

THE FULL VIEW

Advancing the goal of gender balance in
multilateral and intergovernmental processes

RESEARCH REPORT BY

UN WOMEN AND THE MARY ROBINSON FOUNDATION – CLIMATE JUSTICE | MAY 2013



THE FULL VIEW

This report presents an overview of existing normative frameworks at the international level that call for the equal participation and representation of women in decision-making and management processes. It provides examples at various levels and from diverse sectors, highlighting best practices and lessons learned for the achievement of positive outcomes to promote women's voice and agency. A set of recommendations is proposed for Parties and observers to the UNFCCC to consider in preparing their submissions to the UNFCCC Secretariat by 2 September 2013 on options and ways to advance the goal of gender balance.



UN Women is the UN organisation dedicated to gender equality and the empowerment of women. UN Women supports UN Member States as they set global standards for achieving gender equality, and works with governments and civil society to design laws, policies, programmes and services needed to implement these standards. It stands behind women's equal participation in all aspects of life, focusing on five priority areas: increasing women's leadership and participation; ending violence against women; engaging women in all aspects of peace and security processes; enhancing women's economic empowerment; and making gender equality central to national development planning and budgeting. UN Women also coordinates and promotes the UN system's work in advancing gender equality.

The Mary Robinson Foundation – Climate Justice is a centre for thought-leadership, education and advocacy on the struggle to secure global justice for people vulnerable to the impacts of climate change who are usually forgotten – the poor, the disempowered and the marginalised across the world. It is a platform for solidarity, partnership and shared engagement for all who care about global justice, whether as individuals and communities suffering injustice or as advocates for fairness in resource-rich countries. The Foundation provides a space for facilitating action on climate justice to empower the poorest people and countries in their efforts to achieve sustainable and people-centred development.

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FOREWORD

At COP 18 in Doha last year, a new decision was agreed by all Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) that will strengthen women's representation and participation in UNFCCC proceedings. Decision 23/CP.18 *'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'* is an important step towards achieving gender equality and ensuring more effective climate policy.

This Decision will have far reaching consequences for the participation of women in the UNFCCC and more fundamentally on how the UNFCCC conducts its business into the future. There is no doubt that the empowerment of women will have a long term positive impact on both the decisions being taken and the process by which they are reached. All delegates, men and women, need to give consideration to gender dimensions in decision making because gender smart climate policies are likely to be more effective and have more buy-in and legitimacy.

The most crucial aspect of Decision 23/CP.18 is to realise its implementation so that climate change norms

and policies genuinely incorporate a gender perspective and integrate women's rights and women's voices, thereby ensuring that all climate change related policy making, both internationally and nationally, is gender sensitive.

This report, led by UN Women and the Mary Robinson Foundation - Climate Justice, provides an overview of how women's participation and representation in decision-making and management have been championed and advanced in a variety of contexts. In presenting this research, we hope to provide Parties and observers with initial thoughts for formulating their views on how best to implement Decision 23/CP.18, increase women's participation, and ultimately ensure that gender equality considerations feature strongly in climate change discussions and actions.

The commitment has been made. Now, the opportunity must be seized. Governments, the UN System entities and development agencies, the private sector and civil society organizations must all contribute to this mutual endeavour of advancing gender equality for the benefit and advancement of all.



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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The achievement of gender equality through advancing women's participation in decision-making has been reaffirmed and reinforced in key international normative and policy processes, including the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, the Beijing Platform for Action, relevant outcomes of the United Nations General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council, the Commission on the Status of Women, and a number of regional instruments. This report provides a set of examples and cases of the advancement of gender balance as a means to realising gender equality— from global and regional norm-setting processes, to national legislation, private sector and civil society initiatives.

Underpinning the recommendations in this report are structural issues that have impeded the attainment of gender equality and the recognition of women's vital role in and contribution to climate change responses. Efforts to increase representation must be made alongside commitments to continued awareness raising and training for planners and leaders on women's rights and gender equality and through effective gender mainstreaming into all policies, programmes, processes and actions.

Ultimately, a holistic approach in addressing the issue of women's equal participation is required. As shown in the various examples presented in this report, there are efforts underway from community to international level to promote women's political participation underpinned by a robust set of global norms and standards. The challenge is to build on these examples to transform decision making processes at all levels.

This report sets out recommendations for the implementation of Decision 23/CP.18 *'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'*.

To achieve gender balance in the composition of bodies of the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol enforcement mechanisms:

- Affirmative action measures should be taken in order to advance the goal of gender balance in formal and informal bodies established pursuant to the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol.
- A target on gender balance should be set for both existing and new subsidiary bodies. A possible target is to ensure that not less than 40% and no more than 60% of representatives are men or women.

- Measures should be in place to ensure that women and men are represented equally at all levels and that women should not only serve as deputies or alternates but as principals and in senior posts.
- A specific numerical target for achieving gender balance and a mechanism to sanction non-compliance with the decision should be established at the review of Decision 23/CP.18.

To enforce gender balance in the composition of national delegations:

- Parties to the UNFCCC should be encouraged to adopt temporary special measures in their delegations as the most effective means to ensure a 'critical mass' of women in the composition of their delegations and in negotiations.
- Consideration should be made on the creation of a fund to support women delegates' participation in the UNFCCC negotiations.
- Delegations with less than the 40-60% gender balance threshold after three years should be requested to provide an explanation of the barriers they face in reaching this target.

To review implementation, monitoring and reporting, the following roles for the UNFCCC secretariat are key:

- Ensuring that robust monitoring and reporting to track and accelerate progress are implemented.
- Maintaining a publicly available and regularly updated online database of women's and men's participation in UNFCCC processes including for informal bodies and groups, disaggregated by regional grouping or constituency and presenting the data in ranking tables to allow for comparison.
- Active engagement with Parties to ensure that officers responsible for establishing informal bodies and groups are aware of the need for gender balance at the time of the establishment and convening of these bodies.

On other complementary initiatives:

- When Chairs of relevant bodies convene in-session workshops and roundtables, explicit guidance should be provided to them by the secretariat to consider including women as panellists as well as integrating gender issues in panels.
- Capacity building efforts such as targeted training and general awareness-raising on issues surrounding gender equality are needed to complement other measures to increase women's participation and representation.

ACRONYMS

AU	African Union
BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
CDM	Clean Development Mechanism
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CGE	Consultative Group of Experts
CMP	Conference serving as the Meeting of the Parties
COP	Conference of the Parties
CSW	Commission on the Status of Women
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
EU	European Union
GGCA	Global Gender and Climate Alliance
IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union
LDCs	Least Developed Countries
LEG	Least Developed Countries Expert Group
MP	Member of Parliament
NGOs	Non governmental organisations
OPEC	Organisation of the Petroleum Exporting Countries
SADC	Southern African Development Community
TEC	Technology Executive Committee
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
WDF	Women Delegates Fund
WEDO	Women's Environment and Development Organisation

1. INTRODUCTION TO DECISION 23/CP.18

In December 2012, Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) adopted a landmark decision on **‘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’** (Decision 23/CP.18). This decision significantly enhances a commitment made more than ten years previously on improving the participation of women in the representation of Parties in UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol bodies by adopting the goal of gender balance in bodies of the Convention, extending this to informal bodies as well as encouraging Parties to redress gender imbalance in the composition of Parties delegations. This report highlights the benefits of women’s increased leadership, participation and representation, and provides a snapshot of how gender balance has been advanced in various other contexts.

Increased participation and representation of women in the UNFCCC through the adoption of a goal on gender balance should not be viewed as the end goal. Rather, it is an important step towards ensuring more effective climate policy that is responsive to the differing needs of women and men, at all levels. This report has drawn on publicly available resources, as well as inputs received from experts in the field.

Research consistently shows that adapting to and combating climate change remains a gendered issue, yet the gender dimensions of climate change have long been conspicuously absent in UNFCCC discussions.¹ For climate policies to be effective and to reflect and respond to the needs of society, women and men must participate in climate change decision-making and implementation on an equal basis.² Greater representation of women on UNFCCC bodies and in negotiations can provide the crosscutting experiences necessary to ensure that the decisions taken and the resulting actions at a national and international level are more responsive to the differing needs of women and men in national and local contexts.

With the adoption of Decision 23/CP.18 in Doha, in 2012, Parties to the UNFCCC sent a political signal calling for gender balance in the UNFCCC process. The Decision not only sets the goal of gender balance for elected bodies, but

also encourages future chairs of such bodies to be guided by this goal when setting up informal negotiating groups and consultation mechanisms. Furthermore, it encourages Parties to strive for the goal of gender balance in the composition of delegations. It should be pointed out that a specific numerical target for achieving ‘gender balance’ was not adopted by the Parties to the UNFCCC.

Decision 23/CP.18 constitutes an undeniable step forward in advancing the consideration of the gender equality and climate change nexus by ensuring that women’s voices are present in the climate change negotiations. Importantly, Decision 23/CP.18 incorporates a reporting mechanism mandating the UNFCCC secretariat to present to the COP an annual report tracking progress made towards the goal of gender balance in advancing gender-sensitive climate policy. Moreover, the decision calls on the UNFCCC secretariat to convene an in-session workshop at COP 19 on gender balance in the UNFCCC process, gender-sensitive climate policy and capacity-building activities to contribute towards the implementation of the decision. Finally, it institutionalises the inclusion of ‘gender and climate change’ as a standing item on the COP agenda; this is a significant step forward considering the gender dimensions of climate change were previously being discussed under ‘Other Matters’.

While some targets on gender balance have been set before, including a resolution at the United Nations Economic and Social Council (E/RES/1990/15), which set out the intermediate goal of 30% of women in decision-making by 1995, no specific numerical target for achieving ‘gender balance’ was included by the Parties to the UNFCCC in the decision adopted.

