



**GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE**  
Capacity development series  
**AFRICA** Training module **5**

# Gender and climate finance

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# I Purpose of the training module

## Box 1: Icon key



*Activity or  
exercise*



*Link to other  
training modules*



*PowerPoint or  
video presentation*



*Readings*



*Important  
information*



*Timing  
indication*



*Internet  
link*

## IA *Rationale*

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has developed a series of training modules and policy briefs on gender and climate change themes of specific relevance to the African region, including overall climate change issues, adaptation, energy, food security and finance. The knowledge products in this series are designed to build capacity in the African region on gender and climate change and on broader issues of sustainable development. These materials draw on work done in partnership with other members of the Global Gender and Climate Alliance (GGCA) and complement existing GGCA training modules, resource guides and related knowledge products. Their preparation has been made possible by contributions from the Government of Finland and the Government of Denmark. (For more detail, see the introduction to Module 1.)

This fifth module in the series deals with gender issues in climate finance.

## **IB** *Module structure and method*

This module provides basic information and learning tools needed to understand, advocate and influence climate change financing from the vantage point of incorporating gender perspectives in climate policy at all levels. It focuses on different climate finance funds, mechanisms and sources as they pertain to gender and covers the following points:

- Economic and social costs of climate change
- Gender dimensions of climate finance
- Ways in which climate financing could be improved to integrate gender perspectives

Learning objectives are outlined in Part II. The key messages of the module are presented in Part III, followed by Parts IV and V, which provide background, core information and analyses of the various and evolving mechanisms, funds and instruments of climate finance and the gender implications of the financing associated with such efforts. Part VI presents options for integrating gender perspectives into climate finance.

The module uses case studies from countries in the region and other learning tools, including group activities and videos. It uses seven easily identifiable pictures and icons that make the content more user-friendly (see Box 1).

This module includes references to other thematic modules in this series. The facilitators and participants are therefore encouraged to consult these modules.

Training based on this module could be delivered in three sessions:

- Session 1: Parts II and IV (1 hour)
- Session 2: Part V (1 hour)
- Session 3: Part VI (1 hour)

The Learning Tools section offers a breakdown of time for different activities.

## II Objectives

- Understand basic economic and social costs associated with climate change impacts within Africa.
- Discuss the main climate change financing mechanisms, institutions, funds and challenges to accessing climate finance as well as their gendered implications.
- Identify options for gender-sensitive approaches to climate finance.



## III Key messages



- Climate change has devastating economic and social costs, including the deepening of poverty and worsening of gender-defined inequalities, globally and in Africa.
- Many countries in Africa continue to have difficulties in accessing public and private climate finance. Mechanisms such as the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), National Climate Funds (NCFs) and the mainstreaming of climate change finance into national planning and budgeting processes can help to ameliorate these difficulties.
- Funding mechanisms established at the national level need to be gender-sensitive and must respond directly to the gendered impacts of climate change.
- The current architecture of climate finance shows different levels of gender sensitivity. While some progress has been made in reflecting gender concerns in climate finance mechanisms (especially with multilateral funds), much effort is still needed to ensure that all sources of climate finance systematically take gender issues into account and benefit the most vulnerable groups of society, including women.
- Financing for adaptation and mitigation efforts should require social and gender impact analyses.
- Public and private climate change financing needs to account for and mitigate the negative impacts of market actions on women's access to resources.
- Investing in women to scale up their activities in responding to climate change is important social policy. Their unique knowledge and experiences are valuable in contributing toward the effectiveness and sustainability of climate efforts.

- Traditional and historical disadvantages, such as less access to resources such as land, education, information, credit and political and decision-making processes at all levels, place women at a disadvantage for accessing climate finance.
- Climate change financing should be linked to the realization of the overarching goals of poverty eradication, sustainable development and gender equality. It is important to integrate gender perspectives into the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of climate financing strategies at all levels.

## IV The role of climate finance in addressing the economic and social costs of climate change in Africa

*Learning Objective: Understand the role of climate finance in tackling the economic and social costs of climate change impacts in Africa*

1. The overall economic costs of climate change are significant; this is particularly the case in Africa (see Paragraphs 2-3). Besides its economic toll, climate change can also harm the livelihoods of the poor and the most marginalized groups of society, including of women and girls. Women are often disproportionately vulnerable to the effects of climate change, due to, among other things, socio-cultural barriers, historical economic, political, and social discrimination, and gender-defined productive and reproductive roles that render them more dependent on climate-sensitive livelihoods and resources. In turn, climate change can exacerbate these gender disparities, particularly within many developing countries (see Modules 1 and 2 for additional discussion on this topic).

Climate finance could therefore help foster gender equality and, more broadly, catalyse social development (see Paragraph 8). The diversity of existing climate finance funds, mechanisms and sources are variously sensitive to gender (Part V). However, for climate finance to combat the challenges of climate change and to promote equitable social development for all women and men, it must be accessible. To date, many African countries have had problems in accessing the various sources of climate finance (see Paragraph 5). Just as important are that climate finance mechanisms need to target those most affected by climate change and that recipient countries be transparent, engage civil society and the public in decision-making and establish effective accountability measures and institutions (see Paragraphs 5 and 6).

2. Changing climate is already impacting the lives and livelihoods of millions. The 2011 Human Development Report (HDR) notes that countries low on the Human Development Index (HDI) have already experienced the greatest reduction in rainfall and the greatest increase in its variability, with implications for agricultural production and livelihoods (UNDP HDR 2011). Over the

**Table 1: Cost estimates for mitigation**

Source	Cost	Comments
UNDP (2011)	0.2% to 1.2% of annual world GDP	Investments needed to reduce the concentration of greenhouse gases (GHGs)
UNDP (2007)	1.6% of annual world GDP by 2030	The costs of stabilization at 450 parts per million (ppm) CO <sub>2</sub> e*
World Bank (2011)	\$140 billion to \$175 billion/year	Annual net cost by 2030 of developing-country mitigation measures to stay on a 2°C trajectory.
IEA (2009)	\$10.5 trillion (\$510 billion/year over next 20 years)	Additional energy investment needed in a business-as-usual fossil fuel scenario globally (between 2010-2030) to ensure a 50% chance of maintaining GHG concentration to less than 450 ppm** CO <sub>2</sub> e
UNFCCC (2008)	\$200 billion to \$210 billion/year	Global additional** investment needed by 2030 to reduce global GHG emissions by 25% below 2000 levels
Stern (2006)	-1% to +3.5 % of global GDP	The cost of stabilizing the GHG concentration in the atmosphere at a maximum of 550 ppm CO <sub>2</sub> e by 2050

\* CO<sub>2</sub>e (carbon dioxide equivalent) is the unit used to report GHGs or reductions. GHGs are converted to CO<sub>2</sub>e by multiplying their respective global warming potential (GWP) and this allows for reporting of GHG emissions in a standardized value.

\*\*"Additional" means that the resources expected exceed projected future increases in funding under existing official development assistance (ODA) programs.

Sources: UNDP HDR 2007; UNDP HDR 2011, World Bank 2011a; Parry et al. 2009; UNFCCC 2008.

next decades, many sectors will suffer climate-change-related damage. From agriculture and declining crop productivity, loss of agro-diversity and food security to heat waves, diseases and storms, these could endanger human security and reverse developments in poverty eradication and progress toward the achievement of the MDGs (UNDP HDR 2007, 2011). Cost estimates for adaptation and mitigation efforts vary widely, ranging from \$249 billion to \$1,371 billion annually by 2030 (UNDP 2011a) (see Tables 1 and 2). The large difference in estimates is due in part to: 1) the difficulty in distinguishing adaptation efforts from related development efforts; 2) the fact that not all estimates account for the cost of adapting to the impact of climate change on ecosystems; and 3) the fact that the costs of integrating new renewable energies are context- and site-specific and thus difficult to estimate globally.

