GENDER JUST CLIMATE FINANCE MANUAL

Gender & Climate - Promoting a gender-responsive implementation of the Paris climate agreement





IMPRINT

Published by:
Women Engage for a Common Future WECF e.V.,
St.-Jakobs-Platz 10, 80331 München
Tel.: +49(0)89 23 23 938-0, www.wecf.org/de

Netherlands (WECF International)
Arthur van Schendelstraat 550, 3511 MH Utrecht
The Netherlands
Telefoon: +31 6 19313741

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Authors:
Clara Kraske
Anke Stock
Marcela Noreña Ospina
Nicola Lange
Anne Barre
Valeria Pelãez Cardona
Rana Aydin
Clara Schottelius
Rose Heffernan

Editors:
Ivanka Custodio
Paula Friess

Design: Anja Wesner

Supported by:
the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ).
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Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development

And our project partners:

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GLOSSARY

Colonialism – Colonialism is when a country violently takes over another country, and forces its way of life (cultural practices, economic lopment, language, religious beliefs etc.) on the local people. This has created a dynamic whereby the coloniser extracts resources from the colonies in order to further their own development, whilst hindering the development of the colonies. This is the biggest cause of global inequality (WECF, n.d.).

Gender – Gender can be conceptualised as the complex interrelationship between somebodies' physical body, their identity (how they view their gender), and their social gender (the attributes society gives). This interrelationship is dynamic, these categories are not fixed, and a persons' gender can change.

Global North, East, South, West – How to refer to different groups of countries is often complicated and contains normative bias. During the Cold War first second, and third world were used to define capitalist, communist and (post)colonies respectively. Developed and developing countries was then used in the years following the end of the Cold War. However, both of these framings imply a hierarchy that places colonisers at the top. In recent years, the terms global North, East, South and West have increasingly been used. These are not strict geographical distinctions, and no categorisation is homogeneous but it can be a useful non-normative phrasing to talk about global trends.

Intersectionality – Intersectionality examines the intersections of racism/colonialism, capitalism, and patriarchy; and their by-products: classism, homo- and transphobia, cis- and ableism. The concept is used to highlight the fact that people can experience multiple forms of discrimination at the same time. The concept of intersectionality, coined by Kimberlé Crenshaw, is grounded in decades of activism that battled the simultaneous challenges of racism and sexism throughout the 20th century. The core idea is that you cannot separate a person's identity markers, but these coexist and affect the opportunities available to them in society. The Centre for Intersectional Justice has more helpful resources.

Men & Women – are socially constructed categories in a binary system. This attribution is based on the assumption that the sex ascribed at birth aligns with the gender expressions and roles fit the traditional expectations. We want to move beyond binary thinking for all identities and women and men in all their diversities and different identities (cf. ibid.).

Mitigation & Adaptation – Efforts to reduce emissions and enhance sinks are referred to as "mitigation". The UNFCCC Convention e.g. requires all Parties, keeping in mind their responsibilities and capabilities, to formulate and implement programmes containing measures to mitigate climate change (UNFCCC, Introduction to Mitigation, n.d.). Adaptation refers to adjustments in ecological, social or economic systems in response to actual or expected climatic stimuli and their effects. It refers to changes in processes, practices and structures to moderate potential damages or to benefit from opportunities associated with climate change (UNFCCC, Introduction, n.d.).

Sex (biological sex) – The physical and biological characteristics that distinguish males and females.

1. INTRODUCTION

Climate change is a reality that has profound and far-reaching impacts on natural ecosystems and social relations. Women, along with other marginalised groups, are disproportionately affected by climate change due to pre-existing inequalities in decision-making, access to resources, and vulnerability to gender-based violence. Yet, the implementation of gender-responsive climate policies remains a challenge, hindering the achievement of a just, equitable and sustainable future for all. The gradual emergence of feminist foreign policies, which incorporate gender considerations using OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) gender equality markers, in countries such as Sweden, Canada, France, Mexico, and more recently, Germany, marks an important step in addressing these challenges.

This manual offers a comprehensive guide to understanding the intricate connections between climate justice, gender equality, and climate finance. It begins by outlining the "Gender & Climate - Promoting a gender-responsive implementation of the Paris Climate Agreement" project's background, and this manual's objectives and methodology. Following this, the manual delves into the concept of climate justice, presenting key facts and figures on climate change, and reviewing international climate commitments and policies. The third section examines the gender-climate nexus, discussing gender justice, structural inequalities faced by different genders, and the differentiated impacts of climate change on men and women. The fourth section on climate finance addresses the costs associated with climate change, the fundamentals of climate finance, and the international climate finance landscape, including public funding.

Each chapter includes an analysis of specific situations in Colombia, Georgia, and Uganda, providing country-specific contexts in relation to the respective chapter topics. Finally, practical exercises are provided to offer a hands-on approach for incorporating these themes into workshops and training sessions.

1
Project and Background

"Gender & Climate - Promoting a gender-responsive implementation of the Paris Climate Agreement" is a BMZ (Federal Ministry of Economic Development and Cooperation) funded project currently being implemented by Women Engage for a Common Future and its partners, ARUWE (Uganda), ENDA Colombia and WECF Georgia. The project's overall objective is to strengthen and expand the capacities of climate actors to plan, finance and implement their climate actions in a gender-responsive manner, building on existing good practices, and focusing on and engaging civil society and feminist organisations.

A key element of the project is the conduct of trainings, combined with broader skill-sharing meetings. These trainings are aimed at collectively empowering and self-empowering women and girls in all their diversity to develop and implement gender-responsive climate policies/programmes, and to participate proactively and actively in climate-related decision-making processes at the national level. This manual serves as a guide for conducting these trainings.

OECD Gender Marker

The OECD marker refers to a system developed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) to track and measure the gender impact and allocation according to gender equality targets of development aid (OECD , 2016). The markers underly a three-point scoring system, which allow measuring projects/programmes as gender equality focused or not. The scoring is the following:

In more detail the "[...] marker is a key monitoring and accountability tool in the context of 2030 Agenda. It is the only common tool available to DAC* members to track bilateral aid in support of the implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) commitments on gender equality. It can contribute to identifying gaps between policy and financial commitments and incentivise efforts to close them [...]" (OECD, 2016).

NOT TARGETED (SCORE 0/GG0):	The project/programme has been screened against the marker but has not been found to target gender equality.
SIGNIFICANT (SCORE 1/GG1):	Gender equality is an important and deliberate objective, but not the principal reason for undertaking the project/program.
PRINCIPAL (SCORE 2/GG2):	Gender equality is the main objective of the project/programme and is fundamental in its design and expected results. The project/program would not have been undertaken without this gender equality objective.

* DAC stands for Development Assistance Committee and it is as unique international forum of many of the largest providers of aid, including 32 members (OECD, n.d.).

Feminist Foreign Policy

The Centre for Feminist Foreign Policy (CFFP) proposes the following definition: "A Feminist Foreign Policy (FFP) is a political framework centered around the wellbeing of marginalised people and invokes processes of self-reflection regarding foreign policy's hierarchical global systems. FFP takes a step outside the black box approach of traditional foreign policy thinking and its focus on military force, violence, and domination by offering an alternate and intersectional rethinking of security from the viewpoint of the most vulnerable…." (Centre for Feminist Foreign Policy, n.d.). Germany adopted its Feminist Foreign Policy in 2023. Both its feminist foreign (Auswärtiges Amt, 2023) and its feminist development policy (Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit und Entwicklung, n.d.) aim to promote gender equality and the empowerment of marginalized groups, recognising the link between gender justice and global peace, security, and development. These policies center the experiences and rights of women, girls, and underrepresented groups. In doing so, they rely on the 3R-principle, which stands for Rights, Representation and Resources (Auswärtiges Amt, 2023).

1.2. Objectives and Methodology

The objective of the manual is to suggest topics, session content, exercises and tools for facilitating trainings around the issues of gender-responsive climate policies and gender-just access to climate finance. The manual builds on the materials and knowledge exchanged during trainings and workshops in the project partner countries. It is likewise based on the work previously undertaken within this project, including a consultation with national gender and climate focal points and other experts from the project countries on their experiences with gender-responsive and gender-ignorant climate policies and programmes, and the analysis of good practices of gender-transformative climate projects.

The methodology is therefore based on a co-creation approach, taking into account the imminent results (analysis and recommendations) from the project. The information used in this manual are based on the structural barriers identified along the lines of the "3Rs" – Rights, Representation and Resources – of Feminist Foreign Policy (FFP), good practices from the implementation of projects and programmes within Georgia, Colombia and Uganda, and the training experiences of the project partners. The methodology is a self-service tool, and can be used according to the needs of the target groups,

2. CLIMATE JUSTICE

This chapter provides an overview of the issue of climate change and the existing international climate commitments and policies. Furthermore, this chapter will give an overview of these two topics in the respective countries (Colombia, Uganda and Georgia), as well as an introduction to the gender dimensions of climate change. At the end of this chapter, exercises on these topics are to be found.

2.1 Facts & Figures

To understand how climate change affects our environment in different ways, you can look at different data and graphs. The development of the global average temperature, of the major greenhouse gases and of the global sea surface temperature are particularly significant here (United Nations, What is Climate Change?, n.d.)

Global average temperature

Global temperatures have increased significantly over the last 60 years, averaging about 0.15°C every decade since the 1960s (Figure 1). Human activities like the burning of fossil fuels and deforestation, which raise the atmospheric concentration of greenhouse gases, are mostly to blame for this warming. The rate of increase has considerably sped up, especially in the last 50 years. The past 10 years were marked by significant warming, with several years setting records for the highest average global temperatures (European Commision, n.d.). However, it is important to note that not all regions of the world are affected in the same way. "Some regions are warming faster than others, which matters for local ecosystems, weather patterns, and human impacts." (Samborska, 2024).

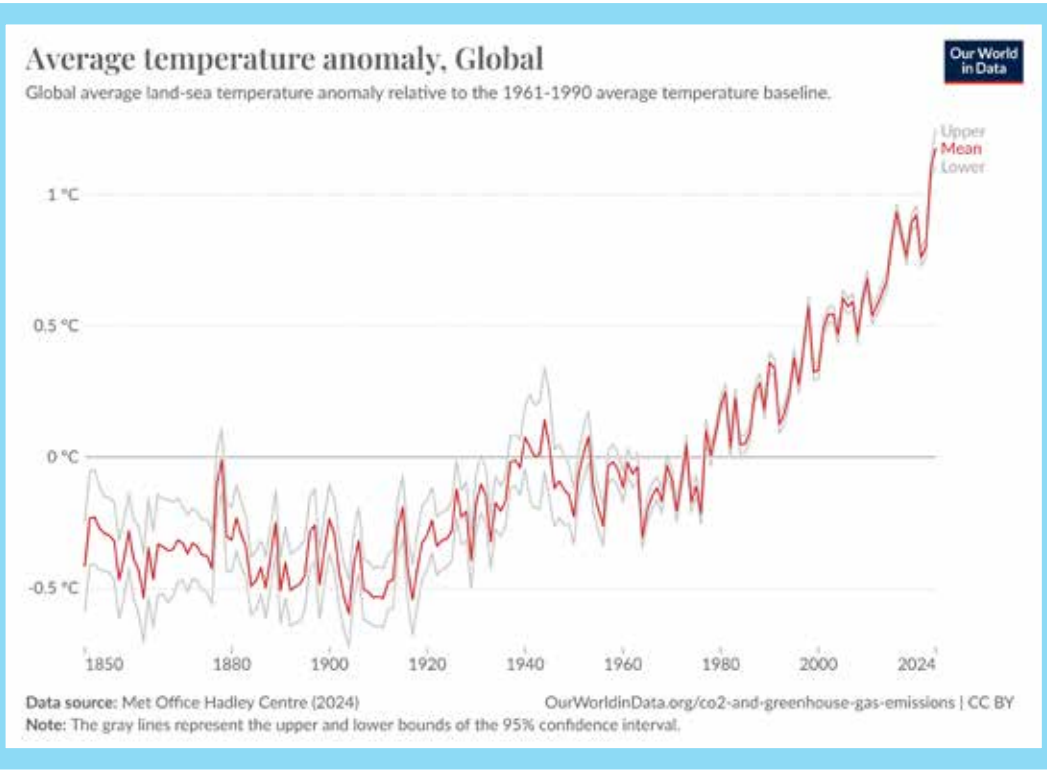


Figure 1
Our World in Data -Average temperature anomaly, Global

Greenhouse gases

The primary greenhouse gases contributing to global warming are carbon dioxide (CO2) and methane (CH4). We can trace a significant increase in the concentration of major greenhouse gases over the last 20 years (Figure 2 & 3). These increases are primarily driven by human activities such as fossil fuel combustion, agriculture, deforestation, and industrial processes, which contribute to the enhanced greenhouse effect and global warming (Copernicus Climate Change Service, n.d.).

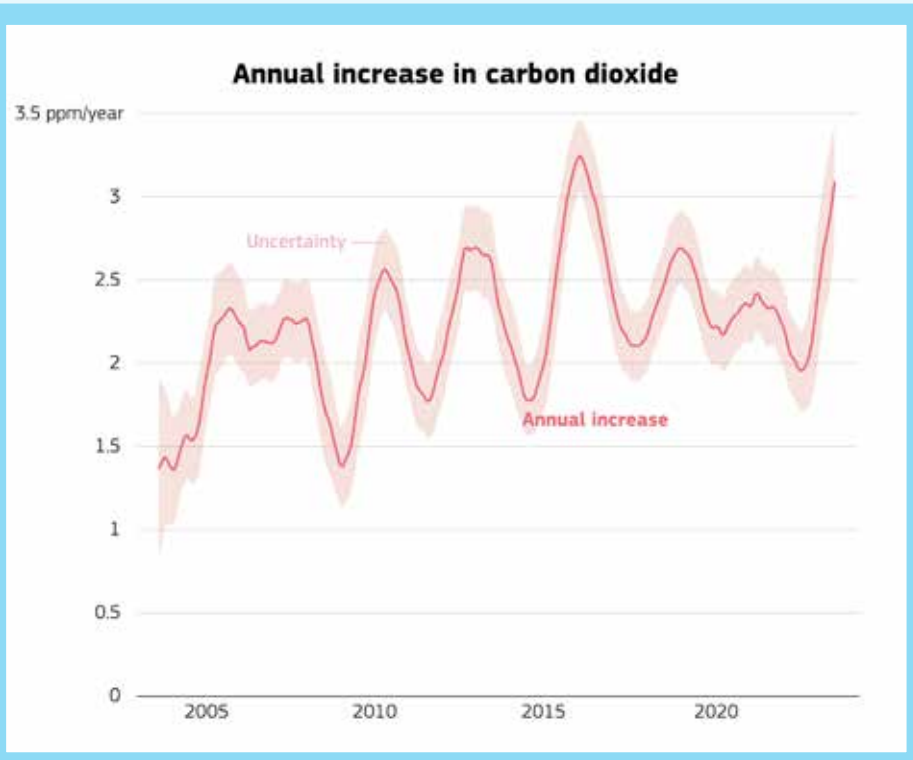


Figure 2: Copernicus Climate Change Service: Carbon Dioxide

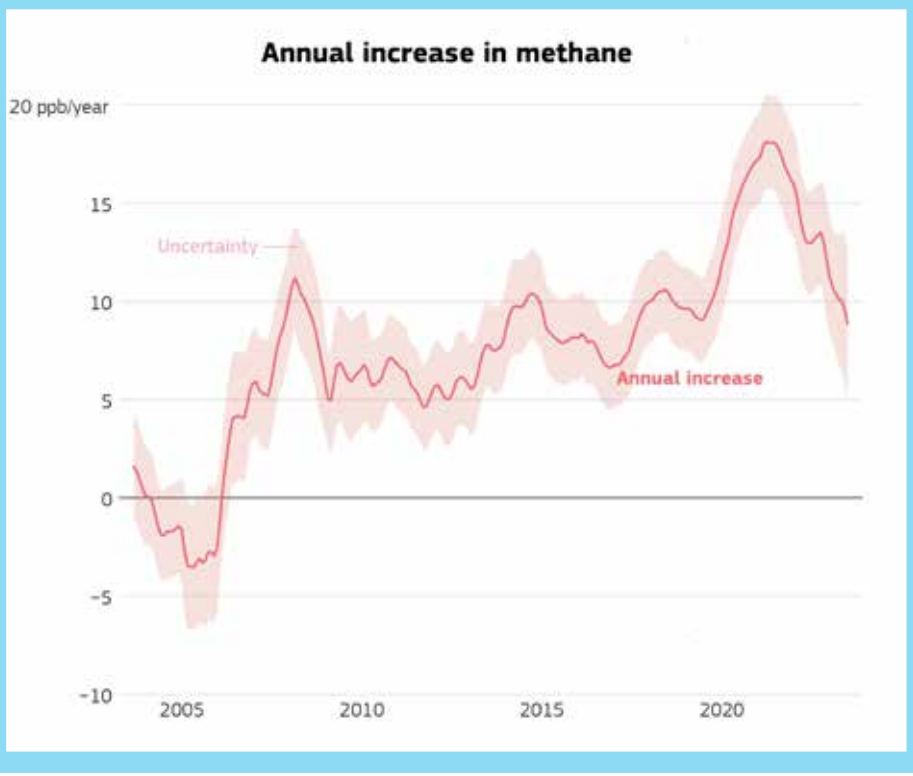


Figure 3: Copernicus Climate Change Institute: Methane

Global sea surface temperature

For the global sea surface temperature (SST) we can see the same trend. In the span of the last 10 years, sea surface temperatures are chasing new record highs every month. The period saw some of the highest increases in SST, with a rate of about 0.2 degrees Celsius (Figure 4). February 2024 was the warmest February on record globally and it is the ninth month in a row that was the warmest on record for the respective month of the year (Copernicus Climate Change Service, 2024).

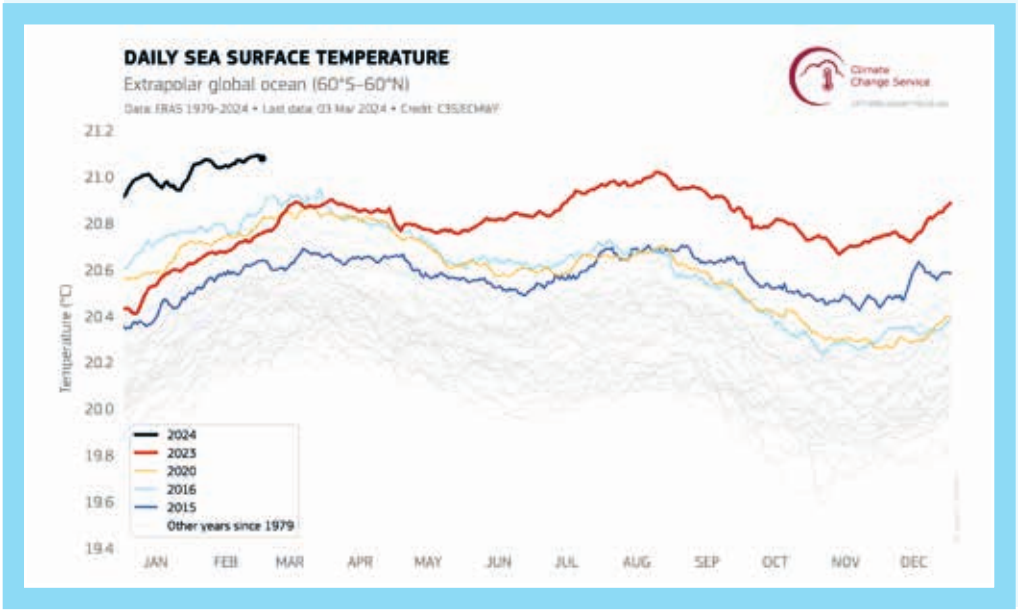


Figure 4:
Copernicus Climate Change Service - Daily Sea Surface Temperature

Global greenhouse gas emissions by sector
As already mentioned above, human activities such as fossil fuel combustion, agriculture, deforestation, and industrial processes are the main drivers of climate change. By causing climate change, these activities have far-reaching consequences for both the environment and human health. We experience increased frequency and intensity of extreme weather, flooding, droughts and wildfires. There have been significant sea level rises and biodiversity loss. Phenomena caused by that, such as heatwaves, poorer air quality, and increased spread of diseases can lead to severe health consequences (World Health Organization, 2023).

To determine the major sources of greenhouse gas emissions, we can look at different key sectors (Figure 5). The figure shows that energy production and use are responsible for three-quarters of global emissions; agriculture, forestry and land use for one-fifth, and waste and industry for the remaining 8% (Ritchie, 2020).

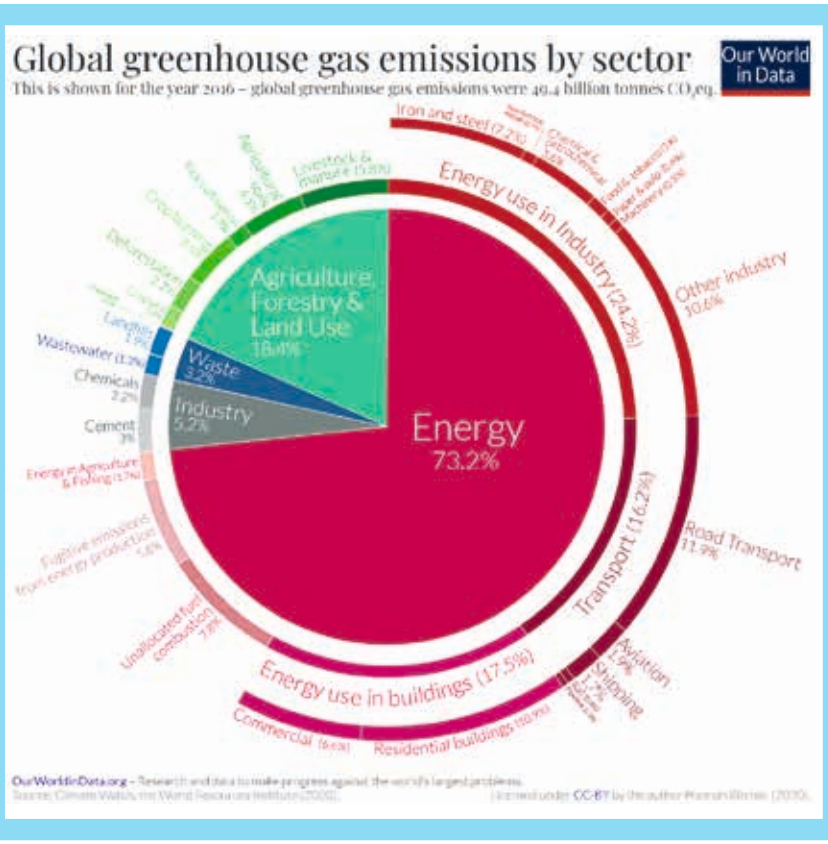


Figure 5:
Our World Data: Global greenhouse gas emissions by sector

2.2. International Commitments and Policies

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) is the first treaty to address climate change, signed in 1992 and ratified by 198 countries (United Nations, 1992). The convention's primary goal (Article 2) is to stabilise greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at levels that prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system. The treaty sets out responsibilities for three categories of states, namely: developed countries (Annex I Parties), developed countries with special financial responsibilities (Annex II Parties), and developing countries (Non-Annex I Parties) (United Nations General Assembly, 1992).

This categorisation acknowledges varying responsibilities and capabilities among different countries, thus establishing principles, such as common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities (CBDR-RC). Developed countries (Annex I), as the major contributors of past and current greenhouse gas emissions, bear greater responsibility to cut their domestic emissions by adopting national policies and taking corresponding measures to limit their emissions of greenhouse gases. They should also report on steps for returning individually or jointly to their 1990 greenhouse gas emission levels.