Nevertheless, Parties have committed to review progress made towards the gradual but significant increase in the participation of women and the achievement of this goal at the 22nd session of the COP in 2016. Furthermore, in seeking to support the implementation of this decision, a distinction needs to be made between the actions that are to be taken by Parties themselves, including that of striving for gender balance in the composition of their delegations, and those actions to be furthered by officers of the COP who are encouraged to appoint more women members to new

¹ See, for example, Alber, Gotelind; Hemmati, Minu (2011): *Gender perspectives: debunking climate policy myths*. Vancouver, Canada: Commonwealth Ministers; Demetriades and Esplen (2008); Denton (2002); Mearns and Norton (2010); Nelson et al. (2010); Skutsch (2002); Terry (2009); CSW 52nd session, issues paper

² Gender CC (Women for Climate Justice) provides a comprehensive history of women’s involvement to date in the UNFCCC: <http://www.gendercc.net/policy/conferences.html>

and existing informal bodies. The secretariat also plays an important role as it provides briefing materials and guidance to officers on how to ensure gender parity in the setting up of bodies and in ensuring technical documents take research on climate sensitive gender policy into account.

Ultimately, it is of paramount importance to bear in mind that the achievement of gender balance is certainly not an end in itself; rather, the decision taken by the COP to strive for this goal is the starting point for the strengthening of gender-responsive climate policy, and a means towards promoting gender equality and women's empowerment more broadly.

THE EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN IN CLIMATE CHANGE NEGOTIATIONS

The challenges of climate change cannot be solved without empowering women to adapt to these challenges, particularly in developing countries. Thus, strategies aimed at addressing climate change must be gender sensitive. It was in pursuit of the above maxim that in consultations in the lead up to COP17/CMP7, I was struck by how women were disproportionately affected by the effects of climate change, and also by how much women themselves were doing to adapt to these effects. These women, who are mainly marginalised from the processes of negotiating a global climate change regime, called on us as women leaders to ensure that their needs were addressed as well as their contributions acknowledged and built upon. As South Africans, having been exposed to the vagaries of the apartheid regime, with its patriarchal nature, we then undertook to raise the empowerment of women in the climate change negotiations, but also to ensure that women receive wider attention and support in the process in general. Our unprecedented interactions, with women in South Africa and beyond, culminated in the publication of the COP17/CMP7 President's legacy book *"Thutho ya Batho" Teachings from the People: Women Adapt to Climate Change*. This book is a testament to the women across the developing world adapting to the effects of climate change, sometimes drawing on ancient indigenous knowledge systems and others using endogenous, innovative ways to survive the harsh effects of climate change.

As part of our preparations for South Africa's COP Presidency we held a continental consultative dialogue on the impact of climate change on women. This was a meeting of women leaders on climate change from all over the African continent. Significantly, one of the calls these women representing grassroots organisations made, was that the UNFCCC must review progress in mainstreaming gender in all parts of the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, and they demanded to be equal partners as policy and decision-makers at all levels of climate change negotiations, formulation and planning for long term climate change interventions. This is in part why I was most honoured to be part of the process that led to the adoption of Decision 23/CP.18.

Decision 23/CP.18 builds on the existing decisions to include women in leadership and decision making roles in sustainable development, including in climate change. What is now required is the political will to ensure that these decisions are implemented. In my opinion, this decision honours, acknowledges and addresses the collective concerns women have about climate change and it endeavours to deliver a better tomorrow for them, their communities, and the world. However, we urgently need a critical mass of women in decision making to build on the gains we are making and to ensure that the concerns of women are not considered in an ad hoc manner, leading to truly gender sensitive climate policies.

Contribution to this report from Ambassador Nozipho Mxakato-Diseko, Ambassador at Large, COP17/CMP7, member of the Troika+ of Women Leaders on Gender and Climate Change.

2. NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR WOMEN'S EQUAL POLITICAL PARTICIPATION AND REPRESENTATION

The United Nations' longstanding commitment to the advancement of women began with the adoption of the 1945 UN Charter, which reaffirms, in its preamble, "faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of Nations large and small."³ In the days following the signing of the Charter, a Sub-commission dedicated to the Status of Women was established under the Commission on Human Rights, and was subsequently enhanced by the Social and Economic Council in 1946 to the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW). With the mandate to "prepare recommendations and reports to the Economic and Social Council on promoting women's rights in political, economic, civil, social and educational fields" and make recommendations "on urgent problems requiring immediate attention in the field of women's rights,"⁴ the Commission set out to contribute to the drafting of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) as one of its first key tasks, and succeeded in introducing more inclusive and gender-sensitive language.⁵ Article 2 of the UDHR reads "Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status."⁶

The early work of the CSW gave rise to various standards being set in the course of the 1960s and 1970s. This body of

work was consolidated in two seminal international agreements that now provide guidance for work on advancing gender equality and women's empowerment. These are the **Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)**, and the outcome of the Fourth World Conference on Women, the **Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action**. CEDAW, adopted in 1979 and currently ratified by 187 countries, acknowledges that the full and complete development of a country, the welfare of the world and the cause of peace require the maximum participation of women on equal terms with men in all fields. The legally binding 'women's international bill of rights' establishes a comprehensive agenda for national action to end discrimination against women within political, cultural, economic, social and family life. Similarly, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, adopted unanimously by 189 countries in 1995, acknowledges that women's empowerment and their full participation on the basis of equality in all spheres of society, including in the decision-making process and access to power, are fundamental for the achievement of equality, development and peace.⁷ The Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) provides a wide-ranging policy framework to advance gender equality and women's empowerment - in particular with regard to its 12 areas of concern, which Governments have agreed to implement - as well as to regularly monitor and report on progress on implementation.

2.1 CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN (CEDAW)

The concept of 'equality' in CEDAW is understood as embodying the principles of non-discrimination, of State responsibility to eliminate discrimination, and of substantive equality.⁸ CEDAW defines discrimination against women, in its first article, as "any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field."⁹ Article 1 thus also provides the extensive, legal definition of the term—with its inextricable link to the concept of equality. States are obligated to adhere to this comprehensive definition in their national actions to pursue the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women upon ratification of the Convention (as per Article 2).

Furthermore, Article 7 calls on States Parties to "take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country and, in particular, shall ensure to women, on equal terms with men, the right: "... (b) To participate in the formulation of government policy and the implementation thereof and to hold public office and perform all public functions at all levels of government..." Article 8 urges "States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure to women, on equal terms with men and without any discrimination, the opportunity to represent their Governments at the international level and to participate in the work of international organizations."¹⁰

CEDAW provides for substantive equality in that it requires actions to achieve equality of opportunity to access of resources and space between women and men as well as

³ United Nations Charter

⁴ ECOSOC Resolution establishing the Commission on the Status of Women. E/RES/2/11, 21 June 1946

⁵ Commission on the Status of Women, *Short History of the Commission on the Status of Women (Background Note)*

⁶ The Universal Declaration of Human Rights. <http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/>

⁷ *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4–15 September 1995* (Annex I: Beijing Declaration, paragraph 13).

⁸ International Women's Rights Action Watch Asia Pacific (2009) 'Equity or Equality for Women? Understanding CEDAW's Equality Principles': http://www.iwraw-ap.org/publications/doc/OPS14_Web.pdf

⁹ CEDAW, Article 1

¹⁰ CEDAW, Articles 7 and 8.

actions to correct inequalities between women and men.¹¹ With regard to the first type of action, it champions equality of results through the evaluation not only of policies, laws or institutions put in place to promote equality of opportunities, but also of the results these actions have achieved. The second type of action, directly relevant to advancing the

goal of gender balance in the UNFCCC, translates to CEDAW's provision in Article 4.1. for the use of 'temporary special measures' aimed at accelerating de facto equality between men and women, to be discontinued only when the objectives of equality of opportunity and treatment have been achieved.¹²

2.2 BEIJING PLATFORM FOR ACTION (BPfA)

Among the most significant achievements of the Commission on the Status of Women in advancing women's human rights and gender equality is the Fourth World Conference on Women, held in 1995 in Beijing, and its outcome, the Beijing Declaration Platform for Action (BPfA). The BPfA identifies 12 areas of concern with respect to gender equality and women's empowerment, where Governments, the international community and civil society (including non-governmental organisations and the private sector) are called upon to take strategic action. While the BPfA does not refer to climate change specifically, two of the critical areas of concern are particularly relevant to the discussion on the implementation of UNFCCC Decision 23/CP.18: 'women in power and decision-making' and 'women and the environment'. The latter area of concern recognises women's essential role in the development of sustainable and ecologically sound consumption and production patterns and approaches to natural resource management, and notes that the worsening conditions and destruction of ecosystems - resulting from resource depletion and polluting substances, among other causes - have a direct negative impact on poor communities, and especially women.¹³ Moreover, it notes that women have remained largely absent at all levels of policy formulation and decision-making in natural resource and environmental management, conservation, protection and rehabilitation, yet their participation and leadership are essential to every aspect of a holistic, multidisciplinary and intersectoral approach to sound environmental management.¹⁴

