



ACCELERATING GENDER-RESPONSIVE CLIMATE ACTION THROUGH EMPOWERED CSOs

Capacity Needs Assessment in
Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam



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UN Women would like to acknowledge the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida) for their financial support for the preparation and production of this training manual which is part of the UN Women's project *Strengthening Human Rights and Gender Equality Through Climate Change Action and Disaster Risk Reduction (EmPower)*.

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Naswa, Prakriti. 2021. *Accelerating Gender-Responsive Climate Action Through Empowered CSOs – Capacity Needs Assessment in Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam*. Kuala Lumpur and Bangkok: The Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women (ARROW) and UN Women Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The primary studies for understanding the capacity gaps were conducted by Zakia Haque in Bangladesh, Kasumi Nakagawa in Cambodia, and Le Van Son in Vietnam, in close coordination with ARROW and UN Women. The focus group discussions during the training of trainers were facilitated by Bangladesh Centre for Advanced Studies (BCAS), ActionAid Cambodia, and Center for Environment and Community Research (CECR) in Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam, respectively.

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About this Report

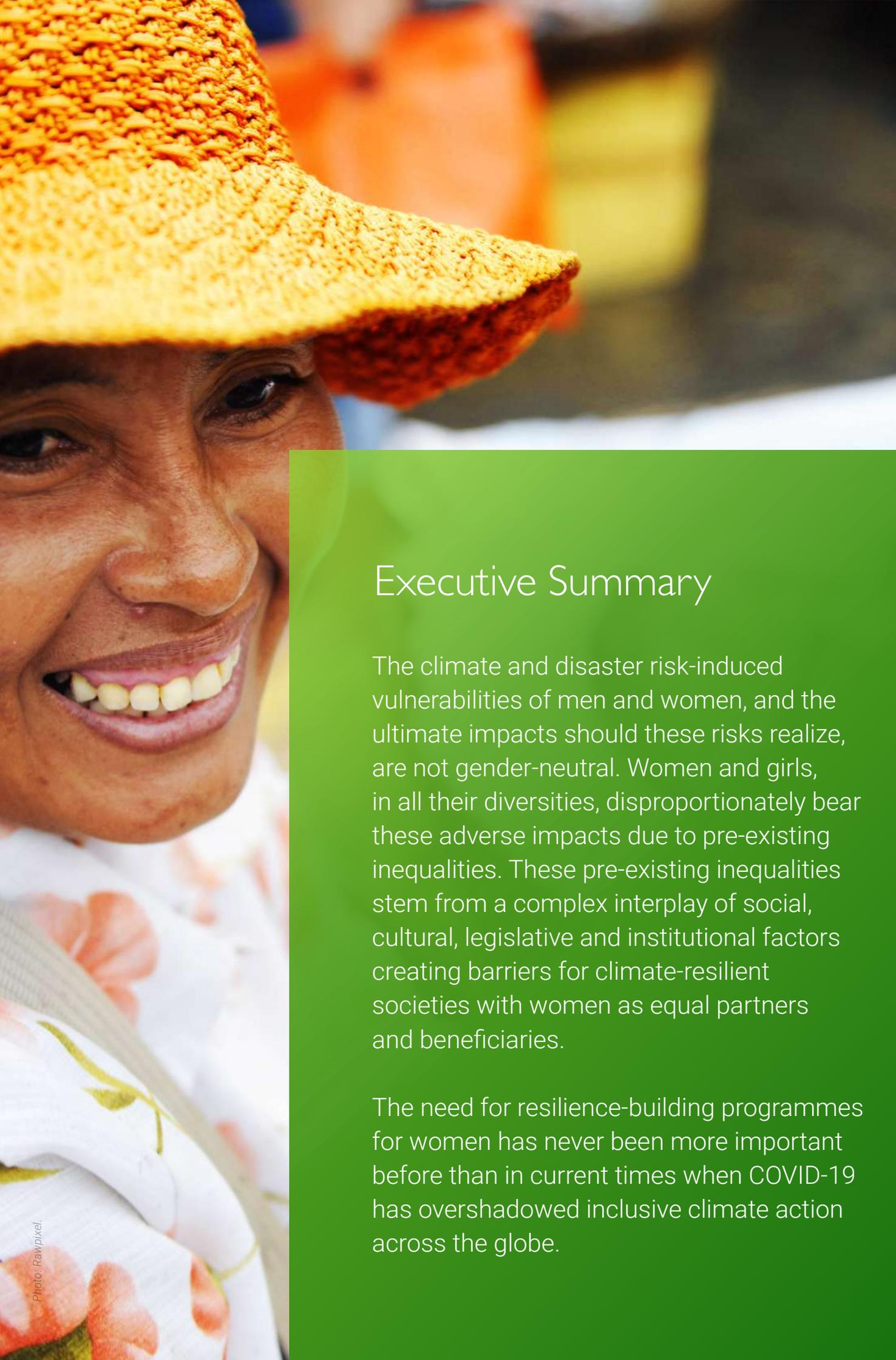
The Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women (ARROW) partnered with UN Women for this study, which aims to understand the capacity gaps experienced by civil society organizations (CSOs) to advocate for gender mainstreaming in climate change and disaster risk reduction plans, policies and projects in the three pilot countries of Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam. This report, prepared from 2019 to 2021, is part of UN Women's programme on *Strengthening Human Rights and Gender Equality through Climate Change Action and Disaster Risk Reduction (EmPower: Women for Climate-Resilient Societies Project)* which is supported by the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida).

This report provides a background of gender-differentiated vulnerabilities in the context of climate change and disaster risk reduction, and the importance of CSOs in enhancing resilience of the most vulnerable, including women and girls. It summarizes the results of a primary study done to understand the existing gaps that CSOs experience in advocating for gender mainstreaming in policies and programmes at different levels. Based on the capacity gaps identified, a training manual was prepared, and training of trainers were conducted. During these trainings, a second round of assessment through focus group discussions was done to understand the needs of the CSOs that go beyond capacity gaps or those that cannot be met by trainings alone. These needs and the recommendations based on the needs identified are also presented in this report.



Abbreviations

AADMER	ASEAN Agreement on Disaster Management and Emergency Response
ARROW	Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women
ASEAN	Association of South-East Asian Nations
BCAS	Bangladesh Centre for Advanced Studies
BCCSAP	Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan
ccGAP	Climate Change Gender Action Plan
CECR	Center for Environment and Community Research
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CETF	Climate Expenditure Tracking Framework
CFF	Climate Fiscal Framework
CPEIR	Climate Public Expenditure and Institutional Review
CSO	Civil Society Organizations
CVF	Climate Vulnerability Forum
CVF	Climate Vulnerable Forum
DALY	Disability-Adjusted Life Year
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
GAP	Gender Action Plan
GHG	Green House Gas
LDC	Least Developed Countries
LGBTIQ	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Intersex and Queer
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MARD	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (Cambodia)
NAP	National Adaptation Plan
NAPA	National Adaptation Programme of Action
NDC	Nationally Determined Contributions
NDRRM	Natural Disaster Rapid Response Mechanism
NGO	Non-Government Organization
NPDM	National Plan for Disaster Management
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SADDD	Sex-, Age-, and Disability-Disaggregated Data
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SIDS	Small Island Developing States
SRH	Sexual and Reproductive Health
SRHR	Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights
UNCDF	UN Capital Development Fund
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Emergency Fund
V20	Vulnerable Twenty



Executive Summary

The climate and disaster risk-induced vulnerabilities of men and women, and the ultimate impacts should these risks realize, are not gender-neutral. Women and girls, in all their diversities, disproportionately bear these adverse impacts due to pre-existing inequalities. These pre-existing inequalities stem from a complex interplay of social, cultural, legislative and institutional factors creating barriers for climate-resilient societies with women as equal partners and beneficiaries.

The need for resilience-building programmes for women has never been more important before than in current times when COVID-19 has overshadowed inclusive climate action across the globe.

Managing and reducing gender-differentiated vulnerabilities, and dealing with the structural barriers of gender equality require a two-pronged approach. First is the top-down approach of formulating national policies, which creates the right framework conditions for climate action. Second is the bottom-up approach focusing on grassroot changes in social-cultural norms and practices. Civil society organizations (CSOs) as key non-state actors have a big role to play in strengthening bottom-up approaches.

The policy landscape on gender, climate change and disaster risk reduction in the three pilot countries, Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam, is diverse and quite focused on the top-down approach of driving gender-responsive action. Many domestic policies emanate from key international commitments and there are efforts to mainstream gender in the national policy frameworks. The benefits, however, have not trickled down and gender-based inequalities in the climate change context exist at the grassroot level.

There is an urgent need to promote the involvement of women and women's groups; build their leadership capacity to advocate for gender mainstreaming at all levels of policies and planning; and support them to be more gender-responsive in their climate action. However, they face many capacity gaps in this pursuit. This study identifies technical knowledge gaps, challenges, and other technical, financial and capacity building needs of women-led civil society/non-government organizations in advocating for gender mainstreaming climate change and disaster risk reduction plans, policies and projects at different levels, such as local, provincial and national, in Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam.

The capacity needs assessment classifies the needs from this three-country study with a representative sample for 36 CSOs under five broad categories:

1. Technical knowledge needs in projects: These include all the technical knowledge gaps that the organizations experience in improving their project engagements. Strengthening technical knowledge of CSOs enables them to design and implement gender-responsive (and going forward, gender-specific and gender-transformative) projects.

Some of the thematic areas identified in this category include: i) linkages of climate change, disaster risk reduction and gender within the SDG framework; ii) sector-specific approaches for resilience highlighting impacts and strategies for engagements; iii) fundamentals of integrating gender in climate and disaster risk reduction projects; iv) tools and methods for gender analysis and gender mainstreaming; and v) applications of evidence-based research methods.

2. Leadership capacities: These highlight the gaps at the leadership end of senior management in CSOs. They must be supported by custom-designed leadership programmes to drive transformational change in gender-responsive climate change and disaster risk reduction policy and planning at all levels. Some of the thematic areas identified in this category include: i) orientation to successful gender-responsive projects and project ideas in climate change and disaster risk reduction; ii) linking organization's operations and project activities with international and regional commitments; and iii) gender-responsive proposal writing and project design skills.

3. Advocacy needs: These are the needs to influence local governments and public bodies to mainstream gender in policies and plans. Some of the thematic areas identified in this category include: i) knowledge of CSO networks and how CSOs can engage with existing networks; ii) training on policy advocacy skills; and iii) understanding of international architecture and domestic policy landscape for climate change, disaster risk, and the gender mandates and the entry points for CSOs.

4. Organizational development needs: These highlight the gaps in organizations' operations and management capacity, which is an important complement and a necessary condition to implement projects. These include thematic areas like: i) improving documentation of climate and disaster risk reduction projects; ii) orientation to transparency and gender-responsive budgeting mechanisms for projects; and iii) strengthening stakeholder engagement and communication.

5. Resource mobilization needs: These show gaps in resources, both financial and technical, that the CSOs experience to fund their activities and expand their scope of work. Except for awareness about funding opportunities, all the thematic areas identified in this need cut across all the other identified needs.

This study also explores the barriers that CSOs experience in gender mainstreaming that are beyond capacity gaps, and the support that they require beyond technical capacity for strengthening their gender-mainstreaming advocacy work. Based on the focus group discussions with 58 CSOs, here are recommendations for the policy makers to create an enabling environment for CSOs to operate and accelerate grassroots climate action, and to meet their finance, technology and capacity building needs that are not covered by trainings on technical knowledge gaps. The short- to medium-term recommendations are relatively low-cost interventions, achievable in the time frame of three years. The medium- to long-term recommendations are high on complexity and budget requirements, but are also high-impact interventions.

SHORT- TO MEDIUM-TERM RECOMMENDATIONS (1-3 YEARS):

- 1. Create a communication tools package,** in partnership with communication experts, that has flyers, flipcharts and videos in local languages to help advance the work of CSOs in community-based adaptation action.
- 2. Build an information platform** to serve as a resource repository of technical material in the local language, and as a channel for sharing updates with the subscribers.
- 3. Form an expert group** to look into critical gender issues of sexual and reproductive health; disability; gender-based violence; lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer (LGBTIQ) people's needs, in the context of climate change and disaster-led humanitarian programmes with the purpose of identifying mechanisms for their inclusion in long-term programming.

4. Conduct periodic needs assessments of CSOs to ensure that strengthening capacities of CSOs is encoded as a strategy for achieving climate goals.

5. Create opportunities for CSOs to participate in regional and international forums that gives them opportunities to know about international frameworks and best practices.

MEDIUM- TO LONG-TERM RECOMMENDATIONS (3-6 YEARS):

- 1. Build CSO Networks** to strengthen CSOs' work by organizing them into a network or coalition of partners. As this is a very resource-intensive task and the efforts until now have not yielded good operational networks in the region. Building a network and providing them with a tech-based platform for operations can be a resource-intensive task. It is recommended that a detailed assessment be done on mechanisms to build CSO networks, and pilot test such a network to see if it is operable and meeting the pre-determined objectives. If successful, then the long-term goal should be to make the network self-sustaining.
- 2. Assess gender and climate change policy frameworks** to enable CSO engagement at all levels. CSO inputs also need stronger integration with gender analysis, where the CSO engagement can be fruitful.
- 3. Build a national framework for monitoring and evaluation (M&E)** of climate change adaptation to strengthen gender mainstreaming and gender-responsive programmatic action.



Section I

Introduction

The changing climate is one of the biggest challenges that countries face today. The world has come a long way from acknowledging changing climate in the 1960s and 1970s, to formally recognizing the need to develop sustainably in the 'Brundtland Report,' and to accelerating action through the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer, and the Kyoto Protocol and the Paris Agreement under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC).

Despite the progress, there are warning signs of reaching the tipping points of irreversible damage (IPCC 2018). Aside from the increase in frequency and intensity of climate-induced disasters being seen across the world, the range of hazards that a location is experiencing, or is expected to experience, is also becoming wider (IPCC -AR5 2014a). Newer hazards, unknown a few decades back, are emerging; such as acidification of oceans or seemingly harmless combinations of temperature and humidity which create conducive environment for vector-borne diseases and many more.

The actual changes experienced in projected climate differ in various parts of the world. Within Asia, South-East Asia is witnessing a downward trend in precipitation and will experience increasingly dry weather (IPCC -AR5 2014b). More frequent and heavy rainfall days are projected over parts of South Asia in the next three decades. South-East Asia's average temperature has increased at a rate of 0.1–0.3 degrees Celsius per decade, and annual mean temperature is projected to rise 4.8 degrees Celsius on average by 2100 from the 1990 level, which will come with more hotter days and nights (IPCC -AR5 2014b). Tropical cyclones are projected to increase in the Arabian Sea, while wind velocities associated with cyclones are projected to increase in the southern Indian Ocean (Murakami, Vecchi and Underwood 2017; Yamada, et al. 2017).

