

Background paper on mainstreaming gender into National Adaptation Planning and implementation in Sub- Saharan Africa

Working Paper No. 323

CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change,
Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS)

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RESEARCH PROGRAM ON
**Climate Change,
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Abstract

Climate change adaptation is dependent on access to a number of resources, including information, land, financing, and mobility. Successful climate change adaptation, therefore, will need to integrate an understanding of gender and take action on it, including an appreciation for the importance of women in climate change mitigation and adaptation strategies. This paper undertakes a review of the policies and legal frameworks for gender and climate change, including key UNFCCC decisions on gender and climate change and gender mainstreaming in National Adaptation Planning process. An analysis of resiliency is also included by examining gender inequalities in the ownership, access, and control over natural resources, and seeking to understand how gender inequalities shape, and are shaped by, priorities, experiences, and adaptive capacity in the wake of system shocks. The paper also provides examples of best practices at the policy, institutional, and programme level as well as throughout planning processes.

Keywords

Agriculture; climate change; gender; policy; National Adaptation Plans; gender mainstreaming.

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Acronyms

AGN	African Group of Negotiators
AMCEN	African Ministerial Committee on Environmental and Natural Resources
ATAR	Adaptation Technical Analysis Report
AUC	African Union Commission
CAHOSCC	Committee of African Heads of State and Government of Climate Change
CBOs	Community-Based Organisations
CCAFSF	CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
ClimDev-Africa	Climate for Development in Africa
COMNAC	National Committee on Climate Change
COP	Conference of the Parties
CRISTAL	Community-Based Risk Screen Tool - Adaptation and Livelihoods
CWGPCC	CAHOSCC Women and Gender Programme on Climate Change
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GAP	Gender Action Plan
GBA+	Gender Based Analysis Plus
GCF	Green Climate Fund
GHG	Greenhouse Gas
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
ICRW	International Center for Research on Women
INDC	Intended Nationally Determined Contributions
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
LDCs	Least Developed Countries
NAPA	National Adaptation Programme of Action
NAPs	National Adaptation Plans
NCCRS	National Climate Change Response Strategy
NCs	National Communications
NDCs	Nationally Determined Contributions
REDD+	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Degradation
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
TEMs	Technical Expert Meetings
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
WBCSD	World Business Council for Sustainable Development
WHO	World Health Organization

Introduction

Climate change is often viewed as a purely scientific and technical phenomenon, with little or no consideration of its implications for social justice, gender equality, and overall development outcomes. Climate change has different effects on women and men as a result of gender roles and gendered differences in responsibilities, time use patterns, access to resources and assets, patterns of household and public decision making, and income access and control, exacerbating pre-existing inequalities, vulnerabilities, poverty, and unequal power relations. Inequalities in status and rights between women and men often translate into constraints for women to access and control productive resources such as land, income from natural resources, credit, and technology as well as strategic assets like education, information, and participation in decision-making (Agarwal, 2018, Huyer, 2016).

Social norms compound these constraints by restricting women's freedom of movement, choice, and voice. For example, women's lack of property and land tenure rights often forces them to work on less productive land, make them less likely to be reached by extension agents, and lack access to climate change information as well as inputs that might enable them to diversify their livelihoods and increase their resilience to climate-related shocks (Brody et al., 2008, FAO, 2011). Additionally, new activities which require additional manual labour in the household and on the farm are often allocated to women (Beuchelt and Badstue, 2013). The ability to adapt to climate change depends on control over land, money, information, credit and tools, household labour, independence, good health, personal mobility, household entitlements, food security, secure housing in safe locations, and freedom from violence, all of which are not readily accessible to women (Lambrou and Piana, 2006). Women are often deemed as less able to adapt to climate change than men since they lack access and control over these resources and rights.

When climate change leads to shortages of food or water, cultural norms may lead to greater malnutrition among girls and women. For example, women are expected to eat only once they have fed their families, which affects the share of food they receive (Ramachandran et al., 2006, Fuhrman et al., 2020). Water, energy, and food shortages, caused in part by climate change, results in time-consuming labour on the part of women and girls as they must travel further to collect these resources. This increase in time allotted to domestic activities further limits the time women and girls have to engage in public decision-making, attend meetings, develop and incorporate income-generating strategies into their households, and take part in education and community activities, further restricting their opportunities for empowerment or strategic change. According to the Fifth

Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC AR5), the poorest segments of society are the most vulnerable to climate change, with poverty a key determinant of vulnerability via several mechanisms, principally access to resources to allow coping with extreme weather events and marginalization from decision-making and social security. The 2014 IPCC report on Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability notes that climate change is likely to exacerbate existing gender inequalities (IPCC, 2014). To this end, any climate change intervention is expected to take gender considerations into account to promote gender equality and inclusive development.

The importance of women in climate change adaptation and mitigation must also be appreciated because of their role in core climate change sectors, including agriculture, livestock management, energy, disaster risk reduction (DRR), forestry, water management, and health (Dankelman, 2010, Denton, 2002). Women make up two thirds of the world's 600 million small livestock managers (Thornton et al., 2002) and, through their cooking and household tasks as well as transport-related needs and practices, are important energy users, suppliers, consumers, and household energy managers (UNDP, 2016b).

Women's local and environmental knowledge, in addition to their survival strategies, play a major role in recovery and resilience (UNDP, 2016a), with women acting as major contributors to adaptation and mitigation in water management, food security, agriculture and fisheries, biodiversity, ecosystem services, health, energy and transportation, human settlements, disaster management, and conflict and security (BNRCC, 2011). Particularly at the local level, women's knowledge is a valuable resource for adaptation. For example, in agriculture, women are knowledgeable about sowing seasons, multi-cropping, local crops, trees, and herb varieties, wild edible plants, crops suitable to climatic conditions, seed selection, seed storage, preparation of bio-fertilizers, pesticides, manure application, pest management, post-harvest processing, and value addition (Lane and McNaught, 2009, UNDP, 2013). The World Bank argues that gender equality is a core contributor to better development outcomes, including poverty reduction and increased sustainability (World Bank, 2012).

This paper takes the position that, to be successful, climate change adaptation must integrate an understanding of gender and take action on it. It considers gender equality as both a human right and as a precondition and indicator of sustainable people-centred development, which Africa committed itself to as enshrined in Article 4 (l) of the Constitutive Act of the African Union. This commitment is reinforced by the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa and the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa. In light of

the gendered implications of climate change, the African Heads of States and Governments at its Assembly of the Union's Twenty-Third Ordinary Session in Malabo through the Committee of African Heads of State and Governments on Climate Change (CAHOSCC) agreed to develop a CAHOSCC Women and Gender Programme on Climate Change (CWGPCC) to engage women and gender in climate change-related actions. From this perspective, this paper looks at best practices for mainstreaming gender in national adaptation planning and implementation in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) as well as the gaps and lessons learned with a view towards an upcoming submission to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). This paper also contributes to the analysis of resilience by underscoring gender inequality in access to and control over natural resources and the need to change the existing social-ecological system in relation to gender roles in natural resource management. It also asks how priorities, experiences, and adaptive capacity, in the face of shocks, are shaped by gender inequalities and vice versa (Aregu et al, 2016; Diaz-Reviriego et al, 2016).

Policy and legal framework for gender and climate change

Gender equality is recognized as a universal human right. The Paris Agreement, an international agreement focused on reducing greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and adapting to climate change, acknowledges the importance of human rights and specifically names gender equality as a priority in the global climate agreement. Additionally, the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Charter of the UN the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966), the International Convention on Civil and Political Rights (1966), the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995), and the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action (1993) are powerful tools through which the importance of gender equality and women's rights in climate change can and should be promoted on local, national and international levels. Gender equality is also at the centre of the Sustainable Development Goal (SDGs) for 2030, where it is included as both a stand-alone goal (Goal 5) and a cross-cutting issue across a number of other goals (United Nations, 2015).