Elaborating on the area of women in power and decision-making, the BPfA states that without the active participation of women and the incorporation of women's perspectives at all levels of decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace cannot be achieved.¹⁵ It further underlines that achieving the goal of equal participation of women and men in decision-making will provide a balance that more accurately reflects the composition of society and is needed in order to strengthen democracy and promote its proper functioning.¹⁶ Agreeing that the low proportion of women among decision makers at the local, national, regional and international levels reflects structural and attitudinal barriers and thus echoing the provisions laid out in CEDAW, the BPfA calls on governmental bodies to aim for the goal of gender balance, including through setting specific targets and implementing measures to substantially increase the number of women with a view to achieving equal representation of women and men.¹⁷ It further calls on them to take measures in areas, including, where appropriate, electoral systems that encourage political parties to integrate women in elective and non-elective public positions in the same proportion and at the same levels as men.¹⁸ Additionally worth noting is that the BPfA pairs the above with the objective to increase women's capacity to participate in decision-making and leadership, through the provision of leadership and decision-making training and mentoring support, among other actions.¹⁹

¹¹ International Women's Rights Action Watch Asia Pacific (2009) 'Equity or Equality for Women? Understanding CEDAW's Equality Principles': http://www.iwraw-ap.org/publications/doc/OPS14_Web.pdf

¹² CEDAW, Article 4.1

¹³ *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4–15 September 1995* (Beijing Platform for Action, Section K, paragraphs 246-247)

¹⁴ *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4–15 September 1995* (Beijing Platform for Action, Section K, paragraphs 249-251)

¹⁵ *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4–15 September 1995* (Beijing Platform for Action, Section g, paragraph 181)

¹⁶ *Ibid*

¹⁷ *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4–15 September 1995* (Beijing Platform for Action, Strategic objective G.1, paragraph 190 (a))

¹⁸ *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4–15 September 1995* (Beijing Platform for Action, Strategic objective G.1, paragraph 190 (b))

¹⁹ *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4–15 September 1995* (Beijing Platform for Action, Strategic objective G.2, paragraph 195)

2.3 PROGRESS IN OTHER INTERNATIONAL PROCESSES²⁰

CEDAW and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action provide the foundation for gender equality and women's empowerment (including leadership and participation in decision-making) in particular at the national and international level. Other important intergovernmental processes have also furthered the promotion of women's leadership and participation in decision-making processes in their work. Those that mandate the use of effective and positive measures and appropriate action to increase women's representation include United Nations Economic and Social Council Resolution E/RES/1990/15,²¹ which sets out the intermediate goal of 30% of women in decision-making by 1995; the Agreed Conclusions of the 50th Session of the Commission on the Status of Women (2006), where the theme of 'Equal participation of women and men in decision-making processes at all levels'

was under consideration;²² and General Assembly resolutions 58/142 (2003)²³ and 66/130 (2012)²⁴ on *Women and political participation*. The latter explicitly encourages States "to commit themselves to establishing the goal of gender balance in governmental bodies and committees, as well as in public administrative entities, and in the judiciary, including, inter alia and as appropriate, **setting specific targets** and implementing measures to substantially increase the number of women with a view to achieving **equal representation of women and men, if necessary through positive action**, in all governmental and public administrative positions"²⁵ [emphasis added]. Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) urges all actors to increase the participation of women and incorporate gender perspectives in all United Nations peace and security efforts.

2.4 GENDER BALANCE AND OUTCOMES ON ENVIRONMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

Steps to promote women's leadership and participation have also been taken in the area of sustainable development and climate change. Agenda 21, the outcome of the UN Conference on Environment and Development (also known as the 'Rio Earth Summit') held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, affirms that the effective implementation of programmes [on sustainable and equitable development] will depend on the active involvement of women in economic and political decision-making.²⁶ It also asks Governments to take measures to review policies and establish plans to increase the proportion of women involved as decision makers, planners, managers, scientists and technical advisers in the design, development and implementation of policies and programmes for sustainable development.²⁷ Furthermore, in 2011, the Commission on the Status of Women adopted Resolution 55/1 on *Mainstreaming gender equality and promoting empowerment of women in climate change policies and strategies*, which recognised that gender equality, the integration of gender perspectives and the effective participation of women at the global, regional, national and local levels are important for effective action on all aspects of

climate change.²⁸ It also called on "Governments, including State Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, to continue to incorporate a gender perspective and make efforts to ensure the effective participation of women in the on-going climate change talks".²⁹

Most recently, in the outcome document of the Rio+20 Conference on Sustainable Development, *The Future We Want*' (June 2012), Governments recognised the potential of women to benefit and contribute to sustainable development as leaders, participants and agents of change; they expressed support for "prioritising measures to promote gender equality and the empowerment of women in all spheres of our societies, including the removal of barriers to their full and equal participation in decision-making and management at all levels," and emphasised "the **impact of setting specific targets and implementing temporary measures**, as appropriate, for substantially increasing the number of women in leadership positions, with the aim of achieving gender parity"³⁰ [emphasis added].

²⁰ As a background, see, Information Paper United Nations Targets for Proportion of Women in Leadership and Decision-making Positions. <http://www.legco.gov.hk/yr02-03/english/panels/ha/papers/ha0314cb2-1636-1e.pdf>

²¹ E/RES/1990/15 (24 May 1990). The resolution adopted the recommendations and conclusions arising from the first review and appraisal of the implementation of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women to the year 2000 and urged governments to implement the recommendations.

²² Paragraph 7 (b): "[The Commission urged Governments, and/or, as appropriate, the relevant entities of the United Nations system, ... to] Review, as appropriate, existing legislation, including electoral law, and remove or modify, as appropriate, provisions that hindered women's equal participation in decision-making, and adopt positive actions and temporary special measures, as appropriate, to enhance women's equal participation in decision-making processes at all levels."

²³ Paragraph 1 (b): "[Urges States] To eliminate laws, regulations and practices that, in a discriminatory manner, prevent or restrict women's participation in the political process and to implement positive measures that accelerate the achievement of equality between men and women;"

²⁴ Paragraph 5 (f): "[Urges all States to take, inter alia, the following actions to ensure women's equal participation, and encourages the United Nations system and other international and regional organisations, with their existing mandates, to enhance their assistance to States in their national efforts:] To implement appropriate measures within governmental bodies and public sector institutions to eliminate direct or indirect barriers to and enhance women's participation in all levels on political decision-making;"

²⁵ UN Resolution 66/130, OP 9.

²⁶ *Report of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, Rio de Janeiro, 2-14 June 1992* (Section III, paragraph 24.1).

²⁷ *Ibid.* (Section III, paragraph 24.3(a)).

²⁸ Commission on the Status of Women, *Report on the fifty-fifth session, 12 March 2010, 22 February – 4 March and 14 March 2011*, (Resolution 55/1, paragraph 1)

²⁹ Commission on the Status of Women, *Report on the fifty-fifth session, 12 March 2010, 22 February – 4 March and 14 March 2011*, (Resolution 55/1, paragraph 12)

³⁰ United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development, *The Future we Want*, Paragraph 237

3. PROMOTING WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION AND REPRESENTATION: A BROAD SURVEY

Women and men's equal voice and leadership role in decision-making underpins justice and democracy. Participation and representation of women in decision-making processes and management have been observed to have improved policy outcomes for women and gender equality in general.³¹ The following section presents various ways in

which women's increased participation and representation have been promoted at the global and regional levels. It subsequently provides examples of actions at the national level and in the private sector context, with a glimpse into the positive outcomes that ensued for gender equality and women's empowerment.

3.1 EXPERIENCES AT THE GLOBAL LEVEL: IPU AND THE UNFCCC

The initiative taken to promote women's leadership and participation by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), the international organisation working towards the firm establishment and strengthening of representative democracy through worldwide parliamentary dialogue,³² is particularly noteworthy. The IPU's Universal Declaration of Democracy (1997) underlines that: "the achievement of democracy presupposes a genuine partnership between men and women in the conduct of the affairs of society in which they work in equality and complementarity, drawing mutual enrichment from their differences."³³ The organisation has by consequence been a key player in supporting efforts to implement international and regional agreements to increase numbers and promote the participation of women parliamentarians, not least by building a strong data foundation on the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments worldwide.

Moreover, and especially relevant to the discussion on how to advance gender balance within the UNFCCC, the IPU is one of the first international organisations to have taken the additional initiative to promote an enabling environment for women's participation *within* its own structures in order to generate best practices for national parliaments. A series of measures were adopted in the form of quotas, targets and sanctions and applied to the IPU's three main bodies. For the Executive Committee, Article 23.2 of the Statutes states that at least three of its fifteen members (or 20%) shall be women.³⁴ For the Governing Council, Rule 1.2 dictates that each Member of the Union shall be represented by three parliamentarians, provided that its representation includes both men and women, and that single-gender delegations will be limited to two members.³⁵ Finally, for the General Assembly,

Articles 10.1 and 15.2(c) of the Statutes reduces by one person any delegation that is composed exclusively of parliamentarians of the same sex for three consecutive sessions, as well as the number of voting rights (from ten to eight), respectively.³⁶ The Rules of the Standing Committees were also amended to provide for gender balance within all drafting committees.³⁷

The above measures are partly to be attributed to the establishment and results of the IPU Meeting of Women Parliamentarians. These whole-day gatherings held on the eve of the IPU Assembly were established to allow women parliamentarians to strategise on how to reflect their views and concerns during the session.³⁸ The Meeting of Women Parliamentarians has been successful in catalysing institutional changes within the IPU, as well as ensuring that gender issues are addressed in the substantive work of the IPU.³⁹ For instance, in April 2005 it held a constructive debate on HIV/AIDS during the 112th IPU Assembly, and was consequently able to ensure the inclusion of gender-related elements in the resolution unanimously adopted by the IPU on the issue.

