget concerns of groups lobbying for the rights of disabled persons.

Source: Adapted from Kanwar (2016).
Training Manual on Gender and Climate Change Resilience

CONCLUDING SESSION
APPLICATION OF LEARNINGS – DEVELOPING A GENDER-RESPONSIVE CCDRR PROJECT

The purpose of this exercise is for the participants to recap the learnings from the training and apply these when developing a gender-responsive CCDRR project.

1. Divide the participants into groups of four to five people each. Provide them with a copy of Handout 25. Tell them to go through the case. The case study provides them some information about a hypothetical village from south Asia called Nikgram in Uttar Desha country.
2. Using this information, each group needs to develop a gender-responsive CCDRR project. They can develop an integrated project, a community-based project or a sectoral intervention based on what the group decides. The members of the group are free to make plausible assumptions based on their experience in the sector.
3. It is important that each group applies as much of the training learnings into the work. The project proposal should be developed keeping in mind the checklist provided in Handout 26.
4. Each group needs to select a volunteer who will present their project to the plenary. The project needs to be presented in the following format:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROJECT TITLE</th>
<th>PROJECT GOAL</th>
<th>OBJECTIVES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KEY RISKS</td>
<td>THEORY OF CHANGE</td>
<td>STRATEGIES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER ANALYSIS</td>
<td>OUTCOMES</td>
<td>OUTPUTS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VULNERABILITY ANALYSIS</td>
<td>ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>MONITORING AND EVALUATION PLAN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Tell them that the project will be ranked on three parameters:
   i) usage of gender analysis tools;
   ii) gender-responsiveness and quality of project developed; and
   iii) communication of results.
EXERCISE

EXERCISE 30: GALLERY WALK FOR PRESENTATION
The key objective of this exercise is to provide the participants with a quick opportunity to present their analysis and learn from each other.

Materials Required:
Wall and paper tapes; timer and alarm.

Process:
Step 1: Ask the groups to present their work on a wall. Use different walls for different presentations. Tell them that a presenter from each group will have five minutes to present, followed by two minutes of Q&A.

Step 2: Divide the other participants into four groups: i) bureaucrats; ii) women’s group representatives; iii) management consultants; and iv) community representatives.

Ask each group to rank the presentation on three parameters: i) usage of gender analysis tools; ii) gender-responsiveness and quality of project developed; and iii) communication of results.

Step 3: Each member of the new group will move around, listening to the presentations separately. (Each presenter will present four times.) Keep a timer and alarm handy to ensure that the groups move quickly and do not take more than the required time.

Step 4: Once the presentations are over, discuss the analysis and the key learning in the plenary.

Learning Output: Conclude by saying that “gender analysis and gender-responsiveness in projects is very important. Often considered to be a separate action, it should actually be integrated in all mainstream action related to the project. This would not only help the project be more gender-responsive but using analytical tool will also enable the overall project to be more robust in design and efficient in its approach.”
BACKGROUND

Nikgram is a predominantly rural district located in the foothills of the mountainous region of Uttar Desha country. The district has many scenic sites that have been identified by the national government with a high potential for tourism. However, lack of infrastructure facilities and poor connectivity means that most people in the district are still relatively poor and rely on subsistence farming. The average annual income of most of the households is about US$2500. About 30 per cent of the households’ district hover around the poverty line.

Rice and vegetables are the two main crops grown in the region. Of the approximately 60,000 people engaged in farming, more than one-third of these are either landless working as agriculture labourers or have less than 0.5 hectare land which does not provide enough food for the families. Only 2 per cent of the farming households have large landholdings. These large farming households have access to better farming technologies and market, and produce rice and other valuable cash crops.

Almost 80 per cent of agriculture land is owned by men; and culture dictates that they be solely responsible for earning income and managing finances for the household. Thus, most financial decisions, especially those related to agriculture, are undertaken by men. On paper, men and women both have equal access to markets. In reality however, it is the husband who usually decided when, where and to whom to sell the crop. Women have caregiving responsibilities and often work in unpaid/underpaid menial jobs in fields to support their families.