Applying a human rights-based approach to climate change will improve both the sustainability and effectiveness of climate change policies, strengthening responses to climate change at the community and national level by facilitating greater transparency, participation, information access, and accountability at all levels (McKiernan and Loftus-Farren 2011). A rights-based approach highlights the state's role and responsibilities to provide basic entitlements threatened by climate change or which are needed to bolster climate change resiliency. An alternative to a needs-based approach, which targets the poorest people as beneficiaries of good will, a rights-based approach focuses instead on empowering individuals to assert their rights to existing resources and to participate in decision-making as a matter of legal obligation, providing an ethical and moral dimension to climate policy (Nyamu-Musembi and Cornwall, 2004). Effective and representative climate policy must embrace gender justice, which refers to the equitable treatment of men and women, women's rights, the granting of full citizenship rights to women, and the acknowledgement that equality between men and women requires a process of social transformation (UNDP, 2018). It is particularly helpful in the context of climate change adaptation because it considers the inherent inequalities present in the current system and suggests a complete transformation rather than adding a gender dimension to existing climate change adaptive structures. Gender justice holds key political, economic, and social institutions accountable and highlights their rights, entitlements, and responsibilities to meet the needs women and men in the wake of climate change. Climate change policy should integrate gender,

not by adding women to pre-determined agreements and frameworks, but rather by grounding policy in an understanding of gender power relations from the outset.

Gender in climate change policies and strategies in Africa

The commitment by many African governments to integrate gender issues into climate change planning and budgeting has increased tremendously. Significant efforts have been made to mainstream gender into national action plans, climate change policies and climate acts, Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs), National Adaptation Plans (NAPs), Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Degradation (REDD+), and National Communications (NC). Despite this remarkable progress in aligning gender and climate change, there are still challenges for ensuring gender is mainstreamed to achieve gender equality in the face of the changing climate.

At the global level, all 54 African countries have signed the Paris Agreement and agreed to a gender-equitable implementation of the agreement, including an assessment of gender differences, the establishment of baseline data, analysis of existing policies and strategies in regards to gender issues, and gender responsive budgeting within climate change policies, action plans, strategies and frameworks. African countries are also committed to implementing the Gender Action Plan (GAP).

At the continental level, institutions and frameworks have been established with mandates to address climate change, including the formulation of climate-related policy and engagement in international negotiations, such as the African Group of Negotiators (AGN), African Ministerial Committee on Environmental and Natural Resources (AMCEN), and the Climate for Development in Africa (ClimDev-Africa) programme of the African Union Commission (AUC).

Most African countries (93 percent) are in the process of developing their NAPs, presenting an opportunity to incorporate gender from the onset. Only five countries – Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Kenya, Sudan, and Togo – have submitted NAPs to the UNFCCC and all include references to gender, women, and vulnerable populations, including priority adaptation actions for these groups. Out of 54 African countries signatories to the Paris Agreement, 44 countries have submitted their NDCs to the UNFCCC with 16 African countries selected for gender analysis of NDCs. About 50 percent of the NDCs sampled had integrated gender or women-specific issues. The degree and type of gender inclusion, however, varied across NDCs, with key elements focused on vulnerability contexts, sector-specific adaptation actions, building social resilience, capacity strengthening, empowerment, and financing.

All 54 countries in Africa have submitted NCs on climate change, with 78 percent mentioning the vulnerability of women, children, and the elderly and the need to enhance their resilience. In terms of national legislation on climate, a handful of African countries, including Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique, and Nigeria, have put in place climate change policies and legislative frameworks. A national climate change bill in South Africa has yet to be published.

Global climate policy: Key UNFCCC decisions on gender and climate change

The UNFCCC is the most comprehensive global framework for climate change issues. Through the various Conference of the Parties (COPs), the UNFCCC has, over the years, handled gender issues through the formulation of decisions, providing guidance on issues of adaptation, mitigation, technology transfer, development, finance, capacity building, loss, and damage. Gender and climate change issues have been mainstreamed across many areas of UNFCCC negotiations, both through stand-alone and overlapping decisions.

The centrality of gender issues by UNFCCC started in 2001. Since then, several decisions regarding gender and climate change have been taken. The following is a summary of the key decisions, highlighting the chronology of gender and climate change at the UNFCCC:

Table 1. Key gender and climate change decisions

Year	COP	Decision
2001	COP 7	Gender in the NAPs Decision 36: "Improving the participation of women in the representation of Parties in bodies established under the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol".
2010	COP 16	Gender in the Cancun Agreement/ Shared Vision The Preamble of Decision 1/CP.16 notes resolution 10/4 of the UN Human Rights Council on human rights and climate change and notes differential impacts of climate change on segments of the population, owing to intersections such as age and gender. Additionally, in the operative section on 'Shared Vision', the decision recognizes that "gender equality and the effective participation of women are important for effective climate action on all aspects of climate change".
2011	COP 17	Green Climate Fund (GCF) The GCF governing instrument states that the fund will take a gender-sensitive approach. The GCF board will give due to consideration to gender balance and develop mechanisms to promote the input and participation of stakeholders, including private-sector actors, civil society, organizations, and vulnerable groups, including women and indigenous people. The GCF secretariat will also take into account gender balance.

2012	COP 18	<p>Decision 23 Adopted in Doha</p> <p>“Promoting gender balance and improving the participation of women in UNFCCC negotiations and in the representation of Parties in bodies established pursuant to the Convention or the Kyoto Protocol.”</p>
2014	COP 20	<p>Decision 18: Lima Work Programme on Gender</p> <p>“... enhance the implementation of decisions 36/CP.7, 1/CP.16 and 23/CP.18 by inviting Parties to advance gender balance, promote gender sensitivity in developing and implementing climate policy, and achieve gender-responsive climate policy in all relevant activities under the Convention.”</p>
2015	COP 21	<p>The Paris Agreement</p> <p><i>Preamble:</i> “Acknowledging that climate change is a common concern of humankind, Parties should, when taking action to address climate change, respect, promote and consider their respective obligations on human rights, the right to health, the rights of indigenous peoples, local communities, migrants, children, persons with disabilities and people in vulnerable situations and the right to development, as well as gender equality, empowerment of women and intergenerational equity.”</p> <p><i>Article 7:</i> “Parties acknowledge that adaptation action should follow a country-driven, gender-responsive, participatory and fully transparent approach...”</p> <p><i>Article 11:</i> “Capacity-building should be guided by lessons learned, including those from capacity-building activities under the Convention, and should be an effective, iterative process that is participatory, cross-cutting and gender-responsive.”</p>
2016	COP 22	<p>Decision 21</p> <p>Extending the work of the Lima Work Programme on Gender for three years, to be reviewed at COP25 in 2019, as well as the following new activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requesting both technical bodies and Parties, as well as the Financial Mechanism, to enhance communications and reporting on progress implementing gender-responsive climate policy; • Requesting that a gender perspective be considered in the organization of the technical expert meetings (TEMs) on mitigation and adaptation; • Requesting Parties to integrate local and traditional knowledge in the formulation of climate policy and to recognize the value of the participation of grassroots women in gender-responsive climate action at all levels; • Inviting Parties to appoint and provide support for a national gender focal point for climate negotiations, implementation and monitoring. <p>Mandated Parties to develop possible elements of the gender action plan for consideration at SBI47 (COP23)</p>