The UNFCCC has also taken the initiative to promote women's participation in its processes, where Decision 23/CP.18 is the latest addition to the normative foundation in this area. This is significant, especially considering that progress in bringing the gender equality and climate change nexus to the forefront of UNFCCC discussions has been very slow. Indeed, out of the three Multilateral Environmental Agreements which emerged from the Rio Earth Summit of 1992, the UNFCCC was the only one to not have included gender-sensitive language in its original convention text.⁴⁰

³¹ Celis, K. (2007) "Substantive Representation of Women: the representation of women's interests and the impact of descriptive representation in the Belgian parliament (1900-1979)" *Journal of Women, Politics and Policy* 28(2): 85-114; Chatoopadhyaya and Dufflo (2004); Childs, S. (2002) *New Labour's Women MPs: Women Representing Women*, London, UK: Routledge; Meyer, B. (2003) "Much Ado about Nothing? Political representation policies and the influence of women parliamentarians in Germany" *The Review of Policy Research*, 20(3): 401-21; Schwindt-Bayer, L. A. (2006) "Still supermadres? Gender and the policy priorities of Latin American legislators" *American Journal of Political Science* 50(3): 570-85; Burgos, G., Fallon, K. M. and Swiss, L. "Does critical mass matter? Women's political representation and child health in developing countries" *Social Forces*, 91 (2); Agarwal (2001) (2009); Childs, S. and Krook, M. L. (2009) "Analysing women's substantive representation: from critical mass to critical actors", *Government and Opposition*, 44 (2), 125-145.

³² Inter-Parliamentary Union, www.ipu.org/English/whatipu.htm

³³ Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Universal Declaration of Democracy*, Article 4.

³⁴ Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Statutes of the Inter-Parliamentary Union*, Article 23.2.

³⁵ Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Rules of the Governing Council*, Rule 1.2.

³⁶ Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Statutes of the Inter-Parliamentary Union*, Articles 10.3 and 15.2(c).

³⁷ Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Rules of the Standing Committees*

³⁸ IPU 'Meeting of Women Parliamentarians' <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/meeting.htm>

³⁹ 'Women in Parliament: Beyond Numbers', Case Study: The IPU, pp. 214-229; Inter-Parliamentary Union <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/meeting.htm>

⁴⁰ *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change*

More than a decade ago at COP 7 (2001), Parties to the UNFCCC committed to improve the participation of women in the representation of Parties in bodies established under the UNFCCC or the Kyoto Protocol (Decision 36/CP.7). Members of these bodies are first nominated by their respective regional group or constituency, and subsequently elected or

appointed by the COP, CMP or subsidiary body in accordance with the relevant decision.⁴¹ Although often recalled in texts of subsequent decisions adopted by the COP, more than ten years on, a very obvious gender imbalance continues to persist in various bodies, with women's representation as low as 10-11% in some cases.

REPRESENTATION OF MEN AND WOMEN IN BODIES ESTABLISHED UNDER THE UNFCCC OR THE KYOTO PROTOCOL⁴²

BODY	YEAR ESTABLISHED	NO. MEN	NO. WOMEN	% WOMEN	UPCOMING ELECTIONS ⁴³
Compliance Committee (enforcement branch)	2005	8	2	20%	COP 19/CMP 9
Compliance Committee (facilitative branch) <i>1 seat is currently vacant (Western Europe and others)</i>	2005	8	1	11%	COP 19/CMP 9
CDM Executive Board Joint Implementation	2001	8	2	20%	COP 19/CMP 9
Supervisory Committee	2005	6	4	40%	COP 19/CMP 9
Technology Executive Committee (TEC)	2010	18	2	10%	COP 19/CMP 9
Adaptation Committee	2010	12	4	25%	COP 20/CMP 10
Standing Committee	2010	16	4	20%	COP 20/CMP 10
Adaptation Fund Board <i>1 seats is currently vacant (Asia)</i>	2007	10	5	33%	COP 19/CMP 9
Least Developed Countries					
Expert Group (LEG)	2001	11	2	15%	COP 21/CMP 11
Consultative Group of Experts (CGE) National Communications	1999	13	11	46%	COP 19/CMP 9
Global Environment Facility Council <i>1 seat is currently vacant</i>	1991	25	6	19%	-
Green Climate Fund Board	2012	19	5	21%	-

⁴¹ UNFCCC (http://unfccc.int/bodies/election_and_membership/items/6558.php)

⁴² Data as of May 2013; for further information Women's Participation at the UNFCCC, please see: UNFCCC https://unfccc.int/gender_and_climate_change/items/7516.php, WEDO <http://www.wedo.org/wp-content/uploads/WomenUNFCCCParticipation2008-2012.pdf>, Gender CC <http://www.gendercc.net/policy/conferences.html>

⁴³ UNFCCC (http://unfccc.int/files/bodies/election_and_membership/application/pdf/membership_chart.pdf)

In 2012, participation of women on national delegations, which was not part of the scope of the COP 7 decision, reached an all-time high of 32%, and 19% of the Heads of Delegations were women. However, research⁴⁴ shows that gender imbalances differ across countries and regions. Women's participation in Eastern and Western Europe, for example,

is at around 42%, while it is around 21% in Africa and the Asia-Pacific region. These differences can also be seen when looking at participation by UNFCCC negotiating blocks, with countries from the African Group, Least Developed Countries (LDCs) and OPEC having less representation of women on national delegations.

Figure 1: Women's participation at the UNFCCC Conference of the Parties (COPs)⁴⁵

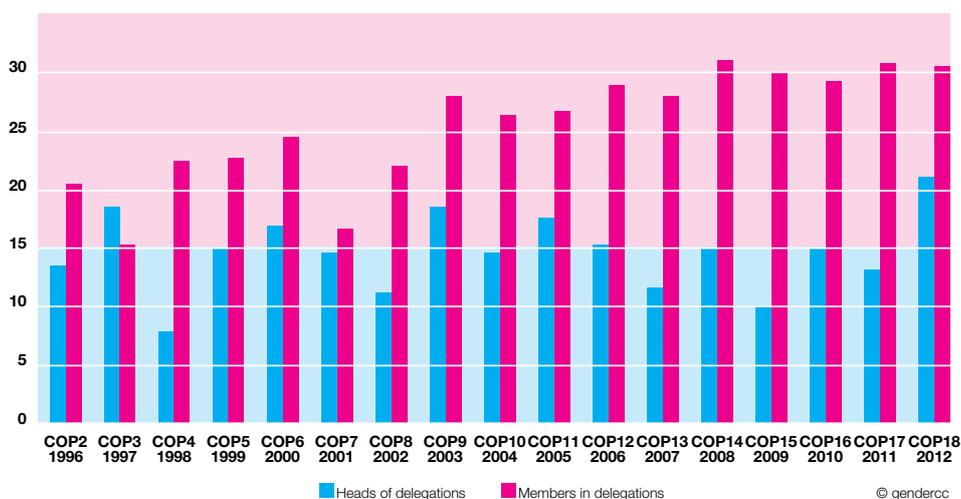
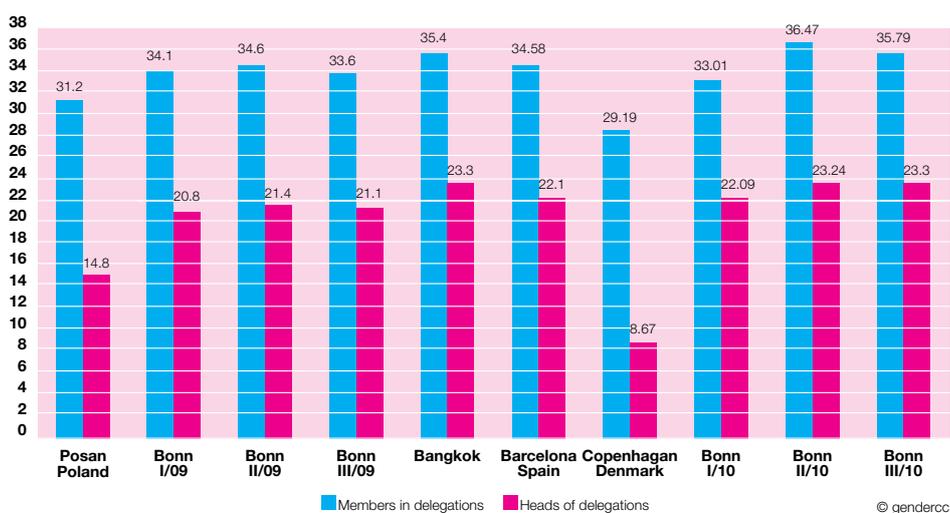


Figure 2: Share of women in the party-delegations in the climate talks between the (COPs)⁴⁶



⁴⁴ WEDO (2012). Women's Participation in UN Climate Negotiations: 2008-2012. <http://www.wedo.org/wp-content/uploads/WomenUNFCCCParticipation2008-2012.pdf>

⁴⁵ Gender CC [http://gendercc.net/index.php?id=17&no_cache=1&sword_list\[0\]=share&sword_list\[1\]=of&sword_list\[2\]=women&sword_list\[3\]=in&sword_list\[4\]=party&sword_list\[5\]=delegations](http://gendercc.net/index.php?id=17&no_cache=1&sword_list[0]=share&sword_list[1]=of&sword_list[2]=women&sword_list[3]=in&sword_list[4]=party&sword_list[5]=delegations)

⁴⁶ Gender CC http://www.gendercc.net/fileadmin/inhalte/Bilder/UNFCCC_conferences/women-delegations_climate-talks.jpg

Moreover, the gender dimensions of climate change remained conspicuously absent from discussions. Only recently, in 2010, at COP 16 in Cancun, did the decision on Long-term Cooperative Action incorporate gender-specific references.⁴⁷ Since Cancun, gender references have featured in certain decisions adopted in Durban and Doha (COP 17⁴⁸ and COP 18⁴⁹), on the Green Climate Fund, on loss and damage, and on education, training and public awareness (Article 6), among others, but additional steps need to be taken. Thus, the commitment in Decision 23/CP.18 to increase the participation and representation of women in

the UNFCCC with the goal of achieving gender balance is an important means to further develop necessary gender-sensitive climate policy in these areas.

