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Gender and climate change

Differentiated impacts of climate change on women and men; the integration of gender considerations in climate policies, plans and actions; and progress in enhancing gender balance in national climate delegations

Synthesis report by the secretariat

Summary

This report synthesizes information provided in submissions on three topics: the differentiated impacts of climate change on women and men, with special attention paid to local communities and indigenous peoples; the integration of gender considerations into climate policies, plans and actions; and policies and plans for and progress in enhancing gender balance in national delegations to the UNFCCC. It highlights the importance of taking the differentiated impacts impacts of climate change into account in climate policies, plans and action, including through the use of gender analysis and sex-disaggregated data, as well as the need for further work to enhance gender balance in national delegations. It is submitted to the Subsidiary Body for Implementation for consideration in its review of the implementation of the Lima work programme on gender and the associated gender action plan.

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Abbreviations and acronyms

ACE	Action for Climate Empowerment
CIFOR	Centre for International Forestry Research
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GBA+	Gender-based Analysis Plus
IISD	International Institute for Sustainable Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
ITF	International Transport Forum
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
LGBTI	lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex
NAP	national adaptation plan
NDC	nationally determined contribution
NGO	non-governmental organization
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
REDD-plus	reducing emissions from deforestation; reducing emissions from forest degradation; conservation of forest carbon stocks; sustainable management of forests; and enhancement of forest carbon stocks (decision 1/CP.16, para. 70)
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
WEDO	Women’s Environment and Development Organization
WGC	women and gender constituency

I. Introduction

A. Mandate

1. At its twenty-third session, the Conference of the Parties asked the secretariat to prepare a synthesis report on the information received in submissions on the following topics, including sex-disaggregated data and gender analysis where applicable:[1]

(a) The differentiated impacts of climate change on women and men, with special attention paid to local communities and indigenous peoples;

(b) Integration of gender considerations into climate adaptation, mitigation, capacity-building, ACE, technology and finance policies, plans and actions;

(c) Policies and plans for and progress in enhancing gender balance in national climate delegations.

B. Scope of the report

2. This report synthesizes the information provided in submissions received under a call for submissions with a deadline of 30 March 2019. Submissions received after the deadline and before 11 May 2019 were also considered in the report.

3. The synthesis report was informed by presentations and discussions from the workshop held in 2018 on the topics referred to in paragraph 1 above[2] (hereinafter referred to as the workshop).

C. Overview of submissions

4. A total of 21 submissions were received, including from Bulgaria and the European Commission on behalf of the EU and its member States, Canada, the Central African Republic, Chad, Costa Rica, India, Kenya, the Philippines, South Africa and 12 observer organizations.

5. The submissions contained information on experiences, projects and programmes related to a number of countries in addition to those Parties referred to in paragraph 4 above.[3]

6. The submissions varied in length and detail. All submissions received from Parties mentioned each of the three topics referred to in paragraph 1 above, while submissions from observers focused on their respective areas of expertise, which did not necessarily cover all three topics.

D. Possible action by the Subsidiary Body for Implementation

7. The Subsidiary Body for Implementation may wish to take note of the information contained in this report in its consideration of the implementation and review of the Lima work programme on gender and the associated gender action plan.

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[1] Decision 3/CP.23, annex, table 5.

[2] See https://unfccc.int/topics/gender/events-meetings/workshops-dialogues/workshop-on-gender-and-climate-change-may-2018 and document FCCC/SBI/2018/INF.15.

[3] Including Afghanistan, Argentina, Bangladesh, Benin, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Brazil, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Chile, China, Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Guatemala, Guinea, Honduras, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Kiribati, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Madagascar, Malawi, Maldives, Mali, the Marshall Islands, Mexico, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Nauru, Nepal, the Netherlands, Nigeria, Pakistan, Paraguay, Peru, Senegal, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Thailand, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania, the United States of America, Vanuatu, Viet Nam and Zambia.

II. Executive summary

A. Differentiated impacts of climate change on women and men, with special attention paid to local communities and indigenous peoples

8. The overwhelming message from the submissions is that climate change impacts on women and men often differ and are more pronounced or severe in developing countries and for some local communities and indigenous peoples. Differentiation is widely considered to be based on pervasive historical and existing inequalities and multidimensional social factors rather than biological sex. The information in the submissions is consistent with the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report,[4] which recognized the differentiated impacts of climate change due to, among other factors, discrimination based on gender, class, ethnicity, age and (dis)ability.

9. The information in the submissions supports the argument that the methods for determining differentiated impacts, such as gathering sex-disaggregated data, undertaking gender analysis and implementing gender budgeting techniques, should become standard practice for all countries and climate project implementers to ensure more effective, sustainable and just climate policies, plans and actions.

B. Integration of gender considerations into adaptation, mitigation, capacity-building, Action for Climate Empowerment, technology and finance policies, plans and actions

10. It was evident from the submissions that many climate projects and programmes integrate gender considerations across a broad range of sectors. However, it was also evident that few national policies, plans and actions are in place. The quality of gender integration in climate projects and programmes appears to vary, with some submissions noting that the integration of gender considerations is at risk of being tokenistic or superficial where gender analysis is not comprehensive enough or is undertaken too late in the process, or where monitoring and evaluation are not sufficiently rigorous.

