Gender and Urban Climate Policy

Gender-Sensitive Policies Make a Difference
ABBREVIATIONS

ACCCRN Asian Cities Climate Change Resilience Network
BIDS Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies
CBA Community-Based Adaptation
CCCI UN-Habitat Cities and Climate Change Initiative
DRR Disaster Risk Reduction
GHG Greenhouse Gas
GIA Gender Impact Assessment
GRB Gender-Responsive Budgeting
ILO International Labour Organization
IPCC Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
MDGs Millennium Development Goals
UNDESA United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP United Nations Development Programme
UNEP United Nations Environment Programme
UNFCCC United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UN-Habitat United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UNRISD United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
UNISDR United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
WIEGO Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing

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Cities are increasingly recognised as essential actors of climate change policy. Over the past 20 years, local governments around the world have developed a range of climate change policies. In low- and middle-income countries, most cities have prioritised adaptation to the noticeable impacts of climate change. In recent years, some cities have also started to include mitigation actions by cutting greenhouse gas emissions.

Today, numerous projects and programmes are underway to support these cities in their endeavours to tackle the impacts of climate change. In particular, international agencies and city networks offer methodologies to assist city governments with systematic action plans.

In light of prevailing power relations and differences in access to and control over resources, such as land, credit and capital, women and men often have different vulnerabilities and capacities to respond to climate change. These gender differentials as well as the diverse impacts of policies on women and men are especially important at local levels. While in international climate policy, it is widely acknowledged that gender dimensions need to be addressed, most local governments do not pay attention to the diverse impacts of climate policies on women and men (see for instance: Alber, 2010; GenderCC, 2009; UNFCCC, 2012).

This handbook is an effort to close this gap. It indicates ways for local governments to integrate the gender dimensions of climate change into the various stages of policy-making. The focus is on low- and middle-income countries. The handbook is not meant to be exhaustive, but rather a starting point which introduces gender concepts and gender dimensions of climate change as well as resources, tools and ideas for action to climate policy decision-makers, consultants and practitioners in local governments. Moreover, it shall assist women’s groups and other civil society and community-based organisations to get involved in local climate policy and to advocate for a gender-sensitive approach.

Specific climate change challenges faced by cities

Climate change leads to shifts in mean as well as absolute values of temperature and precipitation, to sea level rise and changes in weather extremes, such as heavy rainfalls, more frequent storms, cyclones, heat waves and droughts. 65 percent of all cities over 1 million inhabitants are located on the coast and are thus prone to flooding and salinization of freshwater resources (UNEP & UN-Habitat, 2005). Parts of these cities may be permanently under water in the future. In some countries, such as Vietnam, Thailand and Philippines, large shares of the urban population are living in coastal areas threatened by storm surges.

A specific challenge for cities is the combination of more frequent climate-related hazards and increasing population in affected areas. Climate change can lead to disastrous impacts on settlements and infrastructure, claiming lives and leading to losses of assets, negative health impacts, salinisation of water sources, water shortages, higher food prices, food insecurity, and disruption to livelihoods and city economies.

Many cities in developing countries are furthermore characterised by large numbers of the population living in poverty and by an enormous social divide. Poverty and marginalisation severely constrain the options for coping with extreme weather events and disasters. Cities are embedded in national policy frameworks and often have limited or inadequate powers to tackle these climate challenges. Moreover, their specific roles and competences in multi-level policy systems are often not sufficiently clear. A lack of financial means, capacities and staff shortages adds further obstacles to implementing urban climate policies.
Five good reasons why cities should pursue a gender-sensitive approach to urban climate policy

Climate change poses huge challenges to cities but also represents an opportunity to work towards more healthy, liveable, sustainable, equitable and inclusive cities for the following reasons:

First, both women and men have the right to be involved in decision-making regarding climate policy, whether at city or neighbourhood levels. The equal participation of women and men enhances the legitimacy of urban climate policy and builds a sense of ownership.

Second, climate policy is not only about technologies, it is also about people. People are subject to the impacts of climate change and their consumption and mobility is the underlying cause of greenhouse gas emissions. Hence, people are both the problem and the solution. This means that climate policy will only be effective if people, their gender roles and traditional tasks in society are taken into account. This makes urban climate policies and measures more acceptable, viable and efficient.

Third, policies should respond to the needs and capacities of all citizens, women and men, and include poor and marginalised groups. Otherwise, a vast array of human resources, innovative potential and traditional and practical knowledge is left untapped.

Fourth, a gender approach makes climate policy fairer and more equitable, taking into account that in most cases those who emit the least greenhouse gases are the most vulnerable and vice versa. If the gender dimensions of climate change are not addressed, the impacts of climate change will likely exacerbate existing inequalities and might have adverse impacts.

Fifth, the full integration of social and gender issues into climate policy maximises the effect of available resources for everyone: women and men, girls and boys. This is particularly the case when efforts to improve resilience to climate change impacts have a comprehensive approach and target different kinds of vulnerabilities (Roehr et al., 2008).
I. Gender and climate change

II. Integration of a gender-sensitive approach into local climate policy

III. Resources, tools and case studies

GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE
I. GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Social inequalities are particularly striking in urban areas, as different social groups live and work in close proximity and interaction with each other. There is a growing body of evidence that social and gender disparities are magnified by the effects of climate change. Cities have broad options to actively address both climate change and social inequalities. The implementation of gender-sensitive climate policies can maximise potential co-benefits and synergies. This handbook provides advice on how to successfully take into consideration these challenges and opportunities in the context of urban climate policy. The following section gives a short overview on gender concepts and gender inequalities as well as on the gender dimensions of climate change.

I.1. GENDER CONCEPTS AND GENDER INEQUALITIES

The term ‘gender’ is generally used to conceptualise the socially and culturally constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviours, values, relative power and influence that society attributes to men and women. While ‘sex’ indicates the physical differences between women and men based on their sexual and reproductive functions, ‘gender’ involves different identities and economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being male or female. These vary across different cultures and societies and change over time. Gender differentials are interwoven with other differences such as race and ethnicity, class, disability, age and health status. Social categories are not independent from one another; they overlap and are mutually reinforcing. For each social group, gender constitutes an additional divide, resulting in further inequalities.

The root causes of gender inequalities are unequal power relations between men and women and societal patterns defining and reinforcing gender roles. This results in androcentric systems, meaning that the male perspective is predominant while women’s identities, attitudes and behaviour are neglected or seen as deviations from the ‘norm’. At societal level, this can lead to a number of substantial inequalities, for instance in terms of access to and control over resources, such as land, credit and capital, mobility and information. Gender mainstreaming is a globally used approach for promoting gender equality within programmes and projects. It implicates ensuring that a gender-sensitive perspective is central to all activities: policy development, research, advocacy and dialogue, legislation, resource allocation, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes. Gender mainstreaming is not an objective per se, but rather a tool to assess the different implications of planned legislation, policies and programmes for women and men. It ensures that all men and women benefit equally from the outcomes and that inequalities are not perpetuated, with the ultimate goal of achieving gender equality.

In the following part, insights are given into gender inequalities in the field of labour, income, decision-making as well as law. This context is of utmost importance for climate policy as it underscores the importance of interventions during and after disasters, such as droughts, floods and storms, which take into consideration the different conditions, needs and capacities of women and girls as well as men and boys.

Gender division of labour

All over the world, women are more likely to be given the primary responsibility for family care, including the provision of food and caring for the children, elderly and sick family members. In a situation determined by lack of food security and insufficient access to energy, mobility and water services, these tasks can be extremely challenging and time-consuming. Therefore, in addition to material resources, time is also a scarce resource for many women. In many societies the contribution of this kind of labour to the economy and social well-being is under-recognised and less valued than ‘productive’ labour, and often almost completely neglected in economic statistics. The gender division of labour persists even in countries with a high degree of gender equality and a high share of women in the formal labour market.
Figure 1: Ratio between unpaid care work and paid labour for men and women in exemplary countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Ratio Unpaid Care Work</th>
<th>Ratio Paid Labour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gender pay gap: Gender differentials in income

In all countries, whether developing or developed, a gender pay gap continues to exist. During the last decades, this pay gap has decreased in many countries but not disappeared. A part of this gap is ‘unexplained’, in other words it results from gender-based discrimination as women are often paid less for the same work. Women are often involved in informal employment and experience unemployment more frequently and for a longer period of time than men. Moreover, a disproportionate share of unpaid labour often falls on women, whether it is ‘reproductive’ or ‘productive’ work. As women spend considerably more time on unpaid work than men and tend to work in lower-paid jobs, they often accumulate less wealth than men.

At least 60 per cent of women workers in developing countries are in informal employment. Informal employment is generally a larger source of income for women than for men. For instance, in Sub-Saharan Africa, 84 per cent of women in non-agricultural sectors are informally employed, compared to 63 per cent of men (WIEGO and Realizing Rights, 2009).

Figure 2: Female/male ratio of average earnings per month in manufacturing (per cent)

- China
- Egypt
- Mexico
- Thailand
- Costa Rica
- Paraguay

Women dedicate more time to household chores and caring for the children, the elderly and the sick. Depending on the specific circumstances, the difference can add up to ten hours of the daily workload. This is supported by evidence from time use data, which are available for many countries. On average, men spend only a fraction of their time on unpaid care work compared to paid labour, while for women the opposite is true. Even if women have full-time jobs, they do the bulk of care work in the family and community (Budlender and UNRISD, 2008; Statistics Sweden, 2008; Razavi, Staab & UNRISD, 2008).
Gender bias in participation in decision-making

Women are underrepresented in decision-making at all levels, in both public entities and the private sphere. One of the consequences of this imbalance is a male bias in planning and decision-making, resulting in a failure to consider the different needs of women which stem from their socially defined roles and responsibilities. Depending on the cultural setting, women also tend to have less influence on decisions at household level. Worldwide, only 20 per cent of city councillors and less than 10 per cent of mayors are female. Thus, in most countries the representation of women in decision-making at the local level does not exceed their representation at the national level, except in countries with a quota system, such as India (UNDESA, 2010).