**Table 2: Cost estimates for adaptation efforts**

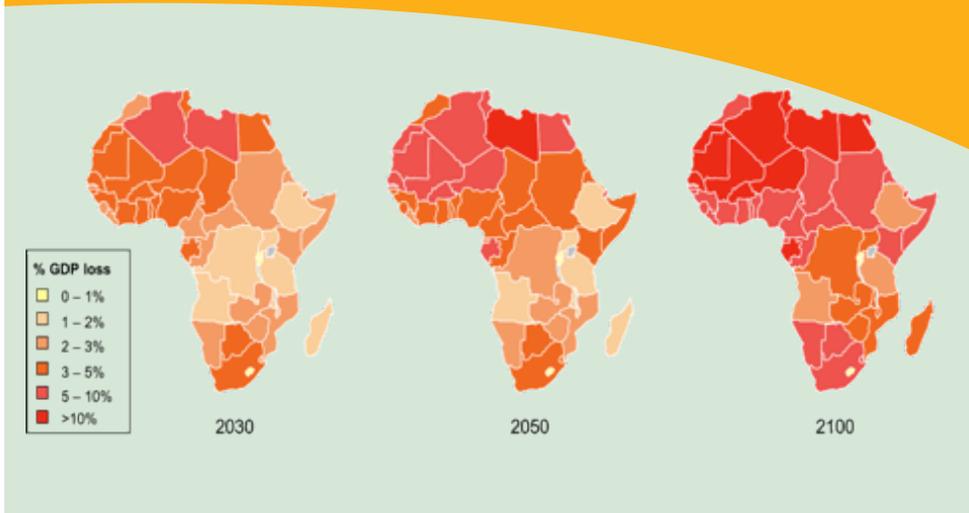
Source	Cost	Comments
UNDP (2011d)	\$105 billion/year	New additional* adaptation finance needed by 2030
UNDP (2007)	\$86 billion/year	New additional* adaptation finance needed by 2015
World Bank (2010)	\$70 billion to \$100 billion/year	Annual cost by 2050 of developing-country adaptation measures to a 2°C warmer world.
Stern (2006)	\$4 billion to \$37 billion/year	
UNFCCC (2007)	\$14 billion/year	Estimated overall additional investment and financial flows needed for adaptation in 2030 by sector – this translates to a \$49 billion to \$171 billion range in total adaptation cost.
Agriculture, forestry & human health	\$11 billion/year	
Fisheries	\$5 billion/year	
Water supply	\$11 billion/year	
Coastal zones	\$8 billion to \$130 billion/year	
Infrastructure		

\*“Additional” means that the resources expected exceed projected future increases in funding under existing official development assistance (ODA) programs.

Sources: UNDP HDR 2007, UNDP HDR 2011, Perry et al. 2009, World Bank 2010, UNFCCC 2007, Stern 2006.

Despite the fact that Africa has contributed the least to historical greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, the continent is “one of the most vulnerable continents to climate change and climate variability” (IPCC 2007). As Africa is home to 33 of the world’s 48 least developed countries (LDCs), the cost of climate change impacts in these African countries is bound to be significantly high relative to those countries’ means. A recent report by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) notes that “the economic impacts of climate change in Africa are likely to be significantly higher than in many other world regions and they could be significant in the short term, with estimates that the costs could be equivalent to 1.5 - 3 percent of global gross domestic product (GDP) per year by 2030” (UNEP 2010). Agriculture, the mainstay of millions, as well as fisheries and tourism (especially in low-lying areas) are among the sectors expected to be severely affected (IPCC 2007). This cost is too much as it is, but it is predicted to be eventually even greater (see Figure 1).

*Figure 1: Cost of climate change in Africa expressed as a percentage of GDP loss*



Source: UNEP 2010

3. On adaptation, reports and studies (see Paragraph 2) indicate that the costs in Africa could range from \$5 billion to \$30 billion a year for 2010-2015. These financing needs are also likely to rise, with estimates ranging from \$10 billion to \$60 billion a year for 2020-2030 (UNEP 2010). A World Bank report also puts the cost of adaptation in sub-Saharan Africa at up to \$17 billion a year (World Bank 2010). According to this study, Ethiopia, Ghana and Mozambique may experience respective GDP losses of 2 to 8 percent, 2 to 7 percent and 4 to 14 percent, respectively, relative to their expected growth by 2050 if they do not invest in adaptation to sectors that will be heavily impacted by climate change (see World Bank 2010).
4. Over the past few years, capital flows, sources and funding in climate change have been steadily increasing, albeit with more emphasis on mitigation efforts. Within the context of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), important commitments have been made to bolster climate finance over the past three years:

**Table 3: Annual costs of climate change in Africa, as an equivalent percentage of GDP**

<b>Temperature rise</b>	<b>Year reached</b>	<b>Economic costs as percentage of GDP</b>
1.5°C	2040	1.7%
2°C	2060	3.4%
4.1°C	2100	10%

Source: UNEP 2010, Clements 2009, World Bank 2010.

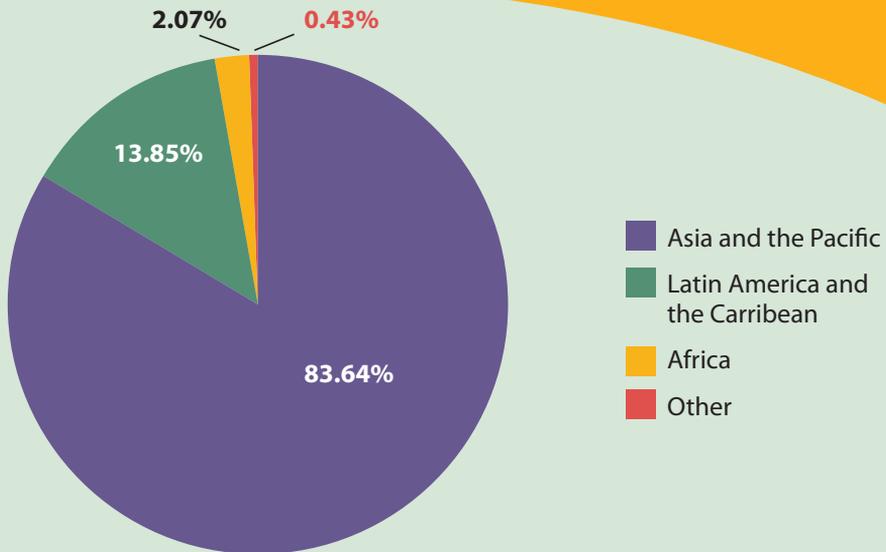
- ‘Fast-start finance’ (FSF) of \$30 billion per year for the period 2010-2012 and ‘long-term finance’ of \$100 billion by 2020 through a ‘Green Climate Fund’ (GCF), prioritized for the most vulnerable developing countries, which includes LDCs and Small Island Developing States (SIDS) and thus countries in Africa.
  - As of November 2011, the total amount of individual FSF pledges by developed countries was \$28.22 billion (WRI 2011).
  - Meeting the long-term goal of mobilizing \$100 billion annually for climate actions in developing countries by 2020 will be difficult, but the Secretary General’s High-level Advisory Group on Climate Financing set up by the UN Secretary General concludes that “it is challenging but feasible” (See UN 2010).
5. The proliferation of sources of climate finance notwithstanding, underdeveloped countries – including many in Africa – generally face continuing challenges in accessing climate finance (see Box 3). The Kyoto Protocol’s CDM, which supports projects that reduce GHG emissions reductions in developing countries and assists developing host countries to achieve sustainable development, is a fitting illustration. As of July 2012, there were only 91 – of a total of 4,389 – registered CDM projects in Africa, making up a mere 2.07 percent of the total number of registered CDM projects (see

## Box 2: What is climate finance?

There is no internationally agreed definition of what constitutes climate finance. Climate finance flows in many directions, including international ('North-South' and 'South-South') and domestic flows. While domestic resources are often used to address climate change, National Climate Funds (NCFs) are still in their infancy. Hence, 'climate finance' usually refers to financial flows from industrial countries to developing countries to help them transition to a low-carbon development path and to adapt to climate change. Further, climate finance includes public and private sources of funding and is channeled into the broad areas of mitigation, adaptation, and Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD+).