The adverse impacts are experienced directly as a result of changing climate variables and extreme events that lead to heat and cold waves, cyclones and floods; and indirectly as a result of altered infectious disease patterns and negative effects on food and nutrition security and water scarcity, among others. The Asia-Pacific region, especially

the developing countries, the least developed countries (LDCs) and the small island developing states (SIDS), will be hit hard, reverting the progress and accomplishments of years of economic development. The impact will also not be gender-neutral, with women and girls being a significant vulnerable group. In short, climate risks are multi-dimensional, dynamic, and cascading. When realized, these risks can have far-reaching and irreversible consequences (if not managed or mitigated) on our socio-economic systems, health, infrastructure and ecosystems, and further marginalize the vulnerable groups.



Photo: Georgina Smith/CIAT.



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This report, prepared in the period 2019-2021, is part of UN Women's programme on *Strengthening Human Rights and Gender Equality through Climate Change Action and Disaster Risk Reduction (EmPower: Women for Climate-Resilient Societies Project)*. The programme is being piloted in three countries: Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam. This project aims to strengthen the capacities of women-led civil society organizations (CSOs) and human rights institutions in mainstreaming gender equality in climate change, energy and disaster risk reduction policies, programmes and processes, and to improve their leadership and engagement in decision-making processes running at regional and country levels. To achieve these, the following activities were carried out:

1. Mapping of women-led CSOs working in the domains of climate change, disaster risk reduction, human rights and gender.
2. Training needs assessment to identify the capacity gaps of CSOs, and development of a training manual based on the identified needs.
3. Conducting the training of trainers based on the training manual.

This report summarizes the results of the training needs assessment done in the three pilot countries. Sections 2 and 3 focus on gender-based vulnerabilities to climate change and disasters, and on the structural barriers to gender equality, highlighting the unique CSO needs from a planning perspective. Section 4 gives a background of the relevance and contribution of CSOs to grassroots climate action. Sections 5 and 6 provide an overview of policy frameworks on gender, climate change and disaster risk reduction in the three countries.

Section 7 provides details of the methodology, objectives and scope of the primary study done in two phases. Section 8 provides the results of the training needs assessment consolidated from the three countries, highlighting the gaps that CSOs experience in advocating for gender mainstreaming in policies and programmes. Section 9 provides an overview of the issues that CSOs experience in their operations, and the needs that go beyond technical trainings. The concluding Section 10 provides recommendations for policy makers to support the work of CSOs. The annex provides an overview of policy landscape on gender, climate change and disaster risk reduction in the three countries.



Section 2

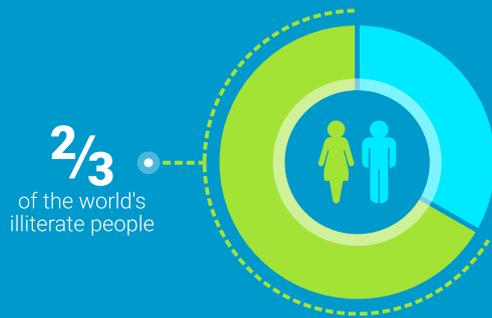
Gender-Based Vulnerabilities to Climate Change and Disasters

The adverse impacts of climate change are disproportionately borne by people who are socially, economically, politically, institutionally and culturally marginalized (IPCC -AR5 2014a). The extent and nature of their vulnerabilities also impact their mitigation and adaptation responses to climate and disaster risks. There is enough evidence to show that women and girls are generally more vulnerable to the adverse impacts of climate change compared to men and boys (UN Women 2016). Women and girls, in all their diversities, often comprise a significant marginalized group (UNDESA 2020a; WEF 2020). Pre-existing gender inequalities, and not biological differences, typically drive their vulnerability to climate change. One of the important reasons for being disproportionately impacted is that women and girls have lower baselines with respect to their existing capacities compared to men and boys. For example, their access to resources, skill levels and education are lower than their male counterparts. Therefore, in the event of any climate-induced disaster, their response mechanisms are poor, fragile and inadequate, and recovery is slow. Figure 1 lists some gender differentiated baselines.

**FIGURE 1:
GENDER-DIFFERENTIATED BASELINES FOR RESOURCE ACCESS AND CONTROL**

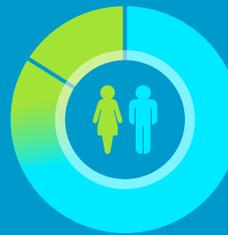
EDUCATION

More women are educated than ever before. However, there is still a significant gap between education level of men and women. According to the World's Women 2015 report, **781 million adults over the age of 15 years globally are estimated to be illiterate, of which 496 million were women.** The proportion of illiterate women in the total illiteracy numbers has remained consistent for a few decades.



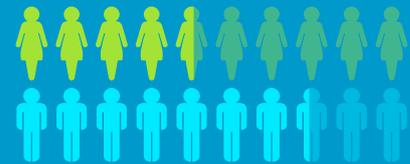
INCOME GAP

The global gender pay gap is stagnant at 16%; and in some countries, it can be as high as 35%.



Women are often paid less than men for the same tasks. The daily wage for an illiterate male agricultural labourer in rural India is about 45% more than his female counterpart. Globally, the average annual income of men is 78% higher than that of the women.

In 2020, only **47% of women** of working age participated in the labour market



compared to **74% of men.**

LAND AND OTHER RESOURCES

Women represent a significant labour force in agriculture, forestry, and fisheries sectors globally. Despite their large numbers in these sectors, women have lesser ownership and control of economic resources such as land, property or livestock. Even with joint ownership, the control or decision-making on the use of the resources and sale of produce may be completely missing. Relatively fewer women than men have ownership and/or secure tenure rights over agricultural land.



Women represent fewer than **5%** of all agricultural landholders in North Africa and West Asia.



In sub-Saharan Africa, the average is **14.2%**.



Globally, only **13.8%** of landholders are women.

Women working in agricultural and related activities

Women landholders

Sub-Saharan Africa



Central and Southern Asia



POVERTY

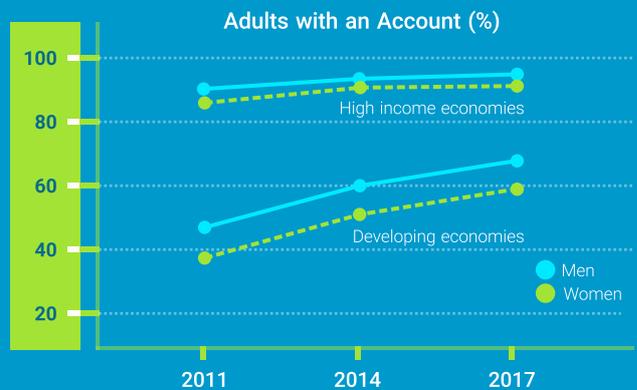
Extreme poverty is more prevalent among women. Women aged 25-34 years globally are **25%** more likely than men to live in extreme poverty.



FINANCIAL ACCESS

Not having access to banking sector is one of the leading causes of women's economic impoverishment across the globe. **56% per cent of all unbanked adults are women.** In the developing economies, the gender gap between adult men and women account holders is close to 9%.

The gender gap in account ownership persists in developing economies.



If the current trend continues, it will take **135.6 years** to close the gender gap worldwide.

Sources: UNDESA 2015; UNDESA 2019; UNDESA 2020a; UNDESA 2020b; UN Women n.d.; WEF 2020; WEF 2021; and World Bank 2017

Some of the key gender-based vulnerabilities to climate change risks and impacts that emerge as a result of different baselines are:

1. Loss of livelihoods, assets and resources: The nature of employment and the assets that women hold make them much more vulnerable to impacts of climate change. Women tend to be more dependent on natural resource-based livelihoods in comparison to men for sustenance and for off-farm income (GGCA 2016). Decline and degradation of forests, fish, honey bees and ecosystems as a whole directly affect women more than men. Women also tend to be more employed in certain sectors such as agriculture, health care, household food production, garment industry and others. In agriculture sector, they often do not have ownership of assets such as land, tools or tractor, or have any decision-making roles. Even when they are in possession of assets, they are not at par with men in terms of quality, performance and numbers. Many more women work as labourers, or as unpaid household workers doing labour-intensive menial tasks like weeding, but are excluded from decisions on crops to grow, use of fertilizers or even in accessing extension services.

Women are also employed in the informal sector with wages lower than men, poor economic growth opportunities and lack of social security (World Bank 2020). The changing climate impacts their productivity and they tend to be the first ones to lose their jobs in any adversity. Studies done in the garment industry in Cambodia and among the home-based workers from slums in India, Bangladesh and Nepal show that women experience significant decline in productivity, often up to 30 per cent, due to extreme temperatures in the summer months (Kjellstrom and Phan 2017; Mahila Housing SEWA Trust 2017). Globally, in 2020, as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, women lost more than 64 million jobs, which is about 5 per cent loss, compared to 3.9 per cent job loss for men (Oxfam International 2021). The study also estimated that women lost income worth US\$800 billion in 2020. Those engaged in handicrafts and other

allied household and cottage industries may face shortage of raw materials.

Loss of assets due to climate-induced disasters may cause irreversible losses, plunging women into poverty with limited means for recovery. In general, the asset control and ownership among women are low; even those limited assets are exposed to climate and disaster risks. Poor insurance coverage in agriculture makes women, especially women-farmers, extremely vulnerable to poverty and food insecurity in the event of crop failure due to climate-induced impacts. A study on the 2015 floods in Myanmar showed that women lost 80 per cent of all domestic livestock animals such as pigs, goats, poultry and cattle; while men lost 20 per cent of animals (UN Women 2016). In the livestock sector, women would typically own poultry like chicken and goats; only in rare cases do they own cows, bulls and the like, clearly showing why flooding impacts women's livestock ownership more than men (GGCA 2016). Disasters damaging physical infrastructure also impact women who work in smaller industries or are engaged in home-based production. Loss of a house equates to loss of livelihood or workspace and loss of safe space/shelter for women. In the absence of bank accounts, women are financially insecure to meet their emergency needs, as they lose their savings stored at their homes, and financial aid is difficult to reach them.

2. The triple burden of work: When we delve into detailed gender analysis and ask Caroline Moser's question, "Who does what?" (Moser 1993), we know that the adverse impacts of climate change have a deleterious impact on the triple burden of work that women experience in their reproductive, productive and community work-related roles. The reproductive role includes care, childbearing and responsibilities for domestic work. Poor women from urban slums, rural and far-flung areas are more involved in informal caregiving and will be most affected (ILO 2018). An Oxfam study, using minimum wages, pegged the monetary value of unpaid care work globally to be around US\$10.8 trillion (Coffey, et al. 2020). The increased health and disease burden will mean that women have to spend more hours in care giving.



While the COVID-19 pandemic has no cause-effect association with climate change, the health disaster highlights how disruptions in the system can wash away years of progress made in gender equality.

Women are often responsible for managing food, water, fuel and fodder for domestic consumption. Traditional food sources and agricultural output (particularly from subsistence agriculture) will become scarce and unpredictable with the changing climate. According to the United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), women and girls across the globe spend 200 million hours collecting water every day (UNICEF 2016). Poor water supply infrastructure and slow progress in adopting water conservation technologies will only make water supplies more uncertain, making women walk longer distances or wait for longer hours to procure water. This burden not only takes them away from schools, thus the issues of girls dropping out of schools, and deprives them from earning an income, but also exposes them to physical and sexual violence (Mian and Namasivayam 2017). In flood-prone areas, access to clean drinking water will remain an issue; frequent flooding will add to the disease burden and care giving responsibilities. Similarly, fodder and fuelwood collection will be affected; as pressure on land for production of more crops, bio-fuels and renewable energy increases, the availability of land for grazing and fuelwood will decrease.

In their productive role, women work for income (or for kind in household's economic activities) and subsistence in formal and informal sectors. As natural resources become scarce, they will experience more time poverty because they will have to engage in more reproductive roles and trade time off with the time they can spend on economic activities. In addition, more time will be dedicated to meet the practical needs or the basic needs for sustenance which will be traded off from time spent in meeting the strategic gender needs. This will further increase gender inequalities. The Global Gender Gap Report 2021 sums this up in one number. In one year of the COVID-19 pandemic, the current trajectory will now take

135.6 years to close the gender gap worldwide as against the estimate of 99.5 years in 2020 (WEF 2020; WEF 2021). While the COVID-19 pandemic has no cause-effect association with climate change, the health disaster highlights how disruptions in the system can wash away years of progress made in gender equality.

Women take responsibility as primary care givers in households. As incidences of vector-borne diseases like malaria, dengue and chikungunya; water-borne diseases like cholera, dysentery and diarrhoea; and heat wave-related morbidities increase, their work in care giving role for their family and in community will also increase. Apart from this, extreme weather conditions like cyclones, floods and heat waves will affect the already constrained natural resources, and will damage infrastructure like that of water supply and houses. These will lead to more domestic and community responsibilities for women, shifting their paid economic activities to unpaid domestic, economic and community work.

- 3. Increase in morbidity and mortality, and marginalization of sexual and reproductive health and rights:** Health impacts as a result of climate change are also gender-specific; women and girls experience unique challenges as a result of their physiology, higher exposure and lower baseline capacities compared to men (WHO 2014a). Women may sometimes be more susceptible than men to vector-borne diseases due to physiological characteristics. For example, pregnant women are twice as likely to attract mosquitoes, which kill over one million people per year (WHO 2015). Similarly, men and women differ in their capacity to regulate high temperatures, which in part can be attributed to gender differences in heat-related mortality (Lundgren, et al. 2013). However, most trends suggest that gender differences in living conditions, livelihood,

access to medical treatment, awareness and local climatic factors are more likely to affect mortality and morbidity, rather than physiological differences.

While there are only very few studies that explore the disease burden of vector-borne and water-borne diseases in the context of climate change for women and girls, there are many studies with well-defined geographic scope that attempt to explore the sex-disaggregated disease burdens climate impacts. Nevertheless, women are generally more exposed to areas of standing water than men due to their assigned roles to collect drinking water, prepare food, or take care of family members and livestock, making them prone to diseases. Mortality rate among women and girls in disasters has been known to be higher than that of men or boys (UN Women 2016). Much of these can be attributed to gendered social norms and cultural practices related to purdah, restrictions on mobility, unsuitable dressing, lack of swimming skills, limited access to early warning systems and others. A study in the Philippines (Anttila-Hughes and Hsiang 2013) showed that competition for scarce resources such as food, water and medicine within families after typhoons increased infant mortality among girls but not among boys.