Its decision-making body is the Conference of the Parties (COP) (United Nations, 1992), which meets every year to push implementation and to negotiate new agreements that address climate change from various angles, e.g. mitigation, adaptation, finance, and technology transfer. The COPs provide an opportunity for global participation and showcasing regional perspectives involving thousands of participants, including government delegates, observers, journalists, and civil society representatives.

The Lima Work Programme on Gender (LWPG), first adopted in 2014, is designed to advance gender-responsive climate policy and action at all levels. In 2019, the COP adopted the five-year Enhanced LWPG and its Gender Action Plan (GAP) (United Nations, 2019).

As of July 2024, there have been 26 COP sessions under the UNFCCC. Several COP sessions have set milestones that shape today's climate regulations such as Kyoto Protocol (COP3, 1997), Marrakech Accords (COP7, 2001), Copenhagen Accord (COP15, 2009), Paris Agreement (COP21, 2015), and Glasgow Climate Pact (COP26, 2021).

Kyoto Protocol

The Kyoto Protocol is the first legally binding climate treaty (United Nations, 1998). It was adopted in 1997 and entered force in 2005. The primary goal of the Kyoto Protocol is to commit developed countries (Annex I parties) to legally binding emission reduction targets for greenhouse gases (GHGs) over the period of 2008-2012.

According to the Kyoto Protocol, Annex I parties agree to reduce their overall emissions of six GHGs (carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide, hydrofluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons, and sulphur hexafluoride) by an average of 5% below 1990 levels during the commitment period. It also created a monitoring system to follow up on the progress of countries.

Paris Agreement

The Paris Agreement (United Nations, 2015) is an international treaty adopted during COP21 in Paris, France in 2015, and entered into force in 2016. It aims to strengthen the global response to climate change by limiting the global temperature increase this century to well below 2 degrees Celsius above pre-industrial levels, with efforts to further limit the increase to 1.5 degrees Celsius. 195 out of 198 parties to the UNFCCC have joined the Paris Agreement. At its core are the Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) requiring all countries to submit information outlining their climate actions and targets, which need to be reviewed and updated every five years (United Nations, 2015). The agreement also emphasises transparency through an enhanced transparency framework (ETF) for reporting and reviewing progress towards achieving climate goals.

The ETF mandates countries to submit biennial transparency reports detailing their greenhouse gas emissions, progress on NDCs, and adaptation efforts. These reports undergo rigorous technical reviews by independent experts to ensure accuracy and compliance with international standards.

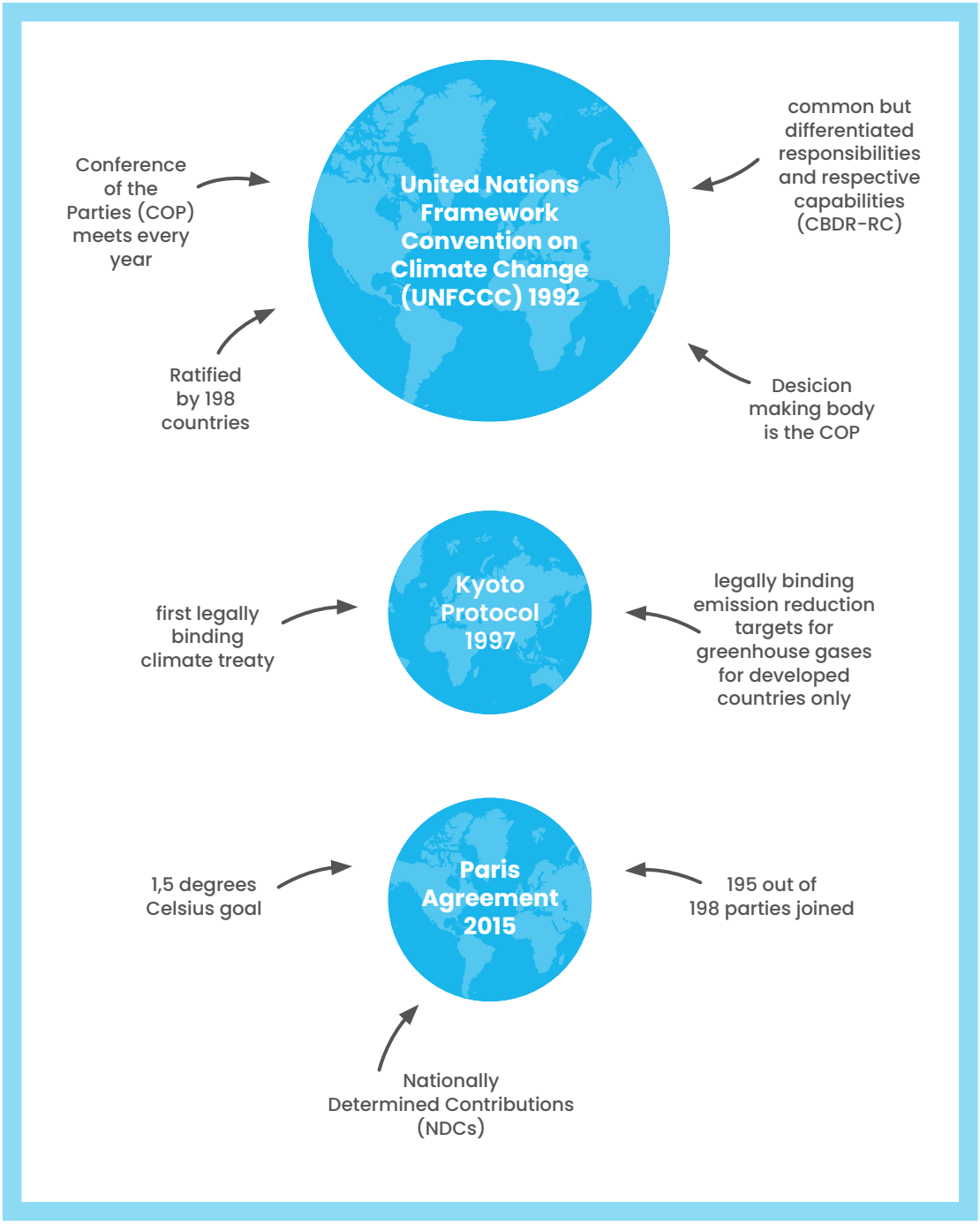


Figure 6: Most important International Climate Agreements

2.3. Situation in Colombia, Georgia, and Uganda

In the frame of the project, WECF Germany is working together with its partners from Uganda, Colombia and WECF Georgia. The following section provides an overview of climate-relevant information on the individual countries.

COLOMBIA

Colombia is a country of great environmental relevance and is recognised as a megadiverse country with a wide range of ecosystems and water resources. The country is considered the 25th largest nation in the world and the second most populous country in South America, after Brazil. It was estimated that in 2020, Colombia had a total of 50.8 million inhabitants.

The country has the highest rate of recurrence of extreme events in all of South America, particularly flooding and other events like cyclones, droughts, and earthquakes (World Bank Group, Country Colombia, n.d.). With 84 percent of the population and 86 percent of its assets located in areas susceptible to two or more hazards, Colombia ranks 10th globally in terms of economic risk posed by three or more hazards. Vulnerability hotspots are its Caribbean and Andean region, where key sectors such as housing, transport, energy, agriculture and health are located (ibid). Further exacerbating flooding and landslides in the country are rapid population growth in poorly planned urban areas, informal settlements, and densely populated coastal areas. Coastal and insular regions are likewise at risk from sea level rise.

From 1980 to 2020, Colombia experienced an average of 77 floods and 10 storms every year. In 2020, 277,800 people were affected by storms and 56,617 by floods (Figure 7&8). In 2022, Colombia experienced the highest number of natural catastrophes, with a total of 14 events, due to climate change since 1990 (Salas, 2024).

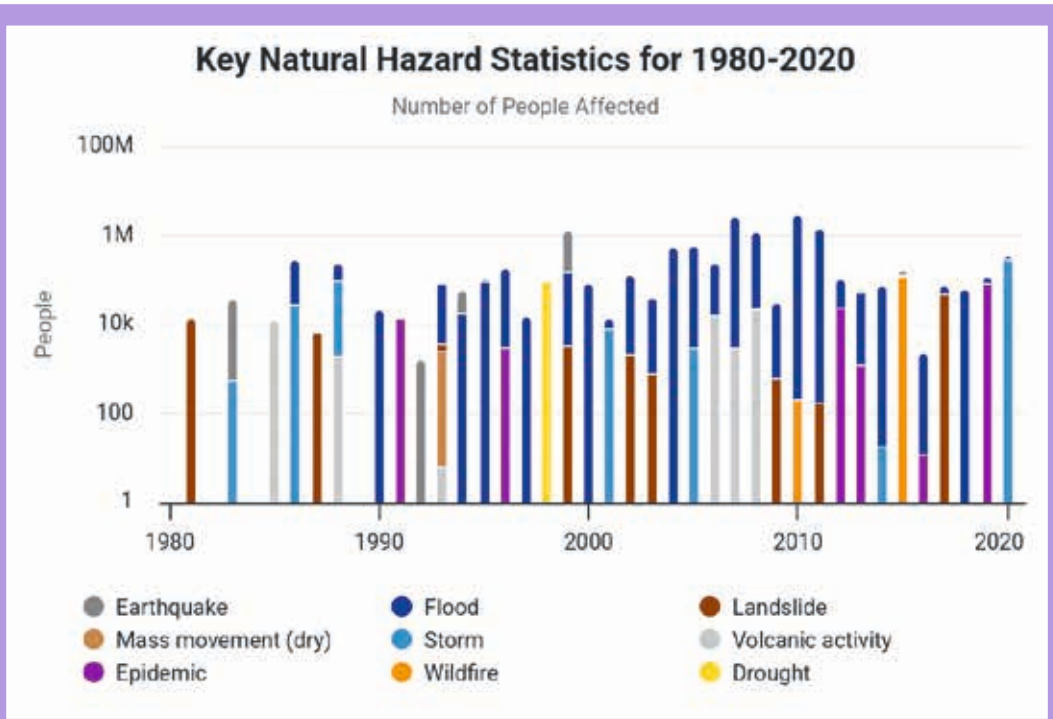


Figure 7: World Bank Climate Change Knowledge Portal - Colombia

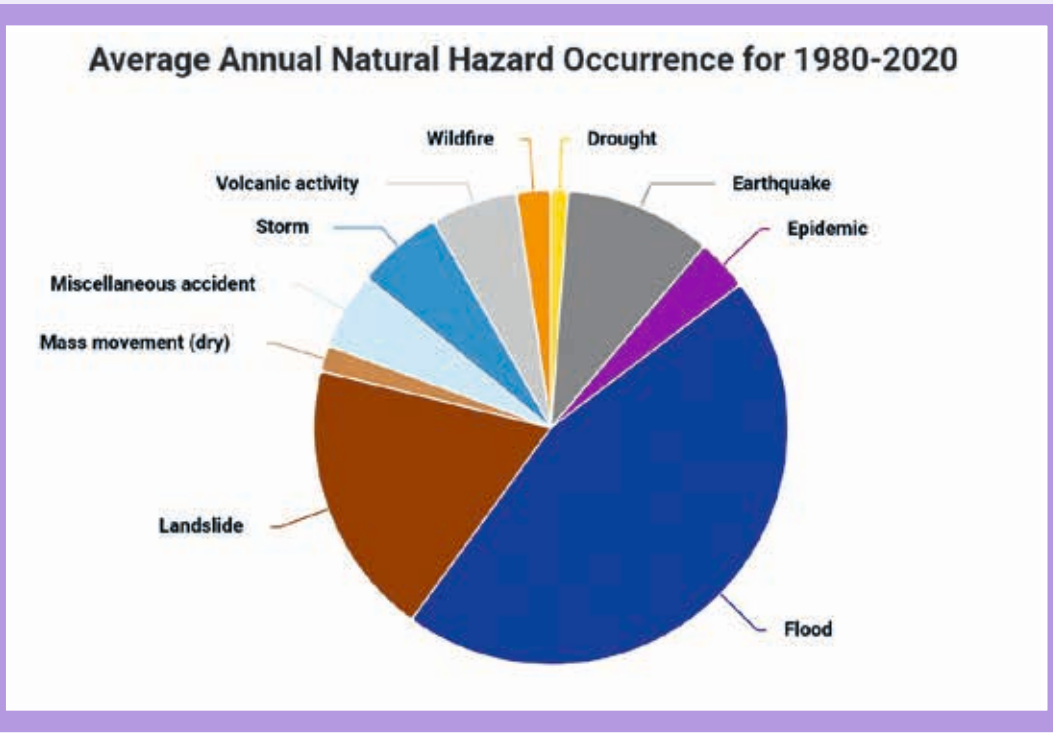


Figure 8: World Bank Climate Change Knowledge Portal - Colombia

GEORGIA

Georgia is a country located in the Caucasus region, on the shores of the Black Sea. The country has both high mountains in the Caucasus, and coastal regions with beaches on the Black Sea.

Georgia's population is 3.72 million and women make up 51.8% of the population. High levels of emigration since independence from the Soviet Union in the early 1990s have resulted in negative population growth in the country. In addition, internal displacement due to natural hazards (termed as 'ecomigrants') and internal conflict has led to a shift in the distribution of the population between urban and rural areas. Currently, around 58% of the population live in urban areas, with Tbilisi being the most populated city with an estimated population of 1.1 million (Asian Development Group, 2021).

According to data from ThinkHazard, Georgia is at risk of hydrometeorological hazards and natural disasters. Frequent natural disasters include landslides, floods, flash-flooding, mudflows, droughts, avalanches, heavy winds and storms.

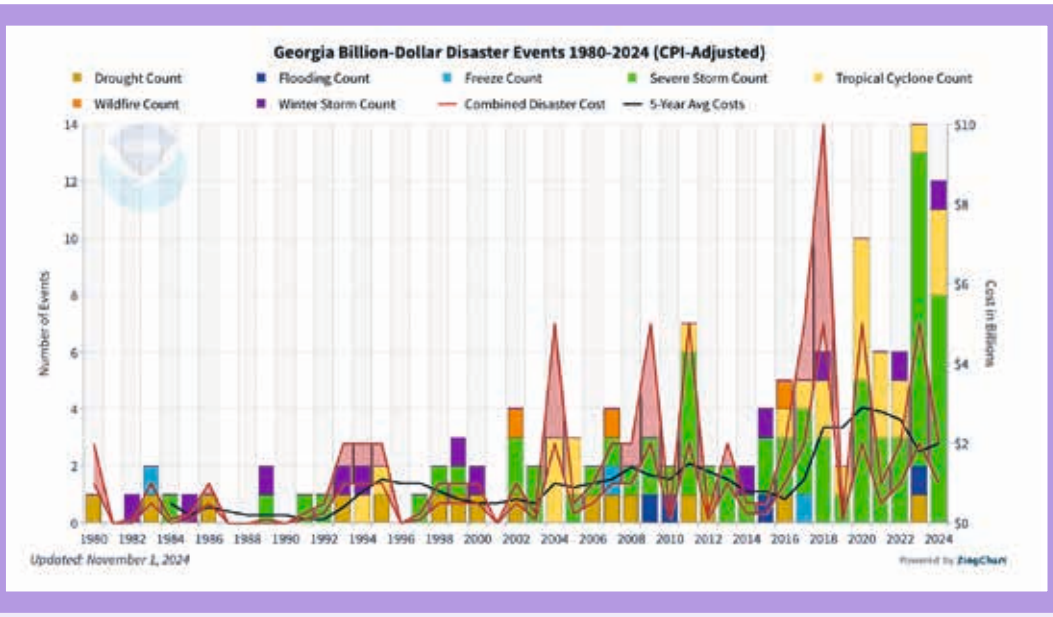


Figure 9: National Centers for Environmental Information - Georgia Summary

These risks are in part due to the country's complex mountainous relief but are expected to be exacerbated and heightened through expected climate changes. In recent years, the number of natural disasters has increased nearly three times and, in many cases, have been considered as catastrophic, causing fatalities and leading to significant economic losses (World Bank Group; Georgia, n.d.).

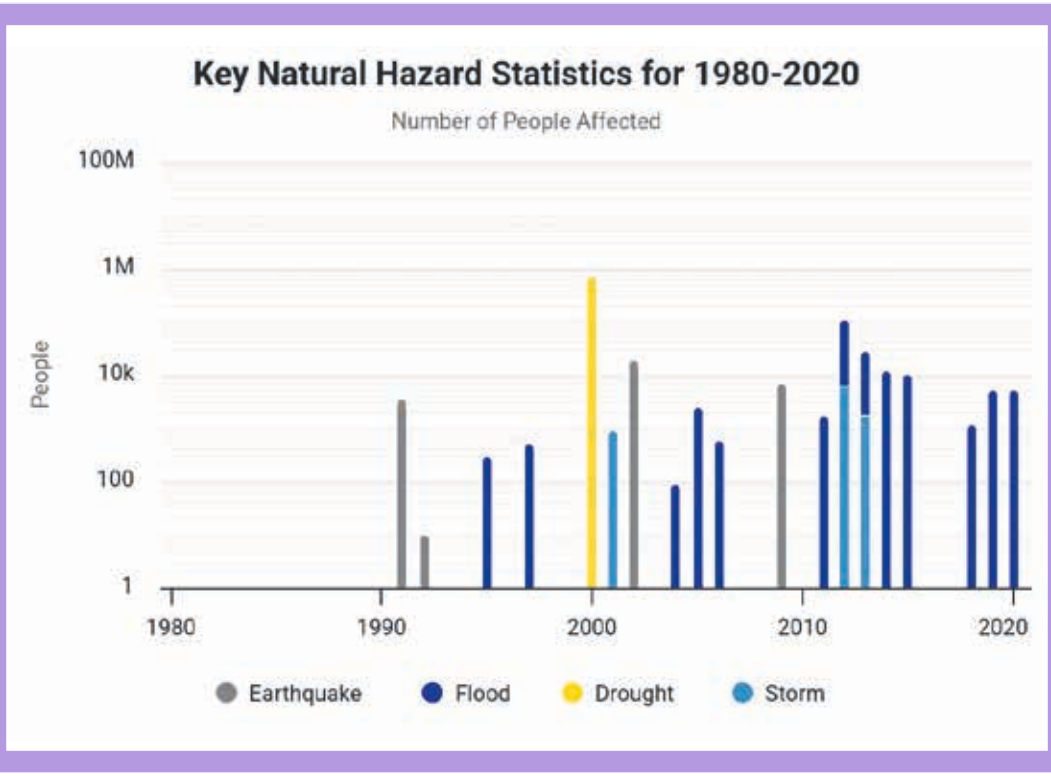


Figure 10: World Bank World Bank Climate Change Knowledge Portal - Georgia

From 1980–2024 (as of August 8, 2024), Georgia has faced a total of 129 confirmed weather/climate disaster events, with economic losses exceeding USD1 billion each year (NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information, 2024). These events included 16 drought events, 4 flooding events, 3 freeze events, 67 severe storm events, 24 tropical cyclone events, 3 wildfire events, and 12 winter storm events. The annual average is 2.8 events for the period of 1980-2023, and 7.6 events for the period of 2019–2023 (Figure 9). The number of people affected in Georgia by Natural Hazards has almost quadrupled between 2018 and 2020 (Figure 10).

UGANDA

Uganda contains a wide variety of species and ecosystems, making it one of the most biodiverse countries in Africa. It is also one of the most climate-vulnerable countries, not only because of its unique biophysical characteristics but also because of its high poverty rates, with 41% of the population living on less than USD1.90 per day. The country also has one of the highest population densities in Africa, with approximately 23.88 million women and 23.24 million men. Challenges associated with this high population density are land pressure, soil erosion, and deforestation. Uganda's rapidly growing population has highlighted the country's energy crisis, with 78% of rural households lacking access to the grid and instead relying on the use of firewood. According to the 2016 Uganda Demographic Health Survey, there is a clear gender gap in access to electricity, with 57.5% of men having access compared to only 18% of women (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2018).

According to climate data, Uganda's natural climate is moderate but has also been experiencing increased frequency and severity of extreme weather events. In the past decades, Uganda has experienced more erratic rainfalls leading to frequent busting of rivers, mudslides and landslides that lead to loss of lives and property especially among communities living in mountainous areas. At the same time, those in the lowlands experience floods. Prolonged dry seasons are also frequent, leading to loss of crops and livestock. From 1900 to 2018, the country has encountered 20 floods, 40 epidemics, 9 droughts, and 5 landslides events. The cumulative damages caused by those natural disasters amounts to over 200,000 human deaths and at least USD80 million in economic losses (World Bank Group; Uganda, n.d.).

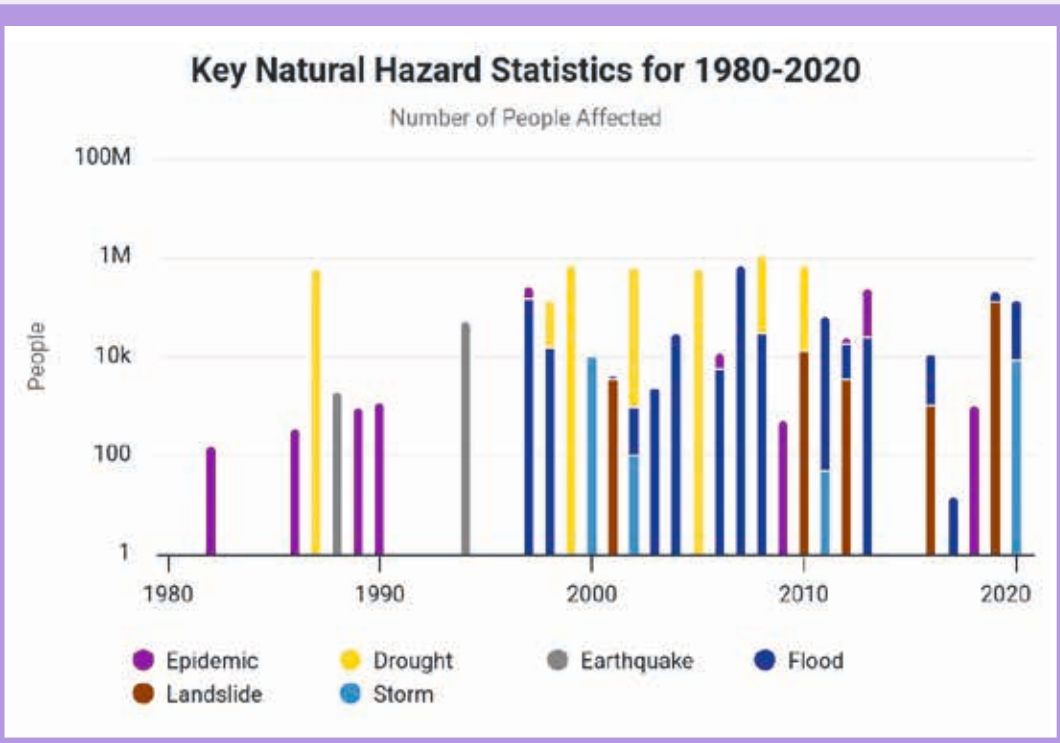


Figure 11: World Bank Climate Change Knowledge Portal - Uganda

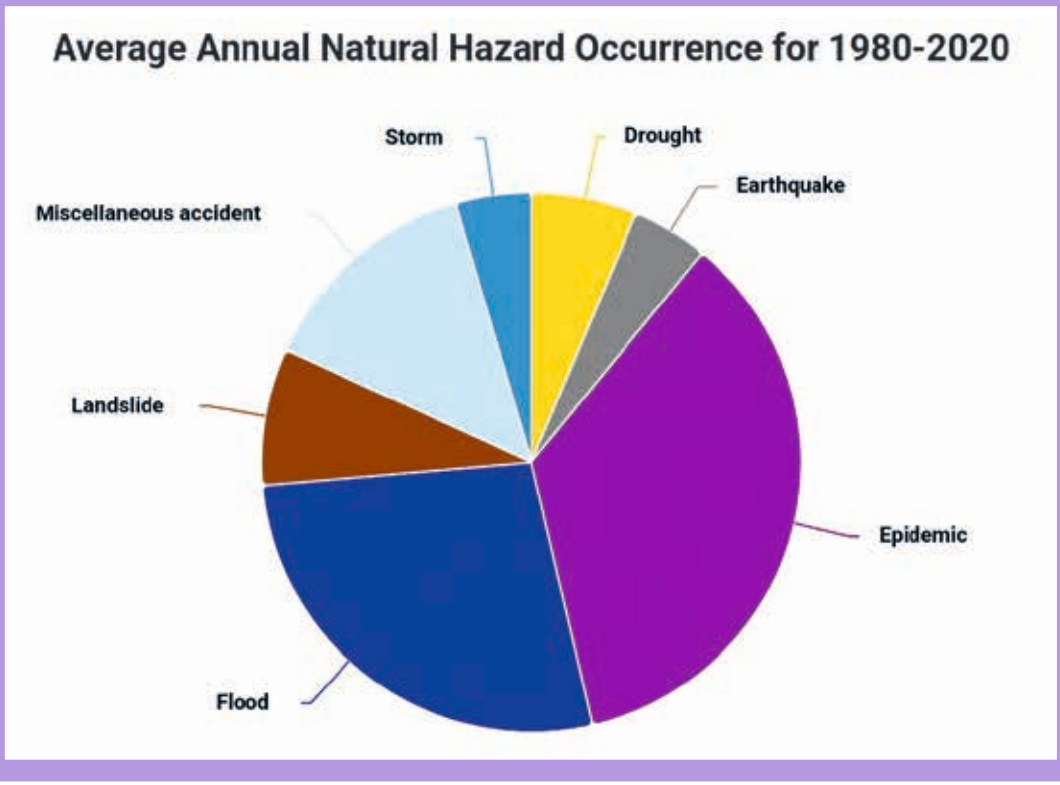


Figure 12: World Bank Climate Change Knowledge Portal - Uganda

In December 2023 alone, Uganda experienced a series of extreme weather events, including floods, landslides, fires, heavy storms and hailstorms. All due to the conclusion of rainy season and it had a significant impact on the population (Reliefweb, 2024). The annual average number of floods from 1980-2020 is 30, in 2020 131,500 people were affected by the consequences of floods (see Figure 12).