In the last decade, the government invested in developing rice value chains in the area. Some of the bigger landowners are now also working as entrepreneurs – rice collector/intermediary traders and rice millers. Most of these entrepreneurs are men and prefer dealing with men, given the local customs. Also, most of the decisions are taken in the rice farmers cooperative society meetings, which only allow landowners as members. Even the local agriculture extension workers are mostly men, and prefer dealing with men. In recent years, the government changed its policy to recruit women as extensions workers. However, there are only three female extension workers, compared to over a hundred male extension workers.

The three female extension workers have been moderately active in the area in their two years of service. Their extension services work often meets administrative, social and cultural challenges. Despite the hindrances, they have been able to promote climate-smart rice growing technologies and other household farming techniques. Fifteen women in the district now supplement their incomes through backyard vegetable gardening, poultry and goat-rearing.

Besides the gender differences, there are also climate change challenges in the area. The district experiences extreme water events. There are not many round-the-year irrigation supplies in the district. The bigger landholders often exploit ground water sources and some have invested in their own water management systems to facilitate round-the-year irrigation. The smaller farmers rely on rainfall. They experience water shortages in the summer and flooding in the rainy season. In the last few years, additional problem of salination was added to the list of woes of the small and marginal farmers. Over-exploitation of ground water for rice farming is majorly responsible for this. The problem of extreme water events is recurrent, yet water management technologies have not penetrated in the district.

THE DISASTER

The devastating floods in the previous year during the rainy season had particularly negative impacts on agricultural production. The low-lying coastal villages were inundated for more than four months when the seawater reached the areas where houses are located. Saltwater intrusion also affected soil fertility, leading to a steady decline in rice production. Many households are locked into a brutal cycle of debt caused by borrowing money as a coping strategy during natural calamities and emergencies.

The district’s agriculture-based economy suffered from a decline in production, and the worst affected households also suffered hunger for a couple of months, with women being more affected. Rice production, in particular, declined due to saltwater intrusion; there is now less space for vegetable cultivation. Poor road conditions and damaged bridges further isolated the district from the provincial capital leading to lower crop prices. It is the month of November now and the infrastructure is not yet re-built.
The damaged infrastructure also delayed and severely hampered emergency relief and rescue operations. The only existing health centre in the district was also damaged. The centre was not well-equipped to deal with serious medical cases and complications during pregnancy, accidents and major illnesses; thus, residents had to go to the capital province. Care during childbirth is administered in the villages; and regular illnesses are treated using traditional healing techniques. Family planning, although introduced several years ago, is not practiced by couples; thus, the region has a very high birth rate.

In the last few months, there are some families where the men have migrated to neighbouring districts to work as daily wage labourers or as unskilled workers in industries. One of the main drivers of migration is reportedly household debt and concerns about repaying loans both formal and informal. Some of these households are characterized by older women with not enough skills to take up agriculture and are largely taking care of numerous small children. Remittances from adult children are frequently inadequate for covering household expenditure; thus, grandmothers also seek work.

THE PROJECT

You are a local non-government organization (NGO) working in the neighbouring district on women’s livelihood and empowerment issues. A multilateral donor agency wants to invest in Nikgram on gender-responsive climate-resilient agriculture practices. The project will be implemented in partnership with the national government, and local administration will be actively involved. It’s a multi-million-dollar project; thus, a challenge is announced for NGOs from the country to put up their proposals.

The donor appointed a consultancy firm to facilitate this selection. The firm is known for their expertise in two specific things:
1. Gender analysis and participatory processes; and
2. Results-based management.