Legal discrimination of women and girls

In a number of countries, women are not guaranteed basic rights and continue to face gender-based discrimination, for instance in land and inheritance rights or through restrictions on their mobility and their personal, social and economic activities outside the home.

Factors aggravating gender inequality

Gender inequality is often further aggravated by different physical characteristics, that is conditions, needs and capacities of women and men which are often emphasised by (traditional) gender roles. Thus, a gender-sensitive analysis needs to take these physical differences into consideration. For instance, personal safety issues in context of sexual harassment make women more vulnerable. Moreover, the reproductive functions of women require certain standards for hygiene and sanitation services.

Figure 3: Percentage of female city councillors by region

According to UN-Habitat, women own only an estimated 1-2 per cent of all titled land worldwide (2006). Out of 121 countries covered in the 2012 OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index, 86 countries have discriminatory inheritance practices or laws (UN WOMEN, 2012).
I.II GENDER DIMENSIONS OF CLIMATE CHANGE

In the context of gender and climate change, focus is often laid on women as a particularly vulnerable group that is strongly affected by the impacts of climate change. While this is a highly important issue to address, it should not be neglected that other aspects of climate change and climate policy also have gender dimensions. The following part therefore aims at presenting a more complete picture of the gender dimensions of climate change. It focuses first on the impacts of climate change; second, on the origins of greenhouse gas emissions and third, on the policy responses to climate change.

Impacts of climate change: Vulnerability

Climate change vulnerability depends on three factors: exposure, sensitivity and adaptive capacity.

- **Exposure to climate variation** is strongly linked to location. For example, coastal cities have a higher exposure to sea level rise and storm surges. Within these cities, low-lying settlements and settlements next to the sea are most prone to flooding.
- **Sensitivity** is the degree to which a community is affected by these impacts. For example, fragile houses in informal settlements are more sensitive to storms and flooding than robust, well-built houses.
- **Adaptive capacity**, according to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), is defined as “the ability of a system to adjust to climate change to moderate potential damages, to take advantage of opportunities, or to cope with the consequences” (2001). In this context, systems can be natural ecosystems and also human systems such as individuals, households and communities. Adaptive capacity strongly depends on access to and control over resources, including reliable income and financial resources, natural resources, infrastructure and services such as energy, water services and sanitation, as well as on the available information, knowledge and skills on climate risks and the existing relations within the community and social support.

In this context, it becomes evident that poverty is a major factor of vulnerability. The adaptive capacity of poor citizens is severely constrained because they lack the resources to protect themselves against any kind of crises. Moreover, their settlements are often fragile and more exposed to climate hazards, such as landslides or flooding. Human settlements which are densely populated, like informal or deficient settlements such as slums, are particularly vulnerable. Additionally, urban populations are highly dependent on basic infrastructure and services for their livelihoods and thus have few options to cope with disruptions. Pre-existing vulnerabilities are thus magnified by climate change.

The share of women living in poverty is higher than the share of men. Moreover, within poor populations, women tend to be the poorest of the poor both in terms of income and assets. Women work more often in the informal sector than men and thus are subject to income insecurity, in particular during disruptions due to disasters. For example, women earning income from activities at home might lose their entire source of income if their house or their equipment is destroyed during a flood. Female headed-households often make up a disproportionately high share of poor households and of informal settlements, with unsafe housing and a lack of resources and services. These informal settlements are often located in areas which are highly exposed to climate hazards, such as landslide or flood-prone areas.

A woman’s role in the family can also lead to an additional work burden when climate-related shortages of energy, water and food occur. Moreover, their care for the children, the elderly and the sick can become more demanding when climate change impacts on health and psychosocial well-being. It is important to be aware that the role of women as family or professional carers during disaster is often invisible, while men’s actions in rescue operations and emergency services tends to be more visible and recognised within the community.
In some areas, social norms impede women’s access to early warning systems on extreme weather events and to emergency or post-disaster services during and after disasters. For instance, shelters can be less accessible to women due to mobility constraints and child care responsibilities. Moreover, shelters are often not suited to accommodate women in terms of their hygienic and safety requirements.

More women than men die as a direct or indirect result of natural disasters. More than 4600 disasters between 1991 and 2002 in 141 countries were examined, estimating their effect by using data on life expectancies. In particular in countries where women have low social status and lack access to resources, the difference was larger, whereas in countries with more or less equal rights for women and men the difference was negligible (Neumayer & Pluemper, 2007).

According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), various studies revealed that during disasters in Bangladesh, female mortality in the age group 20 to 49 years was 4–5 times higher than male mortality. However, there were also cases where the mortality of men can be higher, as men are often more likely to be engaged in rescue activities during disasters and are thus opposed to greater risks (UNDP, 2008).

Origins of greenhouse gas emissions – Carbon footprints

Strategies to combat climate change must build on the analyses of the amount and origin of greenhouse gas emissions. Greenhouse gas inventories usually examine sectors such as industry, commerce, energy and transport, taking into account the domestic as well as the public sector. Policy-makers should moreover look at the different carbon footprints of citizens to develop targeted programmes and measures which address different consumption habits and are tailored to the different conditions, needs and capacities of different social groups. After all, a large part of greenhouse gas emissions can be traced back to the consumption of citizens, namely their energy consumption for mobility and electric appliances, for cooling and heating their dwellings, consumption and waste.

In general, wealthy citizens have a larger carbon footprint than those less well-off, as they live in larger dwellings, own more energy consuming devices as well as tend to drive larger motorised vehicles, consume more goods and services and often use more energy for leisure. Even within the same household, the carbon footprints of individuals can differ substantially, for instance due to mobility behaviour. In general, men use cars more often and for shorter distances, even for very short trips. Men also tend to travel to work and for leisure, while women more often work at or nearby the home and make more shopping trips. Usually, women travel shorter distances and have less access to motorised means of transport.

These findings show that men have higher energy consumption than women. As men often have higher incomes, spending and different food preferences, they are on average likely to have larger carbon footprints. However, this does not necessarily mean that women are more ‘climate-friendly’. It rather indicates that women often do not generate a larger carbon footprint due to restricted access to energy and transport services as well as lower financial means for consumption.
Policy responses to climate change – Climate policy

Climate policy is dominated by men and male perspectives. In particular in the energy and transport sectors the representation and participation of women is generally low. Capabilities to reduce carbon emissions as well as perceptions, preferences and behaviour differ between men and women as well as social groups. The impacts of climate policies and measures implemented by cities affect women and men in different ways. Although many climate policy options are accompanied by positive economic effects, such as savings in terms of energy bills, climate policies and measures can also have adverse socio-economic impacts. For instance, power plants in the vicinity of neighbourhoods may have negative impacts on local populations, even if they reduce greenhouse gas emissions. Low-income households may also be disadvantaged by higher prices for energy if climate policies rely mainly on financial instruments, such as taxation or market-based mechanisms.

Moreover, in the process of climate policy-making it is important to be aware that the primary preoccupation of many citizens lies less in the reduction of their carbon footprints than in satisfying their general needs for resources and services, such as cooking fuels, electricity, mobility, water and basic sanitation. These needs and interests are highly gender differentiated: women are often responsible for the provision of water and food for their families and are therefore highly dependent on essential infrastructure and markets.

According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), the share of women working in the electricity, gas and water supply sectors in Asia and the Pacific is less than 20 per cent. A study conducted by the Climate Alliance of European Cities indicates that in positions relevant to climate change policy, for example in urban energy and transport planning, the share of women is strikingly low, particularly in executive positions. Furthermore, there is evidence that women, on average, are more risk aware and averse than men, and thus they may define and assess acceptable risks in a different way than men.

Surveys in a number of countries have revealed that women are more likely to prefer low-risk technologies, such as renewable energy rather than nuclear energy (ILO, 2013). In many developing countries, water and fuel collection make up a large part of the unpaid work done primarily by women. UNIFEM estimated that women and children in Africa spend 40 billion hours every year collecting water (UNIFEM, 2003). In large parts of Sub-Saharan Africa, the majority of urban households, in particular in slum areas, depend on traditional fuels, such as charcoal, wood and straw for cooking (UN-Habitat, 2009). For instance, in South Africa, a substantial share of households in informal settlements has to obtain their water off-site. In more than 50 per cent of the households, mostly women and girls are responsible for the time-consuming water collection, while men are the main collectors only in 10 per cent of the households (Statistics South Africa, 2013). Lack of sanitation in schools, including the lack of toilets, sufficient water for personal use and washing, safe and private spaces and drainage to avoid flooding by waste water, is one of the reasons why girls often drop out of school and do not finish their primary education.
INTEGRATION OF A GENDER-SENSITIVE APPROACH INTO LOCAL CLIMATE POLICY

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II. INTEGRATION OF A GENDER-SENSITIVE APPROACH INTO LOCAL CLIMATE POLICY

II.I MAXIMISING CO-BENEFITS OF CLIMATE POLICY

Climate policy can yield a multitude of co-benefits. These positive side effects are, for instance, improved air quality and health, liveability of cities, job creation, and enhanced resilience not only to the impacts of climate change but also to other constraints and hazards. Most of these co-benefits can only be achieved if social and gender dimensions are properly taken into consideration.