Source: UNFCCC 2009

### Figure 2: Registered CDM projects by region (4,389)



Source: <http://cdm.unfccc.int> (26 July 2012)

### Box 3: Climate finance and the 'access' challenge

*"Although evidence on global needs and official aid commitments and disbursements is patchy and magnitudes are uncertain, the overall picture is clear. Development assistance reaches only 1.6 percent of even the lower bound estimate of needs for low-carbon energy and around 11 percent for climate change [...]. These numbers are slightly better for water and sanitation, where aid commitments are more than twice the lower estimate of needs and close to 20 percent of the upper estimate.*

*"Access to financing is uneven and generally correlated with a country's level of development. Many resources go to the countries developing fastest. Low-income countries account for a third of the 161 countries receiving Global Environment Facility allocations, but they receive only 25 percent of the funding (and least developed countries, only 9 percent). In 2010, under the Climate Investment Funds, Mexico and Turkey accounted for about half the approved project funding in clean technology. Evidence also suggests that the resources have been allocated less equally over time."*

Source: UNDP HDR 2011: 90.

Figure 2). The reasons for this imbalance include low level of development (and hence lower GHG emissions and less abatement potential), limited human and technical resources, and lack of institutional capacity (Arens et al. 2011).

Many African countries face challenges in accessing climate finance. These challenges are not just limited to the CDM. On the contrary, many countries in Africa struggle with the gamut of finance funds available. For example, "Of the roughly US\$ 10 billion of funding approved by mid-2011, only US\$ 350 million was devoted to climate change adaptation in Africa" (Schalatek 2011). A related challenge for many countries in Africa is that many of the funds available do not provide direct access and the procedures and modalities for accessing the funds are cumbersome (Nakhlooda et al. 2011). Having direct access modalities within financing mechanisms is important because they can increase financing opportunities; link financing to specific national climate and development priorities; strengthen a sense of program ownership; and more directly target local priority areas (UNDP, 2011b). If effective in taking a gender-sensitive approach, such financing has the potential to reach those most vulnerable to the effects of climate change, including the poor and women, and correspondingly provide opportunities for improving the livelihoods of women.

There are, however, efforts to help improve access. In fact, the share of African CDM projects is currently increasing, due to various factors such as capacity-building measures and increased appreciation of the CDM (see Arens et al., UNFCCC 2011). Besides, there are various other climate funds (mostly in adaptation and REDD+ efforts) that will be increasingly channeled to poor regions, including Africa (see Part VI). However, it is crucial that these funds be used properly and that the communities whose livelihoods are mostly affected by climatic stresses be included in benefit-sharing. Moreover, this volume of funding still does not meet demand. To maximize the effectiveness of available climate finance opportunities, more transparency, accountability and equity are necessary, since large inflow of resources and the imperative to spend may lead to misuse of resources (Transparency International 2011, UNDP 2011c).

6. Despite challenges related to access, equity and governance, generally discussed above in Paragraph 5, climate finance offers enormous opportunities not only in addressing the economic costs of the negative impacts of climate change in Africa as well as adaptation costs, but also in dealing with poverty reduction, advancing sustainable development and promotion of gender equality (UNDP 2011a, Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland 2010). Regrettably, existing climate financing regimes do not often provide marginalized groups or the poor, including women, with easy and sufficient access to funds covering weather-related losses or to service adaptation and mitigation technologies.



**Module 1**  
**Module 2**

## Summary questions

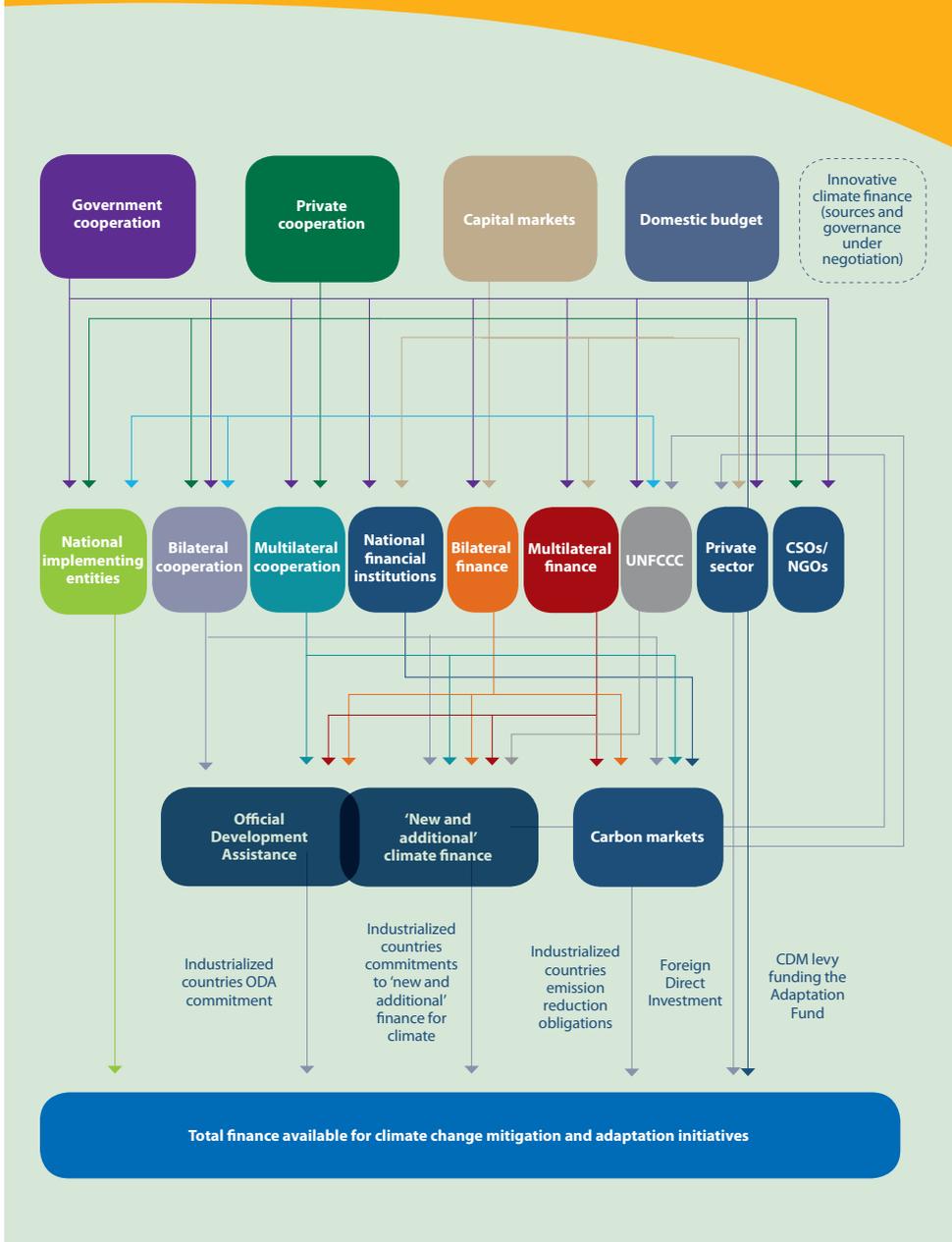
- **Provide the highs and lows of the estimated annual costs of climate change in Africa.**
- **Provide the highs and lows of the estimated annual cost of adaptation in Africa.**
- **List the social costs of climate change.**
- **Mention some of the structural problems at the national level that contribute to the challenges of accessing climate finance.**