Despite the earlier shortcomings of the UNFCCC in addressing the gender dimensions of climate change, this latest decision could nevertheless constitute a best practice measure for significantly improving the participation and representation of women in intergovernmental bodies and discussions, and may serve as an example to replicate, as appropriate, in other similar intergovernmental processes.

3.2 REGIONAL INITIATIVES

Regional frameworks that seek to advance gender equality in the political sphere have been emerging, further reinforcing the global commitment to equal representation of women and men in decision-making. Many of these also promote the use of special measures. Most notably, the African Union (AU), whose constitutive act includes the promotion of gender equality as one of its principles,⁵⁰ adopted the AU 50/50 Parity Principle at the 2002 Inaugural Summit of Heads of States and Governments of the African Union in Durban, South Africa, marking a renewed political will to end persistent gender inequalities in the region. The AU Gender Policy Commitment calls for the enforcement of the AU 50/50 Gender Parity principle in all structures, operational policies and practices. It also calls for the meeting of parity targets.⁵¹

Similarly, Heads of States and Governments of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) signed the *SADC Declaration on Gender and Development* in 1997, wherein they made a commitment to ensure “the equal representation of women and men in the decision making position of Member States and SADC structures at all levels, and the achievement of at least thirty per cent target of women in political and decision-making structures by the year 2005.”⁵² Almost a decade later at the 2005 SADC Summit, the target was raised to 50%, consistent with the AU 50/50 Gender Parity Principle.

In August 2008, members of the SADC further built on their existing frameworks and those of the AU, by signing the *Protocol*

on Gender and Development. In Article 5 of the Protocol, Parties agree to put in place affirmative action measures with particular reference to women in order to eliminate all barriers that prevent them from participating meaningfully in all spheres of life and create a conducive environment for such participation.⁵³ The Protocol also includes clear time-bound targets for SADC members, including, in its Articles 12 and 13 (paragraphs 1 and 2), to “endeavour, by 2015, at least fifty per cent of decision-making positions in the public and private sectors are held by women including the use of affirmative action measures,” as well as “adopt specific legislative measures and other strategies to enable women to have equal opportunities with men to participate in all electoral processes including the administration of elections and voting” and “ensure the equal participation of women and men in decision-making by putting in place policies, strategies and programmes [...]” respectively.⁵⁴

Yet, despite such normative successes, major gaps and challenges still remained in the translation of commitments into practice. In this regard, the SADC Secretariat issued a *Framework for Achieving Gender Parity in Political and Decision Making Positions by 2015* (October 2009),⁵⁵ in which key issues were identified for consideration in the development of a strategy to accelerate progress and ensure the achievement of the goals set out in Articles 12 and 13 of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. Among these were the need to address entrenched male-dominated culture and standards resulting in unequal

⁴⁷ Preamble: paragraphs 7, 12, 72, 130; Annex IV (paragraph 3)

⁴⁸ Decision 2/CP.17 (paragraphs 90, 103), Annex VI (paragraph 2), Annex VII (paragraph 1), Annex VII (paragraph 4c); Decision 3/CP.17 Annex (Paragraphs 3, 11, 21, 31, 71); Decision 5/CP.17 (paragraph 3), Annex: (paragraph 3); Decision 6/CP.17 (paragraph 4); Decision 12/CP.16 (paragraph 2); Decision 13/CP.17 (preamble)

⁴⁹ Decision 3/CP.18 (paragraphs 7a(iii), 7b); Decision 12/CP.18 (Preamble); Decision 14/CP.18, Annex I (Preamble), Annex II (paragraph 4); Decision 15/CP.18 (Preamble; paragraph 9), Annex (paragraphs 8, 14d, 16, 22i, 22k, 26)

African Union Gender Policy, pp. 13-14

⁵⁰ *Constitutive Act of the African Union*, Article 4(l)

⁵¹ African Union Gender Policy, pp. 13-14

⁵² *SADC Declaration on Gender and Development* (1997), Paragraph H(ii).

⁵³ *SADC Protocol on Gender and Development* (2008)

⁵⁴ *Ibid*

⁵⁵ *SADC Framework for Achieving Gender Parity in Political and Decision Making Positions by 2015*

power relations between women and men and a feminisation of deputy positions which provide limited power and control for women in decision-making and to strengthen women's capacity through training and support to encourage leadership and build confidence.⁵⁶

Other examples of regional instruments that reinforce the commitments made in intergovernmental processes include the *Quito Consensus*, adopted in 2007 by the 24 Governments which participated in the Tenth Session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean.

The Quito Consensus recognises that parity is one of the key driving forces of democracy,⁵⁷ and agrees to adopt all necessary affirmative action measures and mechanisms to ensure the full participation of women in public office and in political representative positions with a view to achieving parity in the institutional structure of the state and at the national and local levels.⁵⁸ Presiding Officers of the Conference were additionally instructed to devote one of the meetings they hold each year to an evaluation of the fulfilment of the commitments set forth in the Quito Consensus, and Governments accordingly were requested to submit a general medium-term assessment of the progress made at the 11th session of the Regional Conference in 2010.⁵⁹

Similarly, the European Commission reiterated in the *Women's Charter* (adopted in March 2010) and *EU Strategy for Equality between Women and Men (2010-2015)* that gender balance in decision-making in political and economic life, as well as in public and private sectors, will help Europe shape more effective policies, develop a gender-aware knowledge-based society, and create a stronger and more prosperous democracy. It thus affirmed to use powers and targeted initiatives, including Union incentive measures, to promote a greater share of women in positions of responsibility.⁶⁰ In its Women's Charter, the European Commission also committed to making all efforts to improve gender balance at the Commission-level.⁶¹ Regular monitoring and reporting of progress is conducted and results presented on an annual basis (or quarterly basis for updates in the data on political decision-making at European and national levels) in the Commission's *Database on Women and Men in Decision Making*⁶² and the *Report on Progress*

on Equality between Women and Men. These publicly available and accessible resources contribute to Governments' self-regulation of progress towards increasing women's participation in their national processes.

A recent development from the EU which is directly related to the discussion at hand has been the adoption of Conclusions (political commitments) by its Council in June 2012, on 'Gender equality and the environment: enhanced decision-making, qualifications and competitiveness in the field of climate change mitigation policy in the EU.'⁶³ In this document, the Council stresses that there is an urgent need to improve gender equality in decision-making in the field of climate change mitigation, especially the transport and energy sectors, and to increase the number of women with relevant qualifications in scientific and technological fields as well as the number of women participating in relevant scientific bodies at the highest level.⁶⁴ The Council Conclusions call on Member States and the European Commission to "take active and specific measures aimed at achieving a balanced representation of women and men in decision-making in the field of climate change mitigation at all levels, including at the EU level."⁶⁵ They further call for the monitoring of progress in this area, and in this regard contain a set of four indicators as proposed in a comprehensive report⁶⁶ prepared by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) on the issue:

- a) The proportion of women in climate change decision-making bodies at the national level in the EU Member States;
- b) The proportion of women in climate change decision-making bodies at the EU level;
- c) The proportion of women in climate change decision-making bodies at the international level; and
- d) The proportion of female tertiary graduates of all graduates in natural sciences and technologies at the EU and Member States level.

Among policy recommendations articulated by the EIGE is to take action towards increasing women's participation in high-level climate-related decision-making positions including by introducing specific goals and quantitative targets for women's participation in decision-making.⁶⁷ It is currently too early to know the results of this initiative, but these should be assessed in future research.

⁵⁶ Ibid

⁵⁷ *Quito Consensus, 2007*: Preambular Paragraph 17.

⁵⁸ *Quito Consensus, 2007*: Operative Paragraph 1 (ii).

⁵⁹ *Quito Consensus, 2007*: Operative Paragraph 2.

⁶⁰ European Commission, *A Women's Charter (2010)*, Section 3; EU Strategy for Equality between Women and Men (2010-2015), p. 7.

⁶¹ European Commission, *A Women's Charter (2010)*, Section 3.

⁶² http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/database/index_en.htm

⁶³ Council of the European Union, *Council conclusions on: Gender equality and the environment: enhanced decision-making qualifications and competitiveness in the field of climate change mitigation policy in the EU*, Luxembourg, 21 June 2012, paragraph 13.

⁶⁴ Ibid, paragraph 9

⁶⁵ Council of the European Union, *Council conclusions on: Gender equality and the environment: enhanced decision-making qualifications and competitiveness in the field of climate change mitigation policy in the EU*, Luxembourg, 21 June 2012, paragraph 13.

⁶⁶ *Enhanced decision-making, qualifications and competitiveness in the field of climate change mitigation policy in the EU*

⁶⁷ European Institute for Gender Equality (2012) *Gender Equality and Climate Change: the review of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU*

LESSONS LEARNED FROM REGIONAL EXPERIENCES

The experiences of SADC highlight that measures such as quotas to increase women's representation and participation for more gender-responsive policy outcomes can be implemented in a gradual manner, starting with a lower target of 30% and increasing it to 50% at a later stage. In order to ensure that women who take their place at the decision-making table as a result of special measures are able to contribute their full potential (and/or are not constrained to 'deputy' positions which provide limited decision-making power), these measures must moreover be implemented hand-in-hand with capacity building efforts such as targeted training and general awareness raising on issues surrounding gender equality. This lesson is undoubtedly appropriate to apply in advancing the goal

of gender balance in the UNFCCC process, where capacity building for women delegates, as well as awareness raising on the gender dimensions of climate change impacts and actions, are key.