2.4. Exercises

In this section you will find exercises designed to explore the intersection between gender roles and the impacts of climate change. These activities aim to foster reflection on how gender influences the way individuals experience and respond to climate-related challenges. The exercises are from the Training manual on gender and climate resilience (Chauhan, 2021), where you can find many more examples.

EXERCISE 1: Matching cards for gender roles and differentiated impacts of CCDRR (Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction)
This exercise is designed to sensitise and encourage reflection among participants on existing gender roles and the differing impacts of climate change for women and men in various sectors.

Process:
Step 1: Prepare the 'gender role' cards. Using a marker and coloured cards, write down on each card the roles typically performed in various sectors (e.g. planting and harvesting food, drawing water, gathering fuel, etc.).

Step 2: Using the template below as reference, draw a chart on a whiteboard or a large sheet of paper posted on a wall. You can add other important sectors that are relevant to the country in which the exercise is performed.

Step 3: Distribute gender role cards among the participants. Ask them to place the cards under the women's or men's row according to the gender which is typically associated with that particular role in their country, and the sector in which the role is relevant. The group is encouraged to have a discussion on the different gender roles until every card is posted in its respective row.

Step 4: Facilitate a group reflection on the impacts of climate change in different sectors. Ask the participants to give examples of the impacts that they have experienced or know about (e.g. changing crop cycles, fresh water sources drying up, etc.). List down the responses under the Climate Change Impacts column.

Step 5: Encourage a group discussion on the gendered implications of climate change in relation to the sectors. Ask the participants how each climate change impact in these sectors affect women and men. The given answers, which will emphasise the differential impacts of climate change depending on the gender, are written as bullet points in the respective cells (Chauhan, 2021).

Sector		Gender Roles	Climate Change Impact	Gendered Vulnerability
Water	Men			
	Women			
Energy	Men			
	Women			
Food	Men			
	Women			
Fodder	Men			
	Women			

Template: Gender roles and differentiated impacts of CCDRR

EXERCISE 2: Moser framework for gendered climate risk mapping

This animated discussion around a specific gendered climate risk framework will enable participants to develop their understanding of the interconnection between women's typical gender roles and climate change.

Step 1: Divide the participants equally into four groups. Ask each group to think about one special occupational category of a middle-aged woman (farmer, fisherfolk, pastoralist, street vendor, home-based worker, garment worker) who might be part of their community.

Step 2: Ask each group to catalogue all the tasks and activities that are part of this woman's daily life, across all seasons.

Step 3: Encourage each group to fill in different activities in the chart below. Explain the different categories of activities as follows:

- Production or income-generation: activities which eventually earn them money like farming, goat rearing, dairy, fish marketing, tailoring, fodder management, forest produce collection, bee keeping, etc.
- Reproduction/Domestic work: activities for which women do not get directly paid, including tasks that are required to run their household including cooking, cleaning, washing, fetching water, child-care, elderly-care, nursing the sick, etc.
- Leisure/social roles: activities that include participation in common festivities, weddings, funerals, public meetings, etc.

Step 4: Based on the activities they identified, ask each group to discuss the difficulties and challenges specifically faced by women. The inputs could be similar to:

- Women do a lot of work and have only little time for leisure.
- Their productive work is often unrecognised and unpaid
- They are underrepresented in decision-making processes and in community management

Sector	Production/ Income related activities	Climate risks impacting the work	Reproduction/ Domestic work	Climate risks impacting the work	Leisure/ Social Roles
4 AM – 8 AM			Eg. Fetching water	Water Stress	
8 AM – 12 PM		Heat water stress			
12 PM – 4 PM	Eg. Farming				
4 PM – 8 PM			Eg. Cooking		
8 PM – 12 AM					

Template: Moser framework for gendered climate risk mapping

Step 5: Encourage the groups to discuss the climate risks affecting their region, with a focus on how these risks further impact women's role in society and in their livelihoods. Ask the groups to fill the chart with these impacts, as shown in the examples noted in the template above.

Step 6: Ask each group to collectively reflect on the questions below and share what they have discussed to the plenary:



3. GENDER CLIMATE NEXUS



The intersection between gender and climate change, also referred to as the 'gender-climate nexus,' is a critical area of study that highlights how climate change disproportionately affects women and girls. This nexus shows the increased vulnerabilities women face due to their reliance on natural resources and their limited capacity to respond to climate-related hazards. Women, particularly those in poverty, are more severely impacted by climate change because they are often responsible for securing food, water, and energy for their families, which becomes increasingly challenging as climate conditions worsen (UNFCCC, 2024).

Women's unequal participation in decision-making processes worsens these vulnerabilities, limiting their ability to contribute to and benefit from climate action. Despite these structural limitations, women play vital roles in climate adaptation and mitigation. Their local knowledge and leadership in sustainable practices are crucial for effective climate action at both community and policy levels. For instance, incorporating women's perspectives in climate policies has been shown to enhance their effectiveness and sustainability (UN Women, 2022). Women and girls are contributing differently to climate change by using different transport modes and having different mobility and consumption patterns (WECF& EEB, 2021).

The following section provides an overview of some of the structural inequalities that women and girls in all their diversity, are facing.

3.1 Gender Justice, or Gender as a Structural Inequality

Gender justice refers to the fair treatment of individuals regardless of gender, ensuring that everyone has equal rights, responsibilities, and opportunities (UNDP, 2024). It requires addressing the structural inequalities that have historically disadvantaged women and other marginalised genders, leading to disparities in power, economic status, and social roles. Despite its importance in achieving a just, equitable and sustainable world for everyone, the progress towards equal power and equal rights for women remains elusive around the world. Discriminatory laws, policies and attitudes remain common and ingrained across the globe (see. Ibid.).

Gender as a structural inequality refers to the systemic and institutionalised disparities that exist between genders, often to the detriment of women and marginalised groups. This form of inequality is deeply embedded in societal norms, economic systems, and cultural practices, leading to persistent disadvantages in various aspects of life. One of the most significant manifestations of gender-based structural inequality is the gender pay gap, where women consistently earn less than men for the same work or work of equal value, exacerbating economic disparities and limiting financial independence among women. The gender care gap further underscores this inequality, as women disproportionately shoulder unpaid caregiving responsibilities, which restricts their career opportunities and contributes to economic insecurity. This imbalance extends into retirement, creating a gender pension gap where women, having earned less and spent more time out of the workforce for caregiving, receive significantly lower pensions than men. These interconnected issues highlight the pervasive impact of gender as a structural inequality, reinforcing a cycle of economic disparity and limiting opportunities for women and gender minorities across generations (EIGE, n.d.).

Beyond economic dimension, gender inequality also cuts across other key aspects of life. The Global Gender Gap Index, first introduced by the World Economic Forum in 2006, tries to reflect and "benchmark progress towards gender parity and compare countries' gender gaps across four dimensions: economic opportunities, education, health and political leadership." (Figure 13) (World Economic Forum, 2023).

The Global Gender Gap Index

"The Global Gender Gap Index annually benchmarks the current state and evolution of gender parity across four key dimensions (Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational Attainment, Health and Survival, and Political Empowerment). The first section 1 presents each country's overall Global Gender Gap Index rank out of the 146 reviewed countries and its progress, represented on a 0-to-1 scale, towards closing the gender gap and achieving full gender parity (benchmark score of 1). The radar chart on the top left-hand side of each Economy Profile gives an overview of the country's scores for each of the four subindexes relative to the ideal outcome of full gender parity (score of 1) and the global average score of all economies in the Index weighted by population across all economies. The second section 2 of each Economy Profile provides an overview of each economy's ranks and scores on the four subindexes of the Global Gender Gap Index, as well as on the individual indicators that compose each subindex. For each of the indicators, column one displays the country's rank; column two displays the country's score; column three locates the country's score against the population-weighted global average for that indicator (out of 146 economies); column four displays the gap between the female and male value; column five charts the female and male value on a scale, respectively; and, finally, column six provides the minimum and maximum value used to scale each indicator in the previous column (World Economic Forum, 2023).

3.2.
Facts and Figures

Women's representation in the workforce

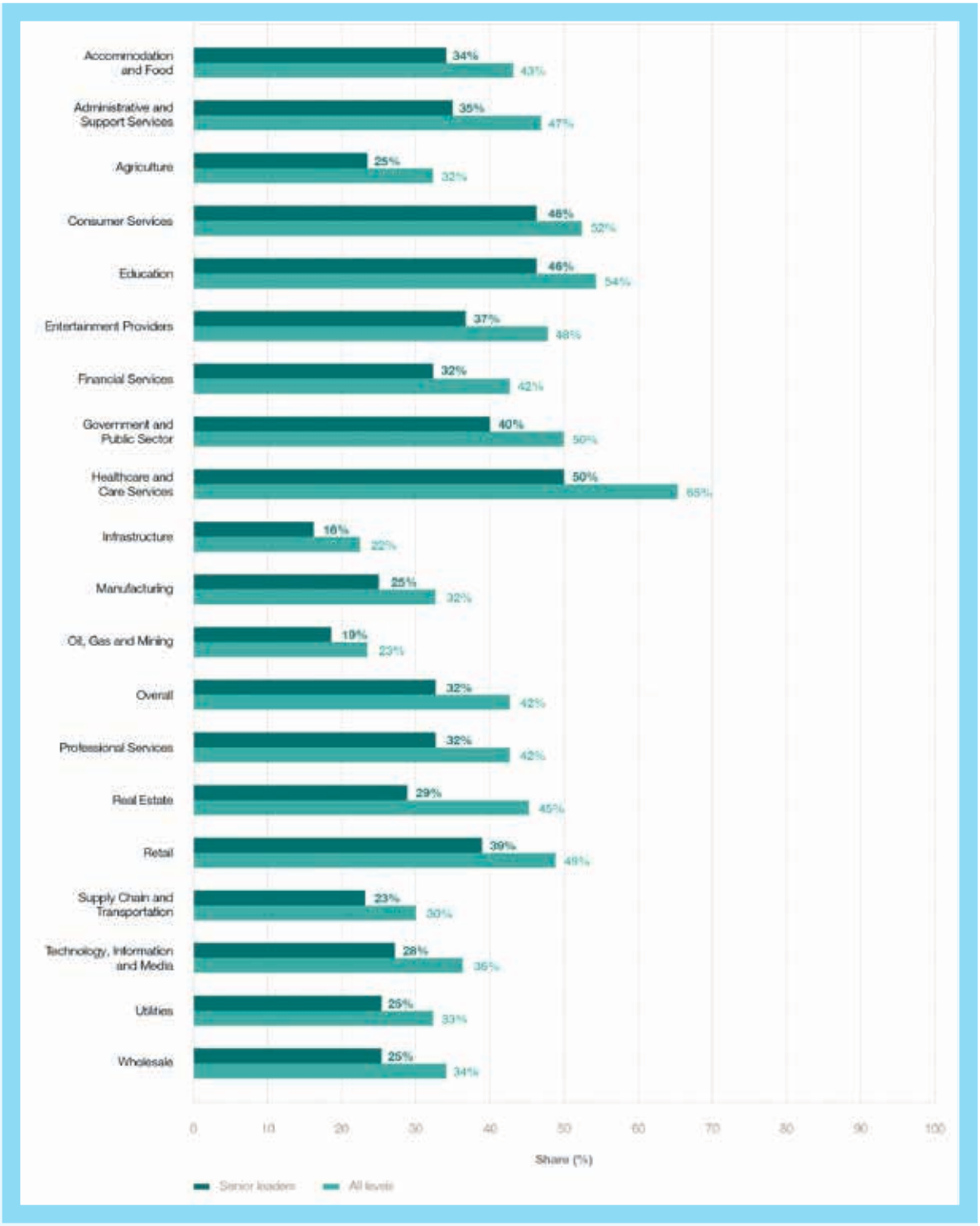


Figure 13: Global Gender Gap Report 2023 LinkedIn Economic Graph. Senior leaders | All levels

Looking at the data in Figure 13, the sectors where gender diversity in senior leadership is more present include: Healthcare and Care Services (49.5%), Education (46.0%), Consumer Services (45.9%), Government and Public Sector (40.3%), Retail (38.5%), Entertainment Providers (37.1%), Administrative and Support Services (34.7%), and Accommodation and Food (33.5%).

As of 2023, global statistics indicate that women continue to dominate the social and health care sectors, comprising approximately 60% of the workforce in these fields. This trend highlights persistent gender roles where women are predominantly responsible for caregiving. Women are the primary workforce in the health care sector, including nursing, midwifery, and elder care roles. The same is true for the social services sector where women make up the majority of the workforce. This gender imbalance underscores systemic issues such as lower wages and limited career advancement opportunities in these predominantly female sectors, reinforcing traditional caregiving roles and perpetuating economic disparities (World Economic Forum, 2023).

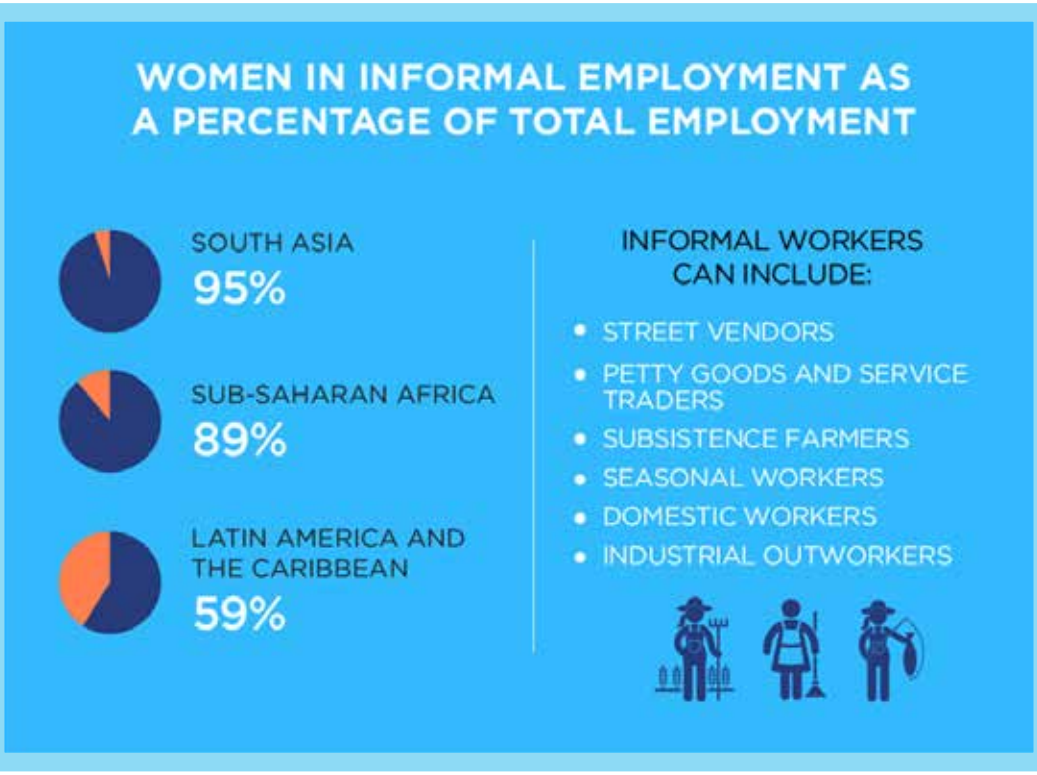


Figure 14: UN WOMEN Women in informal economy 2016

Further, women constitute a significant portion of the informal workforce, with around 95% in South Asia, 89% in Sub-Saharan Africa, and 59% in Latin America and the Caribbean engaged in informal employment (Figure 14). Faced with a lack of formal employment protections, these women are subjected to lower wages, unsafe working conditions, and long-term economic insecurity, including a higher likelihood of living in poverty during old age due to inadequate pension coverage (UN WOMEN, n.d.).

Globally, one-third of workers in the informal economy are employed in agriculture, with this figure rising to 62% in low-income countries (Figure 15), the majority of which are women (International Labour Organization, 2023).

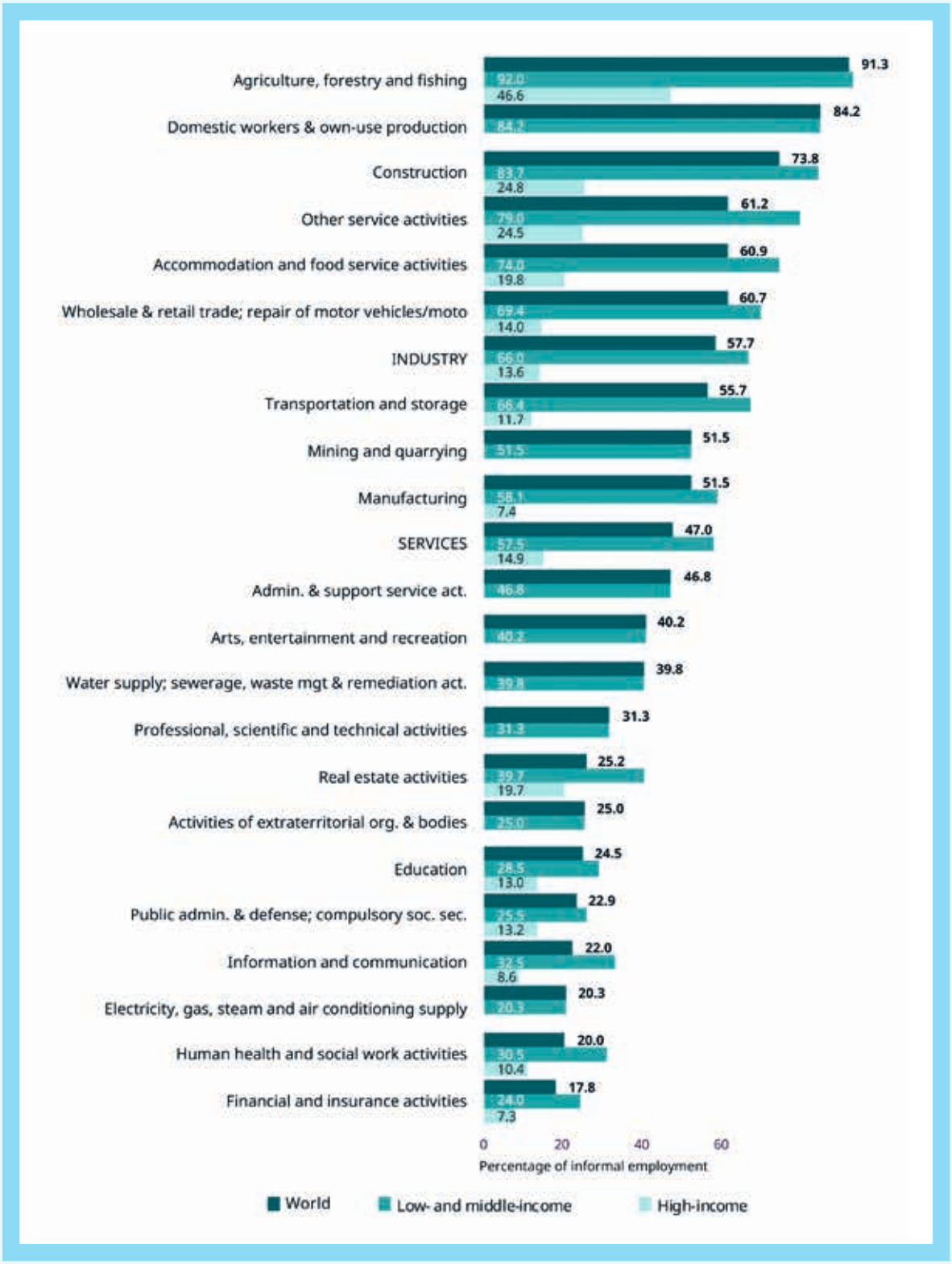


Figure 15: Percentage of informal employment by sector 2019

Women in desicion-making

Women also remain largely underrepresented in politics. Even though the global population under a female head of state has grown in the last few years, the number is still notably low under 30% (Figure 16). As noted by the World Economic Forum (2023): "Much like in the case of representation of women in business leadership, gender gaps in political leadership continue to persist. Although there has been an increase in the number of women holding political decision-making posts worldwide, achieving gender parity remains a distant goal and regional disparities are significant." This underrepresentation highlights the systemic barriers that continue to hinder women's full

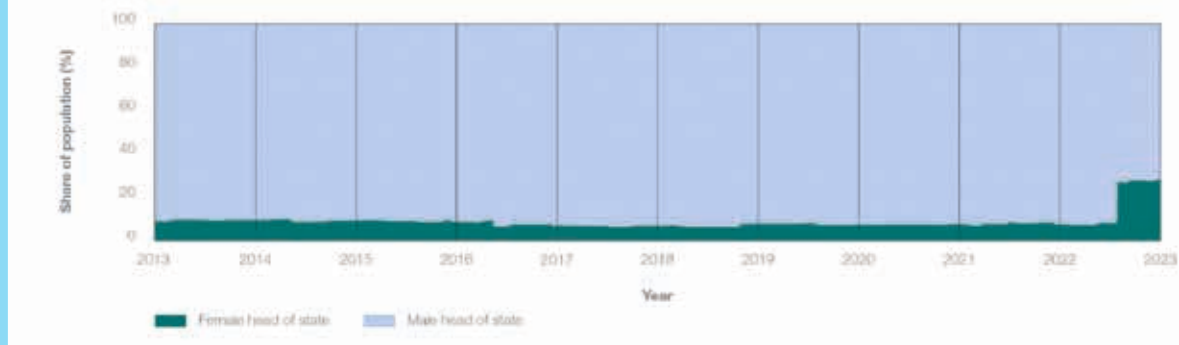


Figure 16: Global Gender Gap Report 2023

participation and leadership in politics, including gender bias, limited access to political networks, and societal norms.