Planning and implementing comprehensive mitigation and adaptation actions often poses a challenge to policy-makers. Gender considerations may seem to make these processes even more complex. However, once gender actions have been well-established and are a part of procedures and routines they will no longer be considered an ‘add-on’ and additional work burden but rather as a way to optimise local climate policy.

Inequalities regarding access to energy, transport and other services often become visible at city level, therefore mitigation policies and measures should not merely aim to achieve short-term greenhouse gas emission reductions but cities should rather pursue a broader multi-dimensional approach towards becoming low-carbon, resilient, equitable, gender-just and inclusive.

This multi-dimensional approach includes:
- Involving women and men equally in decision-making and implementation at city and community levels and taking into account their different needs and capacities.
- Recognising and taking into consideration the care economy and informal economy, for instance by improving infrastructure and services to accommodate family care and livelihoods.
- Building resilience among communities and neighbourhoods as a priority for adaptation. This involves robustness, flexibility, diversity, modularity and the readiness to learn and make the necessary changes to adapt to unforeseeable conditions.
- Addressing both poverty and affluence in terms of housing, energy, mobility and consumption. This involves a pro-poor approach. The prevailing multiple discriminations which women and girls often face on grounds of their sex, racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation should be addresses and eliminated.
- Combining clean air policy, noise reduction and reallocation of public space to create a liveable city.

Climate policy interventions which incorporate mitigation, low carbon development and adaptation are very broad undertakings which cover almost all sectors. It is hence of utmost importance to integrate a multi-dimensional approach which includes social and gender dimensions of climate change to achieve sustainable development.
II.II PRINCIPLES OF A GENDER-SENSITIVE APPROACH TO CLIMATE POLICY AT URBAN LEVELS

Most areas of urban policy, particularly urban planning, housing, energy, transport, infrastructure, water management and waste management, contribute to or are affected by climate change. Climate change policy must therefore take a broad approach and consider all relevant sectors, in particular when both mitigation and adaptation are to be tackled. Mainstreaming of climate change is required in order to integrate climate considerations into all relevant sector policies and administrative procedures.

Gender dimensions of climate change must simultaneously be integrated into the planning of local action on mitigation and adaptation at all policy stages. ‘Cross-mainstreaming’ of climate change and gender is an ongoing task of utmost importance for all actors involved in urban politics. The adaption of urban governance and its procedures will certainly require a learning process for public bodies and institutions.

Urban policy processes take place in multi-level settings. This means that cities often face limitations in their political influence to tackle local challenges related to climate change, inequality and poverty or are faced with unclear arrangements and division of labour between the various political levels. A lack of coherence between vertical policy levels and horizontal coordination can massively impede efforts of local governments, for instance in spatial planning and disaster risk reduction. Moreover, in some cases action at the city level is constrained by adverse political, legal and financial framework conditions, such as a lack of legal provisions for women’s and girls’ rights or income from constructions or vehicle licences.

The process of transforming maladapted cities into low-carbon, resilient and gender-just communities is a long-term endeavour. It might require changes of legislation and financial provisions at national levels and longer planning horizons than those which are usually foreseen in politics.

The transformation into equitable, gender-just and inclusive cities with low-carbon footprints is nonetheless both indispensable and rewarding. The following aspects are vital to a gender-sensitive approach to urban climate policy and should be integrated into the various stages of policy-making.

As a first step, the gender balance in planning and decision-making bodies should be improved. Moreover, the equal and meaningful participation of women and men should be ensured in processes and consultations with stakeholders. It is advisable to build a climate change team of local government officials that also involves the departments in charge of social and gender issues.

Second, to make sure that climate policy responds to the needs of citizens, community-based participatory processes are required. This is particularly true for adaptation and resilience, and there are well documented methodologies available, such as community-based adaptation. Unequal power relations between men and women, prevailing traditional gender roles and gender-based discrimination of women often lead to the unequal representation and participation of women and men at community and neighbourhood level. It is therefore necessary that special provisions and arrangements are made to ensure the equal participation of women and to enable them to articulate their needs, preferences and opinions. The resources and tools presented in this handbook aim to support local policy decision-makers and practitioners in local governments in making use of the potential of women as their allies for local climate policy, drawing on their knowledge as well as acknowledging their role in decision-making at household level and their contribution to community work. By using and implementing these tools, it can be guaranteed that women’s voices are heard.
Gender balance and equal participation alone are however not sufficient. Specific gender expertise is necessary to integrate a gender-sensitive approach in urban climate policy processes. Many women and men however do not necessarily have knowledge of or are aware of the gender dimensions of climate change. It is therefore advisable to involve gender experts in planning procedures as well as in awareness raising and addressing the gender dimensions of climate change. Gender-sensitive approaches to urban climate policy are often a matter of asking gender-sensitive questions to encompass the whole spectrum of gender dimensions of climate change. By the same token, if questions on gender differentials are not asked, relevant actors of urban climate policy are likely to overlook these.

Gender-aware or gender-sensitive approaches examine and address socio-economic and political roles, responsibilities and rights associated with being female and male, including gender discrimination and power relations. In contrast, gender-blind approaches refer to policies, programmes and projects that are designed without awareness and analysis of gender differentials. The aim is to respond to these differentials and avoid reinforcing gender inequalities. Ultimately, gender-transformative approaches are required in order to work towards gender justice and full equality. This involves an enabling environment and recognizing and strengthening positive norms that support gender equality. To keep it simple, the term gender-sensitive approach will be used in this publication to refer to various degrees of gender integration from gender-aware to gender-transformative. In the field of climate policy, a gender-sensitive approach should look at gender differentials and their underlying causes and effects, address specific vulnerabilities and needs, work towards equitable and fair distributional effects of benefits and burdens and achieve transformative effects in order to contribute to overcoming gender discrimination.

For instance, in transport policy, a core area for mitigating climate change, this could involve deciding whether to prioritise actions to promote cleaner cars or to enhance public transport. From a social and gender perspective, public transport would clearly need to receive a higher priority, as women and other less well-off citizens have to rely on public transport. The next consideration would be how public transport can be improved, e.g. the structure of the public transport network, the design of stations, and the tariff system. From a gender perspective, policy-makers would need to assess which transport lines serve commuters only, or which possible new lines might serve the more complex trip patterns of women who need to combine their occupation and family care. Other issues taken into account would be the safety requirements of women and men, and the affordability of the tariff systems. Experience has shown that urban transport systems which are adapted to women’s needs deliver better services for both women and men.

Third, the prioritisation and the design or adjustments of interventions can be resolved using ‘Gender Impact Assessments’ (GIA). They assist in revealing relevant inherent gender issues in initial planning stages by assessing the impact of planned programmes and projects on women and men, as well as on gender relations. Thus, it is possible to assess whether the planned programmes and projects support or impede the attainment of gender equality.

Fourth, a gender-sensitive approach to urban climate policy requires the application of gender budgeting in order to create enabling policy frameworks, build capacity and strengthens monitoring mechanisms to support accountability to women and improve gender equality. Applied by many cities at least for certain sectors, gender budgeting in the field of urban climate policy assists local governments to monitor the allocation of resources and analyse the gender-differentiated impacts. It helps to determine if public spending reaches women to the same extent as men and if it contributes to the ultimate goal of gender equality. It is strongly advisable to involve gender experts into the application of these methods to avoid ‘gender blindness’ of policies, programmes and projects.

Please find more information on these tools in section III. RESOURCES, TOOLS AND CASE STUDIES.
II. Priorities for gender-sensitive climate policies at urban levels

Adaptation and resilience

Adaptation involves the enhancement of physical infrastructure, such as flood barriers and restoration of natural floodplains, as well as urban planning provisions, such as limiting city development in vulnerable areas and revising design guidelines. Above all, adaptation requires building resilience among communities. With enhanced resilience, communities will be better prepared to cope with and recover from extreme weather events in the face of unpredictable climate change and variability. Building community resilience entails a change of perspective and a shift from technical responses to non-technical ‘soft’ approaches.

In practical terms, building resilience towards climate hazards requires reliable livelihoods of citizens, food security, housing and basic infrastructure for energy, water and sanitation, mobility, knowledge and skills, and cohesion in the community. Special consideration needs to be given to women, as their access to and control over economic resources is often weaker than that of men. Women are often instrumental in regard to practical and traditional knowledge on coping strategies and the collaboration and mutual support within the community. Moreover, disaster management is a core field of action. In this area, the gender dimensions are widely acknowledged and a large body of work directly applicable to climate change related disasters is available. Emphasis should not only be placed on the direct effects of disasters but also on preventive actions, such as disaster risk reduction and preparedness, early warning systems reaching all citizens, including women and the poor population in informal settlements, as well as gender-responsive post-disaster reconstruction and recovery.

Key analysis tools in the field of adaptation are ‘Vulnerability Mapping’ and ‘Risk and Vulnerability Assessments’. As already laid down, climate change vulnerability depends on the exposure of communities to climate variation as well as the sensitivity and adaptive capacities of communities. While information on the expected climate risks and the exposure of certain areas depends on scientific studies and analyses, gaining information on the sensitivity and adaptive capacity of communities requires working directly with them. Vulnerability maps can indicate where high-risk groups are.

Resilience is not a characteristic that is evenly spread through the urban population. It depends crucially on the socially differentiated capacities of different groups and individuals. Poverty, gender, ethnicity and age have all been documented as contributing to differential vulnerability of social groups in cities.”