Women also experience marginalization of their sexual and reproductive health rights (SRHR) during the times of climate-related disasters and humanitarian crisis. Sexual and reproductive health (SRH) services are least prioritized in humanitarian settings; even when they are provided, they tend to be limited to a few maternal health-related services (Mian 2017, 2018). Damages to sanitation facilities and scarcity of water after disasters, especially toilets and bathrooms not having running water, also restrict menstrual hygiene practices among women and girls. Studies from South and South-East Asia have highlighted problems such as relief kits not including gender-specific essential supplies; inaccessibility of family planning and SRH services due to damages to roads, bridges or broken communication channels; cyclone shelters not inclusive of the gender-specific needs of privacy,

access to toilets, safety and separate space for women and lactating mothers and many more; increased instances of unwanted pregnancy and unsafe abortions after disasters; nutritional needs of pregnant and lactating mothers take a setback; and increased gender-based violence after disasters (Aguilar, Granat, and Owren 2015; Bisan and I 2015; Castro and Hernandez 2015; GGCA 2016; Hussain 2015; Shazly and Mohamed 2015; Singh 2015; Thikey and Sychareun 2015).

Undernutrition is exacerbated during climate extreme events during and after disasters as resources become scarce. Women and girls are more likely to skip meals and offer food to the men in the family (Alston 2015; Bisan and I 2015; FAO 2018; Oxfam International 2009). Studies on the impact of climate change on undernutrition have also shown that it would result in increased disability-adjusted life year (DALY) lost in developing countries. Women are more susceptible to nutritional deficiencies compared to men because of their distinct nutritional requirements, particularly when pregnant or breastfeeding (Hussain 2015; WHO 2014b). Some of the health-related exposure also comes from the fact that, globally, 70 per cent of all health and social services staff are women, making them more exposed to communicable diseases (Boniol, et al. 2019). As caregivers, women and girls are also more prone to contracting the infections from family and close community (Joe, et al. 2020).

The spectrum of direct and indirect impacts of the changing climate and disasters on women and girls is much wider than these three broad categories of impacts. The complex interlinkages between climate change, disaster risk reduction and gender are not adequately studied. There are many gaps in situational assessments, nature of impacts and data. Women are also not a homogenous community; their diversities due to factors such as their age, ethnicity, disability or socio-economic status are often not captured. The term 'gender' has also diversified itself beyond the binary conceptions of a man and a woman. The feminist, trans and intersectionality perspective while addressing gender concerns in climate crisis is largely unaddressed.



Section 3

Structural Barriers to Gender Equality

Women have a historic disadvantage with their baselines lowered by restricted rights, poor access to resources and limited say in decision-making, leading them to be more vulnerable to climate change. These pre-existing conditions that lead to differential vulnerabilities result from a complex interplay of social, cultural, legislative and institutional factors that have become structural barriers to creating climate-resilient societies with women as equal partners and beneficiaries. The issue with most approaches to managing climate-induced vulnerabilities is that the institutional responses do not look into everyday realities and experiences of women in all their diversities, and into the root causes behind these lived realities and experiences (Rao, et al. 2019). Without understanding these root causes, there is a risk that the women with the greatest need for strengthening resilience will be left out from the benefits or the benefits will be temporary. Gender-differentiated vulnerabilities are a manifestation of gender inequality and are an outcome of the structural barriers in the external enabling conditions, which are at the root of these inequalities.

Figure 2 lists some of these structural barriers that lead to gender-based vulnerabilities to climate change and disaster risks.

**FIGURE 2:
STRUCTURAL BARRIERS AT THE ROOT OF GENDER-BASED VULNERABILITY**

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL

The triple burden of work for women results from social norms that ascribe gender roles. Women are often bound by the roles of care giving; even economic roles within the household's economic activities tend to be menial and unpaid.



Women spend **3 times** as many hours as men in unpaid domestic care work.



Women and girls in developing countries can spend up to **10 hours a week** gathering fuel and **15 hours a week** collecting water.

LEGISLATIVE

Discriminatory laws of marriage, inheritance and divorce often create barriers for women to have access and control over resources. Many countries still have laws from colonial period that have not been updated, or have laws where formal laws coexist with personal or customary laws. A 15-country study by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) showed that only a third of reporting countries had provisions guaranteeing gender equality in land ownership and/or control in their national legal frameworks.

CPIA Gender Equality Rating*
(1 low – 6 high) for the world in 2019 was **3.25**



INSTITUTIONAL

Women's participation in policy, political and institutional decision-making spaces continues to be low. Most public bodies do not have the knowledge and skills to mainstream gender, which prevents bringing in the gender perspective from policies and plans. In 81 countries, there has never been a woman head of state, as of 15th January 2021.

Women representation in



TECHNOLOGY

Technology continues to change the way the world operates. Often, gender-neutral approach to technologies makes the adoption of technologies difficult for women. Unsuitability of the technology, inertia, affordability and lack of trainings often drive poor technology adoption among women. The COVID-19 pandemic has also accelerated automation and digitalization, speeding up labour market disruption; more women have borne the brunt of this transformation.



INFORMATION

There are two kinds of information barriers. First, poor understanding of climate risks and impacts, resulting from inaccessibility to information. Communities, especially women, do not have information on weather warnings, resilient practices or information on accessing the institutional services like legal system or agricultural extension services. The second gap arises from data and information gaps. Sex-, age-, and disability-disaggregated data (SADDD) is not available at both micro and macro levels; even when it is available, the quality of the data may not be good. This creates gaps for designing gender-transformative policies and plans.



Only **17%** of the gender data needed to monitor change are currently available.

Only **24%** of the data is available for gender-specific indicators are from 2010 or later.

Only **17%** of the gender-specific indicators with data have information for two or more points in time, allowing for trend analysis.

Sources: CCA n.d.; GSMA 2020; UNDESA 2019; UNDESA 2020a; UNDESA 2020b; UN Women 2018; WEF 2020; WEF 2021; and World Bank n.d.
*CPIA Gender equality rating assesses the extent to which the country has installed institutions and programmes to enforce laws and policies that promote equal access for men and women in education, health, the economy, and protection under law.



Section 4

CSOs and Grassroot Climate Action

International agreements and commitments such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and Agenda 2030 have influenced domestic policy frameworks in most signatory countries across the globe. As a result of these international commitments, many countries have managed to advance the gender mainstreaming agenda in policies and plans looking into equity issues that go beyond just constitutional statements granting equality to men and women.

Despite years of progress made through these international commitments, there is an increasing body of research showing differential impacts of climate change on women. The domestic policies, even those that emanate from key international commitments, fall short of managing inequalities in the climate change context. At the grassroots level, the picture is different and inequalities exist quite strongly.

The economic benefits of gender equality, mitigating vulnerabilities of women and honing the leadership skills of women to be change makers at the front end dealing with climate change, are no longer anecdotal stories and established by research. Assessments of shared socio-economic pathways have shown that in sustainable development scenario, rapid improvements in gender inequality are possible, even in the near-term (Andrijevic, et al. 2020). It would be fair to say that achieving gender equality is fundamental to achieving climate and sustainable development goal. There is still a long way to the time when the domestic policies in countries can have a trickle-down effect and not leave anyone behind from the benefits of economic development.

In current times, the COVID-19 pandemic has added to the woes and has further marginalized women and girls who are already impacted by the adverse impacts of climate change (UN Women 2020a, UN Women 2020b). More importantly, the shifting priorities and competition over limited resources have put the gender-specific needs of women to adapt and enhance their resilience to climate change and disasters at a backseat. While there are opportunities to have sustainable, inclusive and equitable recovery that centres its approach around the most vulnerable such as women, girls, indigenous women, the disabled and the socially and economically marginalized people, there are also easy fall backs to return to conventional pathways, as many developing countries do not have the resources to spend “twice” or more, i.e., to spend on both COVID-19 and climate resilient actions.

All this really points to the need for “empowered CSOs” that can complement the climate action with their grassroots knowledge and community

mobilization skills, and thereby give voice to marginalized women in decision-making spaces and actively include them in designing, deploying and monitoring solutions. CSOs are key non-state actors and have an important role in bringing about accountability, in monitoring, and supporting grassroots action (Lund and Pearl-Martinez 2011; Naswa, Traerup, et al. 2015). Some of the key reasons why CSOs have an important role to play in meeting the climate goals are:

- 1. *Complementing national policies:*** National policies do not work in isolation and have to be complemented with bottom-up approaches and inputs. For instance, policies and plans that ignore gender analysis as the basis of policy design are likely to be ineffective (Young and Dhanda 2013). CSOs with their local knowledge can provide these strategic grass root inputs inputs to gender analysis and to policy design.
- 2. *Providing transformative climate solutions:*** Climate action and solutions need a lens of differential vulnerabilities and justice. There is a need for transformative systemic solutions that are customised for the complex structural entanglements and the extent of the ecological, economic, social and political crises to overcome the issues of climate injustice (Naswa 2020). In order to have that justice lens, and to leave no one behind from the benefits of development, CSOs have to be among the key stakeholders in designing, implementing and monitoring interventions.
- 3. *Magnified role in the pandemic:*** The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic has demonstrated the fragility of our social and economic systems. This pandemic is a health emergency, but it has lessons for climate emergencies. Despite the pandemic, ramping up climate action in a sustainable and inclusive manner is non-negotiable and an urgent need of the hour. The CSOs can bring about effective and efficient resource utilization in these times of crises; help the government prioritize the action; and contribute to gender analysis and impact assessments with their grassroots knowledge.

4. Mobilizing communities and promoting

people-centric approaches: The key stakeholders of the CSOs are the communities that they work with (and work for). Local and community level CSOs quite often win the trust of local communities with their work and people engagement over a period of time. Mobilizing communities, particularly to bring about change in traditional practices and norms, to organize people for collective action, and to develop community leaders are the core strengths of CSOs (Nasiritousi, Hjerpe and Linnér 2016). These are tasks that cannot be executed by the central governments. The CSOs can reach communities that are not just spatially-distanced but also those distanced by social and cultural norms.

5. Experience in different scales and spectrums of implementation:

Local CSOs have the experience of working in small scale or community-based projects. Larger CSOs operate at bigger scales. The issues experienced by communities are often inter-linked. CSOs working on gender-based violence have to work on legal and institutional support for victims; but they also have to understand and address the climate-induced triggers of gender-based violence. Through their networks and partnerships, CSOs have the

advantage of implementing and working in projects of different scales and across a wide spectrum of issues.

6. Localizing climate goals and monitoring progress:

Climate goals at the national level need inputs from local levels (for example, local data) to monitor progress in achieving them (Nazal 2018). National level goals also have to be downscaled to ensure that action plans in the pipeline achieve their targets. This kind of technical support, i.e., in providing sex-, age-, and disability-disaggregated data (SADDD) on impacts of interventions and ensuring that interventions sufficiently lead to targets, can be provided by CSOs.

7. Bridging the communication gap:

CSOs act as a communication bridge between communities and governments. Communication includes bringing the voice of the marginalized to decision-making spaces of the authorities and ensuring that the voice of the government reaches the communities. Sometimes, it can also be to ensure that technical language is simplified in policy documents, legislations and strategies; or special inclusions/exclusions are made in the documents, keeping in mind the communities' preferences and needs.



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Section 5

Policy Landscape in Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam

The policies, programmes, and legislation around climate change in the three countries have followed the evolution of international climate agenda. Simply put, their initial attempts focused on mitigation, and then aimed for a balance between mitigation and managing climate-induced risks for their vulnerable people through adaptation action.

Even with relatively insignificant contribution to global emissions, the three countries attempted to bring a green and inclusive growth lens to their economic activities and attempted to reduce the carbon intensity of GDP growth by focussing on the domestic emissions from the power sector, industry, and agriculture, energy efficiency and renewable energy alternatives. After advancements in research and greater understanding of climate vulnerabilities and actual impacts, climate change has now started featuring in the planning processes. Significant measures to enhance reliance especially of vulnerable groups have been undertaken, particularly after 2005, in all the three countries.

International policy negotiations, commitments and regional cooperation agreements have also been the driving forces for domestic legislation, strategies and action plans on gender, climate change and disaster risk reduction in the national frameworks. Table 1 gives an overview of international and regional frameworks, strategies and action plans in Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam. All the three countries are members of the United Nations, and have adopted and are committed to achieving the goals and targets listed in the Sustainable Development Agenda 2030 and the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030.

Cambodia and Vietnam are members of the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN), which undertook significant steps for regional cooperation in pursuit of achieving the goals set by the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction and developed work programmes in disaster risk reduction. Bangladesh is a member of the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC). SAARC is not as strong as ASEAN in regional cohesion, but has contributed significantly to regional knowledge exchange and prepared sectoral roadmaps for disaster resilience. SAARC has a binding agreement on Natural Disaster Rapid Response Mechanism (NDRRM). As least developed countries (LDCs), Bangladesh and Cambodia have exclusive access to certain international support measures of the United Nations, which include



support on climate change and environment (through the LDC work programme of the UNFCCC) and capital investment (through the UN Capital Development Fund (UNCDF)). The three countries are also members of the Climate Vulnerable Forum (CVF), a south-south international partnership of countries highly vulnerable to changing climate. Within this is the 'Vulnerable Twenty' or V20 group, comprising the 20 most vulnerable nations of the world.

Climate change adaptation is now becoming integral to the development agenda in the three countries and has gained a lot of momentum with the establishment of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The current phases of policies, plans, and climate action in the three countries, particularly those that have come up after 2015, focus on understanding the differential vulnerabilities and how these policies, plans and actions can make structural changes to align with the goals of the Sustainable Development Agenda 2030. The climate concerns are now also on the portfolio of many development partners that are working in close collaboration with government and non-government agencies to develop, implement and support programmes and projects that enhance resilience to climate change. Annex 1 provides details of the legislative and executive policy frameworks and actions plans in the three countries.

TABLE 1: OVERVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL FRAMEWORKS, STRATEGIES AND ACTION PLANS

	BANGLADESH	CAMBODIA	VIETNAM
National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA)	First Submission – 2005. Updated in 2009.	First Submission – 2006.	N.A.
National Adaptation Plan (NAP)	Ongoing. Expected by the end of 2021.	Developed a National Adaptation Plan (NAP) Financing Framework in 2017.	NAP for 2021– 2030 (Vision 2050).
National Gender Action Plans	Bangladesh Climate Change Gender Action Plan 2013.	—	—
Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs)	First Submission – 2016. Updated Submission – 2020.	First Submission – 2017. Updated Submission – 2020.	First Submission – 2016. Updated Submission – 2020.
	Paris Agreement Ratified – 2016.	Paris Agreement Ratified – 2017.	Paris Agreement Approved – 2016.
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)	Ratified – 1984.	Signed – 1980. Ratified – 1992.	Signed – 1980. Ratified – 1982.
ASEAN Agreement on Disaster Management and Emergency Response (AADMER) Work Programme 2021-2025	N.A.	Adopted – 2020	Adopted – 2020.
ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community Blueprint 2025	N.A.	Adopted – 2016.	Adopted – 2016.
SAARC Comprehensive Framework on Disaster Management	Adopted – 2007.	N.A.	N.A.
SAARC Road Maps¹	Prepared – 2008-2009.	N.A.	N.A.
SAARC Agreement on Rapid Response to Natural Disasters	Signed – 2011.	N.A.	N.A.
SAARC Convention on Cooperation on Environment	Signed – 2010.	N.A.	N.A.
Climate Vulnerability Forum (CVF)	Current chair and founding member since 2009. V20 Block Member.	Member since 2015.	Founding member since 2009. V20 Block Member.