11. While tools, methodologies and expertise are available to support the integration of gender considerations into climate policies, plans and actions, gender and climate change expertise appears insufficient to meet the current needs of countries and other implementers. Submissions highlighted the need to increase awareness and capacity in governments and civil society across the spectrum, from understanding the linkages between gender considerations and climate change to effectively integrating such considerations in policies, plans and actions.

C. Policies and plans for and progress in enhancing gender balance in national climate delegations

12. Although all Party submissions indicated that gender balance in their respective climate delegations was important and was monitored in some way, no Parties or observers provided information on policies or processes that were being implemented in that regard. Most Parties that referred to this issue indicated that their delegations were at or close to parity. Observers that addressed this issue provided information on concrete measures to enhance gender balance in national climate delegations.

[4] IPCC. 2014. *Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Contribution of Working Group II to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. CB Field, VR Barros, DJ Dokken, et al. (eds.). Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press. Available at http://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar5/wg2.

III. Synthesis report

A. Differentiated impacts of climate change on women and men

1. Overview

13. Most submissions addressed the topic of the differentiated impacts of climate change on women and men, concluding that impacts were indeed differentiated, with several submissions providing illustrative data.

14. Some submissions also referred to or addressed the issue of local communities or indigenous peoples, and most submissions referred to the need for sex-disaggregated data or the use of gender analysis to inform better climate policy and action. Others mentioned the need for a human rights-based approach to reduce the differentiated impacts of climate change resulting from discrimination or failures to uphold human rights.

15. In addition to describing differentiated impacts, many submissions provided information about the available methods, tools and guidance for identifying such differentiation, including with regard to local communities and indigenous peoples. Further details are provided in paragraphs 40–44 below.

16. Finally, submissions outlined needs, gaps and challenges, particularly in relation to gathering relevant data and information on differentiated impacts and using those data to influence policies, plans and actions. A summary is provided in paragraph 45 below.

2. Differentiated impacts

17. Three broad themes emerged from the submissions with respect to how the impacts of climate change are differentiated: firstly, and most commonly, an actual or perceived increase in the vulnerability of certain individuals, groups and communities; secondly, who is involved in decision-making and what attitudes are taken towards responses to climate change impacts; and lastly, who benefits from action on climate change impacts. Details on each of these themes is provided in paragraphs 18–45 below.

(a) Vulnerability

18. All Parties and observers considered that the differentiated impacts of climate change on women and men contributed to increased vulnerability, especially of women, in many cases owing to, among other factors, existing gender inequalities caused by unequal power relations and structures in the public and private sectors, discriminatory laws and customs, and unequal access to and control of resources. Some submissions highlighted that, since women and men are not homogeneous populations, it is important to understand how gender norms and power relations influence women's and men's exposure, and capacity to respond, to climate change in local situations.

19. Many Parties and observers underlined the importance of considering intersectional factors such as age, ethnicity, disability, poverty and socioeconomic status, as well as gender, when considering or assessing the vulnerability of individuals, groups or communities to climate impacts. Some alluded to the following excerpt from the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report:

> "Differences in vulnerability and exposure arise from non-climatic factors and from multidimensional inequalities…These differences shape differential risks from climate change. People who are socially, economically, culturally, politically, institutionally, or otherwise marginalized are especially vulnerable to climate change and also to some adaptation and mitigation responses. This heightened vulnerability is rarely due to a single cause. Rather, it is the product of intersecting social pressures that result in inequalities in socioeconomic status and income, as well as in exposure. Such social processes include, for example, discrimination on the basis of gender, class, ethnicity, age and (dis)ability."

20. The IPCC also considered that women are not inherently vulnerable because of their biological sex and that focusing on this aspect ignores "the complex, dynamic and intersecting power relations and other structural and placed-based causes of inequality".

21. The issue of intersectionality is well illustrated in research by CIFOR in northern Mali, where women's vulnerability was increased when men migrated for employment as prolonged drought impacted crop viability. This left the women to carry out men's work in addition to their already high workloads, but without men's rights to secure tenure or command over financial resources. A further differentiation between women in the community occurred when women from lower social classes were defying gender norms and undertaking the 'dirty' activity of charcoal production to supplement income from agriculture, whereas women from higher social classes were barred from this economic opportunity, thus further reducing their adaptive capacity.

22. In its submission, FAO highlighted vulnerability due to gendered roles in the bio-economy, which provides livelihood industries for rural and indigenous communities around the world and is being negatively impacted by climate change. The harvesting and processing of biomass is predominantly performed by women, such as seaweed farmers in Zanzibar, 80 per cent of whom are women. They are facing declines in the production of high-value seaweed as waters in the south of the island have become warmer due to climate change. Thus, the vulnerability of seaweed farmers is primarily attributable to their reliance on a natural resource that is declining because of climate change, and not because the farmers are women. However, the fact that predominantly rural and indigenous women, and not men, are reliant on climate-vulnerable biomass industries for their livelihoods potentially gives their vulnerability a gender, place-based and ethnic perspective.

23. The impact of differing gender roles and responsibilities was also highlighted by research conducted in Uganda by the Mary Robinson Foundation for Climate Justice, which revealed how climate change impacts were creating tension between women and men who, respectively, were predominantly responsible for food crops to feed the family and cash crops to earn an income. As climate change reduces growing time and rainfall becomes scarce and unpredictable, tension arises over which crops to grow and prioritize. This tension can lead to conflict, including domestic violence, especially when rains are poor and yields are low. Moreover, when food is limited due to a poor harvest, women prioritize feeding their children and male spouses and reduce their own intake, to the detriment of their overall nutrition and health.