Further, the continued underrepresentation of women in politics also perpetuates policy-making that often overlooks the needs and rights of women and other marginalised genders. This status quo contributes to the persistence of gender inequality, insufficient attention to issues such as reproductive rights, childcare, and gender-based violence, and a lack of diverse perspectives in governance. Consequently, minorities and disadvantaged populations continue to face marginalisation and inequitable access to resources and opportunities, hindering social progress and justice.

Traditional efforts to promote gender equality in politics have primarily focused on imposing gender quotas in national parliaments. However, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) introduced a new indicator that emphasises women's political representation in local decision-making positions. This expansion enables a broader understanding of the opportunities and challenges for leveraging women's contributions to local decision-making. Research indicates that women in local decision-making positions play a crucial role in redefining local priorities (UN Women, 2021).

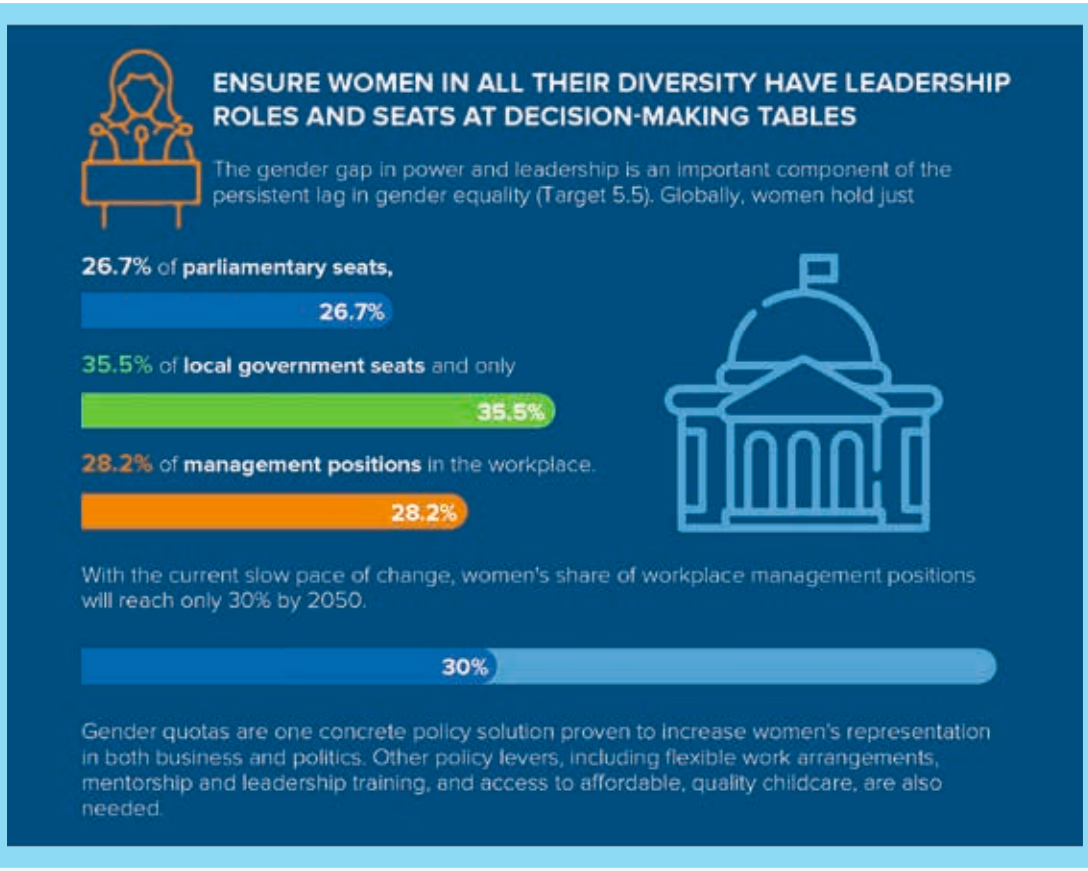


Figure 17: UN WOMEN Gender Finance booklet, 2023 p.40

They bring a unique perspective to governance, emphasising inclusivity, prioritising family-friendly policies, and promoting gender equality in areas such as income, employment and parental leave. By bringing these issues to the forefront, women contribute to creating more equitable and responsive local communities (World Economic Forum, 2023).

Women hold only 26.7% of parliamentary seats, 35.5% of local government positions, and 28.2% of management roles in workplaces (Figure 17). At the current rate of progress, women are expected to occupy just 30% of management positions by 2050. This highlights the significant gender gap in leadership and decision-making roles globally (Monteverdi & Ray, 2023).

Gender based violence

Gender-based violence (GBV), often referred to as violence against women and girls (VAWG), is a pervasive global issue that affects 1 in 3 women over the course of their lives. The statistics are alarming: 35% of women worldwide have experienced either physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence or non-partner sexual violence. Additionally, 7% of women globally have been sexually assaulted by someone other than their partner. Intimate partners are responsible for up to 38% of all murders of women globally. Furthermore, 200 million women have experienced female genital mutilation or cutting, showing the widespread and severe nature of GBV (World Health Organization, 2024).

Gender-based violence takes place in all spheres of society. Often overlooked is GBV in the context of economic empowerment. Gender-based violence disproportionately affects women entrepreneurs, particularly in male-dominated environments where sexism and sexual violence are prevalent. Entrepreneurship is often seen as a pathway for women to gain financial independence and more control over decision-making. However, systemic barriers—such as limited financial access, lack of social support, and heavy mental burdens—often exacerbate their vulnerability to gender-based violence rather than mitigate it (Clayette & Michel, 2023).

3.3. Gender Differentiated Impacts of Climate Change

Climate change and disasters affect countries and people all over the world. However, how and to what extent people are affected varies greatly. Social and cultural systems influence how different genders, and social identities experience these impacts. Women and LGBTIQ+ people are often most affected due to gender-differentiated roles and responsibilities imposed by these systems. Existing gender disparities, particularly in access to land, other resources, participation in governance and decision-making structures, and access to education, healthcare, and financial services exacerbate vulnerabilities to climate change impacts.

Since women continue to be the primary caregivers, a role that is mostly unpaid and informal, they often bear the brunt of climate impacts within their families and communities. Caregiving responsibilities that are affected by climate change include managing food security, fetching drinking and domestic water, arranging fodder, fuelwood for cooking, and managing domestic waste (Deininger, Woodhouse, Kuriakose, Gren, & Liaqat, 2023; see also Women & EmPower, 2021).

“A growing body of evidence reveals that climate-induced stresses can lead to an increase in GBV, as households cope with the shocks of extreme weather events, environmental degradation, and climate-induced conflict and fragility. Child marriage, as a particular form of GBV, has been observed to increase in some contexts as households cope with climate disasters. The increase in violence reduces the adaptive capacity of women and girls, weakening climate resilience and creating negative feedback loops.” (Deininger, Woodhouse, Kuriakose, Gren, & Liaqat, 2023)



INCREASE IN DOMESTIC WORK AND TIME POVERTY

- Asian women's unpaid care and domestic work, already four times that of men, will increase.
- With reduced food crop production and increased food prices, poor women will be strained to maintain food security.
- With more than 2 billion people expected to face water shortage by 2025, women and girls will have to travel longer distances and spend more time to fetch water.
- Damage to water supply infrastructure in floods and cyclones will also hurt women in urban areas.
- As pressure on land for food and fuel grows, grazing land will reduce, increasing the workload of women for arranging fodder.
- Forest protection and clean energy policies will affect fuel and wood availability – a source of 90% energy for poor women.



EXACERBATED HEALTH BURDEN AND CARING RESPONSIBILITIES

- Skewed intra-household food distribution will result in women and girls being deprived of basic food intake and nutrition.
- Women being more exposed to standing water due to water fetching responsibilities will be at higher risk of water-borne diseases.
- Physiological characteristics also make women, especially pregnant women, more susceptible to vector-borne diseases like Malaria.
- Drinking saltier water (a direct result of sea water ingress) will also have severe impacts, especially on pregnant women, as rates of hypertension and pre-eclampsia will escalate.
- After disasters, women' sexual and reproductive health needs are further marginalized.



GREATER RISK OF DEATH, INJURY, AND VIOLENCE

- Women and children are 14 times more likely to die or be injured in a disaster than men due to gender inequalities.
- Forced to sleep in insecure homes and emergency shelters without privacy and hygiene facilities, women and LGBTIQ people are particularly vulnerable to physical and sexual assault.
- Women and girls also often face elevated levels of violence if they have to travel long distances to fetch water, firewood or fuelwood after a disaster.
- Adolescent girls especially report higher levels of sexual violence in the aftermath of disasters. The risk and likelihood of early marriage increases.
- Post-traumatic Stress Disorder among men often leads to hegemonic masculinity crisis increasing pre-existing levels of violence.
- Women and children also face greater risk of trafficking and being pushed into sex trade.



HIGHER LIKELIHOOD OF LOSS OF LIVELIHOODS AND ASSETS

- Women are more dependent on natural resource-based livelihood and hence will face more loss due to droughts, flooding, etc.
- Women are often more involved in subsistence farming and provision of agriculture labour and their livelihoods will be more impacted by loss of crop yield coupled with water scarcity.
- Women also own only smaller livestock such as chickens, ducks, goats, which are not only less likely to be rescued but also more prone to be sold for immediate cash after disasters, thereby resulting loss of limited assets.
- With more women being employed in informal sector, with low paid jobs and lack of social security, their loss of livelihoods will hurt more.
- Already deprived of access to land and resources, their profound vulnerability will be further exacerbated.

Figure 18: UN Women Training Manual on Gender and Climate Change Resilience

Meanwhile, men, particularly those in decision-making roles in high-emission industries, have contributed more significantly to climate change. This is often linked to the historical dominance of men in leadership positions within sectors that are major contributors to greenhouse gas emissions, such as fossil fuel industries, manufacturing, and transportation.

There is also research that suggests that pro-environmental behaviour is linked to gender. For instance, women are more likely to follow a vegetarian diet and use bicycles instead of a car in high-income countries. Gender differences also influence consumption patterns (Schulz, et al., 2024; Toro, Serrano, & Guillen, 2019). Furthermore, women in political decision-making processes have a positive impact on climate change policy outcomes in countries with low corruption rates (Dutta, Kar, & Jahan, 2024).

3.4. International Commitments & Policies

UNFCCC & Gender – Milestones

When the UNFCCC was adopted in 1992, it had no provisions on gender. The first stand-alone decision on gender was made in COP7's Decision 37 calling for improved women's participation in the bodies under the UNFCCC (UNFCCC, 2001). In 2012, Decision 23/COP 18 called for promoting gender balance and improving the participation of women in UNFCCC negotiations and in the representation of Parties in UNFCCC bodies (UNFCCC, 2012).

In 2014, UNFCCC launched The Lima Work Programme on Gender (LWPG) (UNFCCC, 2014). The LWPG was extended (UNFCCC, 2016) for three years in 2016, and a two-year gender action plan (GAP) was adopted in 2017 (UNFCCC, 2017). In 2019, the implementation of the LWPG and GAP was reviewed, and a five-year Enhanced Lima Work Programme on Gender (ELWPG) and its gender action plan (Decision 3/CP.25) was adopted at COP 25 (UNFCCC, 2020).

In 2022, a mid-term review of the GAP was adopted at COP27. However, the review did not address key issues like the lack of resources available to successfully conduct the planned activities, or the negative impacts on gender inequalities caused by the unprecedented crisis resulting from the Covid 19 pandemic.

At COP29 in 2024, Parties launched a 10-year work programme on gender, emphasizing the integration of gender and age-disaggregated data and outlining a clear roadmap for developing a gender action plan ahead of COP30 (Women & Gender Constituency, 2024).

Adaptation and Mitigation

Gender issues are well integrated in adaptation measures, recognising women as being vulnerable groups, having different needs and perspectives, acknowledging the need to empower women and increase the number of women in decision-making positions. For a list of relevant decisions on gender and adaptation please refer to the Guide to Gender in the UNFCCC by WEDO (ecbi, 2017, p. 20).

Many resources (Dazé, 2020) exist that provide States with guidance on how to integrate gender in their respective National Adaptation Plans (NAPs), and to apply gender sensitive tools (UNFCCC, 2013) in addressing adaptation issues.

Even though gender mainstreaming is crucial in mitigation actions, it is not very well integrated. Mitigation policies that lack a gender-responsive approach can exacerbate existing inequalities, enhance occupational and sectoral segregation, and widen the skills and pay gap. For an overview of key decisions on mitigations please refer to WEDO (ecbi, 2017, p. 24).

The Paris Agreement Global Stocktake (GST) is a crucial process designed to ensure an effective and inclusive implementation of the Paris Agreement by assessing progress toward achieving the objectives and long-term goals of the Paris Agreement, and to inform the updating of Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) (United Nations, 2015). The GST provides an opportunity for countries to assess the gender responsiveness of their climate policies and actions. It likewise guides States in identifying ways to advance gender equality by assessing the gender-differentiated impacts of climate change, recognising the role of women and discriminated groups in climate action, identifying gender gaps in climate policies and programmes, and ensuring appropriate means of implementation for gender-responsive or transformative climate policies and actions (see the submission of the Women & Gender Constituency from 2023).

The UNFCCC technical paper titled "Guidelines or other tools for integrating gender considerations into climate change related activities under the Convention" provides an overview of existing methodologies, recommendations and tools for the integration of gender considerations into climate change related activities under the Convention (UNFCCC, 2016).

CEDAW

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (United Nations, 1979), adopted in 1979 by the UN General Assembly, is an international human rights treaty that aims to eliminate discrimination against women in all spheres. It defines discrimination against women as "any distinction, exclusion, or restriction, made on the basis of sex, with the purpose or effect of impairing the enjoyment by women of political, economic, social, cultural, or civil human rights on equal footing with men." (Article 1 of CEDAW, 1979). It mandates State Parties to abolish discriminatory laws, establish institutions for women's protection, and ensure gender equality in political, economic, social, cultural, and civil domains.

CEDAW promotes women's access to education, health, employment, and participation in public life, including voting and candidacy rights. It affirms reproductive rights, addresses cultural influences on gender roles, and upholds women's rights related to nationality and protection against trafficking and exploitation.

In 1999, an Optional Protocol to CEDAW (United Nations, 1999) was adopted creating an individual complaints procedure which allows individuals from State Parties to CEDAW to file a complaint directly with the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women. The Committee examines submissions and evidence from the individual and the state to determine whether there has been a violation of CEDAW.

The CEDAW Committee, composed of 23 independent experts elected by the State Parties on a rotating four-year basis, in Geneva. Its key mandate is to monitor the State Parties' national implementation of the Convention through a periodic review mechanism. In each cycle each State Party has to submit a national report on the actions it has taken in relation to its obligations under the Convention. CSOs have an opportunity to engage in this process by submitting shadow reports, and by participating in the pre-session and interactive dialogue with the State Party (Figure 19).

Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action

The Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) (United Nations, 1995) is a landmark framework outlining strategies for achieving gender equality globally. The BPfA was adopted alongside the Beijing Declaration at the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing by 189 governments. It consists of a preamble and strategic objectives across 12 critical areas, addressing discrimination against women and advocating for their rights in political, economic, social, cultural, and civil spheres (United Nations, 2015).

The key goals of BPfA include eliminating laws that discriminate against women, ensuring access to education, healthcare, and employment, and promoting women's participation in decision-making roles. The BPfA also addresses reproductive rights, women and the environment, challenges cultural norms affecting gender roles, and affirms women's rights in relation to nationality and protection from trafficking.

Progress of implementation is discussed during the annual two-week session of the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW). It remains a cornerstone of global efforts towards gender equality, guiding policies and fostering accountability to create a fairer and more inclusive world.

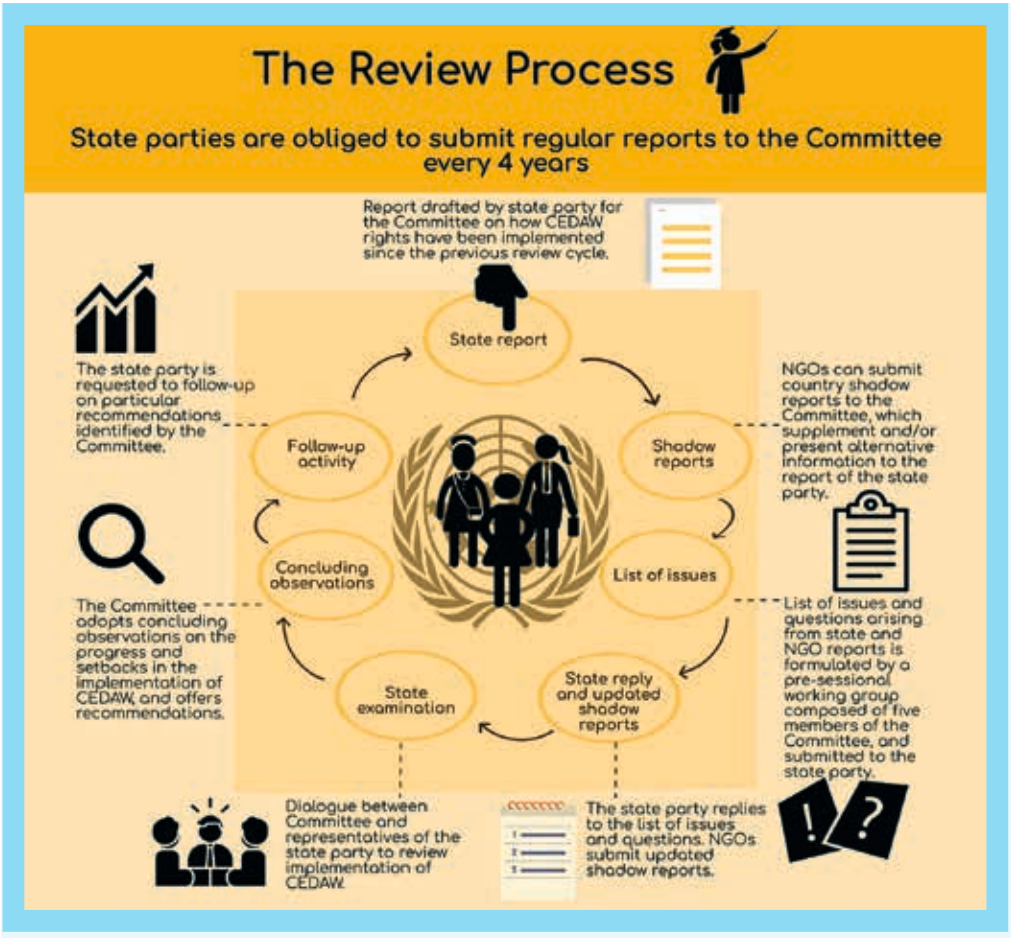


Figure 19: The CEDAW Review Process

3.5. Situation in Colombia, Georgia, Uganda



Colombia

The Colombia 1991 Constitution guarantees equal rights and opportunities for women and men (Article 43). It provides protection for women against any type of discrimination. Its Article 13 establishes equal protection for all persons, regardless of gender, race, national or family origin, language, religion, political opinion, or philosophy. The Article further stresses that the State shall promote the conditions so that equality may be real and effective and shall adopt measures in favour of groups that are discriminated against or marginalised (Constitute Project, 2015).

The Colombian government has implemented policies and action plans to promote gender equality and address existing inequalities. These policies include the National Policy on Gender Equity for Women (Consejería Presidencial para la Equidad de la Mujer, n.d.), the National Development Plan (Departamento Nacional de Planeación, 2023) with a Gender Approach, and the National Plan of Action against Gender Violence. The 2022 National Public Policy on Gender Equity for Women, which serves as a roadmap for gender equality until 2030, provides a framework that intersects with issues arising from environmental impacts. The objective of this policy is to implement strategic actions that allow progress to be made in overcoming discrimination and inequalities, guaranteeing the exercise of women's rights.

Measures to promote women's political participation and guarantee their representation in decision-making spaces have been implemented. Law 581 of 2000 establishes measures to achieve gender parity on lists of candidates for elected office, which has contributed to increasing the presence of women in political office. This law establishes a minimum quota of 30% representation of women in decision-making positions in public entities to guarantee their participation in decision- and policy- making, as well as in the formulation, planning, coordination, execution and control of state policies. In this regard, the national government has implemented strategies that contribute to overcoming obstacles faced by women and eliminating inequality gaps between women and men within public entities (Función Pública). The weighted percentage (aggregate indicator of the two types of positions) for 2021 was 46%, exceeding the SDG 5 target of 44.55%.

Since the 2000s, there have been several milestones in gender equality legislation in Colombia, including provisions to guarantee equal opportunities and equal pay for women and the promotion of access to employment and education in economic sectors where they have had low participation. Similarly, Colombia has passed measures aimed at raising awareness, and preventing and punishing any form of violence against women. Despite the progress made, there are still challenges in the achievement of gender justice in Colombia. Gender-based violence, discrimination in the workplace, lack of access to quality education, and the persistence of gender stereotypes, are some of the issues that require continued attention and concrete actions. Civil society, women's organisations and feminist movements play a crucial role in monitoring and promoting gender justice in the country.

With an overall score of 0.751, ranked Colombia 42nd of 146 countries in the 2023 Global Gender Gap Index (Figure 20). Colombia's performance in the dimension of "Educational Attainment" is very high with a score of 1.00 (Rank 1.00), whereas in the dimension of "Political Empowerment" it scored 0.00 in "Years with female/male head of state in the last 50 years", and 1.00 in "Women in ministerial positions".

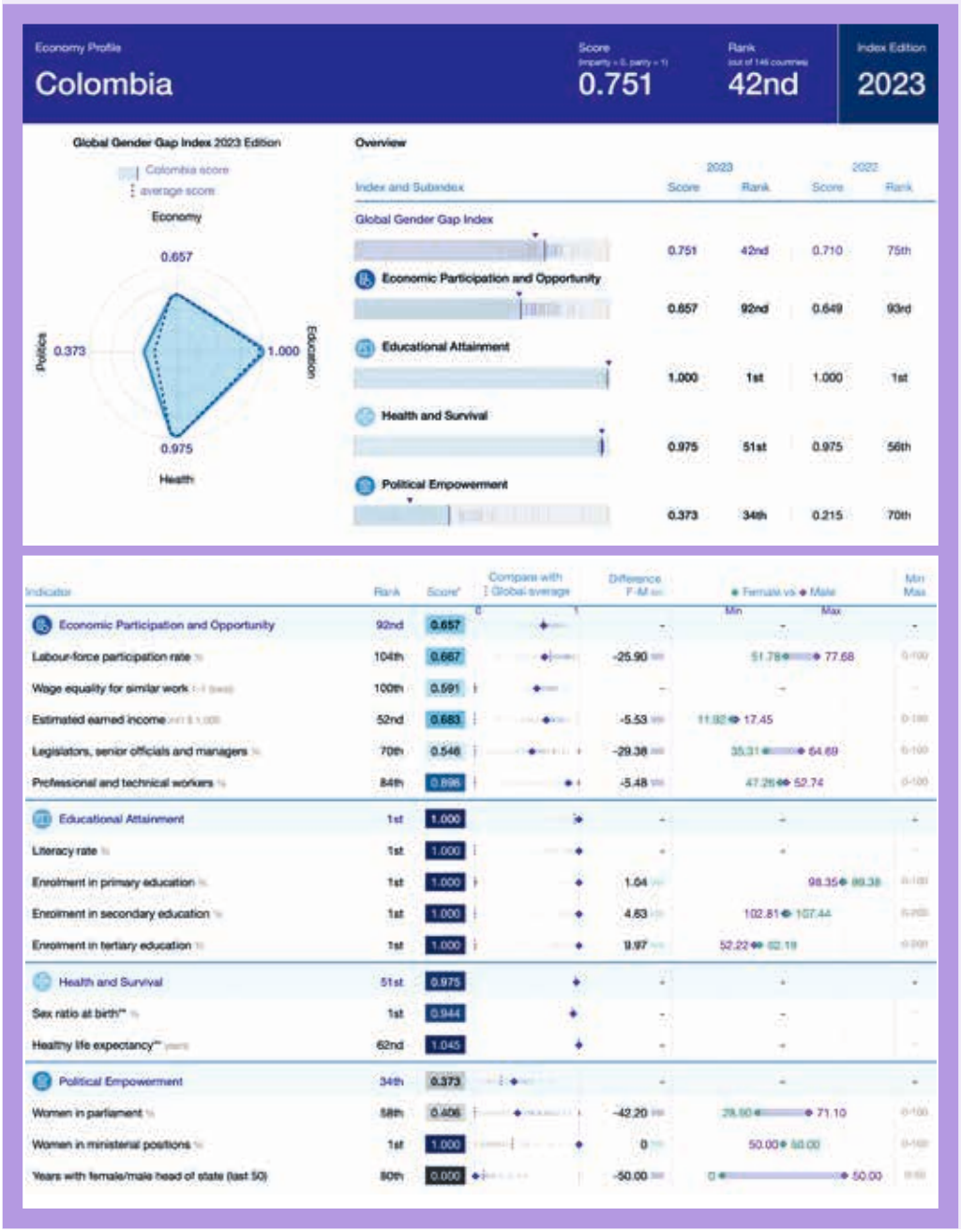


Figure 20: Global Gender Gap Index - Colombia (2023)

Georgia

Georgia has made significant progress by adopting a legislative and policy framework for gender equality and women's rights. The legal and institutional framework on gender equality and women's empowerment is in line with the country's national and international commitments. However, the laws on gender equality do not always have clear and effective implementation mechanisms, and are not ratified sufficiently.