¹ Road maps on Coastal and Marine Risk Reduction; Mainstreaming Disaster Risk Reduction in Development; Integration of Climate Change Adaptation with Disaster Risk Reduction; Community-Based Disaster Risk Management; and Applications for Science and Technology for Disaster Risk Management.



Section 6

Gender in Climate and Disaster Risk Reduction Policies

Constitutionally, Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam grant equal rights to men and women; they cannot be discriminated in terms of gender. The climate and disaster risk vulnerabilities of men and women, and the ultimate impacts should these risks realize, are not gender-neutral. In the last three decades, the three countries have advanced in their research and understanding of equity and equality and the need for gender-sensitive policies. In the climate and disaster realm, all the three countries have made notable gender inclusions and advancements in their policy frameworks.

BANGLADESH

Bangladesh took early steps in mainstreaming gender across its policies and plans. The five-year plans take a very human development approach, and since the fourth plan have focused on women's empowerment. The Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan (BCCSAP) 2009, National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA), and the first National Plan for Disaster Management (NPDM) 2010-2015, were the early attempts to codify climate- and disaster-related policies and acknowledged the differential vulnerabilities of women and the need for reaching the most vulnerable, including women and girls in all their diversities.

In recent years, many pro-active policies came up under the National Women's Development Policy 2011. Many public investment programmes were implemented to uplift socio-economic conditions and to strengthen the voice of women in society. Bangladesh was also one of the first few countries in South and South-East Asia to prepare Climate Change Gender Action Plan (ccGAP), which was adopted by the Ministry of Environment and Forests in 2013 to ensure gender equality into climate change policies, strategies and interventions. This GAP was embedded in the pillars of BCCSAP, stated clear objectives and activities with verifiable indicators, and highlighted specific contributions that women can make. Another important gender-specific transformation was the Climate Public Expenditure and Institutional Review (CPEIR). The first review identified as many as 37 divisions and ministries, local government institutions, non-government organizations (NGOs) and others implementing climate-sensitive activities using public funds. Each of them was expected to explain the linkages and contribution of their programme work and its objectives towards government's goals of 'poverty alleviation' and of 'women's development.' The current draft of NPDM 2021-2025 has social inclusion as a basis for achieving resilience. It is an underlying and cross-cutting strategy in all the action plans, and aims to ensure that gender considerations are mainstreamed in all the priority actions and in decision-making.

CAMBODIA

Cambodia's planning processes are in the transition phase. Initial policies and plans in climate change and sectoral plans for building resilience ensured equity and inclusion of men and women in their purpose and objectives but with limited focus on how gender mainstreaming will happen. For instance, its Climate Change Strategic Plan for Disaster Management Sector 2013 has seven strategic directions, and none of them specifically focus on gender mainstreaming. The gender part appears only in one of the sub-strategic direction which seeks to "Promote participation from women and children in disaster risk reduction and climate change." Its National Action Plan for Disaster Risk Reduction (2014-2018) only stops short at disproportionate impact of disasters and climate change on women, and the need to take into account particularly vulnerable groups. Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan (2014-2023) lists one of its goals as reducing vulnerability to climate change, particularly for those groups of people who are most vulnerable or prone to adverse impacts of climate change.

The Climate Change Strategic Plan for Gender and Climate Change (2013-2023) is of the same era but was gender-specific. All of its six specific objectives focus on empowerment of women or ensuring women's participation in the implementation of the strategy, which is cross-cutting with all relevant ministries and institutions involved. Rectangular Strategy Phase IV (2019-2023) has an all-encompassing focus on overall sustainable development. One of the "Rectangles" of this strategy is on human resource development. One of the four priority areas recognizes the importance of gender equality in all fields, and aims to enhance women's capacity and proportion of women in leadership roles at the national and sub-national levels. The most landmark of the plans is the Neary Rattanak V (2019-2023). This strategic plan, led by the Ministry of Women's Affairs, aims to promote gender mainstreaming at all levels of policies planning and across all sectors and ministries.

VIETNAM

In Vietnam, the Law on Gender Equality 2006 requires gender mainstreaming in all policy development. This entails that while formulating policies: i) gender issues and measures are defined; ii) the impacts, both base case and with interventions, on women and men are analyzed; and iii) the responsibilities for gender-specific tasks and subsequent documentation are pre-determined. Decree (70/2008/ND-CP) 2008 adds guidelines to the Law on Gender Equality. More specifically, it provides guidance on roles and responsibilities, and coordination among state agencies, ministries, People's Committee, and other agencies in the implementation of gender equality. The nodal Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs is assigned to monitor the gender mainstreaming process into policy formulation, and evaluate the implementation of the Law on Gender Equality. This was one important step towards including gender targets, gender-sensitive activities, and gender equality goals in policies, strategies and programmes.

The Climate Action Plan highlights the importance of gender equality in sustainable development. It stresses the need to conduct vulnerability assessments at sectoral, regional, and community levels, as potential climate change impacts on women can hinder the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MARD) acknowledges that women are the key beneficiaries of their policies; and have worked towards strengthening gender mainstreaming capacity for planners, decision-makers, managers, public service providers at MARD and related agencies. Vietnam has also done CPEIR for the period 2010–2013 and assessed the linkage of public expenditures and the related climate and gender objectives of five ministries.

DOMESTIC FRAMEWORK LIMITATIONS

The domestic policy frameworks and action plans have been helpful in creating an enabling environment for recognition of differential vulnerabilities, impacts and needs of men and women. There has been progress in mainstreaming gender in policies at all levels; but it has fallen short at many levels and has not resulted in the desired impact at the ground level. Some of the issues identified while assessing the existing policy frameworks are listed below. The policies have been studied as part of the desk research; these limitations do not stem from a detailed evaluation, but are merely observable limitations from the policy documents.

- **Design of policies** – Most of the policies, strategies and action plans have mainstreaming objectives; however, they do not provide guidance on how to do it. Also, these policies and action plans are often not well integrated into existing policy frameworks. Hence, there is either a discontinuity in action plans or policies end up operating as independent silos, with each trying to achieve gender mainstreaming without giving regard to competing objectives or capitalizing on existing strengths. Moreover, the implementation of action plans or even development of action plans from national strategies is inadequate. This is particularly seen in the disaster management policies and plans in the three countries where mainstreaming guidance is inadequate, the embeddedness in other policies is low, and they tend to operate in a non-integrated manner.
- **Gender analysis is missing** – A related concern is that many national action plans are prepared without looking into the current gaps or without pursuing a detailed gender analysis. At local levels, some actions are guided by local knowledge and understanding of gender dimensions. At the national levels, a 'one size fits all' approach is often adopted. The pursuit of most governments has been to move away from a gender-neutral policy design to a gender-sensitive approach, instead of leapfrogging to gender-transformative policies.

- **Data gaps** – There is also paucity of SADDD; and doing detailed primary studies require a lot of resources. Anecdotal evidence can only give some elementary direction to design of intervention. Robust gender-disaggregated data are needed to ensure effective design of climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction interventions. This data paucity is experienced at local, regional and national levels, and also across programmes.
- **Capacity and finance gaps** – The ministries, agencies and nodal officers lack gender analysis skills necessary to integrate gender issues into their respective sectoral plans and policies. They are often not aware of international frameworks or best practices and unable to effectively engage in the mainstreaming processes. In addition, when action plans are formulated, they may or may not have information on how the funding will be managed. The scale and scope of activities in the climate plans is often wide; and the overall funding for these initiatives is not enough because of the complex nature and the magnitude of the climate change phenomenon and its impact on the social and economic systems. Heavy reliance on central allocations and earmarking are the norm, instead of exploring newer sources of funding and developing financially self-reliant projects.
- **Legal validity** – The legal aspects of strategies is another concern. Following the strategies is recommended, but they may not be mandatory. There is no legal and procedural requirement in general to recognize gender aspects of climate change during project appraisal and budget proposals. Globally climate funds assess the gender components, such as objectives, and how a project will ensure gender equality in its outcomes, how gender analysis will be done and others. Gender action plans and indicators for M&E are important accompaniments in project proposals targeting climate funds. Domestically, because of lack of such assessment criteria and their legal validity, it is easy to follow business as usual practices. Often, there are no specific laws on climate change and the coverage of climate issues is under the umbrella of environmental and disaster management laws.
- **Stakeholder engagement** – It is only very recently that the three countries are expanding their stakeholder engagement processes while designing the policies and plans, instead of just having a small group of key experts or consultants prepare them. A wider stakeholder engagement, apart from being inclusive, also encourages implementation and support from communities.
- **Cross-cutting issues** – Climate change, disaster risk management and gender are cross-cutting in nature. Even though there are nodal ministries, the integration of goals is not well aligned and the institutional mechanism to coordinate and harmonize cross-sectoral interventions remains weak. Ministries continue to be ambitious about their respective sectoral goals and their appraisal systems do not require assessment of climate impact at sectoral levels. There is some progress in the countries in this aspect with more empowerment of nodal ministries; and all the three countries have set the framework conditions from a sustainable development perspective in the eighth Five-Year Plan (2020-2025), Bangladesh; Rectangular Strategy Phase IV (2018-2023), Cambodia; and the forthcoming Social and Economic Development Strategy (2021-2030), Vietnam.
- **Staff composition** – Staff participation of women and other vulnerable groups in the ministries, public agencies and departments is limited. This is particularly seen in the field of science and technology. In sectors like agriculture science and hydro-meteorology, women are under-represented. As a result, fewer female officials participate in the development and implementation of policies and plans.
- **Public expenditure review** – CPEIR in the three countries gave insights into spending on climate activities and how they meet the gender objectives. This has been a one-off exercise with no mechanism to have the reviews integrated into policy processes without external funding.



Section 7

Understanding CSO Needs: Research Framework of the Study

Climate action is a two-way street. The management and reduction of gender-differentiated vulnerabilities, and dealing with their root causes, requires a two-pronged approach. First, it requires changes in the national policies, which create the right framework conditions for operations. This is the top-down approach. Second, it needs grassroot changes in social-cultural norms and practices, and change-makers who drive the change. This is the bottom-up approach. Gaps and limitations at either end can compromise climate action and goals.

At the national policy level, the three countries, Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam, are signatories to important agreements and have taken concrete steps for mainstreaming gender in policies and planning processes. Yet the policy landscape faces limitations that diminish the effectiveness to bring about change. Similarly, there are many examples of CSOs delivering effectively on climate action by providing emergency relief in the event of disasters, by effective community, by developing community leaders for social change, and so on. Their grassroots action is also gripped by resource constraints and poor technical capacities (Lal 2014). Limitations at both ends mean that there is a long way to meeting the gender, climate and disaster goals of the 2030 Agenda.

THE GAP

Currently, the voices of women and girls, particularly from developing countries from Asia, are not dominant in the international and regional fora, partly because women-led CSOs lack the resources and experiences to advocate for change.

PURPOSE AND SCOPE

There is an urgent need to promote the involvement of women and women's groups, to build their leadership capacity to advocate for gender mainstreaming at all levels of policies and planning, and to support them for more gender-responsiveness in their climate action. It is important to ensure that the whole-of-society approach to implementation of climate commitments, enshrined in the national determined contributions, involves all concerned, including civil society, the private sector, youth, women's groups and others. The scope of this study is limited to examining the needs and capacity gaps of only the women-led CSOs operating in the field of gender issues, human rights, climate change and

disaster risk reduction, in the three pilot countries of Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The primary objective of this study is to understand the needs of women-led non-government and civil society organizations in advocating for gender mainstreaming climate change and disaster risk reduction plans, policies and projects at different levels, such as local, provincial and national, in Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam.

In addition to this primary objective, the study also makes an attempt to:

1. compile the broader issues that CSOs experience in their operations and in advocating for gender mainstreaming in climate change and disaster risk reduction policies;
2. identify the ways in which CSO networks can be reactivated/initiated; and
3. identify external support required by CSOs that goes beyond the training.

The long-term goal of this study is to bridge the gap between top-down and bottom-up approaches by strengthening capacities of CSOs by:

1. extensive application of the "Training Manual on Gender and Climate Resilience" (developed on the basis of this study) in promoting gender-responsive climate action on the ground and empowering women as change-makers in society;
2. bringing forth critical issues, such as human rights; lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer (LGBTIQ) people's rights; and sexual and reproductive health and rights in the context of climate change, that are often missed out of the development equation; and
3. preparing an action agenda that will be used for supporting a wider stakeholder dialogue among CSOs, policy makers and the people.



There is an urgent need to promote the involvement of women and women's groups, to build their leadership capacity to advocate for gender mainstreaming at all levels of policies and planning, and to support them for more gender-responsiveness in their climate action.

METHODOLOGY

This study was done in two phases. The first phase focused on the technical capacity needs assessment of the CSOs in the pilot countries. In the second phase, a training manual on “Gender and Climate Change Resilience” was prepared, based on the technical capacity needs assessment.

Training of trainers was organized in the three pilot countries based on the training manual. During these training of trainers, focus group discussions were conducted to further understand the needs of CSOs that are beyond training needs. An overview of the methodology is given in Figure 3.

FIGURE 3: METHODOLOGY

PHASE 1	
DESK RESEARCH	Desk review of national policies and programs, and international and regional commitments related to climate change, disaster risk management and gender.
CSO MAPPING	Identification of CSOs in working on issues of climate change, disaster risk management and gender equality at national and local levels.
PRIMARY SURVEY	Primary survey of a sample of 12 CSOs to understand their operating context, needs, limitations and future prospects in relation to climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction.
NEEDS ASSESSMENT	Analysis and documentation of the findings from the primary survey to identify needs in terms of knowledge and skills for advocacy.
PHASE 2	
CAPACITY BUILDING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Preparation of Training Manual. > Execution of Training of Trainers.
GAPS BEYOND TRAINING	Primary research during Training of Trainers to understand CSOs' needs beyond trainings.

PHASE I: Capacity Needs Assessment of CSOs

DESK RESEARCH

The desk review covers the background research on existing legislature, policies, programmes and regional and international commitments of Bangladesh, Cambodia and Vietnam on climate change, disaster risk management, and gender. This was done to understand the CSOs’ framework conditions for operations within the domains of climate change, disaster risk reduction and gender equality, and what implications they have in practice. It also serves to articulate the country context in

order to better understand the differential vulnerabilities and subsequent needs of CSOs experienced across the country. The desk review of policies does not evaluate the policies but highlights the key points within these policies and legal frameworks. The desk review was conducted in different periods in the three countries between September 2019 and March 2020. Annex 1 provides an overview of the policy landscape within the three countries.