24. An ILO study found that outdoor air pollution in urban environments (usually associated with factors that contribute to greenhouse gas emissions) had a gendered effect on workers' absence from formal employment. In a week when pollution levels averaged 100 $\mu g/m^3$, the gender gap in formal working hours doubled. Women's formal working hours were reduced to allow them to undertake informal work, such as caring for children who were not able to attend school because of illness associated with air pollution, while men's formal working hours were increased to compensate.

25. The most frequently cited reasons for women's increased vulnerability to climate change impacts (including reduced resilience and adaptive capacity) when compared to men included discriminatory, patriarchal laws, norms, customs and institutions that resulted in women's exclusion from participating in decision-making and community processes; limited awareness of legal rights, including human rights; limited or no access to or control over resources and assets; unequal burden of unpaid domestic and care responsibilities; limited access to necessary sexual and reproductive health care (particularly in natural disaster situations); increased exposure to gender-based harassment and violence; and impoverishment, including when a male spouse migrates or otherwise leaves the household.

26. Indigenous women were identified in several submissions as being particularly vulnerable to the impacts of climate change, primarily due to their reliance on natural resources for their livelihoods and the multiple forms of discrimination that they faced due to their gender, ethnicity and level of poverty. Yet the submissions also cited the vital contribution of women to addressing climate change, for example, because of their role as primary keepers of traditional knowledge in their communities. WEDO (WGC submission) noted the gendered impact of climate change on food security in the Northern Territories of

Canada, where Inuit women are facing reduced income opportunities from berry picking and men are facing difficulties in hunting.

27. Other communities or groups of people identified as being more vulnerable owing to marginalization included urban poor, rural and remote communities and LGBTI people, with women often considered the most socially and economically oppressed in each group or community.

28. CIFOR referred to a study that identified the increased vulnerability of men due to gender customs and norms in parts of Central America in climate-related natural disasters. Data collected on deaths caused by Hurricane Mitch found that men had been more vulnerable in this situation due to social and cultural norms that encouraged risky behaviour. In their review of existing information on gender and climate change in Canada, WEDO identified several areas where men may be more vulnerable to climate change impacts, including heat-related injuries resulting from working outdoors during heatwaves and job losses in extractive industries that are being phased out in favour of low-carbon alternatives.

29. Some submissions noted that effective gender analysis needs to consider the different roles and responsibilities of women and men (and not only women) in a given context to understand the power relations and different roles and responsibilities that influence adaptive capacity, resilience and participation in climate action. Some observers argued for a more nuanced approach to assessing vulnerability that captures the multiple and intersecting social pressures mentioned above to ensure that policies, plans and actions are addressing the root causes of vulnerability and not simply 'adding women'.

(b) Differentiated participation in climate decision-making, policy formulation and implementation action

30. Participation in climate decision-making, policy formulation and implementation action was identified as an area of difference between women and men. In addition to such differences being a barrier and amplifying vulnerabilities, as referred to in paragraph 25 above, examples were provided of climate change triggering changes in gender norms and creating opportunities for women to participate more equally, potentially resulting in better climate outcomes, as well as gendered differences in addressing the impacts of climate change.

31. In the mountainous, rural areas of Yunnan Province in China, a CIFOR study observed changes in gender norms that enabled women to participate in water management and allocation – a role previously fulfilled exclusively by men – because of their (perceived and actual) ability to reduce the risk of conflict in the community caused by increasing water shortages due to climate change. The submission argued that the findings highlight the potential for the impacts of climate change to alter gender roles and create opportunities for women to take on multiple and non-traditional roles.

32. OHCHR referenced studies which found that:

(a) In the American public, women in general were more concerned and knowledgeable about climate change than men were;

(b) When included in decision-making relating to resource use and societal investment, women more often than men made decisions based on the best interests of children, family and community;

(c) There are correlations between women in positions of political authority and lower carbon footprints, between parliaments with greater proportions of female members and higher ratification of environmental treaties, and between higher percentages of women on boards and disclosure of carbon emission information.

33. The European Institute for Gender Equality reported that perceptions and attitudes towards climate change and climate policy options in Europe vary substantially according to gender. Women generally are more concerned than men about climate change, feel a greater need for action in tackling climate change, are more likely to change their behaviour and are more in favour of policy measures to reduce car use. In contrast, men generally have more trust in technological solutions than women do.

34. In Viet Nam, a joint project between the Viet Nam Women's Union and UN Women, implemented in partnership with the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development of Viet Nam, promoted the leadership of women in disaster management and risk reduction, and influenced government policy to give the Women's Union membership on decision-making boards of the Committee for Natural Disaster Prevention and Control. UN Women reported that capacity-building on gender equality and disaster risk management through the project had a multiplier effect as the trained women subsequently supported disaster response in their communities. A similar result was reported in Bangladesh by the International Centre for Climate Change and Development (WGC submission), where a gradual shift had been observed in the perceived role of women in disaster management and recovery, from victims to vital actors in restoring their households and communities during and after disasters. This change in perception was also reinforced by a government policy stipulating that at least 10 per cent of disaster risk management committee members must be women.