2017	COP 23	<p>Decision -/CP.23: The Gender Action Plan</p> <p>“To support the implementation of gender-related decisions and mandates under the UNFCCC process, which may include priority areas, key activities and indicators, timelines for implementation, responsible and key actors and indicative resource requirements for each activity, and to further elaborate its review and monitoring processes;”</p> <p>“Gender-responsive climate policy requires further strengthening in all activities concerning adaptation, mitigation and related means of implementation (finance, technology development and transfer, and capacity-building) as well as decision-making on the implementation of climate policies. The GAP recognizes the need for women to be represented in all aspects of the UNFCCC process and the need for gender mainstreaming through all relevant targets and goals in activities under the Convention as an important contribution to increasing their effectiveness.”</p>
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Background to National Adaptation Planning and its objectives

NAPs were established in 2010 as part of the Cancun Adaptation Framework to enhance urgent action on adaptation and were adopted by Parties to the UNFCCC (Decision 1/CP.16.). UNFCCC launched a process to support all developing countries, especially Least Developed Countries (LDCs), to identify, prioritize, and implement their medium- and long-term adaptation needs by formulating and implementing NAPs. The NAP process provides guidance to assess vulnerabilities, build adaptive capacity, and mainstream adaptation to climate change risks into all general and sector-specific development planning, with the main objectives to “(1) reduce vulnerability to the impacts of climate change by building adaptive capacity and resilience, and (2) To coherently facilitate the integration of climate change adaptation into relevant new and existing policies, programs, and activities, particularly development planning processes” (UNFCCC, 2020a).

A commitment to developing or enhancing adaptation planning and implementation, including the formulation and implementation of NAPs, was further articulated in the 2015 Paris Agreement (Parry et al., 2017; UNFCCC, 2020a). The guidelines for formulating NAPs are not strict prescriptions, but general recommendations. NAPs are voluntary and it is left to the discretion of individual countries to decide whether to create a stand-alone NAP or to incorporate recommendations into existing strategies.

Engendering the NAP process: A conceptual framework

In 2010, when the NAP process was established, the decision highlighted the need for gender-sensitive approaches in adaptation action (UNFCCC, 2015). In 2014, the Lima Work Programme on Gender and Climate Change was established, providing an opportunity for Parties to explore these issues in-depth. Subsequently, the 2015 Paris Agreement referred to gender-responsive approaches, the goals of gender equality, and women’s empowerment (UNFCCC, 2015). The Lima Work Programme was renewed in 2016 to focus on strengthening gender-responsive climate policy, including adaptation (UNFCCC, 2020b).

The UNFCCC has also recognized that the NAP process is a key opportunity to integrate gender considerations into policy (UNFCCC, 2020) and stresses the need for gender responsive approaches to climate change adaptation. Gender-responsive approaches examine and actively address gender norms, roles, and inequalities (WHO, 2011). They go beyond gender-sensitivity by actively seeking to promote gender equality and transforming the power dynamics and structures that serve to reinforce gendered inequalities (WHO, 2011, CARE International, 2010). This involves specific actions

to empower women in their households and communities as well as broader policy and planning processes by addressing the social norms, attitudes, behaviours, and social systems that underlie gender disparities (Burns and Lee, 2015). To this end, gender mainstreaming efforts should take place at policy, institutional, and programme/project levels (see Figure 1).

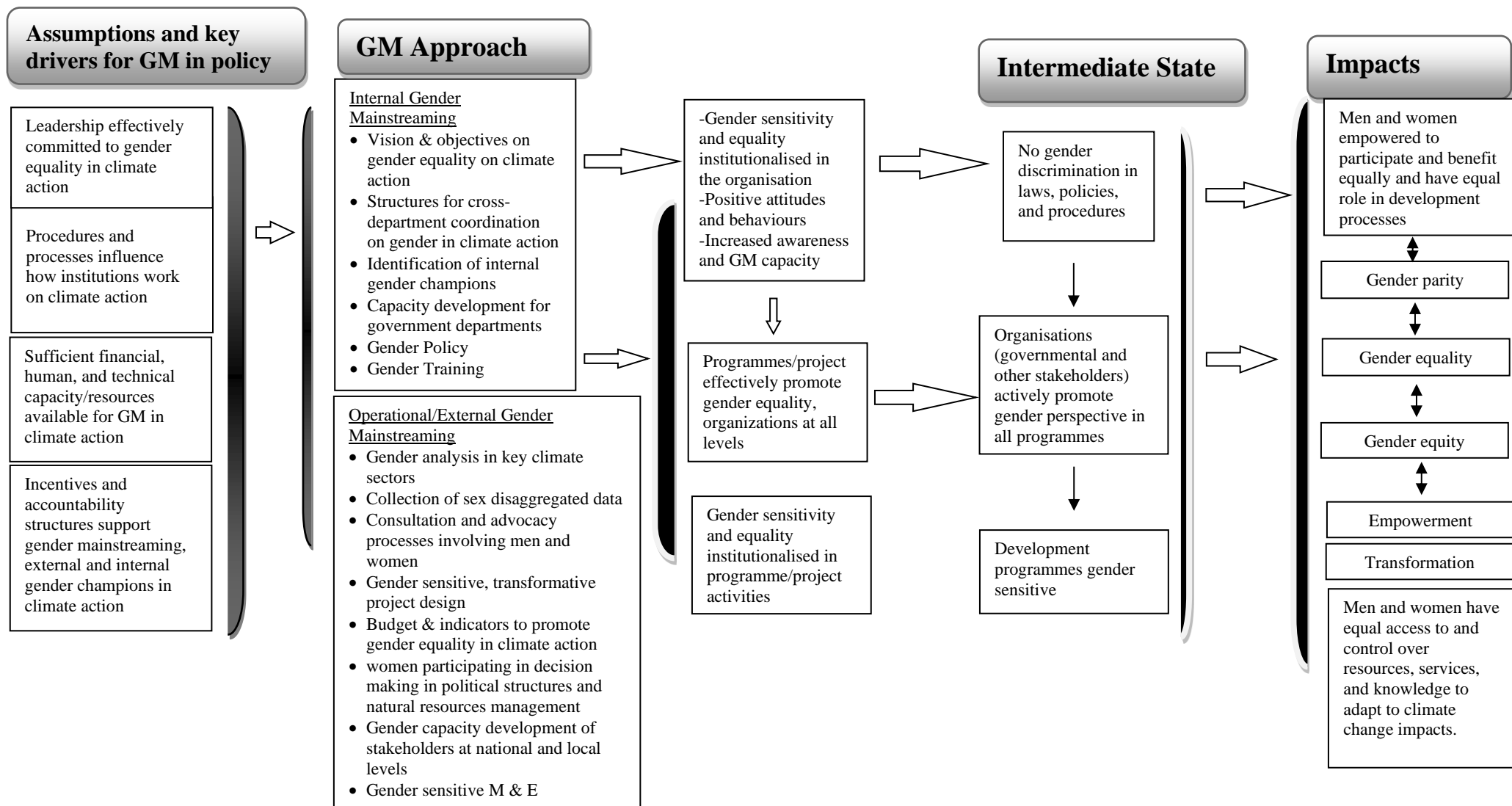


Figure 1: A Gender Responsive Conceptual Framework and Theory of Change Framework (adapted from AfDB, 2011, de Waal, 2006, UNDP, 2016, Ampaire et al., 2019, Derbyshire et al., 2015)

The conceptual framework identifies assumptions and key drivers for gender responsiveness and gender mainstreaming in climate policy. These are the pre-conditions that must exist for gender mainstreaming to be effective, including a commitment by leadership. This commitment will lead to allocation of financial, human, and technical resources as well as the development of policies, procedures, incentives, and accountability structures to promote gender mainstreaming. A committed leadership will also invest in training and capacity development for gender mainstreaming. Where there is no political will, gender mainstreaming becomes a symbolic ritual.