(Tyler & Moench, 2012)
located. However, risk and vulnerability assessments done at community levels often do not look at intra-household disparities and are thus blind to different gender-based vulnerabilities. For a gender-sensitive approach, it is necessary to work closely with individuals (in gender-segregated groups) and community groups, such as women’s organisations, in order to identify the specific concerns, needs and capacities of women and men. The methodology of community-based adaptation is well-suited to pursue a gender-responsive approach. There is a lot of experience from rural areas which can be used to design and implement climate policies in urban settings.

For more information, please see section IV. Resources, tools and case studies.

These methodologies are useful tools to enhance the resilience of local communities. Outcomes can be very simple coping strategies, such as storing assets in higher locations or in floating repositories in the home in case of flooding or installations for rainwater harvesting and storage. Yet, usually more extensive interventions from local government are required to reduce vulnerability and enhance resilience of local communities, preferably based on inputs from and elaborated in participatory processes with affected groups. This could be, for instance, providing temporary shelters in higher locations suited to and accessible for women with children, accommodating informal food vendors and local markets to contribute to food security, or supporting collective action to prepare for future disasters.

Strategies to build resilience of local communities also include micro-insurance schemes for housing and livelihoods. Moreover, the resilience of poor population groups can be strengthened by implementing measures to support women’s savings and loan groups, to diversify income sources of women and men and to create formal and secure jobs. Some measures both strengthen local populations by securing income sources and improve the physical resilience of local communities and areas by, for instance, planting trees as wind breakers to reduce soil erosion and to mitigate heat island effects.

Priorities for urban planning

Land use patterns, spatial structures and urban form are decisive in defining both the resilience and the future carbon intensity of societies. Urban development and planning can, for instance, facilitate the creation of compact and connected, well-arranged cities that allow for short distances and climate-friendly mobility. A mix of residential and commercial areas may help to decrease travel distances and thus support the mobility of citizens who do not have equal access to motorised transport, especially women and children. Traditional approaches of urban development and planning often inhibit the establishment of mixed-used quarters. For example, zoning separates land by different uses, in particular workplaces and houses, and makes it difficult to combine care work and employed work. As a solution, transit-oriented development and mixed-used neighborhoods are interesting planning approaches. Moreover, grid patterns are recommended, that means the relocation of developments according to a grid to promote the flow-through of people and traffic. This approach requires careful planning and facilitates the decentralisation and better accessibility of service institutions.

Upgrading slums is a priority for many cities with informal settlements. An inclusive approach, based on collaboration with community groups and the involvement of women, is essential to avoid further marginalisation of disadvantaged populations. For instance, relocating slums to remote areas where land is cheap is considered to be a solution by a number of cities, especially when disasters have destroyed fragile structures. This type of relocation of informal settlements could increase the difficulties of women to access formal jobs and might lead to the further exclusion of slum dwellers.
Priorities for mitigation

Usually cities are in charge of providing services such as energy supply and public transport. In the framework of climate-related programmes, it is of utmost importance to ensure equitable access to these resources and services for women and men to address poverty and marginalisation as well as to create and enable an empowering environment and prioritise poverty alleviation measures. Better access to energy contributes to building resilience, as women can use electricity for income generation and productive technology, such as washing machines, grinding, food processing and preservation, sewing, and craft production. Moreover, women can save time and their access to information is improved. Facilitating access to energy for poor populations does not necessarily reduce greenhouse gas emissions. Nonetheless it is essential for the livelihoods of men and women, boys and girls. In many cities in the developing world, urban dwellers are not yet connected to electricity grids. Street vendors and women living in informal settlements still rely on traditional biomass for cooking, such as charcoal and wood. In light of climate change, the cleanest options to replace these polluting practices with are renewable energies, like photovoltaic installations, solar water heating and biogas from organic residues for cooking. However, if this is not possible in the short-term, a temporary solution might be to promote efficient cook stoves or to offer liquefied natural gas or kerosene, as it is cleaner and less harmful to the health of the users.

The affordability of energy services is a crucial issue. In some cases poor households in informal settlements pay higher electricity prices than wealthy households, even if a tariff system provides for a free basic supply. The reason is that in many cases several households share a meter and their consumption is thus above the threshold for the free basic supply. Moreover, pre-paid tariffs which apply for many poor consumers are often higher than the usual tariffs. Municipal governments should therefore take these circumstances into consideration.

Increased motorisation has often been promoted as means to foster economic development. This strategy leads, however, to tremendous increases in greenhouse gas emissions, air pollution, congestion and the occupation of public space that could be used for walkways, bicycle lanes, parks and playgrounds. Moreover, a focus on increased motorisation neglects the needs of low-income populations as non-motorised transport is often marginalised and not taken into account by transport infrastructure planning.

Working towards small and well-arranged cities with mixed-use urban quarters in combination with efforts to create an accessible, affordable and safe public transport system is therefore paramount. Developing a city’s public transport system and increasing the number of users is a long-term undertaking. In many cases, measures strengthening women’s access to cars and other motorized transport are adopted because these are in line with the particular security needs of women and girls. From a climate change perspective, this is not a viable solution. Instead, city governments should adopt a long-term perspective and work towards making the public transport system available, accessible, affordable and secure for all citizens. In this way sustainable low-carbon mobility and the reduction of greenhouse gases will be achieved in the future.
II. RECOMMENDED STEPS TO INTEGRATE A GENDER-SENSITIVE APPROACH INTO THE PLANNING OF LOCAL ACTION ON MITIGATION AND ADAPTATION

Taking a gender-sensitive approach to planning local action on mitigation and adaptation requires a comprehensive endeavour. Most existing methodologies for urban climate change policy follow a policy cycle model with the following steps: problem analysis, objectives and priority setting, planning, decision-making, implementation and monitoring, and evaluation. There might be overlaps of the different phases and various steps might be done in parallel.

City networks, such as ICLEI – Local Governments for Sustainability or Climate Alliance, recommend similar approaches for developing local action on mitigation and adaptation. Most recommendations for mitigation actions have been developed for cities in high-income countries, but prove useful for cities around the world.

ICLEI’s Five Milestones for Climate Mitigation
1. Milestone: Conduct a baseline emissions inventory and forecast
2. Milestone: Adopt an emissions reduction target for the forecast year
3. Milestone: Develop a local climate action plan
4. Milestone: Implement policies and measures
5. Milestone: Monitor and verify results


ICLEI’s Five Milestones for Climate Adaptation
1. Milestone: Conduct a climate resiliency study (vulnerability assessment)
2. Milestone: Set preparedness goals
3. Milestone: Develop a climate preparedness plan
4. Milestone: Publish and implement preparedness plan
5. Milestone: Monitor and re-evaluate resiliency

ICLEI (n.d.), Five Milestones for Climate Adaptation: www.icleiusa.org/climate_and_energy/Climate_Adaptation_Guidance/five-milestones-for-climate-adaptation

Climate Alliance’s Five Step Approach to Climate Mitigation

- **Step 1: Initiation**
  - Informing relevant departments of the administration
  - Clarifying needs and expectations
  - Raising awareness of local climate change policies

- **Step 2: Inventory**
  - Analysing the setting
  - Surveying previous priorities and activities
  - Characterising the initial conditions

- **Step 3: Institutionalisation**
  - Building organisational structures
  - Assigning responsibilities and nominating persons in charge
  - Forming a climate working group

- **Step 4: Climate Action Plan**
  - Defining targets; selecting priority measures
  - Formulating strategic resolutions (on criteria, standards, etc.)
  - Agreeing the mid- and long-term climate strategy

- **Step 5: Monitoring**
  - Developing indicators
  - Collecting data for CO2 monitoring

Climate Alliance (n.d.), Climate Plan Development – Climate Compass: www.climatealliance.eu/544.html
Step 2: Problem analysis
The second step involves an inventory and analysis of greenhouse gas emissions on the mitigation side and the identification of climate change impacts and vulnerability assessments on the adaptation side.

Sex-disaggregated data, for instance on mobility and energy consumption, should be collected from surveys, utilities, and assessments of earlier programmes. This should be continued throughout the implementation of programmes.

Vulnerability assessments should include the climate hazards threatening particular areas, but also the dwellers’ capabilities to cope with them. As social and gender aspects are crucial, the analysis should also take into account the various social disparities, intra-household disparities and gender-based discrimination.

Furthermore, access to mobility and transport services are relevant both for mitigation and adaptation activities and should be taken into consideration with a focus on critical areas such as informal settlements.

Community groups should be involved in the analyses, especially in regards to gender-specific needs assessment and sex-disaggregated data collection.

Step 3: Strategy development and priority setting
In the third step, key areas of action need to be identified. The measures should combine low-carbon development and enhancing resilience with gender equality and poverty reduction.

On this basis, a strategy can be developed. Civil society organisations, including environmental organisations, women’s groups and slum dwellers’ organisations should be consulted.

Step 4: Policy formulation, development and adoption of action plan
Following the strategy development, a systematic climate policy plan which includes the detailed planning of policies and measures needs to be prepared. In the preparation process, it can be helpful to refer to case studies, best practice examples and useful experiences of other cities.