35. All submissions considered that, to increase the effectiveness of climate action, both women and men need to participate in and contribute to climate decision-making, policy formulation and implementation action. Most submissions identified that, because women often faced more barriers to such participation, empowering women in these circumstances could lead to improved climate and gender equality outcomes. Some submissions identified the need for a reassessment of gender-responsive approaches over time to adjust as gender roles and norms shift within society.

(c) Differentiated benefit-sharing from climate policy and action

36. Differentiation was also identified when considering who benefits from responses to the impacts of climate change, with several submissions cautioning that climate programmes cannot be assumed to benefit women and men equally. A review of the design of the REDD-plus programme in Viet Nam referred to by CIFOR revealed that gender was being understood as "equal participation of women and men" without a clear understanding of what that meant or how to achieve the meaningful participation of women. It was also assumed that women's participation would automatically lead to benefit-sharing arrangements that promote gender equality. Yet, in many of the reviewed REDD-plus projects, little effort was made to ensure that women had a voice in identifying what benefits they would prefer and how they would wish to receive them. Consequently, benefits generated by REDD-plus risked reflecting only powerful male social groups' priorities, excluding women altogether and/or exacerbating gender and social inequalities.

37. INTLawyers cited an example from Burkina Faso, where a strategy to create income-generating activities for women to compensate for losses resulting from climate change induced damage to their harvests overlooked important traditional roles of women and men in the society. In the initiative, women were trained in poultry farming as an alternative or supplement to growing climate-vulnerable crops. Although women controlled the livestock, both women and men were involved in sales and control of income. Ultimately, women's burden of labour was increased disproportionately in relation to the income they received.

38. Research by the ILO indicates that unless action is taken to overcome gender disparities in the industrial sector in the transition to a low-carbon economy consistent with the objectives of the Paris Agreement, by 2030, the share of women in employment will be 0.03 per cent lower globally than in a business-as-usual scenario as male-dominated industries gain prominence (e.g. renewable energy, manufacturing, construction). The ILO also reports that some countries and enterprises have included gender as part of their climate action and green economy programmes, including training, retraining or capacity-building programmes; enabling environment policies, such as the provision of sufficient compensation to women for childcare; and setting targets for the number of women employed in key green economy sectors.

39. In many examples, when projects, programmes or policies actively addressed and evaluated the integration of gender considerations, the benefits of climate action were more evenly distributed between men and women. Conversely, if gender considerations were not integrated effectively, adverse unintended outcomes could occur.

3. Methods for identifying differentiated impacts

40. Gender analysis and sex-disaggregated data were highlighted as the most effective and critical tools for identifying differentiated impacts, with those Parties and observers who consider intersectional factors as contributing to differentiation also highlighting the need for a broader scope beyond gender in collecting data and in conducting analysis such as vulnerability assessments. This was consistent with the information provided by speakers during the workshop, who emphasized that for sex-disaggregated data to be truly informative, it was essential to look beyond the household sphere and the binary female–male perspective and to consider interdependencies with other influencing factors, such as age, place of residence, ethnicity and social class. Furthermore, sex-disaggregated data were a critical input to, but not a substitute for, gender analysis.

41. Canada referred to an analytical tool, GBA+, which is used to assess how different groups of women, men and gender-diverse people may experience policies, programmes and initiatives, noting that the 'plus' acknowledges that gender-based analysis goes beyond biological and sociocultural gender differences and considers other identity factors such as race, ethnicity, religion, age and mental or physical disability. Canada is applying GBA+ in multiple aspects of decision-making, with a commitment in 2018 to improve and expand the application of the tool to include Canada's domestic and international climate change policies and programmes.

42. Information was provided on two statistical data platforms that aim to bridge the gap between gender and environment information: the European Institute for Gender Equality gender statistics database, which includes data on the participation of women and men in decision-making related to climate change at the national and international level, and the IUCN environment and gender index, which started out as a composite index and now includes evidence-based information and knowledge products on gender-responsive environmental conservation and sustainable development.

43. Data collection tools used by Parties and observers at the community level included household surveys, expert interviews, key informant interviews, focus group discussions, and vulnerability impact assessment and modelling. The EU and GenderCC – Women for Climate Justice referred to various tools and methodologies that have been developed and applied to projects, funded by Germany, to gather more systematic observations and scientific findings on the differentiated impacts of climate change. These included:

(a) A systematic review of the literature on gender and climate change;

(b) Gender Assessment and Monitoring of Mitigation and Adaptation – a methodology for assessing urban climate policies and activities through a gender lens and identifying entry points for the integration of gender, involving three steps: (1) institutional setting and policy framework, (2) gender analysis of a broad portfolio of policies and measures and (3) gender analysis of specific policies and measures. Each stage includes a key question or questions and a methodology for answering them;

(c) Gender impact assessment – a tool that is being further developed and adjusted to climate change policies and measures by a consortium consisting of GenderCC – Women for Climate Justice, the Wuppertal Institute and the Institute for Social-Ecological Research, based on seven gender dimensions that were identified in the literature review referred to in subparagraph (a) above.

44. Other tools or methodologies identified as relevant for acquiring sex-disaggregated data were gender budgeting and participatory, multi-stakeholder consultation (with a focus on the inclusion of women and men, indigenous peoples and local communities). IUCN shared information on its climate change gender action plan methodology, which involves participatory, multi-stakeholder, multisectoral processes that are anchored in existing climate change processes, such as NDCs and NAPs, at the national, subnational or regional level. More detailed information on other sources of data is also available in the workshop report.[5]

[5] FCCC/SBI/2018/INF.15.