## V Gender aspects of climate finance

### *Learning Objective: Understand the gender dimensions of climate finance mechanisms*

7. Adaptation and mitigation efforts globally and in Africa will necessitate significant resources to cover the cost of the goods, services and technologies that developing and developed countries need to address the effects of climate change. Financing climate change responses therefore encompasses the role and actions of financial institutions and decision makers and includes a range of actors, funds and mechanisms. There are over 50 international public funds, 45 carbon markets and 6,000 private equity funds providing climate change finance (UNDP 2011d). These actors include governments, inter-governmental organizations (e.g., UN agencies and multilateral development banks) and private sector actors such as investors, corporations and hedge funds. The mechanisms include a mix of market- and non-market-based mechanisms and they have complex governance structures (Flynn 2011, UNDP 2011a, see Figure 3 for the various sources, agents and channels of climate finance). For the purposes of this Module, focus will be placed on general groupings of climate finance (Paragraphs 9 A-F) and a few of the funds and their gender dimensions that are particularly relevant to Africa (see Paragraphs 10-13).
8. Although there are notable efforts, especially with multilateral funds, to integrate gender considerations into climate change responses, the current climate finance architecture still has gender gaps that need to be overcome. Women bring unique perspectives and skills in natural resources management that are beneficial for effective adaptation and mitigation. Research indicates that their enhanced participation at the national level also leads to environmental gains, with multiplier effects across all MDGs (UNDP HDR 2011). Therefore, by ensuring that climate change financing is geared toward catalysing the necessary institutional and policy changes to advance sound social policy and gender equality, one can also ensure that the returns on investments in adaptation and mitigation efforts are greater. Integrating gender perspectives and gender criteria into climate financing mechanisms and strategies would hence enhance the value and sustainability of climate efforts (UNDP 2011a, Dankelman 2010, Schalatek 2009). Accordingly, gender-sensitive and gender-inclusive criteria need to be prioritized within financing mechanisms for

Figure 3: Climate change finance: Sources, agents and channels



Source: UNDP (2011).

climate change. Further, more effort is needed to ensure that climate finance is geared toward mitigating and adapting to the effects of climate change while simultaneously alleviating poverty and promoting human development.

**9A. Public vs. private climate finance:** Public-sector financing for climate change responses redistributes the flow of funds through bilateral and multilateral processes, such as dedicated climate funds, and specialized market-oriented mechanisms. Various actors manage public financing, including: 1) the United Nations (UNFCCC/Global Environment Facility (GEF)); 2) the World Bank; 3) other multilateral finance and development institutions; and 4) a host of bilateral donors. In contrast, private-sector financing plays roles in and employs instruments similar to those in conventional financial markets. Many actors are groupings of companies and financial intermediaries with extensive experience with global flows of finance and investments. The private-sector network includes foundations, venture capital funds, private carbon funds and a network of exchanges (UNDP 2011a). The importance of private climate finance cannot be overplayed. It is estimated, for example, that private-sector climate finance in developing countries is three times greater than public finance (Climate Policy Initiative 2011). In addition, public-private climate finance exists as a blend of these two forms of finance, such as the CDM, and other international public-private investments on adaptation and mitigation efforts.

The different forms of public and private climate finance are beginning to address gender issues in different ways and with differing degrees of sensitivity. While progress continues to be made with most multilateral climate funds such as the UNFCCC funds and Climate Investment Funds (CIFs) (see Table 4), there needs to be more mainstreaming of gender into private-sector financing. This is also the case with bilateral financing. For example, Finland is increasingly including gender as a cross-cutting issue in all development cooperation, including climate finance. With private finance, gender-based discrimination in access to resources (such as land and credit) constrains women from engaging in markets, including the carbon market (World Bank 2009, United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) 2011, UNDP 2011a). Overall, with these forms of climate finance, much improvement is still required to ensure that they catalyse positive social development, including gender equality, in recipient countries.

**9B. National climate finance:** In addition to external support, developing countries are also making domestic investments in climate efforts that are likely to increase (Bupna et al. 2008). A related, perhaps even more promising trend not only for financing climate efforts, but also for properly managing and using finances is the establishment of National Climate Funds (NCF). NCFs are “nationally-driven and nationally-owned funds that help countries to collect climate finance from a variety of sources, coordinate them, blend them together and account for them” (Flynn 2011). Carefully designed, NCFs would allow countries to make more prudent and effective use of the money they receive.

National budgetary processes have a long way to go in mainstreaming gender issues. NCFs are still in their infancy. However, this is an opportunity to ensure that they also become inclusive and equitable and contribute toward social development and gender equality. While governments generally enunciate their support for gender equality, this rhetoric and the ways in which they raise and spend money often do not match up. This rift needs to be eliminated. Gender-responsive budgeting can help by ensuring that public resources are used more effectively and equitably, with focus on reprioritizing financial flows to address gender gaps rather than just increasing overall expenses (for more information, see UN Women 2012). It can also help promote gender equality goals by improving accountability for public resources to the populace, especially to women, who are by and large more marginalized than men in decision-making about public money (Elson 2002).

Beyond national climate funds, it is also important that climate change finance readiness – a reference to “the capacities of countries to plan for, access, deliver, and monitor and report on climate finance, both international and domestic, in ways that are catalytic and fully integrated with national development priorities and achievement of the MDGs” (UNDP 2012) – at the national level be strengthened so that countries and local authorities are better-equipped to access, absorb and properly use in a participatory and gender-sensitive manner the funds they receive. It is not enough that only multilateral funding entities be gender-responsive; national processes and mechanisms within the context of climate finance readiness also need to be gender-responsive. If the climate finance preparedness processes do not integrate gender, it is unlikely that the outcomes of these processes will be gender-responsive.

**9C. South-South climate finance:** While there is no significant South-South transfer of resources for climate-change-related efforts at present, the emerging economies (e.g., China, India and Brazil) may provide adaptation funding to low-income countries to help them cope with climate change (Bupna et al. 2008). South-South collaboration on climate finance can also be quite helpful in the sharing of knowledge, lessons learned and good practices in accessing, managing, and delivering various external and domestic climate financing strategies. For example, African and Asian countries can learn from each other's experiences of how to access and generate climate finance resources and similarly how to effectively deliver them at the national level through various mechanisms in a manner that is also gender-responsive. In this regard, Box 4 below presents a good practice in Cambodia that is applicable to African countries and demonstrates how gender equality concepts can be successfully integrated into a NCF.

**9D. Mitigation vs. adaptation finance:** There is some criticism that mitigation activities receive the most funding from global climate change financial coffers and that funding for adaptation projects is less readily available than funding for mitigation projects. For example, in 2009/2010, most climate finance (\$93 billion of \$97 billion) was used for mitigation in contrast to that (\$4.4 billion) which went to adaptation efforts. This is a glaring disparity. What's more, 68 percent of investments in renewable energies went to China, 10 percent to Brazil and 5 percent to India (Buchner et al. 2011).

Adaptation and mitigation efforts are indispensable for the achievement of the MDGs (UNDP HDR 2010, 2011). The financing of these efforts would therefore have important upshots to major development goals, including poverty reduction and promotion of gender equality. However, women continue to be exposed to gender-based discrimination in access to resources, finance and participation in decision-making processes (FAO 2011, World Bank 2011), which in turn limits their ability to be involved in and benefit from climate change response strategies. This situation also manifests itself in the realm of climate finance.