The first round of the challenge will be a poster competition, where all competing agencies are required to present their proposals. You need to prepare a poster on your proposed project for the area.
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<tr>
<th>CHECKLIST FOR PROJECT PROPOSAL DEVELOPMENT</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PROJECT TITLE</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt; The project title should be catchy but should also communicate of the key climate vulnerability being addressed and the target group that will be reached.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Look up Session A of Module 1 to place the title in the context of CDRR, HBRA, LNOB and gender</td>
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<td><strong>PROJECT OBJECTIVES</strong></td>
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<td>&gt; The project objective should have a clear link to one of the four strategic areas that the SGP aims to focus on.</td>
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<td>&gt; It should also clearly identify if it will adopt a community-based adaptation approach, eco-system-based approach, a REDD+ plus model and/or focus on knowledge management and capacity-building.</td>
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<td>&gt; Social inclusion aspects should be clearly brought out</td>
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<td>&gt; Highlight objectives which are transformational in nature especially from a gender perspective.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Look up Sessions A, B and C of the Module 1 to place the objectives within the overall international goals and indicators as well as national policies.</td>
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<td><strong>THEORY OF CHANGE AND IMPACT PATHWAY</strong></td>
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<td>&gt; Show the link of the project activities with the objectives to develop a theory of change. A simple way of doing this is: IF the project does (these activities) THEN this (output) will be achieved; IF this (output) is achieved THEN this (result/objective) will be achieved</td>
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<td>&gt; Develop an impact pathway diagram for your project, which helps others to understand the interlinkages between various activities and objectives.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use the Causes-Consequences and Solutions framework from Session A of Module 3 of the manual to develop the theory of change and impact pathway.</td>
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<td><strong>ACTIVITY PLAN</strong></td>
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<td>&gt; Focus on activities which are doable in the given time frame.</td>
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<td>&gt; Include activities which can be undertaken directly by the communities through existing government schemes.</td>
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<td>&gt; All activities should have a clear link to the outputs.</td>
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<td>&gt; Highlight the activities which will directly contribute to women's empowerment and gender equality.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Look up Sessions A and B of Module 4 to identify gender-responsive solutions and activities.</td>
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<td><strong>STRATEGY</strong></td>
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<td>&gt; Highlight your way of working to mobilize community especially women and other vulnerable communities. Keep the language simple and easily understandable.</td>
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<td>&gt; Highlight your gender mainstreaming strategy.</td>
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<td>&gt; Explain how your project is sustainable and will continue beyond the project period.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use one of the gender analysis tools in Session A of Module 3 of the manual to map the key gaps and place the strategy in the context of the gender analysis.</td>
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<td><strong>MONITORING AND EVALUATION</strong></td>
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<td>&gt; Develop a project log frame with clear and measurable indicators. (Refer to the SGP result indicators database and use as many indicators as applicable.)</td>
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<td>&gt; All indicators should be sex-disaggregated.</td>
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<td>&gt; Include gender-aware indicators.</td>
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<td>&gt; Have a clear plan on how data on the indicators will be collected. (Unless you can do a survey, many indicators are difficult to assess. Be realistic.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Look up Session B Module 3 of the manual for support on developing gender-aware indicators.</td>
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<td><strong>PROVEN IN-HOUSE EXPERTISE</strong></td>
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<td>&gt; Prepare a list of similar projects undertaken with funding and outcome details.</td>
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<td>&gt; Focus on the organization’s community mobilization and engagement work with specific emphasis on work done with women to mobilize resources in cash or kind.</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt; Highlight the involvement of the organization with local, regional and national government, if any.</td>
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ANNEXURES
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<td>9.00-9.15</td>
<td>Context Setting</td>
<td>&gt; Participant Expectation&lt;br&gt; &gt; Agenda Sharing</td>
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<td>1A</td>
<td>9.15-11.15</td>
<td>Introduction to Human Rights, Leave No One Behind and Gender Equality</td>
<td>&gt; Human Rights and Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA)&lt;br&gt; &gt; Leave No One Behind (LNOB)&lt;br&gt; &gt; Gender and Intersectionalities</td>
<td>Presentation and Group Exercise (any one):&lt;br&gt; &gt; Human Rights Web Development (Exercise 1)&lt;br&gt; &gt; Power Walk Game (Exercise 2)&lt;br&gt; &gt; Gender Concepts Chits (Exercise 3)</td>
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<td>1B</td>