Regional-level experiences have also shown the importance of robust monitoring and reporting to track and accelerate progress in increasing women's participation and representation in their respective processes; the provision for this in UNFCCC Decision 23/CP.18 (paragraph 8) must therefore be ensured. In addition to annual reports, publicly available and regularly updated online databases are especially effective in promoting self-regulation and monitoring by third parties.

3.3 NATIONAL ACTIONS

Efforts have been made by Governments across continents to implement international and regional agreements and take measures to advance gender balance in decision-making, most noticeably at the level of parliament. While the world average percentage of women in Parliament as of February 2013 is 20.4, Rwanda leads with 56.3% women in the lower house and 38.5% in the upper house, followed by Andorra, Cuba, Sweden, Seychelles, Senegal, Finland, South Africa, Nicaragua and Iceland, with a proportion just shy of 40% for the Lower or Single House.⁶⁸ 34 countries are reported to have reached or exceeded the 30% critical mass mark, among which at least 29 have legislated or voluntary quota systems in place.⁶⁹ Statistics further reveal that among the 22 countries to have held elections in 2012, 24% of seats were allotted to women in countries that have legislated electoral quotas and 22% in those with voluntary quotas, as compared to only 12% in countries where no form of quota was implemented.⁷⁰

In the EU region, the most recent Report on Progress on Equality between Women and Men (2011) reveals good progress towards improved gender balance in parliaments, with a gender composition of 35% women and 65% men at the European Parliament and 24% and 32% women for national and regional parliaments respectively.⁷¹ Sweden is the only country

inside the EU at the time reported to have reached parity in government, although Austria and Finland have more than 40% female senior ministers. By contrast, the report states that in the governments of Estonia, Slovenia, Czech Republic and Greece the proportion of women is less than 10%, and not a single woman senior minister participates in the government of Hungary.⁷² Poland, whose government passed a quota law for gender balance in politics in January 2011 requiring that at least 35% of candidates of all electoral lists should be women (with rejection of the list as the sanction for not complying), saw an increase of four percentage points in women's representation in parliament since the previous year (24% in 2011).⁷³

Since the adoption of such instruments as the AU Parity Principle and SADC Protocol, countries in these regions in particular have shown impressive progress in improving the participation and representation of women in the decision-making arena. The Sub-Saharan African region has long used quotas as a special measure to improve women's representation in parliaments. By the end of 2012, the regional average for women MPs stood at 20.4%, with four countries from the region ranked in the top ten parliaments in the world with the highest proportion of women parliamentarians.⁷⁴ For instance, the 2003 Constitution of Rwanda commits, in Article 9.4, to building

⁶⁸ <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm>

⁶⁹ IPU (<http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm>), Quota Project (<http://www.quotaproject.org/country.cfm>)

⁷⁰ IPU (<http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/WIP2012e.pdf>)

⁷¹ European Commission, Report on Progress on Equality between Women and Men in 2011, p. 12.

⁷² European Commission, Report on Progress on Equality between Women and Men in 2011, p. 13.

⁷³ European Commission, Report on Progress

⁷⁴ IPU (<http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/WIP2012e.pdf>)

“a State governed by the rule of law, a pluralistic democratic government, equality of all Rwandans and between women and men reflected by ensuring that women are granted at least 30 per cent of posts in decision-making organs”; women exceeded this minimum target in the elections of 2003 after a quota was accordingly put in place, and, as just mentioned, today Rwanda is the top ranking country in the world classification of women and national parliaments. More recently, in 2012, Senegal held its first elections since the Government adopted a gender parity law in 2010, which stipulates that an equal number of men and women must appear in all candidate lists for legislative, regional, municipal and rural elections, or be disqualified from the electoral process, with names alternated.⁷⁵

The 2011 ‘SADC Gender Protocol Barometer’ (the third of its series) reports that the number of women in parliament in the region has increased from 21% in 2005 to 25%, compared to an increase from 3% to 19% globally (and coming second only to the Nordic countries), as well as an increase from 18% in 2009 to 24% in 2011 in the proportion of women in economic decision-making.⁷⁶

Likewise, an example of how the commitment to the Quito Consensus and the Brasilia Consensus has translated at the national level is that of Mexico, where a historically high number of women were elected in 2012, as a result of a law passed in 2008 and subsequently enforced in November 2011 by the electoral tribunal, requiring that at least 40% of candidate lists for each political party be filled by women; Parties that failed to comply were given 24 hours to revise their list or be refused registration.⁷⁷

There have also been a number of legislative steps taken at the national level to increase women’s representation and participation in decision-making in Asia, the Arab States and the Pacific region. The official election act of the Republic of Korea, for instance, not only requires political parties to nominate women parliamentarians in 50% of the proportional representation seats and 30% in other seats, but also provides a subsidy to those that nominate women candidates.⁷⁸ In Timor-Leste, electoral law was amended in 2011 to stipulate that there must be one woman in every three candidates on party lists, leading to 25 women (38.5%) being elected in 2012.⁷⁹

Though the Arab States lag behind in the world classification with not a single parliament with at least 30% women and a current regional average of 13.8% of women parliamentarians, quotas have recently been introduced in a number of countries to boost women’s participations rates.⁸⁰ For instance, 31.6% of Members of Parliament (MPs) in Algeria’s lower house are women, as a result of a quota set based on the size of the constituency, where the party list is rejected if it fails to comply. Similarly, the Council of Ministers of Morocco passed a bill in September 2011 that allowed for the reservation of 60 seats for women in its lower house, which resulted in women representing 16.7% of seats following the 2011 elections, a proportion of over six percentage points greater than that following the previous election.⁸¹ Finally, political parties in Australia (24.7% women in the lower house and 38.2% in the upper house) have adopted voluntary quotas, and in New Zealand 32.2% of parliamentarians are women, even in the absence of a set quota. However, if both countries are taken out of the equation, the average proportion of women members of parliaments is only 3% in the Pacific region.⁸² Although positive steps have been taken by a number of countries, overall progress in increasing the number of women represented in parliament in these three regions thus remains generally slow. The same could be said with respect to women’s representation as city council officials or mayors. Between 2003 and 2008, women made up less than 5% of mayors in Western Asia and Caribbean countries and only 5 to 10% in the countries of sub-Saharan Africa, South Eastern Asia, Central and South America, and Eastern and Western Europe.⁸³

Among the reasons for this low level of engagement include negative gender stereotypes; a lack of financial resources to run for office; an absence of family support (including support in carrying out unpaid care work within households) and the prevalence of a masculine model of political life.⁸⁴ With the lack or absence of women in decision-making positions and a general absence of gender expertise, the potential for women’s specific needs being addressed is severely constrained. Positive outcomes for gender equality and women’s empowerment have followed efforts to increase the participation of women in decision-making, as observed in the examples that follow.

⁷⁵ IPU (<http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/WIP2012e.pdf>)

⁷⁶ SADC Gender Protocol Barometer: 2011, p. 11.

⁷⁷ IPU (<http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/WIP2012e.pdf>)

⁷⁸ IPU (<http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/WIP2012e.pdf>)

⁷⁹ IPU (<http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/WIP2012e.pdf>)

⁸⁰ <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/arc/world010213.htm>

⁸¹ <http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/wmnpers11-e.pdf>

⁸² IPU (<http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/WIP2012e.pdf>)

⁸³ The World’s Women 2010: Trends and Statistics, ST/ESA/STAT/SER.K/19, United Nations, 2010.

⁸⁴ Ibid.

POSITIVE OUTCOMES FOR GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT RESULTING FROM INCREASED PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN DECISION-MAKING

COSTA RICA

Since the reform to the Electoral Code in 1996 in Costa Rica, which placed a minimum 40% quota for women's participation (women currently hold 38.6% of seats in parliament), the country has adopted a wide range of laws that promotes the shared upbringing of children (Responsible Paternity Act (2001)), supports women with free health and education services (Law on Protection of Adolescent Mothers (2002)), introduced an integrated national monitoring system and services for female survivors of violence (Law to Prevent Violence against Women (2008)), and reformed the Labour Code (2008) specifying terms of employment for domestic workers.⁸⁵

TANZANIA

In the United Republic of Tanzania, the Constitution was amended in 2000 to require that women have no less than 20% of seats in Parliament. Soon after, the country saw the establishment of a gender unit in its Commission for Human Rights and Good Governance (2004), an amendment to the Land Act to grant equal rights and access to land, loans and credit for women, and the establishment of the Tanzania Police Female Network to protect women and children from violence (2007).⁸⁶ Women parliamentarians in Tanzania currently hold 36% of seats.⁸⁷

NEPAL

Under the 2007 Interim Constitution of Nepal, at least 33% of candidates for the Constituent Assembly must be women, and the country's Local Self Government Act (1999) requires that 40% of candidates for municipal councils must be women. Gains for gender equality in Nepal, where 33.2% of parliamentarians are at present women, have since come to include an expansion of women's inheritance and property rights under the Gender Equality Act (2006), the adoption of

gender-responsive budgeting for all Government expenditure by the Finance Ministry (2007), the passing of the Domestic Violence Crime and Punishment Act (2009) and the creation of a fund to ensure that rural and poor women can access abortion services (2009).⁸⁸

SWEDEN

In Sweden, women's interests became much more prominent in the political agenda following the significant increase in female parliamentarians, from 14% in 1971 to 44.7% today. A study concludes that not only were women largely responsible for having initiated discussions on gender equality, but the increase of elected women corresponded to a noticeable shift in emphasis on areas including social policy, family policy and care of the elderly. One of the most well-known gains for women is the system of parental leave which encourages both women and men to take on an equally active role and share responsibilities in caring for children.⁸⁹

RWANDA

In Rwanda, the impact of the presence of women in parliament has been clear, in particular in the areas of land rights, inheritance and marriage: while the Law on Matrimonial Regimes, Liberalities and Successions (1999) established women's right to inherit land and own property for the first time, the National Land Policy (2004) and Organic Land Law (2005) further provided equality in access by introducing land titling.⁹⁰ Working with local NGOs, the Government of Rwanda also worked to ensure that women are included in the land registration process through training of local land committees across the country and the dissemination of illustrated information booklets explaining these laws in simple terms.