As Jahan (1995) notes, a commitment to gender mainstreaming on the part of leadership should be followed by a twin track approach, which includes both internal and external processes. These processes are inextricably linked and mutually reinforce one another. Through internal gender mainstreaming, institutions ensure all internal policies, processes, and procedures are gender sensitive, gender responsive, and that internal capacity for gender mainstreaming is sufficient. Internal mainstreaming shows commitment by leadership, increases institutional awareness of gender equality issues, and enables a defined framework through which gender will be mainstreamed both internally and externally. Internal mainstreaming also entails establishing an accountability framework for gender equality results and training for strengthening capacity (see also Ampaire et al, 2019).

Internal gender mainstreaming outcomes include specific gender policies, strategies, and action plans, increased responsiveness to gender equality issues and institutionalisation of gender equality. Through internal mainstreaming, institutions will develop gender sensitive policies and gender awareness training is institutionalised to increase awareness and sensitivity to gender equality issues for the organisation's employees. Accountability structures, with well-defined indicators, ensure reporting on gender equality indicators and further motivates gender mainstreaming (Derbyshire et al, 2015).

Institutions also need an operational, or external, mainstreaming framework to define how gender will be mainstreamed in the organisation's development interventions or programmes, including accountability for results and reporting on mainstreaming outcomes. Jahan (1995) notes that an operational mainstreaming framework describes, in detail, specific gender mainstreaming activities to be implemented at each stage of the project cycle, from

conceptualisation, identification of a problem, needs assessment, implementation and monitoring, and evaluation. These gender mainstreaming activities include gender analysis of climate action, collection of sex disaggregated data, gender responsive consultation and advocacy processes, gender responsive and transformative project design, gender responsive monitoring and evaluation systems, gender responsive budgeting, and indicators to promote gender equality.

Models for gender-responsive institutional frameworks and policy coordination mechanisms are found both within and between government departments including the integration of national gender mechanisms and women's departments into governmental institutions addressing climate change. This can involve the inclusion of women's ministries and focal points in national climate change planning and committees, the appointment of gender focal points in relevant ministries and governmental bodies; the establishment of a mechanism for gender equality and climate change focal points or teams to coordinate planning; or the development of a gender and climate change mainstreaming strategy or action plan to guide governmental action. For example, governmental partners for climate change ministries include agencies responsible for gender equality, finance, education, agriculture, transportation, and energy.

It can also take place through the integration of gender equality into policy mechanisms, such as gender budgeting, which refers to creating gender lines in climate change-related budgets (UNDP, 2016). Gender budgeting integrates a targeted budget for gender or women-focused activities, such as capacity-building or data collection and analysis or establishes a separate budget to address gender priorities and gender-targeted activities related to climate change. Alternatively, climate change can be integrated into gender-budgeting activities.

Internal and operational gender mainstreaming are complementary approaches. For gender issues to be effectively mainstreamed, a clear policy framework which articulates the institutional values, responsibilities for mainstreaming and the procedures and systems for mainstreaming and for monitoring and evaluating the outcomes of the mainstreaming process are needed. Hence without strong institutional gender mainstreaming, it is unlikely that operational gender mainstreaming will succeed.

In terms of external mainstreaming, Jahan (1995) notes, outcomes include a technically capable staff who can effectively mainstream gender in projects and programmes, including a gender analysis in project assessments and developing responsive strategies to ensure men and women benefit and participate equally in project activities. Operational gender mainstreaming activities include advancing gender awareness amongst communities and stakeholders, the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data, and development of qualitative and quantitative indicators for gender mainstreaming and transformative actions aimed at breaking socio-cultural, economic, and political structural barriers. Gender equitable representation on major planning, policy, and implementation bodies should include women serving in leadership capacities as well as the inclusion of gender and/or women's institutions.

Multi-stakeholder consultations are a means to include women and women's organizations in climate change policy and project planning. Consultation with actors outside of government, including the private sector and civil society, are important for analysis, context-setting, and identification of partners and actions. Women's organizations, civil society organizations (CSOs), and community-based organizations (CBOs) are important actors at subnational and community levels, particularly for building capacity towards ensuring the integration of gender at the local level. Such capacity-building can be extended to local-level policymakers, community members, and to members of their organizations. National analysis should identify key stakeholder groups, what they are doing, and which ones are partners in gender mainstreaming work, for both training and delivery (UNDP, 2016). Mauritius, for example, required the coordination of Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (INDC) plans, programmes and projects to involve the participation of sectoral ministries, the private sector, CBOs/NGOs, and women's organizations, while Kenya required all public entities undertaking public awareness consultations mainstream gender into climate change activities (Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources, 2015).

Gender analysis in key climate sectors is needed to understand gender differences in roles, contributions, divisions of labour, employment, access to resources, and participation in decision-making. Some of this analysis may already exist, while in other cases, additional research is needed to fill gaps, in geographic and climate-related risks factors, the political situation and government structure, the sociocultural situation and dynamics, and the economic conditions of climate change-affected sectors such as agriculture, tourism, and

trade in natural resources. A sector-by-sector summary of national resources and the roles and contributions of women and men provides the data required for evidence-based policy and action.

Generating and analysing sex-disaggregated data is important to identify what data exists and where gaps are. Sex-disaggregated data allows for evidence-based identification of gender differences in vulnerabilities, gaps in resources, and opportunities for supporting climate change adaptation and mitigation, as well as priority areas for policy and action. Many countries have identified the lack of sex-disaggregated data as a barrier for policy and programming. Gender analysis includes the identification of where sex-disaggregated data exists, differences in men's and women's access to and control of resources, and the existence of local or national women's networks and organizations that can serve as partners in the development and implementation of action and capacity-building.

Developing the capacity of government officials in climate change sectors should include gender project design, analysis, and indicators, as well as why gender has relevance for planning in their sector. Capacity development for departments can include workshops and technical resources to raise awareness and provide support, the development of guidelines for implementation, and training and technical tools for climate change-related departments. It is also important to build capacity of women's and CBOs to understand climate change impacts and develop positive responses for adaptation and disaster recovery (UNDP, 2016).

Indicators of the gendered impacts, gaps, and benefits of climate change action should be defined in the planning stages. Socio-economic factors, such as education levels, poverty, and gender dynamics, have relevance for women's activities and climate action in agriculture, livestock management, energy use, and transportation (see UNDP, 2015). Baselines, developed from sex-disaggregated data, allow for the identification of gender indicators and reporting (UNDP, 2016). Gender indicators, such as use of public transport, types of transportation used, access to electricity or renewable energy, access to climate finance mechanisms, and access to disaster recovery programmes, are useful measurements of gender trends in adaptation.

Gender mainstreaming is expected to ultimately lead to gender equality, where women and men will participate and benefit equally from development initiatives and projects. De Waal

(2006) identifies four outcomes or impacts that should result from gender mainstreaming: gender parity, gender equality, gender equity, and empowerment and transformation.

Gender parity implies equal representation and participation of men and women in development interventions and processes, while gender equality entails equal access, control, opportunities, rewards, and benefits for women and men from development initiatives (De Waal,2006). Gender equity refers to the ratio of participation, access, opportunities, rewards and benefits according to the needs and concerns of women and men, women's empowerment, and transformation of gender relations (ibid). Empowerment refers to the cognitive, behavioural, and affective changes to increase levels of equality and empowerment of women in relation to men (Ibid).