<td>11.30-13.00</td>
<td>Climate Change and Associated Risks, Resilience and Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
<td>&gt; Global Climate Risks, Adaptation, Resilience Building and Disaster Risk Reduction&lt;br&gt; &gt; Observed Climatic Changes and Impacts</td>
<td>Film Viewing and Group Exercise:&lt;br&gt; &gt; Histogram on Climate Change (Exercise 4)&lt;br&gt; &gt; Film on IPCC’s Fifth Assessment Report (AR5)&lt;br&gt; &gt; Group Discussion using Handout 3</td>
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<td>1C</td>
<td>14.00-15.45</td>
<td>Linkages between Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
<td>&gt; Gender Dimensions of CCDRR&lt;br&gt; &gt; Integration of Gender in CCDRR</td>
<td>Presentation and Group Exercise:&lt;br&gt; &gt; Poster Presentation using Figure 5&lt;br&gt; &gt; Matching Cards on Gender Roles and Differentiated Impacts (Exercise 5 and Handout 5)</td>
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<td>2A</td>
<td>16.00-17.30</td>
<td>Understanding the Climate Change Adaptation and DRR Policy Landscape</td>
<td>&gt; Global CCDRR Policy Frameworks (UNFCCC and Sendai) and Gender Commitments&lt;br&gt; &gt; Application of UNFCCC and Sendai Frameworks at National Level</td>
<td>Presentation and Group Exercise:&lt;br&gt; &gt; Cross and Knots’ or Tie Tac Toe on International CCDRR Frameworks (Exercise 9 and Handout 7)&lt;br&gt; &gt; Group Discussion (Exercise 10 and Handout 8)</td>
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<td>2B</td>
<td>9.15-10.45</td>
<td>Gender Mainstreaming in the National Policies and Plans</td>
<td>&gt; National Frameworks for CCDRR and Gender Mainstreaming at Country Level&lt;br&gt; &gt; National Adaptation Plan (NAP) and Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs)</td>
<td>Presentation and Group Exercise:&lt;br&gt; &gt; Gender Analysis of NAP and NDC using Checklist (Exercise 11 and Handout 9)</td>
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<td>&gt; Need for Gender Mainstreaming in National Policies&lt;br&gt; &gt; Gaps and Challenges to Gender Mainstreaming&lt;br&gt; &gt; Engendering National CCDRR Policies - Entry Points for CSOs</td>
<td>Presentation and Group Exercise:&lt;br&gt; &gt; Batoikas and Gonkas’ Role Play (Exercise 13)&lt;br&gt; &gt; Case Study-Based Discussions (Exercise 14 and Handout 11)</td>
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|           | 14.00-15.30| Gender Mainstreaming frameworks and tools                            | > Gender Mainstreaming Across Project Cycle  
> Gender Analysis: Need, Process and Select Tools | Lecture/Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Moser Framework for Planning (Exercise 15) |
| 3A        | 15.30-15.45| BREAK                                                                |                                                                         |                                                                             |
|           | 15.45-17.30| > Examples of Gender Assessments  
> Gender-Responsive Planning, Project Preparation and Design |                                                                         | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Small Group Discussion (Exercise 17 and Handout 12)  
> Causes, Consequences and Solutions Framework (Exercise 18) |
|           | 9.00-9.15  | RECAP OF PREVIOUS DAY                                               |                                                                         |                                                                             |
| 4A        | 9.15-10.45 | Adaptation Approaches and Community-Led Resilience Project         | > Adaptation Models  
> Gender-Responsiveness Assessment of Adaptation Projects | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Mock Panel Discussion (Exercise 21 and Handouts 16 and 17) |
|           | 10.45-11.00| BREAK                                                                 |                                                                         |                                                                             |
|           | 11.00-12.30| > Women-Led Community-Based Urban Resilience Project                |                                                                         | Harvard Case Review Method (Exercise 22 and Handout 18)                     |
|           | 12.30-13.30| BREAK                                                                 |                                                                         |                                                                             |
| 4B        | 13.30-15.30| Gender and CCDRR Dimensions in Sectors                             | > Interlinkages of Gender and Climate Change Adaptation in Select Sector  
> Gender-Based Vulnerabilities and Adaptation Choices in the Selected Sector | Lecture/Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Infographic Development Exercise (Exercise 23 and Handout 19) |
|           | 15.30-15.45| BREAK                                                                 |                                                                         |                                                                             |
|           | 15.45-17.30| > Gender-Responsive Adaptation Solutions                            |                                                                         | Matrix Ranking (Exercise 24 and Handout 20)                                |
|           | 9.00-9.15  | PREVIOUS DAY RECAP                                                  |                                                                         |                                                                             |
| 5A        | 9.15-10.45 | Climate Finance and Gender                                         | > Global Climate Finance Architecture                                  | Film Viewing and Group Exercise:  
> Group Work (Exercise 25 and Handout 21)                                     |
|           | 10.45-11.00| BREAK                                                                |                                                                         |                                                                             |
|           | 11.00-12.00| > Key Adaptation Funds and Scope for CSO Engagement                 |                                                                         | Presentation and Discussion                                                  |
## SAMPLE SCHEDULE FOR 4-DAY BASIC COURSE