CSO MAPPING

After the overview of policy landscape, the next step entailed identifying international, national and local CSOs working on issues of climate change, disaster risk reduction and gender equality in the pilot countries. The purpose of this mapping exercise was to understand the wide range of domains that the CSOs are operating in (within the umbrella of climate change, disaster risk reduction and human rights), and, more importantly, to use this CSO map to identify a pool of relevant NGOs that will be part of the primary study for the capacity needs assessment. This compilation was made through secondary sources of information. The mapping relied on information available online and information provided by leading CSOs and CSO networks. In Bangladesh, UN Women country office already had these lists. In Cambodia, apart from information available online, international CSOs provided information from their experience in partnering with other CSOs in the region. In Vietnam, the starting point was the CSOs

registered under the Law of Science and Technology (2013). At the end of this activity, a long list of CSOs working in the three domains was identified. These lists are not exhaustive and were prepared based on available information during the study. There is a possibility that not all CSOs working on those areas were identified, especially those community-based organizations whose scale is small and have not registered with the state authorities.

These long lists were further screened using criteria established by EmPower project teams in the countries to identify a list of 12 representative CSOs. All the three countries used different screening criteria and process to come up with the final 12 CSOs. Table 2 provides an overview of the shortlisting process. These 12 shortlisted CSOs then formed a part of the primary study and contributed to the detailed needs assessment.

TABLE 2: SCREENING PROCESS FOR CSOs

	BANGLADESH	CAMBODIA	VIETNAM
CSOs MAPPED	103	141	70
FIRST SCREENING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Geographic scope defined to 5 districts of Kurigram, Jamalpur, Khulna, Satkhira, and Cox's Bazar for local CSOs and Dhaka for national CSOs. > After geographic filter, 80 CSOs were identified and their operations mapped from secondary sources. > Screening Criteria: Geographic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Identification of screening criteria (8 criteria). > Application of screening criteria using checklists. > Identification of top 20 CSOs. > Screening Criteria: 8 indicators 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Administration of quick survey to 70 CSOs. > Survey assessment of responses from 30 CSOs.
FINAL SHORTLIST OF 12 CSOs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Stratified sampling using these 8 criteria. > 7 National and 5 local CSOs identified (one in each district). > Screening Criteria: 8 indicators 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Identification of 4 criteria and weighted scores > Shortlist of top 7 CSOs. > Identification of 5 CSOs from expert recommendation. > Screening Criteria: 4 Indicators and Expert Recommendation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Identification and application of 5 mandatory and 5 non-mandatory criteria with scoring mechanism. > Shortlist of 12 CSOs scoring the highest. > Screening Criteria: 10 indicators



Five CSOs were the non-scored CSOs recommended by EmPower project team. This was done keeping in mind that not all CSOs have enough information on their websites or any published repositories that do justice to the work that they are doing. Some local CSOs also operate in local languages and not listed in repositories or do not have their websites, often excluding them from such a mapping exercise.

In Bangladesh, 103 CSOs were identified and classified into two groups, namely 'national' and 'local.' National CSOs had a country-wide scope and span of activities. While this was not a requirement, all the national CSOs had their presence in Dhaka and also operated different projects outside Dhaka. Local CSOs were identified in five districts of Kurigram, Jamalpur, Khulna, Satkhira and Cox's Bazar, with their span of activities limited to their respective districts. These districts are characterized as highly vulnerable towards fresh floods, droughts and cyclones, as three of them are close to the coast. From the total 103 CSOs identified, 17 were national CSOs based in Dhaka, and 63 CSOs were local CSOs based in the five shortlisted districts. For every CSO, the information collected included: i) contact details; ii) whether it is women-led or not; iii) registration details; iv) financial details like budget; v) whether its work domain includes activities on climate change, gender and disaster risk management (either one of them, or two of them or all of them); vi) the profile and number of women beneficiaries; and vii) the geographic area of operations.

This pool of 80 CSOs was further investigated based on secondary data to identify the CSOs that met the eight criteria: i) area of operation; ii) programme management; iii) organizational structure; iv) projects profile; v) reporting impact; vi) advocacy work; vii) collaborations; and viii) emerging issues. These criteria were used as checklists based on available information. A stratified sampling process was followed. This means that all the criteria were applied in all the CSO city groups and were used to come up with one local CSO in each of the cities identified and seven national CSOs.

In Cambodia, the CSO mapping process identified 141 CSOs. Those operating at the national level and have international presence were labelled as 'International' and those CSOs that are operating exclusively at national levels (including provincial/district levels) were labelled as 'National.' The geographic span of operations of all the national CSOs was rarely in just one district, therefore there were no district level classifications. Of the total 141 CSOs identified, 128 were operating at national and local levels while 13 were international organizations. Based on these eight criteria: i) institutional capacity; ii) functionality of CSO; iii) geographical coverage; iv) communication method/capacity; v) alliance/network; vi) compliance to international human rights law/environmental framework; vii) expertise and experience in the sector/area; and viii) gender mainstreaming expertise, a shortlist of 20 CSOs was prepared. Another four criteria: i) advocacy component, strength and functions; ii) gender/human rights/climate change/disaster risk management expertise; iii) representation in CSO networks; and iv) capacity as an organization were used with weighted scores to identify seven CSOs.

The remaining five CSOs were the non-scored CSOs recommended by EmPower project team. This was done keeping in mind that not all CSOs have enough information on their websites or any published repositories that do justice to the work that they are doing. Some local CSOs also operate in local languages and not listed in repositories or do not have their websites, often excluding them from such a mapping exercise. Scoring process also inadvertently puts larger CSOs on the top, which suppresses the provincial CSOs from getting

high ranks even if they are doing good work. This expert recommendation ensured inclusion of local CSOs that are strong in advocating women rights or gender mainstreaming; even if they are currently not operating in the issues of climate change or disaster risk reduction, but have the capacities to bring up gender relevant issues through their advocacy work.

In Vietnam, a list of 70 CSOs was identified. These organizations were sent a questionnaire to understand their work and also get their interest to be part of this needs' assessment. A total of 30 CSOs responded. To shortlist 12 CSOs out of these 30, 10 criteria with different scores were identified. These included five mandatory criteria, where it was important for organizations to score something in each of them to be part of the final assessment: i) women-led organization and the organization is registered as a Vietnamese non-government organization; ii) must have interventions (projects and research) in two out of four areas: climate change response, disaster risk reduction, gender equality, and human rights; iii) has experience in doing advocacy policy at local, provincial, national and regional levels; iv) can do evidence-based research or policy impact assessment; and (v) has strong commitments, and high motivation and interest to join capacity building assessment and the capacity building programme/projects. Each of these had a maximum score of 20. Then there were five non-mandatory criteria with a maximum score of 5: i) organization has the experience to do gender analysis and/or gender mainstreaming in climate change and disaster risk reduction; ii) has strong experience to do policy advocacy at the national and regional level; iii) has personal experience of female leaders and their skills to inspire others for gender equality promotion

and climate change response; iv) work in locations which have a serious impact on climate changes and disasters; and v) has stable human resource for organizational operation.

PRIMARY RESEARCH

Primary research was carried out with 12 representative CSOs identified from the mapping exercise. Different modality was adopted in each country with a mix of questionnaire, face-to-face key informant interviews and focus group discussion. This primary research was carried out between September 2019 and April 2020 in the three countries.

In Bangladesh, a detailed questionnaire to conduct the needs assessment was prepared. The questionnaire was designed to understand the organization's potential capacity to engage in gender inclusive disaster risk reduction, climate change and humanitarian actions, including advocacy and negotiations in current stage, and what areas can they do better if provided any capacity support and what kind of capacity support they are looking for to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in their work domain. The questions were segregated in six different themes or 'gender core capacities' of: i) gender analysis and strategic planning; ii) gender-responsive programming, budgeting and implementation; iii) knowledge management, communication and gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation (M&E); iv) effective partnerships and advocacy on promoting gender equality; v) gender and leadership; and vi) innovation in gender-transformative approaches. The questionnaire was then implemented through a focus group discussion



The EmPower project team's expert recommendation ensured inclusion of local CSOs that are strong in advocating women rights or gender mainstreaming; even if they are currently not operating in the issues of climate change or disaster risk reduction, but have the capacities to bring up gender relevant issues through their advocacy work.

in a workshop setting with seven national CSOs. Three local CSOs responded to the questionnaire in a telephonic interview and two responded in a face-to-face interview.

In Cambodia, primary information was collected from the 12 CSOs through structured questionnaires. The questionnaire was segregated in four parts: i) demographic information about participants; ii) knowledge and practice on gender; iii) advocacy capacity and practice; and iv) capacity development needs. The questionnaire was administered through face-to-face interviews with six CSOs, telephonic interview with one CSO and written response by the remaining five CSOs.

In Vietnam, a questionnaire that looked into capacities of the organization in technical aspects such as gender analysis, gender-responsive budgeting; awareness about national and international frameworks; practices within the organization and others was designed and administered. As the interviewees were key informants from the organization and also with greater experience at community level, this survey served the purpose of providing a baseline understanding of the organization's capacities. This survey provided responses on how organizations self-assessed themselves on their knowledge, skills and capacity. Once the CSOs responded to this questionnaire survey, key informant interviews were conducted with their women-leaders who held director or deputy director level positions. These were structured interviews guided by questions in six thematic areas: i) strategic development capacity of the organization; ii) evidence-based research capacity of the organization; iii) policy advocacy capacity of the organization; iv) networking and partnership capacity of the organization; v) fundraising capacity of the organization; and vi) leadership capacity of the organization.

As a final step, these responses were analyzed, and a synthesis of the needs was prepared in the form of country-specific technical capacity needs assessment during the period from March to June 2020. Section 8 of this report provides an overview of the technical capacity needs identified.

PHASE 2

NEEDS BEYOND CAPACITY

The first output of the second phase of this project is a training manual, prepared in the period from May to October 2020. The "training manual on gender and climate resilience" is based on the technical capacity needs identified in the scoping studies from the three countries. It has a wide coverage of concepts, issues, policy frameworks and practices in gender mainstreaming. Furthermore, it takes a practice-oriented approach to learning that can be replicated in real life situations to enhance decision-making. This manual was introduced and implemented as a three-day training of trainers' workshop in a virtual modality in the three countries.

One of the outputs of the EmPower project is to "improve leadership and engagement of national women-led and human rights CSOs in climate change and decision-making processes running at regional and country levels." COVID-19 restrictions have prevented the organization of regional dialogues and national consultations, which aimed at providing a platform to CSOs, policy makers and other stakeholders to discuss the barriers in mainstreaming gender and human rights issues in climate change and disaster risk reduction policies. These dialogues and consultations were also meant to bridge the gap between CSOs with grassroots experience and policy makers who often have a macro view of things.

Implementing the training of trainers covers the technical capacity gaps but would not directly lead to improved leadership and engagement of national women-led and human rights CSOs in climate change and decision-making processes. To overcome this gap, and to extend the relevance of the training of trainers, focus group discussions as a reflection of the trainings were conducted in all the three countries. These focus group discussions aimed to understand the broader issues that CSOs experience in their operations and in advocating for gender mainstreaming in climate change and disaster risk reduction policies; the external support that is required beyond the training; and to come up with ways for building/strengthening CSO network.



The mapping exercise could possibly not identify all relevant CSOs, especially community-based organization whose scale is small, that do not have websites or social media presence, and have not registered with state authorities.

A standard structure of focus group discussion was followed in all the three countries, with guided questions covering the following:

1. Barriers that CSOs experience in gender mainstreaming that are beyond technical capacity gaps, such as the concerns and issues in their projects and operations or while dealing with beneficiaries and public authorities.
2. Support that the CSOs require, such as financial, technical and capacity building i.e., support beyond the scope and objectives of the training that would help them advocate for gender mainstreaming and incorporate it into their own operations.
3. Ways in which CSO networks can be initiated/strengthened.

The focus group discussion had 28 participants from 28 CSOs in Bangladesh; 38 participants from 19 CSOs in Cambodia; and 33 participants from 11 CSOs in Vietnam. Section 9 compiles the results of these focus group discussions.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study provides good insights into capacity gaps of CSOs and has the potential to guide the policy makers in creating a conducive environment for them to operate and strengthen grassroot action. This study also has some limitations that should be considered while building on this work.

First, the CSO mapping was done mainly through online desk review, from information provided by key CSO networks, and from already existing databases with UN Women or in the government's registry. Therefore, the mapping exercise could possibly not identify all relevant CSOs, especially community-based organization whose scale is small, that do not have websites or social media presence, and have not registered with state authorities. Nevertheless, this limitation is less likely to have drastic change in the capacity needs identified.

Second, for the needs' assessment, the most preferred mode of engagement with all the CSOs was face-to-face interviews. The key informants provided a lot more information in personal interactions; there were opportunities to seek clarificatory questions, and to engage in informal conversations with the respondents. However, due to limitations of time, eight CSOs in the study chose to provide written information by filling up the questionnaires.

Third, information about the projects/programmes of each the CSOs in relation to climate change, disaster risk reduction and gender can be very limited with some CSOs. Some CSOs stipulate that they work on gender issues; but in reality, their programming may not have a specific focus on gender, but it may still be mainstreamed in some projects. It is difficult to capture this information while shortlisting the CSOs based on gender criteria. This limitation will not affect the training capacity needs identified, but must be kept in mind when expanding the scope this study.

Fourth, the sample for each country is small. It is difficult to make any conclusion on baseline capacities that exist with national and local CSOs in domains of climate change, gender and disaster risk reduction within each country individually. Collectively, however, the inputs from 36 CSOs give good insights into the regional issues and gaps. The depth of assessment will increase with a larger sample and more respondents per organization.

Fifth, all the countries followed a different process of identifying a representative sample of CSOs, and a different approach to understand the gaps. The consolidation process of capacity needs may therefore have some gaps. In the same line, most of the questions in the interviews were open ended; thus, quantification of responses was not possible.

Finally, the focus group discussions in the second phase of the study were conducted in a virtual modality and in the local languages. Some of the discussion points, therefore, may have been missed due to translation and documentation errors.



Section 8

CSO Capacity Needs

The first phase of the study attempts to identify the training capacity needs of local and national CSOs in the three pilot countries to advocate for gender mainstreaming at different levels of policies, programmes and actions.