4. Needs, gaps and challenges

45. The most commonly cited needs, gaps and challenges in the context of understanding the differentiated impacts of climate change on women and men, with a focus on local communities and indigenous peoples, were:

(a) An urgent need for improved statistical infrastructure to collect and apply national-level (versus project-level) data to better understand gender-differentiated climate impacts and inform national policy planning and implementation;

(b) The support needed by developing countries to bridge the gap in their institutional capacity to collect sex-disaggregated data on the impacts of climate change at the national level, with particular difficulties in gathering data at the local level in rural and remote areas;

(c) A lack of capacity in Governments and other organizations to undertake gender analysis and gender budgeting, and the related need for more gender and climate change experts, particularly local and national experts (versus external and international);

(d) Capacity-building and awareness-raising within Governments and civil society on the multifaceted differentiated impacts of climate change and how understanding these differentiated impacts can make climate policy and action more effective.

B. Integration of gender considerations into national climate policies, plans and actions

1. Overview

46. In providing information on the second element of the submission request, more submissions identified gender integration in adaptation than in mitigation policies, plans and actions. Some addressed activities being undertaken in ACE, capacity-building, climate finance and technology. Some also incorporated issues related to indigenous peoples, local communities and grassroots women in the context of implementation.

47. Most developing countries highlighted that although gender considerations were being integrated in climate projects and programmes in different sectors, they had not been systematically integrated into national climate processes. Some Party and observer submissions mentioned gender integration in NAPs and NDCs, as well as the link between gender integration in climate change policies, plans and actions on the one hand, and SDG and national biodiversity plans and actions on the other.

48. The EU noted that mainstreaming gender in EU internal climate and energy policies (excluding development cooperation or foreign policies addressing climate and energy) is limited and that few concrete examples were available. However, the European Parliament had recently passed a resolution calling for the inclusion of gender equality in a structured and systemic manner in European policies, and gender analysis was increasingly being applied in the context of development cooperation (with examples from Austria, Finland, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and Sweden).

49. Canada, Kenya and the Philippines provided information on efforts to systematically integrate gender into national processes, including applying GBA+ to all domestic and international climate change policies and programmes in Canada; mainstreaming gender in Kenya's Third Medium Term Plan and Second National Climate Change Action Plan; and systematic gender mainstreaming in the formulation and implementation of the NDC and climate change policies, plans, programmes and activities in the Philippines. During the workshop, the Dominican Republic and North Macedonia provided information on their efforts to integrate gender considerations into national climate processes. A few observer submissions (IUCN, IISD, OHCHR, WGC) also provided information on the integration of gender considerations into the NAPs, NDCs or national communications of countries that did not make submissions or participate in the workshop.

2. Details of gender integration in climate actions

50. Aggregate and country-specific information on each of the UNFCCC topics referred to in paragraph 46 above are provided in paragraphs 51–75 below. Many of the examples of gender integration in climate action illustrate issues or reinforce concepts, ideas or arguments identified in chapter II.A above. Many of the examples focus in particular on women as the key beneficiaries or objects of intervention, with some providing explanations of the specific barrier or gender inequality that needs to be addressed to achieve the desired climate outcome.

(a) Adaptation

51. IISD referred to an analysis conducted by the NAP Global Network in 2018 on the progress made towards the integration of gender considerations in NAP processes, involving a total of 21 countries. The key findings of the analysis were as follows:

(a) Most countries mentioned the word "gender" but few of the examined documents elaborated on how approaches, principles or ambitions will be achieved in their specific context;

(b) Women tend to be mentioned more often than gender, with limited or no consideration of the differences between women and men in the same context. IISD observed that without an understanding of the issues leading to female marginalization, strategies for women's empowerment are unlikely to be effective;

(c) Women were most often positioned as a particularly vulnerable, homogeneous group, with limited positioning as agents of change. There was also limited analysis of the differences among women or of the drivers behind the vulnerability of different groups (such as children and the elderly), how they may differ and, consequently, what different responses were required;

(d) While most countries indicated that gender analysis had not yet been used in the planning phase, all countries that provided data through the self-assessment process saw opportunities to use gender analysis in upcoming phases of their NAP processes;

(e) Adaptation actions included in NAP documents tended to be focused on women's traditional role as household managers, reflecting the current situation and needs. IISD noted that such reinforcement of gender roles risked inhibiting transformational progress and may lead to missed opportunities for women's economic empowerment;

(f) Many countries that completed self-assessments indicated that there was capacity to integrate gender into their NAPs through different areas of Government, United Nations organizations, NGOs, civil society organizations and academic institutions. However, more than half of those countries indicated that this capacity had not been effectively used in the NAP process so far;

(g) Information on the use of stakeholder engagement processes was limited but indicated a need for greater consideration of women and representatives of other vulnerable groups as NAP processes progress;

(h) Where gender is identified as an issue in a country's NDC, or where a mandate has been established to integrate gender into policymaking more broadly, more opportunities exist for integrating gender considerations into NAP processes.