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| 5B        | 12.00-13.30 | Gender-Responsive Budgeting and CCDRR | > Concept and Importance of Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB)  
> Progress on GRB in Asia  
> CSO Engagement in GRB Processes | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Video and PowerPoint Quiz (Exercise 27 and Handout 23)  
> Group Discussion using Indonesia Case Study (Exercise 28 and Handout 24) |
|           | 13.30-14.30 | **BREAK**                          |                                                                         |                                                                             |
| CONCLUDING | 14.30-16.00 | Developing a CCDRR Proposal        | > Group Exercise on Project  
Poster Development and Gallery Walk |                                                                             |
| SESSION    | 16.00-16.15 | **BREAK**                          |                                                                         |                                                                             |
|           | 16.15-17.00 | Review and Way Forward             | > Brainstorming on Review of Learnings and Way Forward  
> Training Evaluation (form filling) | Presentation and Group Exercise                                                 |
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| INAUGURAL | 9.00-9.15 | Context Setting                                                       | > Participant Expectation  
> Agenda Sharing                                                            | Open Discussion                                                            |
|          | 9.15-10.15 | Introduction to Human Rights, Leave No One Behind and Gender Equality | > Human Rights and Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA)                    | Lecture and Group Exercise on Human Rights Web Development (Exercise 1)     |
|          | 10.15-10.30 | Break                                                                 |                                                                         |                                                                            |
|          | 10.30-12.30 | Break                                                                 | > Leave No One Behind (LNDB)  
> Gender Equality and Intersectionality                                      |                                                                            |
|          | 12.30-13.30 | Break                                                                 |                                                                         |                                                                            |
| 1A       | 13.30-15.30 | Climate Change and Associated Risks, Resilience and Disaster Risk Reduction | > Global Climate Risks, Adaptation, Resilience-Building and Disaster Risk Reduction  
> Observing CCDRR  
> Resilience Concepts                                      | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Histogram on Climate Change (Exercise 4)  
> Resilience Concepts (Exercise 5 and Handout 4)                             |
|          | 15.30-15.45 | Break                                                                 |                                                                         |                                                                            |
|          | 15.45-18.00 | Linkages between Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction   | > Gender Dimensions of CCDRR  
> Integration of Gender in CCDRR  
> Women as Change Agents                                                | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Moser Framework for Gendered Climate Risk Mapping (Exercise 7)  
> Case Study Review (Exercise 8 and Handout 5)                            |
|          | 9.00-9.15 | PREVIOUS DAY RECAP                                                    |                                                                         |                                                                            |
| 2A       | 9.15-11.15 | Understanding the Climate Change Adaptation and DRR Policy Landscape  | > Global CCDRR Policy Frameworks (UNFCCC and Sendai Framework) and Gender Commitments  
> Application of UNFCCC and Sendai Frameworks at National Level           | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Cross and Knots’ or Tic Tac Toe (Exercise 9 and Handout 7)  
> Group Discussion (Exercise 10 and Handout 8)                             |
|          | 11.15-11.30 | Break                                                                 |                                                                         |                                                                            |
|          | 11.30-13.00 | Break                                                                 | > National Frameworks for CCDRR and Gender Mainstreaming at Country Level  
> Status of Gender Mainstreaming in National CCDRR Policies using CEDAW and BPFA Lens | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Shadow Report Development for CEDAW and BPFA (Exercise 12 and Handout 10) |
|          | 13.00-14.00 | Break                                                                 |                                                                         |                                                                            |
| 2B       | 14.00-15.30 | Gender Mainstreaming in the National Policies and Plans                | > Need for Gender Mainstreaming in National Policies  
> Gaps and Challenges to Gender Mainstreaming                             | Group Exercise:  
> Batokas and Gonkas’ Role Play on (Exercise 13)                          |
<p>|          | 15.30-15.45 | Break                                                                 |                                                                         |                                                                            |</p>
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| 2B       | 15.45-18.00 |                                            | > Strategies to Gender Mainstreaming: Governance and Institutions; National Policies and National Action Plans (NAPs) and Climate Change Gender Action Plans (CCGAP)  
> Engendering National CCDRR Policies - Entry points for CSOs | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Case Study-Based Discussions (Exercise 14 and Handout 11) |
| 9.00-9.15 |          | RECAP OF PREVIOUS DAY                      |                                                                         |                                                                             |
| 3A       | 9.15-10.45 | Gender Mainstreaming Frameworks and Tools  | > Gender Mainstreaming Across Project Cycle  
> Gender Analysis: Need, Process and Select Tools | Lecture/Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Practical Session on Harvard Analytical Framework (Exercise 16) |
|          | 10.45-11.00 | BREAK                                      |                                                                         |                                                                             |
|          | 11.00-13.00 |                                            | > Tools for Gender-Aware Vulnerability Assessment Tools for CCDRR projects  
> Examples of Gender Assessments  
> Gender-Responsive Planning, Project Preparation and Design | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Small Group Discussion (Exercises 17 and Handout 12) |
| 13.00-14.00 | BREAK |                                             |                                                                         |                                                                             |
| 3B       | 14.00-16.15 | Gender Mainstreaming Frameworks and Tools  | > Gender-Aware Implementation Process  
> Participatory Tools and Techniques | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Development Market Place (Exercises 19 and Handout 13) |
|          | 16.15-16.30 | BREAK                                      |                                                                         |                                                                             |
|          | 16.30-17.30 |                                            | > Gender-Sensitive Monitoring and Evaluation | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Wheel Ranking Exercise (Exercises 20 and Handout 14) |
| 9.00-9.15 |          | PREVIOUS DAY RECAP                         |                                                                         |                                                                             |
| 4A       | 9.15-10.45 | Adaptation Approaches and Community-Led Resilience Project  | > Adaptation Models and Gender-Responsiveness Assessment of Adaptation Projects | Presentation and Group Exercise:  
> Mock Panel Discussion (Exercises 21 and Handouts 16 and 17) |
|          | 10.45-11.00 | BREAK                                      |                                                                         |                                                                             |
|          | 11.00-12.30 |                                            | > Women-Led Community-Based Urban Resilience Project | Harvard Case Review Method (Exercises 22 and Handout 18) |
|          | 12.30-13.30 | BREAK                                      |                                                                         |                                                                             |
# SAMPLE SCHEDULE FOR 5-DAY ADVANCED COURSE