Women do not have easy and sufficient access to funds to cover weather-related losses or to avail themselves of adaptation technologies (Schalatek 2009). Further, while women play a major role in the reforestation and afforestation of cleared land and in forest conservation, they do not usually

#### *Box 4: Good practices – Cambodia NCF supports gender mainstreaming initiatives*

*The Cambodia Climate Change Alliance Trust Fund (CCCA TF) was launched in 2010 as the funding arm of the Cambodia Climate Change Alliance (CCCA), a national programme to support capacity development and institutional strengthening to prepare for, and mitigate, climate change risks. The Alliance aims to directly help vulnerable communities by enhancing their resilience to climate change and other natural hazards. The CCCA TF is financed by bilateral donors, including the European Union, Sweden and Denmark, as well as by UNDP.*

*UNDP and other donors and implementing partners are working hard to mainstream gender into the CCCA programme and its activities. The Cambodian government's adoption of the Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan in 2012 under the support from the CCCA programme is a great opportunity to achieve this. Including gender dimensions in the Strategic Plan is key because this plan will be implemented at the policy-making level of the government and engages various partners at the decision-making level. Furthermore, the Ministry of Women's Affairs has received a \$15,000 grant under the CCCA policy development component to conduct a technical review of the key sectoral climate change mainstreaming roadmaps that the priority sectoral ministries will develop to ensure that gender aspects are being considered in these respective roadmaps. These will also provide inputs to the overall development of the Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan.*

Source: Flynn 2011; UNDP Cambodia 2012.

benefit from these environmental services (e.g., payments for environmental services) (GTZ 2010). In addition, accessing funds entails cumbersome processes such as application, registration, approval, implementation, evaluation and monitoring of funds such that women's and community groups may have difficulties accessing and absorbing funds that are designed for large-scale, well-capitalized projects (UNDP 2010, Aguilar, L. et al. 2009).

Therefore, those projects able to secure funding need to include gender analysis in planning, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation to make sure that women's needs are considered. In some cases, existing funds

have been criticized for unduly focusing on large-scale, well-capitalized projects rather than on small projects – particularly those operated by marginalized groups, including women. For example, typical women’s activities that could count as adaptation and mitigation (such as tree planting) could get overlooked. Be that as it may, the regime of climate finance is still evolving. While certain funds are more increasingly gender-sensitive, there is still much room for improvement (see Table 4 for gender aspects of some major sources of climate finance).

**9E. Market v. non-market-based finance:** Climate finance can be delivered through non-market-based financial forms (e.g., through direct transfers to recipient countries), including public sector funds, project subsidies and the like. A successful request for direct funding (e.g., a grant) from a developing country to a multilateral public finance mechanism, such as the Global Environment Facility, could be considered such financing. Market-based mechanisms are often operated by private actors (e.g., CDM, Joint Implementation and Emissions Trading under the UNFCCC), although public actors are becoming more involved in market-based climate finance. For example, “the World Bank manages over US\$2 billion across 12 funds and facilities. It sources its funds from 16 governments and 66 private companies. Its two new market-based or carbon facilities are the Forest Carbon Partnership Facility (FCPF) and the Carbon Partnership Facility (CPF)” (Aguilar, L. et al. 2009, see 9A above and Table 4 below for brief gender analysis of both forms of finance).

**9F. Other sources:** The diverse climate finance mechanisms and funds continue to evolve. The following links list and describe diverse finance regimes for adaptation, mitigation, technology transfer, capacity-building:



[www.climatefinanceoptions.org](http://www.climatefinanceoptions.org)

[www.climatefundsupdate.org](http://www.climatefundsupdate.org)

Table 4 provides a sample list of climate finance funds and mechanisms available for African countries. It also describes their governance structures and briefly analyses their gender responsiveness.

**Table 4: Gender aspects of key sources of climate finance available to African countries**

<b>Funds / mechanisms</b>	<b>Governance</b>	<b>Gender aspects</b>
<p>Adaptation Fund (AF)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Operationalized in 2009</li> <li>➤ Finances 'concrete' adaptation projects and programmes in developing countries that are Parties to the Kyoto Protocol and particularly vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change</li> <li>➤ Managed by the Adaptation Fund Board (AFB) consisting of 16 members and 16 alternates; GEF provides secretariat services to the AFB and the World Bank serves as trustee of the AF (both on an interim basis)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ While no specific gender references were included in the original operational guidelines, accreditation procedure and project review criteria of the AF, the Fund's Operational Policies and Guidelines (OPGs) were revised in June 2011 to reference gender considerations. Specifically, gender considerations are now incorporated into its project and programme review criteria and template for project/programme proposals. In addition, the OPGs' instructions for preparing a request for project or programme funding instruct programme countries to include gender considerations when consulting with stakeholders; specify how marginalized groups, such as women, will be involved in and benefit from the project/programme; and use sex-disaggregated targets and indicators within their monitoring and evaluation arrangements.</li> <li>➤ These new guidelines need to be enforced to address gender aspects in the development and implementation projects on the ground (UNDP 2010b, UNDP 2011a).</li> </ul>

**Table 4: (cont-d) Gender aspects of key sources of climate finance available to African countries**

<b>Funds / mechanisms</b>	<b>Governance</b>	<b>Gender aspects</b>
<p>Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Operationalized in 2002</li> <li>➤ Assists LDCs in National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA) preparation and implementation; main sectors targeted include food security and agriculture, coastal management, and water resources</li> <li>➤ 56.1% of the approved funds are dedicated to increasing resilience of LDCs in Africa (status: June 2012)</li> <li>➤ Managed by the GEF</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ The GEF has made progress toward incorporating a gender perspective into LDCF and SCCF operations. For example, the 2010 Revised Programming Strategy of the GEF for the LDCF and SCCF states that the funds will “(1) encourage implementing agencies to conduct gender analyses; (2) require vulnerability analyses to take gender into account; and (3) integrate gender as appropriate in all results frameworks and in updated operational guidance” (UNDP 2011a).</li> </ul>
<p>Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF)*</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Operationalized in 2002</li> <li>➤ Established to support adaptation and technology transfer in all developing country parties to the UNFCCC; supports long-term and short-term adaptation activities</li> <li>➤ Managed by the GEF</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ The Cancun Adaptation Framework (CAF)* affirms that enhanced action on adaptation should follow a “country-driven, gender-sensitive, participatory and fully transparent approach” (UNFCCC 2011). The ongoing implementation of NAPAs and future implementation of the CAF should fully integrate gender considerations.</li> <li>➤ In May 2011, the GEF approved a Policy on Gender Mainstreaming, which will inform LDCF and SCCF operations.</li> </ul>

**Table 4: (cont-d) Gender aspects of key sources of climate finance available to African countries**

<b>Funds / mechanisms</b>	<b>Governance</b>	<b>Gender aspects</b>
<p>Forest Carbon Partnership Facility (FCPF)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Operationalized in 2008</li> <li>➤ Helps developing countries to reduce emissions from deforestation and degradation (REDD)</li> <li>➤ Consists of Readiness Fund and Carbon Fund</li> <li>➤ Governed by Participants Assembly and Participants Committee (14 REDD+ countries, 14 financial contributors plus observers); World Bank assumes functions as Trustee, Secretariat, and Delivery Partner</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ The World Bank's 'Environmental and Social Safeguard Policies' address the question of gender only within the context of benefit-sharing of social and economic benefits by indigenous groups and other forest dependent communities (World Bank 2008).</li> <li>➤ The 'Environmental and Social Safeguard Policies' are under revision and there is hope that gender aspects will be featured more prominently in the revised version</li> </ul>
<p>Climate Investment Funds (CIFs)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Created and formally approved in 2008, started to roll out piloting programs in 2009</li> <li>➤ Pair of funds to help developing countries to pilot low-emission and climate-resilient development</li> <li>➤ CIFs consist of distinct funds: the Clean Technology Fund (CTF) finances transfer of clean technologies in countries or regions that have the potential for mitigation; the Strategic Climate Fund (SCF) finances programs that pilot new climate change approaches including the Forest Investment Programme (FIP), Pilot Programme for Climate Resilience (PPCR) and Scaling Up Renewable Energy Programme in Low Income Countries (SREP)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ While most CIF programmes did not meaningfully incorporate gender perspectives when they started off, significant progress continues to be made in incorporating gender issues (UNDP 2011a). For example:             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ While the CTF has not integrated gender considerations into any of its operations, there are attempts to incorporate some sex-disaggregated indicators into its operations (UNDP, 2010c).</li> <li>▪ The PPCR's guidelines for joint missions for Phase 1 note the need for consultations with key stakeholders that identify and consult vulnerable groups, including women. In addition, the PPCR Roster of Experts is now more gender-balanced, including an increased number of women (34 men, 13 women, status: May 2012).</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