In terms of international and regional commitments to gender equality, Georgia ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). Besides, Georgia signed the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA). Georgia ratified the Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (the Istanbul Convention), the most comprehensive regional treaty tackling violence against women and girls. The Government of Georgia also finalised the nationalisation process of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in 2019, including the nationalisation of SDG 5, whose aim is to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.

Article 11 of the Constitution of Georgia guarantees equality before the law between women and men, and prohibits gender-based discrimination (Departments of the Parliament of Georgia, 1995). The 2010 Law of Georgia on Gender Equality defines legal mechanisms and conditions for the fulfilment of equal rights, freedom and opportunities of women and men. It covers all spheres of

social life, including labour relations, education, science, health care, social protection, service provision, insurance and financial services, family relations, and participation in elections (Legislative Herald of Georgia, Law of Georgia on Gender Equality, 2010). The 2014 Law of Georgia on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination prohibits discrimination based on sex, sexual orientation and gender identity (Legislative Herald of Georgia, Law of Georgia on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination, 2014). Georgia also adopted the law on the elimination of violence against women and/or domestic violence, and the protection and support of victims of such violence in 2017.

In 2022, the parliament of Georgia approved the "Georgian Gender Equality State Concept", as well as the „State Concept of Economic Empowerment of Women" (FAOLEX Database, 2022) (Georgia Today, 2023). Unfortunately, both concepts are not inclusive and do not have an intersectional approach. The Gender Equality State Concept completely neglects the existence of LGBTIQ+ people as a social group and it has a narrow definition of gender.

The Georgian Parliament has a Gender Council, which essentially acts as a mediator between the executive and civil society to advocate and advance the gender agenda. However, the Gender Council has recently (2023 - 2024) become extremely politicised, and its pro-government rhetoric and discourse run counter to the idea of the Council (AGENDA.GE, 2022).

Within the frame of gender mainstreaming, gender focal points have been identified in all

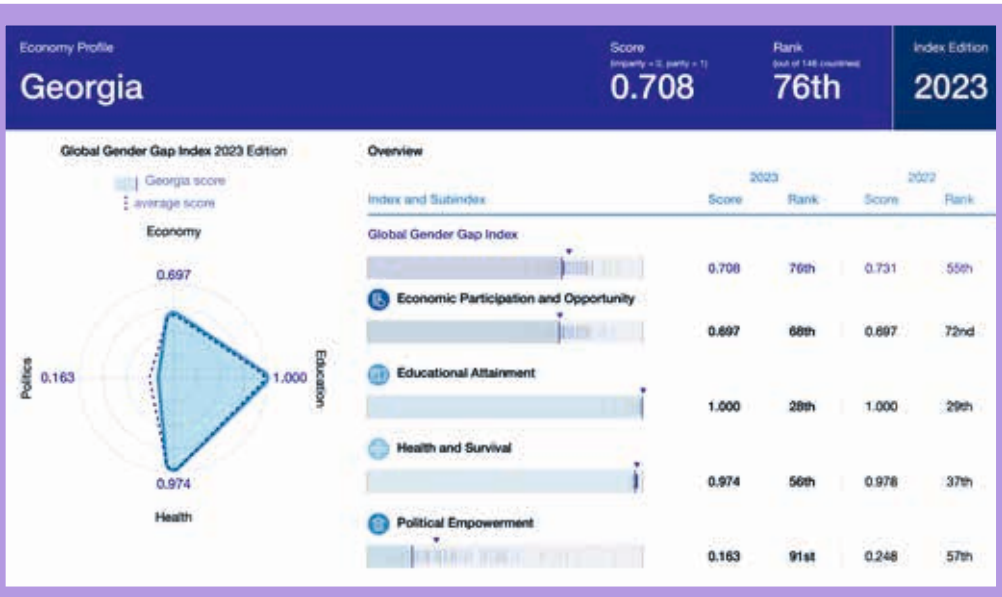




Figure 21: Global Gender Gap Index - Georgia (2023)

governmental institutions, including municipalities and ministries. They are responsible for the implementation of gender mainstreaming within state institutions. Currently, there are gaps in gender mainstreaming in policy-making or gender-responsive budgeting on a local and national level. The gender gap in implementing legislation remains a key challenge, especially for issues such as equal pay for work of equal value, minimum wage, adequate payment for parental leave. Some parts of violence against women, in particular the definition of rape, remains further to be addressed in legislation.

Progress on the equality plan in Georgia is not in line with the feminist foreign policy of EU countries and the Association Agreement, as the government has opted for a binary strategy on gender equality and often disregards gender in strategies and policies. For example, the title of the Georgian Prime Minister's Advisor on Human Rights and Gender Equality has been changed in 2023, removing 'gender equality' from the title. In addition, the Georgian Parliament adopted the aforementioned Georgian State Concept on Gender Equality and the ruling party removed the mention of LGBTIQ+ people from this document without even informing members of parliament and stakeholders. Similarly, the National Strategy for Women's Economic Empowerment does not include LGBTIQ+ people despite repeated recommendations from civil society and stakeholders to produce intersectional and inclusive policy documents (Civil.ge., 2023).

In 2024, the government started implementing anti-gender and anti-democratic legislation. For example, it abolished the gender quota for the parliament and local councils, and adopted the infamous law on 'transparency of foreign influence', along with a crackdown on peaceful protests (Civil.ge, 2024; Berlinger & Edwards, 2024).

With an overall score of 0.708, Georgia has been ranked 76th out of 146 countries (Figure 22) in the 2023 Global Gender Gap Index. Georgia's performance in the dimension of "Educational Attainment" is generally good with an overall rank of 28. However, their performance in the dimension of "Political Empowerment" is generally weak and shows a clear underrepresentation of women in all three sub-indexes of the dimension.

Uganda

According to the Uganda Gender Analysis (2020) report from UNDP, women in the country have less access to education and employment opportunities than men, face barriers to certain markets and value chains, and have less access to finance and technology. This is in addition to persistent gender inequalities in the control, use and ownership of assets, land and productive resources, as well as in decision-making spaces. According to the same report, these constraints on women are compounded by the high prevalence of gender-based violence (GBV) faced by women and girls (UNDP, Uganda Gender Analysis, 2020).

The 1995 Constitution of Uganda provides for the promotion of gender balance and fair representation of marginalised groups within the governmental structure, recognising women as important agents in society who shall have equal opportunities in political, economic and social activities. Moreover, Article 21 on Equality and Freedom from Discrimination states that all persons are equal before and under the law in all spheres of political, economic, social and cultural life and every other respect and shall enjoy equal protection of the law (Parliament of Uganda, 1995). It further states that "without prejudice to clause (1) of this article, a person shall not be discriminated against on the ground of sex, race, colour, ethnic origin, tribe, birth, creed or religion, or social or economic standing, political opinion or disability" (see ibid.).

The Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development oversees social inclusion and gender mainstreaming across national and local governments. The Uganda Gender Policy (2007) establishes Gender Focal Point Persons in national ministries, departments, and authorities and at local government to oversee its implementation. The Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development established in 2016 a budget call circular that requires the mandatory mainstreaming of gender and climate change into all sectoral budget framework papers and district local government plans starting with the 2017/18 fiscal year. This includes improving the use of sex-disaggregated data in any areas where climate change actions are included in governmental planning (UNDP, Uganda Gender Analysis, 2020).

To strengthen gender mainstreaming in climate actions, a National Gender Focal Point for the UNFCCC has been appointed in the Climate Change Commission. The Gender Focal Point is tasked with coordinating and integrating gender into climate change processes. Moreover, a gender and climate change technical team has been created, consisting of individuals from the government, CSOs, private sector, academia and UN Agencies, with the goal of strengthening gender-responsive NDCs. However, while climate change focal points and gender focal points exist across the different ministries, focal points lack capacity concerning the nexus of climate change and gender to coordinate these issues in an adequate manner (UNDP, Uganda Gender Analysis, 2020).

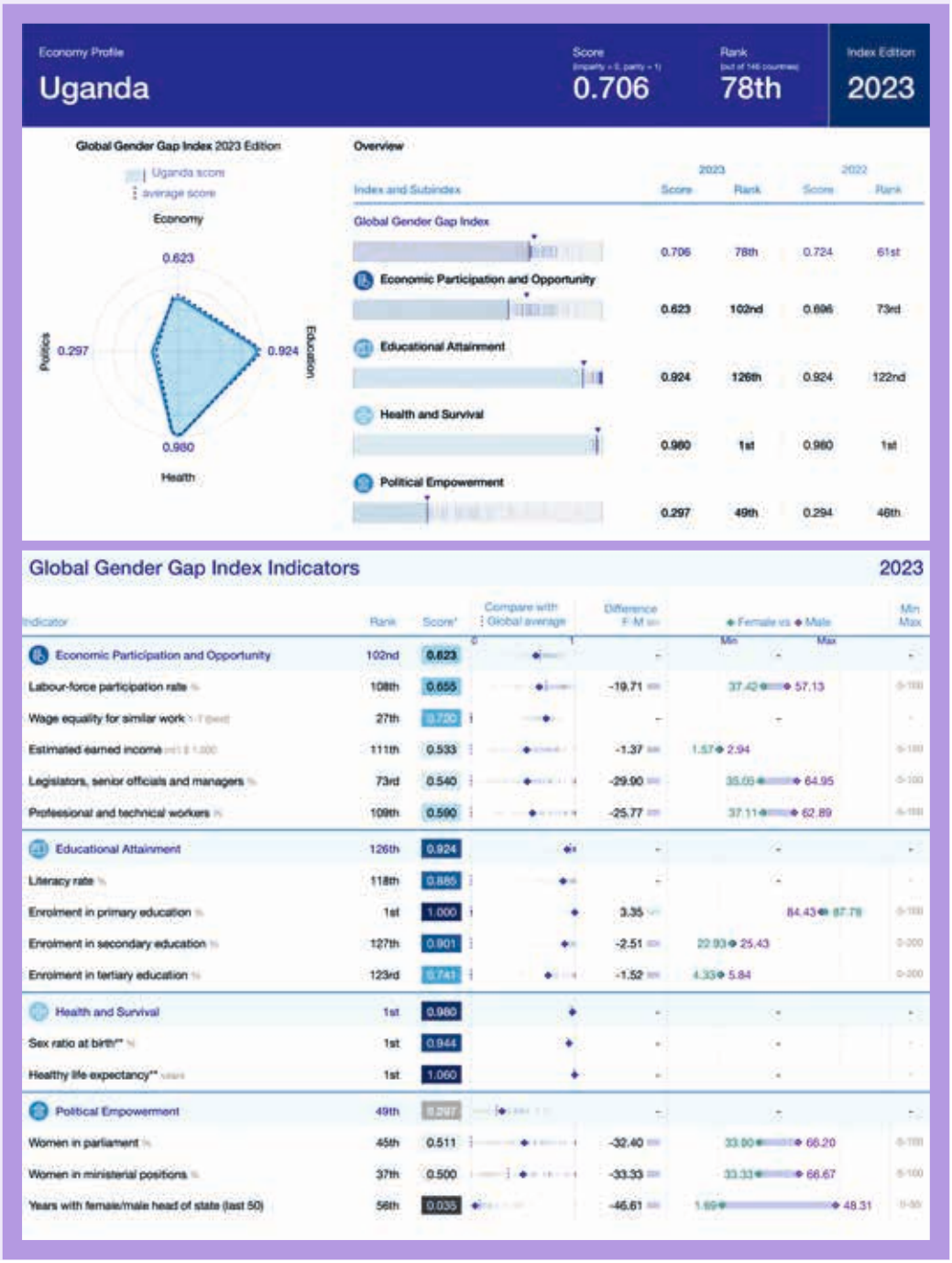


Figure 22: Global Gender Gap Index - Uganda

Although the Constitution and multiple laws and policies provide for equal rights among all people, Uganda's government made a contrary move by signing the Anti-Homosexuality Act in 2023. This act criminalises same-sex sexual conduct, including potentially the death penalty for those convicted of "aggravated homosexuality" (The Republic of Uganda, 2023). This violates multiple human rights commitments made by the Ugandan government in regional and international human rights treaties. Moreover, the act threatens the work of civil society organisations and individuals advocating for the rights of LGBTIQ+ people, including representatives of human rights organisations or those providing financial support to organisations that do so. They could face up to 20 years imprisonment for the "promotion of homosexuality". According to research by Human Rights Watch (2024), LGBTIQ+ people in Uganda face a notable increase in arbitrary arrests, police abuse, extortion, loss of employment, discriminatory evictions by landlords, and reduced access to health services because of their perceived sexual orientation or gender identity.

With an overall score of 0.706, Uganda has been ranked 78th out of 146 countries in the Global Gender Gap Index (Figure 23). In the dimension of "Educational Attainment", their performance is rather moderate, their overall performance in the dimension of "Political Empowerment" on the other hand is rather strong by being ranked 49th.

3.6. Exercises

These exercises are designed to deepen the particpants' gender literacy, and their understanding of the fluidity of gender roles, and the specific needs associated with gender within various societal contexts. These activities aim to foster reflection on the distinctions between gender and sex, explore the potential for changing gender roles, and analyse the division of labour between men and women in different communities. The exercises are from our Manual "Gender in Sustainable Development Collection of Exercises for Training of Trainers (ToT)", where you can find many more examples of exercises (WECF & ALGA, 2017; WECF & ALGA, 2017).

Understanding of gender: Basics of gender literacy. Exercise "I can and I could"
Expected time: 35 min

Participants will be able to identify the difference between gender and sex, as defined, by analysing their own experience at the end of this exercise.

You can start this exercise by asking questions such as "Why did you choose your answers? What is the difference between "can" and "could"? Are these differences so strict or are they rather artificial? What is the difference between expectations based on sex and those based on gender? What does this show/tell us? What does this mean for our work?"

Step 1: Prepare two flip chart papers, one for men and one for women:

Flip chart for men:

I am man, I can...
If I were a woman, I could

Flip chart for women:

I am man, I can...
If I were a woman, I could

Step 2: Ask the participants to come up to the prepared flip charts and write down what they "can" do as a man or woman, and what they "could" do if they were a man or woman. (10 minutes)
Step 3: Facilitate an open discussion analysing each of the participants' responses. Encourage the participants to reflect on which capabilities they actually have, and which ones are mere societal expectations. (15 minutes)
Step 4: Discuss the distinction between „sex, gender and "gender roles". (10 minutes)

Understanding of gender: Changing gender roles. Role-play.
Expected time: 1-1.5 hours

Participants will be able to consider the possibility of changing gender roles and explore potential methods to achieve this. To prepare for the session, the trainer should create three or four role-play cards tailored to the specific context, reflecting local conditions.

Step 1: Participants are divided into small groups, typically three or more. Ask each group to draw one role-play card, and to prepare to act out the scenario provided. (30 minutes)
Step 2: Ask each group to perform their role-play. After each performance, facilitate a discussion for about 30 minutes (adjusted based on the number of groups), where participants identify solutions to the scenarios. These solutions for changing roles in communities may include methods such as education, training, demonstration, advocacy, negotiation, etc. Note the solutions on a flipchart or whiteboard.
Step 3: Facilitate a discussion after all role-plays have been performed. Encourage participants to suggest additional ideas or practical strategies for changing gender roles within their communities. These suggestions are also added to the list generated during Step 2. (15 minutes)
Step 4: In a mini-lecture, further unpack the concept of gender roles. Highlight how gender roles are changeable, and how society and structures shape the roles and responsibilities for men and women, including employment-related roles. Review previous suggestions on how to initiate the process of change. (10 minutes)

Gender division of labour: Daily schedule of women and men.
Expected time: 45 min

At the end of this exercise, participants will be able to analyse various activities performed in a day and the distribution of work among different groups, particularly men and women within a community. By comparing the hours spent on various activities, the exercise highlights differences in workload, types of tasks performed, leisure time, and sleep patterns among community members.

Step 1: Split the participants into separate groups of men and women, ensuring diversity of socio-economic backgrounds in each group. Ask the participants to create schedules detailing their typical day, focusing on activities such as work, household tasks, and childcare. The trainer may initiate the exercise by sharing their own daily schedule on a flip chart, illustrating activities throughout the day. (20 minutes)
Step 2: After the schedules are complete, facilitate an open discussion where participants can compare and discuss their daily schedules, considering differences in activities and workload between men and women. The discussion can include questions about seasonal variations and may involve creating schedules for different seasons to explore further differences. (20 minutes)
Step 3: Conclude the exercise with a 5-minute mini-lecture. Ask the participants to reflect on the insights they gained from comparing schedules, discussing differences in workload, time allocation for household responsibilities, and gender roles within the community. This exercise aims to analyse and understand gender roles and specific needs within the community.

Understanding of gender needs: Exercise "Women are from Venus, men are from Mars".
Expected time: 30 min

Through a fictional planetary metaphor, where each planet represents a different approach to gender roles and equality, participants will be able to delve into the complexities of gender issues and discuss solutions to promote gender equality at the end of this exercise. It also aims to foster understanding of gender needs and discrimination through creative role-play and critical discussion.

Step 1: Divide participants into small groups named after planets (e.g., Mars, Venus, Earth). Ask each group to imagine societies on different planets: Mars (male-dominated), Venus (female-dominated), and possibly Earth (balanced gender roles). Groups must discuss gender roles and issues faced by these societies and prepare presentations on their findings.
Step 2: Facilitate an open discussion and mini-lecture. Ask the participants to discuss and compare which planetary society they believe offers better conditions and why. They should explore how each society meets or fails to meet gender needs, discussing impacts of gender needs being met or not met. Conclude the session by „gender equality" and „gender discrimination," using examples if needed. (20 minutes)

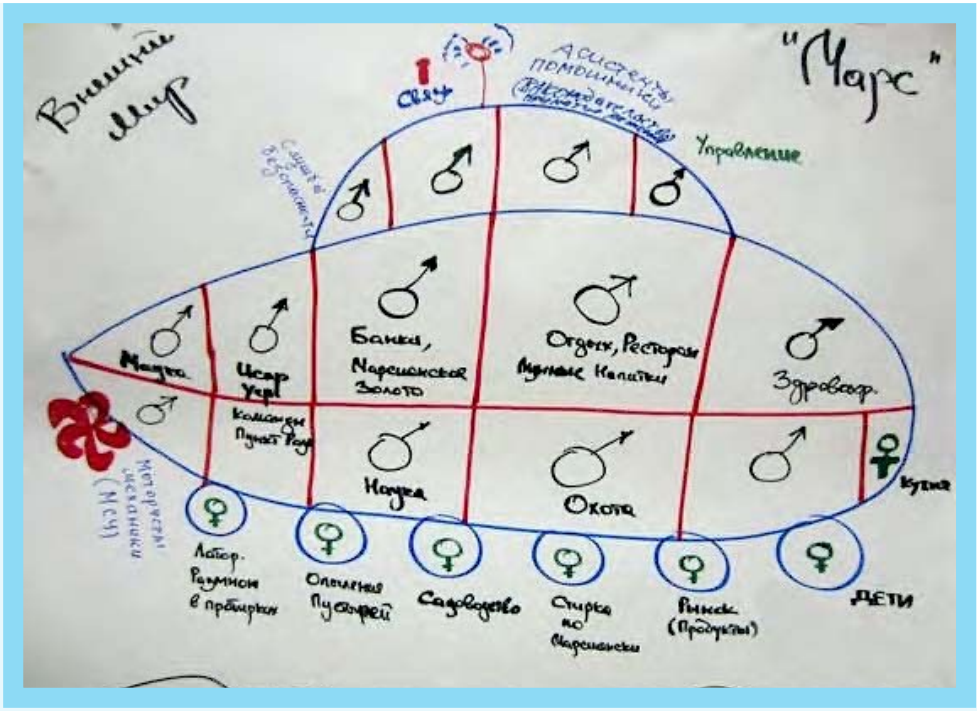


Figure 23: Example of the outcome posters for the exercise "Women are from Venus, men are from Mars"

4. CLIMATE FINANCE

The following chapter provides a general and brief introduction to climate finance. Climate finance encompasses financial resources at local, national, and international levels that are directed towards supporting efforts to mitigate and adapt to climate change. These resources are sourced from public, private, and alternative channels. The primary goals of climate financing are to lower greenhouse gas emissions, strengthen climate resilience, and advance sustainable development, all in line with international frameworks. Climate costs and subsidies are also critical components of climate financing. Climate costs refer to the economic impacts of climate change, including the expenses associated with mitigation, adaptation, and damage repair. Subsidies, particularly those for fossil fuels, can either exacerbate climate change if they support high-emission industries or help mitigate it if directed towards renewable energy and sustainable practices. Redirecting subsidies from fossil fuels to green energy is essential for aligning financial flows with climate goals and ensuring a just transition to a low-carbon economy.



4.1. Climate Costs

Financing adaptation and mitigation strategies is critical for the implementation of the Paris Agreement and for achieving the goal of keeping the rise in global surface temperature to well below 2°C. Attention has therefore been focused primarily on the financial needs for climate action in the coming years. However, it is also important to review the impact that climate change has already had on the economy and to understand that inaction is the greatest threat to economic, social and human well-being. Methodologies for measuring the cumulative cost of climate change still have some limitations and might be underestimations due to the difficulty in quantifying the indirect economic impacts of a climate change related event. Estimates of the World Meteorological Organisation (WMO) show that the economic impact of climate change – especially through extreme weather events such as droughts, fires and floods – has increased significantly in recent decades, reaching 1476.2 billion dollars in the decade 2010- 2019 (World Meteorological Organisation, 2023). Those losses primarily affect low and lower-middle income countries.