De Waal (2006) also notes that gender mainstreaming should be transformative. Transformation involves meeting gender needs in a way that challenges the unequal gender power relations and the social structures, norms, and values which drive these unequal relations between men and women. Transformation reforms the social and gender order to ensure parity, equality, equity, and empowerment, ultimately benefiting both men and women from development interventions.

Mainstreaming gender into NAPs

The process of developing a gender-responsive NAP should give attention to gender mainstreaming throughout the iterative cycle of planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation (M&E) (see Figure 1). Transformative change is then measured by examining three broad domains of empowerment:

- **Agency**, which includes individual and collective capacities (knowledge and skills), attitudes, critical reflection, assets, actions, and access to services.
- **Relations**, which refers to the expectations and cooperative or negotiation dynamics embedded within relationships between people in the home, market, community, and groups and organizations.

- **Structures** which are the informal and formal institutional rules that govern collective, individual and institutional practices, such as environment, social norms, recognition and status (Martinez and Wu 2009; Morgan 2014).



Figure 1. A Gender-Responsive NAP Process (Source: Dazé and Dekens, 2017)

Gender issues must also be considered throughout the project cycle and in institutional arrangements, capacity development, and information sharing, which are enabling factors for the NAP process (Dazé & Dekens, 2017). A gender responsive NAP process requires the inclusion of gender sensitive monitoring and assessments. Examples of trackable indicators include:

- National capacity to promote gender-responsive planning and implementation for the NAP process
- Climate change policies reflect a commitment to gender equality at all levels, including NAPs, action plans, and strategies
- National climate change policies align with national gender policies
- Gender is institutionalized through gender committees and/or gender units

- Decision makers champion gender equality and women's empowerment in climate change policy, actions, projects, and programs
- Treasury departments have dedicated a percentage of financing to women's projects
- Financial mechanisms and/or facilities are accessible to both women and men
- What percentage of women have access to productive assets and resources?
- Changes in the labour burden of women and men
- Equitable participation in climate change decision making measured by the number of women and men participating in local, national, regional, and international climate change dialogues
- Does climate information target women and men by paying attention to their differential conditions
- Gender and climate change M&E and reporting frameworks are in place
- Tools and systems for mainstreaming gender in climate change actions are place

Best practices to incorporate gender into the formulation and implementation of NAPs in SSA

Gender mainstreaming is done at three major levels: policy, institutional and programme/project level. Examples of best practices will, therefore, focus on these three levels as well as the project cycle (planning, implementation, and M&E) with particular focus on SSA countries. The criteria used for selection of the good practices include:

- **Relevance**
 - Does the practice address a common gender and climate change challenges in SSA?
 - What are the solutions offered by the practice?
- **Fit with the NAP cycle (i.e. design, planning, implementation, M&E, reporting)**
 - How does the practice fit within the NAP cycle?
 - What stage of the cycle?
 - What evidence is there of gender analysis in planning?
- **Measurability/evidence base**
 - How is the practice documented?
 - Have the results been assessed and documented by an independent party
- **Impact**
 - What difference has the practice made?
- **Efficiency**
 - What was the cost of the practice?
 - How was the practice financed?
- **Transferability and/or replicability**
 - Are other SSA countries interested in the practice?
 - Is the practice linked to any specific national governance/legislative context?
 - Is there scope to amend the practice to suit other contexts?
 - Is the practice transformative?
- **Sustainability**
 - How sustainable is the practice in the long run?

Example of a best practices at the policy level

Kenya has developed a suite of national adaptation policies, strategies, laws, and plans (see Table 1), including one of the first NAPs developed in Africa, all of which embrace gender equality issues. This work is in line with and builds on the 2010 Constitution of Kenya and the country's Vision 2030.

Table 2: Key climate-specific policy documents, Kenya

Year	Title
2010	National Climate Change Response Strategy (NCCRS)
2013	National Climate Change Action Plan 2013–2017 (NCCAP)
2012	Adaptation Technical Analysis Report (ATAR)
2014	Climate Change Bill
2015	National Adaptation Plan 2015–2030 (NAP)
2015	Kenya Intended Nationally Determined Contribution (INDC)
2016	National Climate Change Act
2017	Climate Smart Agricultural Strategy 2017–2026
2017	Climate Change Finance Law

Kenya recently completed an in-depth gender analysis of its NDCs, focusing on agriculture, water, and energy, using a multi-sectoral approach. The Ministry of Gender, the private sector, and CSOs were represented in the analysis. A challenge emerged of lack of data, especially for climate-related interventions. Coordination was successful and the state's Department on Gender led the coordination of gender issues in the sectors. The implementation of NDC actions were hindered by finances, so an NDC financing strategy was developed with funding mechanisms to address gaps.

Example of best practice of integrating gender in the planning process

Importance of conducting gender analysis as a pre-condition for interventions

Gender analysis can be conducted at three major levels: micro, meso, and macro levels. Macro gender analysis examines national laws, policies, and decision making by identifying the contributions of climate change adaptation to broader development strategies. Meso-level analysis considers markets, institutions, services, and infrastructures which link laws/policies and people, enabling individuals to benefit from or be excluded by policy efforts. Micro-level analysis studies women and men as individuals and the socio-economic differences between households and communities. It considers women and men's roles, activities, and power relations within the household and the community and how these factors influence their respective capacities to participate and benefit from programmes.

The purpose of a gender analysis is to gain insight into current gender relations and roles as well as gender specific interests, needs, potential, and discrimination of people in a particular country, context, and/or sector (EIGE, 2020b). The findings of a gender analysis serve primarily to enable gender responsive and, wherever possible, gender transformative project design and implementation. Both the potential for promoting gender equality and the possibility of unintended, negative impacts on gender equality are identified, with the result including the development of a gender responsive or transformative approach. A targeted gender analysis will support informed decision making in the NAP process, enabling NAP teams to unpack assumptions and analyse specific issues related to their particular context and NAP process. This includes differences among women and men and intersections of gender with other drivers of vulnerability to climate change. Togo, for example, noted the importance of a gender analysis in its NAP planning documents (République Togolaise, 2017).

On top of analysing gender, it is important to introduce a gender-specific vulnerability analysis to assess hazards and their impact on livelihoods, paying special attention to how gender-specific measures can be incorporated. A good example is the Community-Based Risk Screening Tool – Adaptation & Livelihoods (CRISTAL) in Mali. CRISTAL, is used to measure local vulnerability and check ongoing coping strategies to climate-related hazards. It

provides a user-friendly process to understand the links between climate-related risks, people's livelihoods, and possible adaptation interventions. In the case of the Malian Sahel, CRiSTAL showed that, although rural communities developed coping strategies for extreme climate events, such as droughts, no coping strategies had yet been developed to address the increased risks of heavy rainfall in line with climate change predictions. The tool also provided a gender-specific vulnerability analysis for different parts of the population, highlighting the specific coping strategies of women, and resulting in clear pointers for how gender-specific measures should be incorporated into projects. CRiSTAL showed how a clear, gender-specific division of livelihoods activities existed, with women holding responsibilities for certain agricultural and domestic activities. It also highlighted the reality that women were excluded from land ownership and, therefore, had no rights regarding the management of natural resources, despite forming the majority of agricultural labour. The power of male landowners over natural resources meant that the poorest groups, particularly women, were doubly excluded from both the land and its resources and, due to this, suffered higher levels of vulnerability to climate-related events. Using this analysis, it was shown how greater equality in the land rights of men and women could reduce exposure to climate risks, with gender inequity having negative impacts on a household's overall vulnerability. This example shows how the involvement of local communities into planning processes can highlight key gender issues that may have been overlooked in policy design (CRiSTALTool.org).