**Table 4: (cont-d) Gender aspects of key sources of climate finance available to African countries**

<b>Funds / mechanisms</b>	<b>Governance</b>	<b>Gender aspects</b>
<p>Climate Investment Funds (CIFs) (cont-d)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Channeled through African Development Bank, Asian Development Bank, European Bank of Reconstruction and Development, Inter-American Development Bank, World Bank Group</li> <li>➤ The World Bank is the Trustee of the CIFs – the organizational structure includes separate Trust Fund Committees for the CTF and SCF and separate sub-committees for the PPCR, FIP and SREP</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Programming Modalities and Operational Guidelines of the SREP note that “investments should seek to strengthen the capacity of women to be active participants in the economic sector and avoid negative impacts on women” (UNDP 2011a).</li> <li>➤ Overall, CIF Trust Fund Committees and Subcommittees are increasingly recognizing the importance of gender and are consistently requesting that gender dimensions be taken into account in investment plans and project proposals (UNDP 2011a). Additional measures currently being pursued by the CIF include a gender impact assessment to identify where further progress is needed and to develop recommendations and tools for pilot countries and project teams to integrate gender considerations into their operations. The assessment is planned to take place in 2012.</li> </ul>

**Table 4: (cont-d) Gender aspects of key sources of climate finance available to African countries**

<b>Funds / mechanisms</b>	<b>Governance</b>	<b>Gender aspects</b>
UN-REDD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Operationalized in 2009</li> <li>➤ United Nations Collaborative initiative (UNDP, FAO and UNEP), on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in developing countries</li> <li>➤ The UN-REDD Programme is a Multi-Donor Trust Fund (MDTF). UNDP has been appointed as the Administrative Agent for the UN-REDD Programme MDTF</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Given that REDD activities, without having proper social or gender safeguards in place, can potentially lead to poor women and men losing access to traditionally used lands or be bypassed in receiving benefits from REDD programmes (UNDP 2011a), efforts have been made to integrate gender equality considerations into the UN-REDD programme. Thus far, UN-REDD has achieved the following:             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ An interagency gender working group in the UN-REDD Programme has been set up to coordinate the cross-cutting work on gender equality.</li> <li>▪ Gender considerations have been integrated into the UN-REDD &amp; FCPF Stakeholder Engagement Guidelines.</li> <li>▪ The 2010-2015 UN-REDD Programme Strategy has made gender equality one of its guiding principles (UN-REDD 2011).</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

**Table 4: (cont-d) Gender aspects of key sources of climate finance available to African countries**

<b>Funds / mechanisms</b>	<b>Governance</b>	<b>Gender aspects</b>
<p>Clean Development Mechanism (CDM)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Established through the Kyoto Protocol in 2007</li> <li>➤ Allows emission-reduction projects in developing countries to earn certified emission reduction (CER) credits (each credit is equivalent to one ton of CO<sub>2</sub>). These CERs can be traded and sold and used by industrialized countries to meet a part of their emission reduction targets under the Kyoto Protocol</li> <li>➤ One of the sources of income for the AF</li> <li>➤ As of July 2012, 4,389 CDM projects were registered, of which 91 were based in Africa</li> <li>➤ Managed by the CDM Executive Board</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Most CDM projects tend to overlook small-scale mitigation projects, in which the poor – women in particular – are likely to engage (UNDP 2010a, Schalatek 2009).</li> <li>➤ While CDM rules dictate that project developers must consult with local stakeholders before a project can be registered, in reality, certain groups, including women, can be excluded from consultations and gender aspects of the projects can easily be overlooked (UNDP 2010a).</li> <li>➤ As of 2007, the CDM Executive Board has approved programmatic CDM (pCDM) that allows the bundling of otherwise distinct projects under a Programme of Activities and ensuing registry. Although it has its own limitations, pCDM could help leverage needed financing for small local-level projects that tend to benefit poor and marginalized groups in society, including women.</li> </ul>

**Table 4: (cont-d) Gender aspects of key sources of climate finance available to African countries**

<b>Funds / mechanisms</b>	<b>Governance</b>	<b>Gender aspects</b>
Green Climate Fund (GCF)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Established at the 16th Conference of the Parties (COP) to the UNFCCC in 2010</li> <li>➤ Designed by a Transitional Committee (TC) comprised of 40 members (15 from developed countries, 25 from developing countries); the TC was also open to observers</li> <li>➤ To be governed by the GCF Board comprising 24 members, as well as alternate members, with equal number of members from developing and developed country Parties</li> <li>➤ World Bank serves as interim Trustee</li> <li>➤ Will support adaptation and mitigation projects and programmes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ As the GCF is being designed, opportunities arise for integrating gender considerations. Great successes in this regard include:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Per the governance instrument of the GCF approved at COP-17, explicit gender considerations have been built into the Funds' objectives and guiding principles, operational modalities, stakeholder input and participation, and governance and institutional arrangements. This is a historic achievement that will mark the GCF as the first fund to integrate gender considerations from the onset, although much remains to be done to ensure that these policy options are sustained and integrated within climate change efforts on the ground.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

\* A product of three years of negotiations on adaptation, the Cancun Adaptation Framework (CAF) was adopted as part of the Cancun Agreements at the 2010 Climate Change Conference held in Cancun at the 16th Conference of Parties (COP-16) / and 6th Conference of the Parties serving as the meeting of the Parties to the Kyoto Protocol (CMP) 6. As part of the Cancun Agreements, Parties agreed that adaptation must be addressed with the same level of priority as mitigation. See [http://unfccc.int/adaptation/cancun\\_adaptation\\_framework/items/5852.php](http://unfccc.int/adaptation/cancun_adaptation_framework/items/5852.php) for additional information.

Sources: UNDP 2010a, UNDP 2010b, UNDP 2010c, UNDP 2011a, UNFCCC 2011, UN-REDD 2011, Schalatek 2009.

Figures for funds are based on <http://www.climatefundsupdates.org/projects> (as of November 2011)

Figures for CDM are based on <http://cdm.unfccc.int/Statistics/index.html> (as of May 2012)

Figures for CIFs are based on <http://www.climateinvestmentfunds.org/cif/> (as of November 2011)

Figures for LDCF and SCCF are based on <http://www.thegef.org/gef/sites/thegef.org/files/documents/Status%20report%208%20May.pdf> (as of May 2012) and <http://www.thegef.org/gef/LDCF> (as of June 2012)

## Summary questions

- **Mention some of the challenges that women face in accessing climate finance.**
- **What are national climate funds? To what extent do national climate change funds incorporate gender considerations?**
- **Select any of the funds/mechanisms listed under the first column in Table 4 above and explain what has been done and could further be improved regarding the integration of gender considerations.**

## VI Options for engendering climate finance

*Learning Objective: Explore ways and means of incorporating gender perspectives as well as increasing access and efficiency in climate financing*

10. Finance is a key resource and tool in addressing the challenges posed by climate change. Broadly, the response to climate change entails a diversity of programmes, initiatives and bodies. Ensuring that climate change financing equitably impacts women and men entails seeking opportunities within each. Table 5 provides a list of suggestions for doing so.
11. Gender equality and women's empowerment have a symbiotic relationship with adaptation and mitigation goals of climate finance. By also focusing finances on roles, activities and tasks that are typically undertaken by women, climate finance could promote gender equality and empower women and girls. Such improvement in equity in social policy would improve and increase the reach of individual, local and national adaptation and mitigation activities, which in turn would also aid broader sustainable development goals. It is therefore important to mainstream gender in climate change responses that include women's empowerment efforts (see Table 6).
12. The nature and scope of economic and social empowerment processes must be broadened to address the social and economic costs of climate change. There needs to be better understanding of the relationships among the various forms of finance and their actual impact on social policy and ease of access to them. (See Table 7)
13. Strategic opportunities and openings exist for informing, modifying and/or reforming existing frameworks in institutions, instruments and mechanisms (such as the UNFCCC, World Bank and GEF) so as to make them more gender-sensitive.

Most of the prioritized NAPA projects that were proposed by the 49 LDCs – 33 of which are in Africa – are entering the implementation phase. Acknowledging the necessity to continue this work, the decisions of COP-16 in Cancun highlighted the need for equal emphasis on adaptation and mitigation and

*Table 5: Gender-sensitizing procedures and mechanisms*

- *Incorporate gender analytical tools into all phases of programme design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation*
- *Compile sex-disaggregated data on how climate policy and economic mechanisms give incentives to individuals, households and businesses*
- *Develop principles and procedures to protect and encourage women's access to national adaptation and mitigation programmes and projects*
- *Establish gender-based criteria in fund allocation, project selection, and other aspects of decision-making*
- *Advocate for strong property rights, particularly for marginalized groups, including women and the poor*
- *Use regulatory, budgetary, and tax policies to provide resources and revenue to fund climate change mitigation and adaptation activities*
- *Build climate finance staffs' capacity and awareness of gender mainstreaming and equality principles*
- *Ensure women's effective and balanced participation in decision-making*
- *Build women's capacities to engage effectively*

For further information on these suggestions, please see UNDP 2011a.

accordingly led to the adoption of the CAF. To build upon LDCs' experience with NAPAs, a process was created under the CAF to help LDCs plan and implement national adaptation plans (NAPs), which in turn could serve as a tool for developing medium- and long-term adaptation needs and planning and implementing strategies to respond to those needs. Moving this work forward into 2012 and onward, the UNFCCC has called upon country parties to mobilize bilateral and multilateral financial support for LDCs in the NAP process (UNFCCC 2012). Similarly, REDD+ initiatives are already underway and it is very likely that they will also be a big part of the post-2012 climate change agreement. Private capital flows in climate efforts, especially mitigation, are on the increase. The recently launched GCF is also another noteworthy development. These initiatives provide examples of initial opportunities to engender climate finance, where lessons learned and good

*Table 6: Mainstreaming gender and empowering women*

- *Ensure that projects' and programmes' broader social implications are factored into decision-making processes*
- *Maximize synergies among mitigation, adaptation, poverty eradication, gender equality and women's empowerment*
- *Streamline application processes and support women and small-scale initiatives' participation in adaptation and mitigation activities*
- *Improve infrastructure, public health, and disaster preparedness*
- *Ease women's and girls' care burdens*
- *Promote women's economic empowerment*
- *Embed adaptation and mitigation strategies into gender equality projects*

For further information on these suggestions, please see UNDP 2011a.

*Table 7: Market and non-market mechanisms*

- *Use a mixed system of market- and non-market mechanisms*
- *Focus on positive incentives in policy-making*
- *Integrate gender priorities into private sector regulations and policy frameworks*
- *Ensure that information and analysis for decision makers accounts for gendered differences*
- *Expand gender sensitization efforts to the business and philanthropic communities*

For further information on these suggestions, please see UNDP 2011a.

practices from the other funds and mechanisms can be applied. Given its expansive and potentially critical role to adaptation and mitigation, the GCF in particular must fully and meaningfully integrate gender considerations.

It is important that these initiatives and their corresponding sources of finance integrate gender analysis and gender-sensitive tools (i.e., assessments, design, strategies and monitoring and evaluation systems) into their mechanisms in

## Box 5: Women as agents of change in Malawi's NAPA

Many of the NAPAs have highlighted women's vulnerability in terms of adapting to climate change. For example, Tuvalu notes that the increased time spent on securing water and fuel is directly related to the decreasing rates of girls' enrolment in school and literacy rates. Mauritania acknowledges that, with the increasing frequency of drought, it is women who must walk longer distances to collect water. And the Solomon Islands highlight women's role in agriculture, which will likely become much more time-intensive as agricultural productivity falls because of climate change. However, Malawi has gone a step further, identifying gender as an issue that needs attention in and of itself – not just as a cross-cutting issue. The NAPA proposes several interventions to target women in highly vulnerable situations, including: '(i) empowerment of women through access to microfinance to diversify earning potential, (ii) ensuring easier access to water and energy sources by drilling boreholes and planting trees in woodlots, and (iii) use of electricity provided through the rural electrification program.' The process of developing the Malawi NAPA involved a wide range of consultations with stakeholders, including nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and vulnerable rural communities. A multidisciplinary team of consultants included a women's organization and prepared sectoral reports. According to the findings of the Malawi NAPA on gender, women are highly impacted by droughts, as they have to travel long distances to collect water. In all aspects of the impacts identified by the NAPA, the most impacted groups are the most vulnerable, female-headed households, children, the old and people infected or affected by HIV and AIDS.

Source: ActionAid Int 2009: 18.

order to ensure equitable fund allocation and distribution. The task of accessing resources should be made as little burdensome as possible; streamlining processes such as application, registration, approval, implementation, evaluation and monitoring of funds can do this. In addition, programmes that encourage small projects – particularly those operated by women – should be designed and encouraged (UNDP 2011a) (see Box 5 and Box 6).

14. Access to the different forms of finance continues to be a challenge for many countries in Africa. This is evidenced by the number of CDM projects that the continent has managed to attract as well as by the distribution of other funds by region. All available tools, including NCFs, should be used to help improve access to technological and financial resources for adaptation and mitigation. Gender-responsive budgeting can also help in this respect by ensuring that public resources are used more effectively and equitably. Just as important, issues of accountability,

## Box 6: REDD finance as a catalyzing element for gender equality

*“As it currently stands, women and community activities stand to benefit more from REDD funds with an explicit focus on forest conservation and restoration. However, it has been estimated that carbon markets might provide up to 10 times more in funding for REDD initiatives than public donor funds. To compensate for this financing gap, scarce public funding for future REDD projects that target community based activities should preferentially invest in women’s associations. There are many examples of the benefits for the whole community in forest conservation projects targeting women . . . If women as a group were to benefit from market based REDD financing schemes, the question of gender and tenure will have to be addressed upfront. For example, REDD participation by national governments could be contingent upon fair land ownership laws and the reform of existing, often gender biased land legislation, with some of the initial REDD funds being used for statutory reform efforts. Additionally, mandatory gender inclusive sustainability standards should be required for any market ready REDD project as fiduciary duty. Such standards need to be worked out under strong participation of women and indigenous groups at every level of standard setting and development. While currently the CCBA standards, a principal tool for verifying a REDD project’s socioeconomic impacts, require projects to provide community information (including on gender) and ask for gender inclusive consultation, they do not ask for gender equity in ownership and access opportunities. It would behoove standards such as the CCBA to include a specific gender criterion in its community section or as a requirement for projects aspiring to a gold level status.”*

Source: Schalatek 2009.

efficiency and good governance need to be addressed so that finances for adaptation and mitigation activities are used fairly and transparently.



**Group exercise (see Appendix B: Learning tools)**

### Summary questions

- **How does mainstreaming gender into climate finance mechanisms and strategies enhance the value and sustainability of climate efforts?**
- **Discuss the NAPA experience as an opportunity and a window for engendering climate finance frameworks, institutions, instruments and mechanisms.**
- **Discuss some of the tools that could be employed to ensure that climate funds are more accessible to poor countries. How should climate funds be developed to ensure that they ultimately benefit poor communities and especially rural women?**

## VII Conclusion

Gender equality, women's empowerment and climate change are substantially interrelated. Climate change could worsen social inequities by deepening poverty and derailing the achievement of MDGs. Climate finance mechanisms that do not take heed of gender disparities could exacerbate them. Alternatively, gender-responsive mitigation and adaptation financing efforts could help advance social policy, including poverty reduction and women's empowerment, and accordingly promote sustainable development. It is thus important to incorporate gender perspectives into the various climate financing instruments, mechanisms and processes and thereby avert unintended harm to social development, poverty eradication and gender equality.

Despite the utility of climate finance in tackling the social and economic costs of the effects of climate change, many countries in Africa continue to have difficulties in accessing the different sources of finance. Effort should be made to improve the level of and access to finance (especially for adaptation), using all tools necessary, including the NCFs. In the same vein, devices that guard against misuse and ensure accountability need to be promoted to maximize the returns on the ongoing adaptation and mitigation effort as well as social development, including gender equality and women's empowerment. Gender-responsive budgeting could be useful in this regard. Furthermore, all opportunities for engendering climate finance need to be seized.

# Appendix A. Case studies

## Case Study 1

### *Gender-aware REDD projects: The Green Belt Movement (Kenya)*

Source: Schalatek 2009: 22

“Probably the best known example linking women’s empowerment to climate change abatement through REDD is the work of the Green Belt Movement in Kenya, founded by the late Nobel Peace Laureate Wangari Maathai. Working through Community Forest Associations (CFAs) with the strong involvement of local women’s groups, the Green Belt Movement since the early 1970s has reforested degraded public land and private land with high community access in the Aberdare Range and Mount Kenya watersheds in Kenya, which had been deforested for charcoal production or for conversion to illegal agriculture and cattle grazing.

In November 2006, the Greenbelt Movement signed an Emissions Reductions Purchase Agreement (ERPA) with the World Bank’s BioCarbon Fund. Under the still ongoing project, some 1,876 ha of degraded land in the area were reforested by CFAs in 2007 and 2008. From this project, the BioCarbon Fund expects to purchase 375,000 tons of carbon dioxide equivalent emission reductions between 2007 and 2017, with a call option to purchase an additional 150,000 tons. Local CFAs were employed to plant and tend the seedlings during the first two years; they are allowed to extract traditional (for example, honey, firewood from deadfall) and medicinal goods from the forest.”

## Case Study 2

### *Household Energy and Universal Rural Access (Mali)*

Source: GEF 2008: 32

“This project, which is implemented by the Mali Ministry of Mines, Energy, and Water, aims to increase access of isolated low income populations to basic energy services, in order to help achieve economic growth and poverty reduction targets and remove the barriers to adoption of renewable energy technologies that will reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, primarily carbon dioxide.

Women are the major actors in fuel wood production in Mali. In charge of daily budgets, cooking, and commerce, women are also the main beneficiaries of rural electrification and measures to improve fuel supplies and reduce their costs. The project adopts renewable energy technologies to accelerate the use of electricity and telecommunications, and promote inter-fuel substitution through the development of sustainable woodland management to reduce pressure on wood resources.

The project included gender-sensitive activities through social assessment (including gender analysis) and consultation with both women and men during project preparation. Strategies adopted throughout the project implementation specify women as a major target and a direct beneficiary of the project, as women are identified as the sole family caretakers through cooking and collecting wood, among other daily tasks. For instance, an increase in the number of improved wood stoves, and kerosene and LPG stoves used is directly correlated to a positive impact on women and children’s education, health, and energy expenditures. Also, the biomass platforms permit mechanical processing of agricultural produce, which, when done manually, becomes a time consuming and arduous task expected of women. Mechanical processing of produce allows oil production, not only for use as fuel but for production of soaps that women can sell in order to generate income. Through these efforts, the project demonstrates social and economic development in communities. In addition, women’s initiatives linked to electrification is [sic] supported in collaboration with micro-credit institutions. The quality of life of rural and peri-urban populations, particularly women, is expected to noticeably improve with the success of the project.

This project was designed to complement the completed Malian household energy strategy (SED), which was developed in the early 1990s, based on the important work of urban and rural studies and surveys by eight social scientists, five of whom were gender specialists. For SED, households actively participated in efficient stove design tests to identify the most attractive models, a participative approach that is closely followed by this project.”

### Case Study 3

## *Multi-stakeholder coordination systems at the project level for REDD+ (Democratic Republic of Congo)*

Source: UNDP 2012

“The National Readiness Plan for REDD+ in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), supported by both the UN-REDD Programme and the World Bank hosted Forest Carbon Partnership Facility, presents a clear example of how multi-stakeholder engagement has been successfully mainstreamed into project coordination structures .... A National Decree to support REDD+ in DRC has been approved by the Council of Ministers and officially establishes coordination bodies that oversee REDD+ in the country. This includes provisions for a National Committee: a decision making body that oversees, amongst other things, monitoring and evaluation of project implementation and the management and redistribution of subsidies and resources deriving from the REDD+ process.

The Decree also mandates that one third of the members of the National Committee should be representatives of civil society and indigenous peoples organisations. The National Committee accordingly comprises four members of civil society, six members of Government (including the Ministry for Decentralisation), a member of the Federation of Wood Industries (i.e., private sector) and a member from the National Institute for Agronomic Studies and Research (i.e., research sector), supporting the full and effective participation of non-governmental actors. Project coordination structures are supported by dedicated funding to ensure the functioning of national REDD+ institutions, and a funded consultation and participation plan to ensure the broader inclusion of local communities beyond the preserve of national level structures.”

# Appendix B. Learning tools

## *Activity 1: Group discussions based on a CDM project in Zambia*



### **CDM Project design document**

20 minutes of group breakout discussions;



15 minutes of presentations of findings (three presentations of five minutes each);

20 minutes plenary discussions



CDM Zambia pp. 3-8, 49

CDM Senegal pp. 2-6, 47

CDM Ethiopia pp. 3-4, 81-85

### **Notes to the facilitator**

- Divide the participants into three groups; give each group one reading.
- Appoint a leader in each group.
- Ask the groups to use the information on the above-cited materials and to assess the social and gender aspects of projects in their respective assignments. Specifically, they should look into the question of whether and the extent to which these projects are likely to benefit women and men.
- Finally, ask the participants to discuss what they have learned from the assignment.

## **Activity 2: Group discussion based on Case Study 1: Gender-Aware REDD Projects (Kenya) and Case Study 3: Multi-stakeholder coordination systems at the project level for REDD+ (DRC)**



**Group discussion based on Case Study 1: Gender-Aware REDD Projects – the Green Belt Movement (Kenya) and Case Study 3: Multi-stakeholder coordination systems at the project level for REDD+ (Democratic Republic of Congo)**



40 minutes

### **Notes to the facilitator:**

Divide the participants into two groups and facilitate a discussion along the lines of the following questions:

#### **Group One – Kenya**

- What did you learn from this project?
- What experiences – positive and negative – have you had in accessing climate finance or in mainstreaming gender into climate finance?

#### **Group Two – DRC**

- What is your own assessment of the National Readiness Plan for REDD+ in DRC?
- What should be done to make sure that country-level national finance systems, such as the one discussed, are gender-responsive?

Encourage the participants to share their experiences with the gender aspects of national climate finance in their respective countries.

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## Helpful resources for additional information

- [http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/gender/Gender%20and%20Environment/EngendCC\\_7.pdf](http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/gender/Gender%20and%20Environment/EngendCC_7.pdf) (Ensuring gender equity in climate change financing – UNDP publication)
- <http://boell.org/web/140.html> (The Heinrich Böll Foundation – gender/climate finance publications)
- [www.climatefinanceoptions.org](http://www.climatefinanceoptions.org)
- [www.climatefundsupdate.org](http://www.climatefundsupdate.org)

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