52. In all the submissions that addressed adaptation, the sectors or policy areas most often cited as having applied a gender lens were disaster risk reduction and response (including human mobility, rapid-onset events and slow-onset events), food security (including agriculture, agroforestry, pastoralism and fisheries) and water resource management. Examples from each sector are provided below. IISD noted that fewer data were available to inform the NAP process in the infrastructure, transport and urban sectors than in the agriculture, health and water sectors.

(i) Disaster risk reduction and response

53. Some submissions referred to capacity-building efforts in disaster preparedness and resilience that specifically target women, who are often not present in decision-making and planning mechanisms. UN Women reported on several programmes aiming to support women in regions that are vulnerable to climate change, including flood- and storm-prone coastal areas of Bangladesh, with a view to establishing disaster-resilient livelihoods such as climate-resilient agriculture, food processing and non-traditional skills such as mobile phone and solar panel repair. The programmes also help to develop the capacity of local disaster preparedness agencies to understand and incorporate the specific needs and perspectives of women in disaster situations.

54. Referring to a study in the Andean forests, CIFOR highlighted the important role of local knowledge, in combination with targeted scientific knowledge, in finding appropriate solutions to extreme weather events such as heavy rainfall, hail and strong winds. The study compared the agroforestry practices of smallholder women and men in indigenous communities, finding that they had important knowledge of methods for protecting their productive systems from increased temperatures, soil erosion and increasingly scarce water resources, but had limited knowledge of adaptation to extreme weather events. A combination of local knowledge and targeted scientific knowledge led to innovative solutions to address climate adaptation for agroforestry in the area.

(ii) Food security

55. FAO referred to a variety of analyses, guidance documents, projects, tools and training programmes it had developed to enable gender-sensitive or -responsive approaches in areas including agriculture, livestock management, fisheries and aquaculture, natural resource management, water resource use and management, and weather and climate services. FAO indicated that it was supporting countries by promoting and improving the generation of data, information and knowledge on the nexus between gender and climate change in agriculture and food security. One example is a project on the Thiaroye fish-processing technique for preserving fish, which FAO developed with the National Training Centre for Fisheries and Aquaculture in Senegal. Women make up the majority of labourers in fish preservation. The Thiaroye technique simultaneously reduced environmental pollution and greenhouse gas emissions, improved food safety, reduced women's workload and increased their income. The technique is now reported to be widely used in several African countries.

56. INTLawyers reported on successful rights-based approaches that had improved women's access to and control over land in Maradi, the Niger, as well as their access to information and credit, thereby improving food security in their communities. It was noted that such approaches could be particularly beneficial for minority and indigenous women, whose rights to land, health and education could be more severely affected than for other women.

(iii) Forestry

57. In the forestry sector, CIFOR highlighted the issue of potentially harmful trade-offs when carbon stocks are identified only as a mitigation priority. In Burkina Faso, a study compared the different adaptive capacities of a variety of forest- and tree-based mitigation strategies. It found that women's adaptive capacities are significantly higher in indigenous tree-based parklands and small-scale restored lands than in monoculture tree plantations. When assessed solely on carbon stocks, mitigation action may favour plantations that have higher carbon stocks while ignoring the impact on the adaptive capacity of women. It was therefore important to consider the impacts of mitigation action on the adaptive capacity of the community to identify any trade-offs between gender equality and climate outcomes and find options that can generate benefits for both.

58. The WGC submission highlighted an example from the Democratic Republic of the Congo, where an advocacy tool developed by the Coalition of Women Leaders for the Environment and Sustainable Development in the Provinces of Equateur and Mai-Ndombe has reportedly transformed the country's patriarchal framework, strengthening the role and decision-making power of women in forest management policies for climate action.

Women's active participation in forest governance is reported to have been an essential element in halting deforestation in the provinces. Local and indigenous women have been empowered through legal means to actively contribute to climate adaptation and mitigation.

(iv) Water resource management

59. Water resources are critical for life, health and food security, and their collection, allocation and management are often gendered. An example from India cited in the WGC submission highlights a locally developed rainwater management technique, known as Bhungroo, that saves farmers' crops from waterlogging during monsoons and ensures adequate irrigation during dry seasons. The project relies on women climate leaders to promote the technique and deliver fee-based expert agriculture advice. Women construct, install and maintain Bhungroo units, actively participating in climate adaptation by helping to collect, store and distribute water and providing services to other farmers as needed. The technique has also improved women farmers' social status and facilitated their participation in village governance.

60. The example from China referred to in paragraph 31 above, where traditional gender roles associated with water management changed when water resources became scarce, highlights the importance of reassessing projects as the impacts of climate change, or action addressing climate change, may alter gender roles and therefore project outcomes over time.

(b) Mitigation

61. IUCN referred to an environment and gender index report published in 2016 that set out the results of an analysis on how gender considerations had been addressed in mitigation action under the UNFCCC. Although mitigation projects had historically been the least likely to include gender considerations, there was an upward trend in the proportion of mitigation actions addressing gender considerations in nationally appropriate mitigation actions (7 out of 162) and low-emission development strategies (12 out of 86), when compared with clean development mechanism projects (5 out of 3,864). In addition, a review of 161 intended nationally determined contributions conducted by the United Nations Development Programme in 2016, referred to by OHCHR, identified that 65 mentioned "gender" or "women" in the context of national priorities and ambitions for reducing emissions and increasing resilience, and that of these, 5 had both mitigation and adaptation components.