⁸⁵ IPU (<http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm>); UN Women Progress of the World's Women, p. 26-27.

⁸⁶ Progress of the World's Women

⁸⁷ IPU, Women in National Parliaments: World Classification (<http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm>)

⁸⁸ Progress of the World's Women

⁸⁹ <http://www.idea.int/publications/wip2/loader.cfm?csmodule=security/getfile&pageid=14128> p. 243

⁹⁰ Progress of the World's Women, page 41.

GRO BRUNDTLAND'S EXPERIENCE ON THE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN GOVERNMENT AND PARLIAMENT

I have many examples of how the participation of women in Government and Parliament has been decisive in forming more progressive policies. My very first experience was the request for me to be willing to stand for election as deputy leader of the Labour Party, back in 1975. The women's organisation of the Party insisted on the selection of a woman in the leadership, for the first time, and was heard!

Eight years later, as I was already Party Leader, we changed our policies to make a new rule that in all elections, we must choose at least 40% of either sex, on our Party Lists. Women's participation in getting a majority at the Party Congress in 1983, was decisive to succeed. There is also

no doubt that women, across party lines in Parliament, became decisive as we pushed through the new law on abortion, and put women themselves in the drivers seat, in 1978. Let me finally mention an early episode, inside Government, when the Minister of Agriculture concluded in a document to Cabinet that it would be costly, complicated and unnecessary to introduce low fat milk as part of the product spectrum for customers. All other men in Cabinet let him have his way, the three women all protested due to health concerns, and prevailed in changing the Government position. All three of us had in fact made remarks in the margin to speak out against his conclusion, but none of our male colleagues!

Contribution to this report from Gro Harlem Brundtland, former Prime Minister of Norway, and former Director General of WHO, member of the Troika+ of Women Leaders on Gender and Climate Change.

ERIK SOLHEIM ON MEN'S ROLE IN PROMOTING GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT

Some of the most important decisions do not always come from the corridors of power. This also holds when it comes to women empowerment and participation in decision making. I was recently reminded of this in one of the world's foremost epitomes of political power: the US Congress. I had the honour of participating in the official ceremony of the Congressional Gold Medal for Muhammed Yunus.

There could hardly have been a more inspirational venue that symbolises political power and decision making in its proud tradition: a fantastic setting in the rotunda beneath the capitol dome, with all the leaders of Congress assembled together.

The ceremony honoured an exceptional man, and one who more than deserved it, in a venue most associated by the great men of American democracy, and in fact originally commissioned by Thomas Jefferson at the behest of George Washington, two other exceptional men. In reality, however, we were celebrating the success of giving women the decision power and resources that transformed their lives.

In 1974, Yunus made a small loan of US\$27 to a group of 42 poor families in rural Bangladesh. A defining feature was that loans were given to women. This was not only the start of microcredit, but effectively the birth of a women's movement.

The deliberate focus on women of these loans, continued by Grameen bank, was decisive in the economic empowerment of women. They used that money not only to improve their own situation, but also to organise themselves and form groups that made them a stronger voice, and a stronger actor, in society and the economy.

Since then, while Bangladesh still struggles with deep poverty, it has seen tremendous progress, especially in areas where the decision making of women came to bear: the country is doing better than its neighbours on most social indicators, even at a lower GDP. Of the 95% of children receiving a primary education, there are now slightly more girls than boys. The number of children per woman has come down from an average of seven in the 1970s to 2.4 in 2005-10.

These results would have been very difficult to envisage without the economic empowerment of women that microfinance has brought. It may not be high politics, but the change in decision-making had a fundamentally political dimension that has been of enormous consequence to Bangladesh. While the results speak for themselves, the reality of the focus on women was also clear to see at the congressional ceremony: When the prize was handed out, nearly all guests from Bangladesh were women.

Contribution to this report from Erik Solheim, Chair of the OECD Development Assistance Committee, former Minister of Environment and International Development, Norway, member of the Troika+ of Women Leaders on Gender and Climate Change.

3.4 LOCAL GOVERNMENT EXPERIENCES

Beyond parliaments too, the impact of women in leadership positions has been a catalytic and positive force. As early as in 1993, India amended its constitution requiring States to delegate more power over expenditures to local village councils, and reserve one-third of all positions of chief, or village representative, for women. A study⁹¹ conducted a decade later in sample villages in the districts of Birbhum (West Bengal) and Udaipur (Rajasthan) compared all investments in local public goods made by village councils with reserved seats against those without. Results of the survey revealed that policy decisions better reflected women's preferences in village councils with reserved seats: in West Bengal, where drinking water and roads were priorities for women, more investments were made in drinking water and roads by village councils with reserved seats; in Rajasthan, where drinking water was an issue frequently raised by women but less so were roads, village councils with reserved seats made more investments in water and fewer in roads.

Research presented in the UNDP's Human Development Report (2011) has likewise demonstrated that active female participation in forest community decision-making is crucial to avoid adverse impacts on women arising from forest

management decisions, such as forest closures.⁹² Findings have moreover shown that the best outcomes came with a larger number of women present at committee meetings, or where they had already participated in women's empowerment programmes. Based on fieldwork in community forest sites in India and Nepal, Agarwal (2001) notes that external agent support, including from non-governmental organisations, has helped in insisting on high female membership in community forest groups, with minimum quotas for women set as high as 50% for new groups, or by stipulating that a meeting can only be held if men also invited women.⁹³

In a subsequent study (2009), she shows that women's proportional strength in forest community decision-making bodies (arising from greater numbers present) enhances nominal and effective participation and sustains women's attendance rates in meetings.⁹⁴ Ultimately, encouraging the participation of women—and increasing the proportion of women participating—not only enhanced women's self-confidence, collective voice and bargaining power, but their visible contributions to meetings also helped loosen entrenched views about women's roles and capabilities.

LESSONS LEARNED FROM NATIONAL AND LOCAL-LEVEL EXPERIENCES

Regardless of geographical location or level of development, certain countries have witnessed an increasing number of women in leadership and decision making positions, while others have shown less progress in this regard. In general, those that have adopted special measures, such as legislated quotas to increase the participation and representation of women in decision-making processes, have produced most noteworthy results, whereas in the absence of temporary special measures, women's participation and representation have remained at very low levels. Sanctions resulting from failure to cooperate with measures put in place have further ensured the promotion of women's greater participation and representation.

Parties to the UNFCCC should be encouraged to adopt such temporary special measures in their delegations as a most effective means to ensure a 'critical mass' of women within the composition of their delegations as well as in

negotiations. While these efforts are voluntary in nature and sanctions are therefore not possible to implement, the UNFCCC secretariat can, in maintaining information on the gender composition of each delegation, further present this data through ranking tables where progress made by each Party relative to others in advancing the goal of gender balance can be clearly determined.

Moreover, similar affirmative action measures can be taken in order to advance this goal in bodies of the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol. Nominations for membership to bodies are made according to regional group or constituency, before being formally elected by the COP/CMP. In the upcoming nominating processes, regional groups or constituencies may wish to adopt a 'gentlemen's agreement', whereby, taking full account of the gender composition of the bodies in question, new women members are nominated in order to advance or reach the gender balance goal.

⁹¹ Chattopadhyay, R. and Duflo, E. (2004) 'Women as policy makers: evidence from a randomized policy experiment in India', *Econometrica*, Vol. 72, No. 5, 1409-1443.

⁹² UNDP Human Development Report (2011), Agarwal (2001), (2009)

⁹³ Agarwal (2001)

⁹⁴ Agarwal (2009)

3.5 WOMEN IN THE BOARDROOM: INITIATIVES FROM THE PRIVATE SECTOR

A study conducted by the Deloitte Global Center for Corporate Governance (2011) reveals a number of initiatives around the world to increase the number of women serving on corporate boards. The guiding corporate governance perspective, very much in line with the normative argument for gender equality in political decision making, is that “including individuals with different backgrounds on boards of directors could improve these boards’ functioning; harnessing strength from a variety of backgrounds, experiences, and perspectives allows boards to bring a more diverse perspective to problems”.⁹⁵ For example, within the context of climate change mitigation, it is suggested that energy companies and their boards may benefit from the greater presence of women, who typically have more risk-averse attitudes than their male counterparts and may hence be more likely to promote investment in energy efficiency and renewable energy sources.⁹⁶

Out of the 18 country profiles (including the EU) reflected in the Deloitte report, seven countries have legislated quotas to improve women’s representation on corporate boards or senior management positions. Norway was the first to introduce a gender quota with the amendment of the Norwegian Public Limited Liability Companies Act (2005), stipulating that both sexes must be represented if the board comprises two or three members; at least two directors must be women if the board has four or five members; at least three if the board has six to eight members; at least four if the board has nine members; and at least 40% of directors must be women for boards comprising of more than nine directors. Failure to comply with these requirements by 1 January 2008 would result in the dissolving of the company (though Deloitte reports no public limited company has yet to be dissolved on account of the gender-related rules to date). At the time of the report’s publication, Norway had by far the greatest number of female directors (35.6% women serving on boards). The EU average today is 16% women members in the highest decision making bodies of the largest publicly listed companies⁹⁷, although recently, the European Commission proposed legislation to attain a 40% objective of the under-

represented sex in non-executive board-member positions in publicly listed companies (November 2012).⁹⁸