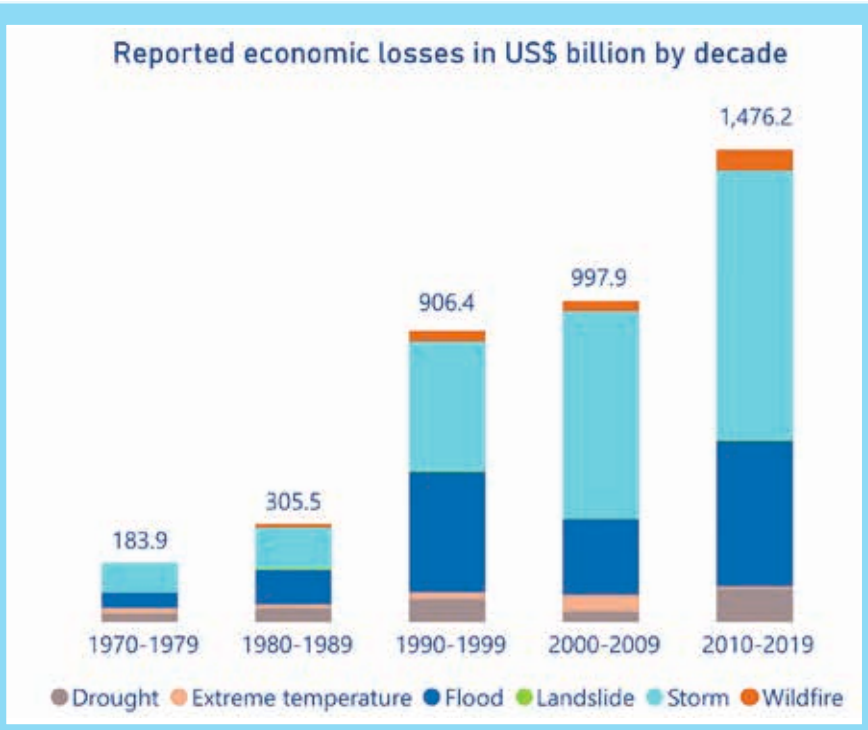


Figure 24: World Meteorological Organization. (2023). Economic costs of weather-related disasters soars but early warnings save lives. Retrieved from: https://wmo.int/news/media-centre/economic-costs-of-weather-related-disasters-soars-early-warnings-save-lives

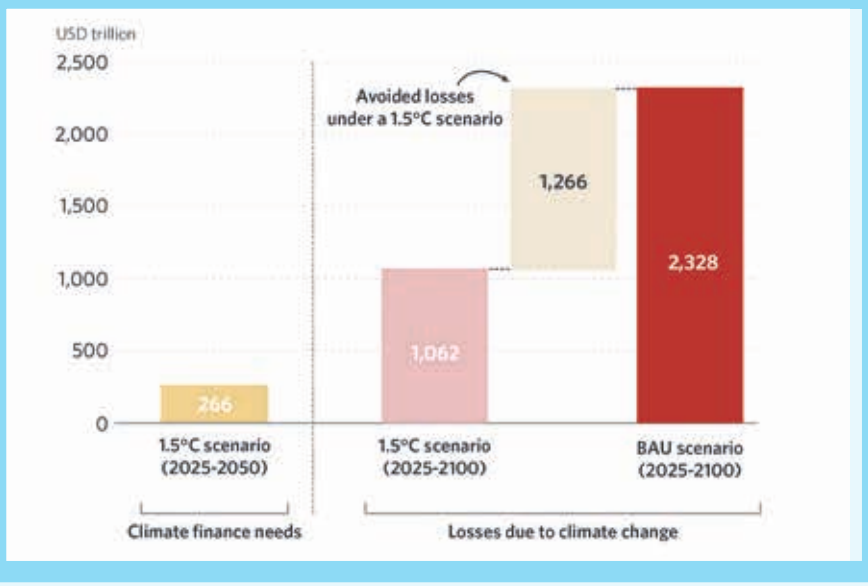


Figure 25: Cumulative climate finance needs vs. losses under 1.5°C and business-as-usual (BAU) scenarios (Climate Policy Initiative, based on CPI analysis and NGFS)

When talking about the projected costs of climate action, it becomes evident that the costs of inaction can substantially exceed the investments required for adaptation and mitigation measures, as shown in the following figure. The figure presents the direct economic impacts of increased weather-related and other uninsurable damages, increased production costs, productivity losses, and health costs in both the 1.5°C scenario and the business-as-usual (BAU) scenario. It is clear from this comparative view that maintaining the BAU path would lead to more than double the losses of a 1.5°C scenario (Buchner, et al., 2023).

Furthermore, a study by Kotz, Levermann, & Wenz (2024) shows that even if climate action is taken, global income is set to fall by 19% by 2050 due to the impact of historical emissions. Although a reduction is expected in most regions of the world, Southeast Asia and Africa are expected to be the most affected, which highlights that the countries least responsible for climate change will suffer most (Kotz, Levermann, & Wenz, 2024). In this context, it is therefore essential that countries with higher incomes and adaptive capacities financially assist the most impacted and vulnerable countries.

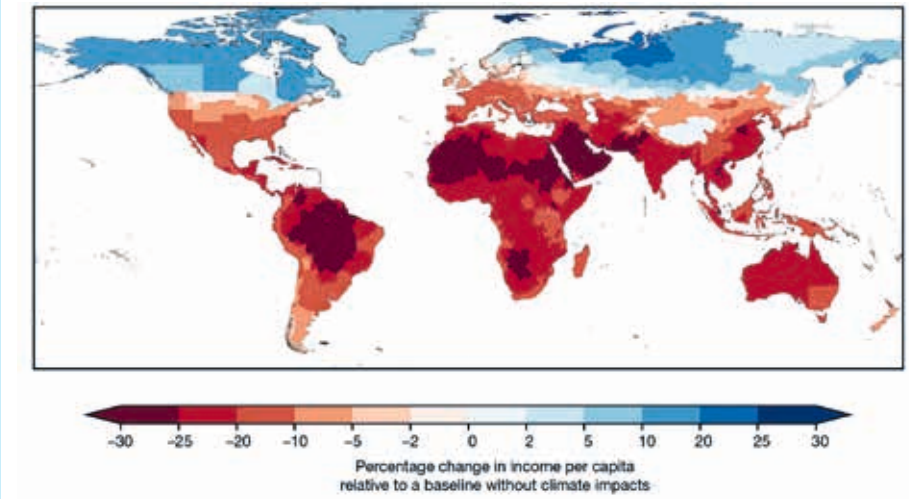


Figure 26:
Kotz, M., Levermann, A. & Wenz, L. The economic commitment of climate change. Nature 628, 551–557 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-024-07219-0

4.2. Basics of Climate Finance

To a significant extent, climate finance consists of financing that developed countries provide to developing countries[1] to help support their climate related efforts. This is in recognition of the fact that the countries that need the highest financial support in transitioning to a carbon-free economy are mostly the ones that are the least responsible for global warming (Hodgkins, 2022). The principle of Common But Differentiated Responsibilities and Respective Capabilities (CBDR-RC) is thus enshrined in the UN Climate Agreements (Article 3 (1) of the UNFCCC, and Article 2 (2) of the Paris Agreement), acknowledging the disparities among countries in terms of historical emissions and economic capability to pay. Nevertheless, a number of developed countries are falling short of paying their fair share of climate financing (see also 'The funding gap' section below) (Watson & Schalatek, 2024).

Climate Finance can be divided into two major categories: mitigation and adaptation. Mitigation includes all the investments necessary to transition to a net-zero economy in terms of carbon emission by implementing less polluting and renewable energy-, industrial-, and transportation systems.

1 The use of the terms 'developed' and 'developing' countries are used according to the official UNFCCC text.

Adaptation finance refers to investments that help communities to strengthen resilience towards increasingly challenging environmental conditions. This can include innovation and renovation work making buildings and transportation more resistant to climate disasters, as well as taking measures to prevent massive decline of agricultural production due to heat-waves and water scarcity, or building coastal defences.

Financing to cover losses and damages as consequences of climate change can be considered a third pillar of climate finance. It involves reconstruction and assistance after extreme weather events, or slow onset events as the rising sea levels. Further, it consists of compensating communities or even countries for declining revenue sources, e. g. villages that rely on fishing for their livelihoods in regions where fish species are migrating or dying off due to acidification and changing temperatures (Hodgkins, 2022). At COP27, parties agreed to establish a new Loss and Damage Fund (LDF) and assigned a Transitional Committee to undertake the technical work necessary to develop the LDF's modalities and address broader funding arrangements to respond to loss and damage. The LDF is expected to provide support to countries already experiencing severe impacts from human-induced climate change (Richards, Schalatek, Achampong, & White, 2023).

Public and private climate finance

In 2021/2022, both private and public actors contributed to worldwide climate finance flows to approximately the same extent. The energy, transport, building and infrastructure sectors are generally prioritised by both public and private sources, while public finance also helps target relatively underserved sectors, such as AFOLU (agriculture, forestry and other land use), water, wastewater, and industry.

In 2021/2022, there has been a 91 % increase in climate finance provided by public actors who committed an annual average of USD 640 billion compared to 335 billion in 2019/2020. Development finance institutions, such as the Green Climate Fund (GCF), continue to provide the majority of public finance, channeling 57% of all public finance.

Private finance is likewise growing (625 billion in 2021/2022 compared to USD 318 billion in 2019/2020), but not at the rate and scale required. The largest private sector growth came from household spending (31 % of all private finance), supported by strong domestic fiscal policies to promote low-carbon technologies. Therefore, most private finance was concentrated in the US, Western Europe, and other developed economies, and mainly targeted mitigation efforts (Buchner, et al., 2023).

The funding gap

Despite the substantial increase in investment, there is still a significant financing gap in climate change adaptation and mitigation. According to the Global Landscape of Climate Finance 2023, the estimated amount needed to mitigate and adapt to climate change ranges from USD 5.4 trillion to USD 11.7 trillion per year until 2030. However, the climate finance flows in 2021/ 2022 barely exceeded USD 1.3 trillion, which represents only 1% of the global GBP. Climate finance must increase steadily and by at least five-fold annually to confine the impacts of climate change to a manageable level.

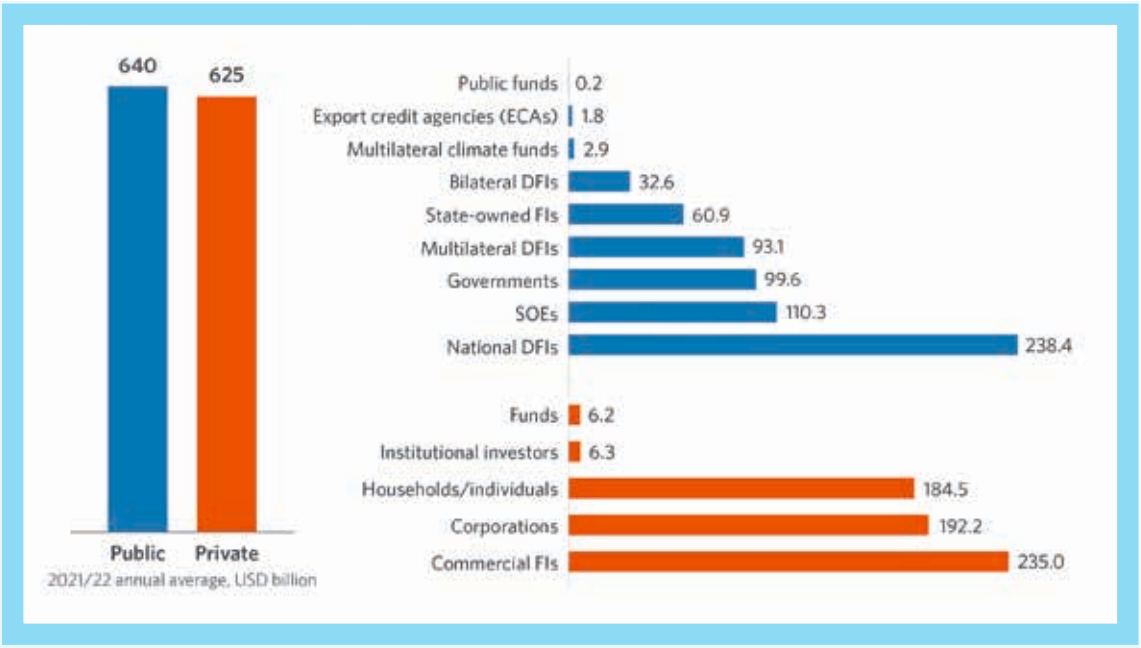


Figure 27: Sources of public and private climate finance (Buchner, et al., 2023)

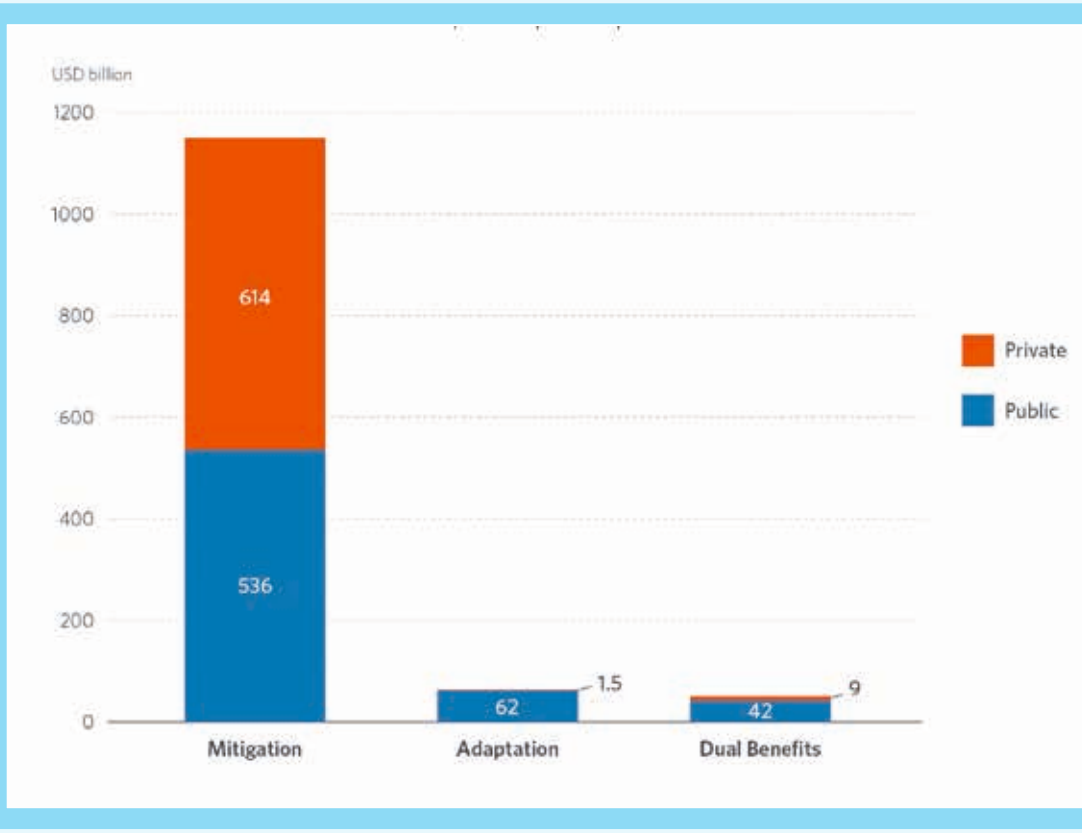


Figure 28: Use of climate finance with private-public split (Buchner, et al., 2023)

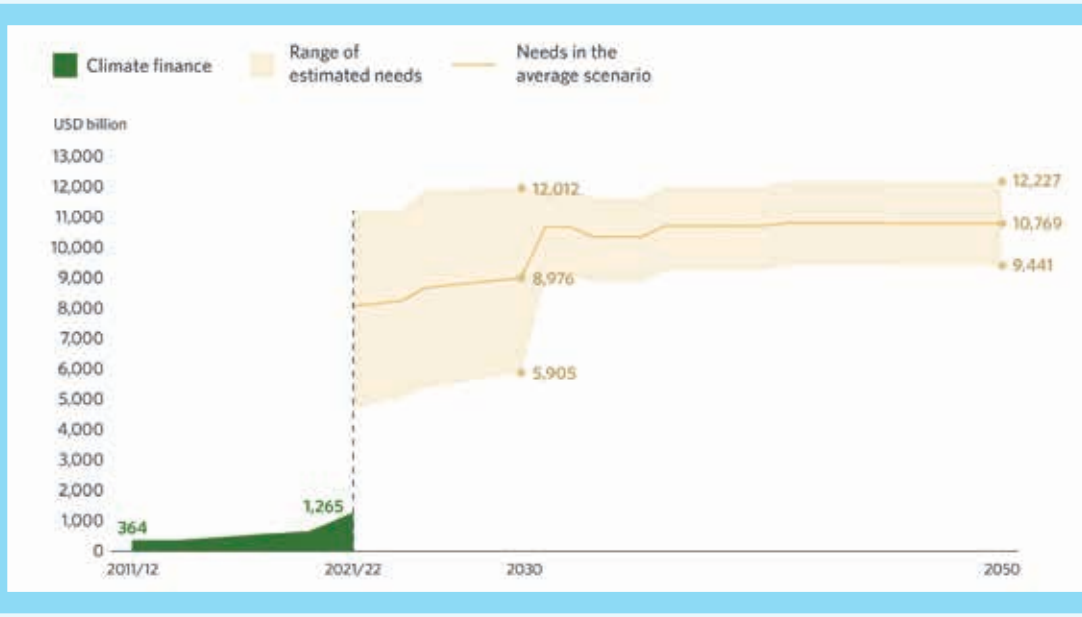


Figure 29: Global tracked climate finance and average estimated annual needs (Buchner, et al., 2023)

Additionally, investments in climate action continue to be largely concentrated on mitigation actions (USD 1.2 trillion per year), mainly in the field of renewable energy (44% of total mitigation finance, USD 510 billion per year in 2021/2022) and clean transport (29% of total mitigation finance, USD 334 billion per year, in 2021/2022). Nevertheless, mitigation finance needs to surpass USD 8.4 trillion per year between now and 2030, and to rise to USD 10.4 trillion per year in the following two decades.

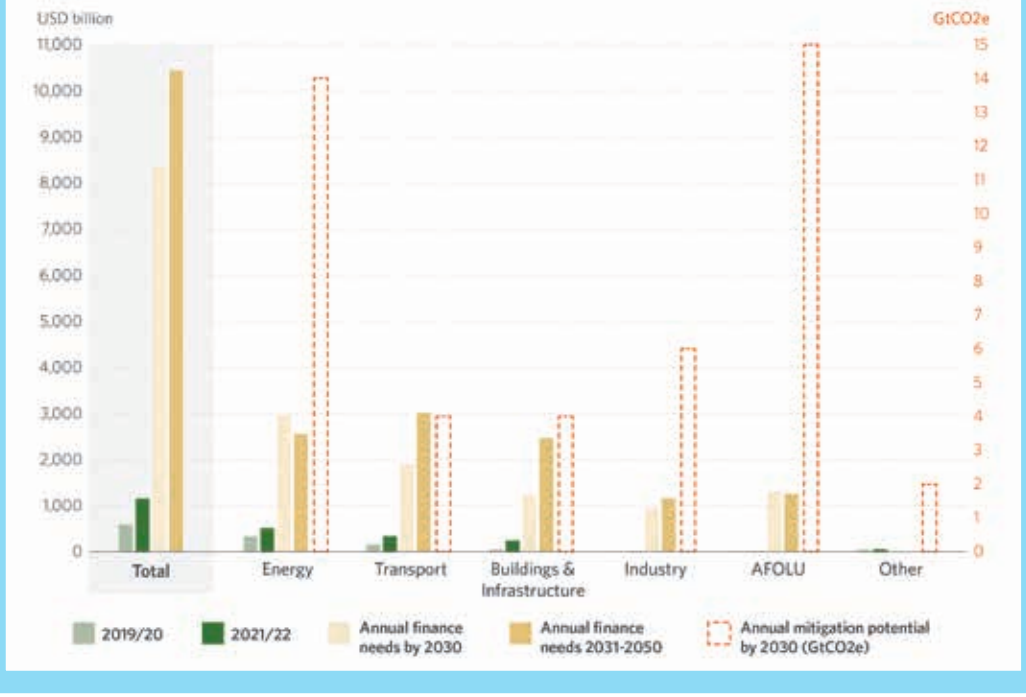


Figure 30: Climate finance flows in key mitigation sectors, finance needs, mitigation potential (Buchner, et al., 2023)

Meanwhile, investment in adaptation is estimated at 63 USD billion, representing just 5% of global total climate finance in 2021-2022 although the Paris Agreement's call for a balance in the provision of mitigation and adaptation finance. This can be explained by the fact that adaptation action does not produce immediate return on investments which prevents mostly private actors from investing (see also Figure 28: Use of climate finance with private-public split).

The financing in adaptation barely covers the need for around 212 USD billion per year up to 2030 (and USD 239 billion per year between 2031 and 2050) required for adaptation measures in developing countries (Buchner, et al., 2023).