62. CIFOR considered that there is a real and pressing need for global mandates on gender equality in the context of climate change and the SDGs to be translated into national policies on climate change mitigation. In its submission, INTLawyers argued that mitigation analysis and recommendations tend to be framed in scientific terms, and that translating these into generally accessible language would enhance transparency. This would enable local women to participate actively and meaningfully in the design of mitigation measures. It would also give women the chance to employ their traditional knowledge and become active agents in addressing climate change. It was mentioned that involving women in this way would have a positive impact on societal systems and advancing intersectional gender equality.

63. According to the submissions that addressed mitigation, the sectors or policy areas most often cited as including projects that applied a gender lens were energy, REDD-plus and transport. Examples from each sector are provided below.

(i) Energy

64. An assessment conducted in 2016 referred to by IUCN identified that, of 192 national energy frameworks, 61 addressed gender considerations. It also identified that women are characterized as potential stakeholders or beneficiaries, but seldom as agents, of change – a finding shared in a 2017 assessment of 56 country action documents that addressed gender considerations under the Sustainable Energy for All initiative. The 2016 assessment further identified that energy frameworks in developing countries offered more diverse opportunities to advance a gender-responsive approach, including addressing time poverty, energy poverty in rural and urban areas, and women's health and well-being. Measures to address gender in the energy frameworks of three developed countries included designing opportunities for women in energy technology, innovation or participation in the energy sector workforce.

65. A further finding of the 2016 assessment was that six developing countries recognize energy access as a human right. For example, Uruguay, as a first step in designing its national energy interventions, developed energy access policies on the basis of sex-disaggregated data from vulnerable populations.

66. UN Women highlighted a project in the United Republic of Tanzania that aimed to empower women and train them to install and maintain solar energy panels that deliver reliable, clean energy in rural villages. The training programme was conducted by the Barefoot College in India, with the six female participants of the project returning to their villages to install solar technologies to provide electricity to households. Beneficiaries included 460 households and schools. The solar engineers and other female members of village solar energy committees also became active participants in village meetings. The women have become role models and have demonstrated that when afforded the opportunity, they can be instrumental in community responses to climate change.

(ii) REDD-plus

67. REDD-plus was referred to as a mitigation activity where a gender-sensitive or -responsive approach was recognized as enhancing the effectiveness of climate outcomes. Women and men tend to have different roles, knowledge and perspectives about the use and conservation of forests. In its submission, CIFOR indicated that there is ample evidence of a positive relationship between women's participation in forest management decisions and enhanced forest management outcomes. However, as CIFOR also identified, in an analysis of 22 subnational REDD-plus initiatives in six countries, it was found that women's groups are substantially less knowledgeable about REDD-plus and participated less in REDD-plus initiatives than male-dominated mixed-gender groups. The study identified that women's participation in stakeholder consultation was nominal and tokenistic, due to structural gender inequality with respect to information-sharing and knowledge. CIFOR considered that gender analysis should therefore go beyond the collection of sex-disaggregated data and account for intra-community diversity and complexity, as well as identify potential threats to women's rights.

(iii) Transport

68. According to travel behaviour studies referred to by the ITF, women and men exhibit specific characteristics in their choice of mode of transport, time of travel, trip purpose, route, trip chain and trip distance. The differences are attributed primarily to the complexity of activities that women undertake more often than men. For example, multiple tasks and activities arising from the gender-based division of formal and informal work mean that women are more likely to have shorter commute distances, more complex multi-leg trips and non-employment-related trips; travel at off-peak hours; and prefer more flexible modes of transport depending on other social characteristics, such as age, income, household size or number of dependants. The ITF also noted that current transport policies and services may be gender-biased because such differences in travel behaviour are often overlooked.

69. Like the ITF's submission, the WGC's submission referred to a series of papers that consider policies for inclusive transit-oriented development, finding that public transit schedules are planned around the formal work economy and prioritize a pendular flow of trips made between peripheral areas and town centres in urban environments, whereas in many cases this did not reflect the majority of trips actually made. For example, in the United States of America, only 16 per cent of all trips are classified as commuting.

70. The ITF considers that understanding travel behaviour is central to an effective transition to low-carbon transport infrastructure and services, since such modes of transport, including public transport, cycling and walking, may not meet the complex needs and preferences of women (and men, where the gender-based division of formal and informal work is more balanced or changes over time).

71. In an example provided by WEDO of government or NGO action that addressed gender differences in, and increased the use of, cycling, the Ministry of Transport and Telecommunication of Chile identified that women comprised only 10 per cent of cyclists in Santiago and that quadrupling the number of cycle tracks between 2007 and 2012 failed to

attract female riders. A local NGO in Santiago, Macleta, identified that women either did not know how to cycle or were afraid to do so in the city. It subsequently offered two levels of cycling classes for women: one for beginners and another for those who knew how to cycle but were uncomfortable doing so in urban traffic. Afterwards, women and girls constituted 37 per cent of all cyclists in the city.

(c) Capacity-building and Action for Climate Empowerment

72. Most submissions identified capacity-building as critical to the effective integration of gender climate policies, plans and actions. Some Parties and observers referred to the implementation of dedicated capacity-building or education and training programmes on climate change, as well as capacity-building on gender as a component of climate projects or programmes. The gender aspect included the gender balance of participants and experts. The Philippines mentioned that it engages indigenous cultural communities that are particularly vulnerable to climate change in its knowledge-sharing and capacity-building programmes. The EU provided information about training and public information and awareness-raising programmes on climate change in some member countries that either target women or are led by women who integrate gender perspectives in climate change education and training.