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<tr>
<td>4B</td>
<td>13.30-16.00</td>
<td>Gender and CCDRR</td>
<td>&gt; Interlinkages of Gender and Climate Change Adaptation in the Selected Sector</td>
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<td>&gt; Gender-Based Vulnerabilities and Adaptation Choices in the Selected Sector</td>
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<td>&gt; Gender-Responsive Adaptation Solutions</td>
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<td>&gt; Infographic Development (Exercise 23 and Handout 19)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>&gt; Matrix Ranking (Exercise 24 and Handout 20)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>16.00-16.15</td>
<td>BREAK</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16.15-18.00</td>
<td>Developing a CCDRR Proposal</td>
<td>&gt; Group Exercise on Project Poster Development and Gallery Walk</td>
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<tr>
<td>5A</td>
<td>9.00-9.15</td>
<td>RECAP OF PREVIOUS DAY</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.15-11.15</td>
<td>Climate Finance and Gender</td>
<td>&gt; Global Climate Finance Architecture</td>
<td>Presentation and Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Key Adaptation Funds and Scope for CSO Engagement</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.15-11.30</td>
<td>BREAK</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11.30-12.30</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adaptation Project Analysis</td>
<td>&gt; Practical Session (Exercise 26 and Handout 22)</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.30-13.30</td>
<td>BREAK</td>
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<tr>
<td>5B</td>
<td>13.30-14.45</td>
<td>Gender-Responsive Budgeting and CCDRR</td>
<td>&gt; Concept and importance of Gender-Responsive Budgeting (GRB)</td>
<td>Presentation and Group Exercise:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; Progress on GRB in Asia</td>
<td>&gt; Video and PowerPoint Quiz (Exercise 27 and Handout 23)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>&gt; CSO Engagement in GRB Processes</td>
<td>&gt; Group Discussion using Indonesia Case Study (Exercise 28 and Handout 24)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.45-16.15</td>
<td>Gender-Responsive Budgeting and CCDRR</td>
<td>&gt; Application of GRB in Climate Finance</td>
<td>Presentation and Discussion</td>
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<td>&gt; Five-Step Framework for GRB</td>
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<td></td>
<td>&gt; GRB Tools and Techniques with Entry Points for CSOs</td>
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<tr>
<td>16.15-16.30</td>
<td>BREAK</td>
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<tr>
<td>16.30-17.30</td>
<td></td>
<td>GRB and Climate Public Finance: Gender and Climate Budget Statement</td>
<td>&gt; Group Exercise:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>17.30-18.00</td>
<td>CONCLUDING SESSION</td>
<td>&gt; Review of Learnings and Way Forward</td>
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<td>&gt; Training Evaluation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>How are Leave No One Behind (LNDB) and Gender Equality approaches key to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Share five key gender dimensions of Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction (CCDRR)?</td>
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<td>Q3</td>
<td>What does gender mainstreaming in a project entail?</td>
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<td>Q4</td>
<td>Can you share a few examples of CCDRR projects which are gender-transformative in nature?</td>
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<td>Q5</td>
<td>Can you share a few gender analyses tools which can be applied in CCDRR projects?</td>
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<td>Q6</td>
<td>Can you share the key international frameworks and funding opportunities for CCDRR?</td>
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<td>Q7</td>
<td>What is the status of gender mainstreaming in the national policies on CCDRR in your country?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q8</td>
<td>How can women's organizations and CSOs engage for gender mainstreaming of CCDRR policies?</td>
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### TRAINING EVALUATION FORM