Perspective

The gap between the estimated needs per year until 2030 (USD 5.4 trillion to USD 11.7 trillion) and the present investments (USD 1.3 trillion) is large. However, the necessary funds are available and only requires redistributing or reallocating global spending. This is illustrated by the fact that the estimated global military expenditure in 2022 (USD 2.2 trillion), the global fossil fuel subsidies in the

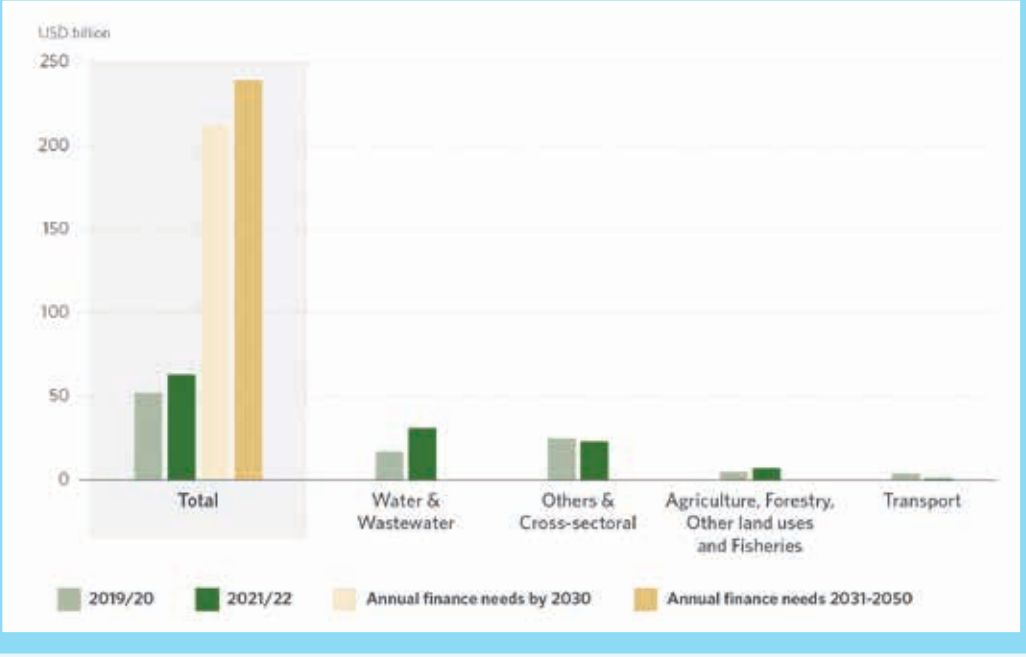


Figure 31: Adaptation finance by sector vs. needs (Buchner, et al., 2023)

same year (USD 7 trillion), as well as the globally announced fiscal emergency measures in 2020 in response to the COVID-19 pandemic (USD 11.7 trillion) estimated by the International Monetary Fund (IMF), exceed all climate finance by far.

duced events. The fact that only 5% of global total climate finance is grant-based is problematic from a quality point of view. Moreover, climate finance providers oftentimes have different approval processes and eligibility criteria which repre-

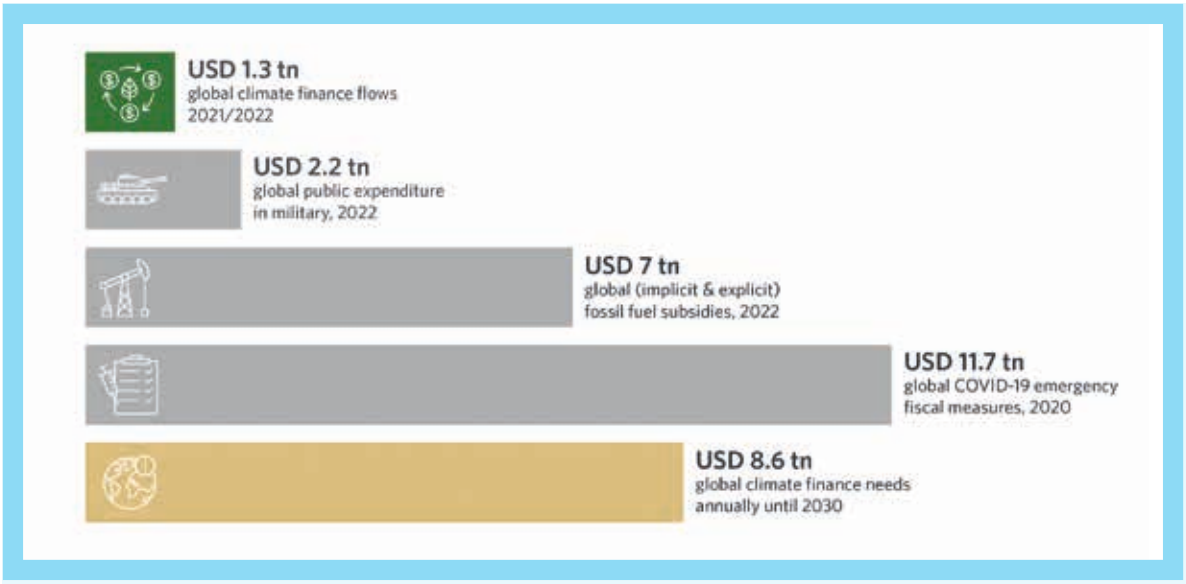


Figure 32: Climate finance in context (Buchner, et al., 2023)

Instruments

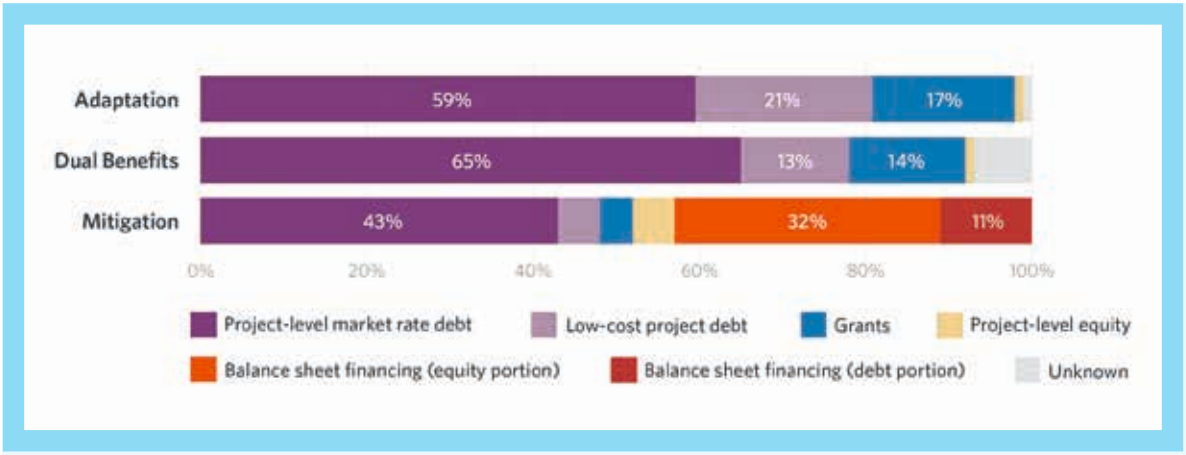


Figure 33: Climate finance by use and instrument (Buchner, et al., 2023)

According to Global Landscape of Climate Finance 2023 debt was the most common financial instrument used to channel climate finance globally (61%, USD 766 billion) with a smaller role played by equity (33%, USD 422 billion) and grants (or 5%, USD 69 billion) (Buchner, et al., 2023).

Quality and quantity

The predominance of climate finance in the form of debt has been a major concern among developing countries. These countries, as some of the most climate-vulnerable, are put in a debt trap as they struggle to cope with increased climate-in-

sent an important administrative challenge for developing country stakeholders and puts appropriate climate finance out of reach for numerous local communities (Watson & Schalatek, 2024).

Climate finance and gender justice

Climate change disproportionately affects the most vulnerable populations, including children, women, the disabled, and the elderly, particularly those who rely heavily on natural resources. As the World Bank blog highlights: "women often bear a disproportionate responsibility for securing food, water, and fuel, tasks that become more challen-

ging in contexts of environmental degradation" (Franziska Deininger, 2023). Given this heightened impact, it is crucial that climate finance addresses these disparities by integrating and mutually reinforcing both gender and climate goals to ensure more equitable and effective solutions.

There is growing awareness about the intersections between gender and climate among climate actors. In 2021-22, 46% of gender-focused Official Development Assistance (ODA) also targeted climate change adaptation, mitigation, or both, while 58% of climate-related ODA from DAC members also aimed to address gender-related objectives (Gualberti & Xu, 2024). However, the gender-responsiveness of climate finance mechanisms need to improve to ensure that climate finance is effective and equitable.

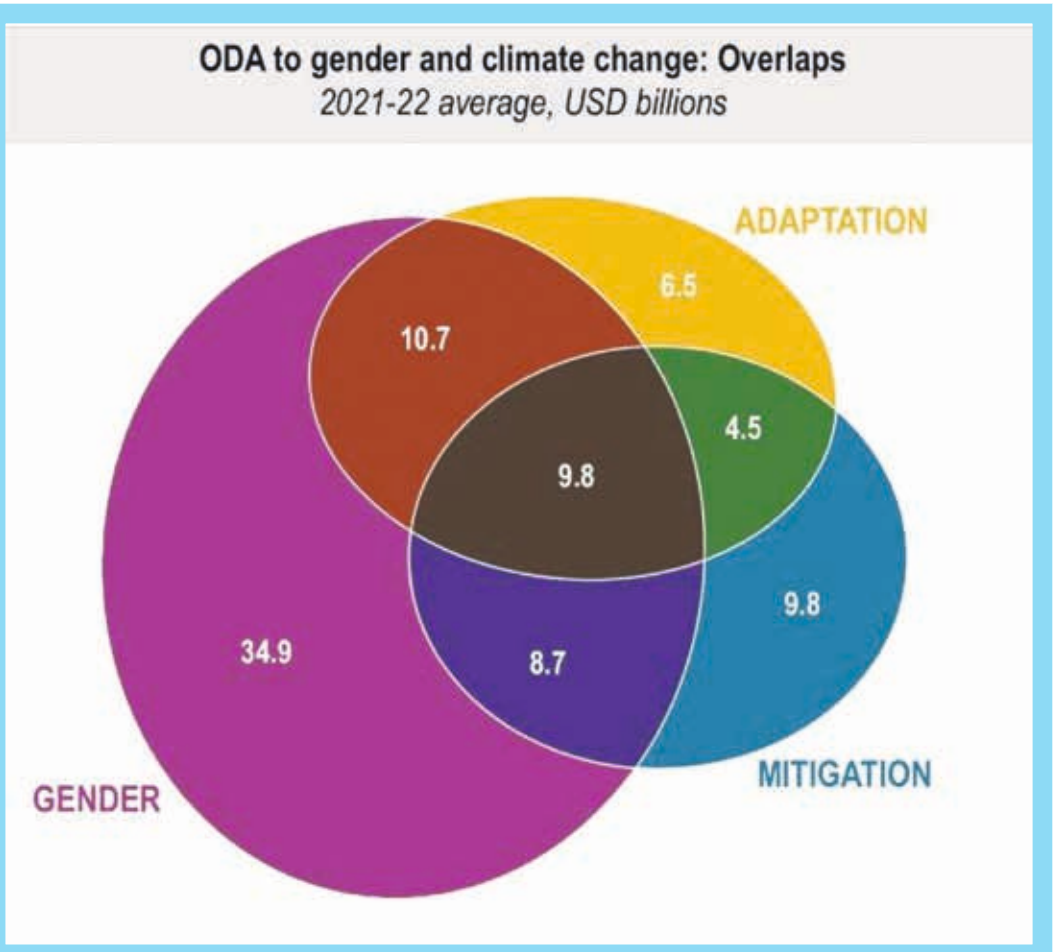


Figure 34: Gender Lens investing in the Gobal Investment Landscape (UNDP F. U., 2023)



Figure 35: ODA to gender and climate change: Overlaps (Gualberti & Xu, 2024)

4.3. Climate Finance Landscape

The different flows in different countries
Even if there has been a growth in global climate finance, it has already been shown above that this increase is neither sufficient, nor consistent across sectors. Also, on the geographical level there are investment gaps to the detriment of the countries who are the most affected by climate change and dependent on external financial support. According to the Global Landscape of Climate Finance 2023, less than 3% of the global total (USD 30 billion) went to or within least developed countries (LDCs), while 15% went to or within emerging and developing economies (EMDEs) excluding China. The ten countries most affected by climate change between 2000 and 2019 received just USD 23 billion; less than 2% of total climate finance. On the contrary, high income economies, thanks to substantial private sources, continue to benefit from the vast majority of global climate finance: East Asia and the Pacific, the US and Canada, and Western Europe mobilise 84% of total climate finance (Buchner, et al., 2023).

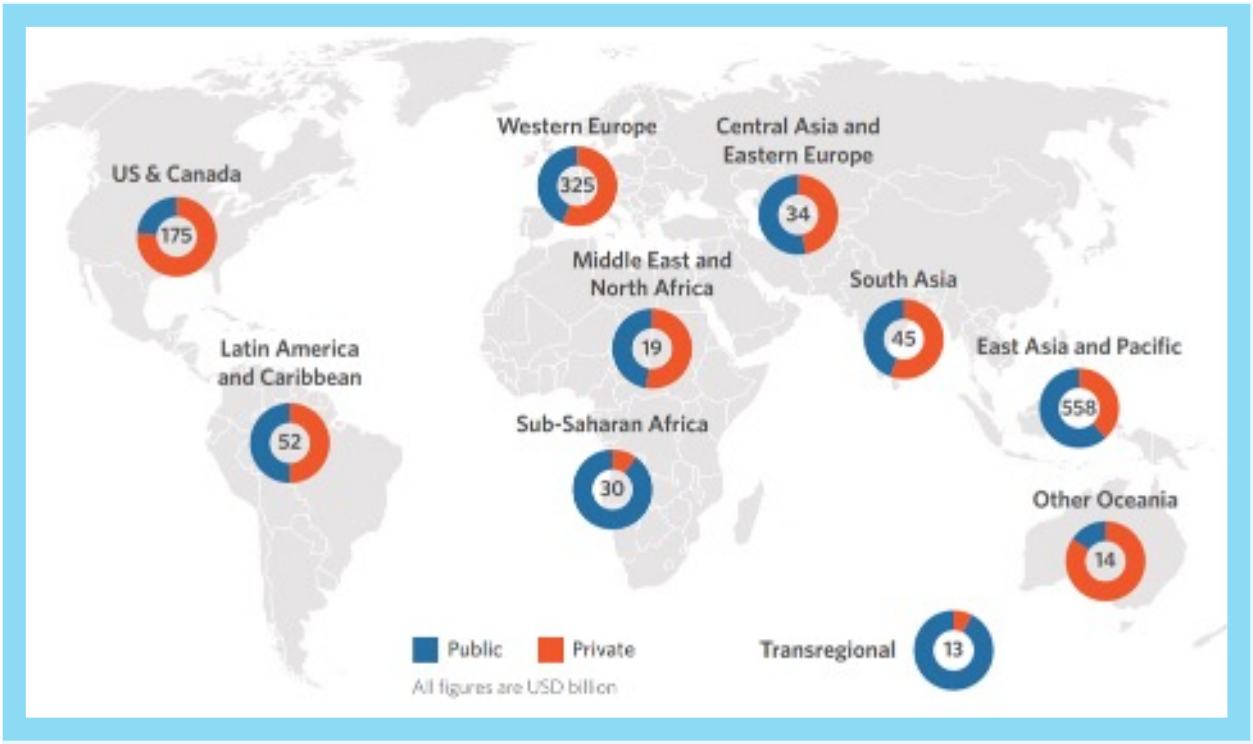


Figure 36: Public vs. private climate finance by region (Buchner, et al., 2023)

The following figure reflects the complexity of climate finance flows. It shows the complex network of global climate finance, with various contributors, including countries and international financial institutions.

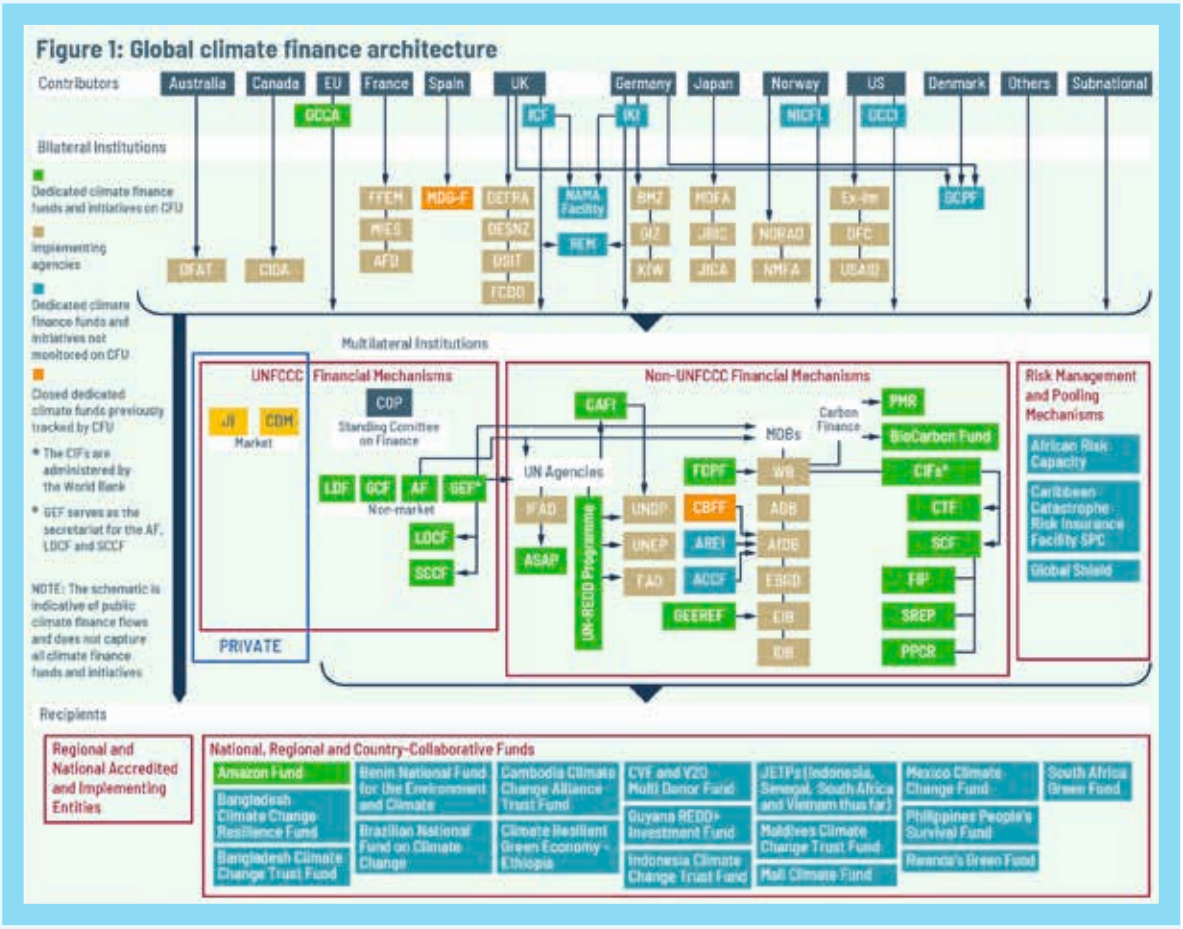


Figure 37: Global climate finance architecture (Watson, Schalatek, & Evéquoz, 2024)

In 2021/2022, 84% of tracked climate finance, equaling USD 1 trillion was raised and spent domestically.

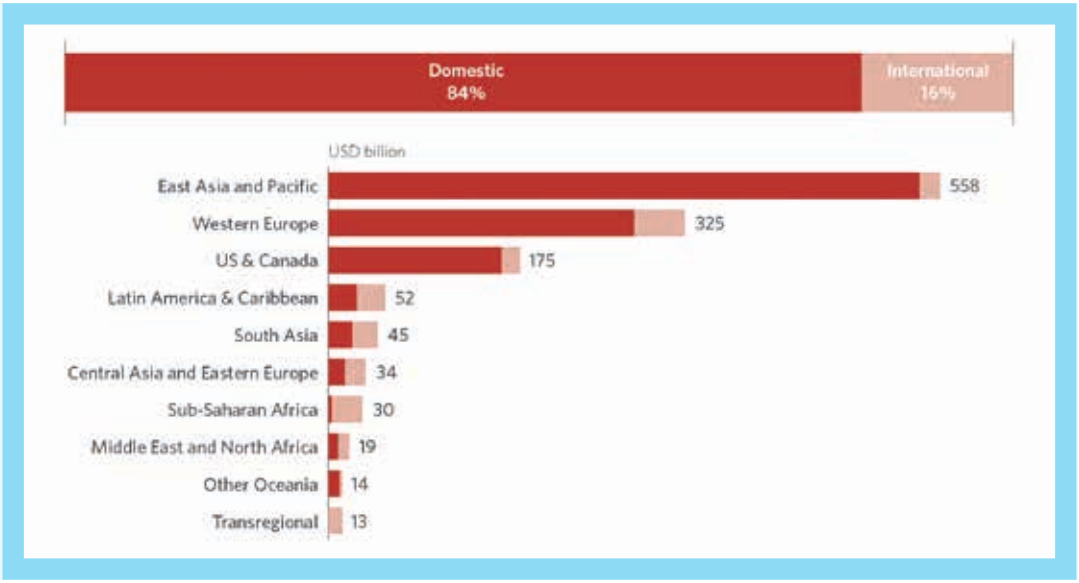


Figure 38: Domestic and international climate finance by destination region (Buchner, et al., 2023)

The Green Climate Fund (GCF) has an important role in driving climate action in Small Island Developing States (SIDS), which are particularly vulnerable to the adverse impacts of climate change.

GCF has approved USD 2.5 billion across 464 projects in SIDS between 2003 and 2022, with over half of this funding focused on adaptation efforts.

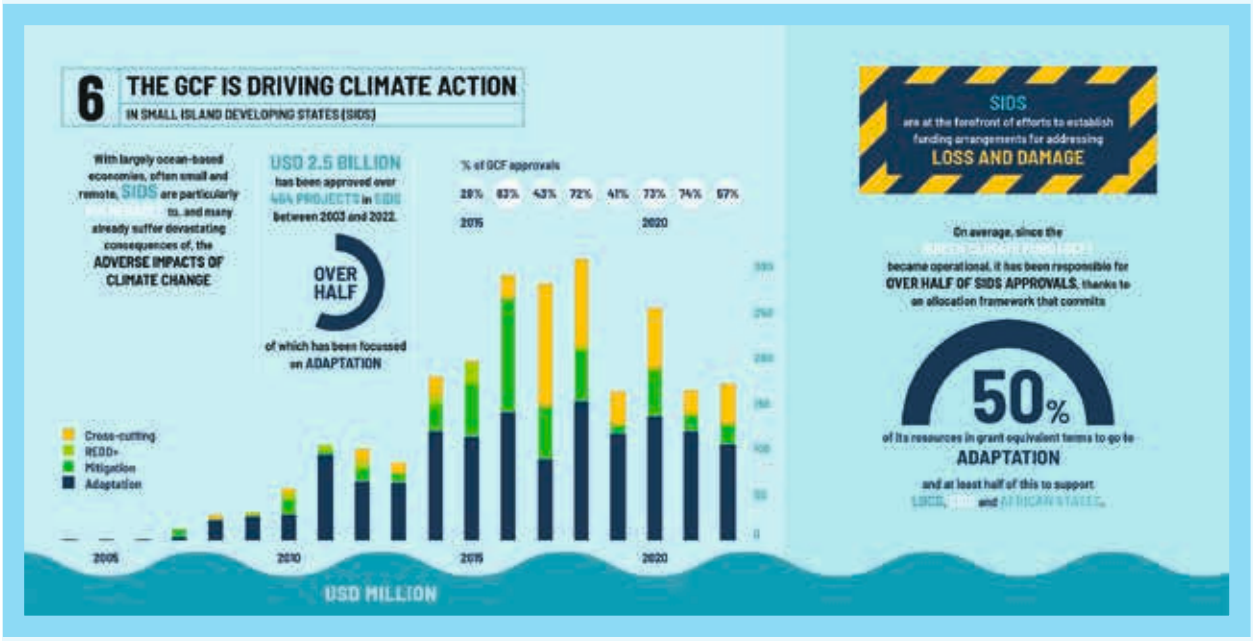


Figure 39: The role of the Green Climate Fund in Small Island Developing States (Watson & Schalatek, 2023)

4.4. International Public Climate Funds

The global climate finance architecture comprises a network of international, regional, and national funds and mechanisms designed to support climate mitigation and adaptation efforts, particularly in low-income countries. Key components include the Green Climate Fund (GCF), the Climate Investment Funds (CIF), and specialised programmes like the Adaptation Fund (AF) and the Global Environment Facility (GEF). Multilateral Development Banks (MDBs), such as the World Bank, Asian Development Bank (ADB), and African Development Bank (AfDB), are central to this architecture, serving as major conduits for climate finance. They mobilise and distribute funds, provide technical assistance, and support policy development to help countries implement large-scale, sustainable projects that align with global climate goals.

Green Climate Fund (GCF)

The Green Climate Fund is the world's largest multilateral climate fund with a cumulative pledged funding of approximately USD 15 billion in 2024 (Green Climate Fund, 2024). It was established in 2010 and made operational in 2015 as a part of the financial mechanism of both the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and the Paris Agreement. Its major aim is to support the implementation of low-carbon and climate-resilient development pathways, especially in developing countries – all developing country parties to the UNFCCC are eligible to receive resources from the GCF – in order to enhance their ability to respond to climate change and reduce their greenhouse gas emissions. GCF also seeks for a balance between adaptation and mitigation finance, and further takes a gender-sensitive approach (Climate Funds Update, Heinrich Böll Stiftung, 2024).

Despite GCF's commitment to gender equality in its policies, in a study by Liane Schalatek, Elaine Zuckerman and Eliza McCullough (2021), 90% of the sampled project/programs (P/Ps) fail to meet the mandate to promote gender equality comprehensively. This shortcoming undermines the GCF's ability to address the disproportionate impacts of climate change on women and marginalised gender groups. The authors recommend that all GCF P/Ps must robustly incorporate gender issues throughout all stages of the project cycle to improve outcomes and contribute to broader transformative goals (Schalatek, Zuckerman, & McCullough, 2021).

Adaptation Fund (AF)

Established in 2001 and made operational in 2009, the Adaptation Fund is a financial instrument under the UNFCCC and its Kyoto Protocol, aiming to increase resilience through concrete adaptation

programmes and projects in countries, communities and sectors that are and will be facing the damaging effects of climate change. The supported programmes primarily cover food security, agriculture, water management, and disaster risk reduction in vulnerable countries. In November 2020, the Fund's total financial contributions received over time amounted to approximately USD 1.05 billion (Climate Funds Update, Heinrich Böll Stiftung, 2024).