There is enough literature on the important role that CSOs can play in accelerating the process towards achieving gender equality (see Section 4); yet they feel hindered in achieving their vision, reaching out to a larger number of beneficiaries and addressing the problem of inadequate gender mainstreaming at different levels. Interactions from key informants of 36 representative CSOs in the three pilot countries conform to the fact that the CSOs are unable to realize their full potential as a result of many capacity gaps and inadequate access to resources. The CSOs, which participated in the study, were vocal about their challenges and openly talked about their capacity gaps. The training capacity needs are classified under the following broad groups:

1. TECHNICAL KNOWLEDGE NEEDS IN PROJECTS

These include all the technical knowledge gaps that the organizations experience in improving their project engagements. Strengthening technical knowledge of civil society organizations (CSOs) enables them to design and implement gender-responsive (and going forward, gender-specific and gender-transformative) projects. The need for technical capacities arose because the staff is often young, there is attrition among staff members, they are not always up-to-date with the current international frameworks and their applications, and finally even at leadership level the most recent trainings that CSOs attended were elementary in nature. The self-assessment on the awareness about current policy frameworks both domestic and international was low.

Some CSOs, particularly the ones operating at larger scales, have professionally-trained gender experts as staff members, who can implement gender projects or who can support other projects in mainstreaming components. However, they still pointed to lack of technical knowledge on mainstreaming because it becomes a one-person show, and the organization's capacity is limited to what that one person knows. The CSOs expressed interest in collaborating with other peer organizations for capitalizing on technical capacity gaps but admitted that the most common modality that they adopted to fulfil their gender-specific technical



capacity was by hiring expert consultants. This external collaboration with expert consultants does not strengthen the organization's internal capacity.

Another aspect that the organizations pointed out was the interlinkages of issues. They have good knowledge about their core areas but fall short in inter-linking them with gender, climate change and disaster risk reduction. For example, organizations working on gender-based violence or disabilities do not have much knowledge in the field of climate change and disaster risk reduction. Those working in the domain of environment and ecosystem do not have in-depth knowledge about gender, especially the intersectionality aspects. Poor knowledge about inter-linkages of issues within their work domain prevents CSOs from advancing their work and reaching out to more beneficiaries. One important capacity need that came out was on data collection methods and needs. Some CSOs felt that through their grassroots work, there were opportunities to collect data for use by many more organizations and public bodies. However, their knowledge on SADD, its collection processes, and assessments (for both qualitative and quantitative data) was very limited.

There is also a noticeable difference between capacity needs of CSOs operating at a small, local or community scale and those with sizeable operations. They also came up with some more

basic skills requirement such as computer literacy. The local CSOs considered lack of skilled manpower as a challenge for their work. The local CSOs were more into humanitarian assistance compared to the bigger national and international CSOs, so they also have specific technical needs to strengthen their humanitarian assistance work. It was evident that baselines for local and national CSOs were different, but this study does not make a segregated assessment. Another important limitation for local CSOs is that training material is not available in local language. Their awareness about capacity building workshops is also low; even if they are aware, translation facilities are not available, creating barriers for their participation. Therefore, they can effectively make use of only the trainings organized by local public authorities. However, the frequencies and scope of these trainings are often not compatible with the specific needs of CSOs.

Some of the thematic areas identified for technical capacity strengthening include:

- a. Understanding of climate and disaster risk, human rights and gender equality;
- b. Linkages of climate change, disaster risk reduction and gender within the SDG framework;
- c. Sector-specific approaches for resilience, highlighting impacts and strategies for engagements;
- d. Fundamentals of integrating gender in climate and disaster risk reduction projects;
- e. Tools and methods for gender analysis and gender mainstreaming;
- f. Conducting evidence-based research methods, processes, key issues, good practices for gender assessments, overcoming data limitations;
- g. Preparing gender action plans;
- h. Gender-responsive M&E;
- i. Strengthening the role of women and enhancing their leadership capacity;
- j. Maximizing social, environmental and economic co-benefits, and strengthening gender outputs of projects.

2. LEADERSHIP CAPACITIES

One aspect of training and capacity building is to strengthen the technical capacities. However, to leapfrog in their achievements, the female leadership

of CSOs must be provided with specialized leadership programmes that can drive transformational change in gender-responsive climate change and disaster risk reduction policy and planning at all levels. The leadership programmes must incorporate a mentorship approach, primarily because enhancing leadership skills is an ongoing process and will not happen immediately. For example, the skills to identify target policymakers and the skills to work with them, and how to mobilize the financial resources for policy advocacy come over a period of time. Similarly, knowledge of regional best practices in mainstreaming gender and human rights in climate change and disaster risk reduction project interventions in all phases of a project (problem analysis, planning, implementing, M&E) is a technical “must have” strength at the leadership level.

Some of the thematic areas identified for building leadership capacity include:

- a. Knowledge of regional best practices in climate resilience;
- b. Orientation to successful gender-responsive projects and project ideas in climate change and disaster risk reduction;
- c. Understanding of international architecture for climate change, disaster risk and the gender mandates and the entry points for CSOs;
- d. Understanding of domestic policy landscape entry points within the policy and planning cycles;
- e. Linking organization’s operations and project activities with international and regional commitments;
- f. Gender-responsive proposal writing and project design skills;
- g. Enhanced skills in gender analysis and understanding of human rights approaches to guide and mentor colleagues and peer organizations;
- h. Climate finance opportunities and entry points for CSOs;
- i. Gender-responsive budgeting and contribution of CSOs to ensure gender budgeting at policy levels.
- j. Awareness of and access to CSOs networks (cross-cutting need);
- k. Strategies to strengthen partnerships with government agencies (cross-cutting need).



Many CSOs participating in the study were small in size, and felt the need to be a part of CSO networks to seek complementarity in their capacities and learnings, and collaborate for future work.

3. ADVOCACY NEEDS

Most CSOs reported that a positive engagement with key provincial and district stakeholders in climate change, disaster risk reduction and gender-related projects from planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluating and adjusting project plans was crucial for the success of their work. A constructive engagement clears policy bottlenecks for CSOs to execute their activities and in the process, all partners build on each other's capacities. Their engagement also creates a sense of local ownership. This engagement, depending upon the political circumstances and sometimes even depending upon individual personalities, can sometimes become a hurdle in the operations of CSOs.

Advocacy needs identified by CSOs are to influence local government to mainstream gender, such as in gender-responsive budgeting and inclusive decision-making processes. Local and provincial advocacy can be developed as the core strengths of individual CSOs; for instance, in developing leadership skills among women and honing them as change makers. Power dynamics and limited knowledge on technical issues among state/public officials can be a hindrance. Therefore, engaging the officials in capacity building trainings would contribute to setting up a positive working environment.

Another important need identified was of CSO networks. Many CSOs participating in the study were small in size, i.e., small in their budget, in the scale of operations and in their employee strength. They felt the need to be a part of CSO networks to seek complementarity in their capacities and learnings, and collaborate for future work. Their awareness of CSO networks was low; if there was any network that they were aware of, the goal of that network did not align with their organization's vision. Networking opportunities to meet other CSOs, operating domestically and regionally, were also limited.

Networking opportunities are even more important for local CSOs to ensure that their perspectives are shared with those that are operating at a national level or a regional level.

Some of the thematic areas identified for building advocacy capacity include:

- a. Knowledge of CSO networks and strategies to engage with existing networks;
- b. Linking organization's operations and project activities with international and regional commitments (cross-cutting need);
- c. Awareness of networking opportunities/forums to exchange ideas and/or engage with peer CSOs;
- d. Training on policy advocacy skills: Emerging issues in climate change, disaster risk reduction, gender, regional experiences, mainstreaming gender, gender-responsive projects and policies, community resilience planning, gender-responsive budgeting (cross-cutting need);
- e. Understanding of international policy and finance architecture and domestic policy landscape for climate change, disaster risk and the gender mandates, and the entry points for CSOs (cross-cutting need);
- f. Preparation of annual advocacy plan.

4. ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

Some CSOs self-assessed themselves above average on management competence. At the same time, open-ended responses brought about a lot of internal management capacity needs. A possible explanation for this is that the CSOs are drawing a comparison with their peers, where they rate their management and operating practices much higher than the others, and at the same time, they see a lot of room for improvement.

CSOs engage with different external stakeholders; key ones from those are the steering/executive committee, donors, public authorities and

beneficiaries. Strengthening their engagement and communication with these key stakeholders came as an important need. Integrating gender into strategic focus of organizations also needs engagement from Board members or the steering committee of organizations.

An organization level need for maintaining a transparent fund record for tracking financial flows to keep with donor expectations also came up. Transparency in financial flows is linked to systems and documented guidelines for budget preparation, to meet targets and report results. Communicating results also emerged as a need, but it is closely related to strengthening gender-responsive M&E. Training on implementing and managing projects effectively and knowing about standard and best practices from the region are also needed. In addition, some local CSOs expressed the need to strengthen their humanitarian response during disasters.

Some of the thematic areas identified for strengthening organizational development include:

- a. Improving documentation of climate and disaster risk reduction projects;
- b. Strengthening stakeholder engagement and communication;
- c. Orientation to good practices on transparency, particularly those that are in agreement with international practices;
- d. Knowledge on topics to strengthen humanitarian assistance: First-aid and CPR, providing flood relief, preparation of emergency kits; managing mental health support and disaster-induced post-trauma stress;
- e. Long-term strategy for organizational development, including organizational level gender practices and policies;
- f. Orientation to domestic legal frameworks to guide their women beneficiaries;
- g. Gender-responsive budgeting mechanism for projects (cross-cutting need);
- h. Internal fund management to efficiently maintain separate funds for crisis management and emergency humanitarian response.

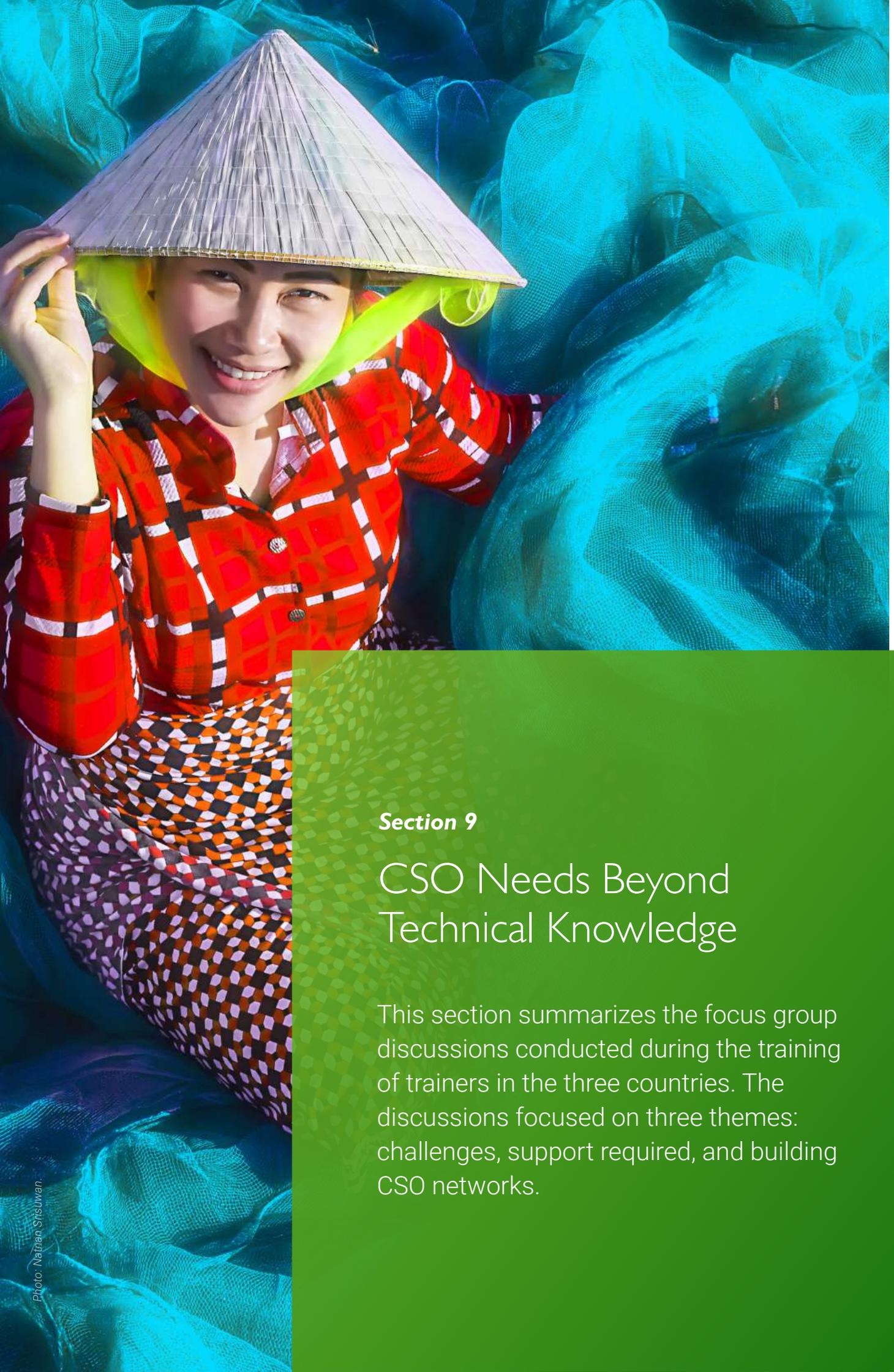
5. RESOURCE MOBILIZATION

The need for resources, both financial and technical, was common to all CSOs under this study, to fund their activities and expand their scope of work. Many expressed the need for being introduced to donors and getting access to long-term funding sources. They were not aware of funding opportunities and even donor requirements for accessing those opportunities. For mobilizing technical resources, networking with other CSOs was identified as an important need. The CSOs acknowledged that because their projects are not well designed in terms of gender-responsiveness, they are unable to tap resources from open calls. Communicating results was also not effective, so the good work of CSOs is also not sufficiently known in the donor circles.

It is important to note that resource mobilization does not happen with just awareness of funding opportunities, but will depend upon overall capacity strengthening of the CSOs to design and implement gender-responsive projects, communicate results, and strengthen their partnerships with external stakeholders.

Some of the thematic areas identified for strengthening resource mobilization are listed below. However, they would rarely work in isolation, and, except the need for awareness about funding opportunities, the rest are cross-cutting needs that also emerge in other thematic needs identified above.

- a. Awareness about donors, financing criteria, objectives and interests;
- b. Gender-responsive proposal writing and project design skills;
- c. Strengthened network and partnerships with external stakeholders, organizations and government bodies;
- d. Improving documentation of a climate and disaster risk reduction projects;
- e. Orientation to good practices on transparency;
- f. Awareness of and access to CSOs networks.



Section 9

CSO Needs Beyond Technical Knowledge

This section summarizes the focus group discussions conducted during the training of trainers in the three countries. The discussions focused on three themes: challenges, support required, and building CSO networks.

A. CHALLENGES

The first set of guided questions looked into challenges that CSOs experienced, which are beyond the reach of outcomes from conventional trainings. The responses have been compiled in the following map by categorizing all the concerns, issues and

barriers: i) in mainstreaming gender considerations in their projects and operations; ii) in dealing with beneficiaries; and iii) while advocating for gender mainstreaming in their dealing with authorities, policy makers and beneficiaries.

Figure 4 organizes all the responses received in a map of challenges at different levels.

FIGURE 4: MAP OF CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED IN GENDER MAINSTREAMING BY CSOs				
BENEFICIARY	PROJECTS	LOCAL	PROVINCIAL	NATIONAL
Religion and religious leaders are important factors.	Power dynamics among CSOs do not let smaller ones get resources. Bigger CSOs have access to more information and technologies while the smaller ones don't.	Availability of SADD data in particular at sub-national levels is poor.		Top-down approach of national policy frameworks is a big challenge for gender mainstreaming. It is inadequate without proper engagement of stakeholders at all levels.
Male domination continues to be a challenge. Establishing trust among local communities and driving social and cultural change takes time. Even when you train women change makers, their work is limited and influenced by the male members of the family.		Government has not created enough networking opportunities.	No option of special grants for women-led organizations.	
	How does one assess the quality of mainstreaming? Establishing some criteria for gender responsiveness is necessary.		Representation of women is poor at levels of policy-making.	
	Knowledge of gender-responsive budgeting is poor.		CSOs can ensure participation of women in initiatives but have no mechanism to measure empowerment. Women are often in attendance but do not voice their opinions. Sometimes women get trained and men decide for them even though they have not been in the training.	
Understanding of difference between gender equity and equality, and other knowledge of gender related issues, is poor among public officials, particularly at local and provincial level. It becomes difficult to bring them on board.	The policy processes are not backed by evidence-based advocacy and in-depth research about gender. Gender analysis is often missing from strategies. Stakeholder engagement is limited to some experts who may not know details of ground level vulnerabilities.			
Cannot directly train communities without localized training tools.	Safety equipment volunteers and relief packages including first-aid kits to deal with humanitarian crisis are needed.	At the commune level, many times women members of councils report that the commune chiefs do not support and value the work of women council members. Women are therefore fending for themselves even in institutional set-ups.	Key gender-specific issues such as sexual and reproductive health, disability and gender-based violence get skipped very easily from planning processes and often have to be traded-off with competing priorities.	
Due to migration many households are led by older women who become project beneficiaries. Younger women in households get overshadowed by cultural norms that command respect for elders.			There is no legal requirement to integrate gender in projects.	Technical documents and strategies for gender mainstreaming at policy level are inadequate and the ones that exist do not have sufficient practical information.
				Gender, climate change and disaster are cross-cutting issues. There are no streamlined mechanisms to deal with inter-disciplinary issues.

B. SUPPORT REQUIRED

The next set of questions attempted to identify a broad list of support that the CSOs require beyond this training, i.e., all kinds of support beyond the scope and objectives of this training that will help

CSOs advocate for gender mainstreaming and incorporate gender consideration effectively into their own operations. All the responses in requirements for support are grouped by the complexity of executing or operationalizing that support and the financial requirement to provide the support (see Table 3).

TABLE 3: SUPPORT REQUIRED FOR GENDER MAINSTREAMING

		FINANCIAL IMPLICATIONS		
		LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH
COMPLEXITY IN EXTENDING SUPPORT	LOW	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Protective equipment for the volunteers supporting emergency situations. > Access to health care and first-aid kits. > Training materials and package for community level. > Training support on developing local adaptation strategies, legal frameworks, first-aid and mental health. > Innovative information, communication and education tools in local language to support community engagement such as banners, posters, flyers, flipcharts, videos on climate change and gender. > Technical training on how to conduct virtual trainings (among peer organizations and for engaging with local communities) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Computer literacy in communities along with provision of fully functional computers equipped with internet at community centers to strengthen learning and information exchange such as within the fishing community. > Technical working group with key stakeholders to periodically assess the capacity gaps and emerging needs. > Virtual interaction platforms with communities, particularly relevant now due to movement restrictions resulting from the pandemic. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Building a functional CSO network that provides a platform to support its member-organizations through information sharing, learning and exchanging experience, and for joint advocacy on gender mainstreaming in climate change and disaster risk reduction. > The network platform to also support experience sharing and networking opportunities domestically and regionally. > A technical working group within the network platform can be constituted to liaison between the government and CSOs groups.
	MEDIUM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Joint training for policy makers and CSOs to overcome the knowledge gaps between the two stakeholder groups. > Build a network platform for sharing information, updates, learning and exchange. > Financial support to replicate this training. > Training material on gender-mainstreaming, best practices and practical usage of tools and methods. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Financial support for vocational training of women. > Financial support to help the working mothers by establishing the community-based day care centers. > More support for leadership programmes for women in local communities. > Support for attending international conferences and regional dialogues. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Establish mechanisms for robust gender analysis with opportunities for CSOs to contribute to the process. A detailed gender analysis to be a pre-requisite for formulation of policies, plans and strategies. > Establish a framework of indicators for monitoring and evaluation. > Establish some benchmarks for what qualifies as good gender-mainstreaming.
	HIGH	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Special funding for women-led organizations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Financial and technical support to mainstream gender in commune level investment and development plan. > Dedicated funds for CSOs.

C. BUILDING CSO NETWORKS

The final set of questions engaged the participants into identifying the ways in which CSO networks can be initiated and the purpose of those CSO networks. Building CSO networks emerged as need from scoping studies, where the key informants from the participating CSOs felt the need to be part of a network; but they were not aware of any relevant and active networks that they could join. Collaboration through networks helps them build on each other's competencies, and, in the future, also design projects of the right scale and scope.

Some of the potential purpose and functions of a CSO network identified are:

- a. To provide a common space for CSOs to enhance their learning, sharing information and experiences on gender, climate change, disaster risk reduction, women's right and governance;
- b. To support the capacity building of CSOs and stakeholders on gender, climate change and disaster risk reduction.;
- c. To advocate and influence policies on gender, climate change and disaster risk reduction;
- d. To collaborate and monitor policies implementation; and
- e. To collaborate for jointly designing and implementing projects.

The general awareness of participants about existing CSO networks within their countries was low. Even if they were aware of the networks or a part of any informal networks, these were either dormant, their operations were small, or the focus areas did not match the objectives of CSOs. In all the three focus group discussions, the voice for exploring the potential of existing networks, even if they were small in scale, came out very strongly. Participants favoured a strong national platform over many smaller groups operating sporadically. They largely also agreed for the need to establish formal processes at these networks, which in turn will ensure adequate support to CSOs, ensure continuity of engagement even if the employees representing a CSO at the platform leave the organization, and most importantly help them overcome many challenges by virtue of collective advocacy at national and regional level.

Some important considerations for establishing a national CSOs network platform include:

- a. Starting point: Identify existing network that has the potential to be scaled up. The existing network may have a purpose which may not be in the nexus of gender, climate change and disaster risk reduction. In that situation, some skill sets and objectives in the network will have to be added to expand the scope of the work and purpose of the network.



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- b. Priorities and purpose: The common priorities for projects, aligning those with national and international frameworks and legislations, will have to be pursued at the onset. Network's engagement has to be guided by a purpose that all network members can relate to, or else it will lead to unguided meetings and ultimately loss of membership and interest.
- c. Resources: Managing and maintaining a network is a very resource-intensive task. It needs a steady budget to ensure sustainability. Some of the bigger CSOs can earmark a certain percentage of their annual programme/project budget to support the network's activities. The possibility for establishing a small secretariat by a bigger CSO that would hold the network leadership should be considered. A rotating leadership with a stable secretariat can also be considered. Most CSOs, especially the small community-based organizations, do not have the resources or budget allocations to even be a part of such a network's activities, let alone drive the network. Therefore, it is important to get technical, financial and human resource support from public agencies and international donor organizations under the supervision of a relevant UN agency.
- d. Formal processes: Collective voice is possible only if the network's objectives, goals and vision are established, under the umbrella of which the network's operations are conducted. Formal protocols that establish the modalities of engagement and a mandate that gives framework to network's activities will also have to be established. The guiding principles will determine the operations at different levels, like national, provincial, also regional if relevant. Similar formal procedures for documentation of engagements and modes of sharing knowledge will have to be determined. All these can be done by a smaller working group within the network.
- e. Membership and joining protocols: One of the most important aspects of the formal processes will be to establish membership criteria. For example, a CSO seeking membership may be expected to brief how the vision and goal of the network is aligned with the CSO's work. The members may be expected to follow certain processes such as appointing a representative from the organization as the focal person for the network, attendance in say at least 50 per cent of meetings through the year and others.
- f. Special initiatives: While the main purpose of the network would be to strengthen their advocacy capacity, some provisions in the network should also be made for allied activities. An example would be inviting women representatives from local communities and local governments to join the network meetings, as they can be partners for joint advocacy.
- g. Technology platforms: Establishing a network platform is very resource-intensive and may take some time. Possibilities of smaller engagement groups with limited scope over on freely available platforms like google groups and telegram should be explored and encouraged.



Section 10

Concluding Remarks

Climate change and its adverse impacts have unfortunately become part of the operating conditions for many developing countries. It is no longer an “externality” but a lived reality that people on frontline of the impact must deal with every day.

The ground level gender-based vulnerabilities to climate impacts are indicative of some things. Some observations from the study are:

First, the desk research in the three countries confirms that there are many national policies, strategies and plans in climate change and disaster risk reduction domain that include gender components; yet at the sub-national level, the impact experienced is differential. This indicates that the national level mainstreaming is not trickling down into action and activities at the ground level.

Second, the gender components included in policies and strategies do not set their basis on in-depth gender analysis. Many of the policies examined in the study either do not link to external reports on gender analysis or present a very limited overview of gender analysis. The poor embeddedness of strategies and plans in detailed gender-analysis also emerged as a key external challenge in the focus group discussions. As a result of this disconnect, the policies do not achieve their intended goals. In many policies and strategies, the gender mainstreaming processes do not have a concrete road map and are not transformative enough, thereby limiting their scope and purpose to merely acknowledging the gender differences.

Third, the primary research with 36 CSOs working in the domains of climate change, disaster risk reduction and gender (and their intersections) in the three pilot countries shows that they are aware of gender differences and would like to advocate for more effective mainstreaming of gender. However, they experience many capacity barriers in gender mainstreaming, either in their project level activities or in advocating for it at local, sub-national and national levels.

Fulfilling the capacity gaps at the end of CSOs can potentially strengthen gender mainstreaming at different policy and programme levels and also present a more effective grassroots picture of local problems during policy formulation at all levels.



Besides complementing national policies, “empowered CSOs” can accelerate grassroots climate action with innovative climate solutions, honing women change makers, mobilizing communities and adopting people-centric approaches.

In the phase 2 of this study, through focus group discussions in training of trainers, some issues beyond capacity gaps and suggestions for external support required to create a conducive environment were also identified. Based on the insights from the discussions, the following are some recommendations for policy makers classified based on time frame. These recommendations are for the policy makers to create an enabling environment for CSOs to operate and accelerate grassroots climate action, and to meet their finance, technology and capacity building needs that are not covered by trainings on technical knowledge gaps. The short- to medium-term recommendations are relatively low-cost interventions that are achievable in the time frame of three years. The medium- to long-term recommendations are high on complexity and budget requirements but are also high-impact interventions.

SHORT- TO MEDIUM-TERM RECOMMENDATIONS (1-3 YEARS):

1. Communication tools package: One of the urgent needs of the CSOs is to have more innovative information, communication and educational tools to engage with local and indigenous communities for promoting climate-resilient behaviour; orienting them to climate risks, vulnerabilities and gender issues; and encouraging action. Creating a communication tools package in partnership with communication experts that has flyers, flipcharts, videos in local languages can help advance the work of CSOs in community-based adaptation action. This can be a standard package accessible to all CSOs operating in the field and be made available on demand from the CSOs. Other alternative is to do a detailed needs assessment and custom design the package for different issues and geographies.

2. Information platform: Language is a big barrier for local CSOs, inhibiting their access to resources; and quite often they are not aware where these resources can be accessed from. A common information platform can serve as a resource repository of technical material local language, and as a channel for sharing updates with subscribers.

3. Critical gender issues: The nexus of sexual and reproductive health and rights, disability, gender-based violence, LGBTIQ people's needs in the context of climate change and disaster-led humanitarian crisis are often the missing pieces in climate change and disaster risk related discourses, programmes and implementations, or at best may be superficially included in the national frameworks. An expert group can look into these issues with the purpose of identifying how they can be included in long-term programming at different levels.

4. Periodic assessments: This study is a one-off regional assessment. A periodic assessment, even a rapid one, on issues and capacity gaps of CSOs can be included in the climate strategy.



This will ensure that strengthening capacities of CSOs is encoded as a strategy for achieving climate goals. It will also ensure that regular action plans are prepared for strengthening capacities of CSOs. This is also important because the needs for local and national CSOs cannot be generalized. Their scale of operations, nature and scope of work, and the extent of community engagement will determine what they require to strengthen their work.

5. Participation in external events: CSOs also expressed the need to participate in regional and international fora that give them opportunities to know about international frameworks and best practices. A grant fund can be made available for CSOs who have interesting outcomes to showcase. This can be done on a pilot basis; and an evaluation of the pilot can suggest whether a regular grant mechanism should be pursued. National delegations to international and multi-lateral engagements can include CSO representatives. Both of these options would entail setting up some criteria for CSO participation.

MEDIUM- TO LONG-TERM RECOMMENDATIONS (3-6 YEARS):

1. CSO networks: One of the important ways highlighted by CSOs to strengthen their work is by organizing them into a network or a coalition of partners. As this is a very resource-intensive task, the efforts until now have not yielded operational good networks in the region. Building a network and providing them a tech-based platform for operations can be a resource-intensive task. It is recommended that a detailed assessment be done on mechanisms to build CSO networks and pilot test such a network to see if it is operable and if it is meeting the agreed objectives. If successful, then the long-term goal should be to make the network self-sustaining. Until that happens, interim funding provisions can be made; and in the long run, some non-government funding mechanisms can be created to sustain the CSO network.

2. Gender and climate change policy frameworks: The gender and climate change policy frameworks need a careful assessment to enable CSO engagement at all levels. CSO inputs also need stronger integration with gender analysis, where the CSO engagement can be fruitful.

3. National M&E system: A national framework for monitoring and evaluation of climate change adaptation will strengthen gender mainstreaming and gender-responsive programme action. This is a resource and data intensive work. However, many countries have initiated work in this direction in pursuit of monitoring progress towards the SDG targets.

This study is an attempt to understand the capacity gaps from a regional perspective. This is a small-scale study but gives insights into the common issues of CSOs from the region. The training of trainers conducted in May and June 2021 was one attempt to fulfil these capacity gaps. It also points to the need for more such interventions that go beyond fulfilling technical capacity gaps of CSOs. There is a need for more strategies for bridging the gap between national and sub-national policies, operationalizing them through systematic mechanisms and implementing the strategy-related interventions to accelerate gender-responsive climate action. This study can be further extended to find these top-down and bottom-up bridging strategies that empower CSO's and create favourable enabling conditions for their operations.