Lessons can certainly be drawn from the experiences of the private sector. Research conducted by the London Business School found that gender balance maximised the innovation potential of professional teams, taking into account psychological safety, self-confidence, experimentation and efficiency of members, among other factors.⁹⁹ Similarly, a study led by McKinsey & Company examined the correlation between the proportion of women in management teams and company performance, suggesting that gender diversity in management teams creates a competitive edge to tackle global challenges.¹⁰⁰ The study, which measured ‘organisational excellence’ based on leadership, direction, accountability, coordination and control, innovation, external orientation, capability, motivation, and work environment and values, found that out of 101 companies in the sample (mainly large corporations in Europe, America and Asia, which listed the composition of their governing bodies publicly), those with three or more women in senior management positions scored on average more highly for each of these criteria than those with no women at upper levels. Moreover, scores increased significantly wherever a critical mass (of at least three women for an average membership of ten people in senior management) was attained. In terms of financial performance too, a positive correlation was found between a high proportion of women in senior management and the operating margin and market capitalisation of a company, where the financial performance of 89 European listed companies with the highest level of gender diversity in senior management posts was analysed relative to the averages for each of their sectors; on average, these companies outperformed their sector with regard to return on equity, operating result, and stock price growth. While these results do not demonstrate causation, they do show a factual link in favour of promoting women’s participation in leadership positions within the private sector, and in the decision making sphere in general.

LESSONS LEARNED FROM THE PRIVATE SECTOR

Private sector boards are much more similar in size to the bodies established under the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol compared to national-level political parties. Therefore, lessons from private sector experiences can certainly be applied to advance the goal of gender balance in the UNFCCC. Namely, the literature of quotas applied to the private sector worldwide reveals that the adoption of special measures in this context is becoming less unusual, and, as in national experiences, has

helped increase the number of women in leadership positions. Moreover, the experience of the private sector offers some insight on what constitutes reasonable targets that may be set according to membership size – for instance, at least 40% of the under-represented sex for bodies comprising more than nine members. Importantly, the private sector literature also suggests that gains increase significantly whenever a ‘critical’ mass of at least three women or more out of ten is attained.

⁹⁵ Deloitte (http://www.deloitte.com/assets/Dcom-Tanzania/Local%20Assets/Documents/Deloitte%20Article_Women%20in%20the%20boardroom.pdf) p. 1; also Daly and Dalton, 2003; Huse et al. (2009); and Georges Desvaux, Sandrine Devillard-Hoellinger and Mary C. Meaney, “A Business Case for Women,” *McKinsey Quarterly*, 2008, 4: 26-33.

⁹⁶ Carlsson-Kanyama et al. (2009)

⁹⁷ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/database/business-finance/supervisory-board-board-directors/index_en.htm

⁹⁸ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/newsroom/gender-equality/news/121114_en.htm

⁹⁹ London Business School, (2007) ‘Innovative Potential: Men and Women in Teams’

¹⁰⁰ McKinsey & Company (2007) ‘Women Matter’

4. BEYOND NUMBERS: ADDRESSING STRUCTURAL CAUSES OF GENDER-BASED DISCRIMINATION AND INEQUALITY

The achievement of gender balance and the meaningful participation of women in any process ultimately depend on correcting the structural foundations of gender-based inequality. Gender stereotypes, such as assigning women's and men's roles, create unwanted biases and help perpetuate male dominance in all aspects of life, including in leadership and decision making. Deeply ingrained biases influence the way institutions are established and how they operate and create a hostile environment for women, including in their participation in political life, for example.

The SADC secretariat, in its 'Framework for Achieving Gender Parity in Political and Decision Making Positions by 2015', outlined various obstacles that women decision-makers have faced in the region, which relates to gender stereotypes. In that report, it was stated that placing women in social and political structures with entrenched male-dominated views and standards was likely to result in frustration from continued discrimination and exclusion by their counterparts. Furthermore, there was an underlying expectation of women who are nominated and appointed to be compliant, or a belief on the part of appointed women that they have been done a favour rather than been granted a right, and should therefore not appear antagonistic towards the other members of the governing body. The SADC Report thus emphasised that because women in representative positions are not always clear of what their role is in terms of gender related issues, efforts to increase representation must be made alongside such efforts as continued gender equality education for planners and leaders and effective gender mainstreaming in all policies, programmes, processes and actions, i.e. training both men and women about the gender dimensions implicated in their work.

Thus, it is critical to tackle discriminatory attitudes and gender stereotypes which perpetuate stereotypic roles of men and women, belittle women's perceptions and achievements and deny women's decision-making power altogether. Thus, women's increased numerical representation must be complemented with efforts and measures to translate their presence into substantive representation or for them to effectively participate and influence political decision-making. This is important to highlight when thinking of options and ways to advance gender balance in the UNFCCC. A recurring lesson from this review has been that special measures such as quotas will not always deliver positive results and must be accompanied with steps to address the factors that have impeded women's

participation in the first place. All political actors, men as well as women, must contribute to this endeavour.

Increasing the level of exposure to issues relevant to women's needs and priorities and understanding of these through gender-sensitive training and substantive support contribute to building confidence and help improve women's leadership and empowerment. Initiatives are being undertaken in the context of the UNFCCC to respond to structural causes of gender inequality in participation and representation in negotiating tables. In an effort to increase the direct participation of women from the global South, the Women's Environment and Development Organisation (WEDO), a global advocacy organisation that includes promoting women's participation and leadership in global decision-making spheres among its priorities, coordinates the Women Delegates Fund (WDF). A project of the Global Gender and Climate Alliance (GGCA) launched in 2009 with support and leadership from the Government of Finland, and more recently, the Government of Iceland, the WDF has evolved from a travel fund to a comprehensive leadership programme - recognising what is truly transforming representation requires moving beyond 'seats at the table' to innovative actions (e.g. financial support, mentorship and networking opportunities) and capacity building.

The programme prioritises sustainability and consistency in participation, networking, training and leadership development. This is implemented through organised networking events during inter-sessional meetings, communications opportunities such as press briefings and interviews, and training on a range of issues, from technical climate change themes to diplomacy, legal language, negotiating techniques and media skills. Although the number of women directly supported by the WDF is small relative to the number of participants in UNFCCC meetings, the impacts of the WDF are more widely evident. In quantitative terms, since 2009, 28 women who may not have otherwise been able to participate in UNFCCC meetings have been supported to attend intersessionals and annual COPs. Initiatives and networking led by WDF participants contributed to ground-breaking text references on women's rights and gender equality included in the Cancun Agreements of COP 16 and strengthened in Durban at COP 17.

Participants of the WDF have consistently stated that the most effective aspects of the initiative include: the support

that networking opportunities provide, both amongst WDF members and more broadly; the demand-led training tools and briefings provided; and the travel support given that ensures WDF members participate in more than just one UNFCCC meeting in any given year.

Such complementary efforts are in line with other provisions of Decision 23/CP.18, most notably the request to the Secretariat

to organise an in-session workshop at COP 19, on not only gender balance and gender-sensitive climate policy, but also *capacity-building activities to promote the greater participation of women in the UNFCCC process*.¹⁰¹ The immediate objective is for gender balance to be achieved in the UNFCCC, while the ultimate goal is for the response to climate change to be comprehensive and effective, reflecting the priorities and meeting the needs of both women and men, equally.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

Concrete measures can be taken by Parties and other stakeholders to ensure the implementation of Decision 23/CP.18.

Gender balance in the composition of bodies of the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol enforcement mechanisms:

- **Take temporary special measures** in order to advance the goal of gender balance in formal and informal bodies established pursuant to the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol.
- **Set a gender representation target** for both existing and new subsidiary bodies of not less than 40% and not more than 60% of women/men representatives.
- **Provide** guidance to officers of these bodies to actively designate women when setting up informal negotiating groups and consultation mechanisms, and nominating their facilitators and chairs.
- Put in place measures to ensure that women and men are represented equally at all levels and not represented as deputies or alternates only, but also as principals and in senior posts.

Enforcing gender balance in the composition of national delegations:

- **Adopt temporary special measures as the most effective means to ensure a ‘critical mass’ of women** within the composition of their delegations and in negotiations.
- Consider the **creation of a fund to support women delegates’ participation in the UNFCCC negotiations**. This fund could be used to sponsor the participation, capacity building and training of women delegates.

- At the review of Decision 23/CP.18, **a specific numerical target** for achieving gender balance and a mechanism to **sanction** regional groups and constituencies that do not respect the principle of parity in nominations should be established.

On the review of implementation, monitoring and reporting, the following roles for the UNFCCC secretariat are key:

- Ensuring that robust monitoring and reporting to track and accelerate progress are implemented.
- Maintaining a publicly available and regularly updated online database of women’s and men’s participation in UNFCCC processes including for informal bodies and groups, disaggregated by regional grouping or constituency and presenting the data in ranking tables to allow for comparison.
- Active engagement with Parties to ensure that officers responsible for establishing informal bodies and groups are aware of the need for gender balance at the time of the establishment and convening of these bodies.

On other complementary initiatives:

- When Chairs of relevant bodies convene in-session workshops and roundtables, explicit guidance should be provided to them by the secretariat to consider including women as panellists as well as integrating gender issues in panels.
- Capacity building efforts such as targeted training and general awareness-raising on issues surrounding gender equality are needed to complement other measures aimed at increasing women’s participation and representation.

¹⁰¹ Decision 23/CP.18, paragraph 10

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