Global Environment Facility (GEF)
The Global Environment Facility was co-founded in 1991 by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), and the World Bank. It is a multilateral family of funds addressing topics related to climate change, pollution and biodiversity loss with the aim of promoting land and ocean health. It has a strong focus in supporting developing countries work towards international environmental goals and in strengthening their climate resilience. The replenishment cycle during the period of 2022-2026 is estimated to amount to USD 5.33 billion and the total financing of projects in 2023/2024 amounts to USD 1,657 billion (GEF, 2024).

Further, GEF administers the Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF) as a specialised trust fund and serves as a basis for programming resources.

Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF)
The Least Developed Countries Fund was founded in 2001 (made operational in 2002), at the 7th Conference of the Parties to address the adaptation needs of least developed countries in sectors including water, agriculture and food security, health, disaster risk management and prevention, infrastructure and fragile ecosystems. LDCF has the largest panel of adaptation projects of its kind and in November 2020 its cumulative pledges amount to USD 1.6 billion (Climate Funds Update, Heinrich Böll Stiftung, 2024).

Climate Investment Fund (CIF)
The Climate Investment Funds (CIF) is a global finance mechanism, managed by the World Bank, that is designed to support developing countries in their efforts to mitigate and adapt to climate change. Established in 2008, the CIF is one of the largest multilateral climate finance mechanisms in the world. It has two main funds. First, the Clean Technology Fund (CTF), which provides financing to scale up low-carbon technologies with a significant potential for reducing greenhouse gas emissions (renewable energy, energy efficiency, and sustainable transport). Second, the Strategic Climate Fund (SCF), which supports three targeted programmes (Watson, Schalatek, & Evéquoz, 2024):

- Pilot Program for Climate Resilience (PPCR), which aims to help countries integrate climate resilience into development planning,
- Forest Investment Program (FIP), which focuses on reducing deforestation and forest degradation and promoting sustainable forest management; and,
- Scaling Up Renewable Energy Program (SREP), which supports the deployment of renewable energy in low-income countries.

UN-REDD
The UN-REDD Programme (Reduce Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation) is a collaborative initiative by the United Nations launched in 2008 to support countries in their efforts to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation.

The UN-REDD Programme is jointly managed by three UN agencies:

1. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)
2. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
3. The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) (UN-REDD Programme, 2016)

4.5. Situation in Colombia, Georgia, and Uganda

Colombia

Colombia has committed to reducing its greenhouse gas emissions by 51% by 2030, a significant increase from its initial target of 20% (GGGI, n.d.).

Colombia is engaged in climate finance, leveraging resources from the Green Climate Fund (GCF) to advance its climate commitments under the Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC).

The country has secured substantial funding for various projects, with a total of USD 316.3 million in GCF financing across multiple initiatives. These projects include both mitigation and adaptation efforts, such as the Heritage Colombia (HECO) project, which focuses on sustainably managing landscapes, and climate-smart initiatives aimed at enhancing agricultural sustainability. Colombia has benefited from readiness support, with 18 activities approved, amounting to USD 7.1 million (Green Climate Fund, Republic of Colombia, n.d.)

Georgia

Georgia also uses climate finance through its engagement with the Green Climate Fund (GCF), to combat climate change. The country has secured USD 128.6 million in GCF financing across five projects, focusing on both mitigation and adaptation efforts. Notable initiatives include the project aimed at enabling a forest sector reform to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and the scaling-up of a multi-hazard early warning system to enhance climate resilience. Additionally, Georgia has received USD 4.2 million in readiness support across eight activities, which strengthens its capacity to implement climate projects effectively (Green Climate Fund, Georgia, n.d.).

In Georgia, 7 out of 22 registered private banks provide eco or climate loans. The conditions of these credit lines are negotiated on an individual basis and depend on the financial stability of the client. None of the banks researched has listed clear conditions for consumers or businesses to access these loans on their websites. There are no indications that green loans have conditions that are more favourable than 'normal' loans, or are more accessible for groups in vulnerable situations (WECF Georgia, 2024).

Uganda

Uganda is also engaged in climate finance initiatives through the Green Climate Fund (GCF). Uganda has secured USD 100.9 million in GCF financing across multiple projects, also with a focus on both adaptation and mitigation efforts. A key project includes building resilient communities and wetland ecosystems in Uganda, aimed at enhancing climate resilience. Uganda has also received USD 4.6 million in readiness support through three activities, bolstering its capacity to implement these climate initiatives effectively (Green Climate Fund, Republic of Uganda, n.d.).

4.6. Exercises

Global Climate Finance Architecture Mapping
The objective of this exercise is to give the participants an overview of the various Climate Finance Funds functional at national, regional and global levels. The exercise is taken from the Training manual on gender and climate resilience, where you can find many more examples (Chauhan, 2021).

Materials Required:
Whiteboard and marker pens; copies of Handout (see Annex)

Step 1: Divide the participants into pairs. Give each pair any of the fund details from Handout. Ask them to go through these and discuss (10 minutes).

Step 2: Encourage them to imagine that they are the fund representative and will be presenting their fund at a national level meeting on climate finance (5 minutes).

Step 3: Get all participants in a plenary and ask each pair to share the key features of their fund. At the end, ask the participants to reflect on the following:

- Which are dedicated climate funds?
- Which of the funds have more focus on adaptation and which have more on mitigation?
- Which of the funds have the most scope for CSO engagement?

Step 4: Show the film on Gender-Responsive Climate Finance. Ask the participants to reflect on this question: which funds they think have more potential for gender mainstreaming?

Learning Output: End the session with a quick recap of all the existing climate funds.

5. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this manual serves as a resource for understanding and addressing the intricate interconnections between climate justice, gender equality, and climate finance. It provides essential insights and practical tools that aim to support stakeholders, especially women and girls, in implementing gender-responsive climate actions. By focusing on the experiences and contexts of Colombia, Georgia, and Uganda, the manual highlights the importance of tailoring climate policies to the specific needs of different populations and emphasises the role of civil society, feminist grassroot organisations in driving change.
The project „Gender & Climate - Promoting a gender-responsive implementation of the Paris Climate Agreement," funded by BMZ and implemented by Women Engage for a Common Future and its partners, is a step towards achieving climate justice and gender equality. The training materials and methodologies outlined in this manual are designed to build the capacities of climate actors, ensuring that climate actions are both effective and equitable.

As climate change continues to pose severe challenges globally, the need for inclusive and gender-responsive approaches has never been more critical. This manual, therefore, not only contributes to the knowledge base but also serves as a practical guide for implementing gender-transformative climate policies. The collective efforts of all stakeholders involved in this project are crucial in advancing the goals of the Paris Agreement and ensuring that no one is left behind in the fight against climate change.

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ANNEX

Exercises under 4.6. "Global Climate Finance Architecture Mapping"
(to be found on p.68)

All handouts are from the "Training manual on gender and climate change resilience" from EmPower and UN Women (Women & EmPower, 2021).

BRIEF OVERVIEW OF VARIOUS CLIMATE FINANCE MECHANISMS[13]

MULTILATERAL CHANNELS FOR CLIMATE FINANCE:

- Often break from contributor country-dominated governance structures, typical in development finance institutions.
- Gives developing country governments greater voice and representation in decision-making.
- Over the years, various steps to increase inclusion and accountability in multilateral climate fund governance were taken, including creating a role for non-governmental stakeholders as observers to fund meetings.

A. GLOBAL ENVIRONMENT FACILITY (GEF)

TYPE
UNFCCC Financial Mechanism. Supports multiple conventions. Its decision-making body is the GEF Council. The GEF now includes representation from 182 member-governments and works with 18 implementing partners, acting as a secretariat to funnel money to these organizations. GEF also provides funding for other environmental projects like bio-diversity and land use along with climate change.

YEAR: 1991

FUND BASE AND SIZE

- 6th replenishment (2014- 2018): 30 donor countries pledged US$1.26 billion for climate change.
- 7th replenishment period (2019-2022): 30 countries pledged US$654 million for climate change.

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
Projects approved by the GEF range in size, from up to US$1 million for "enabling activities," between US$1-2 million for "medium-sized" projects, and over US$2 million for "full sized." As of December 2019, through the fourth, fifth, six and seventh Trust Fund, GEF approved over 750 projects in the focal area of climate change amounting to US$2.8 billion.

A1. LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES FUND (LDCF)

TYPE
UNFCCC mechanism administered by GEF to support national adaptation plan development and implementation, although largely through smaller scale projects.

YEAR: 2001

FUND BASE AND SIZE
Country ceiling for funding of US$20 million.

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
As of December 2019, the LDCF made cash transfers to projects of US$534 million.

A2. SPECIAL CLIMATE CHANGE FUND (SCCF)

TYPE
UNFCCC mechanism administered by GEF to support national adaptation plan development and implementation, although largely through smaller scale projects.

YEAR: 2001

FUND BASE AND SIZE
Country ceiling for funding of US$20 million.

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
As of December 2019, the SCCF made cash transfers of US$181 million.

B. ADAPTATION FUND (AF)

TYPE
UNFCCC mechanism, which, as of 1 January 2019, also started serving the Paris Agreement, in line with the newly-approved 5-year Medium-Term Strategy 2018-2022, based on pillars of Action, Innovation, and Knowledge and Sharing.

The fund is managed by the AF Board which meets twice a year.

Provides direct access to climate finance for developing countries through accredited National Implementing Entities that are able to meet agreed fiduciary as well as environmental, social and gender standards.[14]

YEAR: 2011

FUND BASE AND SIZE
Financed through a 2 per cent levy on the sale of emission credits from the Clean Development Mechanism of the Kyoto Protocol, along with developed country grant contributions.

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
As of 30 June 2019, 84 projects for a total amount of US$560.6 million were approved for funding. In addition, the Board approved 56 project formulation grants for a total of US$2.3 million. Sixty projects are currently under implementation, for a total grant amount of US$384.8 million. A total of US$350.20 million (62.8 per cent of approved amount) were transferred to implementing entities.

BRIEF OVERVIEW OF VARIOUS CLIMATE FINANCE MECHANISMS

C. GREEN CLIMATE FUND (GCF)

TYPE
UNFCCC mechanism also mandated to serve the Paris Agreement.

Expected to be the primary channel for international public climate finance and is the largest fund by amount of available and anticipated funding.

A commitment to a 50:50 balance between adaptation and mitigation.

Developing countries can access the GCF through Multilateral Development Banks (MDBs), international commercial banks and UN agencies, as well as directly through accredited National, Regional and Sub-National Implementing Entities. The GCF was founded with a strong emphasis on the principle of country ownership. Each country has a national designated authority (NDA), often a ministry of finance or environment, with a designated focal point to serve as the representative between an NDA and GCF.

YEAR: 2010

FUND BASE AND SIZE
1st replenishment (2020-2023): 29 donor countries pledged US$9.78 billion for climate change.

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
By October 2019, the implementing partner network of the GCF grew to 95 Accredited Entities.

GCF already supported 126 developing countries in building readiness to implement climate finance and committed US$5.21 billion for 111 projects in 99 countries.

A total of 65 projects valued at US$2.82 billion in GCF funding are under implementation and helping developing countries to transform their climate ambitions into action.

D. CLIMATE INVESTMENT FUNDS (CIFS)

TYPE
Non-UNFCCC mechanism administered by the World Bank.

Operated in partnership with regional development banks including:
> African Development Bank (AfDB)
> Asian Development Bank (ADB)
> European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD)
> Inter-American Development Bank (IDB)

Finances programmatic interventions in developing countries with an aim to understand how public finance can be best deployed to assist transformational development trajectories.

Had a sunset clause which was indefinitely postponed in 2019.

YEAR: 2008

FUND BASE AND SIZE
Total pledge of US$8.3 billion by 14 contributor countries.

As it functions on a co-financing structure, it anticipates that its portfolio of over 300 projects generated an additional US$58 billion in co-financing.

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
Provides 72 countries with resources.

D1. CLEAN TECHNOLOGY FUND

TYPE
Provides middle-income countries with highly concessional resources to scale up the demonstration, development and transfer of low carbon technologies in renewable energy, energy efficiency and sustainable transport.

YEAR: 2008

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$5.4 billion in contributions.

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
By December 2019, US$1.65 billion in cash transfers to projects to-date.

D2. CLEAN TECHNOLOGY FUND

TYPE
Supports the Pilot Program for Climate Resilience (PPCR), Scaling Up Renewable Energy in Low-Income Countries Program (SREP), and the Forest Investment Program (FIP).

YEAR: 2008

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$2.61 billion in contributions.

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
By December 2019, US$818 million in cash transfers to projects.

BRIEF OVERVIEW OF VARIOUS CLIMATE FINANCE MECHANISMS

D2.1 PILOT PROGRAM FOR CLIMATE RESILIENCE (PPCR)

TYPE
Helps developing countries integrate climate resilience into development planning and offers concessional and grant funding to support private and public sector investments for implementation.

The PPCR invests in some of the world's most vulnerable countries. At the frontline of climate change are small island developing states (SIDS).

YEAR: 2008

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$1.2 billion

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
The PPCR supported SIDS with US$250 million for nine Caribbean and Pacific island nations, providing 20 per cent of PPCR resources. PPCR also invested more than US$200 million for most vulnerable countries to upgrade climate data and services for climate-smart project design.

D2.2 FOREST INVESTMENT PROGRAM (FIP)

TYPE
Supports efforts of developing countries to reduce deforestation and forest degradation, and to promote sustainable forest management that leads to emissions' reductions and enhancement of forest carbon stocks (REDD+).

There is also a Dedicated Grant Mechanism for Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities (DGM) implemented under the programme which provides grants on a smaller scale directly to civil society organizations (CSOs) rather than through national governments.

YEAR: 2008

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$775 million

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
Thus far, the DGM approved US$51 million USD in 10 different projects throughout the world. In the Asia-Pacific region, DGM works only in its pilot countries, including Indonesia, Nepal, and Lao PDR.

D2.3 SCALING-UP RENEWABLE ENERGY PROGRAM FOR LOW INCOME COUNTRIES (SREP)

TYPE
Helps deploy renewable energy solutions for increased energy access and economic growth in the world's poorest countries.

YEAR: 2008

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$720 million

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
The SREP is one of the biggest global funders of mini-grids with over US$200 million for projects in 14 countries.

E. MULTILATERAL DEVELOPMENT BANKS (MDBS)

E1. FOREST CARBON PARTNERSHIP FACILITY (FCPF)

TYPE
Administered by the World Bank to explore how carbon market revenues could be harnessed to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation, forest conservation, sustainable forest management and the enhancement of forest carbon stocks (REDD+).

YEAR: 2008

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$1.3 billion from 17 donors

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
The FCPF supports REDD+ efforts through its Readiness Fund (US$400 million) and Carbon Funds (US$900 million) in 47 developing countries across Africa, Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean.

E2. PARTNERSHIP FOR MARKET READINESS (PMR)

TYPE
Administered by the World Bank, the PMR aims at helping developing countries establish market-based mechanisms to respond to climate change.

YEAR: 2010

FUND BASE AND SIZE
As of 31 March 31, 2015, total committed contributions amounted to about US$126.5 million, while total received contributions equalled US$127 million.

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
The PMR brings together more than 30 countries, various international organizations and technical experts to facilitate country-to-country exchange and knowledge sharing, leading to enhanced cooperation and innovation.

BRIEF OVERVIEW OF VARIOUS CLIMATE FINANCE MECHANISMS

E3. BIO CARBON FUND INITIATIVE FOR SUSTAINABLE FOREST LANDSCAPES (ISFL)

TYPE
Administered by World Bank, ISFL is a public-private partnership. It promotes reducing Green House Gas (GHG) emissions from the land sector, including efforts to reduce deforestation and forest degradation in developing countries (REDD+), sustainable agriculture, as well as smarter land-use planning, policies and practices.

YEAR: 2013

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$355 million

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
The ISFL currently supports programs in Colombia, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Mexico, and Zambia.

E4. CLIMATE CHANGE FUND (CCF)

TYPE
Administered by the Asian Development Bank, the CCF facilitates investments in developing member countries (DMCs) to effectively address the causes and consequences of climate change, by strengthening support to low-carbon and climate-resilient development in DMCs.

YEAR: 2008

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$74 million

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
As of 31 December 2019, US$71.6 million of the US$74 million total fund resources (net of savings) was allocated to 118 projects: 44 on CE development, 66 on adaptation, 11 on REDD+ and land use, and one on climate finance readiness.

E5. ASIA-PACIFIC CLIMATE CHANGE FUND (ACLIFF)

TYPE
A multi-donor trust fund administered by the Asian Development Bank to support the development and implementation of financial risk management products that can help unlock capital for climate investments and improve resilience to the impact of climate change.

YEAR: 2017

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$33.3 million

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
Not Available

E6. URBAN CLIMATE CHANGE RESILIENCE TRUST FUND (UCCRTF)

TYPE
A multi-donor trust fund administered by the Asian Development Bank to support fast-growing cities in Asia to reduce the risks that poor and vulnerable people face from floods, storms or droughts, by helping to better plan and design infrastructure to invest against these impacts.

YEAR: 2013

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$150 million

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
As of December 2019, US$130 million was committed from the fund for various cities in Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines and Vietnam.

F. UN AGENCIES

F1. UNDP GEF SMALL GRANTS PROGRAMME

TYPE
Administered by UNDP, it provides financial and technical support to projects that conserve and restore the environment while enhancing people's well-being and livelihoods. The programme provides grants of up to US$50,000 directly to local communities, including indigenous people, community-based organizations and other non-governmental groups for projects in Biodiversity, Climate Change Mitigation and Adaptation, Land Degradation and Sustainable Forest Management, International Waters and Chemicals.

YEAR: 1992

FUND BASE AND SIZE
US$526 million

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
Around 5,391 projects with a total grant of US$159 million have been supported for climate change mitigation.

Around 798 projects with US$24 million grant have been supported for community-based adaptation to climate change

BRIEF OVERVIEW OF VARIOUS CLIMATE FINANCE MECHANISMS

F2. UN-REDD PROGRAMME

TYPE
Administered by UNDP, UNEP and the FAO to support REDD+ activities, with the governance structure giving a formal voice to representatives of civil society and Indigenous People's organizations.

YEAR: 20008

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
Over the past decade, the Programme worked with 64 partner countries to successfully achieve substantial climate, forest and development goals.

F3. ADAPTATION FOR SMALLHOLDER AGRICULTURE PROGRAMME (ASAP)

TYPE
Administered by International Fund for Agriculture and Development (IFAD) to support smallholder farmers in scaling up climate change adaptation in rural development programmes.

YEAR: 2012

FUND BASE AND SIZE
ASAP 1 (2012-2017): US$316.2 million, ASAP 2: US$100 million

PROJECTS SUPPORTED
As of August 2018, 42 projects have signed government agreements; 37 approved projects have started disbursement totalling US$80 million. US$292.6 million was channelled to at least eight million smallholder farmers to build their resilience to climate-related shocks and stresses.

BILATERAL CHANNELS FOR CLIMATE FINANCE:

> Direct flow of funds from developed to developing countries in the form of Overseas Development Assistance or International Aid.
> Administered largely through existing development agencies although a number of countries have also set up special bilateral climate funds

A. INTERNATIONAL CLIMATE INITIATIVE

TYPE
Supported by Germany for mitigation, adaptation and REDD+ projects. The initiative is innovatively funded partly through sale of national tradable emission certificates, providing finance that is largely additional to existing development finance commitments.

YEAR: 2008

FUND DETAILS
Provided over US$4 billion for more than 700 mitigation, adaptation and REDD+ projects.

B. INTERNATIONAL CLIMATE FUND

TYPE
Supported by Government of UK.

YEAR: 2016

FUND DETAILS
Commitment of US$5.8 billion from 2016 through to 2021.

C. NAMA FACILITY

TYPE
Supported by Germany, Denmark, UK and the EC for nationally appropriate mitigation actions (NAMAs) in developing countries and emerging economies that want to implement ambitious mitigation measures.

FUND DETAILS
In January 2020, the NAMA Facility announced a new funding commitment of up to EUR60 million from Germany and the United Kingdom in support of the 7th Call for the submission of NSP Outlines. Furthermore, in recognition of both the strength of the NAMA Facility's project pipeline and the country's commitment to the NAMA Facility, the United Kingdom announced an additional contribution of up to EUR38 million to the NAMA Facility to support NSPs from past and future Calls.

D. INTERNATIONAL CLIMATE AND FOREST INITIATIVE

TYPE
Supported by Norway through bilateral partnerships, multilateral channels and Civil Society.

YEAR: 2008

FUND DETAILS
Pledged US$350 million each year. Sizeable pledges have been made for REDD+ activities in Brazil, Indonesia, Tanzania and Guyana.

BRIEF OVERVIEW OF VARIOUS CLIMATE FINANCE MECHANISMS

REGIONAL AND NATIONAL CHANNELS AND CLIMATE CHANGE FUNDS:

> Established by developing countries at regional and/or national level with a variety of forms and functions, resourced through international finance and/or domestic budget allocations and the domestic private sector.

A. INDONESIAN CLIMATE CHANGE TRUST FUND (ICCTF)

TYPE

A national funding entity which aims to develop innovative ways to link international finance sources with national investment strategies. Created by the Government of Indonesia (GOI), it acts as a catalyst to attract investment and to implement a range of alternative financing mechanisms for climate change mitigation and adaptation programmes.

YEAR: 2009

FUND DETAILS

The ICCTF receives non-refundable contributions from bilateral and multilateral donors. The main funding mechanism of the ICCTF is the 'Innovation Fund,' which provides grants to line ministries to support climate change-related projects within the GOI. With projects administered through UNDP, acting as the interim fund manager, eligible project duration was set to one year, while project budgets were capped at US$3 million.

B. BANGLADESH CLIMATE CHANGE TRUST FUND (BCCTF)

TYPE

A national fund established through the passage of the Climate Change Trust Act, 2010.

Administered by Palli Karma-Sahayak Foundation (PKSF) for funding of local NGOs for plantation, sanitation, Food security, capacity building and various kinds of research activities.

YEAR: 2010

FUND DETAILS

In one of the first moves, the Government of Bangladesh (GoB) set aside in FY 2009-2010 a budgetary allocation of BDT 700 crore (US$87.5 million equivalent) from its own resources for the trust. The finance ministry, GoB, regularly allocates around 100 crore taka (approximately US$12.5 million) each year to fund the many initiatives of the government, non-government organizations (NGOs) and research bodies in climate change and disaster management. The government continues to support this fund, and in 2016 allocated about US$400 million equivalent to the trust.

As on 30 November 2016, PKSF disbursed BDT 23.85 crore (approximately US$2.98) million among 61 NGOs.

C. CAMBODIA CLIMATE CHANGE ALLIANCE (CCCA) TRUST FUND

TYPE

The CCCA Trust Fund is a multi-donor trust fund, which was established by the CCCA donors and government to apply a more coherent approach to climate change support for Cambodia. The CCCA is implemented through a series of grants that finance activities attempting to address Cambodia's climate change challenges. The CCCA program supports capacity-building and institutional strengthening which are implemented by a grant facility. Initially, grant components are focused on building resilience to climate change in coastal areas, and strengthening climate change awareness, education and public information.

YEAR: 2006

FUND DETAILS

The CCCA Trust Fund is a sinking fund, where all the funds committed will have been disbursed by the end of the agreed project timeframe. The initial design was for the duration of three years (2010-2012), and approximately US$8.9 million was committed for that period. Donor contributions to the Trust Fund are pooled and not earmarked in anyway. The Trust Fund is open for additional contributions from new and existing donors. The Trust Fund is administered by UNDP and the operation of the Trust Fund is implemented according to UNDP rules and procedures.



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