ANNEX I.I: POLICY LANDSCAPE

BANGLADESH	CAMBODIA	VIETNAM
GENDER – CONSTITUTIONAL STATUS		
<p>> The constitution of People's Republic of Bangladesh 1972, in its Article 38, states, "The State shall not discriminate against any citizen on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth." The constitution ensures equality of women and men. The Article also authorizes special provisions in favour of women or children to ensure equality. In addition, there are other constitutional provisions that permit affirmative actions for women to ameliorate their socio-economic conditions and empower them politically.</p>	<p>> The constitution of Kingdom of Cambodia 1993, in its Article 31, states, "The Kingdom of Cambodia recognizes and respects human rights as enshrined in the United Nations Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human rights and all the treaties and conventions related to human rights, women's rights and children's rights." The constitution provides the basis for gender equality in policies, legislation and programmes.</p>	<p>> The Constitution of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam 2013, in its Article 26, states, "Female citizens and male citizens have the same rights in every aspect of politics, economy, society, and family." The constitution provides a strategic basis to make gender equality more realistic in the social and political context of Vietnam.</p>
KEY GENDER LEGISLATIONS AND ACTION PLANS		
<p>> National Women Development Policy 2011 aims to "create a society where men and women will have equal opportunities and will enjoy all fundamental rights on an equal basis." The policy has set 20 goals to empower women.</p> <p>> Five-year plans from the fourth plan (1990-1995) have adopted an efficiency-based approach to mainstream gender and make a conscious effort for women's empowerment in the planned activities.</p> <p>> Gender Diagnostics, Policy, Strategy and Action Plan for National Social Security Strategy in Bangladesh 2019 is a strategy document that identifies gender action plans for key line ministries and gives framework for design and delivery of social security programmes that will support women's empowerment and reduce inequalities.</p>	<p>> Neary Rattanak is a Five-Year Gender Strategic Plan led by the Ministry of Women's Affairs. The fifth plan is going on since the time these plans started in 1999 (1999-2003; 2004-2008; 2009-2013; 2014-2018; 2019-2023). It also stems from the Rectangular Strategy which is the master framework for national strategic development. The current Neary Rattanak aims at gender mainstreaming in policies, strategic plans, programmes across sectors, and all spatial and planning levels in areas of priority areas of economy, education, health, legal protection, governance and climate change.</p> <p>> Cambodian Gender Assessments are periodic assessments done every five years (2004, 2008, 2014, 2018) in consultation with key stakeholders to provide a comprehensive analytical overview of gender in all sectors. These then form the basis for mainstreaming gender in line ministries, for gender policy and planning, and serve as an important input to Neary Rattanak.</p> <p>> National Policy on Gender Equality (forthcoming) is in the pipeline. It provides a roadmap to achieve the gender equality in line with SDGs.</p>	<p>> Law on Gender Equality – Law 73/2006/QH11, came into force from 01 July 2007. It legalizes gender equality in all fields such as politics, economy, work, education and training, science and technology, culture, communication, sport, public health, and family relationship. It also provides instruction on gender mainstreaming in the legislative formulation, and promotion of gender equality by state agencies, ministries, organizations, and families.</p> <p>> National Strategy on Gender Equality 2021-2030 is successor to the same policy from the period 2011-2020. The strategy aims to respond to the existing emerging gender-based challenges and provide an action plan to achieve the gender equality goals in the 2030 Agenda.</p> <p>> National Program on Gender Equality, 2011-2015 (Decision 1241/QD-TTg), aimed to transform public awareness and promote behavioural changes in gender equality, take steps to bridge the gender gap, promote women in high-risk areas of inequality, and contribute to the successful implementation of the National Strategy on Gender Equality 2011-2020.</p>

ANNEX I.2: POLICY LANDSCAPE

BANGLADESH	CAMBODIA	VIETNAM
KEY FRAMEWORKS AND STRATEGIES FOR CLIMATE CHANGE AND DISASTER RISK REDUCTION		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan 2009 is a 10-year plan for strengthening capacity and reducing vulnerability of Bangladesh to climate-induced risks and challenges. It recommends 44 actions in the areas of food security, social protection and health; comprehensive disaster management; infrastructure; research and knowledge management; mitigation and low-carbon development; and capacity building and institutional strengthening. > Bangladesh Climate Change Gender Action Plan 2013 aims to mainstream gender in climate change action, policies, programmes and frameworks; explore opportunities to promote gender equality in climate action; and facilitate transformational change while achieving climate goals. > Bangladesh Climate Fiscal Framework 2014 provides framework conditions for matching demand and supply of climate fiscal funds. It achieves transparency by allocating climate funds to priority sector, identifying the demand areas and sources of funding them from domestic and international sources, and ensuring a governance framework for managing these funds and reporting on these funds in a transparent and efficient manner. > National Plan for Disaster Management 2016-2020 – adopted in 2017, focuses on emerging risks resulting from climate change and rapid urbanization. The plan aims to promote coherence between disaster management and sustainable development plans; make disaster risk management a norm for achieving resilient public investment; build internal capacities and leadership at levels of governance and planning; and promote and share knowledge and information among stakeholders. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Climate Change Strategic Plan for Gender and Climate Change 2013-2023 is a 10-year strategic plan that ensures gender perspectives and human rights-based approaches are used in climate change response in Cambodia. > Master Plan on Gender and Climate Change 2018-2030 aims to strengthen gender-responsive policy/strategy and effective coordination between the Ministry of Women's Affairs and sector ministries, civil society and private sector; strengthen gender-responsive institutional capacity; demonstrate the benefits from gender-responsive climate action through pilots; and enhance emergency preparedness > Gender and Climate Change Action Plan 2014-2018 aims to enhance women's participation into climate change related policy-making. > Strategic Plan for Disaster Management Sector 2013 aims to build communities that are resilient to disasters caused by climate hazards, by launching common measures to mitigate risks, by reducing people's vulnerability to climate change hazards, by strengthening the Disaster Management system, and by being actively involved in disaster risk reduction activities, which are the core element of building resilient communities. > National Action Plan for Disaster Risk Reduction 2014-2018 aims to “pursue proactive and integrated ways to reduce risk to hazards through sustainable, innovative and realistic strategies with stronger partnership of all stakeholders.” > Cambodia Climate Change Strategic Plan 2014-2023 has a vision to develop Cambodia towards a green, low-carbon, climate-resilient, equitable, sustainable and knowledge-based economy. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > National Strategy on Climate Change Response (Decision 2139/QD-TTG) 2011 – This long-term strategy aims to ensure food, energy and water security, poverty alleviation, gender equality, social security, public health; enhance living standards; conserve natural resources in the context of climate change; achieve a low carbon and green economic growth trajectory; strengthen scientific and technological capacities and human resources; create opportunities for climate-compatible social and economic development; and collaborate with international stakeholder to address climate change effectively. > Action Plan on Climate Change Response of Agriculture and Rural Development Sector in the Period 2011-2015 and Vision to 2050 (Decision No. 543/QD-BNN-KHCN) aims for a climate-resilient and sustainable agriculture and rural development. > National Action Plan on Climate Change Response for 2012-2020 (Decision 1474/QD-TTG) aims to build capacity in forecasting and monitoring climate change and disaster risks; ensure food security and water resource management; adopt green and sustainable economic growth; build management capacity and policy framework to respond to climate change; and collaborate internationally to mitigate climate risks. > Decision on Promulgation of the Climate Change Adaptation Framework Action (Decision No. 2730/QD-BNN-KHCN) aims to maintain security and safety across the vulnerable mountainous and deltaic regions; and promote and develop climate-resilient infrastructure.

ANNEX I.3: POLICY LANDSCAPE

BANGLADESH	CAMBODIA	VIETNAM
KEY FRAMEWORKS AND STRATEGIES FOR CLIMATE CHANGE AND DISASTER RISK REDUCTION		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > National Plan for Disaster Management 2021-2025 (Draft) has taken a more multi-stakeholder and inclusive approach in its preparation, implementation status of previous plans, planning context for the current, legal background, climate risk projections and targets for implementation. It specifically acknowledges social inclusion as a basis for achieving resilience and ensures incorporation of gender issues. > Five-year plans from the sixth plan (2011-2015) actively incorporated environmental considerations and risks climate change into project design, budgetary allocations and action plans. The eighth Five-Year Plan (2020-2025) also promotes green and inclusive COVID-19 recovery, and a sustainable development pathway resilient to disaster and climate change. It also highlights the 'Bangladesh Delta Plan 2100' which gives a roadmap through short-, medium- and long-run strategies for managing the negative climate externalities until 2100. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Law on Disaster Management 2015 covers natural and man-made disasters with prevention, adaptation and mitigation measures in the pre-disaster period; emergency response during the disaster; recovery in the post-disaster period. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > National Strategy on Natural Disaster Prevention and Mitigation to 2020 aims to mobilize all resources for disaster prevention, response and mitigation until 2020 to minimize the loss of life and properties, the damage of natural resources and cultural heritages, and the degradation of environment; and ensure the country's sustainable development, national and security. > Resolution No. 76/NQ-CP dated 18 June 2016, provides regulations on key activities in natural disaster prevention and control in the context of disaster and climate change. > Decree No. 66/2014/ND-CP, dated 04 July 2014, guides the implementation of a number of articles of the Law on Natural Disaster Prevention and Control 2013, such as the content of donation and allocation of aid resources or assistance in overcoming the consequences; rights and obligations of national and international organizations and individuals; organizational structure of the Central Steering Committee and Committees at all levels.

FRAMEWORKS AND STRATEGIES FOR ENVIRONMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT (Executive)

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > National Sustainable Development Strategy 2010-2021, approved in 2013, gives a roadmap for sustainable development in Bangladesh. It has identified sustained economic growth; development of priority sectors (including agriculture and energy); urban environment; social security and protection; and environment, natural resource and disaster management as its five strategic priority areas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Rectangular Strategy Phase IV 2018-2023, serves as a comprehensive framework for formulating the National Strategic Development Plan 2019-2023. One of the "4 Priority Areas" recognizes the need for inclusive and sustainable development, including ensuring environmental sustainability and a readiness for climate change, and a need for capacity improvement to respond to the impacts of climate change. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > The National Environmental Protection Strategy by 2010 and orientation for 2020 was adopted in 2003. The strategy aims to promote green technologies, cleaner production processes and less pollution, and environment-friendly fuels and materials.
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ANNEX I.4: POLICY LANDSCAPE

BANGLADESH	CAMBODIA	VIETNAM
FRAMEWORKS AND STRATEGIES FOR ENVIRONMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT (Executive)		
<p>> Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan leading to 2030 is in the pipeline since the original BCCSAP from 2009 is nearing its end. The updated plan will provide actions for 2030 agenda and will have updates such as increased emphasis on mainstreaming, integrating climate change actions into all national, sectoral and local level plans, as well as into all ministries' and agencies' workplans, and more updated tracking and transparency mechanisms.</p>		<p>> National Green Growth Strategy 2011-2020 with Vision 2050 and National Action Plan on Green Growth 2014-2020 were adopted in 2012 and 2014 respectively. The National Green Growth Strategy recognizes green growth as an integral component of sustainable development and aims at a low carbon transition to sustainable economic development with a Vision 2050 of mainstreaming these green strategies as the business-as-usual way to economic growth. National Action Plan on Green Growth comprises four main themes: setting up institutions and formulating green growth action plans; reducing the intensity of Green House Gas (GHG) emissions; greening production; and greening lifestyle and promoting sustainable consumption. These themes have 12 groups and 66 activities.</p> <p>> Social and Economic Development Strategy 2021-2030 is in preparation and will guide the sustainable development Agenda 2030 of the country. The strategy seeks to develop an integrated, efficient, and sustainable economy and will be implemented by two five-year Socio-Economic Development Plans.</p>
KEY LEGISLATIONS		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > The Forest Act 1927 > The Environment Policy of Bangladesh 1992 > The Bangladesh Environment Conservation Act 1995 > The Climate Change Trust Fund Act 2010 > Disaster Management Act 2012 > Sustainable and Renewable Energy Development Authority Act 2012 > The Water Act 2013 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Royal Decree on the Protection of Natural Areas 1993 > Environmental Protection and Natural Resources Management Law 1996 > Sub-Decree on Environmental Impact Assessment 1999 > Land Law 2001 > Forestry Law 2002 > Law on Water Resources Management 2007 > Law on Disaster Management 2015 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Law on Natural Disaster Prevention and Control 2013 > Law on Environmental Protection 2014 > The Law on Forestry 2017

ANNEX I.5: POLICY LANDSCAPE

BANGLADESH	CAMBODIA	VIETNAM
TRACKING		
<p>> Climate Public Expenditure and Institutional Review (CPEIR) was conducted in Bangladesh in the fiscal year 2012. Based on the CPEIR recommendations, the government formulated the Climate Fiscal Framework (CFF) in 2014 to ensure the effective use of domestic and international climate finance within the national budget process. The CFF designs the Climate Expenditure Tracking Framework (CETF), which enabled tracking and monitoring of climate-related expenditures in a systematic and transparent manner. In 2012, the CPEIR also identified as many as 37 divisions and ministries implementing climate-related activities using public funds that were asked to explain how each of its strategic objectives and associated activities related to the objective would contribute towards the government's goals of poverty alleviation and women's development.</p>	<p>> Climate Public Expenditures and Institutional Review (CPEIR) was first done in Cambodia in 2012. It is a systematic analysis of public expenditures and how they are meeting the climate change goals. The 2017 review assessed the climate change expenditure allocated to mitigation and adaptation action (and the related sectoral profiles) and their alignment with the intended plans; assessed the extent integrated in climate change expenditure; and made recommendations on integration of climate change objectives within the budgeting process. The 2017 assessment identified that only 10 per cent of external climate change expenditure was tagged as being gender-sensitive and that the alignment of climate finance with national and sectoral plans was a challenge in Cambodia.</p>	<p>> Climate Public Expenditures and Institutional Review (CPEIR) in Vietnam examined the policies and climate change expenditure for the period 2010–2013 of the ministries of Natural Resources and Environment, Industry and Trade, Agriculture and Rural Development, Construction, and Transport in the provinces Bac Ninh, Quang Nam and An Giang. The review pointed that expenditure from the five ministries was largely focused on climate change delivery, and less on scientific, technology and social capacity building. The review also concluded that the spending was not fully aligned with objectives of Vietnam's National Climate Change and Green Growth Strategies</p>

Sources: Bangladesh Planning Commission 2019; MoEF Bangladesh 2013; Humayun and Picard 2017; MoEF Cambodia 2019, MoPI Vietnam 2015; MoWA Cambodia 2014, MoWA Cambodia 2020; Nachmany, et al. 2015; Reggers and Lim 2019; UN Women 2016; UN Women 2019 and scoping studies done under EmPower project.

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