Methodologies which cover policies and measures in the relevant sectors have also proved beneficial.
For instance see the ‘Climate Compass’ and ‘Compendium of Measures’, issued by Climate Alliance for planning instruments for local climate action plans. 
Climate Alliance (n.d.), Climate Plan Development – Climate Compass: www.climatealliance.eu/544.html

All planned actions should be scanned for their gender relevance, applying available gender tools and involving gender experts and/or women’s organisations. Moreover, the tools can be used to check for other social dimensions which interact with gender inequality (intersectionality). Policies should undergo a ‘Gender Impact Assessment’ (GIA) in order to ensure that they do not aggravate gender inequality, but contribute to improving gender equality. Criteria such as the recognition of the informal and care economy, equal benefits for women and men, gender balance, and discrimination affecting women and girls need to be addressed. In case a policy is evaluated by the GIA as aggravating gender inequality, it should be modified, another policy instrument should be selected or support actions and specific accompanying measures to address gender aspects should be included.

Adequate institutional structures should be established, involving for instance a coordinating body composed of decision-makers or staff from various departments, including the gender equality department. Moreover, cross-cutting capacity-building and training for relevant staff is advisable. Climate change units should receive gender training and gender units should receive information and training on climate issues. Budgetary provisions are an indispensable element at this stage. Participatory gender budgeting is a recommended tool. It involves identifying and reflecting needed interventions to address gender gaps in plans, policies and budgets with the aim of analysing the gender-differentiated impact of revenue-raising policies and the allocation of resources.

Moreover, rules and mechanisms for participation and consultation in the political sphere, as well as at community and neighbourhood level need to be established. This should include the application of tools to ensure the equal participation of women and men and the definition of monitoring mechanisms.

**Step 5: Implementation and monitoring**
The fifth step is the implementation of gender-sensitive policies and measures. This does not need to wait until a systematic inventory and plan have been prepared. There are a number of robust policies that serve either mitigation or adaptation or both, in particular those mentioned above as priority measures. These can be adopted and implemented in parallel to the analysis and further steps. Wherever possible, the involvement of citizens and community based organisations is crucial for implementation, in particular those who have taken part in planning.

Gender-sensitive monitoring is a precondition for the effective implementation of any gender-sensitive urban climate policies. It should assess the positive and negative impacts of any activities and actions on women and girls, men and boys as well as on gender equality. If needed, adjustments should be made to prevent any negative impacts on gender equality. Monitoring facilitates the incorporation of lessons learned in future urban climate policies.

**Step 6: Evaluation and revision of action plan**
The evaluation process needs to look at whether, and to what extent, the envisioned objectives have been achieved and what progress has been made in terms of gender equality. This serves both organizational and individual learning, as well as increases the legitimacy of urban climate policies. The evaluation should identify the crucial factors supporting and/or hindering the elimination of any discrimination based on gender and strengthening of gender equality. Lessons learned and good approaches should be disseminated. Gender-specific recommendations should be developed in order to sustain positive outcomes as well as to facilitate the revision of programmes and actions. The gender-differentiated analysis of outcomes and lessons learned requires stakeholder participation including the involvement of women’s organisations.
STEP 1
Commitment

STEP 2
Problem Analysis

STEP 3
Strategy & Priorities

STEP 4
Action Plan

STEP 5
Implementation & Monitoring

STEP 6
Evaluation & Revision of Action Plan

Checklist
IMPLEMENTATION OF A GENDER-SENSITIVE PROJECT

- To what extent does the project contribute to increasing women's influence in policy design, planning and decision-making processes?
- Do the financial resources and measures benefit women to the same extent as men?
- Does the project contribute to changing gender biased power relations and allocation of duties?
- Does the project help to revise the generalisation of masculine experiences/perspectives?
- Does the project adequately take into account the requirements of care work which is mostly done by women, e.g. time consumption, transport, energy?
- Does the project contribute to reducing the harassment of women (and of men)? Does it contribute to relieving women (or men) of threats, restrictions and sanctions?

Checklist
GENDER-SENSITIVE COMMUNICATION

- Is gender-sensitive and inclusive non-technical language used which addresses women and men?
- Are the contents and images suited for women and men?
- Are pictures included which represent all genders and show women and men beyond their traditional roles?
- Are the communication channels suited to reach both women and men?

Checklist
GENDER IMPACT ASSESSMENT (GIA) OF POLICIES AND MEASURES

- Does the policy or measure concern one or more target groups and will it affect the daily life of the population or specific groups?
- Does it affect gender differences in regard to rights, resources, participation, values and norms?
- What impact does it have on gender equality?
- Does the policy or measure affect equality policy objectives? Does it affect women and men differently and might it lead to positive/negative impacts on gender equality?
- What data/knowledge is available to assess the impacts of the measure on gender equality, e.g. sex-disaggregated data?
- What data/knowledge is available to assess the impacts of the measure on gender equality, e.g. sex-disaggregated data?
- Who are the actors involved in the development of the initiative/which additional experts and groups should be involved? Is there a gender balance in the group of actors?
- Is there a need for further (sex-disaggregated) data, information and research?

Checklist
INTERSECTIONALITY/MULTIPLE DISCRIMINATIONS

- Who are the most marginalised women/girls, men/boys in the community, and why?
- What social/economic programs are available to different groups in the community?
- Who does/who does not have access to productive resources, and why?
- Which groups have the lowest/highest level of public representation, and why?
- Which laws, policies and organisational practices limit opportunities of different groups?
- Which initiatives could address the needs of the most marginalized/discriminated groups in society?

Checklist
EQUAL PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN AND MEN

- Are women from different socio-economic groups represented and participate in all meetings and activities? Are formal and informal women's groups and networks included?
- Are female facilitators involved?
- Do meetings/activities take place at a time when women and men can attend?
- Is the venue for meetings safe and convenient for women and men?
- Are separate meeting rooms for women appropriate?

Checklist
GENDER-SENSITIVE COMMUNICATION

- Is gender-sensitive and inclusive non-technical language used which addresses women and men?
- Are the contents and images suited for women and men?
- Are pictures included which represent all genders and show women and men beyond their traditional roles?
- Are the communication channels suited to reach both women and men?
I. Gender and climate change
II. Integration of a gender-sensitive approach into local climate policy
III. Resources, tools and case studies

RESOURCES, TOOLS AND CASE STUDIES
III. RESOURCES, TOOLS AND CASE STUDIES

III. I RESOURCES AND TOOLS

The integration of a gender-sensitive approach into urban climate policy is a new field of action and specific resources and tools are scarce. This list of resources and tools covers specific as well as more general background information and generic tools. It aims to assist policy decision-makers, consultants and practitioners to tackle climate change in a gender-sensitive manner in their sectors.

Cities and climate change

An increasing number of organisations and networks offer information on cities and climate change. Most of these resources do not provide information on gender in urban climate change. UN-Habitat Cities and Climate Change Initiative (CCCI) and the Asian Cities Climate Change Resilience Network (ACCCRN) are notable exceptions which provide valuable gender-sensitive insights into the topic.

Asian Cities Climate Change Resilience Network (ACCCRN)
Network of ten core cities in India, Indonesia, Thailand and Vietnam working on adaptation. Reports and tools can be found on the website. Funded by the Rockefeller Foundation.

Climate Alliance
Network of European cities, municipalities and districts. The website offers tools, case studies and campaigns, primarily for mitigation.

Cities and Climate Change Initiative (CCCI)
Programme on urban climate policy, providing technical assistance to partners; run by UN-Habitat. The website offers information on implemented project activities.

C40 Cities Climate Leadership Group
Network of the world’s megacities (sixty-nine affiliated cities) committed to addressing climate change, in particular to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.

Gender and climate change

There are several websites with abundant resources, background information and news on the linkages between gender and climate change.

GenderCC – Women for Climate Justice
Global network for gender and climate justice. Founded at the ninth UNFCCC conference in Milan. The website offers information on all aspects of gender and climate policy, resources, case studies tool kits, literature, videos and a newsletter.

GenderCC: Project Outcomes ‘Integrating Gender into Adaptation and Low Carbon Development’
Gender and climate change tool kits and training manuals for Bangladesh and Pacific islands.
## Gender budgeting

Gender-responsive budgeting is relevant in all policy fields. There are a number of websites and publications available on the topic; below you find a small selection.

### Assessing Gender-Responsive Budgeting in Local Government (2013/14)

### Gender-Responsive Budgeting Platform
Website by UN Women comprising resources, publications, tools and case studies on gender budgeting. It also offers an expert database.

## Gender and cities

There are few resources available regarding gender and cities. The publications below can serve as general information sources for gender-sensitive urban policies.

### Gender in Local Government. A Sourcebook for Trainers (2008)
UN-Habitat source book for trainers covering policy fields such as urban planning, service provision, gender budgets and local economic development, complemented by case studies.

### Gender Mainstreaming in Local Authorities. Best Practices (2008)
UN-Habitat publication on best practices of gender mainstreaming in local authorities with links to climate change.

### Integrating Gender into Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (2013)
Detailed information on integrating gender into analytical approaches to assess the distributional and social impacts of policy reforms on different groups.
Gender Impact Assessment (GIA)
Information on gender impact assessment can be found under the umbrella of gender mainstreaming. These are some examples of tool kits and checklists.

Tool kit for policy-makers and civil society by the Overseas Development Institute.

Gender Mainstreaming Website
Brief checklists on GIA and related issues by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs Finland.

Using Gender Impact Assessment in Hydropower Development (2013)

Urban planning
For both mitigation and adaptation, urban planning is a key field of action. The publication below offers an in-depth account on gender and urban planning.

Publication by UN-Habitat on the gender dimension of urban planning, partially taking climate change issues into account.

Energy and gender
A lot of information is available on gender and energy, mainly produced by the ENERGIA network. Some selected publications are listed below. Most of the resources refer to rural areas, but can be adapted to urban settings.