**NAME:**

**ORGANIZATION:**

I am a:
- [ ] Project Implementer
- [ ] Researcher
- [ ] Programme Manager
- [ ] Trainer

Please indicate your impressions of the items listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>NA</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Overall understanding of Gender Dimensions in CCDRR</td>
<td>Before training</td>
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<td></td>
<td>After training</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Ability to mainstream gender in your CCDRR work</td>
<td>Before training</td>
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<td></td>
<td>After training</td>
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<td>3. Ability to undertake Gender Analysis</td>
<td>Before training</td>
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<td>After training</td>
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<td>4. Ability to use or develop a Gender-Responsive CCDRR project</td>
<td>Before training</td>
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<td></td>
<td>After training</td>
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<td>5. Ability to use or implement a Gender-Responsive CCDRR project</td>
<td>Before training</td>
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<td></td>
<td>After training</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Understanding of International CCDRR Frameworks and Finance Mechanisms</td>
<td>Before training</td>
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<td></td>
<td>After training</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Understanding of National CCDRR Policies and Gender Implications</td>
<td>Before training</td>
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<td></td>
<td>After training</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Overall understanding of Climate Change and Disaster Risks</td>
<td>Before training</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>After training</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

9. Which session(s) did you like most?

10. Which session(s) did you like least?

11. Which methodology(ies) did you like most?

12. Which methodology(ies) did you like least?
REFERENCES
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Alston, Margaret. 2015. Women and Climate Change in Bangladesh. Oxon and New York: Routledge.


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www.empowerforclimate.org

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EmPower: Women for Climate-Resilient Societies is a partnership between: