GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE  WOMEN MATTER

This paper was prepared by Isatou Gaye, Environmental Affairs Officer, with inputs from: Josué Dioné, Director; Ousmane Laye, Chief of Section; Kwadwo Tutu and Charles Akol, Environmental Affairs Officers; Food Security and Sustainable Development Division (FSSD) of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA)

March, 2009
## Table of Contents

1 **Introduction** 1  
1.1 Purpose and outline of the paper 1  
1.2 Climate change, poverty and sustainable development 1  
1.3 Adaptation and mitigation 2  
1.4 Climate change and gender inequality 3  
1.5 What women can do 3  
1.6 Recommendations 3  

2. **Sectoral Highlights** 5  
2.1 Agriculture and food security 5  
2.2 Water resources 6  
2.3 Energy 8  
2.4 Forest resources 9  
2.5 Health 11  
2.6 Natural disasters 12  
2.7 Conflicts and Migration 13  

3 **Financing adaptation and mitigation** 15  
3.1 Financial mechanisms under the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol 15  
3.2 Other mechanisms and initiatives supporting adaptation and mitigation activities in Africa 16  
3.3 Funding adaptation needs of women 18  
3.4 Recommendations 18  

4.0 **Conclusion** 20  

References 21  

Annex 23
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACPC</td>
<td>African Climate Policy Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AF</td>
<td>Adaptation Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AfDB</td>
<td>African Development Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUC</td>
<td>African Union Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAP</td>
<td>Bali Action Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCAA</td>
<td>Climate Change for Adaptation in Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCGCC</td>
<td>International Competence Centre Gender &amp; Climate Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDM</td>
<td>Clean Development Mechanism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CECAFA</td>
<td>Clean Energy and Climate Adaptation Funding Facility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ClimDev-Africa</td>
<td>Climate Information for Development in Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTF</td>
<td>Clean Technology Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>UK Department for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNAs</td>
<td>Designated National Authorities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRR</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECA</td>
<td>UN Economic Commission for Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>UN Food and Agriculture Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIF</td>
<td>Forest Investment Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDN</td>
<td>Gender and Disaster Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GGCA</td>
<td>Global Gender Climate Alliance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHG</td>
<td>Green House Gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNI</td>
<td>Gross National Income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human Immunodeficiency Virus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDRC</td>
<td>International Development Research Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDS</td>
<td>Institute of Development Studies (IDS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFPRI</td>
<td>International Food Policy Research Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIED</td>
<td>International Institute for Environment and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IISD</td>
<td>International Institute for Sustainable Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCC</td>
<td>Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISDR</td>
<td>United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IUCN</td>
<td>International Union for the Conservation of Nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JI</td>
<td>Joint Implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDCs</td>
<td>Least Developed Countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDCF</td>
<td>Least Developed Countries Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAPAs</td>
<td>National Adaptation Programmes of Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ODA</td>
<td>Official Development Assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PoA</td>
<td>Programme of activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPCR</td>
<td>Pilot Programme for Climate Resilience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCCF</td>
<td>Special Climate Change Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIDs</td>
<td>Small Island Developing States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCF</td>
<td>Strategic Climate Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPA</td>
<td>Strategic Priority on Adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSA</td>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNFCCC</td>
<td>United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNEP</td>
<td>United Nations Environment Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEDO</td>
<td>Women’s Environment and Development Organization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1 Introduction

1.1 Purpose and outline of the paper
This paper seeks to draw attention to the gender dimension of climate change and the need to integrate gender issues in climate change responses, with particular emphasis on women’s concerns. The paper is divided into four sections. The first highlights the inevitability of climate change, its impact on the poor and vulnerable, its implications for sustainable development and the need for effective adaptation and mitigation measures. It also underscores how climate change would disproportionately affect women and what needs to be done to ensure that women’s concerns are adequately addressed. The second looks at how climate change would impact key climate sensitive sectors, the gender dimension of the impacts, and proffers recommendations on what should be done to reduce the vulnerability of women to these impacts, and enhance their adaptive capacities. The third provides an overview of financing and capacity building initiatives that could be accessed to fund adaptation and mitigation programmes and projects. The final section makes concluding remarks on the basis of the findings of the preceding sections.

1.2 Climate change, poverty and sustainable development
The scientific evidence that climate change is a serious and urgent issue is now compelling. This observation is supported by the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), which asserts that studies conducted have allowed for a broader and more confident assessment of the relationship between observed warming and impacts, than was made in the Third Assessment. The report states that most of the observed increase in globally averaged temperatures since the mid-20th century is very likely due to the observed increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gas concentrations. Furthermore, more specific information is now available across a wide range of systems, sectors and across the regions of the world concerning the nature of future impacts, including for some fields and places not covered in previous assessments (IPCC, 2007).

It is widely recognized that although climate change impacts will affect all countries, the poor, will be disproportionately affected. Their reliance on local ecological resources, coupled with existing stresses on health and well-being and limited financial, institutional and human resources leave the poor most vulnerable and least able to adapt to the impacts of climate change. Most ironically, the vast majority of those most vulnerable to the impacts of climate change are also the least responsible for contributing to it in the form of GHG emissions (IISD and Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Denmark, 2007). For example, Africa contributes only four percent of global greenhouses gas emissions, yet it is one of the most vulnerable continents to climate variability and change because of multiple stresses and low adaptive capacity (IPCC, 2007). Consequently, there is growing recognition that climate change may
undermine the ability of developing countries, particularly Africa, to meet the targets put forth in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), thereby slowing progress towards sustainable development. In this regard, Africa must undertake effective adaptation measures to avert the potential drastic consequences of climate change.

1.3 Adaptation and mitigation

Some adaptation to current climate variability is taking place, however, this may be insufficient for future changes in climate. The IPCC report states that the cost of adaptation to climate change in Africa could be as much as 5 to 10 per cent of the entire continent's GDP. However, vulnerability can be reduced or increased by the choice of development path (IIED, 2007). Pursuing a sustainable development path can reduce vulnerability to climate change by enhancing adaptive capacities and increasing resilience.

In this regard, climate risks need to be integrated into development policy and practice at international and regional levels, as well as into planning and development initiatives of all stakeholders at the national and local levels, including governments, the private sector, communities and civil society at large. At present, however, few plans for promoting sustainability have explicitly included either adapting to climate change impacts, or promoting adaptive capacity (IPCC, 2007). Furthermore, because the poor will suffer the most from many adverse climate change impacts, it is important to strengthen community institutions to help them provide social safety nets and develop new coping mechanisms (IIED, 2007).

Mitigation is also crucial. However, while scientists are clear on the need to reduce greenhouse gas emissions to stop global warming, action on the ground by politicians, businesses and individuals has been slow (IIED, 2007). Under the Kyoto Protocol, most developed countries have agreed to limit or reduce their emissions of greenhouse gases relative to a baseline year (in most cases, 1990). They may do so using a number of market-based mechanisms, based on the concept of carbon trading. Joint Implementation (JI) permits project-based carbon trading between developed countries, and the CDM permits project-based carbon trading between developed and developing countries.

The CDM was designed to contribute to climate change mitigation and to foster sustainable development in developing countries. The carbon market is the most tangible result of efforts to mitigate climate change. By creating a market for emission reductions, in effect paying people and businesses to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, the carbon market provides a financial incentive to invest in clean energy projects, in energy efficiency, in fuel switching, in waste management and in forestry. The CDM allows “carbon projects” to be undertaken in developing countries (UNDP, UNEP-RISOE, 2008).
1.4 Climate change and gender inequality
Women are very vulnerable, and are most likely to be disproportionately affected by the adverse impacts of climate change because they constitute the majority of poor people. Women’s traditional roles as the primary users and managers of natural resources, primary caregivers, and labourers engaged in unpaid labour mean they are involved in, and dependent on livelihoods and resources that are put most at risk by climate change. Furthermore, women lack rights and access to resources and information vital to overcoming the challenges posed by climate change, http://www.undp.org/climatechange/adapt/basics3.html.

More daunting is the fact that women are frequently excluded from processes and decisions relating to the use and management of natural resources, including those impacting on climate change. In this regard, several gender networks have called for the effective participation of women in climate processes and decisions at all levels. The post 2012 climate change regime is considered particularly important (GenderCC Network, 2007; genenet et al, 2006). The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) has also been invoked to highlight the human rights dimension of climate change, and to justify the need for involving women in climate change policies and actions (e.g. Oxfam, 2008).

1.5 What women can do
It is recognized that the actions that women can take depend on their involvement in decision making processes at all levels, their capacity to effectively intervene in climate change matters, their integration into climate change institutions, and to be engaged in policy and decision making processes at all levels. It is also recognized that the actions that women can take depend on the strength of their networking, particularly with gender and women climate change organizations (see Annex for examples of such networks). Women and gender experts should ensure that they are well informed about the gendered dimensions of climate sensitive sectors, particularly the existing inequalities between men and women and how climate change can exacerbate these inequalities. In this regard, the empowerment of women in all aspects, including their access to appropriate information, skills and adequate resources, to enable them to act in a timely manner, is seen as key.

1.6 Recommendations
There is need for:

• Full acknowledgement of the contribution of women to the use and management of natural resources;

• Guaranteed women’s rights in climate change mitigation and adaptation, including their rights to information, knowledge, skills, resources and participation in decision-making;

• Women’s full participation and contribution to decision-making and leadership on climate-
change processes and actions, including adaptation and mitigation actions;

• Increasing awareness and understanding on adaptation issues and concerns at the global, national, and most importantly, at the local levels, among the poor and vulnerable;

• Provision of timely information and adequate services and resources to women and vulnerable communities to enable them make timely decisions and take appropriate actions, including taking effective adaptation measures;

• Building on and strengthening women’s experiences, knowledge and coping capacities in adaptation policies, and ensuring that women’s needs are considered in livelihood adaptation strategies. This should include the provision of training to women’s organizations, networks and support groups, as well as opportunities to share experiences;

• The use of gender analysis to understand the different roles and responsibilities of women and men in natural resource use and management, in order to make interventions equally relevant for women and men;

• The empowerment of women to enable them acquire, invest in and deploy technologies that contribute to mitigation and adaptation to climate change, as well as to enable them effectively mobilize for action;

• Binding commitments from developed country parties to the UNFCCC to mitigate GHG emissions that would be detrimental to the climate system and increase the burden on the poor and vulnerable; and for

• Transparency and accountability in the actions of parties to the UNFCCC in reducing the vulnerability of the poor to climate change impacts.
2. Sectoral Highlights

Under a “business as usual scenario”, climate change impacts in Africa are projected to be particularly severe on climate-sensitive sectors and climate-related events and, invariably, affect progress towards realising the MDGs and achieving sustainable development. This section examines the gender aspects of climate change impacts in key climate sensitive sectors and proffers suggestions on what can be done to ensure that women’s concerns are mainstreamed into decisions and actions aimed at addressing or adapting to climate change.

2.1 Agriculture and food security

The IPCC projects that agricultural production, including access to food, in many African countries and regions would be severely compromised by climate variability and change. The area suitable for agriculture, the length of growing seasons and yield potential, particularly along the margins of semi-arid and arid areas, are expected to decrease. This would further adversely affect food security and exacerbate malnutrition in the region.

In some countries, yields from rain-fed agriculture could be reduced by up to 50 percent by 2020. With 95 per cent agricultural dependency on rainfall, 20 per cent decrease in length of crop growing season, 50 percent decrease in yields from rain-fed agriculture, the projected losses in cereal production potential in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) are estimated at about 33 per cent. Local food supplies would be negatively affected by reduced productivity of livestock (feed and fodder availability) and decreasing fisheries resources in large lakes due to rising water temperatures, which may be exacerbated by continued over-fishing.

2.1.1 Gender dimension

Under the current social division of responsibilities and distribution of access to and control of resources, this will disproportionately affect women who are mostly (60-80 per cent) responsible for securing food throughout the whole value chain, and equally responsible for managing the natural resource base (land, water, in particular). In spite of this, women by statutory and/or customary laws, have restricted property rights over these natural resources, as well as limited access to support services, such as credit and extension services that would capacitate them to adopt more climate-resilient technologies and practices. Decreased food availability is often managed at the expense of the most vulnerable groups of households - especially women and children, resulting in under-nourishment and malnutrition. Climate change would exacerbate this situation (Dione, J, 2008).

While adaptation research and activities targeting vulnerable populations are increasing in number, limited attention has been given to the differences between men and women within at-risk populations. Experience shows that interventions to strengthen livelihoods and food
security from external shocks are more efficient and effective when gender differences are properly understood and addressed. Yet research and policy-making have so far failed to examine extensively, the gender aspects of vulnerability and adaptation to climate change (FAO, 2007).

### 2.1.2 Recommendations

There is need to ensure that:

- Women and gender experts take an active role in agricultural policy and decision-making processes and that a gender perspective is mainstreamed into policy and programme design, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and reporting;
- Solutions to enhance women’s adaptive capacities and livelihoods including alternative agricultural practices, access to credit, inputs such as improved seed varieties, as well as labour-saving technologies, are supported and promoted;
- Gender analysis is used to understand women and men’s different activities and responsibilities, and their access to resources in order to make interventions equally relevant to men and women; and that
- Participatory approaches are used to involve all members of the community in planning to adequately factor in gendered roles and differential vulnerabilities and impacts (FAO, 2007). Issues to consider should include:
  - The different risks and opportunities for men and women, given the gender-based division of labour in the agriculture sector;
  - The different options and “safety nets” for coping with climate change, given that men and women have different access to resources, including physical resources like land, social resources like networks, and financial resources like income-generating work and credit;
  - The range of options for preparing for, and coping with change, taking into account that the distinct roles of women and men expose them to different sets of knowledge and skills, such as knowing which seeds to plant during a dry spell or knowing how to dig a well; and
  - The participation and the representation of women’s ideas in short- and long-term decision making on climate change, bearing in mind that this is not always equal for men and women.

### 2.2 Water resources

The IPCC Report projects that between 75 and 250 million people in Africa would be exposed to increased water stress by 2020, while the area experiencing water shortage in SSA will have increased by 29 per cent by 2050. Increasing water scarcity would be compounded by decreased water quality because of pollution, contamination, etc. Combined with increasing demand on
water for different uses (e.g. domestic, agriculture, industry, energy), this would adversely affect livelihoods of hundreds of millions of people and aggravate water-related problems.

2.2.1 Gender dimension

Climate change would particularly impact women and girls because of their distinct roles in relation to water use. Women and girls generally assume primary responsibility for collecting water for drinking, cooking, washing, hygiene and raising small livestock, while men use water for irrigation or livestock farming and for industries (Fisher 2006; Khosla and Pearl 2003 in BRIDGE-IDS, 2008). These distinct roles mean that women and men often have different needs and priorities in terms of water use. This knowledge is quite significant in the context of climate change.

In drought-prone areas affected by desertification, for example, the time absorbed by water collection will increase as women and children (mostly girls) will have to travel greater distances to find water. This is time that could be spent in school, earning an income or participating in public life. Walking long distances to fetch water can expose women and girls to harassment or sexual assault, especially in areas of conflict; there are many accounts of women and girls being attacked when searching for water in refugee camps around Darfur (MSF 2005 in BRIDGE-IDS, 2008). In urban areas, water collection is also an issue as women and girls may spend hours queuing for intermittent water supplies (WEDO 2003 in BRIDGE-IDS, 2008).

2.2.2 Recommendations

There is need to ensure that:

- The human rights (women's rights) dimension of water is recognized and respected, as water is indispensable for leading a healthy life in human dignity. In this context, ethics should guide water resources management, including for water supply and sanitation;
- Women and gender experts are consulted and are involved in decision-making in the water sector and in the design and management of water and sanitation policies and programmes. It is imperative that policies and programmes draw on the existing body of knowledge on gender and water, to inform interventions;
- A gender perspective, which seeks to include an understanding of gender roles and relations and how these affect, and are affected by water and sanitation interventions, is mainstreamed into adaptation options;
- Local water sources are provided to free up time for women to engage in income-generating activities, by reducing the time required to fetch water and making domestic tasks faster to complete, as well as to impact positively on school attendance; and that
- Actual and potential risks of attacks on women and girls, who are obliged to walk long distances in search of water are highlighted in decision-making and planning processes.
in order to come up with strategies that prevent these dangers, and to justify the costs associated with the provision of local water supplies.

2.3 Energy
Climate change is projected to reduce potential energy availability through reduced water flows to major hydropower dams, and worsening depletion of biomass energy resources.

2.3.1 Gender dimensions
In many developing countries, especially in the poorest areas, most energy currently comes from traditional biomass fuels such as wood, charcoal and agricultural wastes – and collecting and managing these fuels is strictly ‘women’s business’. Linkages between energy supplies and gender roles are strongest in countries with low availability of basic electricity and modern fuels, and a high dependence on biomass fuels for cooking, heating and lighting. In these countries, especially in Asia and Africa, cultural traditions make women responsible for gathering fuel and providing food, even when this involves long hours of performing heavy physical labour. These activities substantially increase women’s physical burdens, damage their health, and take up time that could otherwise be spent on caring for their families, educating themselves and their children, and engaging in income-generating activities (Karlsson, G, 2007).

2.3.2 Recommendations
There is need to ensure that:

- Women, including those from poor rural villages are more involved in making energy decisions and plans. Energy policies and interventions should recognise women’s roles in the energy sector and build on their expertise and influence, in order to effectively promote sustainable economic and social progress;
- Greater attention is paid to gender in energy investments and initiatives in order to involve women more in the energy sector and in different ways, so that they can manage their energy supplies, their businesses and their lives more effectively and productively;
- Investments are made in improved fuels and equipment, as much as in access to electricity. In this regard, women should be engaged at a higher level in the dissemination of new energy technologies and in the effective management of natural resources; and that
- Women are empowered to benefit from lucrative projects under the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM). The introduction of the programme of activities (PoA) under the CDM is expected to greatly enhance the opportunities for African countries to access the CDM. The programmatic CDM aims to aggregate geographically dispersed activities that would have been difficult to undertake as traditional, stand-alone CDM projects (UNDP, UNEP-RISOE, 2008). Potential activities include:
2. Sectoral Highlights

- Off-grid renewable energy projects, such as run-of-river hydro and wind power, the use of biomass residues, capturing methane emissions from landfill dumps or animal waste for electricity generation. These can play a valuable role in bringing energy to rural communities and stimulating rural industries; and
- Energy efficiency projects that can save individuals and organisations money and generate additional revenues in the form of CDM carbon credits. This includes mitigating carbon emissions by using fuel-efficient cook stoves and solar water heaters for domestic purposes, and the installation of compact fluorescent light bulbs in public sector offices.

2.4 Forest resources

In spite of the importance of forests, forest cover in Africa has been declining at one of the fastest rates in the world. It is predicted that climate change will profoundly affect forests. It will cause increasing damage to forest health due to greater incidence of fire, pests and diseases.

2.4.1 Gender dimension

The gender roles existing in societies are reflected in the different ways women and men use forest resources. In most countries, rural women’s livelihoods and social roles rely directly on forest resources to meet the nutritional, health and cultural needs of their families and communities. Men are involved in timber extraction and the use of non-timber forest products for commercial purposes. Due to this division of labour, women living in or near the forest rely more on non-timber forest products for family welfare and are more dependent on intact forests GenderCC Network, 2007).

Thus, women are differently and often disproportionately affected by deforestation and have a stronger inherent interest in forest preservation. Men are more likely to benefit in the immediate or short-term, from deforestation in many forms, through jobs in the timber industry, or other ways of participating in the commercial use of cleared land. Moreover, women are virtually invisible in formal forestry, particularly in decision-making positions. Thus, policy-making in the forest sector is male dominated and tends to neglect women’s needs and interests (GenderCC Network, 2007).

Depletion of forest resources would be exacerbated by climate change and would increase the burden on women to gather fuel wood, food, fodder and medicinal plants. Women and girls would have to walk longer distances and spend more time securing forest resources, thereby reducing the likelihood of their engagement in educational and alternative livelihood opportunities.
2.4.2 Potential mitigation benefits from forests

There is significant potential for Africa to contribute to climate change mitigation, particularly in the forestry and agriculture sectors, which together account for 73 per cent of emissions from the region (and 13 percent of the global total emissions from these sectors). Moreover, Africa’s emissions from agriculture and land-use change and deforestation are expected to grow in the future, due to projected intensification of agricultural production and the expansion of unexploited areas. As such, soil carbon sequestration, fire management, and avoided deforestation offer additional opportunities for mitigating Green House Gas (GHG) emissions, and promoting sustainability in Africa (IFPRI, 2008). This notwithstanding, the sector continues to suffer from complex CDM methodologies and exclusion from the European Union (EU) Emissions Trading System, which accounts for 78 per cent of the global carbon market.

However, some carbon buyers now consider forestry a “charismatic” project-type. Therefore, afforestation/reforestation projects can often command a price premium, particularly if significant biodiversity or community livelihood benefits can be demonstrated (UNDP, UNEP-RISOE, 2008). Expanding pro-poor mitigation through linking SSA to global carbon markets is both feasible and desirable for the region in terms of conserving its natural resources, contributing to the good of the global environment, and generating income to finance its development activities (IFPRI, 2008).

2.4.3 Recommendations

There is need to ensure that:

- The contribution of women to forest preservation is acknowledged, that women are empowered to participate in planning and decision-making in community forestry programmes and that gender-sensitive policies and programmes are developed and implemented in the formal forestry sub-sector, with women playing a major role;
- Assistance provided for sustainable forest management should increasingly be targeted at integrated interventions at local government and at local community levels, in order to translate forest policies and plans into actions that meet livelihood needs of forest-dependent communities, particularly women;
- Women and gender experts are involved in all processes aimed at further integrating Africa into global carbon markets. And that the concerns of women are taken into account in the simplification of the CDM rules. These include rules for determining baselines, monitoring carbon emissions, and enforcing offsets and broadening the range of eligible projects to include avoided deforestation and soil carbon sequestration;
- In strengthening the institutional and technical capacities of African countries to better engage in the CDM process, policymakers take into account the needs of the poor, especially women. Women in both private and public sectors should be involved in project development and implementation, and that
2. Sectoral Highlights

- Small-scale carbon offset projects in the forestry sector are registered under a programme of activities to increase the chances of poor women benefiting from carbon trading.

2.5 Health

It has been widely recognised that rising water levels associated with climate change will lead to an increase in water borne diseases. Other likely health consequences of climate change include higher rates of malnutrition due to food shortages, increase in heat-related mortality and morbidity, and increase in respiratory disease where air pollution worsens. Children under five are the main victims of sanitation-related illnesses, and – along with the elderly – are most affected by heat stress (Bartlett 2008 in BRIDGE-IDS, 2008).

2.5.1 Gender dimension

Gender discrimination in the allocation of resources, including those related to nutrition and medicines, may put women and girls at greater risk than men and boys. Women and girls encounter barriers to accessing healthcare services due to lack of economic assets to pay for healthcare, as well as cultural restrictions on their mobility, which may prohibit them from travelling to seek healthcare. The elderly are at highest risk from climate change-related health impacts like heat stress and malnutrition. Elderly women are likely to be particularly vulnerable, especially in developing countries where resources are scarce (BRIDGE-IDS, 2008).

Climate change impacts on health are likely to increase women’s workload still further, since women have traditionally had responsibility for caring for the sick and the elderly. Women’s health may also suffer as a result of their existing lower access to health services, reduced nutritional status, and the requirement on them to juggle multiple roles. These multiple tasks also limit the time women and girls have to engage in income-generating activities and make them susceptible to stress-related illnesses. Men’s mental health may also suffer, as men are less likely to seek counselling for trauma, a possible outcome of experiencing disaster (OXFAM, 2007).

2.5.2 Recommendations

There is need to ensure that:

- Awareness is created on women’s vulnerability to the health impacts of climate change and that political support to addressing women’s health issues is garnered;
- Programmes to improve access to health care, particularly for women and the elderly, including introducing cash transfers, free health checks and mobile health units, are well designed and implemented;
- Programmes to offset the demands of health care work on women and girls are in place. Considerable knowledge exists regarding appropriate support and interventions to alleviate women’s health care burden in the context of HIV. These insights should be drawn upon to inform climate change policy and programming; and that
• Research on gender-specific health impacts of climate change is conducted, as the potential impacts of climate change on human health are huge, but poorly understood.

2.6 Natural disasters
Natural disasters related to existing climate variability frequently occur in the poorest countries and the poor are usually the hardest hit. In responding to the potential increase in natural disasters due to climate change, lessons can be learned from coping with existing climate variability. Climate change may result in more frequent and severe disasters and climatic shocks than experienced to date, so this provides grounds for integrating risk management into development practices, and for considering strategically, how to integrate long-term climatic change into disaster risk management (DFID, 2004).

2.6.1 Gender dimension
Several studies attest that women and girls are more vulnerable to disasters such as drought, floods, and hurricanes. For instance, it has been reported that women and girls made up 90 per cent of deaths during the 1991 cyclone in Bangladesh and 75 per cent of deaths during the 2004 Indian Ocean Tsunami. In Sri Lanka, swimming and tree climbing are taught mainly to boys; this helped males cope better than females when the tsunami hit. In times of disaster and environmental stress, women become less mobile because they are the primary care givers. After a natural disaster, women are more likely to become victims of domestic and sexual violence. Household workload increases substantially after a disaster, which forces many girls to drop out of school (http://www.sciencealert.com.au/opinions/20080502-16850-2.html). After the Northern Pakistani earthquake of October 2005, there were numerous reports on high rates of rape and violence against women and girls and increased maternal and infant mortality. Furthermore, aid was given to the male heads of households, making women even more dependent and vulnerable (Cordula Reimann, KOFF/swisspeace in Adelphi Research and Germanwatch, 2007).

However, as noted in WEDO, 2005, too often, women are primarily perceived as the main victims of climate change and not as positive agents of change and contributing to livelihood strategies. As highlighted by various authors, natural disasters could also provide women with a unique opportunity to challenge and change their gendered status in society. Women have been willing and able to take active roles in what are traditionally considered “male” tasks in times of disaster. It is therefore by no coincidence that the Hyogo Framework for Action that emerged from the United Nation’s 2005 World Conference on Disaster Reduction states that “a gender perspective should be integrated into all disaster risk management policies, plans and decision-making processes, including those related to risk assessment, early warning, information management, and education and training” (ISDR, 2005, in WEDO, 2008).
2.6.2 Recommendations

The following are adapted from WEDO, 2008

There is need to ensure that:

- Climate change as a human security issue, is researched and integrated into human rights frameworks, mechanisms and legislation, including the Hyogo Framework for Action;
- Institutional capacity to mainstream gender in global and national climate change and Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) policies and operations, is enhanced through the development of gender policies, gender awareness, gender capacity and expertise, and the development and application of relevant mechanisms and tools;
- Gender-specific vulnerability assessments are conducted and a gender analysis to global climate change policies and institutional mechanisms applied;
- Gender-specific disaster reduction policies are formulated to address the effects of climate change in disaster-prone areas, as well as pragmatic national and international interventions to ensure food, energy and water security, economic resilience and security of place/habitat, particularly for poor and migrating women and their families;
- Women’s empowerment is provided through capacity building before, during and after climate-related disasters, as well as through their active involvement in disaster anticipation, early warning and prevention, being part of their resilience building;
- Women’s social, economic, physical and psychological vulnerabilities is acknowledged in community-based preparedness and response plans, in order to reduce the impact of disasters on women;
- Women’s abilities are recognized and are incorporated into disaster relief efforts with the goal of changing gendered roles and perception of rights; and that
- A gender-based approach to the study and analysis of climate change and natural disasters is conducted, and that research is supported by sex-disaggregated data.

2.7 Conflicts and Migration

It is widely recognized that the nature and extent of climate change not only hampers human development and ecosystems integrity, but also forms a major threat to human security at all levels, from local to international.

Extreme climate events such as floods, droughts, desertification and sea-level rise are likely to force increasing numbers of Africa’s population to migrate from rural to urban areas, away from increasingly arid areas and low lying coastal areas, and often outside the region. The resulting massive migrations could spark violent conflicts for access to and control of key resources such as land and water within the continent, and further fuel international out migration. In light of what the continent has been experiencing all too well, this will impose increased hardships on those usually left behind, i.e. women, children and old people. The hardships would be particularly harsh for women and girls (Dione, J, 2008).
2.7.1 Gender dimension

Women and men are affected differently by conflicts. Women bear the responsibility for the survival of the family during and after conflicts. Their workload increases in crisis situations, while their income generating opportunities decrease simultaneously. Family responsibilities tie women to a particular geographical location and limit their opportunities to migrate. As women make up the majority of the poor, they are least able to adapt to changing conditions or rebuild their livelihoods after destruction. Above all, they are most vulnerable to sexual abuse and sexual violence during wars and natural disasters (Ulrike Rohr, genanet in Adelphi Research and Germanwatch, 2007). In spite of this, women are still marginalized in climate change decision-making, and conflict prevention, management and peace building initiatives.

2.7.2 Recommendations

There is need to ensure that:

- Climate change as a human security issue, is researched and integrated into human rights frameworks, mechanisms and legislation, including UN Resolution 1325, which calls for greater participation of women in all aspects of conflict prevention, resolution and management, including peace-building;
- Women fully participate and contribute to decision-making and leadership related to the nexus of climate change and conflict in order to ensure effective and socially-just climate change interventions and the prevention of related conflicts. This should include climate change mitigation and adaptation, natural resources management, conflict prevention, management and peace building;
- Awareness on the links between climate change, conflict and their gender dimension is increased, that conflict is integrated into climate change adaptation taking into account that women and men would be impacted differently, and that the international community learns from recent events that demonstrate how women are disproportionately affected during conflict and post conflict situations;
- Early warning systems are comprehensive, involve women and take into account their concerns, in order to ensure that timely measures, such as mediation and preventive diplomacy, can be undertaken to avert violent crises; and that
- Since many causes of conflict, including inequality and exclusionary politics, have their roots in weak governance, measures to prevent conflict and its recurrence have a better chance of succeeding if they are accompanied by actions promoting effective, inclusive and legitimate governance (including climate governance at all levels) that adequately involves women and youth and effectively address their concerns.
3 Financing adaptation and mitigation

Both the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol stipulate that developed countries offer assistance in meeting adaptation costs to developing countries that are particularly vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change. The Bali Action Plan (BAP), which was agreed by UNFCCC parties, suggests taking into account the urgent and immediate needs of poorer countries that are particularly climate-vulnerable, especially the Least Developed Countries (LDCs) and Small Island Developing States (SIDs). The BAP also recommends tackling the needs of countries in Africa affected by drought, desertification, and floods. The G8 group of leading industrial nations at a number of their summits, have reaffirmed their commitments to Africa. The 2008 G8 Declaration on Energy Security and Climate Change recommit them to combating climate change with common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capacities (IIED, 2008).

3.1 Financial mechanisms under the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol

The following are financial mechanisms to support adaptation under the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol, particularly for developing countries (IIED, 2007).

1. The LDCs Fund (LDCF) has already supported the development of National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs). It is based on voluntary contributions from wealthy countries.
2. The Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF) is for all developing countries and covers adaptation and other activities. It is also based on voluntary contributions.
3. The Adaptation Fund (AF) is meant to support “concrete adaptation” activities. It is based on private sector replenishment through the two per cent levy on CDM projects, plus voluntary contributions.
4. The Strategic Priority on Adaptation (SPA) is funded from the Global Environment Facility’s own trust funds to support pilot adaptation activities.

However, these funds are relatively small. All are based on voluntary pledges and contributions except for the Adaptation Fund, which gets a two per cent share of proceeds from CDM projects. Additionally, the pledges have been slow in coming in. As of March 2008, a total of US$298 million had been pledged for adaptation under the LDCF, SCCF and SPA, but they actually held just US$200 million. This means that some US$98 million pledged to the UNFCCC was outstanding. Implementation of NAPAs is not going according to plan because few developed countries have contributed to the LDCF (GNI) as ODA (IIED, 2008).

Carbon finance can be accessed through the CDM, which is aimed at assisting non-Annex 1 countries achieve sustainable development and Annex 1 countries to comply with their Kyoto targets. The carbon market is now worth roughly US$64 billion and is doubling in value each
year. However, Africa’s participation in the CDM is very weak. The Nairobi Framework was adopted in 2006 and aims to help developing countries, especially SSA, to improve their level of participation in the CDM. In spite of the Framework, SSA is still underrepresented in the CDM. As of October 2008, only 17 out of 1186 projects – and most of these (14 out of 17) were located in just one country, South Africa (IISD, 2008, IFPRI, 2008; UNDP, UNEP-RISOE, 2008).

In addition to capacity issues, the fact that the CDM targets energy and power sources limit the participation of SSA in global carbon markets. The CDM overlooks soil carbon sequestration and avoided deforestation projects, which are highly important for climate change mitigation in many African countries (IFPRI, 2008). More importantly, the exclusion of these activities limits the participation of poor people, especially women in the CDM and limits their mitigation opportunities.

However, there is hope for Africa, as there is growing awareness among the carbon-buyer community that Africa offers plenty of emissions-reduction opportunities. There is widespread recognition in the international community that, for reasons of equity, efficiency and sustainability, Africa has to be better integrated into the global carbon market. The UNDP, UNEP-RISO CENTRE initiative on building capacity for carbon finance in Africa, provides opportunities for harnessing renewable energy in the rural areas of Africa. The initiative aims to provide developing countries, especially those in SSA with assistance in reducing their vulnerability to climate change, and in building their capacities to engage with and derive benefits from the CDM. The initiative forms a cornerstone of the Nairobi Framework, a multi-agency initiative to address climate change issues, especially in SSA (UNDP, UNEP-RISOE, 2008).

3.2 Other mechanisms and initiatives supporting adaptation and mitigation activities in Africa

3.2.1 The World Bank’s Assist programme, launched in 2006, focuses on strengthening institutional capacity and engaging the financial and private sectors in Africa. The programme has supported the creation of Designated National Authorities (DNAs) and has been working with the ECOWAS Bank to help set up a US$300 million fund focusing on oil fields and renewable energy (IISD, 2008).

World Bank investment funds that could support climate change mitigation and adaptation in Africa are the Strategic Climate Fund (SCF) and the Clean Technology Fund (CTF). A third Forest Investment Fund (FIF) may be approved in 2009. The first approved SCF initiative is a Pilot Programme for Climate Resilience (PPCR) that intends to support NAPAs by mainstreaming climate resilience into the development planning of eight countries, three of which, Mozambique, Niger and Zambia, are from Africa. The CTF among other objectives
3 Financing adaptation and mitigation

aims to promote scaled-up deployment, diffusion and transfer of clean technologies by funding low carbon programmes and projects that are embedded in national plans.

3.2.2 The Joint UNDP and UNEP-RISOE Capacity Building Initiative supports CDM capacity building by inter alia, helping developing countries to establish DNAs. Its regional capacity building programme operates in partnership with UNEP Risoe Centre in six eastern and southern African countries. UNDP, in partnership with Fortis Bank, has also established the MDG Carbon Facility, which plays the role of a broker, matching project developers with buyers (IISD, 2008).

3.2.3 The Joint African Union Commission (AUC), Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) and African Development Bank (AfDB) Climate for Development in Africa Programme (ClimDev-Africa)’s overall goal is the sustainable attainment of the poverty reduction and other MDGs in Africa. It aims at increasing the resilience of Africa’s population to climate change by enabling effective adaptation activities, addressing the need for greatly improved climate information for Africa, and strengthening the use of such information for decision-making by improving analytical capacity, knowledge management and dissemination activities. An African Climate Policy Center (ACPC), is being established in ECA to serve as ClimDev’s policy arm, as well as its management and executing agency. A Special Fund to be managed by the AfDB will also be established under the Programme (AUC, ECA, AfDB, 2008).

The Programme will benefit vulnerable communities, through: providing them with climate and other livelihoods-related information to assist individuals and communities make best use of their traditional knowledge within a changing environment; improving sector policies in relation to managing climate change (credit, seeds, agricultural advisory services, medicine in clinics, water equity, and timely food relief when required); and strengthening community cohesion with knowledge to address new problems together.

3.2.4 An AfDB climate adaptation fund is currently being prepared (the Clean Energy and Climate Adaptation Funding Facility – CECAFA). As its name implies, this is intended to provide funds for clean energy and adaptation projects. The ClimDev Special Fund will be complementary to this funding channel, supporting policymaking that may then see projects implemented through CECAFA. However, the scale of funding for CECAFA is as yet unspecified (AUC, ECA, AfDB, 2008).

3.2.5 The EU-Africa Partnership on Climate Change is meant to provide for dialogue, cooperation and exchange on concrete actions responding to climate change, and be an effective channel for discussing a shared vision, with close links to the proposed Global Climate Change Alliance. This will take into account the ClimDev-Africa programme It will also factor in the need to act on and further develop climate-related instruments, especially the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol. And it will represent an integrated framework for cooperation between
Africa and the EU on climate change (IIED, 2008). Funding is likely to exceed €100 million, depending on Member State contributions (AUC, ECA, AfDB, 2008).

3.2.6 The joint International Development Research Centre (IDRC)/DFID Climate Change for Adaptation in Africa research programme (CCAA), is a five-year programme that commenced in 2006 and supports a range of activities that build research capacity and provide evidence to strengthen adaptation policies and plans. Activities cover funding and mentoring for action research on climate adaptation, linking communities, researchers, development agents and policymakers in a shared process of testing new and existing adaptation strategies; Knowledge generation, management, and sharing in a learning-by-doing approach among others, supporting the synthesis and publication of research findings and a range of communication and dissemination activities to see knowledge on adaptive practice shared widely; and Education and training with both participatory learning and formal education and training activities (AUC, ECA, AfDB, 2008).

3.2.7 Bilateral funding agencies in countries including Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States have been allocating funding for adaptation activities, including research and some pilot projects (IIED, 2007).

3.3 Funding adaptation needs of women
Although there is no gender analysis of current climate change funds available, some research indicates that they hardly meet the particular needs of women, e.g. regarding technologies aiming to reduce their domestic burdens or to improve their income generating activities, or capacity building about climate change mitigation and adaptation strategies. The UNFCCC does not explicitly recognize the gender aspects of climate change and issues of gender equality and women’s participation. Also, its Kyoto Protocol, that outlines reductions in greenhouse gases until 2012, does not include a gender perspective in its operationalization and financing mechanisms. In this regard, there have been calls for governments to support positive actions to compensate for the asymmetry in finance provision relative to need. This would include quotas for women’s leadership and capacity development and the application of gender budgeting and gender audits in all funds. This would ensure that women have access to finance and have the opportunity to develop their innovations and businesses related to climate change solutions (http://www.gendercc.net/policy/topics/financing.html; http://content.undp.org/go/newsroom/2008/november/women; WEDO, 2008).

3.4 Recommendations
There is need for:
• Strong international political will in climate change mitigation, adaptation, finance and technology transfer. The international community should follow through on their
commitments by defining clear outcomes and timetables and making practical arrangements for monitoring deliverables. This is imperative as national funding to support climate-related activities is lowest in African countries;

- The development of new, binding and predictable international financial mechanisms in order to boost the adaptive capacity of African countries. In addition, Africa needs to play a bigger role in the CDM and other flexible mechanisms;

- Ensuring the participation of women and gender experts, and mainstreaming gender equity in all phases and aspects of funding, including design, implementation, evaluation and reporting;

- The application of gender budgeting and gender audits in all funds. Investments in programmes for adaptation and mitigation, technology transfer, capacity building, etc. should be measured by their contribution to social justice, and gender justice in particular;

- Matching funds and resources for the poor and vulnerable to their adaptation needs and priorities. Adaptation and funding for the poor and vulnerable should be rights based; and

- Ensuring that all initiatives on climate change targeted at African countries take into account the particular context of women and ensure that they are provided with adequate funds to address their adaptation needs.
4.0 Conclusion

It is clear that women who form a large majority of the poor and vulnerable will be disproportionately affected by the impacts of climate change. The impacts on women of the extreme weather events currently being encountered at more frequent intervals provide ample evidence of this vulnerability. It is therefore only fitting that all concerned, adopt a gendered approach to climate change in all their decisions and actions without delay.

Women and gender experts should be empowered to effectively participate in the international climate change negotiation process, particularly the post-2012 climate change regime process, and in the different subsidiary/technical bodies of the UNFCCC and its Kyoto Protocol. This would ensure an equitable and effective future climate change regime. Equally important is the effective participation of women and gender experts in climate change planning and decision-making processes, as well as in the formulation and implementation of policies and programmes at regional, national and local levels.

The vulnerability of women to climate change warrants the design of gender sensitive mitigation and adaptation policies and measures. Women should be capacitated and empowered with the requisite information, knowledge, skills, rights, and with adequate resources to enable them to act. Women’s social and professional networking in the field of climate change is also pertinent. Women in Africa should organize and network with women and gender organizations on climate change all over the world, in order to enhance their capacities and to be more effective in their actions. Women, together with men, should act now.
References
Adelphi Research gGmbH and Germanwatch, (2007), Environment Conflict Cooperation Newsletter: ISSN 1861-6771- Special Issue “Gender, Environment, Conflict”

AUC, ECA, AfDB, (2008), Climate For Development in Africa Framework Programme Document

Aureli, A, Brelet, C, (2004), Women and Water: An Ethical Issue- Published by UNESCO

Brody A, Demetriades J, Esplen E, (2008), Gender and Climate change; Mapping the linkages- A scoping study on knowledge and gaps- Bridge – IDS University of Sussex, Brighton, UK

DFID, (2004), Adaptation to Climate Change: Making Development Disaster-Proof


Genanet/LIFEe.V./WECF, (2006), Input from Women to Governments Preparing their Submissions regarding Article 3.9- Consideration of Commitments for Subsequent Periods for Annex 1 Parties of the Kyoto Protocol


Gender and Climate Change Network, (20072), Protecting Tropical Forests and Gender Justice, Position Paper presented at the UNFCCC COP13, Bali, Indonesia, December 2007 (www.gendercc.net)

Gender and Climate Change Network, (20073), Gender: Missing Links in Financing Climate Change Adaptation and Mitigation, Position Paper presented at the UNFCCC COP13, Bali, Indonesia, December 2007 (www.gendercc.net; http://www.cru.uea.ac.uk/tiempo/newswatch/comment060722.htm)

IIED, (2007), Adaptation to Climate Change: How we are set to cope with the impacts- An IIED Briefing

IIED, (2008), Adaptation in Africa: the global failure to deliver on funding - An IIED Briefing

IISD and Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Denmark, (2007), Climate Change and Foreign Policy: An Exploration of Options for Greater Integration


IPCC, (2007¹), The Physical Science Basis- Summary for Policymakers: Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report Climate Change 2007 of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

IPCC, (2007²), Working Group II Contribution to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Fourth Assessment Report Climate Change 2007: Climate Change Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability Summary for Policymakers

Karlsson, G. (ed), (2007), Where Energy is Women’s Business, National and Regional Reports from Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Pacific - The International Network on Gender and Sustainable Energy

Nasimul Haque, (2005), Policy Brief prepared for the COP 11 of the UNFCCC and MOP 1 of the Kyoto Protocol, Montreal, Canada, November 28 to December 9, 2005

Oxfam, (2007), Climate Change and Gender- Various Articles

Oxfam, (2008), Climate Wrongs and Human Rights- Putting People at the Heart of Climate Change Policy

Sever S, (2005), Gender and Water: Mainstreaming Gender Equality in water, Hygiene and Sanitation Interventions- Bridge – IDS University of Sussex, Brighton, UK

Stern Review, (2006), The Economics of Climate Change

UNDP, UNEP-RISOE (2008), The CDM in Africa: Capacity Building for Carbon Finance

UNISDR, (2008), Gender Perspectives: Integrating Disaster Risk Reduction into Climate Change Adaptation- Good Practices and Lessons Learned

WEDO, (2008), Gender, Climate Change and Human Security: Lessons from Bangladesh, Ghana and Senegal- Prepared for ELIAMEP
Annex

Some Women and Gender Networks/ Organizations Working on Climate and Gender- Related Issues

1 Gendercc – women for climate justice is the global network of women, gender activists, and gender experts from all the regions of the world working for gender and climate justice. It’s website, www.gendercc.net, is based on the knowledge available through the gendercc network, and is one element of an envisaged International Competence Centre Gender & Climate Change (CCGCC). It is the Network’s response to the growing public attention to climate change, and the increasing need for information about women’s perspectives and gender aspects in climate change policies and measures.

The Network provides information on:

• Research on gender and climate change and related areas
• Case studies that clarify and illustrate the gender aspects
• Activities and campaigns to make women’s contributions to climate protection visible and further the integration of the gender dimension in climate policy
• Mechanisms and tools to put the integration of gender dimensions in climate change policies and measures into practice

For more information, please visit: http://www.gendercc.net

2 Siyanda aims to be an ever growing resource to support practitioners in implementing gender programmes and in mainstreaming gender equality concerns, whether they are gender specialists or not. Siyanda is hosted by BRIDGE - the gender and development research and information service located at the Institute of Development Studies (IDS) (in the United Kingdom). BRIDGE is one of a family of knowledge services from IDS.

The main objectives of Siyanda are:

• Presenting short summaries of on-line work to save busy practitioners time in searching for relevant information
• Enabling users to download full-length materials quickly and easily, free of charge
• Facilitating a culture of sharing information and materials on gender and development among people working in this field
• Working with partner organisations across the world to build an online space that reflects their interests and needs and that connects them with like-minded colleagues

For more information, please visit: http://www.siyanda.org
3 ENERGIA is the international network on gender and sustainable energy. It was founded in 1996 and has grown to be an informal international network of like-minded organisations and individuals. This network has become the institutional base from which actions are taken to integrate gender issues into energy access policies and projects. Its goal is to contribute to the empowerment of women—both rural and urban—through a specific focus on energy. An important objective of ENERGIA has been the regionalisation of activities, which has been achieved through supporting emerging national and regional networking activities in Africa and Asia. This has resulted in the successful establishment of national and regional ENERGIA networks in Africa and Asia. These are active and vibrant networks, managed and coordinated by regional network coordinators with support from regional secretariats.

The Network works from the contention that projects, programmes and policies that explicitly address gender and energy issues, will result in better outcomes, in terms of the sustainability of energy services, as well as the human development opportunities available to women and men.

For more information, please visit: http://www.energia.org

4 genanet is a project of the organisation LIFE Berlin. It supports networking between practitioners, developing new ideas, concepts and strategies, and initiating joint projects by promoting its main topics: Gender and Biodiversity, Gender and Energy, Gender and Climate Change, Gender, Agriculture and Nutrition, and Gender and Sustainability. As a gender justice and sustainability focal point, “genanet” aims to allow effective lobbying of environmental policy decisions from a gender perspective.

For more information, please visit: http://www.genanet.de/

5 The Women’s Environment and Development Organization (WEDO) was established in 1990 by U.S. Congresswoman Bella Abzug (1920-1998) and feminist activist and journalist, Mim Kelber (1922-2004). Since its inception, WEDO has been a leader in organizing women for international conferences and actions. WEDO mobilises women’s participation to advance women’s perspectives at the UN and other forums. Throughout the 1990s WEDO played a key leadership role to ensure that gender was included in the outcomes of major UN conferences. Today, WEDO recognizes that policy commitments alone are not enough to improve women’s daily lives. That is why WEDO is collaborating more deeply with Southern partners on implementing global policy gains at the national level and holding governments accountable to their commitments on women’s rights.

For more information, please visit: http://www.wedo.org

6 The Global Gender Climate Alliance (GGCA) is a network of non-governmental and intergovernmental organizations and UN agencies, whose goal is to ensure that all climate change decision-making, policies and initiatives, at all levels, are gender responsive. Founding
members are the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP), the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) and WEDO. GGCA aims to:

- Provide support to UNFCCC and its bodies to ensure that the UN mandates on gender equality are fully implemented
- Ensure that UN financing mechanisms on mitigation and adaptation address the needs of poor women and men equitably
- Set standards and criteria for climate change mitigation and adaptation that incorporate gender equality and equity principles
- Build capacity at global, regional and local level to design and implement gender-responsive climate change policies, strategies and programmes
- Establish a network for learning, knowledge exchange and advocacy on gender and climate change

For more information, please visit: http://www.wedo.org/learn/campaigns/climatechange/global-gender-and-climate-alliance

7 The Gender and Disaster Network (GDN) is an educational project initiated by women and men interested in gender relations in disaster contexts. The Network aims to utilise the Internet and other forms of new media in support of a global network of researchers and practitioners. However, the Network recognises that communications technology is not fully accessible and in this regard, recognises the imperative of working in many languages and contexts. Its goals are to:

- Document and analyse women and men's experiences before, during, and after disasters, situating gender relations in broad political, economic, historical, and cultural context
- Work across disciplinary and organizational boundaries in support of collaborative research and applied projects
- Foster information sharing and resource building among network members, and build and sustain an active international community of scholars and activists

For more information, please visit: http://www.gdnonline.org/who_are_we.php