(d) Technology

73. No submissions addressed the integration of gender in technology development and transfer as a separate topic, although some mentioned sector-specific technology that addressed the needs and perspectives of women, as well as men, in the context of mitigation or adaptation action and identified them as an important element of national climate action.

(e) Climate finance

74. While some submissions mentioned the need for climate financing to address the needs of women and men, only a few provided specific examples where climate financing had integrated gender considerations. In Sweden, it was reported that 80 per cent of climate-related financing by the Swedish International Development Cooperation in 2013–2016 also promoted gender equality. The Netherlands reported that its standard policy is to integrate gender in all climate change related development activities. Canada indicated that it is working to implement its Feminist International Assistance Policy in the provision of climate finance in collaboration with bilateral and multilateral partners to ensure that gender-responsive indicators and the tracking of sex-disaggregated data are incorporated into all results frameworks.

75. UN Women referred to a guidebook that it had developed on how to apply a co-benefits approach to gender equality and climate action, which included an introduction to climate finance concepts, sources and instruments and a discussion of their associated gender dimensions.

3. Needs, gaps and challenges

76. The most commonly cited needs, gaps or challenges in the integration of gender considerations into adaptation, mitigation, capacity-building, ACE, technology and finance policies, plans and actions were as follows:

(a) Capacity-building for national, subnational and local government officials and project implementers is required on gender integration in climate policies, plans and actions, and on climate change for women's associations or stakeholder groups so they can meaningfully participate in climate action;

(b) In those submissions that considered a human rights-based approach to climate action, reference was made to the need for policy and action to be guided by the multidimensional and intersectional experience of women and men to incorporate a broad range of human rights and gender considerations in climate change mitigation and build climate resilience;

(c) While tools to implement gender-responsive climate policy and action are available, capacity to use them is limited, and when they are used, they do not always include

sufficient or rigorous enough monitoring and evaluation. Gender budgeting is fundamental to effective implementation but, with few exceptions, is not yet used comprehensively in national budgets;

(d) Climate financing generally needs to be significantly more gender-responsive to ensure that support for national climate policies, plans and actions can consistently and effectively integrate gender considerations.

C. Policies, plans and progress in enhancing gender balance in national climate delegations

1. Submissions

77. All Party submissions considered that gender balance in their national delegation was important. In some cases, Parties noted that national legislation requiring gender balance – that is, equal or some other target rate of representation of women and men in parliament and/or government ministries (Kenya, the Philippines) – was deemed to apply to representation and participation in UNFCCC meetings. Parties also indicated that some form of monitoring of the gender composition of delegations to the UNFCCC was undertaken and that their respective delegations had previously been at or close to parity. Observer submissions that addressed the issue of gender balance in national climate delegations identified measures that could be taken to address imbalances.

78. No Parties or observers provided examples of specific national policies or strategies for ensuring gender balance in national climate delegations.

2. Measures for ensuring gender balance in national climate delegations

79. Measures identified in some submissions were consistent with those identified by presenters and further elaborated in working group sessions during the workshop,[6] including:

(a) Using temporary special measures such as quotas for the number of women in delegations;

(b) Sharing experiences about how gender balance has been achieved and how challenges have been overcome;

(c) Dedicated funding to support the travel and capacity-building of women to consistently participate in UNFCCC meetings. It was noted that while this may be provided through a dedicated fund, such as the Women Delegates Fund, for sustained results the allocation of national funding for participation in UNFCCC meetings needs to be gender balanced;

(d) Creating opportunities for networking to increase personal visibility, build connections through active participation in network activities and enhance collaboration with other delegates;

(e) Providing mentoring and encouragement for young women to enter and progress in subjects that are relevant to climate change negotiations, particularly in the areas of science, technology, engineering and mathematics;

(f) Capacity-building and awareness-raising, especially among men, so that they too are empowered to play an active role in improving and advocating for women's involvement and representation in climate change negotiations;

(g) Implementing a dedicated policy or process at the national level that is monitored in terms of compliance and progress towards achieving gender balance in national climate delegations.

[6] FCCC/SBI/2018/INF.15, paras. 60–79.

3. Needs, gaps and challenges

80. The most commonly cited needs, gaps or challenges in the context of achieving gender balance in national climate delegations were as follows:

(a) There is a need to increase the capacity of women delegates, particularly those from the least developed countries and small island developing States or other delegations that have small contingents at UNFCCC meetings, to be able to participate meaningfully in a broad range of UNFCCC topics;

(b) No dedicated policies or processes are in place at a national level to track and monitor progress;

(c) The gender composition of national delegations is reported under the UNFCCC as an aggregate figure and not per delegation, so a comparison of delegations is not possible;

(d) Funding allocation for participation in UNFCCC delegations tends not to be gender balanced, and only limited funding is available from other sources to supplement national funding allocations. The Trust Fund for Participation in the UNFCCC Process administered by the secretariat cannot require or specify that Parties should nominate women and men to receive funding support, as this could impact a Party's right to nominate whomever they wish for their delegation;

(e) A centralized, public roster of female experts and/or delegates who can be called upon to take up decision-making and technical roles within the UNFCCC is needed, including to raise the awareness of the availability of such experts.