Example of best practice as the institutional level

Mapping existing capacities on gender and adaptation as part of broader capacity assessments can facilitate identification of gaps and effective utilization of in-country capacities already in place: the case of Kenya

A key, enabling factor of NAPs is capacity development, with an emphasis on ensuring all actors have the capacity to integrate gender considerations into adaptation planning and implementation. The Kenyan NAP–Ag Programme commissioned a Capacity Needs Assessments within six Kenyan institutions working with the Programme to identify areas requiring support to effectively implement agricultural-related NAP activities in sectoral planning and budgeting processes. Based on the priority gaps identified in the Capacity Needs

Assessment (2016), a three-day NAP–Ag Programme workshop, “How to integrate gender issues in climate change adaptation planning for agriculture,” was organized. The training focused on why gender matters in the context of climate change adaptation policy frameworks, ways to address gender issues during the formulation and implementation of policies, and how to ensure gender sensitive approaches are used in practice. Kenya was the first country in the NAP–Ag Programme to conduct a training workshop for government officers on gender, adaptation, and the agriculture sectors, with the event bringing together male and female mid– and senior–level government officials not ordinarily targeted by gender mainstreaming trainings.

In Uganda, the gender-responsive adaptation planning process in agriculture was led by the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industries and Fisheries (MAAIF) through its Climate Change Task Force. The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), along with the Ugandan Climate Change Department (CCD) and Ministry of Water and Environment (MWE), provided technical assistance. The process involved actions recommended by the UNFCCC NAP cycle, including:

- Stocktaking to clarify gender gaps in agriculture (Element A);
- Stakeholder analysis and consultations (Element B);
- Capacity development to strengthen gender considerations at all levels (Element C);
- Inclusion of gender priorities in agriculture NAPs (Element C);
- Case study implementation.

In 2015, the Climate Change Task Force undertook a stocktaking for the agricultural sector, including a situational and stakeholder analysis including consultations with central and local government stakeholders to identify how climate change impacts exacerbate gender inequalities and proposed methods to address them. The Task Force formulated a thematic area to address gender gaps and facilitate development of a gender-responsive NAP–Ag Programme, spearheaded by MAAIF and FAO gender focal points.

Stakeholders identified gender-responsive actions for the agriculture NAP. Along other key policy and planning documents, stocktaking reviewed gender policies and legislation. It also identified the need for capacity development in gender-responsive analysis, as cost-benefit analysis, impact evaluation and value chain analysis, to be used for adaptation planning and

implementation. In 2017, four capacity development workshops were held to strengthen the gender capacity of Parliamentarians, Central Government, District Local Governments and Non-state actors. The workshops focused on gender-responsive policy analysis, policy development, planning, budgeting, and implementation.

Example of best practices at the programme/project level

Financing gender mainstreaming in climate action

The Green Climate Fund (GCF) represents a key opportunity for countries to access finance for the formulation and implementation of NAPs. The GCF has developed a Gender Policy and Action Plan, which outlines gender equality commitments and inclusiveness when implementing GCF-funded activities. It also encourages equitable GCF investment benefits for women and men. A three-pronged approach ensures gender considerations throughout the project cycle (GCF, 2017):

1. A gender analysis should be presented in tandem with funding proposals, including an overview of gender issues and opportunities to address them during the project's implementation.
2. Gender action plan should also be included in funding proposals and should outline how activities will be gender-responsive, identify sex-disaggregated targets, and establish gender performance indicators.
3. Monitoring and evaluation frameworks should be gender-sensitive and incorporate the above targets and indicators.

The guidelines developed by the GCF to support country-level gender mainstreaming emphasizes the need for a gender analysis to inform project development and implementation. Women and men should be involved in project decisions (GCF, 2017). Countries can get a head start on these requirements by conducting a gender analysis to inform the NAP process and ensure both women and men, including those from particularly vulnerable groups, are involved in decisions around adaptation priorities and implementation strategies.

Ethiopia's GCF was approved in October 2017 to provide rural communities with year-round critical water supplies, improve water management systems, address risks of drought, and

other climate change related challenges. Ethiopia's GCF funding goes towards three major areas, the introduction of solar powered water pumping and small-scale irrigation, the rehabilitation and management of degraded lands around water sources and creating an enabling environment by raising awareness and improving local capacity. The Ethiopian GCF places emphasis on mitigation, particularly improving the economic and social conditions of women. Over 50 percent of the project's 1.3 million beneficiaries are women and 30 percent of the beneficiaries are female-headed households.

Countries that have already put gender-sensitive budgeting processes in place plan to extend this practice to resources allocated for adaptation. In Malawi, for example, the national budget includes the deliberate allocation of resources to correct gender imbalances, a policy meant to extend adaptation funding.

a) *Innovative financing*: In Uganda, the Centenary Bank of Uganda provides financial services to more than 1.4 million clients, with a focus on microfinance (Dazé & Dekens, 2016). In 2013, it developed an agricultural finance department and, by 2017, introduced a new initiative to provide preferential interest rates on loans for farmers who buy climate-resilient seeds and/or irrigation kits (Parry et al., 2017). One of the project goals was to incentivize climate risk management and climate change adaptation actions for local farmers. For the initiative, the Bank partnered with a domestic seed company and a company with expertise in irrigation technologies. Although established before Uganda's draft NAP document, the Centenary Bank scheme aligns with its identified priority actions, especially as they pertain to climate-resilient crops and strengthened irrigation farming (Parry et al., 2017). The NAP process provides a basis to support these initial efforts by Centenary Bank and will contribute to the further scaling up of the initiative. By facilitating direct financing to farmers in Uganda, the initiative will contribute to Uganda's NAP process and adaptation efforts.

b) *Clean and Renewable Energy*: In Malawi, vulnerable female-headed households are targeted by Irish Aid for a clean cookstove intervention, which reduces the demand for firewood, prevents environmental degradation, and contributes to a reduced workload of women and girls. Both men and women engaged in the production of cookstoves also benefit from increased incomes (Government of Ireland, 2018).

In Lesotho, Women as Agents of Change for Adaptation trains local women to serve as solar ambassadors, which offers households an opportunity to meet their energy needs through alternative technologies while supporting women as agents of change in their communities. For households that face a daily struggle to meet their energy needs, technologies like solar water heaters, cookers, lighting, battery chargers and energy efficient stoves addresses household vulnerabilities by reducing their reliance on woody vegetation. This combination raises awareness about and reduces the pressure on natural resources while reversing environmental degradation trends. Additionally, these technologies appear to be welcomed by the community, as evidenced by the establishment of savings schemes to help households purchase the technologies (UNFCCC, 2020).

- c) *Change in gender norms:* In agriculture, property rights and land-use rights are vital for smallholder farmers and small-scale agricultural operations. A clear system of property rights facilitates longer-term investments in irrigation and improvements which tend to limit degradation and support adaptation (Dougherty-Choux et al., 2015). In Tanzania, Irish Aid's support for pastoralists supports women to secure land rights over communal land and to run for formal positions on village councils where land use and land management decisions are made.

In the rural areas of Yunnan province in China, a study observed changes in gender norms which encouraging women to participate in water management and allocation, a role usually performed by men. When included in decision making related to resource use and societal investment, women were more likely to make decisions in the best interests of children, family, and community (Su et al., 2017).