ENERGIA Network
International network on gender and sustainable energy working in Africa and Asia. The website provides many resources such as guidelines, tools and case studies on gender mainstreaming in energy projects, programmes and policies.

Gender Tool Kit ‘Energy: Going Beyond the Meter’ (2012)
A tool kit by the Asian Development Bank for practitioners and consultants offering concepts and designs on gender-responsive projects in the energy sector.

Global Alliance for Clean Cook Stoves
The website provides resources on gender and clean cooking solutions, among others a resource guide containing case studies.

Guidelines on Renewable Energy Technologies for Women in Rural and Informal Urban Areas (2011)
Tool on efficient renewable green energy technologies and their application in cooking, lighting, heating, cooling, drying, and water disinfection by ENERGIA and the International Union for the Conservation of Nature.

Mainstreaming Gender in Energy Projects (2011)
Handbook providing guidance, tools and best practices on systematic gender mainstreaming in energy projects.
Transport

The gender dimension of transport is well acknowledged and there are some useful resources available which cover urban areas.

The resource guide by the World Bank offers information and tools on mainstreaming gender in transport.

Gender and Urban Transport: Fashionable and Affordable Sustainable Transport: A Sourcebook for Policy-Makers in Developing Cities (2007)
A sourcebook by Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) for policy-makers including information on gender and urban transport and best practices.

The UN-Habitat report contains a section on Gender and Sustainable Urban Mobility (Chapter 6).

Water

There is growing awareness of the gender dimensions of the water sector. The resources below are a selection of those available.

Gender and Water Alliance
Global network promoting equitable access for women and men to safe and adequate water. The website offers background information, case studies and training materials.

Water for Asian Cities Programme
UN-Habitat regional programme to support achievement of water and sanitation related Millennium Development Goals (MDG). Website offers publications and best practices.

Building Resilience – Community-Based Adaptation (CBA)
A key methodology for improving resilience to climate risk is Community-Based Adaptation (CBA). Related tools, primarily for analysis, are Vulnerability Mapping and Risk and Vulnerability Assessments. There are efforts by several organisations to integrate gender aspects into these methodologies. This is an assortment of general as well as gender-related information.

Community-Based Adaptation Tool Kit (2010)
CARE tool kit on community-based adaptation including a section about gender and diversity in project operations

Gender, Climate Change and Community-Based Adaptation (2010)
UNDP guidebook for designing and implementing gender-sensitive community-based adaptation programmes and projects.

Gender, Climate Change and Community-Based Adaptation (2012)
UN Volunteers guidebook for designing and implementing gender-sensitive community-based adaptation programmes and projects.

The UNEP handbook presents the method of vulnerability mapping.

UN International Strategy for Disaster Reduction: ‘Making cities resilient’
Campaign website offers information, a handbook and tool kits on making a city resilient.

WeADAPT – Adaptation Planning, Research and Practice
Online learning platform, including information and resources on gender-sensitive adaptation.
Gender and disaster risk reduction (DDR)

Gender and Disaster Network
The website contains information on gender and disaster, providing resources, including a ‘Gender and Disaster Sourcebook’ and recommendations for (local) governments and practitioners.

Gender and Disaster Risk Reduction: A training pack (2011)
Training manual for organisations and agencies by Oxfam.

Huairou Commission - Women, Homes and Community (Website)
A coalition of grassroots women’s organizations working to enhance participation in local decision-making. The section of their website on resilience provides general information, a community practitioners platform, a tool kit and a library.

International Recovery Platform
The website is thematic platform of the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR) system. The section on gender provides publications, tools and guidelines.

United Nations Office for Disaster Reduction
UNISDR’s website on gender and disaster risk reduction offers guidelines and case studies for gender-sensitive disaster risk reduction.
Gender-sensitive urban climate policy is still in its infancy. Nevertheless, best practices can be found which exemplify how to integrate the gender dimensions of climate change into comprehensive development programmes. In the following, examples will be given which range from small-scale actions to comprehensive approaches. These can be adapted to different contexts and serve as valuable starting points for climate policy decision-makers, consultants and practitioners in local governments to develop gender-sensitive urban climate approaches, actions and policies.

Gender in climate policy

The Kampala City Council in Uganda, supported by UN-Habitat Cities and Climate Change Initiative (CCCI), has completed the process of developing a gender policy. As a result of CCCI’s support, the city council has committed to address climate change in the gender policy. This helps to ensure that the needs of men and women, girls and boys, young and old are acknowledged and addressed appropriately as well as that attention to the issue of climate change is properly institutionalised.

Guiding questions of the process were how gender inequalities across urban sectors intensify the impacts of climate change and, in turn, how climate change impacts reinforce gender inequalities in these sectors. Moreover, attention was paid to the consequences of ignoring a gender dimensions in city assessments and action plans on their effectiveness. The methodologies applied at neighbourhood level included focus groups (women-only, men-only and a mixed group) and neighbourhood exploratory walks. Each group prepared a presentation of the findings and an action plan which were shared with the other groups and local government officials. The difference between the female and male group in terms of which issues, sectors and measures were addressed in the action plan was striking. While before these activities, the majority of participants disagreed on any relationship between gender and climate change, the exchange of findings made about two thirds of both women and men recognise the gender aspects of climate change. For instance, male respondents acknowledged that women’s generally lower socio-economic status in comparison with men’s increases their vulnerability as well as limits their capacity to cope with climate change impacts. The applied methodologies supported a mutual awareness and understanding of the different needs and interests of men and women in the contexts of climate change.

CCCI had a special focus on the integration of youth in climate change activities. A youth and gender training workshop was conducted in Kampala, which introduced selected groups of young people to the gender dimensions of cities and climate change. Through a participatory and interactive process, the participating youth were given an opportunity to consider how climate change affects men and women and girls and boys in different ways. Topics included disaster preparedness and other aspects of climate change responses, as well as mitigation. The participating young women and men increased their awareness of the gender differences in vulnerability to climate change. The objective of these training activities was to inspire the young people to develop and carry out their own community-based projects and to undertake appropriate response activities.

These experiences shows that neighbourhood exploratory walks and gender inclusive focus group discussions can be powerful tools for mobilising, translating and transferring local knowledge on climate change vulnerability and adaptation. In Kampala, it was concluded that such approaches should be expanded to include adaptation, mitigation and governance. Moreover, it has been shown that these activities should be complemented by collecting and analysing quantitative sex-disaggregated data on vulnerability and adaptation.

For more information please see:

In Indonesia, gender dimensions of climate change policy have been integrated into the project Policy advice for environment and climate change (PAKLIM), implemented by the Deutsche Gesellschaf für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH on behalf of the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ). The project aims at supporting local governments and civil society organizations to implement and disseminate climate-friendly measures and incorporate gender considerations from the start. In order to learn more about the specific issues related to gender in Indonesian cities, studies on gender differentials were prepared. In Pekalongan, a city prone to flooding, climate change vulnerabilities of men and women and options for adaptation were investigated, followed by the preparation of an action plan.

Within the framework of the project, a gender assessment on urban transport has also been conducted. A case study in Semarang City showed that the travel patterns and behaviour of women and men differ in purposes, distances, routes, travel modes and preferences. The study highlighted that women have a higher dependency on public transportation as well as lower energy consumption and greenhouse gas emissions. The conclusions of this study include a call for a comfortable, safe, reliable and affordable public transport system.

For further information please see:

Gender-sensitive communication and involvement of women

Broad participation of women and men in climate change policy processes and actions is a prerequisite for low-carbon, resilient, equitable and inclusive cities. In turn, raising awareness and providing information about climate change constitutes a meaningful requirement for citizens to get involved. Women and men differ considerably in their available and preferred means of communication, attitudes, skills and interests. Effective communication must thus be targeted and has to take the specific characteristics of the target groups into consideration.

It is important to give women greater voice and publicity. To this end, the timing and location of awareness activities and information events need to take into account women’s specific needs and time schedules. In many cases, it can be useful to have separate meetings for women and men prior to joint meetings. Moreover, information and materials should be gender-sensitive and avoid reproducing gender stereotypes.

The Asian Cities Climate Change Resilience Network (ACCCRN) works at the intersection of climate change, urban systems and vulnerability to consider both direct and indirect impacts of climate change in urban areas. ACCCRN projects in the cities of Can Tho, Da Nang and Quy Nhon in Vietnam paid special attention to the views of women, the poor and marginalized social groups during their climate resilience planning processes.

For more information see:

In Kampala in Uganda, special action has been taken in UN-Habitat Cities and Climate Change Initiative (CCCI) to mobilise women for climate change adaptation.

For further information see:
The experience in Bangladesh with the Solar Home Systems Programme has demonstrated the acceptance of this technology by women, as female-headed households were more likely to adopt solar systems than other households (BIDS 2014a). The programme which involved training of women to install and maintain the solar power systems has shown that the training should include elements to improve women’s self-confidence and social and political participation. In order to make the programme a success, the empowering women to become solar agents must be accompanied by actions to open the labour market for women entrepreneurs (BIDS 2014b).

For more information see:
- Barefoot College- India (2014), Website: www.barefootcollege.org
- Solar Sister (2014), Website: www.solarsister.org

Women as solar agents

During the last years, costs of renewable energy installations have dropped considerably. This makes renewable energy an attractive and affordable option in many cases. For instance, if low-cost houses are to be refurbished, electric water heaters and stoves can lead to electricity costs which exceed the budget of poor households. Solar water heaters and photovoltaic panels however are more climate-friendly and even more economical in the mid- and long-term. Therefore, it is a good idea for cities to consider decentralised solar programmes when upgrading informal settlements.

For the implementation of such a scheme, women can be trained as solar technicians to install and maintain the systems and to disseminate the know-how and technology to others in their community. A number of successful examples indicate that this creates jobs for women and challenges gender-role related constraints, thus empowering women.

For instance, the Barefoot College in Tilonia, India has trained hundreds of women in a six month solar engineering programme at their campus. Voluntary Service Overseas, in partnership with UN Women, sent illiterate women from Tanzania to the Barefoot College to be trained as solar engineers. Beyond receiving technical skills, the women gained income-generating skills as well as a better standing in their communities and the ability to play an increased role in local decision-making.

Solar Sister implements similar activities in Africa with a focus on promoting women entrepreneurs. Special trainings are given which teach to replace kerosene lamps with solar lamps. Most of the existing programmes are geared towards rural areas, but could also be implemented in urban settings or in situations in which populations lack access to energy.

The experience in Bangladesh with the Solar Home Systems Programme has demonstrated the acceptance of this technology by women, as female-headed households were more likely to adopt solar systems than other households (BIDS 2014a). The programme which involved training of women to install and maintain the solar power systems has shown that the training should include elements to improve women’s self-confidence and social and political participation. In order to make the programme a success, the empowering women to become solar agents must be accompanied by actions to open the labour market for women entrepreneurs (BIDS 2014b).

For more information see:
- Barefoot College- India (2014), Website: www.barefootcollege.org
- Solar Sister (2014), Website: www.solarsister.org
Working with women's groups for climate-proof settlements

Informal settlements are particularly vulnerable to the impacts of climate change due to their inadequate infrastructure and their locations. Several cities have involved women's groups in upgrading housings in informal settlements. Such actions can benefit from the fact that women's groups are usually well connected. Moreover, these activities help the participating women to gain respect within their community, to develop capacities and to overcome limitations based on their social roles.

In Da Nang, Vietnam, a storm and flood-resistant credit and housing scheme was set up in 2011 in collaboration with the Asian Cities Climate Change Resilience Network (ACCCRN). Participants received training on climate change impacts, urban resilience measures and storm resistant housing. In addition, affordable loans were offered to poor households for housing reinforcements. Local partners include the Women's Union of Da Nang City which received capacity development training for managing a fund for storm resistant housing.

For more information please see:

In Manizales, Colombia, houses located on the unstable city hillsides have been upgraded by the women's group 'Guardianas de la Ladera' (Guardians of the Hillside). Ninety female heads of households worked together to reinforce the structure of their homes, carrying out work that is traditionally done by men.

For further information see:

Gender-aware public transport enhancement

Rachel Kyte, Vice-President of the World Bank Group and Special Envoy for climate change stipulates "a good public transport system must be easy and convenient to use, fast, safe, clean and affordable” (2012). Several cities around the world have made efforts to build good public transport systems, such as Curitiba, Brazil; Bogotá and Medellín, Colombia; Lagos, Nigeria and Ahmedabad, India.

Developing a good public transport system is a long-term task. It is however inevitable to place emphasis on public transport, as motorised individual transport has severe environmental impacts and limitations in terms of accessibility and urban space. Therefore, cities should not hesitate to enhance the public transport infrastructure by comprehensive planning and the redirection of funds from the expansion of roads to public transportation. Quick wins can be achieved by improving the general services, safety and tariff systems. These measures can be implemented during the phase of planning the infrastructure and might help to improve the credibility of the city's commitment to safe and affordable public transport systems. In turn, these activities can help to raise funds for further investments in the public transport system, for instance from funds on climate finance.

Good public transport systems should integrate appropriate technologies, such as bus rapid transit, light rail and metro rail. Affordable tariffs should be introduced and gender-specific safety considerations must be followed to meet women's needs. Moreover, a common ticket or fare card that serves the whole transport system should be introduced as women often make various trips on a daily basis and have more complicated trip chains than just commuting to work.

For instance in Bogotá, Colombia, the TransMilenio rapid transit system which was initiated in 2000 introduced interconnected bus lines, special bus lanes and elevated stations to allow passengers to enter and exit quickly and conveniently. The TransMilenio system introduced designated seats for women and children and separate doors for pregnant women and other vulnerable passengers. In addition, particular focus has been put on the employment of women, particularly single mothers, in the transport system. TransMilenio also runs campaigns to raise public awareness on sexual harassment and to contribute to a safe environment for women and girls.
Resilience in the water sector

Poor conditions in the water sector put particular stress on women and girls, due to their traditional responsibility for food and family care and their specific needs in terms of hygiene. This tends to be aggravated by climate change and is therefore a priority issue for building resilience.

In the Tiruchirapalli district in India, women’s groups improved access to quality water and sanitation services. With guidance and funding from non-governmental organisations they installed drinking water facilities and individual toilets in several slums in order to address the poor sanitary conditions. The state government initiated the programme and provided the land, electricity, water supply and loans to community members. Part of the project was a gender-sensitive community mobilisation programme with a focus on gender mainstreaming carried out by the women’s groups.

For further information please see:

In Delhi, India, a commercially viable water kiosk managed by women has been set up in an informal settlement by an urban development non-governmental organisation to improve access to safe quality drinking water at affordable costs. Each household receives a user identity card, a membership number and a set of coupons for a fixed daily quota of water per family. Non-governmental organisations and a research institute had raised awareness of the poor water quality and organised a community mobilisation process to engage women in the planning, management and operation of the water kiosk, a community enterprise.

For further information please see:

Working with young people on gender-sensitive disaster risk reduction

Disaster risk reduction is a priority for many cities exposed to climate hazards. Strong involvement of vulnerable citizens is advisable to ensure that the employed activities are effective. Some existing projects have worked with young people as agents of change.

For instance, the project Girls in Risk Reduction Leadership, implemented by the African Centre for Disaster Studies and supported by the World Bank through the ProVention Consortium, aimed to reduce the social vulnerability of marginalised adolescent girls in a township in Potchefstroom, South Africa. Using practical capacity-building initiatives to increase individual and community resilience to disasters, girls were trained by experts in areas such as personal and public health, fire safety, counselling and disaster planning. These measures aimed at empowering women, building their skills and complementing their traditional roles within the community. After the completion of the trainings the girls worked with the disaster risk reduction team and helped to design a plan for the community to improve resilience.

For further information see:
Cooperation with the business sector to address pollution and social resilience

Local governments can work with the business sector to reach agreements on mitigation measures which incorporate social standards to improve the resilience of workers. Priority sectors are those with a high potential for greenhouse gas reduction and informal labour or low employment standards. In addition cities can work with funding institutions in order to secure co-financing for these measures.

For instance, a project by UNDP Bangladesh to improve the efficiency of brick-making kilns highlights that the integration of environmental and social concerns is possible. In several brick-manufacturing operations in Bangladesh, new energy efficient kilns have been installed. They have a high potential to reduce air pollution and save greenhouse gas emissions. In addition to these investments, the transformation from an informal to a formal sector was initiated and measures to improve occupational health and safety standards were taken. A large number of women working in the brick-making industry now have formal jobs with a reasonable wage and enjoy benefits such as health facilities, drinking water, washrooms and the provision of appropriate clothing. Thus, this mitigation project has substantial social co-benefits for the workers and enhances their social resilience. It should be noted that these social co-benefits do not occur automatically. Additional negotiations with the business sector as well as funding institutions regarding the social dimension are needed to ensure that labour rights and especially the rights of women are addressed.

For further information see:

Within the framework of the Integrated Community-Based Risk Reduction project in Aceh, Indonesia, the Indonesian Red Cross in partnership with the American Red Cross created and trained school disaster response teams composed of male and female students and teachers. Gender was mainstreamed throughout the project. Activities included consultations with both men and women during needs assessments, considering their different societal roles, encouraging more female community members to participate in the activities, developing a gender checklist to guide the team, collecting and analysing sex-disaggregated data, ensuring that the monitoring system captures the qualitative progress of gender equality promotion and reflecting this progress in reports.

For more information see:
- International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (2010), A Practical Guide to Gender-Sensitive Approaches for Disaster Management, International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies: www.ifrc.org/PageFiles/96312/AM%20Guide%20for%20Gender-sensitive%20approach%20to%20DM.pdf

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Key questions to implement a gender-sensitive project

These criteria were initially developed for local transport projects in Jakarta, Indonesia, but have proved to also be applicable to other sectors (Spitzner et al., 2007).

- **Women in decision-making:** To what extent does the project contribute to increasing women’s influence in policy design, planning and decision-making processes?
- **Resources:** Do the financial resources as well as the measures of a project benefit women to the same extent as men? Does the project lead to a more balanced distribution of public resources among women and men?
- **Symbolic order (positive or negative connotations of gender attributes):** Does the project contribute to changing gender-biased power relations and allocation of duties?
- **Androcentrism (societal fixation on masculinity):** Does the project enforce the centrality of male lifestyles and ways of thinking while those of women are seen as ‘different’? Or does it help to revise the widespread generalisation of the masculine experience and perspective?
- **Care economy (mostly unpaid care-work for the family and community):** Does the project adequately take into account the requirements of care work which is mostly done by women (e.g. time consumption, transport, energy)?
- **Harassment:** Does the project contribute to reducing the harassment of women (and of men)? Does it contribute to relieving women (or men) of threats, restrictions and sanctions?

III.III CHECKLISTS

Key questions to conduct a Gender Impact Assessment (GIA) of policies and measures

Some simple questions help determine whether a policy or measure will have an impact on gender equality. It should be noted that a balanced participation of women and men must be ensured to reach representative responses to the following questions. Gender experts should also be involved.

- Does the policy or measure concern one or more target groups and will it affect the daily life of the population or specific groups?
- Does the policy or measure affect gender differences in regard to rights, resources, participation, values and norms?

A detailed analysis helps to improve the policy or measure to have a positive effect on gender equality. The guiding questions are usually specific to the sector or field of action. Some general questions to ask are:

- What impact does the policy or measure have on gender equality?
- Does the policy or measure affect equality policy objectives? In particular, does a programme or policy initiative affect women and men differently, and might it lead to positive or negative impacts on gender equality?
- What data and knowledge are available to assess the impacts of the measure on gender equality, e.g. sex-disaggregated data?
- Who are the actors involved in the development of the initiative, and which additional experts and groups should be involved? Is there a gender balance in the group of actors?
- Is there a need for further (sex-disaggregated) data, information and research?
Key questions to explore intersectionality/multiple discriminations

As has been laid out, gender discrimination is not independent from other social disparities. Therefore it proves valuable to investigate how gender inequality is influenced by other social factors.

- Which forms of identity are critical organising principles for the community (gender, race, ethnicity, religion, citizenship, age, caste, ability)?
- Who are the most marginalised women, girls/men, boys in the community and why?
- What social and economic programs are available to different groups in the community?
- Who does and who does not have access or control over productive resources and why?
- Which groups have the lowest/highest level of public representation and why?
- Which laws, policies and organisational practices limit opportunities of different groups?
- Which initiatives could address the needs of the most marginalised or discriminated groups in society?

Gender-responsive checklist for the assessment of climate change impacts at city level, developed by UN-Habitat

The following gender-responsive checklist has been developed by UN-Habitat Cities and Climate Change Initiative (CCCI). It looks at the gender impacts of climate change and at the opportunities for women to contribute their knowledge to community, city or national-level adaptation and mitigation strategies. The checklist helps to examine how gender-specific issues can be mainstreamed within climate change and urban governance policies to ensure that women and men have equal access to mitigation and adaptation strategies, such community-led capacity building initiatives on climate change.

Gender-responsive vulnerability assessment

- What are the social-demographic characteristics of the city (disaggregated by sex, age, location-neighbourhood characteristics, multi-family and single-family dwellings)?
- What are the present and predicted climatic variables in the city?
- What social, economic and environmental factors make women relative to men vulnerable to the risks associated with climatic variables in the city?
- Which reproductive, productive and community roles do women relative to men take on, what resources do they utilise to perform these roles and how does the combination of gender roles and resource utilisation contribute to and get affected by the emission of greenhouse gases, which contribute to global warming and other climate change-related impacts?
- What urban sectors are most affected by climate change, and how does this impact women’s relative to men’s access to and control over resources and opportunities in these sectors?
- How is urban infrastructure e.g. road and drainage works, affected by climate change, and how does this impact on the survival and safety of women relative to men in the city?
- How are the following social groups affected by climate change: children, people with disabilities, elderly and/or youth?
Gender-responsive assessment of adaptation capacities

- State the climate change hazard(s) in the city. Explain the mechanisms used by women to cope with such hazards. Explain the mechanisms used by men to cope with the same hazards. What social, economic and environmental risks do women relative to men face in using such mechanisms to cope with climatic hazards?
- Amongst women and men, who is likely to migrate as a result of climate change and how effective is such migration in enabling women relative to men safeguard against climatic hazards?
- What resources and opportunities do women as compared to men need in order to effectively handle climatic hazards? Who has access to such resources, disaggregated by sex and why? Who has control over these resources, disaggregated by sex and why?
- What resources, if different from those resources under question 10, do the following social groups need to be able to handle climatic hazards: Children, Youth, Disabled, and Elderly? Who of these social groups has access and/or control over these resources and why?
- Mention the formal and informal neighbourhood schemes or community-based organisations that operate in the city, and how do these groups engage with women relative to men in addressing the issue of climate change?
- Mention the local and/or international non-government organisations that operate in the city, and how do these engage with women relative to men in addressing the issue of climate change?
- How do city authorities deal with climate change, and are these mechanisms sensitive to gender concerns in climate change?

- Which partner organisations does the city work with to facilitate gender responsive climate change adaptation, and how are the activities undertaken?
- Does the city have a climate change strategy, and how are gender concerns addressed in this strategy?
- What methods are used by the city to commit human, financial, technological and other types of resources to climate change adaptation, and how effective are such methods in enhancing women’s as well as men’s capacity to handle climatic hazards?
- Which stakeholders does the city collaborate with to mobilize resources for climate change adaptation, and how are these stakeholders committed to gender concerns and needs?
- How does the city monitor and evaluate its strategies on climate change, and how are gender concerns captured in this process of monitoring and evaluating the strategy?

For further information see:
ANNEX
GLOSSARY

**ADAPTATION**
Anticipating the adverse effects of climate change and taking strategic action to prevent or minimise the damage they can cause.

**ANDROCENTRISM**
Male-centred; refers to a male-centred world view based on male perspectives, standards and values. Conscious or unconscious, men and boys are positioned as representatives of the human condition or experience, and women and girls are seen as diverging from the norm. It is a complex, subtle and often unacknowledged form of sexism.

**CARE WORK**
Paid or unpaid work; involves direct care of persons, including young children, ill and frail persons, able-bodied adults. Unpaid work involves unpaid care work and a broader range of activities, e.g. work in the family business and the collection of water and fuel for household consumption. Unpaid care work means serving household and community members and promoting their well-being. It is excluded from the system of national accounts and gross domestic product and thus tends to be overlooked.

**GENDER**
(In contrast to sex); socially and culturally constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviours, values, relative power and influence that society attributes to men and women. Gender involves different identities and economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being male or female. These vary across different cultures/societies and change over time.

**GENDER BUDGETING**
Analysis of the gender-differentiated impacts of revenue-raising policies and the allocation of resources. The aim is to create enabling policy frameworks, build capacity and strengthen monitoring mechanisms to support accountability and improve gender equality.

**GENDER EQUALITY**
The result of the absence of discrimination on the basis of a person’s sex in terms of opportunities in all spheres of life, the allocation of resources and benefits or access to and control over services.

**GENDER EQUITY**
The concept recognises that women and men have different needs, experiences and powers. These differences should be identified and addressed in a manner that rectifies the imbalances between the sexes. Gender equity entails the provision of fairness and justice in the distribution of benefits and responsibilities between women and men.

**GENDER IDENTITY**
A person’s sense of being male or female, resulting from a combination of genetic and environmental influences and a person’s concept of being male/masculine or female/feminine, or ambivalent.

**GENDER MAINSTREAMING**
Introduced at the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing (1995) and defined and reaffirmed by Economic and Social Council agreed conclusions. According to ECOSOC Agreed Conclusions 1997/2 it “is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies and programmes, in all areas and at all levels, and as a strategy for making women’s as well as men’s concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and social spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality”.

**GENDER ROLES**
Learned behaviours in a given society/community or other group that condition what activities, tasks and responsibilities are perceived as appropriate for women or men. Gender roles are affected by age, class, race, ethnicity or religion and by the geographical, economic and political environment. Changes in gender roles often occur in response to changing economic, social or political circumstances.

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GREENHOUSE GAS
The main greenhouse gases regulated under the Kyoto Protocol are Carbon Dioxide (CO2), Methane (CH4), Nitrous Oxide (N2O), Hydrofluorocarbons (HFC), Perfluorocarbons (PFC) and Sulphur Hexafluoride (SF6).

GENDER IMPACT ASSESSMENTS
Tool to support policy-makers in incorporating a gender perspective into policies. It aims at taking into account the different needs, characteristics and behaviours of the targeted individuals or groups.

INTERSECTIONALITY
The concept describes the ways in which inequality and discrimination based on, among others, sex, racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation are interconnected and cannot be examined separately from one another. Intersectionality is also used as a tool for analysis, advocacy and policy development that addresses multiple discriminations and helps to understand how different sets of identities impact on access to rights and opportunities.

INTERGOVERNMENTAL PANEL ON CLIMATE CHANGE
A scientific body under the auspices of the United Nations. It reviews and assesses the most recent scientific, technical and socio-economic information produced worldwide relevant to the understanding of climate change, see www.ipcc.ch

MITIGATION
Mitigation of climate change aims at the reduction of the drivers of climate change (greenhouse gas emissions).

MULTIPLE DISCRIMINATION
Any combination of discrimination on the grounds of sex, racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation.

RESSILIENCE
The ability of a social or ecological system to absorb disturbances while retaining the same basic structure and ways of functioning, the capacity for self-organisation and the capacity to adapt naturally to stress and change (as defined by the IPCC).

SEX
(In contrast to gender); the biological differences between men and women.

UNITED NATIONS FRAMEWORK CONVENTION ON CLIMATE CHANGE
The fundamental international treaty on climate change that entered into force in 1994. It involves ambitious objectives and important principles, but the provisions to emission reduction proved inadequate. Therefore, the Kyoto Protocol was adopted which legally binds developed countries to emission reduction targets (first commitment period: 2008-2012; second commitment period: 2013-2020). The parties to the convention are currently negotiating a comprehensive regime involving both developed and developing countries, the Durban Platform for Enhanced Action. Negotiations are to be concluded in 2015 in order for a new treaty to enter into force in 2020. For more information, see www.unfccc.int

VULNERABILITY
Vulnerability to climate change is the degree to which geophysical, biological and socio-economic systems are susceptible to and unable to cope with the adverse impacts of climate change.
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