Care should be taken when challenging gender norms, however, to ensure that new vulnerabilities are not created for women, such as time poverty and additional labour burdens. In Burkina Faso, a strategy to create income generating projects for women, to compensate for losses resulting from climate-induced harvest, overlooked important traditional roles of women and men in society. In the project, women were trained in poultry farming as an alternative or supplemental income source. Although

women controlled the livestock, both men and women were involved in sales and control of income. Ultimately, the women's labour burden was increased disproportionately to the income they received.

d) *Inclusive and gender responsive climate governance*: The quality of climate governance is measured by the degree to which policy development and decisions are participatory, accountable, transparent, inclusive, responsive, and respect the rule of law. High visibility does not equal effective transparency and attendance does not equal proportionate influence. To increase the effectiveness of climate action, both men and women should participate in and contribute to climate-related decision making, policy formulation, and implementation. In Senegal, a National Committee on Climate Change (COMNAC) was set up by the Direction de l'Environnement (Department of the Environment) and includes the employment of women in leadership positions. It plays an important role in helping to mainstream gender into national climate change policy, providing a positive example of a women-led team that can promote the empowerment, inclusion, and capacity-building of women across the country to adapt to climate change. In preparing the country's National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA), women participated in public consultations, organised in every region, to collect information on adaptation solutions at the local level. Additionally, indigenous knowledge was recognised as important for sustainable results (Otzelberger, 2011). Women's meaningful participation in decision-making around climate change requires more than just the presence of women in climate change institutions and processes. It also requires attention to the deep-rooted social and cultural inequalities that constrain women and prevent equal participation. These constraints include economic dependency, a lack of adequate financial resources, illiteracy, limited access to education, lack of information, lack of work opportunities, discriminatory cultural and social attitudes, negative stereotypes perpetuated in family and public life, the burden of domestic responsibilities, and intimidation, harassment, and violence (see Brody, 2009). All of these issues need to be addressed if the barriers to women's inclusion are to be overcome.

In Vietnam, a joint project between the Vietnam Women's Union and the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women), in

partnership with the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development of Vietnam, promoted the leadership of women in disaster management, risk reduction, and influenced government policy to give the Women's Union space on the Natural Disaster Prevention and Control decision making boards. These women subsequently supported disaster responses in their communities (UN Women, 2017).

- e) *Climate information*: Research indicates that men have greater access to climate information than women. For example, a study in Kyengeza, Uganda found that 80 percent of the men listen to the radio for daily weather forecasts compared to only 20 percent of women (Kyazze et al 2012). Generating and sharing climate information is important for NAP processes as strong climate information is foundational for adaptation planning. As a first step, governments should ensure that high-quality climate information is generated for NAP planning purposes and for national stakeholders. Climate information should be presented in a format that diverse actors, including women, will understand and find useful. This includes support for improved climate research at public universities, establishing and maintaining a network of hydro-meteorological stations and services, setting up climate information networks and services, drawing on global climate information resources, and establishing help desks to answer stakeholder questions on climate information.

The climate information that is provided needs to be useful and should be linked to real-world implications. It should also be disseminated through appropriate channels to ensure it reaches those who need it, especially those operating with limited connectivity. This may require exploration on the part of governments to identify potential digitization and mobile technologies to deliver targeted climate data to those that need it most (Tall et al, 2014; Gumucio et al, 2019; Partey et al, 2019).

Reliable, accessible, and accurate weather information is required to inform climate change planning. In Ghana, weather station coverage is relatively poor, presenting a barrier for smallholder farmers to adapt their practices with short-term weather patterns and variability, subsequently impacting their long-term planning (WBCSD, 2020). Localized weather information in growing regions is essential to adapting agricultural practices, maintaining livelihoods, and securing the resilience and stability

of the cocoa sector in Ghana. In 2015, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), an organization representing more than 200 leading global businesses, initiated a project to install weather stations and systems in Ghana to provide 7,500 smallholder farmers and local community members with valuable, localized weather information (WBCSD, 2019). The project's private sector partners, including Kellogg, Olam International, and Opus Insights, recognized that climate change impacts were a major threat to product quality, security of supply, and the overall sustainability of the cocoa value chain. From 2015 to 2018, several stakeholder dialogues were organized by WBCSD to ensure that multiple relevant stakeholders, including those in the public, private, research, and civil society sectors, were included in defining the initiative's strategy. Further, the initiative took steps to investigate which communication channels (e.g., phone, traditional extension service advice) would be appropriate for delivering weather information to farmers (WBCSD, 2020).

While the primary intention was to secure the livelihoods of cocoa smallholder in the West African cocoa belt and increase resilience in relevant value chains, the initiative also contributed to the NAP process. Specifically, weather stations generate a powerful data set for the government, which informs future priorities and decisions regarding crop suitability and adaptation in the agricultural sector (WBCSD, 2020).

In Kenya, to ensure the effectiveness of climate funds, a key contribution from the Kenyan public sector is the provision of reliable access to data and information on current and forecasted weather and climate. As part of this initiative, the Kenya Meteorological Department, in collaboration with the Agriculture and Climate Risk Enterprise in Africa Limited, provided targeted, downscaled weather and climate information services to farmers, extensions agents, and aggregators.

f) Monitoring tools: Canada uses an analytical tool, known as the Gender Based Analysis Plus (GBA+), to assess how different genders experience policies, programmes, and initiatives. The plus acknowledges that all gender-based analysis goes beyond biological and socio-cultural differences to consider other identity factors, such as race, ethnicity, religion, age, and mental and physical abilities. Canada uses the GBA+

tool across the national government, including in international climate change policies and programmes.

Lessons learned in incorporating gender into the formulation and implementation of NAPs

In 2015, CCAFS and partners gathered to share lessons on the integration of gender into smallholder adaptation projects, which could serve as guidance for those who will implement adaptation measures. These lessons are listed below and provide a guiding framework for gender-transformative NAPs, including:

- An analysis of gender and social norms, policy, differential resilience, and vulnerability to climate risks.
- Equal access to climate information, inputs, technology, and access to land, water, and forest resources.
- Addressing women's information priorities.
- Promoting access to market opportunities and equitable credit and finance.
- Using innovative, farmer-led, community-based approaches for capacity building.
- Promoting anticipatory, flexible, inclusive, and forward-looking adaptation planning and decision-making processes.
- Equal representation in decision making at the household, community, and national level.
- Integrating consultative learning, capacity building, monitoring, and knowledge management processes.
- Investments in staff capacity to mainstream gender transformative approaches during program implementation (Huyer et al, 2015).

Key gaps in incorporating gender into adaptation planning and implementation

- (i) **Lack of consultation:** A lack of consultation during decision making processes was identified as a limiting barrier to women's participation in forest management in Cameroon. A review of forest conservation approaches in Central and West Africa found that community-based forest conservation programs produced mixed results. Without a deliberate gender- or women-based focus, programs, by default, were advantageous for men in the form of grants for crop production, support, and employment. This selective benefit resulted in increased costs to women as a result

of reduced land access. Conversely, other programs focused only on women, ignoring possible negative impacts on men. Consultation with both men and women is needed to minimize potentially negative responses, especially if forest programs are intended to empower women by engaging them in traditionally masculine domains (Harris-Fry & Grijalva-Eternod, 2016).

(ii) **Framing of gender issues:**

a) *Gender interpreted as women:* Gender is not simply about ‘women and girls’; it is a power relation issue that shapes who gets to speak, participate, and whose work is valued (EIGE, 2020b). In many contexts, the framing of gender issues is challenging to integrate into the NAP process. Gender is often interpreted as being about women, which can obscure differences between women, the vulnerability of men, and the intersectionality with other issues, such as ethnicity and disability. Although women’s empowerment is a significant part of gender mainstreaming, it does not, on its own, constitute gender mainstreaming. Gender mainstreaming is a strategy to make women’s, as well as men’s, concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic, and societal spheres. This is done so that women and men benefit equally, and that inequality is not perpetrated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality. As such, gender equality is the overarching and long-term development goal, while gender mainstreaming is a set of specific, strategic approaches, as well as technical and institutional processes, adopted to achieve that goal (ECOSOC, 1997). Many climate change initiatives have operated from a women’s empowerment perspective and have, therefore, failed to meaningfully transform gender norms and the associated power relations that inform gender inequality, in some cases exacerbating already existing inequalities. Men, particularly those who perceive themselves as having something to lose if women are empowered, may be alienated by this framing. Approaches to gender integration must focus on differences between women and men, as well as among women and among men, to be inclusive and address social norms that present barriers to gender equality. As men are key players in achieving gender equality, they must be part of the solution.

b) *Limited male engagement:* Given that gender inequalities tend to disadvantage women, recognizing their particular needs and vulnerabilities is a good starting point.

However, without an understanding of the issues that lead to female marginalization, strategies for women's empowerment are unlikely to be effective. The process of achieving gender equality must, inevitably, involve working with men to challenge entrenched ideas about roles, responsibilities, and power in households, communities, and institutions. For gender-responsive NAP processes, countries must engage both women and men in addressing gender norms, relationships, and power structures.

c) *Lack of recognition of women's triple roles:* Owing to the focus on women, there has been a shift among women to embrace productive roles on top of the reproductive and community management roles without a corresponding shift to embrace reproductive roles among men, even in cases of loss of employment leading to time poverty among women. Surprisingly, climate change interventions still focus on woman as largely responsible for reproductive, unpaid roles related to childbearing and caregiving, with little focus on woman's "new" economic roles. At the same time, this focus also overlooks men who are no longer economically active and who could embrace reproductive duties. There is a risk that emphasizing their household responsibilities will inhibit progress by reinforcing traditional gender roles. Women are increasingly involved in income-generating activities, and adaptation strategies must enable their economic empowerment as a means to household and community resilience. As countries move into prioritization of adaptation options and elaboration of implementation strategies, more consideration of the evolving roles of women and men will be needed to ensure equitable benefits from adaptation investments and to enable progress on gender equality.

d) *Women's agency:* Due to historical factors, women are often defined as vulnerable, notwithstanding the vast knowledge and skills gained from their lived experiences. Women, therefore, are viewed as passive and vulnerable actors by many climate change initiatives, rather than active change agents with skills that can promote climate solutions alongside men. Although the twin track approach to gender mainstreaming acknowledges women's empowerment as a strategy, the gender aspects to promoting gender equality have been heavily neglected, thereby negatively affecting development outcomes.

- e) **Intersectionality:** Differently positioned men and women perceive and experience climate change in diverse ways, due to their distinct, socially constructed gender roles, status, and identity which results in varied coping strategies and responses (Lambrou and Nelson, 2010). There is a tendency to treat women as a homogenous group, failing to account for the intersectionality of women's experiences as informed by variables such as age, disability, ethnicity, and class. Proper framing of gender and gender equality lies at the very heart of the problem and of solutions to climate change. Rather than just the integration of gender dimensions into existing policies, solutions require a transformative approach to gender and climate change. Gender equality is both a fundamental condition for sustainable and effective adaptation and mitigation and a potential end goal. Policies around climate change should promote women's empowerment by building their capacity to recognise and respond to the effects of climate change, and ensure they are equally involved in informing climate change policy and programmes at all levels. Climate change and its responses provide a unique opportunity for enabling social and gender transformation, by challenging the underlying causes of inequality and injustice as an integral part of people-centred approaches.
- f) **Lack of coordination:** Although there are progressive laws at both the global and local levels which promote gender equality and women's empowerment, they are not effectively harnessed for climate change adaptation planning and implementation for the benefit of men and women - hence the notion of policy evaporation. Furthermore, synergies and coherence among stakeholders are glaringly absent.
- g) **Gender considered as a cross-cutting issue:** : Gender issues, both in general and in climate action, are treated as cross-cutting rather than stand-alone issues that deserve serious attention. As a result, issues are often lost along the way.
- h) **Lack of data and documentation of best practices and sharing platforms:** There is a documentation gap for best practices, as well as statistical infrastructure, to better

understand gender differentiated climate impacts and inform policy planning and implementation. This is coupled by a lack of sharing platforms to promote learning.

- i) **Lack of capacity for gender mainstreaming:** Governments and other agencies lack the capacity to mainstream gender, including the ability to undertake gender analysis and gender responsive budgeting for climate action. More gender and climate change experts and the capacity development of stakeholders can help build the gender mainstreaming capacity of governments and other agencies.
- j) **Absence of Monitoring and Evaluation Systems:** Measuring and assessing actions, programs, initiatives, and policies, are necessary to check for progress. To effectively assess the progress towards gender equality in climate action and to adequately report on instruments, well-structured and robust M&E systems, with sex-disaggregated data and sufficient funding support, are a must. M&E systems generate key lessons and provide evidence of progress which will inform the strategic direction of the country's gender mainstreaming initiatives.

How to best incorporate gender into adaptation action:

Key conclusions and recommendations

African countries should prioritize gender-responsive adaptation and mitigation plans in NDCs and NAPs that suit their local environments based on best practices and lessons learned from similar contexts. The major issue for negotiators and governments in Sub-Saharan Africa is to ensure that relevant gender issues in climate change, especially those linked to the framing of gender responsive climate change are addressed.

With this in mind, the following recommendations are proffered:

1. Develop tools, methodologies, guidelines, and indicators for the monitoring, reporting, and verification for the development and implementation of gender-responsive climate policies and strategies in Africa to facilitate tracking of progress in this area.
2. Promote research, documentation, and dissemination of emerging gender dimensions in climate change issues and ensure the generated information is packaged and disseminated to women. Involve both women and men in the research, formulation, and implementation of appropriate policies that take gender differentiated interests into account. Such documentation will include good practice guides, training guides, toolkits, policy briefs, and scientific articles spanning different aspects of gender and climate change.
3. Promote platforms to exchange good practices and case studies focused on gender-responsive climate change among multilateral, regional, sub-regional, and government stakeholders.
4. The collection of sex-disaggregated data and gender analysis should be mandatory before any intervention. Additionally, there should be regular and consistent gathering of sex-disaggregated data on various aspects of climate change. Such data helps to identifying men's and women's differentiated perceptions, experiences, contributions, and priorities.

5. Strengthen the skills and build the capacities of women to manage climate-related risks and vulnerabilities and promote the provision of incentives for women to manage risk associated with the impact of climate change.
6. Empower both men and women to participate in decision-making and to utilize gender expertise in climate change policy formulation and ensure equal representation in decision making at household, community, and national-level climate change forums.
7. Invest in staff capacity to mainstream gender-transformative approaches during program implementation.
8. Address women's information priorities by promoting equal access to climate information using relevant platforms.
9. Enhance gender equality as a guiding principle and a cross-cutting issue for all climate finance instruments, particularly the Green Climate Fund.
10. Provide new and innovative financing mechanisms that are user-friendly, accessible, and affordable to women, including the creation an enabling environment for women's accessibility to multilateral climate funds.
11. Establish gender-based criteria in fund allocation, project selection, and other aspects of decision-making.
12. Strengthen gender in the UNFCCC process.
13. Improve women's access to finance from multilateral and microcredit institutions for the purpose of mitigation and technology transfer projects.

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